# Commutative Algebra 1

Labix

May 18, 2025

Abstract

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### **Ideals Of a Commutative Ring**

### **Basic Operations on Ideals**

Recall that  $(R, +, \cdot)$  is a ring if the following axioms hold.

- (R, +) is an abelian group.
- Multiplicative Associativity:  $x \cdot (y \cdot z) = (x \cdot y) \cdot z$ .
- Multiplicative Identity: There exists  $1_R \in R$  such that  $x \cdot 1_R = x = 1_R \cdot x$  for all  $x \in R$ .
- Left distributivity:  $r \cdot (x + y) = r \cdot x + r \cdot y$  for all  $r, x, y \in R$ .
- Right distributivity:  $(x + y) \cdot r = x \cdot r + y \cdot r$  for all  $r, x, y \in R$ .

A ring R is commutative if

$$x \cdot y = y \cdot x$$

for all  $x, y \in R$ .

Let *R* be a commutative ring. Recall that an ideal of *R* is a subset  $I \subseteq R$  such that

- If  $a, b \in I$ , then  $a + b \in I$ .
- If  $r \in R$  and  $a \in I$ , then  $ra \in I$ .

**Lemma 1.1.1** Let R be a commutative ring. Let I, J be ideals of R. Let P be a prime ideal of R. Then the following are equivalent.

- $IJ \subseteq P$ .
- $I \cap J \subseteq P$ .
- $I \subseteq P$  or  $J \subseteq P$ .

**Proof** 

- (1)  $\implies$  (2): Let  $f \in I \cap J$ . Then  $f \in I$  and  $f \in J$  implies that  $f^2 \in IJ \subseteq P$ . Since P is prime, we conclude that  $f \in P$ .
- (2)  $\implies$  (3): Suppose that  $f \in I$  and  $f \notin P$ . For any  $g \in J$ , we have  $fg \in I \cap J \subseteq P$ . Since P is prime and  $f \in I$ , we have  $J \in P$ .
- (3)  $\implies$  (1): Without loss of generality suppose that  $I \subseteq P$ . Then  $IJ \subseteq I \subseteq P$ .

**Proposition 1.1.2** (Prime Avoidance) 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 R.

- Let *I* be an ideal of *R*. If  $I \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^k P_i$ , then  $I \subseteq P_i$  for some *i*.
- Let P be an ideal of R. If \(\int\_{i=1}^n I\_i \subseteq P\), then \(I\_i \subseteq P\) for some \(i\).
  Let P be an ideal of R. If \(P = \int\_{i=1}^n I\_i\), 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  $1 \leq i \leq k-1$  implies  $I \not\subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} P_i$ . Now suppose that  $I \not\subseteq P_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . By induction hypothesis, for each i, there exists  $x_j \in I$  such that  $x_j \notin \bigcup_{i \neq j} P_i$ . So  $x_j \notin P_i$ for  $j \neq i$ . There are two cases. If  $x_j \notin P_j$  for some j, then  $x_j \notin \bigcup_{j \neq i} P_i \cup P_j = \bigcup_{i=1}^k P_i$  so we are done. If  $x_j \in P_j$  for all j, then consider the element  $y = \sum_{i=1}^k \prod_{j \neq i} x_j \in I$ . Notice that  $x_j \in P_j$  for  $j \neq i$  implies that  $\prod_{j \neq i} x_j$  lie in  $P_k$  for any  $k \neq i$ . It is not an element of  $P_i$  because  $P_i$  is prime and  $x_j \notin P_i$  for  $j \neq i$ . Then we conclude that y does not lie in  $P_i$  for any i. Hence  $y \notin \bigcup_{i=1}^k P_i$  and we are done.

- We prove the contrapositive. Suppose that  $I_i \not\subseteq P$  for all i. Then for each i, there exists  $x_i \in I_i$  such that  $x_i \notin P$ . Then  $\prod_{i=1}^n x_i \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n I_i$  is not an element of P since P is a prime ideal. Hence we are done.
- By the above, we have that  $P = \bigcap_{i=1}^n I_i$  implies that  $I_i \subseteq P$  for some i. Then  $P = \bigcap_{i=1}^n I_i \subseteq I_i$  implies that  $P = I_i$ .

**Example 1.1.3** 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 quotienting by the ideal (3) gives the field  $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ .

Let R be a commutative ring. Recall that two ideals I, J are coprime if I + J = R. In particular, this implies that  $IJ = I \cap J$ . Then the Chinese Remainder theorem reads as

$$\frac{R}{\prod_{i=1}^{k} I_i} = \frac{R}{\bigcap_{i=1}^{k} I_i} \cong \prod_{i=1}^{k} \frac{R}{I_i}$$

### 1.2 The Nilradical 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 1.2.1** (Nilradicals) Let *R* be a commutative 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 1.2.2** 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 1.2.3** Let R be a commutative ring. Then we have

$$N(R) = \bigcap_{\substack{P \text{ is a prime} \\ \text{ideal of } R}} P$$

**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  $\Sigma$ . 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  $\Sigma$  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  $\Sigma$ , P + (a) and P + (b) cannot be in  $\Sigma$ , 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 1.2.4** 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 1.2.5** (Reduced Rings) Let R be a commutative ring. We say that R is reduced if N(R) = 0.

### 1.3 The Jacobson Radical of Commutative Rings

Let R be a commutative ring. Recall that the Jacobson radical of a ring is defined to be

$$J(R) = \bigcap_{m \text{ a maximal ideal}} m$$

since left and right maximal ideals coincide in *R*. Properties of the Jacobson radical include:

• J(R/J(R)) = 0.

**Lemma 1.3.1** Let R be a commutative ring. Then  $x \in J(R)$  if and only if  $1 - xy \in R^{\times}$  for all  $y \in R$ .

**Proof** Suppose that  $x \notin J(R)$ . Then  $x \notin m$  for some maximal ideal m. Then R = m + (x) since m is maximal. Then there exists  $p \in m$  and  $y \in R$  such that 1 = p + xy. Then  $1 - xy = p \in m \notin R^{\times}$ .

Suppose that  $1-xy \notin R^{\times}$  for some  $y \in R$ . Then (1-xy) is a proper ideal of R. Then there exists a maximal ideal m such that  $(1-xy) \subseteq m$ . If  $x \in m$  then  $yx \in m$  which implies that  $1=xy+1-xy \in m$ . This is a contradiction and so  $x \notin m$ . Hence  $x \notin J(R)$ .

**Lemma 1.3.2** Let R be a commutative ring. Then  $x \in R$  is a unit if and only if  $[x] \in R/J(R)$  is a unit.

**Proof** Suppose that  $x \in R$  is a unit. Then there exists  $y \in R$  such that xy = 1. Then [x][y] = [1] so we are done. Now suppose that [x][y] = [1] for some  $y \in R$ . Then there exists  $m \in J(R)$  such that xy = 1 + m. By the above lemma, 1 + m is a unit hence x is a unit.

#### 1.4 The Radical of an Ideal

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

**Definition 1.4.1** (Radical of an Ideal) Let *I* be an ideal of a ring *R*. Define the radical of *I* to be

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

**Proposition 1.4.2** Let *R* be a commutative ring. Let *I* be an ideal. Then the following are true.

- $I \subseteq \sqrt{I}$
- $\sqrt{\sqrt{I}} = \sqrt{I}$
- $\sqrt{I^m} = \sqrt{I}$  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.
- Since  $I^m \subseteq I$ , we know that  $\sqrt{I^m} \subseteq \sqrt{I}$ . Let  $x \in \sqrt{I}$ . Then  $x^n \in I$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then we have  $(x^n)^m = x^{n+m} \in I^m$  so that  $x \in \sqrt{I^m}$ .
- Clearly if I = R then  $I \subseteq \sqrt{I}$  implies that  $\sqrt{I} = R$ . Conversely,  $\sqrt{I} = R$  implies that  $1 \in \sqrt{I}$  and hence  $1 \in I$ . Hence I = R.

**Proposition 1.4.3** Let R be a commutative ring. Let I, J be ideals of R. Then the following are true.

- If  $I \subseteq J$  then  $\sqrt{I} \subseteq \sqrt{J}$
- $\sqrt{IJ} = \sqrt{I \cap J} = \sqrt{I} \cap \sqrt{J}$
- $\sqrt{I+J} = \sqrt{\sqrt{I} + \sqrt{J}}$

#### **Proof**

- Let  $x \in \sqrt{I}$ . Then  $x^n \in I$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $x^n \in J$  so  $x \in \sqrt{J}$ .
- Since  $IJ \subseteq I \cap J \subseteq I, J$ , we already have  $\sqrt{IJ} \subseteq \sqrt{I \cap J} \subseteq \sqrt{I} \cap \sqrt{J}$ . Let  $x \in \sqrt{I} \cap \sqrt{J}$ . Then there exists  $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $x^n \in I$  and  $x^m \in J$ . Then  $x^n \cdot x^m = x^{n+m} \in IJ$  implies that  $x \in \sqrt{IJ}$ .
- Since  $I, J \subseteq I+J$ , we have  $\sqrt{I}+\sqrt{J} \subseteq \sqrt{I+J}$  so that  $\sqrt{\sqrt{I}+\sqrt{J}} \subseteq \sqrt{I+J}$ . On the other hand,  $I \subseteq \sqrt{I}$  and  $J \subseteq \sqrt{J}$  implies that  $I+J \subseteq \sqrt{I}+\sqrt{J}$ . Then  $\sqrt{I+J} \subseteq \sqrt{\sqrt{I}+\sqrt{J}}$  and so we are done.

**Lemma 1.4.4** Let R be a commutative ring. Then we have

$$N(R) = \sqrt{(0)}$$

**Proof** True from definitions.

**Lemma 1.4.5** Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Let  $\pi: R \to R/I$  be the quotient homomorphism. Then we have

$$\sqrt{I} = \pi^{-1} \left( N \left( \frac{R}{I} \right) \right)$$

**Proof** Let  $x \in R$ . Then we have that  $x^n \in I$  if and only if  $\pi(x^n) = x^n + I = I$  if and only if  $x + I \in N(R/I)$ .

**Proposition 1.4.6** Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal. Then

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

**Proof** Write  $\pi: R \to R/I$  the quotient homomorphism. Using prp1.2.3 and the correspondence theorem, we have that

$$\sqrt{I} = \pi^{-1} \left( \bigcap_{\substack{P \text{ is a prime} \\ \text{ideal of } R}} P \right) = \bigcap_{\substack{P \text{ is a prime} \\ \text{ideal of } R}} \pi^{-1}(P) = \bigcap_{\substack{p \text{ a prime ideal} \\ I \subseteq p \subseteq R}} p$$

**Definition 1.4.7** (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 1.4.8** Let R be a ring. Let P be a prime ideal of R. Then P is radical.

**Proof** We already know that  $P \subseteq \sqrt{P}$ . Let  $x \in \sqrt{P}$ . Then  $x^n \in P$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since P is prime, by inducting downwards we deduce that  $x \in P$ . Thus P is radical.

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

**Proposition 1.4.9** 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.

### 1.5 The Correspondence between Ideals and the Quotient

**Definition 1.5.1** (Max Spectrum of a Ring) Let *A* be a commutative ring. Define the max spectrum of *A* to be

$$\mathsf{maxSpec}(A) = \{ m \subseteq A \mid m \text{ is a maximal ideal of } A \}$$

Definition 1.5.2 (Spectrum of a Ring) Let A be a commutative ring. Define the spectrum of A to be

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

**Example 1.5.3** 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  $\text{Spec}(\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}) = \{(2 + 6\mathbb{Z}), (3 + 6\mathbb{Z})\}$ .

- 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 1.5.4** 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 V is a prime ideal of S, then S are both prime ideals of S and S or 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 1.5.5** Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Denote  $\varphi$  to be the inclusion preserving one-to-one bijection

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

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

### 1.6 Extensions and Contractions of Ideals

**Definition 1.6.1** (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

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

**Proposition 1.6.2** 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.

- If  $I_1 \subseteq I_2$ , then  $I_1^e \subseteq I_2^e$ .
- Closed under sum:  $(I_1 + I_2)^e = I_1^e + I_2^e$
- $\bullet \ (I_1 \cap I_2)^e \subseteq I_1^e \cap I_2^e$
- Closed under products:  $(I_1I_2)^e = I_1^eI_2^e$
- $(\sqrt{I})^e \subseteq \sqrt{I^e}$

Proof

- Let  $x \in I_1^e$ . Then  $x = \sum s_k f(i_k)$  for some  $i_k \in I_1$ . Then  $i_k \in I_2$  implies that  $x \in I_2^e$ .
- Since  $I_1, I_2 \subseteq I_1 + I_2$ , we have  $I_1^e + I_2^e \subseteq (I_1 + I_2)^e$ . Conversely, let  $x, \in (I_1 + I_2)^e$ . Then  $x = \sum s_k f(i_k)$  for  $i_k \in I_1 + I_2$ . Then we have

$$x = \sum_{i_k \in I_1} s_k f(i_k) + \sum_{i_k \in I_2} s_k f(i_k) \in I_1^e + I_2^e$$

so we conclude.

- Since  $I_1 \cap I_2 \subseteq I_1, I_2$  we are done.
- It suffices to check the generators lie in each other. Let  $x \in I_1I_2$ . Then  $x = \sum i_k j_k$  for some  $i_k \in I_1$  and  $j_k \in I_2$ . Then  $f(x) = \sum f(i_k)f(j_k)$ . Since  $f(i_k) \in I_1^e$  and  $f(j_k)^e$ , then  $f(x) \in I_1^eI_2^e$  so we conclude that  $(I_1I_2)^e \subseteq I_1^eI_2^e$ . Conversely, suppose that  $x \in I_1^eI_2^e$ . Then  $x = \sum f(i_k)(j_k)$  for  $i_k \in I_1$  and  $j_k \in I_2$ . Since f is a ring homomorphism, we have that

$$x = \sum f(i_k)f(j_k) = f\left(\sum i_k j_k\right)$$

Since  $\sum i_k j_k \in I_1 I_2$ , we conclude that  $x \in I_1^e I_2^e$ .

We have that

$$(\sqrt{I})^e = \left( f(i) \;\middle|\; i \in \bigcap_{\substack{P \; \text{prime} \\ I \subseteq P}} P \right) \subseteq f\left(\bigcap_{\substack{P \; \text{prime} \\ I \subseteq P}} f(P)\right) \subseteq f\left(\bigcap_{\substack{Q \; \text{prime} \\ I^e \subset Q}} f(f^{-1}(Q))\right)$$

The last inclusion follows since for  $I^e \subseteq Q$ , we must have that  $I \subseteq f^{-1}(Q)$ . Then we have that

$$(\sqrt{I})^e = f\left(\bigcap_{\substack{Q \text{ prime} \\ I^e \subseteq Q}} Q\right) = \sqrt{I^e}$$

and so we are done.

**Definition 1.6.3** (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 1.6.4** 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.

- If  $J_1 \subseteq J_2$ , then  $J_1^c \subseteq J_2^c$ .
- $(J_1 + J_2)^c \supseteq J_1^c + J_2^c$
- Closed under intersections:  $(J_1 \cap J_2)^c = J_1^c \cap J_2^c$
- $\bullet \ (J_1J_2)^c \supseteq J_1^cJ_2^c$
- Closed under taking radicals:  $rad(J)^c = rad(J^c)$

**Proof** 

- Clear since  $f^{-1}(J_1) \subseteq f^{-1}(J_2)$  for  $J_1 \subseteq J_2$ .
- Since  $J_1, J_2 \subseteq J_1 + J_2$ , we have that  $J_1^c + J_2^c \subseteq (J_1 + J_2)^c$ .
- Since  $J_1 \cap J_2 \subseteq J_1, J_2$ , we have that  $(J_1 \cap J_2)^c \subseteq J_1^c \cap J_2^c$ . Let  $x \in J_1^c \cap J_2^c$ . Then we have  $f(x) \in J_1, J_2$  so that  $f(x) \in J_1 \cap J_2$ . Hence  $x \in (J_1 \cap J_2)^c$ .
- Suppose that  $x \in J_1^c$  and  $y \in J_2^c$ . Then  $f(xy) = f(x)f(y) \in J_1^cJ_2^c$ . Hence  $xy \in J_1^cJ_2^c$ .

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**Proposition 1.6.5** 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.

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

**Proof** 

- Let  $x \in I$ . Then  $f(x) \in I^e$ . Thus  $x \in f^{-1}(I^e)$ .
- Since  $J^{ce}$  is generated by f(x) for all  $x \in J^c$ , it suffices to check that  $f(x) \in J$  for all  $x \in J^c$ . But  $x \in J^c$  implies that  $f(x) \in J$  so we are done.
- Since  $I \subseteq I^{ec}$ , we know that  $I^e \subseteq I^{ece}$ . Also, from the second item we take  $J = I^e$  to get  $I^{ece} \subseteq I^e$ .
- From the first item, take  $I = J^c$  to get  $J^c \subseteq J^{cec}$ . Also, since  $J^{ce} \subseteq J$ , we have that  $J^{cec} \subseteq J^c$ .

**Example 1.6.6** Let S be a commutative ring and let  $R \subseteq S$  be a subring. Let  $f: R \to S$  be the inclusion map. Let  $I \subseteq R$  be an ideal of R and let  $J \subseteq S$  be an ideal of S. Then the following are true.

- $I^e = S \cdot I$ .
- $\bullet \ \ J^c=J\cap R.$

### 1.7 Minimal Prime Ideals

**Definition 1.7.1** (Minimal Prime Ideals) Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Let P be a prime ideal of R. We say that P is a minimal prime ideal over I if for any other prime ideal  $Q \supseteq I$  containing I, we have  $P \subseteq Q$ .

**Proposition 1.7.2** Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Then a minimal prime ideal over I exists.

### 2 Basic Notions of Commutative Rings

### 2.1 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.

**Proposition 2.1.1** Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Then there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\sqrt{I}^n \subset I \subset \sqrt{I}$$

**Proof** It is clear that  $I \subseteq \sqrt{I}$ . Since R is Noetherian,  $\sqrt{I}$  is finitely generated by say  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ . Then  $x_i^{n_i} \in I$  for some  $n_i \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $m = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^n (n_i - 1)$ . Then  $\sqrt{I}^m$  is generated by  $x_1^{r_1} \cdots x_n^{r_n}$  for  $\sum_{i=1}^n r_i = m$ . If  $r_i < n_i$  for i then

$$m = \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} (n_i - 1) < m$$

is a contradiction. Hence there exists some i for which  $r_i \geq n_i$ . Thus  $x_1^{r_1} \cdots x_n^{r_n} \in I$ . Thus  $\sqrt{I}^m \subseteq I$ .

**Proposition 2.1.2** Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Then N(R) is a nilpotent ideal.

**Proof** By the above, there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $(N(R))^n = \sqrt{(0)}^n \subseteq (0) \subseteq \sqrt{(0)}$ . Hence  $(N(R))^n = (0)$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

### **Proposition 2.1.3**

Let R be a Noetherian commutaive ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Then I has only finitely many minimal prime ideals.

### Proof

Define the set

 $\mathcal{F} = \{I \subseteq R \mid I \text{ is an ideal of } R \text{ that has infinitely many minmal prime ideals } \}$ 

Assume for a contradiction that the set is non-empty. Since R is Noetherian, every chain in  $\mathcal F$  has a maximal element. Let I be such a maximal element of the set. I is not a prime ideal because prime ideals only have one minimal prime ideal by definition. This means that there exists  $a,b\notin I$  such that  $ab\in I$ . Now I+(a) and I+(b) both contain I, and since  $ab\in I$  we have that  $(I+(a))(I+(b))\subseteq I$ . For any minimal prime ideal P of I, we have that  $(I+(a))(I+(b))\subseteq I\subseteq P$  implies that  $(I+(a))\subseteq P$  or  $(I+(b))\subseteq P$ . This shows that the set of minimal prime ideals of I is a subset of the union of the set of minimal prime ideals of I+(a) and I+(b), and so without loss of generality, I+(a) has infinitely many minimal prime ideals. But then I+(a) strictly contains I and  $I+(a)\in \mathcal F$ . This is a contradiction since I is assumed to be maximal.

### 2.2 Artinian Commutative Rings

Let R be a commutative ring. Recall that R is Artinian if any descending chain of ideals

$$I_1 \supseteq I_2 \supseteq \cdots$$

terminates at finitely many steps, meaning  $I_k = I_k + n$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Generally, if R is Artinian then the following are true.

- J(R) is a nilpotent ideal.
- *R* is Noetherian.
- *R* has finite length.

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

**Proposition 2.2.1** 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.

**Proposition 2.2.2** Let *R* be an Artinian commutative ring. Then the following are true.

- Spec(R) = maxSpec(R).
- $\bullet$  N(R) = J(R)

**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.

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 2.2.3** 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 prime avoidance, 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.

### 2.3 Local Rings

**Definition 2.3.1** (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 2.3.2** 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 2.3.3** 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 2.3.4** 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]].

**Proposition 2.3.5** Let *R* be a commutative ring. Then the following are equivalent.

- R has exactly one prime ideal. (It is given by N(R)).
- Every element of R is either a unit or nilpotent.
- N(R) is a maximal ideal.

Under these equivalent assumptions, (R, N(R)) is a local ring.

#### **Proof**

- (1)  $\implies$  (2): We know that N(R) is a prime ideal, hence it is the unique prime ideal and unique maximal ideal. Thus R is a local ring. By the above, elements of  $R \setminus N(R)$  are units and element of N(R) are nilpotent.
- $(2) \implies (3)$ : It is clear that every nilpotent is a non-unit. By assumption, non-units of R are nilpotents. Hence N(R) is the set of all non-units. Since N(R) is an ideal, by the above we conclude that (R,N(R)) is a local ring. In particular, N(R) is the unique maximal ideal of R.
- (3)  $\implies$  (1): Suppose that N(R) is a maximal ideal. Let  $P \neq R$  be a prime ideal of R. Since N(R) is the intersection of all prime ideals, we have  $N(R) \subseteq P$ . By the correspondence theorem, P corresponds to a prime ideal of R/N(R). But R/N(R) is a field, and since  $P \neq R$  we must have that P = N(R). Thus N(R) is the unique prime ideal of R.

**Proposition 2.3.6** Let *R* be a Noetherian commutative ring. Then the following are equivalent.

- *R* is an Artinian local ring.
- R has a nilpotent maximal ideal.
- R has a unique proper radical ideal.
- *R* has a unique prime ideal.
- N(R) is a maximal ideal of R.

### **Proof**

• (1)  $\implies$  (2): Let R be Artinian and local. By 2.1.4 we have N(R) = J(R) = m since J(R) is the intersection of all maximal ideals. Since R is Noetherian, by 2.1.3 N(R) = m is nilpotent.

Since every Artinian ring is Noetherian, the above proposition implies the following.

Corollary 2.3.7 Let R be an Artinian commutative ring. Then the following are true.

- $\bullet$  R is local.
- N(R) is the unique maximal ideal of R.
- N(R) is the unique prime ideal of R.
- N(R) is the unique radical ideal of R.
- N(R) is a nilpotent ideal.

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

### 2.4 Revisiting the Polynomial Ring

**Lemma 2.4.1** Let R be a commutative ring. Then R[x] has infinitely many irreducible polynomials.

**Proof** If not, then there exists a finite list of irreducible polynomials  $f_1, \ldots, f_k$ . Then  $1+f_1, \ldots, f_k$  is not divisible by  $f_1, \ldots, f_k$  and so must contain a monic irreducible factor not equal to  $f_1, \ldots, f_k$ . This is a contradiction.

**Proposition 2.4.2** 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, we have that N(R)[x] 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.

**Theorem 2.4.3** (Hilbert's Basis Theorem) Let R be a commutative ring. If R is Noetherian, then R[x] is a Noetherian ring.

**Proof** It suffices to show that every ideal of R[x] is finitely generated. Let I be an ideal of R[x]. Let  $I^{\leq n}$  be the ideal generated by

$$I^{\leq n} = (f \in I \mid \deg(f) \leq n)$$

Notice that  $I^{\leq n}$  is an R-submodule of  $\bigoplus_{i=0}^n R \cdot x^i$ . Since R is Noetherian,  $I^{\leq n}$  is finitely generated as an R-module. In particular,  $I^{\leq n}$  is finitely generated as an R[x]-module with the same finite generating set.

I claim that the chain of ideals

$$I^{\leq 0} \subseteq I^{\leq 1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq I^{\leq k} \subseteq I = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} I^{\leq i}$$

of R[x] eventually stabilizes. Let LC(f) be the leading coefficient of  $f \in R[x]$ . The define

$$LC(I) = \{LC(f) \mid f \in I\}$$

Notice that LC(I) is an ideal of R. Since R is Noetherian, LC(I) is finitely generated as an R-module by say  $a_1,\ldots,a_r$ . This means that there exists  $f_1,\ldots,f_r\in R[x]$  such that  $LC(f_i)=a_i$ . Let  $d=\max\{\deg(f_1),\ldots,\deg(f_r)\}$ . Without loss of assumption we can replace  $f_i$  with  $x^{d-\deg(f_i)}f_i$  so that  $f_1,\ldots,f_r$  have the same degree d.

I claim that  $I^{\leq n}=I^{\leq n+1}$  for  $n\geq d$ .  $I^{\leq n}\subseteq I^{\leq n+1}$  is trivial. Suppose that  $f\in I^{\leq n+1}$ . If  $\deg(f)\leq n$  then we are done. So suppose that  $\deg(f)=n+1$ . Then the leading coefficient of f is a linear combination of the leading coefficients of  $f_1,\ldots,f_r$ . So there exists  $b_1,\ldots,b_r\in R$  such that  $LC(f)=\sum_{i=1}^r b_i LC(f_i)$ . Then  $f-(\sum_{i=1}^r b_i f_i)\,x^{n+1-d}\in I^{\leq n}$ . Since  $\sum_{i=1}^r b_i f_i\in I^{\leq d}\subseteq I^{\leq n}$ , we conclude that  $f\in I^{\leq n}$ . We conclude.

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
- ullet 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].

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

Theorem 3.1.3 (Cayley-Hamiliton Theorem for Modules) 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  $a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in I$  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:

$$R^{n} \xrightarrow{\rho} M$$

$$A \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \varphi$$

$$R^{n} \xrightarrow{\varrho} M$$

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

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

Since  $\rho$  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.

**Proposition 3.1.4** Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Let  $\phi: M \to M$  be a surjective R-module homomorphism. Then  $\phi$  is an isomorphism.

**Proof** Consider M as an  $R[\phi]$ -module via the action  $\phi \cdot m = \phi(m)$ . Notice that  $(\phi)M = M$  since  $\phi$  is surjective. By the Cayley-Hamilton theorem, there exists  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{n-1} \in R$  such that

$$\mathrm{id}^n + \alpha_1 \phi \mathrm{id}^{n-1} + \dots + \alpha_{n-1} \phi \mathrm{id} + \mathrm{id} = 0 : M \to M$$

This simplifies to the equation

$$(\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_{n-1})\phi(m) + m = 0$$

for all  $m \in M$ .

We want to show that  $\phi$  is injective. Suppose that  $\phi(m)=0$  for some  $m\in M$ . From the above equation, we see that m=0. Hence  $\phi$  is an isomorphism.

### 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  $\varphi$  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 maximal ideal of R. 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.
- $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in M$  is a minimal set of generators of M as an R-module if and only if  $a_1 + mM, \ldots, a_n + mM$  is a basis for M/mM as a R/m vector space.

**Proof** Since the projection map  $\pi: M \to M/mM$  is surjective, clearly any set of generators of M is a set of generators for M/mM. This also shows that if M is finitely generated then M/mM is a finite dimensional R/m-vector space.

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.

Suppose that  $a_1,\ldots,a_n$  generate M. The above shows that  $a_1+mM,\ldots,a_n+mM$  spans M/mM. So suppose for a contradiction that  $a_1,\ldots,a_n$  is a minimal generating set but  $a_1+mM,\ldots,a_n+mM$  is not a basis for  $m/m^2$ . This means that after relabelling,  $a_1+mM,\ldots,a_{n-1}+mM$  spans M/mM. By the above, this means that  $a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1}$  generate M. This is a contradiction of the minimality of the generating set  $a_1,\ldots,a_n$ . Hence  $a_1+mM,\ldots,a_n+mM$  is a basis for  $m/m^2$ .

Now suppose that  $a_1+mM,\ldots,a_n+mM$  is a basis for M/mM. We have seen above that  $a_1,\ldots,a_n$  generate M. If this is not minimal, then there is some smaller generating set  $b_1,\ldots,b_k$  that still generates M where k < n. By the above,  $b_1 + mM,\ldots,b_k + mM$  spans M/mM hence  $n = \dim_{R/m}(M/mM) \le k$ . This is a contradiction since k < n. Hence 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  $m \in M$ .

**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  $\phi$

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 More on Exact Sequences

**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  $\phi, \rho \in \text{Hom}(C, G)$  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  $k\in\operatorname{im}(f)$ ,  $\phi$  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  $\phi$ . Thus  $\phi \in \text{im}(g^*)$ .

**Example 3.5.2** Applying  $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(-,\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$  to the short exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \stackrel{\times p}{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0$$

does not give a sequence that is exact on the right.

**Proof** The new sequence is now

$$0 \, \longrightarrow \, \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}}} \, \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\quad 0 \quad} \, \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$$

Evidently the 0 map is not surjective.

**Proposition 3.5.3** 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.

$$\left\{(A,R) \left| \begin{array}{c} A \text{ is a commutative} \\ R \text{-algebra} \end{array} \right.\right\} \quad \overset{1:1}{\longleftrightarrow} \quad \left\{\phi:R \to A \left| \begin{array}{c} \phi \text{ is a ring homomorphism} \\ \text{such that } f(R) \subseteq Z(A) = A \end{array} \right.\right\}$$

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

### 4.2 Free Commutative Algebras

Let R be a commutative ring. Let X be a set. Recall that we defined  $R\langle X\rangle$  to be the free (non-commutative) R-algebra over X. Explicitly, if  $W=\{x_1\cdots x_n\mid x_1,\ldots,x_n\in X\}$  is the set of words on X, then

$$R\langle X\rangle = \bigoplus_{w\in W} R\cdot w$$

together with multiplication defined by  $(x_1 \cdots x_n) \cdot (y_1 \cdots y_n) = x_1 \cdots x_n \cdot y_1 \cdots y_m$ .

**Definition 4.2.1** (Free Commutative Algebra over a Ring) Let R be a commutative ring. Let X be a set. Define the free commutative R-algebra over X to be the quotient

$$Free_R(X) = \frac{R\langle X \rangle}{\langle x_i x_j - x_j x_i \mid x_i, x_j \in X \rangle}$$

**Proposition 4.2.2** (Universal Property of Free Commutative Algebras) Let R be a commutative ring. Let X be a set. The free commutative algebra  $\operatorname{Free}_R(X)$  satisfies the following universal property.

• Universal Property: If A is a commutative R-algebra, then for every  $f: X \to A$  a map of sets, there exists a unique homomorphism of algebras  $\varphi: \operatorname{Free}_R(X) \to A$  such that  $\varphi(x_i) = f(x_i)$  for each  $x_i \in X$ . In other words, the following diagram commutes:

$$X \xrightarrow{\iota} \operatorname{Free}_R(X)$$

$$\downarrow^{\exists ! \varphi}$$

$$A$$

where  $\iota: X \to \operatorname{Free}_R(X)$  is the inclusion.

• Free<sub>R</sub>(X) is the unique R-algebra (up to unique isomorphism) that satisfies this property.

**Proposition 4.2.3** Let R be a commutative ring. Let X be a set. Then there is an R-algebra isomorphism

$$\operatorname{Free}_R(X) \cong R[X]$$

with the polynomial ring over X.

### 4.3 Finiteness Properties of Algebras

**Definition 4.3.1** (Finitely Generated Algebras) Let R be a commutative ring. Let A be a commutative 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 4.3.2** 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 4.3.3** (Finitely Presented Algebra) Let R be a ring. Let  $A = R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]/I$  be a finitely generated algebra over R for some ideal I. We say that A is finitely presented if I is finitely generated.

**Lemma 4.3.4** 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.

**Definition 4.3.5** (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 4.3.6** Let R be a commutative ring. Then R[x] is a finitely generated algebra over R but is not a finite R-algebra.

### 5 Localization

### 5.1 Localization of Modules

**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 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

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

where  $\sim$  is defined by

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

**Lemma 5.1.3** 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 a well defined  $S^{-1}R$ -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 5.1.4** (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  $\frac{m}{s} \mapsto \frac{\phi(m)}{s}$ .

**Lemma 5.1.5** 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.

**Lemma 5.1.6** Let R be a commutative ring. Let  $S \subseteq R$  be a multiplicative subset. Let M, N, K be R-modules. Let  $f: M \to N$  and  $g: N \to K$  be R-module homomorphisms. Then the following are true.

- $\bullet \ \ \text{Composition:} \ S^{-1}(g\circ f)=S^{-1}g\circ S^{-1}f:S^{-1}M\to K.$
- Identity:  $S^{-1}id_M = id_{S^{-1}M}$

**Proposition 5.1.7** Let R be a commutative ring. Let  $S \subseteq R$  be a multiplicative subset. Let the following be an exact sequence of R-modules.

$$M_1 \xrightarrow{f} M_2 \xrightarrow{g} M_3$$

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

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

**Proof** Since  $\operatorname{im}(f) = \ker(g)$ , we have that  $g \circ f = 0$  which implies that  $0 = S^{-1}0 = S^{-1}(g \circ f) = S^{-1}g \circ S^{-1}f$ . Hence  $\operatorname{im}(S^{-1}f) \subseteq \ker(S^{-1}g)$ . Conversely, let  $m_2/s \in \ker(S^{-1}g)$ . Then  $g(m_2)/s = 0$  and so  $g(tm_2) = tg(m_2) = 0$  for some  $t \in S$ . Since  $\operatorname{im}(f) = \ker(g)$ , there exists  $m_1 \in M_1$  such that  $f(m_1) = tm_2$ . Then we have

$$(S^{-1}f)(m_1/ts) = f(m_1)/ts = tm_2/ts = m_2/s$$

Hence  $m_2/s \in \operatorname{im}(S^{-1}(f))$ .

**Corollary 5.1.8** 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.

• Localization commutes with quotients: 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.

ullet Localization commutes with products: If N is an R-module, then

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

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

• Localization commutes with internal sums: If  $N_1, N_2$  are R-submodules of M, then

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

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

• Localization commutes with intersections: 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  $S^{-1}M$ .

**Proof** Consider the exact sequences:

$$0 \; -\!\!\!\!-\!\!\!\!-\!\!\!\!- N \; \xrightarrow{\quad \text{incl.} \quad} M \; \xrightarrow{\quad \text{proj.} \quad} M/N \; -\!\!\!\!\!-\!\!\!\!- 0$$

$$0 \longrightarrow M \xrightarrow{\text{incl.}} M \times N \xrightarrow{\text{proj.}} N \longrightarrow 0$$

$$0 \longrightarrow N_1 \xrightarrow{\text{incl.}} N_1 + N_2 \xrightarrow{\text{proj.}} N_2 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$0 \longrightarrow N_1 \cap N_2 \xrightarrow{n \mapsto (n,n)} N_1 \times N_2 \xrightarrow{(n_1,n_2) \mapsto n_1 - n_2} N_1 + N_2 \longrightarrow 0$$
 respectively and apply the above proposition.

**Lemma 5.1.9** 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 cokernels:

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

• Localization commutes with images:

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

**Proof** Consider the exact sequences:

$$0 \longrightarrow \ker(\phi) \hookrightarrow M \stackrel{\phi}{\longrightarrow} N$$

$$M \xrightarrow{\phi} N \xrightarrow{M} \frac{M}{\operatorname{im}(\phi)} \longrightarrow 0$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \ker(\phi) \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow \operatorname{im}(\phi) \longrightarrow 0$$

respectively and apply 5.3.6.

**Proposition 5.1.10** 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  $\frac{m}{s} \mapsto \frac{1}{s} \otimes m$ .

### 5.2 Localization at Single Elements and Away from Prime Ideals

**Lemma 5.2.1** 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 5.2.2** (Localization at an Element) Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Let  $f \in R$  be non-zero. Define the localization of M at f to be the ring

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

**Lemma 5.2.3** Let R be a commutative ring. Let  $f \in R$  be non-zero. Then there is an R-algebra isomorphism

$$R_f \cong R\left[\frac{1}{f}\right]$$

given by  $\frac{a}{f^k} \mapsto a \cdot \frac{1}{f^k}$ .

**Lemma 5.2.4** Let R be a commutative 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 5.2.5** (Localization at Prime Ideals) Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Let P be a prime ideal. Denote

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

the localization of M at P.

### 5.3 The Localization Map

**Proposition 5.3.1** Let R be a commutative ring. Let S be a multiplicative subset of R. Then the following are true.

- $(S^{-1}R, +, \times)$  is a ring
- The map  $k: R \to S^{-1}R$  defined by  $r \mapsto r/1$  is a ring homomorphism, called the localization map.

### **Proof**

• 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  $\frac{1}{1}$ .

**Lemma 5.3.2** Let R be a commutative ring. Let S be a multiplicative subset of R. Then localization map  $R \to S^{-1}R$  is injective if and only if S does not contain zero divisors.

**Proof** Suppose that  $R \to S^{-1}R$  is injective. Then sr = 0 implies r = 0 for all  $s \in S$ . Hence S does not contain zero divisors. Suppose that S does not contain zero divisors. Then sr = 0 implies that r = 0 since S has no zero divisors. Hence the localization map is injective.

**Proposition 5.3.3** (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:

$$R \xrightarrow{k} S^{-1}R$$

$$\downarrow \exists ! \psi$$

$$R$$

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

**Lemma 5.3.4** Let R be a commutative ring. If R is an integral domain, then then following are true

- If S is a multiplicative subset of R such that  $0 \notin S$ , then  $S^{-1}R$  is an integral domain.
- Frac(R) = (0).
- The localization map induces a ring isomorphism

$$R \cong \bigcap_{m \text{ a maximal ideal}} R_m$$

### 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.
- Trivial.
- Clearly the map is well defined. Moreover, since for each maximal ideal  $m, 0 \notin R \setminus m$ . Hence the localization map is injective. Suppose for a contradiction that the localization map is not surjective. Then there exists x in the intersection such that  $x \neq r/1$  for all  $r \in R$ . Consider the ideal  $I = \{r \in R \mid rx = s/1 \text{ for some } s \in R \}$ . Since  $1 \notin R$ , I is a proper ideal. So there exists a maximal ideal m containing I. But x also cannot lie in  $R_m$  and hence the intersection. Indeed, if  $x \in R_m$ , then x = a/b for some  $a \in R$  and  $b \notin m$ . Then  $bx = a \in R$  implies that  $b \in I$ . This is a contradiction to  $b \notin m$ . Thus no such x exists. Hence the localization map is surjective.

### 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  $s \in I$ , we have  $a \in I$ .

**Lemma 5.4.2** Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Let  $S \subseteq R$  be a multiplicative subset. Then we have

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

**Proof** Let  $f: R \to S^{-1}R$  be the localization map. Then  $f(I) \subseteq S^{-1}I$  implies that  $I^e \subseteq S^{-1}I$ . Conversely, suppose that  $i/s \in S^{-1}I$ . Then  $i/s = (1/s) \cdot f(i) \in I^e$ . Hence  $I^e = S^{-1}I$ .

**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  $S \cap P = \emptyset$ .
- $S^{-1}P = \bar{S}^{-1}R$  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

$$\operatorname{Spec}(S^{-1}R) \ \stackrel{1:1}{\longleftrightarrow} \ \left\{ I \ \middle| \ \substack{I \text{ is a prime ideal of } R \\ \text{and } I \cap S = \emptyset} \right\}$$

**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

$$\operatorname{Spec}(R_P) \ \stackrel{\text{1:1}}{\longleftrightarrow} \ \left\{ I \ \middle| \ \substack{I \text{ is a prime ideal of } R \\ \text{and } I \subseteq P} \right\}$$

**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.

**Proposition 5.4.8** (Localization of a Localization) Let R be a commutative ring. Let S be a multiplicative subset of R. Let P be a prime ideal of R such that  $S^{-1}P$  is a prime ideal of  $S^{-1}R$ . Then

$$(S^{-1}R)_{S^{-1}P} \cong R_P$$

**Proof** Define a map  $S^{-1}R \to R_P$  by the identity map. This is well defined because if  $s \in S$ , then we know  $S^{-1}P$  is a prime ideal implies  $S \cap P = \emptyset$ , so  $s \notin P$ . Thus r/s is a well defined fraction in  $R_P$ . Since it is just the identity map, it is a well defined ring homomorphism. Now let  $r/s \in S^{-1}R \setminus S^{-1}P$ . Then  $r \notin P$  implies that r is invertible in  $R_P$ . Hence  $r/s \cdot s/r = 1$  in  $R_P$ .

Thus r/s is invertible in  $R_P$ . Thus we can invoke the universal property to obtain a unique map

$$(S^{-1}R)_{S^{-1}P} \to R_P$$

Conversely, define a map  $R \to (S^{-1}R)_{S^{-1}P}$  by the identity map  $r \mapsto (r/1)/(1/1)$ . This is well defined because  $1 \notin P$  implies  $1/1 \in S^{-1}R \setminus S^{-1}P$ . Clearly this is a well defined ring homomorphism. For  $s \in S$ , notice that (s/1)/(1/1) is invertible in  $(S^{-1}R)_{S^{-1}P}$  via the element (1/s)/(1/1). Thus we can invoke the universal property of  $S^{-1}R$  to obtain a unique map

$$S^{-1}R \to (S^{-1}R)_{S^{-1}P}$$

We now have two unique maps going both directions between  $S^{-1}R$  and  $(S^{-1}R)_{S^{-1}P}$ . This implies that they are isomorphic.

**Lemma 5.4.9** 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.

**Proof** Follows from the correspondence of ideals in localizations.

### 5.5 Localization of Graded Rings

**Proposition 5.5.1** Let  $R = \bigoplus_{i=0}^{\infty} R_i$  be a commutative ring that is graded. Let P be a homogeneous prime ideal of R. Then  $R_P$  is a graded ring in which the grading structure is given as follows:  $f/g \in R_P$  has degree  $\deg(f) - \deg(g)$ .

**Definition 5.5.2** (Localization of a Graded Ring) Let  $R = \bigoplus_{i=0}^{\infty} R_i$  be a commutative ring that is graded. Let P be a homogeneous prime ideal of R. Define the localization of R with respect to P to be

$$(R_P)_0 = \{ f \in R_P \mid f \text{ lies in the 0th graded component of } R_P \}$$

**Proposition 5.5.3** Let  $R = \bigoplus_{i=0}^{\infty} R_i$  be a commutative ring that is graded. Let P be a homogeneous prime ideal of R. Then  $(R_P)_0$  is a local ring with unique maximal ideal given by

$$(PR_P) \cap (R_P)_0$$

### 5.6 Local Properties

Definition 5.6.1 (Local Properties of Elements) Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. 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.

**Lemma 5.6.2** Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Then  $x \in M$  being the zero element is a local property.

**Proof** Suppose that x=0 in M. Then clearly x=0 in both  $M_P$  and  $M_m$  for all prime ideals P and maximal ideals m. Now let x=0 in  $M_m$  for all maximal ideals m. This means that there exists  $a_m \in R \setminus m$  such that  $a_m x=0$ . Let I be the ideal

$$I = \sum_{m \text{ a maximal ideal}} a_m R \subseteq R$$

Since  $a_m \in I$  but  $a_m \notin m$ , we must have that I is not contained in any maximal ideals. Hence I = R. Then there exists  $r_i \in R$  such that  $1 = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i a_{m_i}$  for some  $a_{m_i} \in R \setminus m_i$ . Then we have

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (r_i a_{m_i} x) = 0 \in M$$

**Definition 5.6.3** (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

**Lemma 5.6.4** Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Then the module being 0 is a local property.

**Proof** If M = 0, then clearly  $M_P = 0$  and  $M_m = 0$  for all prime ideals P and maximal ideals m. Then using 5.6.2 we conclude that if  $M_m = 0$  for all maximal ideals m, then M = 0.

**Proposition 5.6.5** (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.

- $\phi$  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: nilpotent Non-local properties: freeness, domain

**Proposition 5.6.6** (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:

$$M_1 \xrightarrow{f} M_2 \xrightarrow{g} M_3$$

• The following sequence is exact:

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

for all prime ideals P of R.

• The following sequence is exact:

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

for all maximal ideals m of R.

**Proof**  $(1) \Longrightarrow (2), (3)$  is clear since localization preserves exact sequences. It remains to show that  $(3) \Longrightarrow (1)$ . Let  $x \in M$ . Then we have that  $g_m(f_m(x)) = 0$  for all maximal ideals m. Since being 0 is a local property, we conclude that g(f(x)) = 0. Hence  $\operatorname{im}(f) \subseteq \ker(g)$ . Since kernels and images and quotients commute with localizations, we have that

$$\left(\frac{\ker(g)}{\operatorname{im}(f)}\right)_m \cong \frac{\ker(g_m)}{\operatorname{im}(f_m)} = 0$$

Since being a zero module is a local property, we conclude that im(f) = ker(g).

### 6 Primary Decomposition

### 6.1 The Annihilator and Associated Primes

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Recall that we define the annihilator of a subset  $S \subseteq M$  to be the ideal

$$Ann_R(S) = \{ r \in R \mid rs = 0 \text{ for all } s \in S \}$$

When R is a commutative ring, the annihilator is a two sided ideal and consequently has some nice properties.

**Proposition 6.1.1** Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Let  $Ann_R(x)$  for  $x \in M$  be a maximal element in the set

$$\{\operatorname{Ann}_R(x) \mid 0 \neq x \in M\}$$

Then  $Ann_R(x)$  is a prime ideal.

**Proof** Suppose that  $ab \in \operatorname{Ann}_R(x)$  and  $b \notin \operatorname{Ann}_R(x)$ . Notice that if rx = 0 then r(bx) = brx = 0 so that r annihilates bx. Hence  $\operatorname{Ann}_R(x) \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}_R(bx)$ . Since x is non-zero and  $b \notin I$ , bx is also non-zero hence  $\operatorname{Ann}_R(bx)$  lies in the given set of annihilators. Since  $\operatorname{Ann}_R(x)$  is maximal we conclude that

$$Ann_R(x) = Ann_R(bx)$$

But ab annihilates x by definition so that a annihilates bx. Hence  $a \in Ann_R(bx) = Ann_R(x)$ . Hence  $Ann_R(x)$  is prime.

Recall that if  $S\subseteq M$  is a subset and R is not a commutative ring, then in general we only have the relation

$$\operatorname{Ann}_R(\langle S \rangle) \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}_R(S)$$

**Proposition 6.1.2** Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Let  $S \subseteq M$  be a subset. Then

$$\operatorname{Ann}_R(\langle S \rangle) = \operatorname{Ann}_R(S)$$

**Definition 6.1.3** (Associated Prime) Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Let P be a prime ideal of R. We say that P is an associated prime of M if

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

for some  $m \in M$ .

**Lemma 6.1.4** Let R be a Noetherain commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. If  $M \neq 0$ , then  $Ass(M) \neq \emptyset$ .

**Proof** By 6.1.1, there exists  $x \in M$  such that  $Ann_R(x)$  is a prime ideal.

**Lemma 6.1.5** Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Let P be a prime ideal of R. Then P is an associated prime of M if and only if R/P is isomorphic to a submodule of M.

**Proof** If P is an associated prime, then  $P = \operatorname{Ann}_R(m)$  for some  $0 \neq m \in M$ . Then  $\langle m \rangle \cong \frac{R}{\operatorname{Ann}_R(m)}$  so that R/P is isomorphic to a submodule of M. Conversely, if  $R/P \cong N \leq M$  for some submodule N, notice that R/P is cyclic and so N is generated by one element  $n \in N$ . Then  $P = \operatorname{Ann}_R(n)$ .

**Definition 6.1.6** (Set of Associated Prime) Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Define the set of associated primes of M to be

$$Ass(M) = \{ P \in Spec(R) \mid P \text{ is an associated prime of } M \}$$

Another way to think about the set of associated primes of M is that

$$Ass(M) = \{Ann_R(m) \mid Ann_R(m) \in Spec(R)\}\$$

**Lemma 6.1.7** Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Then we have

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

**Proof** If  $r \in R$  is a non-zero zero divisor of M, then rm = 0 for some  $0 \neq m \in M$ . Then  $r \in \operatorname{Ann}_R(m)$ . By 6.1.1, r is contained some prime ideal that is an annihilator. Hence r lies in the union in the left. Conversely, if r lies in some annihilator then clearly r is a zero divisor, or r = 0.

### **Proposition 6.1.8**

Let R be a commutative ring. Let S be a multiplicative subset of R. Let M be an  $S^{-1}R$ -module. Then we have

$$\operatorname{Ass}_{S^{-1}R}(S^{-1}M) = \operatorname{Ass}_R(S^{-1}M)$$

**Proof** 

### **Proposition 6.1.9**

Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Let S be a multiplicative subset of R. Let M be an R-module. Then the following are true.

ullet Considering  $\operatorname{Spec}(S^{-1}R)$  as a subset of  $\operatorname{Spec}(R)$  by the correspondence of prime ideals of localization, we have

$$\operatorname{Ass}_R(S^{-1}M) = \operatorname{Ass}_R(M) \cap \operatorname{Spec}(S^{-1}R)$$

• Let P be a prime ideal of R. Then  $P \in \mathrm{Ass}_R(M)$  if and only if  $PR_P \in \mathrm{Ass}_{R_P}(M_P)$ .

#### **Proof**

Suppose that  $P \in \mathrm{Ass}_R(S^{-1}M)$ . Let  $\varphi$  denote the localization map. Then  $P = \mathrm{Ann}_R(m/s)$  for some  $m/s \in S^{-1}M$ . But  $p/t \in P$  annihilates m/s if and only if p annihilates m. Hence by lifting P back to R by the correspondence,  $\varphi^{-1}(P) = \mathrm{Ann}_R(m)$  and must also be a prime lying in  $\mathrm{Spec}(S^{-1}R)$ .

Conversely, if  $P \in \operatorname{Spec}(S^{-1}R)$  annihilates  $m \in M$ , then it must also annihilate m/1. And m/1 is annihilated by  $r/s \in S^{-1}R$  if r annihilates m in M. Thus we conclude.

**Proposition 6.1.10** Let R be a commutative ring. Let the following be an exact sequence of R-modules.

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

Then we have

$$Ass(M_2) \subseteq Ass(M_1) \cup Ass(M_3)$$

**Example 6.1.11** Consider the short exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \stackrel{\times 2}{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0$$

Then  $Ass(\mathbb{Z}) \subset Ass(\mathbb{Z}) \cup Ass(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$  is a strict subset.

**Proof** Clearly  $(2) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$  annihilates  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  but does not annihilate  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Theorem 6.1.12** (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

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

for some prime ideal  $P_i$  of R.

**Proof** If M is trivial then we are done. So suppose that  $M \neq \{0\}$ . We define the R-submodules inductively.

- When n=1,  $\mathrm{Ass}(M) \neq \emptyset$ , say  $P_1 \in \mathrm{Ass}(M)$ . Since  $P_1$  is an annihilator,  $M_1 = R/P_1$  is an R-submodule of M.
- Assume that  $M_1 \subset \cdots \subset M_i$  is constructed. If  $M_i = M$  then we are done. If not, then  $M/M_i \neq \{0\}$  and  $P_{i+1} \in \mathrm{Ass}(M/M_i) \neq \emptyset$ . Then  $N = R/P_{i+1}$  is an R-submodule of  $M/M_i$ . By the correspondence theorem for R-modules, N corresponds to an R-submodule  $M_{i+1}$  of M containing  $M_i$ .

The process eventually terminates since M is Noetherian.

**Proposition 6.1.13** Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Let  $P_1, \ldots, P_n \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$  be the prime ideals appearing in the disassembly of M. Then

$$Ass(M) \subseteq \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$$

**Proof** We induct on the length of the disassembly. When n=0 the result is trivial. Suppose that the result holds true for all R-modules whose length of disassembly is  $\leq k$ . Let M be an R-module whose disassembly has length k+1. Let  $\varphi: M/M_k \to R/P_k$  be the isomorphism given in the disassembly. Let  $m \in M$  be such that  $\operatorname{Ann}_R(m)$  is a prime idea. If  $m \in M_k$  then by inductive hypothesis we are done. So suppose that  $m \notin M_k$ . If r annihilates m, then r annihilates  $\varphi(m)$  in  $R/P_k$ . Hence

**Definition 6.1.14** (Embedded Associated Primes) Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Let  $I \in \mathrm{Ass}(M)$  be an associated prime. We say that I is embedded if I is not minimal in  $\mathrm{Ass}(M)$ .

# 6.2 The Support of a Module

**Definition 6.2.1** (Support of a Module) Let A be a commutative ring. Let M be an A-module. The support of M is the subset

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

Lemma 6.2.2 Let *R* be a commutative ring. Let the following be an exact sequence of *R*-modules.

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

Then we have

$$Supp(M_2) = Supp(M_1) \cup Supp(M_2)$$

**Proposition 6.2.3** Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Then

$$Supp(M) = \{ P \in Spec(R) \mid Ann_R(M) \subseteq P \}$$

**Proof** We first show the case when M is generated by one element  $m \in M$ . Let  $P \in \operatorname{Supp}(M)$ . Then  $M_P \neq 0$  and so  $m/1 \neq 0 \in M_P$ . This means that for all  $s \in R \setminus P$ , we have  $sm \neq 0$ . Then  $R \setminus P \cap \operatorname{Ann}_R(m) = \emptyset$ . Then  $P \supseteq \operatorname{Ann}_R(m) = \operatorname{Ann}_R(M)$ . Conversely, suppose that  $P \notin \operatorname{Supp}(M)$ . Then  $M_P = 0$  and so m/1 = 0. So there exists  $s \in R \setminus P$  such that sm = 0. Hence  $R \setminus P \cap \operatorname{Ann}_R(m) \neq \emptyset$  and so  $\operatorname{Ann}_R(M) = \operatorname{Ann}_R(m)$  is not a subset of P.

Now suppose that M is finitely generated by  $m_1, \ldots, m_k$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Supp}(M) &= \bigcup_{i=1}^{k} \operatorname{Supp}(R \cdot m_{i}) \\ &= \bigcup_{i=1}^{k} \{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(m_{i}) \subseteq P\} \\ &= \bigcup_{i=1}^{k} \{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(m_{i}) \subseteq P\} \\ &= \left\{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid \bigcap_{i=1}^{k} \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(m_{i}) \subseteq P\right\} \\ &= \{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(M) \subseteq P\} \end{aligned} \tag{lmm1.1.2}$$

**Lemma 6.2.4** Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Let  $P_1, \ldots, P_n \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$  be a complete list of distinct minimal prime ideals over  $\operatorname{Ann}_R(M)$ . Then we have

$$\operatorname{Supp}(M) = \bigcup_{k=1}^n \{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid P_k \subseteq P\}$$

**Proof** We induct on the length of the diassembly of M. If n=1, then M is simple, and  $M\cong R/P$  with  $P=\mathrm{Ann}_R(M)$ . Now suppose the result is true for  $\leq n-1$ . Let  $0=M_0\subset\cdots M_n=M$  be the diassembly of M. Then we obtain an exact sequence of the form

$$0 \longrightarrow M_{n-1} \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} M \stackrel{g}{\longrightarrow} \frac{M}{M_{n-1}} \longrightarrow 0$$

In particular, we have  $\operatorname{Supp}(M) = \operatorname{Supp}(M/M_{n-1}) \cup \operatorname{Supp}(M_{n-1})$ . By induction, we have  $\operatorname{Supp}(M_{n-1}) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} \{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid P_i \subseteq P\}$ , and similarly for the simple module  $M/M_{n-1}$  we have the result of the case n=1. Hence we are done.

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Let  $P_1, \ldots, P_n \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$  be the prime ideals appearing in the disassembly of M. Then summarizing the above, we have

$$\operatorname{Ass}(M) \subseteq \{P_1, \dots, P_n\} \subseteq \operatorname{Supp}(M) = \{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid \operatorname{Ann}_R(M) \subseteq P\}$$

It turns out that the minimal primes of the four sets coincide.

**Proposition 6.2.5** Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Let  $P_1, \ldots, P_n \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$  be the prime ideals appearing in the disassembly of M. Then the following sets are equal.

- $\{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid P \text{ is minimal in } \operatorname{Supp}(M)\}.$
- $\{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid P \text{ is minimal in } \operatorname{Ass}(M)\}.$
- $\{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid P \text{ is a minmal prime ideal over } \operatorname{Ann}_R(M)\}.$
- $\{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid P \text{ is minimal in } \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}\}.$

**Proof** 

• (1) = (4): By the above lemma, we have

$$\operatorname{Supp}(M) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid P_i \subseteq P\} = \bigcup_{P \in \{P_1, \dots, P_n\} \text{ minimal}} \{Q \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid P_k \subseteq Q\}$$

If P is minimal in  $\operatorname{Supp}(M)$ , then it is minimal in the union. Then  $P \in \{Q \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid P_k \subseteq Q\}$  for some minimal  $P_k$ . If  $P \neq P_k$  then evidently P is not minimal, hence  $P = P_k$ . The converse is similar.

• (1) = (3): By 6.2.3,  $\operatorname{Supp}(M) = \{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid \operatorname{Ann}_R(M) \subseteq P\}$  means that P is a minimal prime ideal over  $\operatorname{Ann}_R(M)$  if and only if P is minimal in  $\operatorname{Supp}(M)$ .

# 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 *R* be a commutative ring. Let *Q* be an ideal of *R*. Then the following are true.

- If *Q* is a prime ideal, then *Q* is a primary ideal.
- If  $\sqrt{Q}$  is a maximal ideal, then Q is a primary ideal.

**Proof** Let  $fg \in Q$ . Since Q is prime,  $f \in Q$  or  $g \in Q$  and so we are done.

Let  $fg \in Q$  and  $f \notin Q$ . Let  $I = \{g \in R \mid fg \in Q\}$ . Clearly  $Q \subseteq I$ . Moreover  $1 \notin I$ . Hence I is a proper ideal. Then we have  $m = \sqrt{Q} \subseteq \sqrt{I}$ . Hence  $I \subseteq \sqrt{I} = m$  since m is maximal. This shows that  $g \in I$  implies  $g \in m = \sqrt{Q}$ . Hence we are done.

**Lemma 6.3.3** 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.

**Proposition 6.3.4** Let R be a commutative ring. Let Q be a proper ideal of R. Then Q is primary if and only if every zero divisor in R/Q is nilpotent.

**Lemma 6.3.5** Let R be a commutative ring. Let Q be a primary ideal of R. Then the following are true.

- $\sqrt{Q}$  is a prime ideal.
- $\sqrt{Q}$  is minimal among primes that contain Q.

**Definition 6.3.6** (P-Primary Ideals) Let R 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 R if the following are true.

- *Q* is a primary ideal.
- $\bullet \ \sqrt{Q} = P.$

**Lemma 6.3.7** Let R be a commutative ring. Let P be a prime ideal. Let  $Q_1, Q_2$  be P-primary ideals. Then  $Q_1 \cap Q_2$  is a P-primary ideal.

**Proposition 6.3.8** Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Let P be a prime ideal of R. Let Q be a proper ideal. Then Q is P-primary if and only if  $Ass(R/Q) = \{P\}$ .

**Proof** Let Q be a P-primary ideal. We know that  $\operatorname{Ass}(R/Q)$  is non-empty. So let I be a prime ideal such that  $I \in \operatorname{Ass}(R/Q)$ . Clearly  $Q \subseteq I$ . There exists  $[r] \in R/Q$  where  $[r] \neq 0$  such that  $\operatorname{Ann}_R([r]) = I$ . Let  $x \in I \setminus \{0\}$ . Then  $[xr] = [x] \cdot [r] = 0 \in R/Q$  implies that [x] is a zero divisor of R/Q. By 6.3.4, we conclude that  $[x] \in N(R/Q)$ . Then by lemma 1.4.5, we have  $x \in \sqrt{Q} = P$ . Hence we have  $Q \subseteq I \subseteq \sqrt{Q} = P$ . Taking radical gives I = P since I is a prime ideal. Hence  $\operatorname{Ass}(R/Q) = \{P\}$ .

Now suppose that  $\operatorname{Ass}(R/Q) = \{P\}$ . Let  $xy \in Q$ . Suppose that  $x \notin Q$ . Then we have  $[x] \cdot [y] = [xy] = 0 \in R/Q$ . Hence  $y \in \operatorname{Ann}_R([x])$ . But we also have

$$\sqrt{\mathrm{Ann}_R([x])} = \bigcap_{\substack{I \text{ is a minimal prime} \\ \mathrm{ideal \ over \ Ann}_R([x])}} I = \bigcap_{\substack{I \text{ is minimal} \\ \mathrm{in \ Ass}([x])}} I = P$$

Similarly, we know that

$$\sqrt{\mathrm{Ann}_R(R/Q)} = \bigcap_{\substack{I \text{ is a minimal prime} \\ \text{ideal over } \mathrm{Ann}_R(R/Q)}} I = \bigcap_{\substack{I \text{ is minimal} \\ \text{in } \mathrm{Ass}(R/Q)}} I = P$$

Then  $y \in \operatorname{Ann}_R([x])$  implies that  $y \in \sqrt{\operatorname{Ann}_R([x])} = P = \sqrt{\operatorname{Ann}_R(R/Q)}$ . This means that  $y^n \in \operatorname{Ann}_R(R/Q)$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Hence  $y^n \in Q$ .

**Lemma 6.3.9** Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Let P be a prime ideal. Let Q be P-primary. Then we have

$$P^n \subseteq Q \subseteq P$$

for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Proof** Since R is Noetherian, P is finitely generated. Suppose that  $P=(f_1,\ldots,f_k)$ . Since  $\sqrt{Q}=P$ , we have  $f_i^{n_i}\in Q$  for some  $n_i\in\mathbb{N}$ . Then for any monomial of degree  $m>\sum_{i=1}^k(n_i-1)$  is a multiple of  $f_i^{n_i}$  for some  $1\leq i\leq k$ . Hence  $P^m\subseteq Q$ .

**Example 6.3.10** Let k be a field. Let  $I = (x^2, xy) \subseteq k[x, y]$ . Then we have

$$(x^2) \subset I \subset (x)$$

but I is not primary. In particular, this shows that the condition in the above lemma is not a sufficient condition for ideals to be primary.

**Proof** *I* is not primary because  $xy \in I$  but  $x \notin I$  and  $y^n \notin I$  for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Corollary 6.3.11 Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Let m be a maximal ideal of R. Let Q be a proper ideal. Then the following are equivalent.

- ullet Q is m-primary.
- $\operatorname{Ass}(R/Q) = \{m\}$
- There exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $m^n \subseteq Q \subseteq m$ .

**Proof** By the above proposition we have  $(1) \iff (2)$ . The above lemma also shows that  $(1) \implies (3)$ . Finally, suppose that  $m^n \subseteq Q \subseteq m$ . Then taking radicals give  $m = \sqrt{m^n} \subseteq \sqrt{Q} \subseteq \sqrt{m} = m$ . By 6.3.3 we conclude that Q is m-primary.

### 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

$$I = Q_1 \cap \cdots \cap Q_r$$

**Example 6.4.2** Let k be a field. For any  $\alpha \in k$ , the ideal  $(x^2, xy) \subseteq k[x, y]$  has a primary decomposition given by

$$(x^2, xy) = (x) \cap (x^2, y - \alpha x)$$

**Proof** Since (x) is a prime ideal, it is a (x)-primary ideal.

**Definition 6.4.3** (Minimal Primary Decompositions) Let *A* be a commutative ring. Let *I* be an ideal of *A*. Let

$$I = Q_1 \cap \cdots \cap Q_r$$

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 6.4.4** Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Let I be a proper ideal of R. Then I admits a minimal primary decomposition.

**Definition 6.4.5** (Prime Divisors of an Ideal) Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. We say that a prime ideal P of R is a prime divisor of I if  $P = \sqrt{Q}$  for some ideal Q that lies in a minimal primary decomposition of I.

# 6.5 The Two Uniqueness Theorems

**Theorem 6.5.1** (First Uniqueness Theorem)

Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Let

$$I = \bigcap_{i=1}^{k} Q_i$$

be a minimal primary decomposition of I, where each  $Q_i$  is  $P_i$ -primary. Then we have

$$\operatorname{Ass}(R/I) = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$$

Moreover,  $\operatorname{Ass}(R/I)$  is unique.

**Theorem 6.5.2** (Second Uniqueness Theorem)

Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Let

$$I = \bigcap_{i=1}^{k} Q_i$$

be a minimal primary decomposition of I, where each  $Q_i$  is  $P_i$ -primary. Let P be a minimal element of  $\mathrm{Ass}(R/I) = \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$ . Let  $\varphi : R \to R_P$  be the localization map. Then we have

$$Q_i = \varphi^{-1}(I_P)$$

Moreover, the primary decomposition is uniquely determined by the minimal P in Ass(R/I).

# 6.6 Symbolic Powers

**Definition 6.6.1** (Symbolic Powers)

Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Denote  $\varphi: R \to R_P$  the localization map with respect to the prime ideal P. Let I be an ideal of R. Define the nth symbolic power of I to be

$$I^{(n)} = \bigcap_{P \in \operatorname{Ass}(R/I)} \varphi^{-1}(I^n R_P)$$

# 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.

- ullet 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.

**Proof** 

- (1)  $\Longrightarrow$  (2): Since b is integral over A,  $b^n = a_{n-1}b^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1b + a_0$ . Hence  $A[b] = \bigoplus_{i=0}^{n-1} A \cdot b^i$  is a finitely generated A-module.
- (2)  $\Longrightarrow$  (3): Choose A' = A[b].
- (3)  $\implies$  (1). By assumption, A' is a finitely generated A-module. Let  $\phi: A' \to A'$  be the ring homomorphism defined by  $\phi(x) = bx$ . By Cayley-Hamilton theorem, there exists  $a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in A$  such that

$$\phi^n + a_{n-1}\phi^{n-1} + \dots + a_1\phi + a_0 = 0$$

Since  $\phi$  is the multiplication by b map, we have

$$(b^n + a_{n-1}b^{n-1} + \dots + a_1b_+a_0)(y) = 0$$

for all  $y \in A'$ . Choosing y = 1, we see that b is integral over A.

**Lemma 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.

**Proof** Induct on n and use the fact that  $x_i$  is integral over A if and only if  $A[x_i]$  is a finitely generated A-module, and the fact that  $x_i$  is integral over  $A[x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1}]$ .

**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.

### **Example 7.2.2** The integral closure of $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$ is $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Proposition 7.2.3** 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 7.2.4** (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 7.2.5** 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 7.2.6** Let A, B be commutative rings such that  $A \subset B$  is an integral extension. Then the following are true.

- Let J be an ideal of B. Then  $\frac{B}{J}$  is integral over  $\frac{A}{J \cap A}$ .
- Let S be a multiplicative subset of B. Then  $S^{-1}B$  is integral over  $S^{-1}A$ .

**Proof** Suppose that J is an ideal of B. Let  $b+J \in B/J$ . Since  $b \in B$  and B is integral over A, there exists  $a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in A$  such that

$$b^{n} + a_{n-1}b^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}b + a_{0} = 0$$

Reduction to J gives

$$(b+J)^n + (a_{n-1}+J)(b+J)^{n-1} + \dots + (a_1+J)(b+J) + (a_0+J) = J$$

This shows that b+J is an integral element of  $A/J \cap A$  because each  $a_i+J$  is an element of  $A/J \cap A$  by restriction to A.

Let  $b/s \in S^{-1}B$ . Since B is integral over A, there exists  $a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in A$  such that

$$b^{n} + a_{n-1}b^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}b + a_{0} = 0$$

Dividing  $s^n$  on both sides give

$$\frac{b^n}{s^n} + \frac{a_{n-1}}{s} \frac{b^{n-1}}{s^{n-1}} + \dots + \frac{a_1}{s^{n-1}} \frac{b}{s} + \frac{a_0}{s^n} = 0$$

This shows that b/s is an integral element of  $S^{-1}A$ .

**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.

**Proof** Suppose that A is a field. Let  $0 \neq b \in B$ . Then there exists  $a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in A$  such that

$$b^{n} + a_{n-1}b^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}b + a_{0} = 0$$

for smallest of such  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Rearranging gives

$$b(b^{n-1} + a_{n-1}b^{n-2} + \dots + a_1) = -a_0$$

Notice that  $a_0 \neq 0$  because otherwise it contradicts the minimality of n. Since A is a field, we can

divide  $-a_0 \neq 0$  on both sides to find an inverse of b. Hence B is a field.

Now assume that B is a field. Let  $0 \neq a \in A$ . Since B is a field,  $a^{-1} \in B$  is such that there exists  $a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in A$  such that

$$a^{-n} + a_{n-1}a^{-(n-1)} + \dots + a_1a^{-1} + a_0 = 0$$

Multiplying  $a^{n-1}$  on both sides and rearranging, we get

$$a^{-1} = -(a_{n-1} + \dots + a_1 a^{n-2} + a_0 a^{n-1})$$

This shows that  $a^{-1} \in A$ . Hence A 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  $\overline{A} = A$ .

**Theorem 7.2.9** (Gauss's Lemma) Let B be a commutative ring. Let  $A \subseteq B$  be a subring. Suppose that A is integrally closed in B. Then the following are true.

- If  $f, g \in B[x]$  are monic polynomials such that  $fg \in A[x]$ , then  $f, g \in A[x]$ .
- If  $f \in A[x]$  is irreducible, then f is irreducible as a polynomial in B[x].

**Proof** Clearly the first statement implies the second. We first prove that for any monic polynomial  $f \in B[x]$ , there exists a ring C such that  $B \subseteq C$  and f factorizes as a product of linear terms in C[x]. To show this, we induct on n. If n = 1 then we are done. Suppose that the hypothesis is true for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Suppose that  $\deg(f) = k + 1$ .

# 7.3 Four Main Theorems of Integral Extensions

We want to compare prime ideals between integral extensions.

**Lemma 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.

**Proof** By 7.2.6, we know that B/Q is integral over  $A/Q \cap A$ . By 7.2.7, B/Q is a field if and only if  $A/Q \cap A$  is a field. Hence Q is a maximal ideal of B if and only if  $Q \cap A$  is a maximal ideal of A.

### **Theorem 7.3.2** (The Lying Over Theorem)

Let A, B be rings such that  $A \subset B$  is an integral extension. Let P be a prime ideal of A. Then there exists a prime ideal Q of B such that  $P = Q \cap A$ 

#### Proof

Let  $\alpha:A\to A_P$  and  $\beta:B\to B_P$  be the localization maps. Consider the following commutative diagram.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
A & \longrightarrow & B \\
\alpha \downarrow & & \downarrow \beta \\
A_P & \longrightarrow & B_P
\end{array}$$

Since  $PB_P$  is the unique maximal ideal of  $B_P$ , we know that  $PA_P = PB_P \cap A_P$  is the unique maximal ideal of  $A_P$ . On the other hand, we also know that  $\beta^{-1}(PB_P)$  is a prime ideal of B. By commutativity of the diagram, we have that P is mapped to  $\beta^{-1}(PB_P)$ . Then by definition of extension we have that  $\beta^{-1}(PB_P) \cap B = P$ .

**Theorem 7.3.3** (The Incomparability Theorem) Let A, B be rings such that  $A \subset B$  is an integral extension. If  $Q_1 \neq Q_2$  are distinct prime ideals of B such that  $Q_1 \cap A = P = Q_2 \cap B$ , then  $Q_1 \not\subset Q_2$  and  $Q_2 \not\subset Q_1$ .

#### Proof

We prove the contrapositive statement. That is, 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  $Q_1 = Q_2$ .

Let  $\alpha:A\to A_P$  and  $\beta:B\to B_P$  be the localization maps. Consider the following commutative diagram.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & & & & B \\ \alpha \downarrow & & & \downarrow \beta \\ A_P & & & & B_P \end{array}$$

Since  $PB_P$  is the unique maximal ideal of  $B_P$ , we know that  $PA_P = PB_P \cap A_P$  is the unique maximal ideal of  $A_P$ . On the other hand, we also know that  $\beta^{-1}(PB_P)$  is a prime ideal of B. By commutativity of the diagram, we have that P is mapped to  $\beta^{-1}(PB_P)$ . Then by definition of extension we have that  $\beta^{-1}(PB_P) \cap B = P$ .

Let  $Q_1, Q_2$  be as given. We have that

$$(Q_1 \cap A)A_P = PA_P = (Q_2 \cap A)A_P$$

is the same maximal ideal of  $A_P$  since they both contract to P in A. By the above lemma,  $(Q_1 \cap A)B_P$  and  $(Q_2 \cap A)B_P$  are both maximal ideals of  $B_P$ . By commutativity of the diagram,  $(Q_1 \cap A)B_P = Q_1B_P$  and  $(Q_2 \cap A)B_P = Q_2B_P$ . Since  $Q_1 \subseteq Q_2$ , we have that  $Q_1B_P \subseteq Q_2B_P$ . Since  $Q_1B_P$  and  $Q_2B_P$  are both maximal ideals, they must be equal. Hence by contraction we deduce that  $Q_1 = Q_2$ .

**Theorem 7.3.4** (The Going-Up Theorem) Let A, B be commutative rings such that  $A \subset B$  is an integral extension. Let  $0 \le m < n$ . Consider the following situation

$$\begin{array}{lll} B & Q_1\subseteq\cdots\subseteq Q_m & (\text{Prime ideals of }B) \\ & & \\ A & P_1\subseteq\cdots\subseteq P_m & \subseteq P_{m+1}\subseteq\cdots\subseteq P_n & (\text{Prime ideals of }A) \end{array}$$

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

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

Moreover, if the chain of prime ideals of A is strictly increasing the new chain of prime ideals in B is strictly increasing.

**Proof** By induction, it suffices to prove the case m=1 and n=2. This means that we want to find a prime ideal  $Q_2$  such that  $Q_1 \subseteq Q_2$  and  $Q_2 \cap A = P_2$ . By 7.2.6,  $B/Q_1$  is integral over  $A/P_1$ . Since  $P_2/P_1$  is a prime in  $A/P_1$  by the correspondence theorem, by 7.3.2 there exists a prime ideal  $Q_2/Q_1$  in  $B/Q_1$  such that  $Q_2/Q_1 \cap A/P_1 = P_2/P_1$ . This implies that  $Q_2 \cap A = P_2$ .

Finally, suppose that the chain of prime ideals in A is strictly increasing. Suppose for a contradiction that  $Q_i = Q_{i+1}$ . Then we must have  $P_i = Q_i \cap A = Q_{i+1} \cap A = P_{i+1}$ , a contradiction.

### 7.4 Zariski's Lemma

**Lemma 7.4.1** Let F be a field. Let  $f \in F[x]$  be a polynomial. Then the localization  $F[x]_f$  is not a field.

**Proof** By 1.8.1, F[x] has infinitely many irreducible polynomials. Then there exists a monic irreducible polynomial g that does not divide f. Assume for a contradiction that  $F[x]_f$  is a field. Then g/1 is invertible. So there exists  $h \in F[x]$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $1 = g \cdot \frac{h}{f^n}$ . This means that

there exists  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $ghf^m = f^{n+m} \in F[x]$ . If n+m=0, then g is a unit, a contradiction. Otherwise, g divides  $f^{n+m}$ . Since g is irreducible, g divides f and is also a contradiction. Hence  $F[x]_f$  is not a field.

**Theorem 7.4.2** (Zariski's Lemma) Let F be a field. Let K/F be a field extension. Then K/F is a finite field extension if and only if K is finitely generated as an F-algebra.

**Proof** Since K is finitely generated as an F-algebra, there exists  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in K$  such that every element in K can be written as a polynomial in  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ . This means that  $K = F(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  as fields. Suppose for a contradiction that K/F is not an algebraic (integral) extension. Without loss of generality, suppose that  $F(x_1, \ldots, x_r)/F$  is transcendental (not integral) and  $K/F(x_1, \ldots, x_r)$  is algebraic (integral).

Let  $L=F(x_1,\ldots,x_{r-1})$ . Consider the transcendental (not integral) extension  $L(x_r)/L$ . Now K is generated as an L-algebra by the elements  $x_1,\ldots,x_n$ . Since  $K/L(x_r)$  is integral, there exists monic polynomials  $p_i\in L(x_r)[y]$  such that  $p_i(x_i)=0$ . Since  $L(x_r)$  is the field of fractions of the polynomial ring  $L[x_r]$ , each coefficient of  $p_i$  can be expressed as a fraction g/h for  $g,h\in L(x_r)$  and  $h\neq 0$ . Let f be the product of all denominators of the coefficient of  $p_i$  for all i. Then  $p_i\in L[x_r]_f[y]$ . So every  $x_1,\ldots,x_n$  satisfies a monic polynomial with coefficients in  $L[x_r]_f$ . Hence the  $L[x_r]_f$  subalgebra of K generated by  $x_1,\ldots,x_n$  is integral over  $L[x_r]_f$ . By 7.2.7,  $L[x]_f$  is a field. This is a contradiction to the above lemma. Hence we are done.

There is a correspondence between the different terms used in Field and Galois Theory and Commutative Algebra

Field Extension $K/F$	B an $A$ -algebra
$x \in K$ is algebraic	$b \in B$ is integral
K/F is an algebraic extension	$A \subseteq B$ is an integral extension
The algebraic closure $F < \overline{F} < K$	The integral closure $A \subseteq \overline{A} \subseteq B$
K/F is a finite extension	S is a finitely generated $R$ -algebra

Corollary 7.4.3 Let F be an algebraically closed field. Let K be a field that is also a finitely generated algebra over F. Then K = F.

**Proof** By Zariski's lemma, K/F is a finite field extension. Let  $x \in K$ . Let f be the minimal polynomial of x. Since F is algebraically closed, f is linear. Hence  $x \in F$ .

**Corollary 7.4.4** Let *F* be an algebraically closed field. Then we have

$$\max \operatorname{Spec}(F[x_1, \dots, x_n]) = \{(x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n) \mid (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in F^n\}$$

**Proof** Let m be a maximal ideal of  $F[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ . Then  $F[x_1,\ldots,x_n]/m$  is a finitely generated F-algebra that is a field. By the above, we have that  $F[x_1,\ldots,x_n]/m\cong F$ . Then there exists  $a_i\in F$  such that  $a_i$  corresponds to  $x_i+m$  by the isomorphism. This means that  $a_i+m=x_i+m$ , or  $(x_i-a_i)\in m$ . Hence  $(x_1-a_1,\ldots,x_n-a_n)\subseteq m$ . Since  $(x_1-a_1,\ldots,x_n-a_n)$  is maximal by the evaluation homomorphism, we conclude that  $m=(x_1-a_1,\ldots,x_n-a_n)$ .

### 7.5 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 7.5.1** (Normal Domains) Let R be an integral domain. We say that R is normal if R is integrally closed in Frac(R).

**Proposition 7.5.2** 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  $sa_i \in R$  satisfies the monic polynomial

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

since  $q(sg)=s^ng^n+\sum_{k=0}^{n-1}s^na_kx^k=s^np(g)=0$ . 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 7.5.3** Let R be a commutative ring. If R is a UFD, then R is normal.

**Proof** Let  $a/b \in \operatorname{Frac}(R)$  that is integral. Assume that a,b do not have common factors. Then there exists  $r_0, \ldots, r_{n-1} \in R$  such that

$$\frac{a^n}{b^n} + r_{n-1} \frac{a^{n-1}}{b^{n-1}} + \dots + r_1 \frac{a}{b} + r_0 = 0$$

Rearranging, we get

$$a^{n} = -b \left( r_{n-1}a^{n-1} + \dots + r_{1}a^{1}b^{n-2} + r_{0}b^{n-1} \right)$$

This shows that any irreducible element dividing b also divides  $a^n$ , and hence a. Since a and b do not have common factors, this means that no irreducible element divides b. Since R is a UFD, b must be a unit. Hence  $a/b \in R$ .

**Example 7.5.4** The integral closure of  $\mathbb{Z}$  in  $\mathbb{Q}[i]$  is  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .

**Proof** If  $a+bi \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ , then  $p(x) = x^2 - 2ax + a^2 + b^2$  is a monic polynomial such that p(a+bi) = 0. Conversely, let  $z \in \mathbb{Q}[i]$  lie in the integral closure of  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Then z is also an integral element of  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ . Since  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is a UFD,  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is a normal domain and so is integrally closed in  $\operatorname{Frac}(\mathbb{Z}[i]) = \mathbb{Q}[i]$ . So  $z \in \overline{\mathbb{Z}[i]} = \mathbb{Z}[i]$  shows that  $\overline{\mathbb{Z}} \subseteq \overline{\mathbb{Z}[i]}$ .

**Proposition 7.5.5** (Normal is a Local Property) Let R be an integral domain. Then the following are equivalent.

- 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.

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**Proposition 7.5.6** Let R be a normal domain. Then R[x] is a normal domain.

**Proposition 7.5.7** Let R be a normal domain. Let Frac(R) < K be an algebraic extension. Let  $a \in K$ . Then a is integral over R if and only if the minimal polynomial  $min(Frac(R), a) \in R[x]$ .

**Proof** Suppose that  $\min(\operatorname{Frac}(R), a) \in R[x]$ . Then  $\min(\operatorname{Frac}(R), a)(a) = 0$  and  $\min(\operatorname{Frac}(R), a)$  is monic by definition. Hence a is integral over R.

Now suppose that  $a \in K$  is integral over R. Let  $\overline{K}$  be the algebraic closure of K. Then  $\min(\operatorname{Frac}(R), a)$  splits into monic irreducible polynomials

$$\min(\operatorname{Frac}(R), a)(x) = (x - a_1) \cdots (x - a_n) \in \overline{K}[x]$$

for  $a_1,\ldots,a_n\in\overline{K}$ . Since a is integral over R, there exists a monic polynomial  $g\in R[x]$  such that g(a)=0. By definition of the minimal polynomial, we have  $\min(\operatorname{Frac}(R),a)$  divides g. Hence  $g(a_i)=0$  for each i and that  $a_1,\ldots,a_n$  are integral over R. Now the coefficients of  $\min(\operatorname{Frac}(R),a)$  are sums and products of  $a_1,\ldots,a_n$ , and hence are also integral over R. But R is a normal domain so the coefficients of  $\min(\operatorname{Frac}(R),a)$  lie in R.

# 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 be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Then we have  $\dim(R) \ge \dim(R/I)$ .

#### Lemma 8.1.3

Let R, S be commutative rings such that  $R \subseteq S$  is an integral extension. Then we have

$$\dim(R) = \dim(S)$$

**Proof** Let  $P_0 \subset \cdots \subset P_n$  be a strictly increasing chain of prime ideals of R. By the going up theorem, we obtain an increasing chain of prime ideals  $Q_0 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq Q_n$  in S. Hence  $\dim(R) \leq \dim(S)$ .

Conversely, suppose that  $Q_0 \subset \cdots \subset Q_n$  is a strictly increasing chain of prime ideals in S. Then  $\varphi^{-1}(Q_0) \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \varphi^{-1}(Q_n)$  is an increasing chain of prime ideals of R. Hence  $\dim(S) \leq \dim(R)$ .

**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  $\dim(R) = 0$ .

**Definition 8.1.5** (Dimension of Modules) Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Define the dimension of M to be

$$\dim(M) = \dim\left(\frac{R}{\mathsf{Ann}_R(M)}\right)$$

### **Proposition 8.1.6**

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

$$\dim(M) = \sup \{\dim(R/P) \mid P \in \mathrm{Ass}(M)\}\$$

**Proof** We know that the set of all minimal prime ideals of  $\operatorname{Ass}(M)$  is equal to the set of all minimal prime ideals over  $\operatorname{Ann}_R(M)$  by 6.2.5. Any maximal chain of prime ideals over  $\operatorname{Ann}_R(M)$  must also start at one of these minimal prime ideals. Hence by the correspondence theorem we have  $\sup\{\dim(R/P)\mid P\in\operatorname{Ass}(M)\}=\dim(R/\operatorname{Ann}_R(M))$ .

### 8.2 Noether Normalization Lemma

#### Lemma 8.2.1

Let k be a field. Let T be a finite set of monomials in  $k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ . Then there exists  $w_1,\ldots,w_{n-1}$  such that for any two  $a_{k_1,\ldots,k_n}x_1^{k_1}\cdots x_n^{k_n},b_{r_1,\ldots,r_n}x_1^{r_1}\cdots x_n^{r_n},\in T$ ,  $(k_1,\ldots,k_n)\neq (j_1,\ldots,j_n)$  implies that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} w_i k_i + k_n \neq \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} w_i j_i + j_n$$

**Proof** We induct on n. When n=1 then we are done. When  $n\geq 2$ , we can write each monomial in T as a monomial in  $x_2,\ldots,x_n$  to apply the inductive hypothesis and obtain  $w_2,\ldots,w_n$ . Then set  $w_1>\max\{\sum_{i=2}^{n-1}w_ik_i+k_n\mid (k_1,\ldots,k_n)\text{represents a monomial in }T\}$ . For  $(k_1,\ldots,k_n)\neq (j_1,\ldots,j_n)$  there are two cases. If  $(k_2,\ldots,k_n)\neq (j_2,\ldots,j_n)$ , then by inductive hypothesis we have  $\sum_{i=2}^{n-1}w_ik_i+k_{n-1}\neq\sum_{i=2}^{n-1}w_ij_i+j_n$ . Since  $w_1$  is larger than these two numbers, we must have that  $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}w_ik_i+k_n\neq\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}w_ij_i+j_n$ . Otherwise, if  $(k_2,\ldots,k_n)=(j_2,\ldots,j_n)$  but  $k_1\neq j_1$ , then  $w_1k_1\neq w_1j_1$  and so we are done.

### **Theorem 8.2.2** (Noether Normalization Lemma)

Let k be a field. Let R be a finitely generated k-algebra with the isomorphism  $R \cong \frac{k[x_1, \dots, x_n]}{I}$  for some ideal I. Then there exists  $y_1, \dots, y_d \in R$  for some  $0 \le d \le n$  such that the following are true.

- $y_1, \ldots, y_d$  are algebraically independent.
- R is finitely generated over  $k[y_1, \ldots, y_d]$ .
- $d = \dim(R)$ .

#### Proof

Since R is a finitely generated k-algebra, we have  $R\cong \frac{k[x_1,\dots,x_n]}{I}$  for some  $n\in\mathbb{N}$  and some ideal I. We induct on n. When n=1, we have  $R\cong \frac{k[x]}{I}$ . Since k[x] is a PID, I=(f) for some  $f\in k[x]$ . If f=0, then we are done. So suppose that  $f\neq 0$ . Then R is a generated as a k-vector space by  $1,x,\dots,x^{\deg(f)-1}$ . Thus R is finitely generated over k[x].

Now suppose that  $n \geq 2$ . If each  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  are algebraically independent then we are done. So suppose not. Then I claim that there is a k-subalgebra S of R generated by n-1 elements such that R is finitely generated over S. Since  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  are not algebraically independent, there exists a polynomial in k such that  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = 0$ . For  $r_1, \ldots, r_{n-1} \in \mathbb{N}$ , write  $z_i = x_i - x_n^{r_i}$ . Then we have

$$f(z_1 + x_n^{r_1}, \dots, z_{n-1} + x_n^{r_{n-1}}, x_n) = 0$$

If the polynomial f has coefficients  $a_{k_1,\ldots,k_n}$ , then expanding out the expression, we have

$$\sum a_{k_1,\dots,k_n} \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} (z_i + x_n^{r_i})^{k_i} x_n^{k_n} = 0$$

Each term in the summand has a unique term with highest order of  $x_n$  after expanding, which is given by  $a_{k_1,\dots,k_n}x_n^{\sum_{i=1}^n r_{i-1}k_i+k_n}$ . By the above lemma, we can find  $r_1,\dots,r_{n-1}$  such that  $(k_1,\dots,k_n)\neq (j_1,\dots,j_n)$  implies that  $\sum_{i=1}^n r_{i-1}k_i+k_n\neq \sum_{i=1}^n r_{i-1}j_i+j_n$ . Then this means that there is a unique term that achieves the maximum of  $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} r_ik_i+k_n$ . This proves that the highest term of f as a polynomial in f has coefficient f as a polynomial in f has coefficient f as an integral element over f and f is finitely generated over f. This proves that f is finitely generated over f.

By the inductive hypothesis, there exists  $y_1, \ldots, y_d$  for some  $0 \le d \le n-1$  such that  $y_1, \ldots, y_d$  are algebraically independent and S is finitely generated over  $k[y_1, \ldots, y_d]$ . Since R is finitely generated over S and S is finitely generated over  $k[y_1, \ldots, y_d]$ , we conclude that R is finitely generated over  $k[y_1, \ldots, y_d]$ .

It remains to show that  $d = \dim(R)$ . Since R is integral over  $S = k[y_1, \dots, y_d]$ , we have  $\dim(R) = \lim_{n \to \infty} |x_n| + \lim_$ 

 $\dim(S)$  and so it suffices to show that  $d=\dim(S)$ . We induct on d. When d=0, then S=k and so  $\dim(S)=0$ . Now let d>0. Then  $0\subset (y_1)\subset (y_1,y_2)\subset \cdots \subset (y_1,\ldots,y_d)$  is a chain of prime ideals in S so that  $d\leq \dim(S)$ . Conversely, suppose that  $0\subset P_1\subset \cdots \subset P_n$  is a strictly increasing chain of prime ideals in S. Let  $0\neq u\in P_1$ . By the Noether normalization lemma, because first variable is always trivially algebraically independent, there exists  $t_2,\ldots,t_d\in S$  such that S is integral over  $T=k[u,t_2,\ldots,t_d]$ . By the inductive hypothesis, we have  $d-1=\dim(T/(u))$ . By the going up theorem,  $0\subset P_1\cap T\subset \cdots\subset P_n\cap T$  is a strictly increasing chain of prime ideals in T. Then in  $T/(P_1\cap T)$  the chain becomes a strictly increasing chain of prime ideals of length n-1. Since  $\dim(T/(P_1\cap T))\leq \dim(T/(u))$ , we have that  $n-1\leq d-1$  and hence  $\dim(S)\leq d$ .

#### **Proposition 8.2.3**

Let k be a field. Let R be a finitely generated k-algebra that is an integral domain. Then we have

$$\dim(R) = \operatorname{trdeg}_k(\operatorname{Frac}(R))$$

**Proof** By the Noether normalization lemma, there exists algebraically independent elements  $y_1, \ldots, y_{\dim(R)}$  such that R is finitely generated over  $k[y_1, \ldots, y_{\dim(R)}]$ . Then  $\operatorname{Frac}(R)$  is algebraic over  $\operatorname{Frac}(k[y_1, \ldots, y_{\dim(R)}]) = k(y_1, \ldots, y_{\dim(R)})$ . Hence  $\operatorname{trdeg}_k(\operatorname{Frac}(R)) = \dim(R)$ .

### Corollary 8.2.4

Let k be a field. Then we have

$$\dim(k[x_1,\ldots,x_n])=n$$

**Proof** The transcendence degree of  $Frac(k[x_1, ..., x_n]) = k(x_1, ..., x_n)$  is n.

### 8.3 Height of Prime Ideals

**Definition 8.3.1** (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 8.3.2 Let R be a commutative ring. Then

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

**Lemma 8.3.3** 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  $\dim(R_p)=n\leq \operatorname{ht}(P)$ . 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  $\operatorname{ht}(P)=m\leq \dim(R_P)$ .

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

**Lemma 8.3.4** 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 8.3.5** Let k be a field. Let R be a finitely generated k-algebra that is an integral domain. Then we have

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

**Proposition 8.3.6** (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  $\sup\{\operatorname{ht}_R(m)\mid m \text{ is a maximal ideal of } R\}$

Corollary 8.3.7 Let (R, m) be a local ring. Then

$$\dim(R) = \dim(R_m) = \operatorname{ht}_R(m)$$

**Theorem 8.3.8** (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

$$ht_R(p) \leq 1$$

# 8.4 The Length of Modules 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 8.4.1** Let (R, m) be a local ring and let M be an R-module. If mM = 0, then

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

### Example 8.4.2

Let (R, m) be a local ring. Then we have

$$l_R\left(\frac{m^n}{m^{n+1}}\right) = \dim_{R/m}\left(\frac{m^n}{m^{n+1}}\right)$$

### **Proof**

Follows from above.

### Lemma 8.4.3

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Let m be a maximal ideal such that  $m^{n-1}M \neq 0$  and  $m^nM = 0$ . Then  $l_R(M) < \infty$ .

### **Proof**

For  $1 \le i \le n$ , consider the exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow m^i M \longrightarrow m^{i-1} M \longrightarrow \frac{m^{i-1} M}{m^i M} \longrightarrow 0$$

We have that  $l_R(m^{i-1}M/m^iM) = l_R(m^{i-1}M) - l_R(m^iM)$ . Then summing over i gives

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} l_{R} \left( \frac{m^{i-1}M}{m^{i}M} \right) = l_{R}(M) - l_{R}(m^{n}M) = l_{R}(M)$$

Since  $m^iM$  is R-submodule of M it is finitely generated. Hence  $m^iM/m^{i+1}M$  is a finite dimensional R/m vector space. Hence  $l_R(M)$  is also finite.

### Lemma 8.4.4

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Let S be a multiplicative subset of R. Then we have

$$l_R(M) \ge l_R(S^{-1}M)$$

### 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, lmm8.1.4 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  $T=\{\mathrm{Ann}_R(x)\mid 0\neq x\in R\}$ . By 6.1.1, the maximal element  $\mathrm{Ann}_R(x)$  in T is a prime ideal. Since  $\dim(R)=0$  we have  $\mathrm{Ann}(x)$  is a maximal ideal.  $R/\mathrm{Ann}(x)$  is a field (and hence a simple R-module). The multiplication map  $r\mapsto rx$  has kernel  $\mathrm{Ann}(x)$ . Hence the induced map  $R/\mathrm{Ann}(x)\to R$  is injective, and we can consider  $R/\mathrm{Ann}(x)$  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.

# **Example 8.5.2** Let k be a field. The k[x]-module $\frac{k[x,x^{-1}]}{k[x]}$ is Artinian but not Noetherian.

**Proof** It is not Noetherian because it is not finitely generated. Write  $M=\frac{k[x,x^{-1}]}{k[x]}$ . For the Artinian result, we first show that if  $N\leq \frac{k[x,x^{-1}]}{k[x]}$  and for all  $n\in\mathbb{N}$  there exists  $f+k[x]\in \frac{k[x,x^{-1}]}{k[x]}$  such that f contains the term  $1/x^n$ , then  $N=\frac{k[x,x^{-1}]}{k[x]}$ .

By assumption, for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , there exists  $f \in k[x,x^{-1}]$  such that f contains the term  $1/x^n$ . If  $\deg(f) < -n$ , then we can multiply f with  $x^{\deg(f)-n}$  to get a polynomial g such that  $\deg(g) = -n$ . So denote  $f_n + N$  the element in N such that  $\deg(f_n) = -n$ . Then by multiplying with a suitable coefficient  $\alpha$ ,  $f_n - \alpha f_{n-1}$  contains only  $1/x^n$ . Hence N contains  $1/x^n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  as k[x]-module. Since these elements generate  $\frac{k[x,x^{-1}]}{k[x]}$  as a k-module, they also generate as a k[x]-module. Hence  $N = \frac{k[x,x^{-1}]}{k[x]}$ .

This means that if N is a proper sub-module, there exists a minimal  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $1/x^n \in N$  and  $1/x^{n+1} \notin N$ . Hence every N is a finitely generated k-module, or in other words, N is a finite dimensional vector space. Thus any decreasing chain of k[x]-submodules must terminate by a

dimension argument.

**Theorem 8.5.3** (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 an integral domain. Then R is a valuation ring if and only if the ideals of R are totally ordered by inclusion.

**Proof** Let R be a valuation ring. Let I, J be ideals of R. If I is not a subset of J, there exists  $x \in I$  such that  $x \notin J$ . Then for any  $0 \neq y \in J$ ,  $x/y \in \operatorname{Frac}(R) \setminus R$  since otherwise y is a unit in J so that J = R and  $I \subseteq R$ . Then  $y/x \in R$  so that  $y = x(y/x) \in I$ . Hence  $J \subseteq I$ .

Now suppose that the ideals of R are totally ordered by inclusion.

**Lemma 9.1.3** Let R be a valuation ring. Then the following are true.

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

**Proof** Since all ideals of *R* are totally ordered, there is only one unique maximal ideal.

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.

**Definition 9.1.4** (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 9.1.5** (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 map  $v: K^{\times} \to G$  such that for all  $x, y \in K^*$ , we have

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

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

**Definition 9.1.6** (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 9.1.7** Let K be a field. Let v be a discrete valuation on K. Then  $R_v$  is a valuation ring.

**Definition 9.1.8** (Discrete Valuations) Let K be a field. A discrete valuation on K is a valuation  $v: K^{\times} \to \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Definition 9.1.9** (Normalized Discrete Valuations) Let (K, v) be a discrete valuation ring. We say that it is normalized if v is surjective.

**Lemma 9.1.10** Let K be a field with a discrete valuation v. Then  $v(K^{\times}) = n\mathbb{Z}$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Lemma 9.1.11** (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 valuations.

# 9.2 Discrete Valuation Rings

**Definition 9.2.1** (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.

**Lemma 9.2.2** Let R be a discrete valuation ring with valuation v. Then  $0 \neq u \in R$  is a unit if and only if v(u) = 0. In particular, the maximal ideal of R is given by

$$\{r \in R \mid v(r) > 0\}$$

**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.

**Example 9.2.3** Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Define  $\operatorname{ord}_n : \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Z}$  as follows. For  $p/q \in \mathbb{Q}$ , let  $p = p'n^i$  and  $q = q'n^j$  such that  $\gcd(p', n) = \gcd(q', n) = 1$ . Then define

$$\operatorname{ord}_n\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = \operatorname{ord}_n\left(n^{i-j}\frac{p'}{q'}\right) = i - j$$

Then ord<sub>n</sub> is a discrete valuation if and only if n is prime. In this case, the valuation ring of ord<sub>n</sub> is given by

$$R_{\text{ord}_n} = \mathbb{Z}_n$$

**Proof** Suppose that n is a prime. Let  $n^s p_1/q_1 \in \mathbb{Q}$  and  $n^t p_2/q_2$  be in lowest terms. Then  $n^{s+t}(p_1p_2/q_2q_2)$  is in lowest terms since n is prime. Then we have

$$\operatorname{ord}_n(n^{s+t}(p_1p_2/q_2q_2)) = s + t = v(n^sp_1/q_1) + v(n^tp_2/q_2)$$

Without loss of generality, suppose that  $s \le t$ . Then  $n^s p_1/q_1 + n^t p_2/q_2 = n^s (p_1/q_1 + n^{t-s} p_2/q_2)$  is in lowest terms since n is prime. Then we have

$$v(n^{s}p_{1}/q_{1} + n^{t}p_{2}/q_{2}) = v(n^{s}(p_{1}/q_{1} + n^{t-s}p_{2}/q_{2})) = s = \min\{v(n^{s}p_{1}/q_{1}), v(n^{t}p_{2}/q_{2})\}$$

Thus  $ord_n$  is a discrete valuation.

If n is composite, without loss of generality suppose that n = pq for p and q primes.

The valuation ring of  $\operatorname{ord}_n$  for n prime is given by

$$R_{\operatorname{ord}_n} = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q} \mid n \text{ does not divide } q \right\}$$

Hence  $R_{\operatorname{ord}_n} = \mathbb{Z}_n$ .

**Definition 9.2.4** (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 9.2.5** 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  $r \in R \setminus \{0\}$  can be written in the form

$$r = ut^n$$

for some unit u and  $n \geq 0$ .

• The valuation of any element  $r = ut^n \in R$  is given by

$$v(ut^n) = n$$

• The set of all ideals of *R* is given by

$$\{(t^n) \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\}$$

In particular, the unique maximal ideal of R is (t).

**Proof** 

• If  $x \in R$  is a unit then we are done. If not, then consider the element  $u = t^{-n}x$  for n = v(x). Then we have

$$v(u) = v(t^{-n}x) = -n + v(x) = 0$$

Hence u is a unit. Multiplying  $t^n$  on both sides of  $u=t^{-n}x$  proves that  $x=ut^n$  for some unit u and  $n\in\mathbb{N}$ .

- It follows that the valuation of  $r = ut^n$  is n.
- Let I be an ideal of R. Let  $n = \min\{v(x) \mid x \in I\}$ . or all  $x \in I$ , we can write x as  $x = ut^k$  for some unit u and  $k \ge n$ . Hence  $I \subseteq (t^n)$ . Since n is a minimum, there exists  $x \in I$  such that  $x = ut^n$  for some unit u and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $u^-x = t^n \in I$  since I is an ideal. Hence  $I = (t^n)$ . It follows that the unique maximal ideal of R is given by (t).

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

**Proposition 9.2.6** (Equivalent Characterizations of DVRs I) Let R be an integral domain. Then the following are equivalent.

- *R* is a discrete valuation ring.
- R is local, a PID and not a field.
- R is Noetherian, local, dim(R) = 1 and normal.
- R is Noetherian, local,  $\dim(R) > 0$  and the unique maximal ideal m is principal.
- *R* is a UFD with a unique irreducible element up to multiplication of a unit

**Proof** 

ullet (1)  $\Longrightarrow$  (2): We have seen that valuation rings are local. It is a PID by 9.2.5. It is not a field

since R is a local ring with non-trivial unique maximal ideal.

- (2)  $\implies$  (3): Every PID is Noetherian and normal and every prime ideal is maximal. But local rings have a unique maximal ideal. The maximal ideal is non-trivial since R is not a field. Hence  $\dim(R) = 1$ .
- (3)  $\implies$  (4): By Nakayama's lemma,  $m \neq m^2$ . I claim that any  $x \in m \setminus m^2$  generates m. Since  $\dim(R) = 1$ , we have  $\operatorname{Spec}(R) = \{(0), m\}$ . Assume for a contradiction that  $m/(x) \neq \{0\}$ . By lmm6.2.4, we have  $\operatorname{Ass}(m/(x)) \neq \{0\}$ . By our assumption for contradiction, we can only have  $\operatorname{Ass}(m/(x)) = \{m\}$ . By definition, this means that there exists  $0 \neq [y] \in m/(x)$  such that  $\operatorname{Ann}_R([y]) = m$ . In other words,  $ym \subseteq (x)$ . Considering everything inside  $\operatorname{Frac}(R)$ , we have  $y/x \in \operatorname{Frac}(R)$  is such that  $y/x \notin R$  and  $y/x \cdot m \subseteq R$ . There are now two cases.

Case 1:  $y/x \cdot m = R$ .

Then 1 = yt/x for some  $t \in m$ , which means that x = yt and  $x \in ym \subseteq m^2$ . This is a contradiction.

Case 2:  $y/x \cdot m = m$ . Then the multiplication map  $z \mapsto y/x \cdot z$  satisfies the hypothesis of the Cayley-Hamilton theorem, and there exists  $a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in R$  such that

$$(y/x)^n + a_{n-1}(y/x)^{n-1} + \dots + a_1(y/x) + a_0 = 0$$

But then this proves that y/x is integral over R. Since R is normal,  $y/x \in R$ . This is also a contradiction.

Thus m is a PID.

- (4)  $\Longrightarrow$  (1): Suppose that m=(x) for some  $x\in R$ . If x is nilpotent, then  $\dim(R)=0$  and a contradiction. I claim that  $\bigcap_{i=1}^\infty(x^i)=\{0\}$ . Suppose that t lies in the intersection. Then t=yx for some  $y\in R$ . If y is not in the intersection, then there exists  $n\in \mathbb{N}$  such that y is non-zero in  $(x^n)/(x^{n+1})$ . By Nakayama's lemma, y generates  $(x^n)$  and so t generates  $(x^{n+1})$ . Then  $t\notin (x^{n+2})$  is a contradiction. In particular, there for any  $y\in R$ , we have  $y\in (x^n)\setminus (x^{n+1})$  for some  $n\in \mathbb{N}$ . This means that  $y=ux^n$  for some  $u\notin (x)$ . In particular, u is a unit. Similarly,  $z=vx^m$  for v a unit. Then  $yz=uvx^{n+m}$  is non-zero. Hence R is an integral domain. Then the map  $ux^n\mapsto n$  is a valuation.
- (5)  $\implies$  (1): Let t be the unique irreducible element. Define a map  $v: \operatorname{Frac}(R) \to \mathbb{Z}$  as follows. Since R is a UFD, every element in R can be uniquely written as  $zt^n$  for z a unit and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Also, every element in  $\operatorname{Frac}(R)$  can be uniquely written as  $zt^n$  for z a unit in  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then define  $v(zt^n) = n$ . It is clear that v is a valuation. Its associated valuation ring is then precisely R.

**Proposition 9.2.7** (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.
- R is not a field and m is principal.
- $\dim(R) = 1$  and  $\dim_{R/m}(m/m^2) = 1$  (R is a regular local ring)
- $I = m^k$  for all non-zero ideals I of R
- There exists  $t \in R$  and k > 0 such that  $I = (t^k)$  for all non-zero ideal I of R

**Proof** The proposition is an immediate consequence of the above.

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**Proposition 9.2.8** 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.

- *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.

 $\mathsf{DVRs} \subset \mathsf{PIDs} \subset \mathsf{UFDs} \subset \mathsf{Normal\,Domains} \subset \mathsf{Integral\,Domains}$ 

### 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.

**Example 10.1.3** The  $\mathbb{Z}$ -submodule  $\mathbb{Z} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$  of  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a fractional ideal.

**Proof** Indeed, we have  $2\left(\mathbb{Z} \cdot \frac{1}{2}\right) = \mathbb{Z}$ , and we think of  $\mathbb{Z} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$  as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Lemma 10.1.4** 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** (Inverse of an Ideal) Let R be an integral domain. Let I be an R-submodule of Frac(R). Define

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

**Lemma 10.2.2** Let R be an integral domain. Let I be an R-submodule of Frac(R). Then there is an R-module isomorphism

$$I^{-1} \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(I,R)$$

given by  $s \mapsto (r \mapsto sr)$ .

**Proof** Denote  $\varphi_s:I\to R$  the multiplication by s map for  $s\in I^{-1}$ . It is clear that the given map is an R-module homomorphism. The map is injective since R is an integral domain. It remains to show that the map is surjective. Let  $\varphi\in \operatorname{Hom}_R(I,R)$ . For any  $r\in R$  and  $i\in I$ , we have

$$\varphi(r\cdot i)=r\cdot \varphi(i)$$

**Definition 10.2.3** (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 R-submodule of I of I such that I is invertible.

**Lemma 10.2.4** Let R be an integral domain. Let  $I \subseteq R$  be a subset. Then I is an ideal if and only if I is a fractional ideal.

**Proof** Clearly if I is a fractional ideal, then I is an ideal. Conversely, if I is an ideal then  $rI \subseteq R$  for all  $r \in R$  implies that I is a fractional ideal.

**Proposition 10.2.5** Let R be an integral domain. Let I be an R-submodule of Frac(R). Then I is invertible if and only if  $I^{-1}I = R$ .

**Proof** Clearly if  $I^{-1}I = R$  then I is invertible. Now suppose that JI = R for some R-submodule J of Frac(R). Then we have

$$R=JI\subseteq I^{-1}I=R$$

by definition of  $I^{-1}$ . Hence  $JI = I^{-1}I$ . Multiplying J on both sides and using the fact that R is commutative, we have that  $J = I^{-1}$ .

**Lemma 10.2.6** Let R be an integral domain. Let I be an invertible ideal of R. Then for any prime ideal P of R, the ideal  $IR_P$  of  $R_P$  is a principal ideal.

**Proof** Since  $I^{-1}I = r$ , write  $1 = \sum_{i=1}^{k} s_i a_i$  for  $s_i \in I^{-1}$  and  $a_i \in I$ . Since  $1 \notin P$ , at least one of  $s_i a_i$  is not in P. Then  $s_i a_i$  is a unit in  $PR_P$  and so  $a_i$  generates  $IR_P$ .

**Proposition 10.2.7** 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.
- If *I* is invertible, then *I* is finitely generated.

Proof

- Suppose that I = (a) for  $a \in R$ . Then clearly we have (1/a)(a) = R.
- Let I be invertible. Since  $I^{-1}I = R$ , we can write  $1 = \sum_{i=1}^n s_i a_i$  for  $s_i \in I^{-1}$  and  $a_i \in I$ . Then for any  $r \in R$ , we have  $b = \sum_{i=1}^k s_i(a_ib)$  where  $a_ib \in R$ . Let s be the product of the denominators of  $s_i$ . Then  $sb \in R$ . Hence I is a fractional ideal.
- Let I be invertible. Since  $I^{-1}I = R$ , we can write  $1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} s_i a_i$  for  $s_i \in I^{-1}$  and  $a_i \in I$ . Then for any  $x \in R$ , we have  $x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (s_i x) a_i$ . Since  $s_i \in I^{-1}$  and  $x \in R$ , we have  $s_i x \in R$ . Hence x can be written as a R-linear combination of  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ . Hence I is finitely generated.

**Proposition 10.2.8** Let R be an integral domain. Let I be an R-submodule of Frac(R). Then I is invertible if and only if the following are true.

- *I* is fractional.
- *I* is finitely generated.
- For any prime ideal P of R,  $IR_P$  is a principal ideal of  $R_P$ .

**Proof** We have seen the forward direction already. Now suppose that I satisfies the three listed conditions. I claim that  $(I^{-1})_P = (I_P)^{-1}$ . Let  $r/s \in (I^{-1})_P$  and  $a/b \in I_P$ . Then clearly  $r/s \cdot a/b \in R_P$  so that  $r/s \in (I_P)^{-1}$ . Conversely, suppose that  $I = R(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ . Let  $x \in (I_P)^{-1}$ . Then  $xa_i \in R_P$ . This means that there exists  $c_i \in R \setminus P$  such that  $xa_ic_i \in R$ . Set  $c = c_1 \cdots c_n$ . Then clearly  $cx \in I^{-1}$  so that  $x \in (I^{-1})_P$ .

Suppose that  $I^{-1}I \neq R$ . Since  $I^{-1}I$  is a proper ideal of R, there exists a maximal ideal m of R containing  $I^{-1}I$ . By the correspondence of ideals for localization, we have  $(I^{-1})_mI_m=(I_m)^{-1}I_m\subseteq$ 

 $mR_m$ . This is a contradiction since the above proposition together with the fact that  $IR_m$  is a principal ideal of  $R_m$  should imply that  $(I_m)^{-1}I_m = R_m$ .

**Proposition 10.2.9** 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 I of R is invertible.

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.

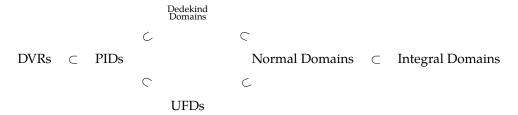
- Every non-zero ideal I of R is invertible  $(I^{-1}I = R)$ .
- R is Noetherian,  $\dim(R) = 1$  and normal
- R is Noetherian,  $\dim(R) = 1$  and for any non-zero maximal ideal m of R,  $R_m$  is a discrete valuation ring.
- R is Noetherian,  $\dim(R) = 1$  and every primary ideal in R is a prime power.

#### **Proof**

- (1)  $\implies$  (2): For any ideal I of R, I is invertible. By 10.2.6, I is finitely generated. Then every R-submodule of R is finitely generated and so R is Noetherian. For any prime ideal P of R, 10.2.8 implies that  $R_P$  is a discrete valuation ring since P by assumption is invertible. Then  $R_P$  is a normal domain for any prime ideal P. Since normality is a local condition, we conclude that R is a normal domain.
- (2)  $\Longrightarrow$  (3): For any maximal ideal m of R,  $R_m$  is Noetherian since localization preserves Noetherianess. Also,  $R_m$  is local. Since normality is a local condition,  $R_m$  is also normal. Finally, we have  $\dim(R_m) = \dim(R) = 1$ . Hence by the equivalent characterizations of DVRs, we conclude that  $R_m$  is a DVR.
- (3)  $\implies$  (1): Let  $I \subseteq R$  be a fractional ideal of R. We know by 10.1.4 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 10.2.7 we conclude that I is invertible.

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

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.

#### 10.4 **Prime Factorization of Ideals**

**Definition 10.4.1** (Prime Factorization of Ideals) Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. A prime factorization of I consists of maximal ideals  $P_1, \ldots, P_k$  such that the following are

• For some  $n_1, \ldots, n_k \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ , we have

$$I = P_1^{n_1} \cdots P_k^{n_k}$$

- Each  $P_1, \ldots, P_n \in \mathrm{Ass}(I)$  is an associated prime ideal of I.
- The factorization is unique up to permutation,.

**Proposition 10.4.2** Let *R* be an integral domain. Then *R* is a Dedekind domain if and only if every ideal of R has a prime factorization.

**Proposition 10.4.3** Let R be a Dedekind domain. For any prime ideal P of R, denote  $v_i$ :  $\operatorname{Frac}(R_P) \to \mathbb{Z}$  the discrete valuation of  $R_P$ . Then for any  $a \in R \setminus \{0\}$ , we have

$$(a) = P_1^{v_1(a)} \cdots P_n^{v_n(a)}$$

for  $P_1, \ldots, P_n \in Ass((a))$ .

**Proposition 10.4.4** Let *R* be a Dedekind domain. Let *I* and *J* be ideals of *R* whose prime factorization is given by

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

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 10.4.5** 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.