Abstract Algebra

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PREFACE 13

Preface

The purpose of this book is to provide an introduction to the theory of abstract algebra.

The first six chapters provide a solid foundation for the subjects of group theory, ring theory, linear algebra, fields, and modules.

Chapter seven contains a deeper study of modules over commutative rings. Chapters eight and nine are a deeper study of ring theory.

Chapter 12 is an introduction to homological algebra. Chapters $10,\,11,\,13,\,15$ and 16 are mostly about commutative algebra.

CHAPTER 1

Preliminaries and Prerequisites

1. Background Material from Set Theory

1.1. Sets and operations on sets. A set is a collection of objects X with a membership rule such that given any object x it is possible to decide whether x belongs to the set X. If x belongs to X, we say x is an element of X and write $x \in X$. Suppose X and Y are sets. If every element of X is also an element of Y, then we say X is a subset of Y, or that X is contained in Y, and write $X \subseteq Y$. If X and Y are subsets of each other, then we say X and Y are equal and write X = Y. The set without an element is called the empty set and is denoted \emptyset . The set of all subsets of X is called the power set of X, and is denoted X. Notice that X and X are both elements of X. The union of X and X, denoted $X \cap Y$, is the set of all elements that are elements of X and Y. The complement of X with respect to Y, denoted Y - X, is the set of all elements of Y that are not elements of X. The product of X and Y, denoted $X \times Y$, is the set of all ordered pairs of the form X where X is an element of X and Y is an element of Y.

Let I be a set and suppose for each $i \in I$ there is a set X_i . Then we say $\{X_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a family of sets indexed by I. The union of the family is denoted $\bigcup_{i \in I} X_i$ and is defined to be the set of all elements x such that $x \in X_i$ for some $i \in I$. The intersection of the family is denoted $\bigcap_{i \in I} X_i$ and is defined to be the set of all elements x such that $x \in X_i$ for all $i \in I$.

The set of integers is $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$. The set of natural numbers is $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$. The set of nonnegative integers is $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$. The set of rational numbers is $\mathbb{Q} = \{n/d \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}, d \in \mathbb{N}\}$ where it is understood that n/d = x/y if ny = dx. The set of real numbers is denoted \mathbb{R} , the set of complex numbers is denoted \mathbb{C} .

If $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$ is a family of sets indexed by $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, then we sometimes write $X_1 \cup \cdots \cup X_n$ instead of $\bigcup_{i=1}^n X_i$, and $X_1 \cap \cdots \cap X_n$ instead of $\bigcap_{i=1}^n X_i$. The *product* of the family, written $X_1 \times \cdots \times X_n$ or $\prod_{i=1}^n X_i$, is the set $\{(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \mid x_i \in X_i\}$.

1.2. Relations and functions. Let X and Y be nonempty sets. A relation between X and Y is a nonempty subset R of the product $X \times Y$. Two relations are equal if they are equal as sets. The *domain* of R is the set of all first coordinates of the pairs in R. The range of R is the set of all second coordinates of the pairs in R.

A function (or map) from X to Y is a relation $f \subseteq X \times Y$ such that for each $x \in X$ there is a unique $y \in Y$ such that $(x,y) \in f$. In this case, we say y is the *image* of x under f, and write y = f(x). The range of a function f is also called the *image* of f. The image of f is denoted f(X), or im(f). The notation

 $f: X \to Y$ means f is a function from X to Y. If $T \subseteq Y$, the preimage of T under f, denoted $f^{-1}(T)$, is the set of all elements $x \in X$ such that $f(x) \in T$. If $y \in Y$, we usually write $f^{-1}(y)$ instead of $f^{-1}(\{y\})$. If $S \subseteq X$, the restriction of f to S is the function $f|_S: S \to Y$ defined by $f|_S(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in S$. The identity map from X to X, $1_X: X \to X$, is defined by $1_X(x) = x$ for all $x \in X$. If $S \subseteq X$, the inclusion map from S to X is the restriction of the identity map 1_X to the subset S. If $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$, the product or composition map is $gf: X \to Z$ defined by gf(x) = g(f(x)). If $f: Z \to W$, the reader should verify that h(gf) = (hg)f so the product of functions is associative. We say that $f: X \to Y$ is one-to-one (or injective) in case $f^{-1}(y)$ is a singleton set for each $y \in f(X)$. We say that $f: X \to Y$ is onto or (surjective) in case the image of f is equal to f. If $f: X \to Y$ is one-to-one and onto, then we say that f is a one-to-one correspondence (or f is bijective). The reader should verify that the identity map f is a one-to-one correspondence. If f is a one-to-one inclusion map f is one-to-one.

Proposition 1.1.1. Let $f: X \to Y$.

- (1) f is one-to-one if and only if there exists $g: Y \to X$ such that $gf = 1_X$. In this case g is called a left inverse of f.
- (2) If f is a one-to-one correspondence, then the function g of Part (1) is unique and satisfies $fg = 1_Y$. In this case g is called the inverse of f and is denoted f^{-1} .
- (3) If there exists a function $g: Y \to X$ such that $gf = 1_X$ and $fg = 1_Y$, then f is a one-to-one correspondence and g is equal to f^{-1} .

PROOF. (1): View f as a subset of $X \times Y$ and define g as a subset of $Y \times X$. Because f is not onto, our definition of g on Y - f(X) is ad hoc. For this reason, let x_0 be any element of X. Define $g = \{(f(x), x) \mid x \in X\} \cup \{(y, x_0) \mid y \in Y - f(X)\}$. Then g has the desired properties.

The rest is left to the reader.

A commutative diagram is a finite family of sets $D_V = \{X_1, \ldots, X_v\}$ together with a finite collection of functions $D_E = \{f_1, \ldots, f_e\}$ satisfying the following properties.

- (1) Each f in D_E is a function from one set in D_V to another set in D_V .
- (2) Given two sets X, Y in D_V and any two paths

$$X = A_0 \xrightarrow{f_{a_1}} A_1 \xrightarrow{f_{a_2}} \cdots \to A_{r-1} \xrightarrow{f_{a_r}} A_r = Y$$
$$X = B_0 \xrightarrow{g_{b_1}} B_1 \xrightarrow{g_{b_2}} \cdots \to B_{s-1} \xrightarrow{g_{b_s}} B_s = Y$$

from X to Y consisting of functions $f_{a_1}, \ldots, f_{a_r}, g_{b_1}, \ldots, g_{b_s}$ in D_E , the composite functions $f_{a_r} \cdots f_{a_1}$ and $g_{b_s} \cdots g_{b_1}$ are equal.

1.3. Binary relations. A binary relation on X is a subset of $X \times X$. Suppose \sim is a binary relation on X. If (x,y) is an element of the relation, then we say x is related to y and write $x \sim y$. Otherwise we write $x \not\sim y$. If $x \sim x$ for every $x \in X$, then we say \sim is reflexive. We say \sim is symmetric in case $x \sim y$ whenever $y \sim x$. We say \sim is antisymmetric in case $x \sim y$ and $y \sim x$ implies x = y. We say \sim is transitive if $x \sim z$ whenever $x \sim y$ and $y \sim z$. If \sim is reflexive, symmetric and transitive, then we say \sim is an equivalence relation on X. If \sim is

an equivalence relation on X, and $x \in X$, then the *equivalence class* containing x is $[x] = \{y \in X \mid x \sim y\}$. By X/\sim we denote the set of all equivalence classes. The function $\eta: X \to X/\sim$ defined by $\eta(x) = [x]$ is called the *natural map*.

Proposition 1.1.2. Let X be a nonempty set and \sim an equivalence relation on X.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \textit{(1)} & \textit{If } x \in X, \textit{ then } [x] \neq \emptyset. \\ \textit{(2)} & \bigcup_{x \in X} [x] = X = \bigcup_{[x] \in X/\sim} [x] \\ \textit{(3)} & \textit{If } x, y \in X, \textit{ then } [x] = [y] \textit{ or } [x] \cap [y] = \emptyset. \end{array}$$

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

Let X be a nonempty set. A partition of X is a family \mathcal{P} of nonempty subsets of X such that $X = \bigcup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} P$ and if $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}$, then either P = Q, or $P \cap Q = \emptyset$. If \sim is an equivalence relation on X, then Proposition 1.1.2 shows that X/\sim is a partition of X. Conversely, suppose \mathcal{P} is a partition of X. There is an equivalence relation \sim on X corresponding to \mathcal{P} defined by $x \sim y$ if and only if x and y belong to the same element of \mathcal{P} .

Proposition 1.1.3. Let X be a nonempty set. There is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of all equivalence relations on X and the set of all partitions of X. The assignment maps an equivalence relation \sim to the partition X/\sim .

PROOF. Is left to the reader. \Box

Let U be any set, which we assume contains \mathbb{N} as a subset. Define a binary relation on the power set 2^U by the following rule. If X and Y are subsets of U, then we say X and Y are equivalent if there exists a one-to-one correspondence $\alpha: X \to Y$. The reader should verify that this is an equivalence relation on 2^U . If X and Y are equivalent sets, then we say X and Y have the same cardinal number. Define $I_0 = \emptyset$. For $n \ge 1$ define $I_n = \{1, \ldots, n\}$. If a set X is equivalent to I_n , then we say X has cardinal number n and write |X| = n. We say a set X is finite if X is equivalent to I_n for some n. Otherwise, we say X is infinite.

Let X be a set and \leq a binary relation on X which is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive. Then we say \leq is a partial order on X. We also say X is partially ordered by \leq . If $x, y \in X$, then we say x and y are comparable if $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$. A chain is a partially ordered set with the property that any two elements are comparable. If $S \subseteq X$ is a nonempty subset, then S is partially ordered by the restriction of \leq to $S \times S$. If the restriction of \leq to S is a chain, then we say S is a chain in X.

Let X be partially ordered by \leq and suppose S is a nonempty subset of X. Let $a \in S$. We say a is the *least* element of S if $a \leq x$ for all $x \in S$. If it exists, clearly the least element is unique. We say a is a *minimal* element of S in case $x \leq a$ implies x = a for all $x \in S$. We say a is a *maximal* element of S in case $a \leq x$ implies x = a for all $x \in S$. A well ordered set is a partially ordered set S such that every nonempty subset S has a least element. The reader should verify that a well ordered set is a chain. An element S is called an upper bound for S in case S in cas denoted $U = \sup(S)$, in case U is an upper bound for S and U is a lower bound for the set of all upper bounds for S. The reader should verify that the supremum is unique, if it exists. An element $L \in X$ is an *infimum*, or *greatest lower bound* for S, denoted $L = \inf(S)$, in case L is a lower bound for S and L is an upper bound for the set of all lower bounds for S. The reader should verify that the infimum is unique, if it exists.

Let X be partially ordered by \leq . We say that X satisfies the *minimum condition* if every nonempty subset of X contains a minimal element. We say that X satisfies the *maximum condition* if every nonempty subset of X contains a maximal element. We say that X satisfies the *descending chain condition (DCC)* if every chain in X of the form $\{\ldots, x_3 \leq x_2 \leq x_1 \leq x_0\}$ is eventually constant. That is, there is a subscript n such that $x_n = x_i$ for all $i \geq n$. We say that X satisfies the *ascending chain condition (ACC)* if every chain in X of the form $\{x_0 \leq x_1 \leq x_2 \leq x_3, \ldots\}$ is eventually constant.

Let I be a set and suppose for each $i \in I$ there is a set X_i . Then we say $\{X_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a family of sets indexed by I. The union of the family is denoted $\bigcup_{i \in I} X_i$ and is defined to be the set of all elements x such that $x \in X_i$ for some $i \in I$. The intersection of the family is denoted $\bigcap_{i \in I} X_i$ and is defined to be the set of all elements x such that $x \in X_i$ for all $i \in I$.

1.4. Permutations and combinations. Let $n \geq 1$ and $\mathbb{N}_n = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. A bijection $\sigma : \mathbb{N}_n \to \mathbb{N}_n$ is also called a permutation. Let S_n denote the set of all permutations of \mathbb{N}_n . In Example 2.1.14 we will call S_n the symmetric group on n letters. If $\sigma \in S_n$, then we can view $\sigma = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ as an n-tuple in the product $\prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{N}_n$. The fact that σ is a bijection is equivalent to the statement that the n-tuple (x_1, \dots, x_n) contains no repeated elements. Therefore,

$$S_n = \left\{ (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{N}_n \mid \text{if } i \neq j, \text{ then } x_i \neq x_j \right\}.$$

Because there are n ways to pick x_1 , n-1 ways to pick x_2 , and so forth, a straightforward induction proof shows that the number of elements in S_n is equal to n!. If $1 \le k \le n$, then a k-permutation of \mathbb{N}_n is a one-to-one function $\sigma : \mathbb{N}_k \to \mathbb{N}_n$. The k-permutations of \mathbb{N}_n correspond to k-tuples (x_1, \ldots, x_k) where each $x_i \in \mathbb{N}_n$ and if $i \ne j$, then $x_i \ne x_j$. Again, a straightforward induction proof shows that the number of k-permutations of \mathbb{N}_n is equal to $n(n-1)\cdots(n-k+1)=n!/(n-k)!$.

If X is a finite set with cardinality |X| = n, then we say X is an n-set. If $S \subseteq X$ and |S| = k, then we say S is a k-subset of X. The number of k-subsets of an n-set X is denoted $\binom{n}{k}$. The symbol $\binom{n}{k}$ is called the *binomial coefficient* and is pronounced n choose k because it is the number of different ways to choose k objects from a set of n objects.

As we saw above, the number of different k-permutations of \mathbb{N}_n is equal to n!/(n-k)!. But a k-permutation of \mathbb{N}_n can be viewed as a two step process. The first step is choosing a k-subset, which can be done in $\binom{n}{k}$ different ways. Then the elements of the k-set are permuted, which can be done in k! ways. Viewing the number of k-permutations of \mathbb{N}_n in these two different ways, we see that n!/(n-k)! is equal to $\binom{n}{k}(k!)$. This leads to Part (3) of the next lemma.

Lemma 1.1.4. The following are true.

(1) If
$$n < 0$$
 or $k > n$, then $\binom{n}{k} = 0$.

- (2) If $n \ge 0$, then $\binom{n}{0} = \binom{n}{n} = 1$. (3) If $0 \le k \le n$, then $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$. (4) (Pascal's Identity) If 0 < k < n, then $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$.

PROOF. Parts (1) and (2) follow straight from the definition of binomial coefficient. Part (3) follows from the paragraph above. Part (4) follows directly from the formula in (3) and is left as an exercise for the reader.

1.5. Binary operations. Let X be a nonempty set. A binary operation on X is a function $X \times X \to X$. If * is a binary operation on X, the image of an ordered pair (x, y) is denoted x * y. The binary operation is said to be associative if (x*y)*z = x*(y*z) for all $x,y,z \in X$. If e is a special element in X such that x * e = e * x = x for all $x \in X$, then we say e is an identity element for *. If x*y = y*x for all $x, y \in X$, then we say * is commutative. If $(x, y) \mapsto x \cdot y$ is another binary operation on X such that $x \cdot (y*z) = (x \cdot y)*(x \cdot z)$ and $(x*y) \cdot z = (x \cdot z)*(y \cdot z)$ for all $x, y, z \in X$, then we say · distributes over *.

Example 1.1.5. Here are some common examples of binary operations on sets.

- (1) Addition of numbers is a binary operation on the set of real numbers \mathbb{R} . Addition is associative, commutative, and 0 is the identity element. Multiplication of numbers is a binary operation on the set of real numbers \mathbb{R} . Multiplication is associative, commutative, and 1 is the identity element. Multiplication distributes over addition.
- (2) Let U be a nonempty set and $X = 2^U$. If A and B are in X, then so are $A \cup B$, $A \cap B$, and A - B. In other words, union, intersection, and set difference all define binary operations on X. Union and intersection are both associative and commutative. The distributive laws for union and intersection are in Exercise 1.1.6.
- (3) Let X be a nonempty set and Map(X) the set of all funtions mapping X to X. If $f, g \in \operatorname{Map}(X)$, then so is the composite function fg. Composition of functions is a binary operation on Map(X) which is associative. If |X| > 1, then composition of functions in Map(X) is noncommutative. The identity map 1_X is the identity element.
- (4) Let $\mathbb{R}^3 = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \mid x_1, x_2, x_3 \in \mathbb{R}\}$ be the set of all ordered 3-tuples over \mathbb{R} . The cross product of the vector $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$ and the vector $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, y_3)$ is the vector $\mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{y} = (x_2y_3 - x_3y_2, x_3y_1 - x_1y_3, x_1y_2 - y_3)$ x_2y_1). Therefore, cross product is a binary operation on \mathbb{R}^3 . This binary operation is not associative and not commutative.

1.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 1.1.6. (Distributive Laws for Intersection and Union) Let $\{X_i \mid i \in A_i \}$ I} be a family of sets indexed by I and let Y be any set. Prove:

- $\begin{array}{l} (1) \ Y \cap \left(\bigcup_{i \in I} X_i\right) = \bigcup_{i \in I} (Y \cap X_i) \\ (2) \ Y \cup \left(\bigcap_{i \in I} X_i\right) = \bigcap_{i \in I} (Y \cup X_i) \end{array}$

EXERCISE 1.1.7. (DeMorgan's Laws) Let $\{X_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a family of sets indexed by I and suppose U is an arbitrary set. Prove:

- $\begin{array}{l} (1) \ \ U \left(\bigcup_{i \in I} X_i\right) = \bigcap_{i \in I} (U X_i) \\ (2) \ \ U \left(\bigcap_{i \in I} X_i\right) = \bigcup_{i \in I} (U X_i) \end{array}$

Exercise 1.1.8. Let $f: X \to Y$. Prove:

- (1) f is one-to-one if and only if there exists a function $g: Y \to X$ such that $gf = 1_X$. In this case g is called a *left inverse* of f.
- (2) f is onto if and only if there exists a function $g:Y\to X$ such that $fg=1_Y$. In this case g is called a *right inverse* of f. (Hint: Use The Axiom of Choice.)

EXERCISE 1.1.9. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. Prove:

- (1) If gf is onto, then g is onto.
- (2) If gf is one-to-one, then f is one-to-one.
- (3) If f is onto and g is onto, then gf is onto.
- (4) If f is one-to-one and g is one-to-one, then gf is one-to-one.

EXERCISE 1.1.10. Recall that the set of natural numbers is $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \dots\}$ and if $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\mathbb{N}_n = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Prove:

- (1) If $f: \mathbb{N}_n \to \mathbb{N}_n$ is one-to-one, then f is onto.
- (2) If $f: \mathbb{N}_n \to \mathbb{N}_n$ is onto, then f is one-to-one.

EXERCISE 1.1.11. (The Pigeonhole Principle) Let $f: \mathbb{N}_m \to \mathbb{N}_n$. Prove:

- (1) If m > n, then f is not one-to-one.
- (2) If m < n, then f is not onto.

EXERCISE 1.1.12. Let X and Y be finite sets. Show that $|X \times Y| = |X||Y|$.

EXERCISE 1.1.13. Let $f: X \longrightarrow Y$ be a function. Let \sim be an equivalence relation on X, and $\eta: X \to X/\sim$ the natural map. Show that if f has the property that $a \sim b$ implies f(a) = f(b) for all $a, b \in X$, then there exists a function $\bar{f}: X/\sim \to Y$ such that $f=\bar{f}\eta$. Hence the diagram



commutes. This shows that if f is constant on equivalence classes, then f factors through the natural map η .

EXERCISE 1.1.14. Let $f: X \longrightarrow Y$ be a function. Define a relation \approx on X by the rule: $x \approx y$ if and only if f(x) = f(y). Prove:

- (1) \approx is an equivalence relation on X.
- (2) There exists a function $\bar{f}: X/\approx \to Y$ such that f factors through the natural map $\eta: X \to X/\approx$. That is, $f = \bar{f}\eta$.
- (3) \bar{f} is one-to-one.
- (4) f is a one-to-one correspondence if and only if f is onto.

EXERCISE 1.1.15. Let X be an infinite set. Prove that X contains a subset that is equivalent to \mathbb{N} .

EXERCISE 1.1.16. Let X be a set. Prove that X is infinite if and only if there exists a one-to-one function $f: X \to X$ which is not onto.

EXERCISE 1.1.17. If $x \in \mathbb{R}$, the *floor* of x, written $\lfloor x \rfloor$, is the maximum of the set $\{k \in \mathbb{Z} \mid k \leq x\}$. The *ceiling* of x, written $\lceil x \rceil$, is the minimum of the set $\{k \in \mathbb{Z} \mid k \geq x\}$. Let $f : \mathbb{N}_m \to \mathbb{N}_n$. Prove:

- (1) There exists $a \in \mathbb{N}_n$ such that the cardinality of the set $f^{-1}(a)$ is greater than or equal to $\lceil m/n \rceil$.
- (2) There exists $b \in \mathbb{N}_n$ such that the cardinality of the set $f^{-1}(b)$ is less than or equal to $\lfloor m/n \rfloor$.

Exercise 1.1.18. Prove the Binomial Theorem:

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^i y^{n-i}$$

where x and y are indeterminates and $n \geq 0$.

EXERCISE 1.1.19. Let X be a finite set. Prove that $|2^X| = 2^{|X|}$.

EXERCISE 1.1.20. Let X, Y and Z be sets. Prove:

- (1) $(X \cup Y) \times Z = (X \times Z) \cup (Y \times Z)$
- (2) $(X \cap Y) \times Z = (X \times Z) \cap (Y \times Z)$

2. Background Material from Number Theory

AXIOM 1.2.1. (The Well Ordering Principle) If S is a nonempty subset of \mathbb{Z} and S has a lower bound, then S contains a least element.

PROPOSITION 1.2.2. (Mathematical Induction) Let S be a subset of \mathbb{N} such that $1 \in S$. Assume S satisfies one of the following.

- (1) For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$, then $n + 1 \in S$.
- (2) For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $\{1, \dots, n\} \subseteq S$, then $n + 1 \in S$.

Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

PROOF. Assume $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $1 \in S$, and S satisfies (1) or (2). Let $C = \mathbb{N} - S$. For contradiction's sake assume $C \neq \emptyset$. By Axiom 1.2.1, C has a least element, say ℓ . Since $1 \in S$, we know $\ell > 1$. Therefore, $\ell - 1 \in S$ and $\ell \notin S$, which contradicts (1). Since ℓ is the least element of C, $\{1, \ldots, \ell - 1\} \subseteq S$ and $\ell \notin S$, which contradicts (2). We conclude that $C = \emptyset$, hence $S = \mathbb{N}$.

PROPOSITION 1.2.3. (The Division Algorithm) If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a \neq 0$, then there exist unique integers $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $0 \leq r < |a|$ and b = aq + r.

PROOF. First we prove the existence claim. Let $S = \{b-ax \mid x \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } b-ax \geq 0\}$. If x > |b|, then it follows that $b + |a|x \geq 0$. Therefore, either b + ax or b - ax is in S. By Axiom 1.2.1, S has a least element, say r = b - aq, for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$. For contradiction's sake, assume $r \geq |a|$. Then $0 \leq r - |a| = b - aq - |a| = b - a(q \pm 1)$. This implies $r - |a| \in S$, contradicting the minimal choice of r.

To prove the uniqueness claim, suppose $b=aq+r=aq_1+r_1$ and $0\leq r\leq r_1<|a|$. Then $|r_1-r|=|a||q-q_1|$. Since $0\leq r_1-r<|a|$, this implies $q-q_1=0$. Hence $r_1-r=0$.

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. We say a divides b, and write $a \mid b$, in case there exists $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that b = aq. In this case, a is called a divisor of b, and b is called a multiple of a.

PROPOSITION 1.2.4. Let $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ be a set of integers and assume at least one of the a_i is nonzero. There exists a unique positive integer d such that

- (1) $d \mid a_i \text{ for all } 1 \leq i \leq n, \text{ and }$
- (2) if $e \mid a_i$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$, then $e \mid d$.

We call d the greatest common divisor of the set, and write $d = \gcd(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$.

PROOF. Let S be the set of all positive linear combinations of the a_i

$$S = \{x_1 a_1 + \dots + x_n a_n \mid x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{Z}, x_1 a_1 + \dots + x_n a_n > 0\}.$$

The reader should verify that $S \neq \emptyset$. By Axiom 1.2.1, there exists a least element of S which we can write as $d = k_1 a_1 + \cdots + k_n a_n$ for some integers k_1, \ldots, k_n . Fix one i and apply the division algorithm to write $a_i = dq + r$ where $0 \leq r < d$. Solve $a_i = (k_1 a_1 + \cdots + k_n a_n)q + r$ for r to see that

$$r = a_i - (k_1 a_1 + \dots + k_n a_n)q$$

is a linear combination of a_1, \ldots, a_n . Because r < d, we conclude that r is not in S. Therefore r = 0. This proves Part (1). The reader should verify Part (2) and the claim that d is unique.

We say the set of integers $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ is relatively prime in case $\gcd(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = 1$. An integer $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}$ is called a *prime* in case $\pi > 1$ and the only divisors of π are $-\pi, -1, 1, \pi$.

LEMMA 1.2.5. Let a, b and c be integers. Assume $a \neq 0$ or $b \neq 0$.

- (1) (Bézout's Identity) If $d = \gcd(a, b)$, then there exist integers u and v such that d = au + bv.
- (2) (Euclid's Lemma) If gcd(a, b) = 1 and $a \mid bc$, then $a \mid c$.
- (3) If there exist integers u and v such that 1 = au + bv, then gcd(a, b) = 1.

PROOF. (1): This is immediate from the proof of Proposition 1.2.4.

- (2): Assume gcd(a, b) = 1. By Part (1) there exist integers u and v such that 1 = au + bv. Then c = acu + bcv. Since a divides the right hand side, a divides c.
 - (3): This is immediate from the proof of Proposition 1.2.4.

LEMMA 1.2.6. Let π be a prime number. Let a and a_1, \ldots, a_n be integers.

- (1) If $\pi \mid a$, then $gcd(\pi, a) = \pi$, otherwise $gcd(\pi, a) = 1$.
- (2) If $\pi \mid a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n$, then $\pi \mid a_i$ for some i.

PROOF. (1): The proof is an exercise for the reader.

(2): For sake of contradiction, assume the statement is false. Let π and a_1, \ldots, a_n be a counterexample such that n is minimal. Then π divides the product $a_1 \cdots a_n$ and by (1) $\gcd(\pi, a_i) = 1$ for each i. Again by (1), n > 1. By Lemma 1.2.5 applied to $a_1(a_2 \cdots a_n)$, $\pi \mid a_2 \cdots a_n$. By the minimal choice of n, π divides one of a_2, \ldots, a_n . This is a contradiction.

PROPOSITION 1.2.7. (The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic) Let n be a positive integer which is greater than 1. There exist unique positive integers k, e_1, \ldots, e_k and unique prime numbers p_1, \ldots, p_k such that $n = p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$.

PROOF. First we prove the existence claim. If n is a prime, then set k=1, $p_1=n,\ e_1=1$, and we are done. In particular, the result is true for n=2. The proof is by induction on n. Assume that every number in the set $\{2,3,\ldots,n-1\}$ has a representation as a product of primes. Assume n=xy is composite and that $2 \le x \le y \le n-1$. By the induction hypothesis, both x and y have representations as products of primes. Then n=xy also has such a representation. By Proposition 1.2.2, we are done.

For the uniqueness claim, assume

(2.1)
$$n = p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_k^{e_k} = q_1^{f_1} \cdots q_\ell^{f_\ell}$$

are two representations of n as products of primes. Let $M = \sum_{i=1}^k e_i$ and $N = \sum_{i=1}^\ell f_i$. Without loss of generality, assume $M \leq N$. The proof is by induction on M. If M = 1, then $n = p_1$ is prime. This implies $\ell = 1 = f_1$ and $q_1 = p_1$. Assume inductively that M > 1 and that the uniqueness claim is true for any product involving M - 1 factors. Using Lemma 1.2.6 we see that p_1 divides one of the q_i . Since q_i is prime, this implies p_1 is equal to q_i . Canceling p_1 and q_i from both sides of Eq.(2.1) results in a product of primes with M - 1 factors. By the induction hypothesis, we conclude that $k = \ell$ and the sets $\{p_1^{e_1}, \ldots, p_k^{e_k}\}$ and $\{q_1^{f_1}, \ldots, q_k^{f_k}\}$ are equal.

DEFINITION 1.2.8. Let m be a positive integer. Define a binary relation on \mathbb{Z} by the following rule. Given $x,y\in\mathbb{Z}$, we say x is congruent to y modulo m, and write $x\equiv y\pmod m$, in case $m\mid (x-y)$. By Proposition 1.2.9 this defines an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} . The set of all equivalence classes of integers modulo m is denoted $\mathbb{Z}/(m)$.

Proposition 1.2.9. Let m be a positive integer.

- (1) Congruence modulo m is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} .
- (2) $\{0,1,\ldots,m-1\}$ is a full set of representatives for the equivalence classes. In other words, every integer is congruent to one of $0,1,\ldots,m-1$ and no two distinct elements of $\{0,1,\ldots,m-1\}$ are congruent to each other.
- (3) If $u \equiv v \pmod{m}$ and $x \equiv y \pmod{m}$, then $u + x \equiv v + y \pmod{m}$ and $ux \equiv vy \pmod{m}$.
- (4) If gcd(a, m) = 1 and $ax \equiv ay \pmod{m}$, then $x \equiv y \pmod{m}$.

PROOF. (1): Since $m \mid 0$, $x \equiv x \pmod m$ for every $x \in \mathbb{Z}$. If x - y = mq, then y - x = m(-q). Therefore, $x \equiv y \pmod m$ implies $y \equiv x \pmod m$. If x - y = mq and y - z = mr, then adding yields x - z = m(q + r). Therefore, $x \equiv y \pmod m$ and $y \equiv z \pmod m$ implies $x \equiv z \pmod m$.

- (2): By Proposition 1.2.3, if $x \in \mathbb{Z}$, then there exist unique integers q and r such that x = mq + r and $0 \le r < m$. This implies $x \equiv r \pmod{m}$, and $\mathbb{Z}/(m) \subseteq \{0, 1, \ldots, m-1\}$. Equality of the two sets follows from the uniqueness of q and r.
- (3): Write u v = mq and x y = mr for integers q, r. Adding, we get u v + x y = (u + x) (v + y) = m(q + r), hence $u + x \equiv v + y \pmod{m}$. Multiplying the first equation by x and the second by v we have ux vx = mxq and xv yv = mvr. Adding, we get ux vx + xv yv = ux yv = m(xq + vr), hence $ux \equiv vy \pmod{m}$.
- (4): By Lemma 1.2.5 we write 1 = au + mv for integers u, v. We are given that a(x y) = mq for some integer q. Multiply by u to get au(x y) = muq. Substitute au = 1 mv and rearrange to get x y = mv(x y) + muq. Hence $x \equiv y \pmod{m}$.

If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} - \{0\}$, then $|ab| \in S$ is a common multiple of both a and b. Therefore, the set $S = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid a \mid x, b \mid x \text{ and } x > 0\}$ is nonempty. By Axiom 1.2.1, S has a least element, which is called the *least common multiple* of a and b, and is denoted lcm(a, b).

Proposition 1.2.10. Suppose a > 0 and b > 0. Then the following are true.

- (1) If $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a \mid c$ and $b \mid c$, then $lcm(a, b) \mid c$.
- (2) gcd(a, b) lcm(a, b) = ab.

PROOF. (1): Let lcm(a,b) = L. By Proposition 1.2.3, c = Lq + r where $0 \le r < L$. Since $a \mid c$ and $a \mid L$, we see that a divides r = c - Lq. Likewise, $b \mid c$ and $b \mid L$ implies that b divides r. So r is a common multiple of a and b and r < L. By the definition of L, we conclude that r = 0.

(2): Write $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then (ab)/d = a(b/d) = (a/d)b is a common multiple of a and b. By (1), $L \mid (ab)/d$, or equivalently, $dL \mid ab$. By Lemma 1.2.5, d = ax + by for some integers x, y. Multiply by L to get dL = aLx + bLy. Since L is a common multiple of a and b we see that ab divides aLx + bLy = dL. We have shown that $dL \mid ab$ and $ab \mid dL$. Both numbers are positive, so we have equality.

Theorem 1.2.11. (Chinese Remainder Theorem) Let m and n be relatively prime positive integers. Then the function

$$\mathbb{Z}/mn \xrightarrow{\psi} \mathbb{Z}/m \times \mathbb{Z}/n$$

defined by $\psi([x]) = ([x], [x])$ is a one-to-one correspondence.

PROOF. We know that ψ is well defined, by Exercise 1.2.19. By Exercise 1.1.12 and Proposition 1.2.9, $|\mathbb{Z}/m \times \mathbb{Z}/n| = |\mathbb{Z}/mn| = mn$. By Exercise 1.1.10, it is enough to show ψ is one-to-one. Suppose $\psi([x]) = \psi([y])$. Then $x \equiv y \pmod{m}$ and $x \cong y \pmod{n}$, which implies x - y is a common multiple of m and n. By Proposition 1.2.10, x - y is divisible by $\operatorname{lcm}(m, n)$. But $\operatorname{lcm}(m, n) = mn$ since $\gcd(a, b) = 1$. This implies $x \equiv y \pmod{mn}$, and we have shown that ψ is one-to-one.

Let $n \geq 1$. By Exercise 1.2.20, if $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$, then $\gcd(x,n) = \gcd(y,n)$. This says the function $\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ defined by $x \mapsto \gcd(x,n)$ is constant on congruence classes. The set $U_n = \{[k] \in \mathbb{Z}/n \mid \gcd(k,n) = 1\}$ is called the set of *units modulo n*. The Euler ϕ -function is defined to be the number of units modulo n. That is, $\phi(n) = |U_n|$. In the terminology of Definition 2.1.1, Lemma 1.2.12 shows that U_n is an abelian group of order $\phi(n)$.

Lemma 1.2.12. Let $n \geq 1$.

- (1) If $[a] \in U_n$, then there exists $[b] \in U_n$ such that [a][b] = [1].
- (2) If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, then $[a] \in U_n$ and $[b] \in U_n$.

PROOF. (1): If $[a] \in U_n$, then gcd(a, n) = 1. By Proposition 1.2.5, there exist integers b, c such that ab + nv = 1. Therefore, $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

(2): If $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, then ab = nq + 1 for some integer q. By Proposition 1.2.5, gcd(a, n) = 1 and gcd(b, n) = 1.

PROPOSITION 1.2.13. If p is a prime and $k \ge 1$, then $\phi(p^k) = p^k - p^{k-1} = p^k(1-1/p)$.

PROOF. The multiples of p in the set $\{1, 2, \dots, p^k\}$ are $p, 2p, \dots, p^{k-1}p$. Since there are p^{k-1} multiples of p, there are $p^k - p^{k-1}$ numbers that are relatively prime to p

PROPOSITION 1.2.14. Let m and n be relatively prime positive integers. Then $\phi(mn) = \phi(m)\phi(n)$.

PROOF. By Theorem 1.2.11, the function $\psi: \mathbb{Z}/mn \to \mathbb{Z}/m \times \mathbb{Z}/n$ defined by $\psi([x]) = ([x], [x])$ is a one-to-one correspondence. We show that the restriction of ψ to U_{mn} induces a one-to-one correspondence $\rho: U_{mn} \to U_m \times U_n$.

If $\gcd(x,mn)=1$, then by Proposition 1.2.5 there exist integers u,v such that 1=xu+mnv, hence $\gcd(x,m)=1$ and $\gcd(x,n)=1$. This proves that ρ is well defined. Since ψ is one-to-one, so is ρ . To finish the proof we show that ρ is onto. Let $([a],[b])\in U_m\times U_n$. By Lemma 1.2.12 there exists $([x],[y])\in U_m\times U_n$ such that $ax\equiv 1\pmod m$ and $by\equiv 1\pmod n$. Since ψ is onto, there exists $[k]\in \mathbb{Z}/mn$ such that $k\equiv a\pmod m$ and $k\equiv b\pmod n$. Likewise, there exists $[\ell]\in \mathbb{Z}/mn$ such that $\ell\equiv x\pmod m$ and $\ell\equiv y\pmod n$. By Proposition 1.2.9, $k\ell\equiv ax\equiv 1\pmod m$ and $k\ell\equiv by\equiv 1\pmod n$. Since ψ is one-to-one, $k\ell\equiv 1\pmod m$. By Lemma 1.2.12 this implies $[k]\in U_{mn}$, which proves ρ is onto.

DEFINITION 1.2.15. Let $n \geq 1$ be an integer. The notation $\sum_{d|n}$ or $\prod_{d|n}$ denotes the sum or product over the set of all positive numbers d such that $d \mid n$. An integer n is said to be *square free* if for every prime p, n is not a multiple of p^2 . The Möbius function is defined by

$$\mu(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } n \text{ is not square free,} \\ (-1)^r & \text{if } n \text{ factors into } r \text{ distinct primes.} \end{cases}$$

Theorem 1.2.16. (Möbius Inversion Formula) Let f be a function defined on \mathbb{N} and define another function on \mathbb{N} by

$$F(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d).$$

Then

$$f(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) F\left(\frac{n}{d}\right).$$

PROOF. The proof can be found in any elementary number theory book, and is left to the reader. $\hfill\Box$

2.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 1.2.17. Let a and b be integers that are not both zero and let d be the greatest common divisor of a and b. Consider the linear diophantine equation: d = ax + by. Bézout's Identity says that there exist integers u and v such that d = au + bv.

- (1) Show that the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} u & v \\ u b/d & v + a/d \end{pmatrix}$ is invertible. Find its inverse.
- (2) If c is an integer, show that the linear diophantine equation c = ax + by has a solution if and only if $d \mid c$.
- (3) Assume $d \mid c$. Prove that the general solution to the linear diophantine equation c = ax + by is $x = x_0 tb/d$, $y = y_0 + ta/d$, where $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ and (x_0, y_0) is any particular solution.

EXERCISE 1.2.18. This exercise is based on Problem 1.3 of Adrian Wadsworth's book [62]. Let a and b be relatively prime positive integers and consider the set

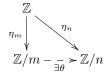
$$L = \{ax + by \mid x \text{ and } y \text{ are nonnegative integers}\}.$$

The problem is to find the integer ℓ satisfying these two properties: (1) $\ell - 1 \notin L$ and (2) if n is an integer and $n \geq \ell$, then $n \in L$.

You should attempt to solve this interesting problem yourself. Alternatively, you may follow the six steps below which outline a solution.

- (1) Prove that if a=1 or b=1, then L contains the set of all nonnegative integers.
- (2) Prove that the integers a, b, ab, (a-1)(b-1) are in L.
- (3) Prove that ab a b = (a 1)(b 1) 1 is not in L. Hint: Show that the line ab a b = ax + by contains the two lattice points (-1, a 1) and (b 1, -a).
- (4) Prove that if n > ab, then n is in L.
- (5) Assume a>1, b>1, and let n be an integer satisfying ab-a-b< n< ab. Prove that n is in L. Hints: For sake of contradiction assume ab-a-b< n< ab and n is not in L. Show that there exists an ordered pair (x_1,y_1) such that $n=ax_1+by_1$, (x_1,y_1) is in Quadrant IV and (x_1-b,y_1+a) is in Quadrant II. Show that (x_1,y_1) is not in the parallelogram with vertices (b,0), (0,a), (-1,a-1), (b-1,-1). Show that this is impossible.
- (6) Let $\ell = (a-1)(b-1)$. Prove that $\ell 1 \notin L$ and if $\ell \le n$, then n is in L.

EXERCISE 1.2.19. Let $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$. Consider the diagram



where η_m and η_n are the natural maps. Show that there exists a function θ making the diagram commute if and only if n divides m.

EXERCISE 1.2.20. Let $n \geq 1$. Show that the function $\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ defined by $x \mapsto \gcd(x,n)$ is constant on congruence classes. In other words, show that $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$ implies $\gcd(x,n) = \gcd(y,n)$.

Exercise 1.2.21. Let p be a prime.

- (1) If $1 \le k \le p-1$, show that p divides $\binom{p}{k}$.
- (2) Show that $(a+b)^p \equiv a^p + b^p \pmod{p}$ for any integers a and b. (Hint: Exercise 1.1.18.)
- (3) Use (2) and Proposition 1.2.2 to prove that $(a+b)^{p^n} \equiv a^{p^n} + b^{p^n} \pmod{p}$ for any integers a and b and for all $n \geq 0$.

See Exercise 3.6.35 for a generalization of this result.

EXERCISE 1.2.22. Show that the Möbius function μ is multiplicative in the sense that if gcd(m,n) = 1, then $\mu(mn) = \mu(m)\mu(n)$.

EXERCISE 1.2.23. Let $n \geq 0$ and $X = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}\}$, where $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \geq 0\}$ is the set of nonnegative integers. The lexicographical ordering (also called alphabetical or dictionary ordering) on X is defined recursively on n. For n = 1, the usual ordering on \mathbb{Z} is applied. If n > 1, then $(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) < (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$ if and only if: $(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{n-1}) < (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_{n-1})$ or $(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{n-1}) = (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_{n-1})$ and $v_n < w_n$. If $\alpha, \beta \in X$, then we write $\alpha \leq \beta$ in case $\alpha < \beta$ or $\alpha = \beta$.

- (1) Show that \leq is a partial order on X. Show that X is a chain.
- (2) If $\alpha \in X$, the segment of X determined by α , written $(-\infty, \alpha)$, is $\{x \in X \mid x < \alpha\}$. For which $\alpha \in X$ is
 - (a) $(-\infty, \alpha) = \emptyset$?
 - (b) $(-\infty, \alpha)$ finite?
 - (c) $(-\infty, \alpha)$ infinite?
- (3) Show that X with the lexicographical ordering \leq is a well ordered set. That is, show that if $S \subseteq X$ and $S \neq \emptyset$, then S has a least element.

EXERCISE 1.2.24. Let $X = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$ be a finite set and $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ the set of nonnegative integers. If $U \subseteq X$, the so-called *indicator function* on U, denoted $\chi_U : U \to \{0, 1\}$, is defined by

$$\chi_U(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in U \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin U. \end{cases}$$

Define $f: 2^X \to \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ by $f(U) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \chi_U(x_i) 2^i$. Prove:

- (1) f is a one-to-one correspondence between 2^X and $\{0, 1, \dots, 2^{n-1}\}$.
- (2) $|2^X| = 2^{|X|}$.
- (3) The ordering on 2^X induced by the function f makes 2^X into a well ordered set.

EXERCISE 1.2.25. Let I_1 be a well ordered set with binary relation $R_1 \subseteq I_1 \times I_1$. Let I_2 be a well ordered set with binary relation $R_2 \subseteq I_2 \times I_2$. Using the identity from Exercise 1.1.20, the set $R_1 \cup (I_1 \times I_2) \cup R_2$ is a subset of $(I_1 \cup I_2) \times (I_1 \cup I_2)$ and hence defines a binary relation on $I_1 \cup I_2$. Show that this makes $I_1 \cup I_2$ into a well ordered set. Usually this well ordered set is denoted $I_1 + I_2$ and in words we say, "elements of I_1 are comparable by R_1 , elements of I_1 are less than elements of I_2 , and elements of I_2 are comparable by I_2 ".

EXERCISE 1.2.26. Let X and Y be two well ordered sets. Generalize Exercise 1.2.23 by defining a lexicographical ordering on $X \times Y$ which makes it into a well ordered set.

3. The Well Ordering Principle and Some of Its Equivalents

AXIOM 1.3.1. (The Well Ordering Principle) If X is a nonempty set, then there exists a partial order \leq on X such that X is a well ordered set. That is, every nonempty subset of X has a least element.

Let X be a set and \leq a partial order on X. If $x, y \in X$, then we write x < y in case $x \leq y$ and $x \neq y$. Suppose $C \subseteq X$ is a chain in X and $\alpha \in C$. The segment of C determined by α , written $(-\infty, \alpha)$, is the set of all elements $x \in C$ such that $x < \alpha$. A subset $W \subseteq C$ is called an *inductive subset* of C provided that for any $\alpha \in C$, if $(-\infty, \alpha) \subseteq W$, then $\alpha \in W$.

PROPOSITION 1.3.2. (The Transfinite Induction Principle) Suppose X is a well ordered set and W is an inductive subset of X. Then W = X.

PROOF. Suppose X-W is nonempty. Let α be the least element of X-W. Then W contains the segment $(-\infty, \alpha)$. Since W is inductive, it follows that $\alpha \in W$, which is a contradiction.

PROPOSITION 1.3.3. (Zorn's Lemma) Let X be a partially ordered set. If every chain in X has an upper bound, then X contains a maximal element.

PROOF. By Axiom 1.3.1, there exists a well ordered set W and a one-to-one correspondence $\omega:W\to X$. Using Proposition 1.3.2, define a sequence $\{C(w)\mid w\in W\}$ of well ordered subsets of X. If w_0 is the least element of W, define $C(w_0)=\{\omega(w_0)\}$. Inductively assume $\alpha\in W-\{w_0\}$ and that for all $w<\alpha$, C(w) is defined and the following are satisfied

- (1) if $w_0 \leq w_1 \leq w_2 < \alpha$, then $C(w_1) \subseteq C(w_2)$,
- (2) C(w) is a well ordered chain in X, and
- (3) $C(w) \subseteq \{\omega(i) \mid w_0 \le i \le w\}.$

Let $x = \omega(\alpha)$ and

$$F = \bigcup_{w < \alpha} C(w).$$

The reader should verify that F is a well ordered chain in X and $F \subseteq \{\omega(i) \mid w_0 \le i < \alpha\}$. Define $C(\alpha)$ by the rule

$$C(\alpha) = \begin{cases} F \cup \{x\} & \text{if } x \text{ is an upper bound for } F \\ F & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The reader should verify that $C(\alpha)$ satisfies

- (4) if $w_0 \leq w_1 \leq w_2 \leq \alpha$, then $C(w_1) \subseteq C(w_2)$,
- (5) $C(\alpha)$ is a well ordered chain in X, and
- (6) $C(\alpha) \subseteq \{\omega(i) \mid w_0 \le i \le \alpha\}.$

By Proposition 1.3.2, the sequence $\{C(w) \mid w \in W\}$ is defined and the properties (4), (5) and (6) are satisfied for all $\alpha \in W$. Now set

$$G = \bigcup_{w < \alpha} C(w).$$

The reader should verify that G is a well ordered chain in X. By hypothesis, G has an upper bound, say u. We show that u is a maximal element of X. For contradiction's sake, assume X has no maximal element. Then we can choose the upper bound u to be an element of X - G. For some $w_1 \in W$ we have $u = \omega(w_1)$. For all $w < w_1$, u is an upper bound for C(w). By the definition of $C(w_1)$, we have $u \in C(w_1)$. This is a contradiction, because $C(w_1) \subseteq G$.

DEFINITION 1.3.4. Let I be a set and $\{X_i \mid i \in I\}$ a family of sets indexed by I. The *product* is

$$\prod_{i \in I} X_i = \{ f : I \to \bigcup X_i \mid f(i) \in X_i \}.$$

An element f of the product is called a choice function, because f chooses one element from each member of the family of sets.

PROPOSITION 1.3.5. (The Axiom of Choice) Let I be a set and $\{X_i \mid i \in I\}$ a family of nonempty sets indexed by I. Then the product $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ is nonempty. That is, there exists a function f on I such that $f(i) \in X_i$ for each $i \in I$.

PROOF. By Axiom 1.3.1, we can assume $\bigcup_{i \in I} X_i$ is well ordered. We can view X_i as a subset of $\bigcup_{i \in I} X_i$. For each $i \in I$, let x_i be the least element of X_i . The set of ordered pairs (i, x_i) defines the choice function.

4. Topological Spaces

DEFINITION 1.4.1. Let X be a set. A topology on X is a subset \mathcal{T} of 2^X that satisfies the following properties:

- (1) $X \in \mathcal{T}$.
- (2) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$.
- (3) If $A, B \in \mathcal{T}$, then $A \cup B \in \mathcal{T}$.
- (4) If $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a family of sets such that each $A_i \in \mathcal{T}$, then $\cap_i A_i \in \mathcal{T}$. The elements of \mathcal{T} are called *closed sets*. If $A \in \mathcal{T}$, then X A is called an *open set*. If $Y \subseteq X$, then \mathcal{T} restricts to a topology on Y whose closed sets are $\{A \cap Y \mid A \in \mathcal{T}\}$.

DEFINITION 1.4.2. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$ a function. Then f is said to be *continuous*, if $f^{-1}(Y)$ is closed whenever Y is closed. Equivalently, f is continuous if $f^{-1}(U)$ is open whenever U is open. If f is continuous, and $g: Y \to Z$ is continuous, then one can check that $gf: X \to Z$ is continuous. We say X and Y are *homeomorphic*, if there exist continuous functions $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to X$ such that $gf = 1_X$ and $fg = 1_Y$.

DEFINITION 1.4.3. Let X be a topological space and Y a nonempty subset. We say Y is *irreducible* if whenever $Y \subseteq Y_1 \cup Y_2$ and Y_1 , Y_2 are closed subsets of X, then $Y \subseteq Y_1$, or $Y \subseteq Y_2$. We say Y is *connected* if whenever $Y \subseteq Y_1 \cup Y_2$ and Y_1, Y_2 are disjoint closed subsets of X, then $Y \subseteq Y_1$, or $Y \subseteq Y_2$. The empty set is not considered to be irreducible or connected. Notice that an irreducible set is connected.

If Z is a subset of the topological space X, then the *closure* of Z, denoted \bar{Z} , is the smallest closed subset of X that contains Z. Equivalently, \bar{Z} is equal to the intersection of all closed sets that contain Z.

Lemma 1.4.4. Let X be a topological space.

- (1) If X is irreducible and $U \subseteq X$ is a nonempty open of X, then U is irreducible and dense.
- (2) Let Z be a subset of X and denote by \bar{Z} the closure of Z in X. Then Z is irreducible if and only if \bar{Z} is irreducible.
- (3) If X is irreducible, then X is connected.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

A topological space X is said to be *noetherian* if X satisfies the ascending chain condition on open sets. Some equivalent conditions are given by the next lemma.

Lemma 1.4.5. The following are equivalent, for a topological space X.

- (1) X satisfies the ascending chain condition on open sets.
- (2) X satisfies the maximum condition on open sets.
- (3) X satisfies the descending chain condition on closed sets.
- (4) X satisfies the minimum condition on closed sets.

PROOF. Exercise 1.4.11 shows the equivalence of (1) and (2), as well as the equivalence of (3) and (4). The rest is left to the reader.

Lemma 1.4.6. Let X be a topological space.

- (1) If $X = X_1 \cup \cdots \cup X_n$ and each X_i is noetherian, then X is noetherian.
- (2) If X is noetherian and $Y \subseteq X$, then Y is noetherian.

(3) If X is noetherian, then X is compact. That is, every open cover of X contains a finite subcover.

Proof. Is left to the reader.

Proposition 1.4.7. Let X be a noetherian topological space and Z a nonempty closed subset of X.

- (1) There are unique irreducible closed subsets Z_1, \ldots, Z_r such that $Z = Z_1 \cup \cdots \cup Z_r$ and $Z_i \not\subseteq Z_j$ for all $i \neq j$. The sets Z_i are called the irreducible components of Z.
- (2) There are unique connected closed subsets Y_1, \ldots, Y_c such that $Z = Y_1 \cup \cdots \cup Y_c$ and $Y_i \cap Y_j = \emptyset$ for all $i \neq j$. The sets Y_i are called the connected components of Z.
- (3) The number of connected components is less than or equal to the number of irreducible components.

PROOF. (1): We first prove the existence of the decomposition. For contradiction's sake, assume there is a nonempty closed subset Y such that Y cannot be written as a union of a finite number of irreducible closed sets. Let S be the collection of all such subsets. By Lemma 1.4.5 (4), S has a minimal member, call it Y. Then Y is itself not irreducible, so we can write $Y = Y_1 \cup Y_2$ where each Y_i is a proper closed subset of Y. By minimality of Y, it follows that each Y_i is not in S. Therefore each Y_i can be decomposed into irreducibles. This means $Y = Y_1 \cup Y_2$ can also be decomposed into irreducibles, which is a contradiction. So Z is not a counterexample. In other words, we can write $Z = Z_1 \cup \cdots \cup Z_r$ such that each Z_i is irreducible. If $Z_i \subseteq Z_j$ for some j different from i, then Z_i may be excluded.

Now we prove the uniqueness of the decomposition. Let $Z=Z_1\cup\cdots\cup Z_r$ and $Z=W_1\cup\cdots\cup W_p$ be two such decompositions. Then

$$Z_1 = (Z_1 \cap W_1) \cup \cdots \cup (Z_1 \cap W_n).$$

Since Z_1 is irreducible, $Z_1 = Z_1 \cap W_i$ for some i. Therefore $Z_1 \subseteq W_i$. Likewise $W_i \subseteq Z_j$ for some j. This implies

$$Z_1 \subseteq W_i \subseteq Z_i$$
.

It follows that $Z_1 = W_i$. By a finite induction argument, we are done.

- (2): Existence follows by the minimal counterexample method of Part (1). The rest is left to the reader.
- (3): Each Z_i is connected, by Lemma 1.4.4. Then each Z_i belongs to a unique connected component of X.

A topological space X is said to be a T_1 -space if for every point $x \in X$ the subset $\{x\}$ is closed. We say X is separated (or Hausdorff, or a T_2 -space), if for any two distinct points $x, y \in X$, there are neighborhoods $x \in U$ and $y \in V$ such that $U \cap V = \emptyset$. We say X is compact if for any open cover $\{U_i \mid i \in D\}$ of X, there is a finite subset $J \subseteq D$ such that $\{U_i \mid i \in D\}$ is an open cover of X. Let $\{X_i \mid i \in D\}$ be a family of topological spaces indexed by a set D. The product topology on $\prod_{i \in D} X_i$ is defined to be the finest topology such that all of the projection maps $\pi_i : \prod_{i \in D} X_i \to X_i$ are continuous. For proofs of Theorems 1.4.8 and 1.4.9, the reader is referred to a book on Point Set Topology, for example [32].

THEOREM 1.4.8. (Tychonoff Product Theorem) If $\{X_i \mid i \in D\}$ is a family of compact topological spaces indexed by a set D, then with the product topology, $\prod_{i \in D} X_i$ is a compact topological space.

THEOREM 1.4.9. If $\{X_i \mid i \in D\}$ is a family of Hausdorff indexed by a set D, then with the product topology, $\prod_{i \in D} X_i$ is a Hausdorff topological space.

4.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 1.4.10. Let I be a set and $\{X_i \mid i \in I\}$ a family of nonempty sets indexed by I. For each $k \in I$ define $\pi_k : \prod_{i \in I} X_i \to X_k$ by the rule $\pi_k(f) = f(k)$. We call π_k the projection onto coordinate k. Show that π_k is onto.

EXERCISE 1.4.11. Let X be a set that is partially ordered by \leq .

- (1) Prove that X satisfies the descending chain condition (DCC) if and only if X satisfies the minimum condition.
- (2) Prove that X satisfies the ascending chain condition (ACC) if and only if X satisfies the maximum condition.

EXERCISE 1.4.12. Let X be a topological space. We say that a family $\{Z_i \subseteq X \mid i \in D\}$ of closed subsets of X has the *finite intersection property* if for every finite subset $J \subseteq D$, $\bigcap_{i \in J} Z_j \neq \emptyset$. Show that the following are equivalent.

- (1) X is compact.
- (2) For any family $\{Z_i \subseteq X \mid i \in D\}$ of closed subsets of X with the finite intersection property, $\bigcap_{i \in D} Z_i \neq \emptyset$.

5. Background Material from Calculus

As in Section 1.1.1, the set of real numbers is denoted \mathbb{R} .

THEOREM 1.5.1. If a is a positive real number, then there exists a real number x such that $x^2 = a$. In other words, a positive real number has a square root.

PROOF. See, for instance, [58, Theorem 7.8, p. 124].

THEOREM 1.5.2. If n is a positive odd integer and $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}$ are real numbers, then there exists a real number x such that $x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0 = 0$. In other words, a polynomial over \mathbb{R} of odd degree has a root.

PROOF. See, for instance, [58, Theorem 7.9, p. 125].

For properties of the complex numbers, the reader is referred, for example, to [58, Chapter 25]. The set of complex numbers, denoted \mathbb{C} , is identified with \mathbb{R}^2 and is a two-dimensional real vector space. A complex number is an ordered pair (a,b). A basis for \mathbb{C} is (1,0), also denoted 1, and (0,1), also denoted i. In terms of this basis, the complex number (a,b) has representation a+bi. Addition of complex numbers is coordinate-wise: (a+bi)+(c+di)=(a+c)+(b+d)i. The additive identity is 0=(0,0) and the additive inverse of a+bi is -a-bi. Multiplication distributes over addition, and $i^2=-1$, hence $(a+bi)(c+di)=ac+(ad+bc)i+bdi^2=(ac-bd)+(ad+bc)i$. The multiplicative identity is 1=(1,0)=1+0i. If z=a+bi, then the absolute value of z is $|z|=\sqrt{a^2+b^2}$, which is equal to the length of the vector (a,b). Let r=|a+bi|. If θ is the angle determined by the vectors z=a+bi and 1=(1,0), then the representation of z in polar coordinates is $z=a+bi=r\cos\theta+ir\sin\theta$. The complex conjugate of

z=a+bi is $\chi(z)=a-bi$. Then $z\chi(z)=a^2+b^2=|z|^2$ is a nonnegative real number. This implies if $z\neq 0$, then z is invertible and

$$z^{-1} = \frac{a - bi}{a^2 + b^2}.$$

The power series for the functions e^x , $\cos x$, and $\sin x$ are

$$e^{x} = 1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \frac{x^{4}}{4!} + \frac{x^{5}}{5!} + \frac{x^{6}}{6!} + \frac{x^{7}}{7!} + \frac{x^{8}}{8!} + \dots$$

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{4}}{4!} - \frac{x^{6}}{6!} + \frac{x^{8}}{8!} + \dots$$

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \frac{x^{5}}{5!} - \frac{x^{7}}{7!} + \dots$$

These power series converge for every real number x. We define e^{ix} to be the substitution of ix into the power series. Using the identities $i^2 = -1$, $i^3 = -i$, $i^4 = 1$, and $i^5 = i$, we have

$$\begin{split} e^{ix} &= 1 + ix + \frac{i^2 x^2}{2!} + \frac{i^3 x^3}{3!} + \frac{i^4 x^4}{4!} + \frac{i^5 x^5}{5!} + \frac{i^6 x^6}{6!} + \frac{i^7 x^7}{7!} + \frac{i^8 x^8}{8!} + \dots \\ &= 1 + ix - \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{ix^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{ix^5}{5!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} - \frac{ix^7}{7!} + \frac{x^8}{8!} + \dots \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \frac{x^8}{8!} + \dots\right) + i\left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots\right) \\ &= \cos x + i \sin x. \end{split}$$

Therefore, if z = a + bi has polar representation $r \cos \theta + ir \sin \theta$, then the representation for z in exponential form is $a + bi = re^{i\theta}$.

Proposition 1.5.3. In exponential notation, arithmetic in \mathbb{C} satisfies the following formulas.

- (1) (Additive inverse) $-re^{i\theta} = re^{i(\theta+\pi)}$.
- (2) (Multiplication) $re^{i\theta}se^{i\phi} = (rs)e^{i(\theta+\phi)}$.
- (3) (Complex conjugation) $\chi(re^{i\theta}) = re^{-i\theta}$.
- (4) (Multiplicative inverse) $(re^{i\theta})^{-1} = r^{-1}e^{-i\theta}$.
- (5) (Square root) If $r \ge 0$, then $z^{1/2} = \sqrt{re^{i\theta}} = \sqrt{r}e^{i\theta/2}$
- (6) (nth root) If $r \ge 0$, then $z^{1/n} = (re^{i\theta})^{1/n} = r^{1/n}e^{i\theta/n}$

PROOF. The proof is left to the reader.

THEOREM 1.5.4. If X is a compact metric space and $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function, then f(X) is a closed bounded subset of \mathbb{R} . There exist $l, u \in X$ such that $f(l) = \inf f(X)$ and $f(u) = \sup f(X)$.

PROOF. See, for instance, [51].

CHAPTER 2

Groups

1. First properties of groups

The notion of a binary operation on a set was introduced in Section 1.1.5. The main ideas remain the same, but we recast them in light of the present context. Let G be a nonempty set with a binary operation $G \times G \to G$. Usually the binary operation on a group will be written multiplicatively or additively. In the multiplicative notation, an identity element will usually be denoted e or 1 and the inverse of an element a will be written a^{-1} . If additive notation is used, an identity is usually denoted 0 and -a denotes the inverse of a.

1.1. Definitions and Terminology.

DEFINITION 2.1.1. Let G be a nonempty set with a multiplicative binary operation. If a(bc) = (ab)c for all $a, b, c \in G$, then the binary operation is said to be associative. In this case, G is called a *semigroup*. If G is a semigroup and G contains an element e satisfying ae = ea = a for all $a \in G$, then e is said to be an identity element and G is called a *monoid*. Let G be a monoid with identity element e. An element $a \in G$ is said to be *invertible* if there exists $a^{-1} \in G$ such that $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = e$. The element a^{-1} is called the *inverse of a*. A monoid in which every element is invertible is called a *group*. In other words, a group is a nonempty set G together with an associative binary operation such that an identity element e exists in G, and every element of G is invertible. If xy = yx for all $x, y \in G$, then the binary operation is said to be commutative. A commutative group is called an *abelian group*.

If G has an additive binary operation, then the associative law is (a+b)+c=a+(b+c) for all $a,b,c\in G$. The element $0\in G$ is an identity element if a+0=0+a=a for all $a\in G$. The element a is invertible if there exists an inverse element $-a\in G$ such that a+(-a)=(-a)+a=0. The commutative law is a+b=b+a for all $a,b\in G$. As a rule, additive notation is not used for nonabelian groups.

Example 2.1.2. Let X be a nonempty set. A one-to-one correspondence $\sigma: X \to X$ is also called a permutation of X. The set of all permutations of X is denoted $\operatorname{Perm}(X)$. If σ and τ are permutations of X, then so is the composite function $\sigma\tau$, by Proposition 1.1.1. Therefore, $\operatorname{Perm}(X)$ is a group with identity element 1_X . If |X| > 1, then $\operatorname{Perm}(X)$ is nonabelian.

Example 2.1.3. Here are some examples of abelian groups.

(1) Under addition, \mathbb{Z} is an abelian group with identity 0. The inverse of x is written -x.

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- (2) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Proposition 1.2.9 shows that under addition, $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$ is an abelian group with identity [0]. The inverse of [x] is [-x]. We have $|\mathbb{Z}/(n)| = n$.
- (3) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Lemma 1.2.12 shows that the set of units modulo n, U_n , is a multiplicative abelian group. The identity element is [1] and $|U_n| = \phi(n)$.

Let G be a multiplicative semigroup. The associative law on G says that (ab)c = a(bc). In other words, a product of length three has a unique value regardless of how we associate the multiplications into binary operations using parentheses. When writing a product abc it is not necessary to use parentheses. The next lemma extends this result to products of arbitrary finite length.

LEMMA 2.1.4. (General Associative Law) Let G be a semigroup, $n \geq 1$, and $x_1x_2\cdots x_n$ a product involving n elements of G. Then the product has a unique value regardless of how we associate the multiplications into binary operations using parentheses.

PROOF. First we define a standard value for $x_1x_2\cdots x_n$ by the recursive formula:

$$x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n = \begin{cases} x_1 & \text{if } n = 1\\ (x_1 x_2 \cdots x_{n-1}) x_n & \text{if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

Now we show that any association of $x_1x_2\cdots x_n$ will result in the value defined above. The proof is by induction on n. If $n\leq 3$, then this is true by the associative law on G. Inductively assume n>3 and that the result holds for any product of length less than n. Let $x_1x_2\cdots x_n$ be a product involving n elements. Assume the product is associated into binary operations using parentheses. Then the last binary operation can be written as

$$(x_1x_2\cdots x_m)(x_{m+1}\cdots x_n)$$

and by the induction hypothesis, the two products $x_1x_2\cdots x_m$ and $x_{m+1}\cdots x_m$ have unique values regardless of how they are associated. If m=n-1, then we are done, by the induction hypothesis. Assume $1 \le m < n-1$. Using the associative law on G and the induction hypothesis, we get

$$(x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m)(x_{m+1} \cdots x_n) = (x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m)((x_{m+1} \cdots x_{n-1})x_n)$$

$$= ((x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m)(x_{m+1} \cdots x_{n-1})x_n)$$

$$= (x_1 x_2 \cdots x_{n-1})x_n)$$

$$= x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n$$

which completes the proof.

Definition 2.1.5. Let G be a group, $a \in G$, and n a nonnegative integer.

(1) If G is a multiplicative group, then the n-th power of a is defined recursively by the formula:

$$a^n = \begin{cases} e & \text{if } n = 0\\ aa^{n-1} & \text{if } n > 0. \end{cases}$$

We define a^{-n} to be $(a^{-1})^n$, which is equal to $(a^n)^{-1}$.

(2) If A and B are nonempty subsets of G, then

$$AB = \{xy \mid x \in A, y \in B\}.$$

(3) For an additive group G, the counterpart of the n-th power is *left multiplication of a by* n, which is defined recursively by:

$$na = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 0\\ a + (n-1)a & \text{if } n > 0. \end{cases}$$

and (-n)a is defined to be n(-a), which is equal to -(na).

(4) If A and B are nonempty subsets of the additive group G, then we define

$$A + B = \{x + y \mid x \in A, y \in B\}.$$

PROPOSITION 2.1.6. Let G be a group and a, b, c elements of G.

- (1) There exists a unique x in G such that ax = b.
- (2) There exists a unique y in G such that ya = b.
- (3) We have ab = ac if and only if b = c.
- (4) We have ab = cb if and only if a = c.

Parts (1) and (2) are called the solvability properties, Parts (3) and (4) are called the cancellation properties.

PROOF. (3): Assume we have ab = ac. Multiply both sides on the left by a^{-1} to get $a^{-1}ab = a^{-1}ac$. Since $a^{-1}ab = eb = b$ and $a^{-1}ac = ec = c$, we get b = c. Conversely, multiplying both sides of b = c from the left with a yields ab = ac.

(1): Let $x = a^{-1}b$. Multiply by a on the left to get $ax = aa^{-1}b = eb = b$. If x' is another solution, then ax = ax' and by Part (3) we have x = x'.

Parts (4) and (2) are proved in a similar manner.

EXAMPLE 2.1.7. Let G be a group. Let $a \in G$ be a fixed element. Then "left multiplication by a" defines a function $\lambda_a : G \to G$, where $\lambda_a(x) = ax$. Part (1) of Proposition 2.1.6 says that λ_a is onto and Part (3) says that λ_a is one-to-one. Therefore, λ_a is a one-to-one correspondence. Likewise, "right multiplication by a" defines a one-to-one correspondence $\rho_a : G \to G$ where $\rho_a(x) = xa$.

DEFINITION 2.1.8. If G is a group, then the *order of* G is the cardinality of the underlying set. The order of G is denoted [G:e] or [G] or [G].

DEFINITION 2.1.9. Let G be a group and $a \in G$. The order of a, written |a|, is the least positive integer m such that $a^m = e$. If no such integer exists, then we say a has infinite order.

DEFINITION 2.1.10. Let G and G' be groups. A function $\theta: G \to G'$ is called an *isomorphism of groups*, if θ is a one-to-one correspondence and $\theta(xy) = \theta(x)\theta(y)$ for all $x,y \in G$. In this case, we say G and G' are *isomorphic* and write $G \cong G'$. From an abstract algebraic point of view, isomorphic groups are indistinguishable.

1.2. Examples of groups.

EXAMPLE 2.1.11. In this example we show that there is up to isomorphism only one group of order two. By Example 2.1.3, a group of order two exists, namely the additive group $\mathbb{Z}/2$. Let $G = \{e, a\}$ be an arbitrary group of order two, where e is the identity element. By Example 2.1.7, left multiplication by a is a permutation of G. Since ae = a, this implies aa = e. In other words, there is only one binary operation that makes $\{e, a\}$ into a group. If $G' = \{e, b\}$ is a group, then the function that maps $e \mapsto e$, $a \mapsto b$ is an isomorphism.

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EXAMPLE 2.1.12. We know from Example 2.1.3 that the additive group $\mathbb{Z}/3$ is an abelian group of order three. In this example we show that up to isomorphism there is only one group of order three. Let $G = \{e, a, b\}$ be an arbitrary group of order three, where e is the identity element. By Example 2.1.7, λ_a and ρ_a are permutations of G. By cancellation, ab = b leads to the contradiction a = e. Since ae = a, we conclude that ab = e and aa = b. Similarly, ba = b is impossible, hence we conclude that ba = e. We have shown that $G = \{e, a, a^2\}$ and a has order 3. Suppose $G' = \{e, c, c^2\}$ is another group of order 3. Then the assignments $a^i \mapsto c^i$ for i = 0, 1, 2 define an isomorphism.

EXAMPLE 2.1.13. If $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is a finite set, then a binary operation on X can be represented as an n-by-n matrix with entries from X. Sometimes we call the matrix the "multiplication table" or "addition table". If the binary operation is *, then the entry in row i and column j of the associated matrix is the product $x_i * x_j$. For instance, the multiplication and addition tables for $\mathbb{Z}/6$ are:

*	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	0	2	4	0	2	4
3	0	3	0	3	0	3
4	0	4	2	0	4	2
5	0	5	4	3	2	1

+	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	1	2	3	4	5
1	1	2	3	4	5	0
2	2	3	4	5	0	1
3	3	4	5	0	1	2
4	4	5	0	1	2	3
5	5	0	1	2	3	4

If the binary operation * on X is commutative, then the matrix is symmetric with respect to the main diagonal. If X, * is a group, then by Example 2.1.7, each row of the multiplication table is a permutation of the top row and each column is a permutation of the leftmost column. See Exercise 2.1.28 for more examples.

EXAMPLE 2.1.14. Let $n \geq 1$ and $\mathbb{N}_n = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. The set of all permutations of \mathbb{N}_n is called the *symmetric group on* n *letters* and is denoted S_n . In Example 2.1.2 we saw that composition of functions makes $S_n = \operatorname{Perm}(X)$ into a group. As in Section 1.1.3, the group S_n has order n!. A permutation can be specified using an array of two rows. For example,

$$\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & n \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

represents the permutation $\sigma(i) = a_i$. The so-called cycle notation is a very convenient way to represent elements of S_n . Let $\{a_1, \ldots, a_k\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}_n$. The k-cycle $\sigma = (a_1 a_2 \ldots a_k)$ is the permutation of \mathbb{N}_n defined by:

$$\sigma(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \notin \{a_1, \dots, a_k\} \\ a_1 & \text{if } x = a_k \\ a_{i+1} & \text{if } x = a_i \text{ and } 1 \le i < k. \end{cases}$$

Notice that a k-cycle has order k in the group S_n . The identity element of S_n is usually denoted e. For example, (abc)(ab) = (ac) and (ab)(abc) = (bc). Therefore, S_n is nonabelian if n > 2. The group table for $S_3 = \{e, (abc), (acb), (ac), (ac), (bc)\}$ is:

*	e	(abc)	(acb)	(ab)	(ac)	(bc)
\overline{e}	e	(abc)	(acb)	(ab)	(ac)	(bc)
(abc)	(abc)	(acb)	(e)	(ac)	(bc)	(ab)
$\begin{pmatrix} (acb) \\ (acb) \end{pmatrix}$	(acb)	(e)	(abc)	(bc)	(ab)	(ac)
$\begin{pmatrix} (acb) \\ (ab) \end{pmatrix}$	(ab)	(bc)	(ac)	(e)	(acb)	(ac) (abc)
	· (` ′.			` , \ /	, ,
(ac)	(ac)	(ab)	(bc)	(abc)	(e)	(acb)
(bc)	(bc)	(ac)	(ab)	(acb)	(abc)	(e)

EXAMPLE 2.1.15. Let T be a regular triangle with vertices labeled 1, 2, 3. A symmetry of T is any transformation $\sigma: T \to T$ that preserves distances. Therefore, σ is a permutation of the three vertices. Conversely, a permutation of $\{1,2,3\}$ uniquely determines a symmetry of T. The group of symmetries of T is therefore equal to S_3 .

EXAMPLE 2.1.16. Now let n>2 and let T_n be a regular n-gon with vertices labeled $1,2,\ldots,n$ consecutively. A symmetry of T_n is any transformation $\sigma:T_n\to T_n$ that preserves distances. Therefore, σ is a permutation of the n vertices. If n>3, a permutation of $\{1,2,\ldots,n\}$ does not necessarily determine a symmetry of T_n . When n>3, the group of symmetries of T_n is therefore a proper subgroup of S_n . The group of all symmetries of T_n is called the dihedral group D_n . A rotation of T_n through an angle of $2\pi/n$ corresponds to the permutation

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & n-1 & n \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & \dots & n & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

which in cycle notation is the *n*-cycle R = (12...n). Therefore, R^k is a rotation of T_n through an angle of $2\pi k/n$, hence R has order n. A top to bottom flip of T_n across the line of symmetry containing vertex 1 corresponds to the permutation defined by

$$H = \begin{cases} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & k & k+1 & \dots & n-1 & n \\ 1 & n & n-1 & \dots & k+2 & k+1 & \dots & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} & \text{if } n = 2k \text{ is even,} \\ \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & k & k+1 & \dots & n-1 & n \\ 1 & n & n-1 & \dots & k+1 & k & \dots & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} & \text{if } n = 2k-1 \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

In cycle notation, H can be represented as

$$H = \begin{cases} (2, n)(3, n - 1) \cdots (k, k + 2) & \text{if } n = 2k \text{ is even,} \\ (2, n)(3, n - 1) \cdots (k, k + 1) & \text{if } n = 2k - 1 \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

Then HH = e, hence H has order 2. The reader should verify that $HRH = R^{-1}$. Any symmetry of T_n is either a rotation or a flip followed by a rotation. Therefore we see that $D_n = \{H^iR^j \mid 0 \le i \le 1, 0 \le j < n\}$ is a nonabelian group of order 2n.

Example 2.1.17. Let R_4 be a nonsquare rectangle with vertices labeled consecutively 1, 2, 3, 4. The group of symmetries of R_3 can be viewed as a subgroup of S_4 as well as a subgroup of D_4 . In the notation of Example 2.1.16, the group of symmetries of R_4 is $\{H^iR^j \mid 0 \le i \le 1, 0 \le j \le 1\}$, which is a group of order four. In cycle notation, this group is $\{e, (14)(23), (12)(34), (13)(24)\}$. Note that the group is abelian and every element satisfies the identity $x^2 = e$.

EXAMPLE 2.1.18. The quaternion 8-group is $Q_8 = \{1, -1, i, -i, j, -j, k, -k\}$ with identity element 1. The multiplication rules are: $(-1)^2 = 1$, $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$, ij = -ji = k. This is an example of a nonabelian group of order eight. For a continuation of this example, see Exercise 2.4.19.

EXAMPLE 2.1.19. Let F be a field. If α is a nonzero element of F, then α has a multiplicative inverse, denoted α^{-1} . The set of all nonzero elements of F is a multiplicative group. This group is denoted F^* and is called the *group of units of* F.

EXAMPLE 2.1.20. Let F be a field. The set of all m-by-n matrices over F is denoted $M_{mn}(F)$. If m=n, we sometimes write $M_n(F)$ instead of $M_{nn}(F)$. In this example, we assume the reader is familiar with the basic properties for multiplication of matrices. In particular, multiplication of matrices is associative. We will not include the tedious but elementary proof of this fact here. Instead, we refer the reader to Section 4.4.2. In this example our goal is to show that the set of 2-by-2 matrices over F with nonzero determinant is a group. For n=2, the determinant function $\det: M_2(F) \to F$ is defined by

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = ad - bc.$$

To show that the determinant function is multiplicative, start with the product of two arbitrary 2-by-2 matrices:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ae + bg & af + bh \\ ce + dg & cf + dh \end{pmatrix}.$$

The determinant formula applied on the left hand side yields: (ad-bc)(eh-fg)=adeh-adfg-bceh+bcfg. The reader should verify that this is equal to the determinant of the right hand side: (ae+bg)(cf+dh)-(ce+dg)(af+bh). A matrix α is invertible if there is a matrix β such that $\alpha\beta=\beta\alpha=\begin{pmatrix}1&0\\0&1\end{pmatrix}$. Taking determinants, this implies $\det\alpha\det\beta=1$. In other words, if α is invertible, then $\det\alpha\neq0$. Notice that

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ad-bc & 0 \\ 0 & ad-bc \end{pmatrix} = (ad-bc) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

If $\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = ad - bc \neq 0$, then the matrix is invertible and the inverse is given by the formula

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = (ad - bc)^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

The set

$$\operatorname{GL}_2(F) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in M_2(F) \mid ad - bc \neq 0 \right\}$$

is the set of all invertible 2-by-2 matrices over F and is called the *general linear group of* 2-by-2 matrices over F. For a continuation of this example when F is $\mathbb{Z}/2$, the field of order 2, see Exercise 2.1.26.

Example 2.1.21. The Klein Viergruppe, or 4-group, is $V=\{e,a,b,c\}$ with multiplication rules: $a^2=b^2=c^2=e,\,ab=ba=c.$ Notice that V is isomorphic to

the group of symmetries of a nonsquare rectangle presented in Example 2.1.17 by the mapping: $a \mapsto (14)(23), b \mapsto (12)(34), c \mapsto (13)(24).$

1.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 2.1.22. Let G be a monoid with identity element e.

- (1) Show that G has exactly one identity element. In other words, show that if $e' \in G$ has the property that ae' = e'a = a, then e = e'.
- (2) Show that an invertible element of G has a unique inverse. In other words, if $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = e$ and aa' = a'a = e, then $a^{-1} = a'$.
- (3) Suppose $a, r, \ell \in G$ satisfy the identities: ar = e and $\ell a = e$. Show that $r = \ell$ and a is invertible.
- (4) Suppose every element of G has a left inverse. In other words, assume for every $a \in G$ there exists $a_l \in G$ such that $a_l a = e$. Show that G is a group. If $a \in G$ is invertible, then a^{-1} is invertible and $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$.
- (5) If a and b are invertible elements of G, then ab is invertible and $(ab)^{-1}$ $b^{-1}a^{-1}$.

EXERCISE 2.1.23. Let G be a group and $x, y \in G$. Prove the following:

- (1) If $x^2 = x$, then x = e. We say that a group has exactly one idempotent.
- (2) If xy = e, then $y = x^{-1}$.
- (3) $(x^{-1})^{-1} = x$. (4) $(xy)^{-1} = y^{-1}x^{-1}$.

EXERCISE 2.1.24. Let G be a group. The opposite group of G is denoted G° . As a set, G^o is equal to G. The binary operation on G^o is reversed from that of R. Writing the multiplication of R by juxtaposition and multiplication of R^o with the asterisk symbol, we have x * y = yx. Show that G^o is a group. Show that G is isomorphic to G^o . (Hint: Show that the function defined by $x \mapsto x^{-1}$ is an isomorphism from G to G^{o} .)

Exercise 2.1.25. Let G be a group. Prove the following:

- (1) If $x^2 = e$ for all $x \in G$, then G is abelian.
- (2) If |G| = 2n for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then there exists $x \in G$ such that $a \neq e$ and $a^2 = e$.

EXERCISE 2.1.26. As in Example 2.1.20, we assume the reader is familiar with the basic properties for multiplication of matrices. In particular, multiplication of matrices is associative and the product of a two-by-two matrix times a two-by-one column vector is defined by:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} au + bv \\ cu + dv \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let $G = GL_2(\mathbb{Z}/2)$ be the group of two-by-two invertible matrices over the field $\mathbb{Z}/2$ (see Example 2.1.20). List the elements of G and construct the group table (see Example 2.1.13). Show that G has two elements of order three and three elements of order two. Let

$$a = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, b = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, c = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and consider the set of column vectors $\{a,b,c\}$ over \mathbb{F}_2 . For every matrix α in G, show that left multiplication by the matrix α defines a permutation of the

set $\{a, b, c\}$. Comparing the group table for G with the group table given in Example 2.1.14 for S_3 , the symmetric group on 3 letters, show that $GL_2(\mathbb{Z}/2)$ is isomorphic to S_3 .

EXERCISE 2.1.27. Let K and H be groups. Define a binary operation on $K \times H$ by $(x_1, y_1)(x_2, y_2) = (x_1x_2, y_1y_2)$. Show that this makes $K \times H$ into a group with identity element (e, e), and the inverse of (x, y) is (x^{-1}, y^{-1}) . Show that $K \times H$ is abelian if and only if K and H are both abelian.

EXERCISE 2.1.28. For various values of n, each of the following matrices is an n-by-n multiplication table representing a binary operation * on the set $I_n = \{0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$. In each case, determine whether the binary operation (a) is commutative, (b) is associative, (c) has an identity element, and (d) is a group.

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2. Subgroups and cosets

2.1. First properties of subgroups.

DEFINITION 2.2.1. If G is a group and H is a nonempty subset of G that is a group under the binary operation on G, then we say H is a subgroup of G and write $H \leq G$.

Lemma 2.2.2. Let G be a group and H a nonempty subset of G. The following are equivalent.

(1) H is a subgroup of G.

- (2) For all a, b in H we have $ab \in H$ and $a^{-1} \in H$.
- (3) For all a, b in H we have $ab^{-1} \in H$.

PROOF. (2) implies (1): Let $a \in H$. Then $e = aa^{-1} \in H$. The associative law applies on G, hence on H. The other group properties are included in (2).

- (1) implies (3): Let a and b be elements of H. If H is a group, then $b^{-1} \in H$ and $ab^{-1} \in H$.
- (3) implies (2): Let a and b be elements of H. By (3) we have $aa^{-1}=e\in H$, $ea^{-1}=a^{-1}\in H$, and $a(b^{-1})^{-1}=ab\in H$.

EXAMPLE 2.2.3. Let G be a group. Then $\{e\}$ and G are both subgroups of G. We call these the *trivial subgroups of* G. A nontrivial subgroup is also called a *proper subgroup*.

PROPOSITION 2.2.4. Let G be a group and H a finite subset of G. If for all $a, b \in H$ we have $ab \in H$, then H is a subgroup of G.

PROOF. Assume $a, b \in H$ implies $ab \in H$. By Lemma 2.2.2, to show H is a subgroup it suffices to show that $a \in H$ implies $a^{-1} \in H$. Let |H| = n. Define $f: \mathbb{N}_{n+1} \to H$ be defined by $f(i) = a^i$. Since $a \in H$, we see from Definition 2.1.5 that f is well defined. The Pigeonhole Principle (Exercise 1.1.11) implies that there exists a pair $0 < i < j \le n+1$ such that $a^i = a^j$. Then j-i>0, so $e=a^{j-i}$ is in H. If j-i=1, then a=e, which implies $a^{-1}=e \in H$. If j-i>1, then $e=a^{j-i}=aa^{j-i-1}$, which implies $a^{-1}=a^{j-i-1}\in H$.

LEMMA 2.2.5. Let G be a group and $X \subseteq G$. Let $\mathcal{S} = \{H \leq G \mid X \subseteq H\}$, and let

$$\langle X \rangle = \bigcap_{H \in \mathcal{S}} H$$

be the intersection of all subgroups of G containing X. Then the following are true.

- (1) $\langle X \rangle$ is the smallest subgroup of G containing X.
- (2) $\langle X \rangle$ is the trivial subgroup $\{e\}$ if $X = \emptyset$, otherwise

$$\langle X \rangle = \{ x_1^{e_1} \cdots x_n^{e_n} \mid n \ge 1, e_i \in \mathbb{Z}, x_i \in X \}.$$

PROOF. (1): We know S is nonempty because $G \in S$. Therefore, (1) follows straight from Exercise 2.2.21.

(2): If $X = \emptyset$, then $\{e\} \in \mathcal{S}$, so $\langle X \rangle = \{e\}$. Assume $X \neq \emptyset$. By Lemma 2.2.2 (1), the set $S = \{x_1^{e_1} \cdots x_n^{e_n} \mid n \geq 1, e_i \in \mathbb{Z}, x_i \in X\}$ is a subgroup of G. Since $X \subseteq S$, we have $\langle X \rangle \subseteq S$. Let $x_1^{e_1} \cdots x_n^{e_n}$ be a typical element of S. For each $i, x_i \in X$ implies x_i is in the group $\langle X \rangle$. By Definition 2.1.5, the power $x_i^{e_i}$ is in $\langle X \rangle$. Therefore, the product $x_1^{e_1} \cdots x_n^{e_n}$ is in $\langle X \rangle$. This proves $S \subseteq X$.

DEFINITION 2.2.6. In the context of Lemma 2.2.5, the set $\langle X \rangle$ is called the subgroup of G generated by X. If $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ is a finite subset of G, then we sometimes write $\langle X \rangle$ in the form $\langle x_1, \ldots, x_n \rangle$. A subgroup $H \leq G$ is said to be finitely generated if there exists a finite subset $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \subseteq H$ such that $H = \langle x_1, \ldots, x_n \rangle$. We say H is cyclic if $H = \langle x \rangle$ for some $x \in H$.

DEFINITION 2.2.7. Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. If x and y are elements of G, then we say x is congruent to y modulo H if $x^{-1}y \in H$. In this case we write $x \equiv y \pmod{H}$.

Lemma 2.2.8. Let G be a group and H a subgroup. Then congruence modulo H is an equivalence relation on G.

PROOF. If $x \in G$, then $x^{-1}x = e \in H$, so $x \equiv x \pmod{H}$. Assume $x \equiv y \pmod{H}$. Then $x^{-1}y \in H$, which implies $y^{-1}x = (x^{-1}y)^{-1} \in H$, hence $y \equiv x \pmod{H}$. Assume $x \equiv y \pmod{H}$ and $y \equiv z \pmod{H}$. Then $x^{-1}yy^{-1}z = x^{-1}z \in H$, which implies $x \equiv z \pmod{H}$.

Lemma 2.2.9. Let G be a group, H a subgroup, and $x, y \in G$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) $x \equiv y \pmod{H}$.
- (2) y = xh for some $h \in H$.
- (3) xH = yH.

PROOF. (1) is equivalent to (2): We have $x \equiv y \pmod{H}$ if and only if $x^{-1}y \in H$ which is true if and only if $x^{-1}y = h$ for some $h \in H$ which is equivalent to y = xh for some $h \in H$.

- (3) implies (2): We have $y=ye\in yH=xH.$ Therefore, y=xh for some $h\in H.$
- (2) implies (3): Suppose y=xh, for some $h\in H$. For every $z\in H$, $yz=x(hz)\in xH$. Hence $yH\subseteq xH$. Also, $x=yh^{-1}$ implies $xz=y(h^{-1}z)\in yH$, which implies $xH\subseteq yH$.
- **2.2.** Cosets and Lagrange's Theorem. Let G be a group and H a subgroup. By Lemma 2.2.8, congruence modulo H is an equivalence relation on G. Therefore G is partitioned into equivalence classes. If $x \in G$, then by Lemma 2.2.9, the equivalence class of x is $xH = \{y \in G \mid y = xh \text{ for some } h \in H\}$. The set xH is called the left coset of x modulo x. The set of all left cosets of x modulo x is x modulo x is a sets. The index of x is the cardinality of the set x and is denoted x is denoted x in x is the cardinality of the set x is denoted x in x is the cardinality of the set x is denoted x in x is denoted x in x in x is the cardinality of the set x is denoted x in x in x in x in x is the cardinality of the set x in x in x is denoted x in x i

There is a right hand version of the above, which we will briefly describe here. We say x is right congruent to y modulo H if $yx^{-1} \in H$. This defines an equivalence relation on G. The equivalence class of x is the set Hx which is called the right coset of x modulo H. The set of all right cosets is denoted $H \setminus G$. In general, the partitions G/H and $H \setminus G$ are not equal. That is, a left coset is not necessarily a right coset (see Lemma 2.3.4). In Exercise 2.2.23 the reader is asked to show that there is a one-to-one correspondence between G/H and $H \setminus G$.

LEMMA 2.2.10. Let G be a group and $H \leq G$. Given $x,y \in G$ there is a one-to-one correspondence $\phi: xH \to yH$ defined by $\phi(z) = (yx^{-1})z$. If |H| is finite, then all left cosets of H have the same number of elements.

PROOF. For any $h \in H$, $yx^{-1}xh = yh \in yH$. We see that ϕ is a well defined function. The function $\psi(w) = xy^{-1}w$ is the inverse to ϕ .

If H is a subgroup of G, then complete set of left coset representatives for H in G is a subset $\{a_i \mid i \in I\}$ of G where we have exactly one element from each left coset. The index set I can be taken to be G/H. If $\{a_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a complete set of left coset representatives, then $G = \bigcup_{i \in I} a_i H$ is a partition of G.

THEOREM 2.2.11. If $K \leq H \leq G$, then [G:K] = [G:H][H:K]. If two of the three indices are finite, then so is the third.

PROOF. Let $\{a_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a complete set of left coset representatives for H in G and Let $\{b_j \mid j \in J\}$ be a complete set of left coset representatives for K in H. Then $G = \bigcup_{i \in I} a_i H$ is a partition of G and $H = \bigcup_{j \in J} b_j K$ is a partition of H. So

$$G = \bigcup_{i \in I} a_i H$$

$$= \bigcup_{i \in I} a_i \left(\bigcup_{j \in J} b_j K \right)$$

$$= \bigcup_{i \in I} \left(\bigcup_{j \in J} a_i b_j K \right).$$

To finish the proof, we show that $a_ib_j \mid (i,j) \in I \times J$ is a complete set of left coset representatives for K in G. It suffices to show the cosets a_ib_jK are pairwise disjoint. Assume $a_ib_jK = a_sb_tK$. Then $a_ib_j = a_sb_tk$ for some $k \in K$. Recall that b_j, b_t, k are in H. Then we have $a_i = a_sh$, for some $h \in H$. Hence $a_iH = a_sH$, which implies i = s. Canceling, we get $b_j = b_tk$, or $b_jK = b_tK$, which implies j = t. This proves [G:K] = [G:H][H:K]. The index [G:K] is infinite if and only if [G:H] is infinite or [H:K] is infinite. This proves the theorem.

COROLLARY 2.2.12. (Lagrange's Theorem) If G is a group and $H \leq G$, then |G| = [G:H]|H|.

PROOF. Apply Theorem 2.2.11 with
$$K = \langle e \rangle$$
.

2.3. A counting theorem.

Lemma 2.2.13. Let G be a group containing subgroups H and K. Then HK is a subgroup of G if and only if HK = KH.

PROOF. See Definition 2.1.5 (2) for the definition of the set HK. First assume HK = KH. To show HK is a subgroup we show that the criteria of Lemma 2.2.2 (1) are satisfied. In the following, h, h_1, h_2, h_3 denote elements of H and h_1, h_2, h_3 denote elements of H. Let h_1h_1 and h_2h_2 be arbitrary elements of HK. Since HK = KH, there exist h_3, h_3 such that $h_1h_2 = h_3h_3$. Now $(h_1h_1)(h_2h_2) = h_1(h_1h_2)h_2 = h_1(h_3h_3)h_2 = (h_1h_3)(h_3h_2)$ is an element of HK. By Exercise 2.1.23, $(hk)^{-1} = k^{-1}h^{-1}$ is is an element of KH = HK. This proves HK is a subgroup.

Conversely, suppose HK is a subgroup. Consider the function $i:G\to G$ defined by $i(x)=x^{-1}$. By Exercise 2.1.23, i^2 is the identity function. Thus i is a one-to-one correspondence. Since HK is a group, the restriction of i to HK is a one-to-one correspondence. That is, i(HK)=HK. If $hk\in HK$, then $i(hk)=(hk)^{-1}=k^{-1}h^{-1}$ is in KH, which shows $HK=i(HK)\subseteq KH$. Consider $kh\in KH$. Then $i(kh)=(kh)^{-1}=h^{-1}k^{-1}$ is in HK. Therefore, kh is the inverse of an element in the subgroup HK. By Lemma 2.2.2, $kh\in HK$, which implies $KH\subseteq HK$.

Theorem 2.2.14. Let G be a group. If H and K are finite subgroups of G, then

$$|HK| = \frac{|H||K|}{|H \cap K|}.$$

PROOF. We do not assume HK is a group. Let $C = H \cap K$. Then C is a subgroup of H. Let $\{h_1, \ldots, h_n\}$ be a full set of left coset representatives of C in H, where n = [H : C]. Then $H = \bigcup_{i=1}^n h_i C$ is a disjoint union. Since $C \subseteq K$ we have CK = K, hence

$$HK = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} h_i CK = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} h_i K.$$

The last union is a disjoint union. To see this, suppose $h_iK = h_jK$. Then $h_j^{-1}h_i \in H \cap K = C$, which implies i = j. By Lemma 2.2.10 we can now count the cardinality of HK:

$$|HK| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |K| = n|K| = [H: H \cap K]|K|.$$

By Corollary 2.2.12, we are done.

2.4. Cyclic subgroups. In the next theorem we show that the additive group \mathbb{Z} is cyclic and every subgroup is of the form $\langle n \rangle$ for some $n \geq 0$. Moreover, the equivalence relation of Definition 2.2.7 defined in terms of the subgroup $\langle n \rangle$ is equal to the equivalence relation of Definition 1.2.8 defined in terms of divisibility by n.

Theorem 2.2.15. Let \mathbb{Z} be the additive group of integers.

- (1) Every subgroup of \mathbb{Z} is cyclic. The trivial subgroups of \mathbb{Z} are: $\langle 0 \rangle$ and $\mathbb{Z} = \langle 1 \rangle$. If H is a nontrivial subgroup, then there is a unique n > 1 such that $H = \langle n \rangle = n\mathbb{Z} = \{nk \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$
- (2) If $n \ge 1$ and $H = \langle n \rangle$, then $x \equiv y \pmod{H}$ if and only if $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$. That is, the coset $x + \langle n \rangle$ in $\mathbb{Z}/\langle n \rangle$ is equal to the congruence class [x] in \mathbb{Z}/n .

PROOF. Let $H \leq \mathbb{Z}$ and assume $H \neq \langle 0 \rangle$. If $x \in H - \langle 0 \rangle$, then so is -x. By the Well Ordering Principle (Axiom 1.2.1) there is a least positive integer in H, say n. We prove that $H = n\mathbb{Z}$. Let $x \in H$. By the Division Algorithm (Proposition 1.2.3) we can write x = nq + r where $0 \leq r < n$. By Definition 2.1.5, $nq \in H$. Therefore, r = x - nq is in H. By the choice of n, this implies r = 0. Hence $x \in n\mathbb{Z}$.

Let G be a group and a an element of finite order in G. Recall (Definition 2.1.9) that the order of a, written |a|, is the least positive integer m such that $a^m = e$.

LEMMA 2.2.16. Let G be a group, $a \in G$, and assume |a| = m is finite. Then the following are true.

- $(1) |a| = |\langle a \rangle|.$
- (2) $\langle a \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{m-1}\}.$
- (3) For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a^n = e$ if and only if m divides n.
- (4) For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $|a^n| = m/\gcd(m, n)$.
- (5) Let $b \in G$. Assume |b| = n is finite, ab = ba, and $\langle a \rangle \cap \langle b \rangle = \langle e \rangle$. Then |ab| = lcm(m, n).

PROOF. (1) and (2): Let m = |a|. Then m > 0, $a^m = e$, and if m > 1, then $a^{m-1} \neq e$. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Applying Proposition 1.2.3, there exist unique integers q and r such that n = mq + r and $0 \leq r < m$. Then $a^n = (a^m)qa^r = a^r$. Therefore, $\langle a \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, \ldots, a^{m-1}\}$. It follows that $|\langle a \rangle| = m$.

(3): First assume $n = mq$. Then we have $a^{mq} = (a^m)^q = e^q = e$. Conversely
assume $a^n = e$. By Parts (1) and (2), if $n = mq + r$ and $0 \le r < m$, then $a^r = e$
which implies $r=0$.

(4) and (5): This part of the proof is Exercise 2.2.27.

COROLLARY 2.2.17. If |G| is finite, and $a \in G$, then the following are true.

- (1) |a| is finite.
- (2) |a| divides |G|.
- (3) $a^{|G|} = e$.

PROOF. (1): Proposition 2.2.4 shows that |a| is finite.

(2) and (3): These follow immediately from Lemma 2.2.16 and Corollary 2.2.12.

COROLLARY 2.2.18. Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then the following are true.

- (1) (Euler) If $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and gcd(a, m) = 1, then $a^{\phi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$.
- (2) (Fermat) If p is prime and gcd(a, p) = 1, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

PROOF. As noted in Example 2.1.3, U_n , the group of units modulo n, has order $\phi(n)$. If p is prime, then $\phi(p) = p - 1$.

COROLLARY 2.2.19. Let G be a group satisfying |G| > 1. If G has no proper subgroup, then |G| is finite, |G| is prime, and G is cyclic.

PROOF. Let $a \in G - \langle e \rangle$. Since G has no proper subgroup and $\langle e \rangle \neq \langle a \rangle$ is a subgroup of G, we have $\langle a \rangle = G$. Look at the set $S = \{e, a, a^2, \dots\}$. If there is a relation of the form $a^k = a^m$, where k < m, then |a| is finite, hence G is finite. Conversely, if G is finite, then Proposition 2.2.4 shows that there is a relation $a^k = a^m$, where k < m. Assume for contradiction's sake that G is infinite. Then $a \neq a^n$, for all n > 1. Thus, $\langle a^2 \rangle$ is a proper subgroup of G, a contradiction. We conclude that $G = \langle a \rangle = \{e, a, \dots, a^{n-1}\}$ is a finite cyclic group of order n, for some n. Assume for contradiction's sake that n = xy where $1 < x \leq y < n$. By Lemma 2.2.16 (4), $\langle a^x \rangle = \{e, a^x, a^{2x}, \dots, a^{(y-1)x}\}$ has order y, hence G has a proper subgroup, which is a contradiction. This proves n is prime.

COROLLARY 2.2.20. Let G be a group. If G has only a finite number of subgroups, then G is finite.

PROOF. Suppose G is an infinite group. We prove that G has infinitely many subgroups. Let $x_1 \in G$ and set $X_1 = \langle x_1 \rangle$. By Theorem 2.2.15, the additive group of integers \mathbb{Z} has infinitely many distinct subgroups, namely $\{\langle n \rangle \mid n \geq 0\}$. If X_1 is infinite, then the same proof shows that X_1 has infinitely many distinct subgroups, namely $\{\langle x_1^n \rangle \mid n \geq 0\}$. From now on assume every element of G has finite order. Then $G - \langle x_1 \rangle$ is infinite. Pick $x_2 \in G - \langle x_1 \rangle$. Then $\langle x_1 \rangle \neq \langle x_2 \rangle$. Assume inductively that $n \geq 1$ and x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n are in G such that $X_1 = \langle x_1 \rangle, \ldots, X_n = \langle x_n \rangle$ are $n \in G$ distinct subgroups. Then $\bigcup_{i=1}^n X_i$ is finite. Pick $x_{n+1} \in G - X_1 - X_2 - \cdots - X_n$ and set $X_{n+1} = \langle x_{n+1} \rangle$. Then by induction there exists an infinite collection $\{X_i \mid i \geq 1\}$ of distinct subgroups of G.

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2.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 2.2.21. (An intersection of subgroups is a subgroup.) Let G be a group, I a nonempty set, and $\{H_i \mid i \in I\}$ a family of subgroups of G indexed by I. Show that

$$\bigcap_{i\in I} H_i$$

is a subgroup of G.

EXERCISE 2.2.22. Let G be a group and X, Y, Z subgroups of G. Prove that if $Y \subseteq X$, then $X \cap YZ = Y(X \cap Z)$.

EXERCISE 2.2.23. Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. We denote by G/H the set of all left cosets of H in G, and by $H\backslash G$ the set of all right cosets of H in G. Show that the assignment $xH\mapsto Hx^{-1}$ defines a one-to-one correspondence between G/H and $H\backslash G$.

EXERCISE 2.2.24. Let G be a group containing finite subgroups H and K. If |H| and |K| are relatively prime, show that $H \cap K = \langle e \rangle$.

EXERCISE 2.2.25. This exercise is a continuation of Exercise 2.1.27. Let K and H be groups and $K \times H$ the product group. Show that $\{(x,e) \mid x \in K\}$ and $\{(e,y) \mid y \in H\}$ are subgroups of $K \times H$.

EXERCISE 2.2.26. Consider the symmetric group S_3 of order 6. Show that S_3 has 4 proper subgroups. Let H be the subgroup of order 2 generated by the transposition (12). Compute the three left cosets of H and the three right cosets of H.

EXERCISE 2.2.27. Prove Parts (4) and (5) of Lemma 2.2.16.

EXERCISE 2.2.28. Let p be a prime number and G a finite group of order p. Prove:

- (1) G has no proper subgroup.
- (2) There exists $a \in G$ such that $G = \langle a \rangle$.

3. Homomorphisms and normal subgroups

3.1. Definition and first properties of normal subgroups.

DEFINITION 2.3.1. A homomorphism of groups is a function $\phi: G \to G'$ from a group G to a group G' such that $\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y)$ for all $x,y \in G$. If ϕ is onto, we say ϕ is an epimorphism. If ϕ is one-to-one, we say ϕ is a monomorphism. If ϕ is one-to-one and onto, we say ϕ is an isomorphism. A homomorphism from G to G is called an endomorphism of G. An isomorphism from G to G is called an automorphism of G.

DEFINITION 2.3.2. Let $\phi: G \to G'$ be a homomorphism of groups. The *kernel* of ϕ is $\ker(\phi) = \{x \in G \mid \phi(x) = e\}$.

DEFINITION 2.3.3. Let G be a group. For every $a \in G$, let $\alpha_a : G \to G$ be defined by $\alpha_a(x) = a^{-1}xa$. If X is a nonempty subset of G, then $\alpha_a(X) = a^{-1}Xa$ is called the *conjugate of* X by a.

The next lemma lists the fundamental properties of normal subgroups. The definition follows the lemma.

Lemma 2.3.4. Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. The following are equivalent.

- (1) For each $x \in G$, $x^{-1}Hx \subseteq H$.
- (2) For each $x \in G$, $x^{-1}Hx = H$.
- (3) For each $x \in G$ there exists $y \in G$ such that xH = Hy.
- (4) For each $x \in G$, xH = Hx.
- (5) For each $x \in G$ and $y \in G$, xHyH = xyH.
- (6) There is a well defined binary operation $G/H \times G/H \to G/H$ on G/H defined by the rule $(xH, yH) \mapsto xyH$.
- (7) There is a binary operation on G/H such that the natural map $\eta: G \to G/H$ is a homomorphism of groups.
- (8) There exists a group G' and a homomorphism of groups $\theta: G \to G'$ such that $H = \ker \theta$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Let $x \in G$. First apply (1) to x, yielding $x^{-1}Hx \subseteq H$. Now conjugate by x^{-1} and apply (1) with x^{-1} to get $H = (xx^{-1})H(xx^{-1}) \subseteq xHx^{-1} \subseteq H$.

- (2) implies (3): Let $x \in G$. Apply (2) to x^{-1} to get $xHx^{-1} = H$. This implies xH = Hx.
- (3) implies (4): Given $x \in G$, there exists $y \in G$ such that xH = Hy. Since x is in xH = Hy, this implies x = hy for some $h \in H$. Therefore $y = h^{-1}x$ and $Hy = Hh^{-1}x = Hx$.
- (4) implies (5): Let $x \in G$ and $y \in G$. By (4) applied to y, yH = Hy. Therefore, xHyH = x(Hy)H = x(yH)H = xyH.
 - (5) implies (6): This is immediate.
- (6) implies (7): By (6), $(xH, yH) \mapsto xyH$ defines a binary operation on G/H. The associative law on G implies the associative law also holds on G/H. The identity element is the coset eH and $(xH)^{-1} = x^{-1}H$. Therefore G/H is a group and it is now clear that the natural map $\eta: G \to G/H$ is a homomorphism.
 - (7) implies (8): The kernel of $\eta: G \to G/H$ is $\eta^{-1}(eH) = H$.
- (8) implies (1): Let $\theta: G \to G'$ be a homomorphism of groups and assume $H = \ker \theta$. Given $x \in G$ and $h \in H$ we have $\theta(h) = e$. Hence $\theta(x^{-1}hx) = \theta(x)^{-1}\theta(h)\theta(x) = \theta(x)^{-1}\theta(x) = e$. Therefore, $x^{-1}Hx \subseteq \ker \theta = H$.

DEFINITION 2.3.5. If G is a group and H is a subgroup of G satisfying any of the equivalent conditions of Lemma 2.3.4, then we say H is a normal subgroup of G. The group G/H is called the quotient group, or factor group. If N is a normal subgroup of G, we sometimes write $N \subseteq G$.

Example 2.3.6. Let G be a group.

- (1) The trivial subgroups $\langle e \rangle$ and G are normal in G.
- (2) If G is abelian and H is a subgroup of G, then for every $x \in G$, xH = Hx, hence H is normal. The quotient group G/H is abelian because G is abelian.
- **3.2. The Isomorphism Theorems.** The Fundamental Theorem of Group Homomorphisms, Theorem 2.3.11, says that any homomorphism of groups $\theta: A \to B$ factors in a natural way into a surjection $A \to A/\ker(\theta)$ followed by an injection $A/\ker(\theta) \to B$. This provides us with a valuable tool for defining a homomorphism on a quotient group A/N. As applications, we prove the Isomorphism Theorems (Theorem 2.3.12) and the Correspondence Theorem (Theorem 2.3.13).

LEMMA 2.3.7. Let $\phi: G \to G'$ and $\phi_1: G' \to G''$ be homomorphisms of groups. Then the following are true.

- (1) The composite $\phi_1 \phi : G \to G''$ is a homomorphism of groups.
- (2) The kernel of ϕ , $\ker(\phi)$, is a normal subgroup of G.
- (3) The function ϕ is one-to-one if and only if $\ker(\phi) = \langle e \rangle$.

PROOF. (1): This follows straight from: $\phi_1\phi(xy) = \phi_1(\phi(x)\phi(y)) = \phi_1\phi(x)\phi_1\phi(y)$.

- (2): By Exercise 2.3.15, the preimage of a subgroup of G' is a subgroup of G. Therefore, $\ker(\phi) = \phi^{-1}(\langle e \rangle)$ is a subgroup of G. If $\phi(x) = e$ and $a \in G$, then $\phi(a^{-1}xa) = \phi(a)^{-1}\phi(x)\phi(a) = \phi(a)^{-1}\phi(a) = e$. Hence $\ker(\phi)$ is normal.
- (3): If ϕ is one-to-one, then $\ker(\phi) = \phi^{-1}(\langle e \rangle) = \langle e \rangle$. If $\ker(\phi) = \langle e \rangle$ and $\phi(x) = \phi(y)$, then $\phi(xy^{-1}) = \phi(x)\phi(y)^{-1} = e$, so $xy^{-1} \in \ker(\phi)$. Therefore, x = y and ϕ is one-to-one.

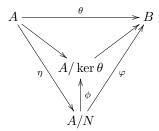
EXAMPLE 2.3.8. If $\phi: G \to G'$ is an isomorphism of groups, then we say G is isomorphic to G' and write $G \cong G'$. If $\phi_1: G' \to G''$ is another isomorphism of groups, then by Lemma 2.3.7 and Exercise 1.1.9, the composite $\phi_1\phi$ is an isomorphism. The reader should verify that isomorphism defines an equivalence relation on the set of all groups.

EXAMPLE 2.3.9. Let G be a group. The set of all automorphisms of G is denoted Aut(G). By Lemma 2.3.7 the composition of automorphisms is an automorphism. In the notation of Example 2.1.2, Aut(G) is a subgroup of Perm(G).

Example 2.3.10. Let G be a group and $a \in G$. Then conjugation by a defines the function $\alpha_a: G \to G$, where $\alpha_a(x) = a^{-1}xa$ (see Definition 2.3.3). In Exercise 2.3.39 the reader is asked to prove that α_a is an automorphism of G. We call α_a the inner automorphism of G defined by G. The set of all inner automorphisms is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}(G)$.

Theorem 2.3.11. (Fundamental Theorem of Group Homomorphisms) Let $\theta: A \to B$ be a homomorphism of groups. Let N be a normal subgroup of A contained in $\ker \theta$. There exists a homomorphism $\varphi: A/N \to B$ satisfying the following.

- (a) $\varphi(aN) = \theta(a)$, or in other words $\theta = \varphi \eta$.
- (b) φ is the unique homomorphism from $A/N \to B$ such that $\theta = \varphi \eta$.
- (c) $\operatorname{im} \theta = \operatorname{im} \varphi$.
- (d) $\ker \varphi = \eta(\ker \theta) = \ker(\theta)/N$.
- (e) φ is one-to-one if and only if $N = \ker \theta$.
- (f) φ is onto if and only if θ is onto.
- (g) There is a unique epimorphism $\phi: A/N \to A/\ker \theta$ such that the diagram



commutes.

PROOF. The map φ exists by Exercise 1.1.13. The proofs of (a) – (f) are left as an exercise for the reader. Part (g) results from an application of Parts (a) – (f) to the natural map $A \to A/\ker \theta$.

Theorem 2.3.12. (The Isomorphism Theorems) Let G be a group.

- (a) If $\theta: G \to G'$ is a homomorphism of groups, then the map $\varphi: G/\ker \theta \to \operatorname{im} \theta$ sending the coset $x \ker \theta$ to $\theta(x)$ is an isomorphism of groups.
- (b) If A and B are subgroups of G and B is normal, then natural map

$$\frac{A}{A\cap B}\to \frac{AB}{B}$$

sending the coset $x(A \cap B)$ to the coset xB is an isomorphism of groups.

(c) If A and B are normal subgroups of G and $A \subseteq B$, then B/A is a normal subgroup of G/A and the natural map

$$\frac{G/A}{B/A} \to G/B$$

sending the coset containing xA to the coset xB is an isomorphism of groups.

PROOF. (a): By Exercise 2.3.15, the image of G is a subgroup of G'. This is Parts (e) and (f) of Theorem 2.3.11.

- (b): By Exercise 2.3.18, AB is a group, B is normal in AB, and $A \cap B$ is normal in A. Let $f: A \to (AB)/B$ be the set containment map $A \to AB$ followed by the natural map $AB \to (AB)/B$. If $a \in A$ and $b \in B$, then abB = aB, hence f is onto. Let $a \in A$. Then aB = B if and only if $a \in B$. Therefore the kernel of f is $A \cap B$. Part (b) follows from Part (a) applied to the homomorphism f.
- (c): By Theorem 2.3.11 (g) applied to the natural map $G \to G/B$, there is a natural epimorphism $\phi: G/A \to G/B$ defined by $\phi(xA) = xB$. The kernel of ϕ consists of those cosets xA such that $x \in B$. That is, $\ker \phi = B/A$. Part (c) follows from Part (a) applied to the homomorphism ϕ .

Theorem 2.3.13. (The Correspondence Theorem) Let G be a group and A a normal subgroup of G. There is a one-to-one order-preserving correspondence between the subgroups B such that $A \subseteq B \subseteq G$ and the subgroups of G/A given by $B \mapsto B/A$. Moreover, B is a normal subgroup of G if and only if B/A is a normal subgroup of G/A.

PROOF. Let $\eta: G \to G/A$ be the natural homomorphism. By Exercise 2.3.15, if B is a subgroup of G, then $\eta(B)$ is a subgroup of G/A, and if H is a subgroup of G/A, then $\eta^{-1}(H)$ is a subgroup of G containing A. If $B_1 \subseteq B_2$, then $\eta(B_1) \subseteq \eta(B_2)$. Likewise, if $H_1 \subseteq H_2$, then $\eta^{-1}(H_1) \subseteq \eta^{-1}(H_2)$. Since η is onto, $\eta\eta^{-1}(H) = H$. By Exercise 2.3.15, if B is a subgroup of G containing A, then $B = \eta^{-1}\eta(B)$. This proves the first claim.

For the last claim, let B be a subgroup of G containing A. If B is normal, then by Theorem 2.3.12(c), $\eta(B)$ is normal in G/A. Conversely assume $\eta(B)$ is normal in G/A. Then B is equal to the kernel of the composite map $G \to G/A \to (G/A)/\eta(B)$, hence is normal in G.

EXAMPLE 2.3.14. Let $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ be the additive abelian group of real numbers and $(\mathbb{R}_{>0}, \cdot)$ the multiplicative abelian group of positive real numbers. Define ϕ : $(\mathbb{R}, +) \to (\mathbb{R}_{>0}, \cdot)$ by $\phi(x) = e^x$. Then $\phi(x + y) = e^{x+y} = e^x e^y = \phi(x)\phi(y)$, so ϕ is a homomorphism. Define ψ : $(\mathbb{R}_{>0}, \cdot) \to (\mathbb{R}, +)$ by $\psi(x) = \ln x$. Then

 $\psi(xy) = \ln xy = \ln x + \ln y = \psi(x) + \psi(y)$, so ψ is a homomorphism. Since ϕ and ψ are inverses of each other, they are isomorphisms. Hence $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ and $(\mathbb{R}_{>0}, \cdot)$ are isomorphic groups.

3.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 2.3.15. Let $f: G \to G'$ be a homomorphism of groups. Prove:

- (1) f(e) = e.
- (2) $f(x^{-1}) = f(x)^{-1}$.
- (3) If $H \leq G$, then $f(H) \leq G'$. If there is a containment relation $H_1 \subseteq H_2$, then $f(H_1) \subseteq f(H_2)$.
- (4) If $H' \leq G'$, then $f^{-1}(H') \leq G$ and $\ker f \leq f^{-1}(H')$. If there is a containment relation $H'_1 \subseteq H'_2$, then $f^{-1}(H'_1) \subseteq f^{-1}(H'_2)$.
- (5) If $H \leq G$ and $\ker f \subseteq H$, then $f^{-1}f(H) = H$.
- (6) If G is abelian, then im(f) is abelian.

EXERCISE 2.3.16. Let G, + be an additive abelian group. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $x \in G$. If n > 0, then $nx = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x = x + \dots + x$ is the sum of n copies of x. If n < 0, then $nx = |n|(-x) = \sum_{i=1}^{|n|} (-x)$, and 0x = 0.

- (1) Show that "left multiplication by n" defines a function $\lambda_n : G \to G$ by the rule $\lambda_n(x) = nx$. Show that λ_n is an endomorphism of G.
- (2) Show that the kernel of λ_n is $G(n) = \{x \in G \mid |x| \mid n\}$, hence G(n) is a subgroup of G.
- (3) Show that the image of λ_n is $nG = \{nx \mid x \in G\}$, hence nG is a subgroup of G.

When the group operation is written multiplicatively, the counterpart of λ_n is the "n-th power map" which is denoted $\pi^n: G \to G$ and is defined by $\pi^n(x) = x^n$. In this case, $\operatorname{im}(\pi^n)$ is denoted G^n .

EXERCISE 2.3.17. Let G be a group and H a subgroup. Prove that if [G:H]=2, then H is a normal subgroup.

EXERCISE 2.3.18. Let G be a group containing subgroups H, K, and N. Prove the following:

- (1) If N is a normal subgroup of G, then NK is a subgroup of G. Moreover, K is a subgroup of NK, and N is a normal subgroup of NK.
- (2) If N is normal, then $N \cap H$ is a normal subgroup of H.
- (3) If H and K are both normal, then HK is a normal subgroup of G.

EXERCISE 2.3.19. Let G be a group. For every $a \in G$, let $\alpha_a : G \to G$ be defined by $\alpha_a(x) = a^{-1}xa$. In the terminology of Definition 2.3.3, $\alpha_a(x)$ is the conjugate of x by a. Prove that α_a is an automorphism of G.

EXERCISE 2.3.20. (The conjugate of a subgroup is a subgroup.) Let G be a group, S a nonempty subset of G, and $a \in G$. The *conjugate of* S by a is defined to be $S^a = a^{-1}Sa$. Prove that S is a subgroup of G if and only if S^a is a subgroup of G.

EXERCISE 2.3.21. Let $S^1=\{z\in\mathbb{C}\mid |z|=1\}$. Then $S^1=\{e^{2\pi i\theta}\mid 0\leq \theta<1\}$ is the unit circle in the complex plane (see Section 1.5).

(1) Show that multiplication in \mathbb{C} makes S^1 into a group.

- (2) Let $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ denote the additive group on \mathbb{R} . Show that the function $f: (\mathbb{R}, +) \to S^1$ defined by $f(\theta) = e^{2\pi i \theta}$ is an epimomorphism. Compute the kernel of f. Show that f induces an isomorphism $\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \cong S^1$.
- (3) If $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then the *n*-th power map $z \mapsto z^n$ is an endomorphism of S^1 (see Exercise 2.3.16). Let μ_n denote the kernel of the *n*-th power map. Show that $\mu_n = \{e^{2\pi i k/n} \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is the set of all *n*-th roots of unity in \mathbb{C} .
- (4) Show that the function $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \to \mu_n$ defined by $\phi(k) = e^{2\pi i k/n}$ is an epimorphism. Compute the kernel of ϕ . Show that ϕ induces an isomorphism $\mathbb{Z}/n \cong \mu_n$.
- (5) Let $\mu = \bigcup_{n \geq 1} \mu_n$. Show that μ is a group. Define $h : \mathbb{Q} \to \mu$ by $h(r) = e^{2\pi i r}$. Show that h is an epimorphism. Compute the kernel of h. Show that h induces an isomorphism $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \cong \mu$.

EXERCISE 2.3.22. Let G be a finite group of order n = [G : e]. Let p be a prime number such that $p \mid n$ and $p^2 > n$. Assume G contains a subgroup H of order p. (This always true, by Cauchy's Theorem, Theorem 2.7.3.) Prove:

- (1) H is the unique subgroup of G of order p.
- (2) H is a normal subgroup of G.

EXERCISE 2.3.23. A group G is said to be *simple* if the only normal subgroups of G are $\langle e \rangle$ and G. Prove that a group G is simple if and only if for every nontrivial homomorphism of groups $f: G \to G'$, f is a monomorphism.

EXERCISE 2.3.24. This exercise is a continuation of Exercise 2.2.25. Let K and H be groups and $K \times H$ the product group. Define four functions

- (1) $\iota_1: K \to K \times H, \ \iota_1(x) = (x, e)$
- (2) $\iota_2: H \to K \times H, \ \iota_2(y) = (e, y)$
- (3) $\pi_1: K \times H \to K, \, \pi_1(x,y) = x$
- (4) $\pi_2: K \times H \to H, \, \pi_2(x,y) = y$

Show that ι_1 and ι_2 are monomorphisms. Show that π_1 and π_2 are epimorphisms. Show that im $\iota_1 = \ker \pi_1 = K \times \{e\}$ and im $\iota_2 = \ker \pi_2 = \{e\} \times H$.

3.4. More on Cyclic groups. A cyclic group $A = \langle a \rangle$ is generated by a single element. Theorem 2.3.25 shows that if A is infinite, then A is isomorphic to the additive group \mathbb{Z} . In this case A has two generators, namely a, and a^{-1} . If A is finite of order n, then A is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}/n and A has $\phi(n)$ generators, namely $\{a^i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n-1, \gcd(i,n)=1\}$. Lemma 2.3.26 shows that any homomorphism $A \to G$ of groups defined on A is completely determined by the image of a generator. Necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of a homomorphism $A \to G$ are derived. In Theorem 2.3.27 we show that the group of all automorphisms of a cyclic group of order n is isomorphic to the group of units modulo n. The group of automorphisms of an infinite cyclic group is a group of order two. As an application of these theorems on cyclic groups, we exhibit the classic proof by mathematical induction that a finite abelian group of order n contains an element of order p if p is a prime divisor of n (Theorem 2.3.28).

Theorem 2.3.25. (Fundamental Theorem on Cyclic Groups) Let $A = \langle a \rangle$ be a cyclic group. Then the following are true.

- (1) A is abelian.
- (2) Every subgroup of A is cyclic.

- (3) Every homomorphic image of A is cyclic.
- (4) There is a unique $n \geq 0$ such that A is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/\langle n \rangle$.
- (5) If n = 0, then
 - (a) A is infinite and
 - (b) A is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} .
- (6) If n > 0, then
 - (a) A isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}/n , hence A is finite of order n,
 - (b) if H is a subgroup of A, then |H| divides n,
 - (c) for every positive divisor d of n, A has a unique subgroup of order d, namely $\langle a^{n/d} \rangle$,
 - (d) if d is a positive divisor of n, then A has $\phi(d)$ elements of order d, where ϕ is the Euler function.

PROOF. (4): Let $\theta: \mathbb{Z} \to A$ be the function defined by $\theta(i) = a^i$. Since A is generated by a, θ is onto, by Lemma 2.2.5. Since $\theta(i+j) = a^{i+j} = a^i a^j = \theta(i)\theta(j)$, θ is an epimorphism. By Theorem 2.2.15 there is a unique $n \geq 0$ such that $\ker(\theta) = \langle n \rangle$. By Theorem 2.3.12 (1), θ induces an isomorphism $\bar{\theta}: \mathbb{Z}/\langle n \rangle \to A$.

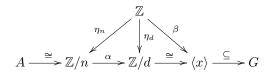
- (1): This follows from (4) and Exercise 2.3.15(6).
- (2) and (3) and (5): These follow from (4) and Theorems 2.2.15 and 2.3.13.
- (6): Assume n > 0 and d is a positive divisor of n. By Lemma 2.2.16, $|a^{n/d}| = d$. Thus, $\langle a^{n/d} \rangle$, is a subgroup of order d. Now suppose $|a^x| = d$. By Lemma 2.2.16, $\gcd(x,n) = n/d$. By Bézout's Identity, Lemma 1.2.5, we can write n/d = xu + nv, for some $u,v \in \mathbb{Z}$. Since $a^{n/d} = (a^x)^u(a^n)^v = (a^x)^u$ we see that $\langle a^{n/d} \rangle \subseteq |a^x| = d$. Both groups have order d, hence they are equal. By Lemma 2.2.16, the number of elements of order n in n is equal to the cardinality of the set n is elements of order n in n is equal to n in n is equal to n in n in n in n is equal to n in n i

LEMMA 2.3.26. Let $A = \langle a \rangle$ be a cyclic group and G any group.

- (1) Let $\phi: A \to G$ be a homomorphism of groups. Then ϕ is completely determined by the value $\phi(a)$.
- (2) Let $x \in G$.
 - (a) If the order of A is infinite, then there is a homomorphism $\theta: A \to G$ defined by $\theta(a) = x$.
 - (b) If A has finite order |A| = n, then there is a homomorphism $\theta : A \to G$ defined by $\theta(a) = x$ if and only if x has finite order |x| = d and $d \mid n$.

PROOF. (1): We have $\phi(a^i) = \phi(a)^i$.

(2): Part (a) was proved in the proof of Part (4) of Theorem 2.3.25. We prove Part (b). Assume A is finite and |A|=n. If there is a homomorphism $\theta:A\to G$, then by Exercise 2.3.40 the order of $\theta(a)$ is a divisor of n. Conversely, assume $|x|=d<\infty$ and $d\mid n$. By Theorem 2.3.25 there is an isomorphism $A\cong \mathbb{Z}/n$ defined by $a^i\mapsto [i]$ and a commutative diagram



where $\beta(1) = x$, η_n and η_d are the natural maps, and α exists by Exercise 1.2.19. The homomorphism θ is the composition of the four homomorphisms in the bottom row.

Theorem 2.3.27. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be a positive integer. The group of automorphisms of the cyclic group of order n is isomorphic to the group of units modulo n. That is,

$$\operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/n) \cong U_n$$

which is a group of order $\phi(n)$. The group of automorphisms of the infinite cyclic group \mathbb{Z} is isomorphic to the group of order two. That is,

$$\operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}) \cong \{1, -1\}.$$

PROOF. We utilize Theorem 2.3.25, Lemma 2.3.26, and Exercise 2.3.16. Let $A = \langle a \rangle$. Given $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, the rth power map on A is denoted $\pi^r : A \to A$ and is defined by $\pi^r(a) = a^r$. If $\alpha : A \to A$ is an endomorphism of A, then $\alpha(a) = a^s$ for some integer s. Since

(3.1)
$$\alpha(a^t) = \alpha(a)^t = (a^s)^t = a^{st}$$

we see that $\alpha = \pi^s$. That is, every endomorphism of A is π^r for some $r \in \mathbb{Z}$. This also shows $\pi^s \pi^t = \pi^{st}$. The image of π^r is the subgroup $\langle a^r \rangle$.

Case 1: Assume A is finite of order n. Then $a^r = a^s$ if and only if $r \equiv s \pmod{n}$. This proves there are n distinct endomorphisms of A, namely $\{\pi^0, \pi^1, \dots, \pi^{n-1}\}$. The generators of A are $\{a^r \mid \gcd(r,n)=1\}$, which is a set of order $\phi(n)$. Since π^r is one-to-one and onto if and only if a^r is a generator of A, this proves that there are $\phi(n)$ automorphisms of A, namely $\{\pi^r \mid 1 \leq r \leq n-1, \gcd(r,n)=1\}$. By Example 2.1.3, the group of units modulo n is an abelian group of order $\phi(n)$. Define $\theta : \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/n) \to U_n$ by $\theta(\pi^r) = r$. Then we have shown that θ is an isomorphism of groups.

Case 2: Assume A is infinite. Then $a^r = a^s$ if and only if r = s. By Theorem 2.2.15, the two generators of A are $\{a, a^{-1}\}$. Therefore, the two automorphisms of A are π^1 and π^{-1} .

In general, if G is a finite group and p is a prime divisor of |G|, then G has an element of order p. This is known as Cauchy's Theorem and we will eventually present two proofs in Corollary 2.4.14 and Theorem 2.7.3. As an application of Theorem 2.3.25, an abelian version of Cauchy's Theorem is stated and proved in Theorem 2.3.28 below. The proof is by induction on the order of G. The induction step uses Lagrange's Theorem (Corollary 2.2.12) and the fact that if N is a subgroup of G, then G/N is an abelian group (Example 2.3.6). The key step in the induction argument is that an element of order p in the quotient group G/N "lifts" to an element in G whose order is a multiple of p.

Theorem 2.3.28. (Cauchy's Theorem for Abelian Groups) Let G be a finite abelian group and p a prime number. If p divides |G|, then G contains an element of order p.

PROOF. The proof is by induction on the order of G. Let n = |G|. Since p divides n, we know n > 1. If p = |G|, then by Exercise 2.2.28, there exists $a \in G$ such that $G = \langle a \rangle$, hence |a| = p. Inductively assume n is composite and that the result holds for all abelian groups of order less than n. By Corollary 2.2.19, we know G has a proper subgroup, call it N. If p divides |N|, then by our induction

hypothesis, N has an element of order p. Therefore, assume p does not divide |N|. Since G is abelian, by Example 2.3.6, N is a normal subgroup and G/N is abelian. By Corollary 2.2.12, p divides |N|[G:N]. Since p does not divide |N|, we have p divides [G:N]. By our induction hypothesis, G/N has an element of order p. Suppose $b \in G$ and bN has order p in G/N. Since G is finite, b has finite order. By Exercise 2.3.40, p divides the order of b. By Theorem 2.3.25, $\langle b \rangle$ contains an element of order p.

EXAMPLE 2.3.29. In this example we show that up to isomorphism there are exactly two groups of order six. By Example 2.1.3 that $\mathbb{Z}/6$ is an abelian group of order six. We know from Example 2.1.14 that the symmetric group on 3 letters, S_3 , is a nonabelian group of order 6. Let G be a group of order six. Let $a \in G$ and set $A = \langle a \rangle$. By Corollary 2.2.17, $|a| \in \{1, 2, 3, 6\}$. If G has an element of order 6, then by Theorem 2.3.25, G is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/6$. Assume from now on that G has no element of order 6. For contradiction's sake, suppose G has no element of order 3. Then every element of G satisfies $x^2 = e$. By Exercise 2.1.25, G is abelian and there exists $a \in G$ such that |a| = 2. Then $A = \langle a \rangle$ is normal and G/A has order three. By Exercise 2.3.40, if the generator of G/A is bA, then b has order 3 or 6, a contradiction. We have shown that G has an element aof order 3. If $A = \langle a \rangle$, then by Exercise 2.3.22, A is the unique subgroup of order 3. Then G-A consists of elements of order 2. Let $b \in G-A$. The coset decomposition of G is $A \cup bA = \{e, a, a^2\} \cup \{b, ba, ba^2\}$. Since [G : A] = 2, by Exercise 2.3.17 A is normal. Since A is normal, bA = Ab, by Lemma 2.3.4. Therefore, $ab \in \{b, ab, a^2b\}$. We know $ab \neq b$ since $a \neq e$. If ba = ab, then by Lemma 2.2.16, |ab| = 6, a contradiction. Therefore, $ab = a^2b$. We have proved that $G = \{e, a, a^2, b, ab, a^2b\}$ where $a^3 = b^2 = e$ and $ab = a^2b$. The reader should verify that the assignments $a \mapsto (123)$, $a^2 \mapsto (132)$, $b \mapsto (12)$, $ab \mapsto (13)$, and $a^2b \mapsto (23)$ defines an isomorphism $G \cong S_3$.

3.5. The center of a group. The center of a group is defined and as an exercise the reader is asked to prove that the center is a normal subgroup. As examples, we compute the center of the quaternion 8-group, the dihedral groups, the symmetric groups, and the general linear group of 2-by-2 matrices over a field.

DEFINITION 2.3.30. Let G be a group. The center of G, denoted Z(G), is defined to be $\{x \in G \mid xa = ax \text{ for all } a \in G\}$. In Exercise 2.3.38 the reader is asked to prove that Z(G) is a normal subgroup of G.

EXAMPLE 2.3.31. Let Q_8 be the quaternion 8-group of Example 2.1.18. In Exercise 2.4.19 the reader is asked to prove that the center of Q_8 is the unique subgroup of order two.

EXAMPLE 2.3.32. Let $n \geq 3$ and let D_n be the dihedral group of Example 2.1.16. Then D_n is the group of symmetries of a regular n-gon. If H is the horizontal flip and R the rotation, then $D_n = \{H^i R^j \mid 0 \leq i \leq 1, 0 \leq j < n\}$ is a nonabelian group of order 2n. The relations $H^2 = R^n = e$ and $HRH = R^{-1}$ hold. Hence the conjugate of R by H is R^{-1} . We show that if n = 2k is even, then $Z(D_n)$ is the subgroup of order two generated by R^k . Conjugation by H is an automorphism, so if 0 < i < n, then $HR^i H = R^{-i}$. We see that R^i is in $Z(D_n)$ if and only if $R^i = R^{-i}$, which is true if and only if i = 0 or n = 2k is even and i = k.

It follows that the center of $D_n = \langle e \rangle$ if n is odd. In summary, we have shown that

$$Z(D_n) = \begin{cases} \langle R^{n/2} \rangle & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ \langle e \rangle & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

EXAMPLE 2.3.33. Let $n \geq 3$ and let S_n be the symmetric group on n letters (see Example 2.1.14). We show that $Z(S_n) = \langle e \rangle$. Let $\pi \in S_n$ and assume $\pi \neq e$. First assume $\pi(a) = b$ and $\pi(b) = c$, where a, b, c are distinct. Let τ be the 2-cycle (ab). Then $\pi\tau(a) = \pi(b) = c$ and $\tau\pi(a) = \tau(b) = a$, which shows π is not central. Now suppose $\pi(a) = b$ and $\pi(b) = a$. Let σ be the 2-cycle (bc), where a, b, c are distinct. Then $\pi\sigma(a) = \pi(a) = b$ and $\sigma\pi(a) = \sigma(b) = c$, which shows π is not central. If $\pi \neq e$, then π falls into one of these two cases. This shows $Z(S_n) = \langle e \rangle$.

EXAMPLE 2.3.34. As in Example 2.1.20, let F be a field and $GL_2(F)$ the general linear group of invertible 2-by-2 matrices over F. Then

$$\operatorname{GL}_2(F) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \mid ad - bc \neq 0 \right\}.$$

To compute the center, assume $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ is a central matrix. Then

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d & c \\ b & a \end{pmatrix}$$

shows that a = d and b = c. Now

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a-b & 0 \\ b & a+b \end{pmatrix}$$

shows that b=0. Therefore, a central matrix is diagonal. It is routine to show that a diagonal matrix $\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix}$ is central. This computation shows that $Z(\operatorname{GL}_2(F))$ is equal to $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} \mid a \in F^* \right\}$. If we define $\delta: F^* \to \operatorname{GL}_2(F)$ to be the diagonal map, $\delta(x) = \begin{pmatrix} x & 0 \\ 0 & x \end{pmatrix}$, then δ is a monomorphism and $\operatorname{im}(\delta) = Z(\operatorname{GL}_2(F))$. The quotient, $\operatorname{GL}_2(F)/F^*$, is denoted $\operatorname{PGL}_2(F)$ and is called the *projective general linear group of 2-by-2 matrices over F*.

EXAMPLE 2.3.35. Let F be a field. Let $\det: \operatorname{GL}_2(F) \to F^*$ be the determinant function, where $\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = ad - bc$. In Example 2.1.20 we showed that \det is an epimorphism on multiplicative groups. The kernel, $\ker(\det)$, which is the set of all matrices with determinant equal to 1, is denoted $\operatorname{SL}_2(F)$ and is called the special linear group of 2-by-2 matrices over F. By Theorem 2.3.12 (a) there is an isomorphism of groups

$$\operatorname{GL}_2(F)/\operatorname{SL}_2(F) \cong F^*$$
.

See Exercise 2.5.15 for a computation of $SL_2(\mathbb{Z}/3)$.

EXAMPLE 2.3.36. As in Example 2.1.14, the group of permutations of the set $\{1,2,3\}$ is

$$S_3 = \{e, (123), (132), (12), (13), (23)\}\$$

and is called the symmetric group on 3 elements. The group S_3 is isomorphic to D_3 , the group of symmetries of an equilateral triangle (see Example 2.1.15). Also, S_3 is isomorphic to $GL_2(\mathbb{Z}/2)$, the group of invertible 2-by-2 matrices over the field of order 2 (see Exercise 2.1.26x). The group table for S_3 is listed in Example 2.1.14. The cyclic subgroups of S_3 are:

$$\langle e \rangle = \{e\}$$

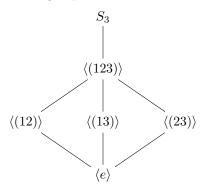
$$\langle (123) \rangle = \langle (132) \rangle = \{e, (123), (132)\}$$

$$\langle (12) \rangle = \{e, (12)\}$$

$$\langle (13) \rangle = \{e, (13)\}$$

$$\langle (23) \rangle = \{e, (23)\}$$

Since S_3 is a subgroup of itself, there are exactly 6 subgroups. The center of S_3 is the trivial subgroup $\langle e \rangle$, by Example 2.3.33. The commutator subgroup (see Exercise 2.3.42) of S_3 is the cyclic subgroup $\langle (123) \rangle$, by Exercise 2.3.43. There is one subgroup of order 6, one subgroup of order 3, three subgroups of order 2, and one subgroup of order 1. The three elements of order 2 are not central, hence the subgroups of order 2 are not normal. The commutator subgroup and the trivial subgroups are normal. The subgroup lattice of S_3 is



Example 2.3.37. In Example 2.1.16 we defined the dihedral group D_n as the group of symmetries of a regular n-gon. For instance, if n = 4, the dihedral group

$$D_4 = \{e, (1234), (13)(24), (1432), (13), (24), (12)(34), (14)(23)\}\$$

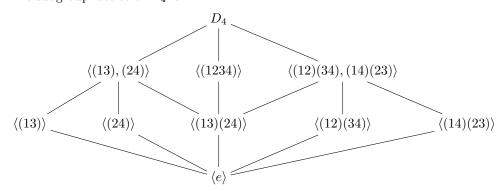
is a group of order 8 and is the group of symmetries of a square. In this example we use cycle notation, so R = (1234) represents a rotatation of the square through an angle of 90 degrees. The horizontal flip that fixes vertex 1 is H = (24). The multiplicative powers of each element of D_4 are given in the rows of the following table. The order of the element is listed in the last column.

x	x^2	x^3	x^4	x
e				1
(1234)	(13)(24)	(1432)	e	4
(13)(24)	e			2
(1432)	(13)(24)	(1234)	e	4
(13)	e			2
(24)	e			2
(12)(34)	e			2
(14)(23)	e			2

There are 2 elements of order 4, 5 elements of order 2, and 1 element of order 1. Each element of order 2 generates a cyclic subgroup of order 2. The elements of order 4 are inverses of each other and generate the only cyclic subgroup of order 4 in D_4 . There are two more subgroups of order 4 that are not cyclic:

$$\langle (13), (24) \rangle = \{e, (13), (13)(24), (24)\}$$
$$\langle (12)(34), (14)(23) \rangle = \{e, (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)\}.$$

The trivial subgroups $\langle e \rangle$ and D_4 are normal. The three subgroups of order 4 are normal, by Exercise 2.3.17. The center of D_4 is the cyclic subgroup $\langle (13)(24) \rangle$ by Example 2.3.32, and is normal, by Exercise 2.3.38. The commutator subgroup of D_4 is the cyclic subgroup $\langle (13)(24) \rangle$, by Exercise 2.3.43. The only subgroups of D_4 that are not normal are the four cyclic subgroups of order 2 that are not central. The subgroup lattice of D_4 is



where a line indicates set containment.

3.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 2.3.38. Let G be a group. The center of G is the set $Z(G) = \{x \in G \mid xy = yx \text{ for every } y \in G\}$. Prove the following:

- (1) Z(G) is an abelian group.
- (2) Z(G) is a normal subgroup of G.
- (3) If H and K are groups, then $Z(H \times K) = Z(H) \times Z(K)$.
- (4) If G/Z(G) is a cyclic group, then G is abelian.

EXERCISE 2.3.39. Let G be a group and $\operatorname{Aut}(G)$ the group of all automorphisms of G. As in Exercise 2.3.19, for every $a \in G$, let $\alpha_a : G \to G$ be defined by $\alpha_a(x) = a^{-1}xa$. Define $\theta : G \to \operatorname{Aut}(G)$ by $\theta(a) = \alpha_{a^{-1}}$. Show that θ is a homomorphism of groups. The image of θ is called the group of inner automorphisms of G. Show that $\operatorname{ker}(\theta)$ is equal to Z(G), the center of G (see Exercise 2.3.38). Conclude that the group of inner automorphisms of G is isomorphic to G/Z(G).

EXERCISE 2.3.40. Let $\theta: G \to G'$ be a homomorphism of groups and $x \in G$ an element of finite order. Show that $|\theta(x)|$ divides |x|.

EXERCISE 2.3.41. Let n be a positive integer. Prove that $\sum_{d|n} \phi(d) = n$. See Definition 1.2.15 for the notation $\sum_{d|n}$. (Hint: Apply Theorem 2.3.25.)

EXERCISE 2.3.42. Let G be a group. The commutator subgroup of G is the subgroup of G generated by the set $\{xyx^{-1}y^{-1} \mid x,y\in G\}$ and is denoted G'. Prove:

- (1) G' is a normal subgroup of G.
- (2) G/G' is abelian.
- (3) If N is a normal subgroup of G such that G/N is abelian, then $G' \subseteq N$.
- (4) If H is a subgroup of G and $G' \subseteq H$, then H is normal in G.

EXERCISE 2.3.43. Let $G = D_n$ be the dihedral group of order 2n. Compute the commutator subgroup G' (see Exercise 2.3.42). (Hint: If $\sigma = (123 \cdots n)$, show that G' is the cyclic group generated by σ^2 .)

Exercise 2.3.44. Let

$$\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 4 & 6 & 1 & 5 & 3 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \tau = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 5 & 2 & 4 & 3 & 6 & 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

be permutations in S_7 . Compute $\tau \sigma \tau^{-1}$. Write σ , τ , $\tau \sigma \tau^{-1}$ using cycle notation. Show that σ factors into a 4-cycle times a 3-cycle. Show that $\tau \sigma \tau^{-1}$ factors into a 4-cycle times a 3-cycle. This is a special case of Lemma 2.6.6.

EXERCISE 2.3.45. Let G be a group and $X \subseteq G$. Let S be the set of all normal subgroups H in G such that $X \subseteq H$. Prove that $N = \bigcap_{H \in S} H$ is a subgroup of G satisfying:

- (1) N is a the smallest normal subgroup of G containing X.
- (2) N is equal to the subgroup of G generated by the set $\bigcup_{g \in G} gXg^{-1}$. We call N the normal subgroup of G generated by X.

EXERCISE 2.3.46. Let F be a field and $G = GL_2(F)$ the general linear group of 2-by-2 matrices over F (see Example 2.1.20). Show that the commutator subgroup G' (see Exercise 2.3.42) is a subgroup of the special linear group $SL_2(F)$ (see Example 2.3.35). For a continuation of this example, see Exercise 2.3.50.

EXERCISE 2.3.47. Let $GL_2(F)$ be the general linear group of invertible 2-by-2 matrices over the field F and det : $GL_2(F) \to F^*$ the determinant function (see Example 2.1.20). Consider the following sets consisting of upper triangular matrices in $GL_2(F)$:

$$U = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \in M_2(F) \mid ad \neq 0 \right\},$$
$$D = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in M_2(F) \mid b \in F \right\}.$$

- (1) Show that U is a subgroup of $GL_2(F)$.
- (2) Show that det : $U \to F^*$ is an epimorphism of groups and describe the kernel as a set of matrices.
- (3) Show that D is isomorphic to (F, +), the additive group of the field F.
- (4) Show that D is a normal subgroup of U and $U/D \cong F^* \times F^*$.
- (5) Show that D is equal to the commutator subgroup of U (see Exercise 2.3.42). For a continuation of this example, see Exercise 2.3.48.

EXERCISE 2.3.48. As in Exercise 2.3.47, let F be a field, $\mathrm{GL}_2(F)$ the general linear group of 2-by-2 matrices over F, and U the subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}_2(F)$ consisting of all upper triangular invertible matrices.

(1) Define $\theta: U \to F^*$ by $\theta \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} = d$. Show that θ is a group epimorphism. Let $T = \ker \theta$. Describe T as a set of matrices.

(2) Show that

$$W = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in M_2(F) \mid a \in F^* \right\}$$

is a subgroup of U. Assume $F \neq \mathbb{Z}/2$. In other words, assume F contains at least three elements. Show:

- (a) W is not a normal subgroup of U.
- (b) The normal subgroup of U generated by W (for this terminology, see Exercise 2.3.45) is the group T of Part (1).

For a continuation of this example, see Exercise 2.5.21.

EXERCISE 2.3.49. Let \mathbb{C}^* be the group of all nonzero complex numbers under multiplication and $S^1 = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| = 1\}$ the subgroup of all complex numbers of absolute value 1 (see Exercise 2.3.21). Show that the quotient group \mathbb{C}^*/S^1 is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{R}_{>0},\cdot)$, the multiplicative abelian group of positive real numbers.

EXERCISE 2.3.50. This exercise is a continuation of Exercise 2.3.46. Let F be a field and assume $F \neq \mathbb{Z}/2$. In other words, assume F is a field that has at least three elements. Show that the commutator subgroup of $GL_2(F)$, the general linear group of 2-by-2 matrices over F, is equal to $SL_2(F)$, the special linear group. (Although the proof is relatively long and tedious, it is elementary and involves only material already covered in this book.)

EXERCISE 2.3.51. Let Q_8 be the quaternion 8-group of Example 2.1.18 and D_4 the dihedral group of Example 2.1.16. Let C_4 be a cyclic group of order 4. For each of the following statements, either exhibit an example to substantiate the claim, or prove that the claim is false.

- (1) There exists a monomorphism of groups $C_4 \to Q_8$.
- (2) There exists an epimorphism of groups $Q_8 \to C_4$.
- (3) There exists a monomorphism of groups $C_4 \to D_4$.
- (4) There exists an epimorphism of groups $D_4 \to C_4$.

4. Group actions

4.1. Group actions, orbits and stabilizers.

Lemma 2.4.1. Let G be a group and S a nonempty set. The following are equivalent.

- (1) There is a homomorphism of groups $\theta: G \to \text{Perm}(S)$.
- (2) There is a function $G \times S \to S$, where the image of the ordered pair (g, x) is denoted g * x, and the properties
 - (a) (associative law) $(g_1g_2)*x = g_1*(g_2*x)$ for all $g_1, g_2 \in G$, $x \in S$ and
 - (b) $(e \in G \text{ acts as the identity function}) e * x = x, \text{ for all } x \in S \text{ are satisfied.}$

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Instead of $\theta(g)(x)$ we will write g * x. The assignment $(g,x) \mapsto g * x$ defines a function $G \times S \to S$. Then $(g_1g_2) * x = \theta(g_1g_2)(x) = \theta(g_1)(\theta(g_2)(x)) = g_1 * (g_2 * x)$ and $e * x = \theta(e)(x) = 1_S(x) = x$.

(2) implies (1): For each $g \in G$, define $\lambda_g : S \to S$ to be the "left multiplication by g" function defined by $\lambda_g(x) = g * x$. Since $g * g^{-1} = g^{-1} * g = e$, λ_g is a

permutation of S. Define $\theta: G \to \operatorname{Perm}(S)$ by $\theta(g) = \lambda_g$. The associative law implies $\theta(g_1g_2) = \theta(g_1)\theta(g_2)$, so θ is a homomorphism.

In light of Lemma 2.4.1 we make the following definition.

DEFINITION 2.4.2. Let G be a group and S a nonempty set. We say G acts on S as a group of permutations, if there is a homomorphism of groups $\theta: G \to \operatorname{Perm}(S)$. If $g \in G$ and $x \in S$, instead of $\theta(g)(x)$ we usually write g * x. If θ is one-to-one, then the group action is said to be faithful.

EXAMPLE 2.4.3. Let G be a group. As in Example 2.1.7, if $a \in G$, then $\lambda_a : G \to G$ is the "left multiplication by a" function and λ_a is a permutation of the set G. Since $\lambda_{ab} = \lambda_a \lambda_b$, the assignment $a \mapsto \lambda_a$ defines a homomorphism of groups $\lambda : G \to \operatorname{Perm}(G)$. Proposition 2.1.6 shows that λ is one-to-one.

Theorem 2.4.4. (Cayley's Theorem) A finite group of order n is isomorphic to a subgroup of the symmetric group S_n .

PROOF. Let $G = \{g_1, \ldots, g_n\}$ be a fixed enumeration of the elements of G. Then we can identify Perm(G) with the symmetric group S_n . By Example 2.4.3, G is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_n .

EXAMPLE 2.4.5. Let G be a group and H a subgroup. If xH = yH, then axH = ayH because $(ax)^{-1}ay = x^{-1}y \in H$. So $a \in G$ and $xH \in G/H$, then a*xH = (ax)H defines an action by G on the set G/H by left multiplication. The reader should verify that the criteria of Lemma 2.4.1 (2) are satisfied.

LEMMA 2.4.6. Let H and K be groups. The following are equivalent.

- (1) There is a homomorphism of groups $\theta: K \to \operatorname{Aut}(H)$.
- (2) There is a function $K \times H \to H$, where the image of the ordered pair (k,x) is denoted k*x, and the properties
 - (a) (associative law) $(k_1k_2) * x = k_1 * (k_2 * x)$ for all $k_1, k_2 \in k$, $x \in H$ and
 - (b) $(e \in K \text{ acts as the identity function}) \ e * x = x, \text{ for all } x \in H$
 - (c) (distributive law) k * (xy) = (k * x)(k * y) for all $k \in K$, $x, y \in H$. are satisfied.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): We identify $\operatorname{Aut}(H)$ with a subgroup of $\operatorname{Perm}(H)$. Then by Lemma 2.4.1, K acts on H as a group of permutations. The action by K on H is defined by $k*x = \theta(k)(x)$ and properties (a) and (b) are satisfied. The distributive law follows from the fact that $\theta(k)$ is a homomorphism if $k \in K$.

(2) implies (1): By Lemma 2.4.1, $K \to \text{Perm}(H)$ is a homomorphism of groups, where $k \mapsto \lambda_k$. For $k \in K$, λ_k is a permutation of H. The distributive law implies λ_k is a homomorphism.

In light of Lemma 2.4.6 we make the following definition.

DEFINITION 2.4.7. Let H and K be groups. We say K acts on H as a group of automorphisms, if there is a homomorphism of groups $\theta: K \to \operatorname{Aut}(H)$.

Example 2.4.8. Let G be a group. If $g \in G$, then α_g is the inner automorphism of G defined by conjugation by g. That is, $\alpha_g(x) = g^{-1}xg$. By Exercise 2.3.39, there is a homomorphism of groups $G \to \operatorname{Aut}(G)$ defined by $a \mapsto \alpha_{a^{-1}}$. More generally, if N is a normal subgroup of G, and $g \in G$, then α_g restricts to an automorphism

of N. Therefore there is a homomorphism $G \to \operatorname{Aut}(N)$ defined by $a \mapsto \alpha_{a^{-1}}$. See Exercise 2.4.16 for a continuation of this example.

DEFINITION 2.4.9. Let G be a group acting as a group of permutations of a nonempty set X. Define a relation \sim on X by the rule $x \sim y$ if y = g * x for some $g \in G$. Then x = e * x implies $x \sim x$, and if y = g * x, then $x = g^{-1} * y$. Moreover, if $y = g_1 * x$ and $z = g_2 * y$, then $z = g_2 g_1 * x$. This proves that \sim is an equivalence relation on X. The equivalence class of x is called the *orbit of* x. The orbit of x is equal to $G * x = \{g * x \mid g \in G\}$. The set of orbits is denoted X/G. If $x \in X$, then the stabilizer of x in $x \in X$ is sometimes called the subgroup fixing $x \in X$. If $x \in X$ is a subgroup of $x \in X$, therefore, $x \in X$ is sometimes called the subgroup fixing $x \in X$. If $x \in X$ is the set of all $x \in X$ is fixed by $x \in X$. The set $x \in X$ is $x \in X$ is the set of all $x \in X$ in $x \in X$ that are fixed by $x \in X$.

THEOREM 2.4.10. Let G be a group acting on a nonempty set X. If $x \in X$, then G_x , the stabilizer of x in G satisfies the following properties.

- (1) G_x is a subgroup of G.
- (2) The length of the orbit G * x is equal to the index $[G : G_x]$.

PROOF. (1): Since $e \in G_x$, we have $G_x \neq \emptyset$. If $a, b \in G_x$, then ab * x = a * (b * x) = a * x = x, hence $ab \in G_x$. If a * x = x, then $x = a^{-1} * x$. This proves G_x is a subgroup of G.

(2): We show that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of left cosets of G_x in G and the set G*x. Define a function $f:G\to G*x$ by f(g)=g*x. Then f is onto. Define a relation on G by the rule: $g\approx h$ if and only if f(g)=f(h). By Exercise 1.1.14, \approx is an equivalence relation. Notice that $g\approx h$ if and only if $g^{-1}h\in G_x$, which is equivalent to $g\equiv h\pmod{G_x}$. Therefore, $\bar{f}:G/G_x\to G*x$ is a one-to-one correspondence.

4.2. Conjugates and the Class Equation.

EXAMPLE 2.4.11. Let G be a group and $X=2^G$ the power set of G. If S is a subset of G, and $a \in G$, then $a*S=aSa^{-1}$ defines an action by G on X. The associative law is $ab*S=abS(ab)^{-1}=a(bSb^{-1})a^{-1}=a*(b*S)$. The stabilizer of S in G is usually called the normalizer of S in G and is denoted $N_G(S)=\{a\in G\mid aSa^{-1}=S\}$. The orbit of S under this action is the set $\{a^{-1}Sa\mid a\in G\}$ of all distinct conjugates of S by elements of G.

PROPOSITION 2.4.12. Let G be a group and S a subset of G. The normalizer of S in G satisfies the following properties.

- (1) $N_G(S)$ is a subgroup of G.
- (2) If H is a subgroup of G, then $N_G(H)$ is the largest subgroup of G containing H as a normal subgroup.
- (3) The number of distinct conjugates of S by elements in G is $[G:N_G(S)]$.

PROOF. (1) and (3): These follow from Theorem 2.4.10.

(2): Since H is a subgroup, $a^{-1}Ha = H$ for all $a \in H$. Therefore, $H \subseteq N_G(H)$. If $x \in N_G(H)$, then $x^{-1}Hx = H$. Therefore, H is normal in $N_G(H)$. Suppose $H \leq K \leq G$ and H is a normal subgroup of K. For all $x \in K$, $x^{-1}Hx = H$, hence $K \subseteq N_G(H)$.

Let G be a group acting on itself by conjugation. If $x \in G$, the orbit of x is $C_x = \{a^{-1}xa \mid a \in G\}$ and is called the *conjugacy class of* x. The number of

conjugates of x is the length of the orbit C_x . By Theorem 2.4.10, $|C_x| = [G: N_G(x)]$. If x is in Z(G), the center of G, then $N_G(x) = G$ and $C_x = \{x\}$. Since |G| is finite, there are a finite number of conjugacy classes. If x_1, \ldots, x_n is a full set of representatives for the conjugacy classes that are not in Z(G), then $G = Z(G) \cup (G - Z(G)) = Z(G) \cup (\bigcup_{i=1}^n C_{x_i})$ is a disjoint union. Taking cardinalities of both sides of this equation yields the next corollary.

COROLLARY 2.4.13. (The Class Equation) Let G be a finite group and x_1, \ldots, x_n a full set of representatives for the conjugacy classes that are not in Z(G). Then

$$|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i=1}^{n} [G : N_G(x_i)].$$

As an application of Corollary 2.4.13, we prove Cauchy's Theorem. Recall that we already proved Theorem 2.3.28, which is the abelian version of this result. A second more concise proof of Cauchy's Theorem is given below in Theorem 2.7.3.

COROLLARY 2.4.14. (Cauchy's Theorem) Let G be a finite group of order n and p a prime divisor of n. Then G contains an element of order p.

PROOF. The proof is by induction on n. If G is abelian, then G has an element of order p, by Theorem 2.3.28. Inductively assume $n \geq 6$, G is nonabelian, and that the result holds for any group of order less than n. Let x_1, \ldots, x_m be a full set of representatives for the conjugacy classes that are not in Z(G). By our induction hypothesis, $m \geq 1$. Solving the Class Equation of Corollary 2.4.13 for |Z(G)|, we have

(4.1)
$$|Z(G)| = |G| - \sum_{i=1}^{m} [G: N_G(x_i)].$$

For each x_i , $N_G(x_i)$ is a proper subgroup of G. If p divides $|N_G(x_i)|$ for some i, then by our induction hypothesis, there is an element of order p in $N_G(x_i)$. Therefore, assume for every i that p does not divide $|N_G(x_i)|$. By Corollary 2.2.12, $|G| = |N_G(x_i)|[G:N_G(x_i)]$. Since p divides |G| and p does not divide $|N_G(x_i)|$, we have p divides $[G:N_G(x_i)]$, for every i. Therefore, p divides the right hand side of (4.1). Hence p divides |Z(G)|. By Theorem 2.3.28, we know that Z(G) has an element of order p.

4.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 2.4.15. Let H and K be groups. Recall (Definition 2.4.7) that we say K acts as a group of automorphisms of H if there is a homomorphism of groups $\theta: K \to \operatorname{Aut}(H)$. In this case, write k*x instead of $\theta(k)(x)$. Prove the following:

- (1) k * e = e for all $k \in K$.
- (2) $(k*x)^{-1} = k*x^{-1}$ for all $k \in K$, $x \in H$.

EXERCISE 2.4.16. Let G be a group containing a normal subgroup N. Let K be an arbitrary subgroup of G. Generalize Example 2.4.8 by showing that K acts on N as a group of automorphisms. Specifically, show that if $k \in K$ and $x \in N$, then $k * x = kxk^{-1}$ defines an action by K on N as a group of automorphisms.

EXERCISE 2.4.17. (Semidirect product) As in Definition 2.4.7, let H and K be groups and assume K acts on H as a group of automorphisms. Define a binary operation on $H \times K$ by the rule:

$$(x_1, k_1)(x_2, k_2) = (x_1(k_1 * x_2), k_1k_2).$$

- (1) Show that the binary operation defined above makes $H \times K$ into a group where the identity element is (e,e) and the inverse of (x,k) is $(k^{-1} * x^{-1},k^{-1})$. This group is denoted $H \rtimes K$ and is called the *semidirect* product of H and K.
- (2) Show that $N = \{(x, e) \mid x \in H\}$ is a normal subgroup of $H \rtimes K$ and the quotient $(H \rtimes K)/N$ is isomorphic to K. Show that H is isomorphic to N.
- (3) Show that $C = \{(e, k) \mid k \in K\}$ is a subgroup of $H \rtimes K$ and K is isomorphic to C.

Exercise 2.4.18. Let G be a group containing subgroups N and K satisfying:

- (1) G = NK,
- (2) N is normal in G, and
- (3) $N \cap K = \langle e \rangle$.

As in Exercise 2.4.16, let K act on N by conjugation. Prove that the semidirect product $N \rtimes K$ (see Exercise 2.4.17) is isomorphic to G.

EXERCISE 2.4.19. Let $Q_8 = \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$ be the quaternion 8-group of Example 2.1.18. Show that every subgroup of Q_8 is normal. Let Z denote the center of Q_8 . Show that Z is a group of order two and is contained in every nontrivial subgroup of Q_8 . Show that Q_8 is not a semidirect product of two subgroups.

EXERCISE 2.4.20. Let $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ be positive integers. Show that there are gcd(m, n) distinct homomorphisms from \mathbb{Z}/m to \mathbb{Z}/n . See Exercises 3.1.18 and 2.8.12 for a continuation of this exercise.

EXERCISE 2.4.21. If $n \geq 3$, show that the dihedral group D_n is isomorphic to the semidirect product of a cyclic subgroup of order n and a cyclic subgroup of order two.

EXERCISE 2.4.22. Let p be an odd prime. Let G be a group of order 2p. Show that G has a unique subgroup of order p. Denote by P the subgroup of G of order p. Show that G is isomorphic to the semidirect product of P and a cyclic subgroup of order two that acts on P by conjugation. Show that G is isomorphic to either the cyclic group $\mathbb{Z}/2p$ or the dihedral group D_p .

EXERCISE 2.4.23. Show how to construct a nonabelian group of order $9 \cdot 37$ that contains a cyclic subgroup of order 9 and a cyclic subgroup of order 37.

EXERCISE 2.4.24. Let G be a group acting on a set X (see Definition 2.4.2). Let $G_0 = \{g \in G \mid g*x = x \text{ for all } x \in X\}$. Show that G_0 is a normal subgroup of G.

EXERCISE 2.4.25. Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. As in Example 2.4.5, G acts on G/H by left multiplications. By Lemma 2.4.1, there is a a homomorphism of groups $\theta: G \to \operatorname{Perm}(G/H)$. As in Exercise 2.4.24, denote the kernel of θ by G_0 . Show that G_0 is a normal subgroup of G contained in H.

EXERCISE 2.4.26. Let p be a prime and G be a group of order p^2 . Apply Exercise 2.4.25 to show that every subgroup of G is normal. If G has order p^r , r > 1, show that every subgroup of order p^{r-1} is normal in G.

EXERCISE 2.4.27. Let p and q be primes such that $q \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Show how to construct a nonabelian group of order pq.

EXERCISE 2.4.28. Let $Q_8 = \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$ be the quaternion 8-group. Show that $Q_8 = \{1\} \cup \{-1\} \cup \{\pm i\} \cup \{\pm j\} \cup \{\pm k\}$ is the decomposition of Q_8 into conjugacy classes.

EXERCISE 2.4.29. The group of symmetries of a square is

$$D_4 = \{e, (1234), (13)(24), (1432), (12)(34), (14)(23), (13), (24)\}.$$

Show that $D_4 = \{e\} \cup \{(13)(24)\} \cup \{(1234), (1432)\} \cup \{(24), (13)\} \cup \{(12)(34), (14)(23)\}$ is the decomposition of D_4 into conjugacy classes.

EXERCISE 2.4.30. The group of symmetries of a regular pentagon is

$$D_5 = \{e, (12345), (13524), (14253), (15432), (25)(34), (15)(24), (13)(45), (12)(35), (14)(23)\}.$$

Show that

$$D_5 = \{e\} \cup \{(12345), (15432)\} \cup \{(13524), (14253)\}$$
$$\cup \{(25)(34), (15)(24), (13)(45), (12)(35), (14)(23)\}$$

is the decomposition of D_5 into conjugacy classes.

EXERCISE 2.4.31. Show how to construct two nonisomorphic nonabelian groups of order 40 each of which is a semidirect product of two cyclic groups.

EXERCISE 2.4.32. Let G be a finite group and H a subgroup of G. Suppose the only normal subgroup of G contained in H is $\langle e \rangle$. Show that G is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_n , where n = [G:H].

EXERCISE 2.4.33. For the following choices of p and q, show how to construct a nonabelian group of order pq which is a semidirect product of two cyclic groups.

- (1) p = 5, q = 11.
- (2) p = 7, q = 29.

EXERCISE 2.4.34. Let p be a prime number and n an integer such that 0 < n < p. If G is a finite group of order pn and P is a subgroup of order p, then P is normal. (Hint: Exercise 2.4.25.)

5. Direct products

5.1. External direct product.

DEFINITION 2.5.1. Let I be an index set and $\{G_i \mid i \in I \text{ a family of multiplicative groups indexed by } I$. Although the groups G_i in general are not equal as sets and have no common elements, we abuse notation and use the same symbol e to denote the identity element of each group G_i . The cartesian product is $\prod_{i \in I} G_i = \{f : I \to \bigcup_{i \in I} \mid f(i) \in G_i\}$. The cartesian product is a group if the binary operation is defined to be coordinate-wise multiplication: (fg)(i) = f(i)g(i). The identity element is the constant function e(i) = e and the inverse of f is defined by $f^{-1}(i) = (f(i))^{-1}$, the coordinate-wise inverse. The associative law holds for the product because it holds coordinate-wise. The group $\prod_{i \in I} G_i$ is called the direct product. Sometimes $\prod_{i \in I} G_i$ is called the external direct product to distinguish it

from the construction in Definition 2.5.3 below. For every $k \in I$ there is a canonical injection map $\iota_k : G_k \to \prod_{i \in I} G_i$ which maps $x \in G_k$ to $\iota_k(x)$, where

$$\iota_k(x)(i) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } i = k \\ e & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The canonical projection map is $\pi_k : \prod_{i \in I} G_i \to G_k$ where $\pi_k(f) = f(k)$. The reader should verify that ι_k is a monomorphism, π_k is an epimorphism, and $\pi_k \iota_k = 1_{G_k}$.

When $I = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ is a finite set, the direct product is identified with the set of n-tuples $\{(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \mid x_i \in G_i\}$ and it is written $G_1 \times \cdots \times G_n$ or $\prod_{i=1}^n G_i$. Multiplication is defined coordinate-wise, hence $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)(y_1, \ldots, y_n) = (x_1y_1, \ldots, x_ny_n)$. The identity element is (e, \ldots, e) , and $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)^{-1}$ is $(x_1^{-1}, \ldots, x_n^{-1})$.

Theorem 2.5.2. (Chinese Remainder Theorem) Let m and n be positive integers and let

$$\psi: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/m \times \mathbb{Z}/n$$

be defined by $\psi(x) = (\eta_m(x), \eta_n(x))$, where $\eta_m : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/m$ and $\eta_n : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/n$ are the natural maps. Then the following are true:

- (1) $\ker(\psi) = \langle M \rangle$, where $M = \operatorname{lcm}(m, n)$.
- (2) ψ is onto if and only if gcd(m, n) = 1.
- (3) $\mathbb{Z}/m \times \mathbb{Z}/n$ is cyclic if and only if gcd(m, n) = 1.

PROOF. (1): Since η_m and η_n are homomorphisms, it is routine to verify that ψ is a homomorphism. By Theorem 2.2.15, the kernel of η_m is $m\mathbb{Z}$ and the kernel of η_n is $n\mathbb{Z}$. We see that $\ker(\psi) = \ker(\eta_m) \cap \ker(\eta_n)$ is equal to $\{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid m \mid x \text{ and } n \mid x\}$. By Theorem 2.2.15, $\ker(\psi)$ is generated by $M = \operatorname{lcm}(m, n)$.

- (2): Let $d = \gcd(m, m)$. By Proposition 1.2.10, Md = mn. By Theorem 2.3.12, $\operatorname{im}(\psi)$ is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}/M , which has order M. We see that ψ is onto if and only if M = mn, which is true if and only if d = 1.
- (3): If d=1, then the direct product $\mathbb{Z}/m \times \mathbb{Z}/n$ is cyclic by (2). Assume d>1. To show the direct product is not cyclic, we show that it contains more than $\phi(d)$ elements of order d and apply Theorem 2.3.25 (6). Let $A=\{x\in\mathbb{Z}/m\mid |x|=d\}$. Then $|A|=\phi(d)$. If $x\in A$, then by an application of Lemma 2.2.16 (5) we see that (x,0) has order d in the direct product. Likewise, if $B=\{y\in\mathbb{Z}/n\mid |y|=d\}$, then $|B|=\phi(d)$ and (0,y) has order d, for each $y\in B$. Therefore, the direct product contains at least $2\phi(d)$ elements of order d. This proves (3).

For a generalization of Theorem 2.5.2, see Exercise 4.2.27.

5.2. Internal direct product.

DEFINITION 2.5.3. Let G be a group and N_1, N_2, \ldots, N_m a collection of subgroups of G satisfying:

- (1) N_i is a normal subgroup of G for each i,
- (2) $G = N_1 N_2 \cdots N_m$, and
- (3) if $x_i \in N_i$ for each i and $e = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m$, then $x_i = e$ for each i.

Then we say G is the internal direct product of N_1, \ldots, N_m .

LEMMA 2.5.4. Suppose G is the internal direct product of N_1, N_2, \ldots, N_m . Then the following are true.

- (1) If $i \neq j$, then $N_i \cap N_j = \langle e \rangle$.
- (2) If $i \neq j$, $x_i \in N_i$, $x_j \in N_j$, then $x_i x_j = x_j x_i$.
- (3) For each i let $x_i, y_i \in N_i$. If $x = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m$, and $y = y_1 y_2 \cdots y_m$, then (a) $xy = (x_1 y_1)(x_2 y_2) \cdots (x_m y_m)$, and (b) $x^{-1} = x_1^{-1} x_2^{-1} \cdots x_m^{-1}$.
- (4) If $x \in G$, then x has a unique representation as a product $x = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m$, where $x_i \in N_i$ for each i.
- (5) G is isomorphic to the (external) direct product $N_1 \times N_2 \times \cdots \times N_m$.

PROOF. (1): Let $x \in N_i \cap N_j$. Assume $1 \leq i < j \leq m$. In the product $N_1 \cdots N_i \cdots N_j \cdots N_m$ we have

$$e = e \cdots x \cdots x^{-1} \cdots e$$

where the *i*-th factor is x, the *j*-th factor is x^{-1} , and all other factors are the group identity e. By the uniqueness property of Definition 2.5.3, x = e.

- (2): Because N_i and N_j are normal in G, we have $x_i y_j x_i^{-1} x_j^{-1}$ is in $N_i \cap N_j = \langle e \rangle$.
 - (3): The two identities follow immediately from Part (2).
- (4): Assume $x = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m$, where $x_i \in N_i$ for each i. Assume $x = y_1 y_2 \cdots y_m$, where $y_i \in N_i$ for each i is another such representation. Using Part (3), we get

$$e = xx^{-1} = (x_1y_1^{-1})\cdots(x_my_m^{-1}).$$

By the uniqueness property of Definition 2.5.3, $x_i = y_i$ for each i.

(5): Let $\psi: N_1 \times N_2 \times \cdots \times N_m \to G$ be the function defined by multiplication in the group $G: \psi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m) = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m$. By Part (3), ψ is a homomorphism. By Definition 2.5.3, ψ is a one-to-one correspondence.

PROPOSITION 2.5.5. Let G be a group and N_1, \ldots, N_m a collection of normal subgroups. Then the following are equivalent.

- (1) G is the internal direct product of N_1, \ldots, N_m .
- (2) The function $\phi: N_1 \times \cdots \times N_m \to G$ defined by $\phi(x_1, \dots, x_m) = x_1 \cdots x_m$ is an isomorphism of groups.
- (3) $G = N_1 \cdots N_m$ and for each k, the intersection $N_k \cap (N_1 \cdots N_{k-1} N_{k+1} \cdots N_m)$ is the trivial subgroup $\langle e \rangle$.
- (4) $G = N_1 \cdots N_m$, and $N_1 \cap N_2 \cdots N_m = N_2 \cap N_3 \cdots N_m = \cdots = N_{m-1} \cap N_m = \langle e \rangle$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): This is Lemma 2.5.4(5).

- (2) implies (3): Since ϕ is onto we have $G=N_1\cdots N_m$. Let x be an arbitrary element of $N_k\cap (N_1\cdots N_{k-1}N_{k+1}\cdots N_m)$. We can write x in two ways: $x=x_k\in N_k$, and $x=x_1\cdots x_{k-1}x_{k+1}\cdots x_m\in N_1\cdots N_{k-1}N_{k+1}\cdots N_m$. Therefore $x=\phi(e,\ldots,e,x_k,e,\ldots,e)=\phi(x_1,\ldots,x_{k-1},e,x_{k+1},\ldots,x_m)$. Since ϕ is one-to-one, $x=x_k=e$.
- (3) implies (4): For each $k=1,\ldots,m-1$ we have: $N_{k+1}\cdots N_m\subseteq N_1\cdots N_{k-1}N_{k+1}\cdots N_m$. Therefore, $N_k\cap (N_{k+1}\cdots N_m)\subseteq N_k\cap (N_1\cdots N_{k-1}N_{k+1}\cdots N_m)=\langle e\rangle$.
- (4) implies (1): Let $e = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m$ be a representation of e in $N_1 N_2 \cdots N_m$. Then $x_1^{-1} = x_2 \cdots x_m$ is in $N_1 \cap N_2 \cdots N_m = \langle e \rangle$. Therefore, $x_1 = e$ and $x_2 \cdots x_m = e$. Inductively, assume 1 < k < m and $x_k \cdots x_m = e$. Then $x_k^{-1} = x_{k+1} \cdots x_m$ is in $N_k \cap N_{k+1} \cdots N_m = \langle e \rangle$. Therefore, $x_k = e$ and $x_{k+1} \cdots x_m = e$. By induction, we are done.

5.3. Free Groups. Let X be a set, which will be called the *alphabet*. A word on the alphabet X is a finite string of the form

$$w = a_1^{\epsilon_1} a_2^{\epsilon_2} \cdots a_n^{\epsilon_n}$$

where $n \geq 0$, each a_i is an element of X and $\epsilon_i \in \{-1, 1\}$. The *length* of the string is n. The only string of length 0 is called the *empty string* and is denoted e. A string is *reduced* if it contains no substrings of the form xx^{-1} or $x^{-1}x$, for $x \in X$. Every word can be reduced in a unique way by recursively striking out all of the substrings of the form xx^{-1} or $x^{-1}x$.

LEMMA 2.5.6. Let $v = a_1^{\epsilon_1} a_2^{\epsilon_2} \cdots a_n^{\epsilon_n}$ and $w = b_1^{\phi_1} b_2^{\phi_2} \cdots b_p^{\phi_p}$ be reduced words on the alphabet X. There exist factorizations of v and w into substrings $v = v_1 v_2$, $w = w_1 w_2$ such that $v_2 w_1$ reduces to the empty word e and the reduction of vw is equal to $v_1 w_2$. The factors v_1 , v_2 , w_1 , w_2 are unique.

PROOF. If v has length n=0, then take $v_1=v_2=w_1=e$ and $w_2=w$. In this case, $vw=v_1w_2$ and we are done. Inductively assume n>0 and that the result holds for any reduced word of length n-1. If $a_n^\epsilon \neq b_1^{-\phi_1}$, then vw is reduced. In this case, take $v=v_1,v_2=w_1=e$, and $w_2=w$. Otherwise, delete a_n^ϵ from the end of v and $b_1^{-\phi_1}$ from the front of w, and apply the induction hypothesis to obtain factorizations:

$$a_1^{\epsilon_1} a_2^{\epsilon_2} \cdots a_{n-1}^{\epsilon_{n-1}} = v_1 v_3$$

$$b_2^{\phi_2} \cdots b_n^{\phi_p} = w_3 w_2$$

Setting $v_2 = v_3 a_n^{\epsilon}$ and $w_1 = b_1^{\phi_1} w_3$, we have $v_2 w_1 = v_3 a_n^{\epsilon} b_1^{\phi_1} w_3$ reduces to $v_3 w_3$ which reduces to the empty word e. Also, the reduction of vw is equal to the reduction of $v_1 v_3 w_3 w_2$ which is equal to $v_1 w_2$. This proves the existence of the factorization. The uniqueness of v_3 and v_3 implies the uniqueness of v_2 and v_3 . \square

LEMMA 2.5.7. Let F(X) be the set of all reduced words on X. Then F(X) is a group, where the product of two words is the word defined by juxtaposition followed by reduction. The identity element for the group F(X) is the empty string e. The inverse of the string $a_1^{\epsilon_1}a_2^{\epsilon_2}\cdots a_n^{\epsilon_n}$ is the string $a_n^{-\epsilon_n}\cdots a_2^{-\epsilon_2}a_1^{-\epsilon_1}$. We call F(X) the free group on the set X. There is a natural injection $\iota:X\to F(X)$ defined by $\iota(x)=x$.

PROOF. By Lemma 2.5.6, if v and w are reduced words in F(X), then the reduction of the word vw is uniquely defined. Since this binary operation does not depend on grouping by parentheses, it is associative. The rest is left to the reader.

Theorem 2.5.8. (Universal Mapping Property) Let X be a set and $\iota: X \to F(X)$ the natural injection map. For any group G and any function $j: X \to G$, there is a unique homomorphism $f: F(X) \to G$ such that the diagram



commutes.

PROOF. Let $v = a_1^{\epsilon_1} a_2^{\epsilon_2} \cdots a_n^{\epsilon_n}$ be a reduced word in F(X). Then we define f(v) to be $j(a_1)^{\epsilon_1} j(a_2)^{\epsilon_2} \cdots j(a_n)^{\epsilon_n}$. Then f is a well defined function and $f\iota = j$. To see that f is a homomorphism of groups, let $w = b_1^{\phi_1} b_2^{\phi_2} \cdots b_p^{\phi_p}$ be another reduced word on the alphabet X. As in Lemma 2.5.6, factor $v = v_1 v_2$, $w = w_1 w_2$ such that the reduction of vw is equal to $v_1 w_2$. Since $f(v) = f(v_1 v_2) = f(v_1) f(v_2)$, $f(w) = f(w_1 w_2) = f(w_1) f(w_2)$, and $f(v_2) f(w_1) = e$, it follows that

$$f(vw) = f(v_1w_2) = f(v_1)f(w_2) = f(v_1)f(v_2)f(w_1)f(w_2) = f(v)f(w).$$

To prove the uniqueness claim, assume $g: F(X) \to G$ is another homomorphism and $g\iota = j$. Then f(x) = g(x) for every $x \in X$. Since X is a generating set for the group F(X), f is equal to g.

COROLLARY 2.5.9. Every group G is the homomorphic image of a free group.

PROOF. In Theorem 2.5.8, take X=G and $j:G\to G$ the identity map. Since j is onto, f is onto. \square

DEFINITION 2.5.10. Let X be a set and Y a subset of F(X). As in Exercise 2.3.45, let N be the normal subgroup of F(X) generated by Y. Consider the quotient group G = F(X)/N. We say G is defined by the generators X subject to the relations Y. We denote the group G = F(X)/N by $\langle X \mid Y \rangle$.

EXAMPLE 2.5.11. In the notation of Theorem 2.3.25, let $A = \langle a \rangle$ be a cyclic group. If A is infinite, then a presentation of A in terms of generators and relations is $A = \langle a \mid \emptyset \rangle$. If A has order n > 0, then a presentation of A in terms of generators and relations is $A = \langle a \mid a^n \rangle$. It is common for the relations to be written as equations. Then $A = \langle a \mid a^n = e \rangle$.

EXAMPLE 2.5.12. Let n > 2 and D_n the dihedral group of order 2n of Example 2.1.16. Then D_n is generated by two elements, R and H. The order of R is n and the order of H is 2. The so-called commutator identity is $HRH = R^{-1}$. Therefore,

$$D_n = \langle R, H \mid H^2 = e, R^n = e, HRH = R^{-1} \rangle$$

is a presentation of D_n in terms of generators and relations.

Example 2.5.13. Let V be the Klein 4-group of Example 2.1.21. Then V is an abelian group of order 4, generated by two elements of order two. Hence,

$$V = \langle a, b \mid a^2 = b^2 = e, ab = ba \rangle$$

is a presentation in terms of generators and relations.

EXAMPLE 2.5.14. Let $Q_8 = \{1, -1, i, -i, j, -j, k, -k\}$ be the quaternion eight group of Example 2.1.16. The multiplication rules are: $(-1)^2 = 1$, $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$, ij = -ji = k. So we see that Q_8 is generated by i and j. Both i and j have order 4 and $-1 = i^2 = j^2$. The commutator relation for i and j is $ij = -ji = j^3i$. If we write a and b instead of i and j, then a presentation in terms of generators and relations is

$$Q_8 = \langle a, b \mid a^4 = e, b^4 = e, a^2 = b^2, ab = b^3 a \rangle.$$

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5.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 2.5.15. The general linear group of 2-by-2 matrices over the field $\mathbb{Z}/3$, denoted $\mathrm{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/3)$, is the multiplicative group of invertible matrices $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ with entries in the field $\mathbb{Z}/3$ (see Example 2.1.20). Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, and $Q = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ be matrices with entries in $\mathbb{Z}/3$. For the following computations, access to a computer algebra system such as [61] is not required, but will be beneficial, especially for parts (6) and (7).

- (1) Show that A, B, C, P, and Q are in $GL_2(\mathbb{Z}/3)$.
- (2) Compute the cyclic subgroups $\langle A \rangle$, $\langle B \rangle$, $\langle C \rangle$, $\langle P \rangle$, $\langle Q \rangle$.
- (3) Show that P is in the normalizer of $\langle A \rangle$. Show that P and A generate a subgroup of order 16.
- (4) Show that P is in the normalizer of $\langle B \rangle$. Show that P and B generate a subgroup of order 16.
- (5) Show that Q is in the normalizer of $\langle C \rangle$. Show that Q and C generate a subgroup of order 16.
- (6) If $G = GL_2(\mathbb{Z}/3)$, show that G has order 48. Show that G has 3 subgroups of order 16. Show that G has 4 subgroups of order 3.
- (7) The special linear group of 2-by-2 matrices over $\mathbb{Z}/3$, denoted $\mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/3)$, is the subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/3)$ consisting of those matrices with determinate equal to 1. Let $S = \mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/3)$. Show that S has order 24. Show that S has 3 subgroups of order 8. Show that every subgroup of order 8 is isomorphic to the quaternion 8-group, $Q_8 = \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$. Show that S has 4 subgroups of order 3.

EXERCISE 2.5.16. Give an example of a group G and subgroups N_1, N_2, \ldots, N_m of G satisfying:

- (1) N_i is a normal subgroup of G for each i,
- (2) $G = N_1 N_2 \cdots N_m$, and
- (3) if $i \neq j$, then $N_i \cap N_j = \langle e \rangle$,

such that G is not the internal direct product of N_1, N_2, \ldots, N_m .

EXERCISE 2.5.17. Let G be a finite abelian group. Assume G is the internal direct product of cyclic subgroups $A = \langle a \rangle$ and $B = \langle b \rangle$ where a and b both have order 6.

- (1) Show that |G| = 36.
- (2) Show that $C = \langle ab^2 \rangle$ has order 6.
- (3) Compute |AC|.
- (4) Show that |AC| is the internal direct product of A and $\langle b^2 \rangle$.

EXERCISE 2.5.18. Let A and B be normal subgroups of G such that G = AB. Prove that $G/(A \cap B)$ is isomorphic to $G/A \times G/B$.

EXERCISE 2.5.19. Let G be a group containing subgroups A and B such that

- (1) G = AB,
- (2) xy = yx for every $x \in A$ and $y \in B$, and
- (3) $A \cap B = \langle e \rangle$.

Show that G is the internal direct product of A and B.

EXERCISE 2.5.20. Let A and B be groups. Let A_0 be a normal subgroup of A and B_0 a normal subgroup of B. Show that there is an isomorphism of groups

$$\frac{A \times B}{A_0 \times B_0} \cong \frac{A}{A_0} \times \frac{B}{B_0}.$$

EXERCISE 2.5.21. This is a continuation of Exercise 2.3.48. Let F be a field and

 $U = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \in M_2(F) \mid ad \neq 0 \right\}$

the set of all upper triangular matrices in $\operatorname{GL}_2(F)$. Let T be the kernel of the homomorphism $U \to F^*$ defined by $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \mapsto d$. As in Example 2.3.34, let $\delta: F^* \to \operatorname{GL}_2(F)$ be the diagonal map. Let $Z = \operatorname{im} \delta$. Show that U is the internal direct product of T and Z.

6. Permutation Groups

The group of all permutations of $\mathbb{N}_n = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$ is called the symmetric group on n letters and is denoted S_n (see Example 2.1.14).

6.1. The cycle decomposition of a permutation. Let $\alpha = (a_1, \ldots, a_s)$ be an s-cycle and $\beta = (b_1, \ldots, b_t)$ a t-cycle. We say α and β are disjoint if $\{a_1, \ldots, a_s\} \cap \{b_1, \ldots, b_t\} = \emptyset$. If this is the case, then $\beta(a_i) = a_i$ for each i, and $\alpha(b_j) = b_j$ for each j. Therefore, $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$. This proves Lemma 2.6.1.

LEMMA 2.6.1. If α and β are disjoint cycles in S_n , then α and β commute. That is, $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$.

Example 2.6.2. Here is an example with n = 6. In S_6 , let

$$\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 2 & 6 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 6 & 5 & 4 & 3 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then $A = \langle \alpha \rangle$ acts on $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$. Given $x \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, the orbit of x is A*x. We compute the orbit decomposition under this action. The reader should verify that $A*1 = \{1, 3\}$, $A*2 = \{2, 4\}$, $A*5 = \{5, 6\}$. In Theorem 2.6.3 we find that from the orbit decomposition we can construct the factorization of α into cycles. For instance, $\alpha = (1, 3)(2, 4)(5, 6)$. Likewise, for $B = \langle \beta \rangle$, we find the disjoint orbits are $B*1 = \{1, 6, 2, 5\}$, $B*3 = \{3, 4\}$ and the factorization of β into cycles is $\beta = (1, 6, 2, 5)(3, 4)$.

Theorem 2.6.3. If $\sigma \in S_n$ is a permutation on n letters, then σ can be written as the product of disjoint cycles. This representation is unique in the sense that if $\sigma \neq e$ and $\sigma = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cdots \alpha_k$ is a product of disjoint cycles all of length two or more and $\sigma = \beta_1 \beta_2 \cdots \beta_\ell$ is another such representation, then $k = \ell$ and $\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_k$ can be relabeled such that $\alpha_i = \beta_i$ for each i.

PROOF. Let $\sigma \in S_n$ and let $S = \langle \sigma \rangle$. Then S acts on $\mathbb{N}_n = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$. Let a be an arbitrary element of \mathbb{N}_n . We associate to the orbit of a under S a cyclic permutation α_a . Let S_a be the subgroup of S fixing a. Then S_a is a cyclic subgroup of S. If $[S:S_a] = w$, then by Theorem 2.3.25, S_a is the unique subgroup of S with index w and $S_a = \langle \sigma^w \rangle$. By Theorem 2.4.10, the length of the orbit

of a is equal to w and the orbit of a is $\{a, \sigma(a), \sigma^2(a), \ldots, \sigma^{w-1}(a)\}$. On this set σ is equal to the cyclic permutation $\alpha_a = (a, \sigma(a), \sigma^2(a), \ldots, \sigma^{w-1}(a))$. We see that for every orbit under the S-action there is an associated cyclic permutation. If $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k\}$ is a full set of representatives for the orbits, then σ is equal to the product of cycles $\alpha_{a_1}\alpha_{a_1}\cdots\alpha_{a_k}$. The orbits are disjoint, hence so are the cycles in this factorization. The uniqueness claim follows from the fact that the cycle decomposition is determined by the orbit decomposition which is uniquely determined by σ .

COROLLARY 2.6.4. If $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_m$ are pairwise disjoint cycles in S_n , then the order of the product $\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \ldots \alpha_m$ is equal to $lcm(|\alpha_1|, |\alpha_2|, \ldots, |\alpha_m|)$.

PROOF. Let $|\alpha_i| = k_i$ and let $k = \operatorname{lcm}(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_m)$. By Lemma 2.6.1, the pairwise disjoint cycles commute. Therefore, $(\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_m)^k = \alpha_1^k \alpha_2^k \dots \alpha_m^k = e$. Suppose $\ell > 0$ and $e = (\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_m)^\ell = \alpha_1^\ell \alpha_2^\ell \dots \alpha_m^\ell$. The permutation $\alpha_2^\ell \dots \alpha_m^\ell$ fixes point-wise every element of the orbit of α_1 . Therefore, $\alpha_1^\ell = e$, hence $\ell \geq k_1$. By symmetry, $\ell \geq k_i$ for each i.

Corollary 2.6.5. Every $\pi \in S_n$ is a product of transpositions.

PROOF. Let $k \geq 2$. By Theorem 2.6.3, it suffices to show that any k-cycle can be written as a product of transpositions. Notice that a 2-cycle (a_1a_2) is already a transposition, a 3-cycle $(a_1a_2a_3) = (a_1a_3)(a_1a_2)$ can be factored as a product of 2 transpositions, and a 4-cycle $(a_1a_2a_3a_4) = (a_1a_4)(a_1a_3)(a_1a_2)$ factors into 3 transpositions. In general, a k-cycle $(a_1a_2\cdots a_k) = (a_1a_k)\cdots(a_1a_3)(a_1a_2)$ can be written as a product of k-1 transpositions.

6.2. The sign of a permutation. Let $n \geq 2$ and S_n the symmetric group on n letters. Let x_1, \ldots, x_n be indeterminates and $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ the ring of polynomials with coefficients in \mathbb{Z} . Given $\sigma \in S_n$, we define an automorphism σ : $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \to \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ by the rule $\sigma(p(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = p(x_{\sigma(1)}, \ldots, x_{\sigma(n)})$. Since $\sigma(\tau(x_i)) = \sigma(x_{\tau(i)}) = x_{\sigma\tau(i)} = \sigma\tau(x_i)$, it follows that S_n acts as a group of permutations of $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Because x_1, \ldots, x_n are indeterminates, it follows that σ defines an automorphism of the polynomial ring, hence we have a homomorphism of groups $S_n \to \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_n])$. Now look at the polynomial

$$\Phi(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{1 \le i < j \le n} (x_i - x_j).$$

Then Φ has degree $\binom{n}{2}$. Fix a transposition $\theta = (k, \ell)$ in S_n where $1 \le k < \ell \le n$. We compute $\theta(\Phi)$. If $\{i, j\} \cap \{k, \ell\} = \emptyset$, then $\theta(x_i - x_j) = x_i - x_j$. It is enough to consider terms with x_k or x_ℓ . All such terms except $(x_k - x_\ell)$ can be grouped into pairs. There are four cases:

$$\theta((x_{i} - x_{k})(x_{i} - x_{\ell})) = (x_{i} - x_{k})(x_{i} - x_{\ell})$$
 if $i < k$

$$\theta((x_{k} - x_{\ell})) = -(x_{k} - x_{\ell})$$
 if $i = k$ (or $i = \ell$)

$$\theta((x_{k} - x_{i})(x_{i} - x_{\ell})) = (x_{\ell} - x_{i})(x_{i} - x_{k}) = (x_{k} - x_{i})(x_{i} - x_{\ell})$$
 if $k < i < \ell$

$$\theta((x_{k} - x_{i})(x_{\ell} - x_{i})) = (x_{\ell} - x_{i})(x_{k} - x_{i})$$
 if $\ell < i$

from which it follows that $\theta(\Phi) = -\Phi$. Therefore, if σ is written as a product of k transpositions, then $\sigma(\Phi) = (-1)^k \Phi$. The rule

$$\operatorname{sign}(\sigma) = \frac{\sigma(\Phi)}{\Phi}$$

defines a function sign : $S_n \to \{1, -1\}$ which is an epimorphism of multiplicative groups. The kernel of the homomorphism sign : $S_n \to \{1, -1\}$ is called the *alternating group on n letters* and is denoted denoted A_n . We return to the study of the alternating group in Section 2.6.4.

6.3. Conjugacy classes of the symmetric group. Let $n \geq 2$ and S_n the symmetric group on n letters. We view S_N as the group $\operatorname{Perm}(\mathbb{N}_n)$. The purpose of this section is to describe the conjugacy classes of S_n in terms of the partitions of the number n. If $\sigma \in S_n$, then we can write σ as a product of disjoint cycles $\sigma = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_k$ where we assume $|\sigma_i| = s_i$ and $s_1 \geq s_2 \geq \cdots \geq s_k$. Furthermore, by adjoining 1-cycles if necessary, we assume $n = s_1 + s_2 + \cdots + s_k$. In other words, the sequence $s_1 \geq s_2 \geq \cdots \geq s_k$ is a partition of n. The next lemma shows that the conjugacy classes of S_n correspond to the partitions of n.

Let σ and θ be arbitrary permutations in S_n . Suppose $\sigma(i) = j$, $\theta(i) = k$, and $\theta(j) = \ell$. Then $\theta \sigma \theta^{-1}(k) = \theta \sigma(i) = \theta(j) = \ell$. This provides us with an algorithm to compute the cycle decomposition of the conjugation of σ by θ^{-1} given the cycle decomposition of σ : replace each letter by its image under θ . For instance, write $\sigma = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_k$ as a product of disjoint cycles where $|\sigma_i| = s_i, s_1 \geq s_2 \geq \cdots \geq s_k$, and $n = s_1 + s_2 + \cdots + s_k$. Write $\sigma_i = (\sigma_{i1}, \sigma_{i2}, \ldots, \sigma_{1s_1})$. Then $\theta \sigma_i \theta^{-1}$ is the cycle $(\theta(\sigma_{i1}), \theta(\sigma_{i2}), \ldots, \theta(\sigma_{1s_1}))$. This shows that under conjugation the form of the cycle decomposition is preserved.

We illustrate this procedure by an example with n = 10. Let

$$\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 \\ 3 & 8 & 4 & 5 & 1 & 10 & 9 & 7 & 6 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\theta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 \\ 5 & 4 & 10 & 1 & 7 & 3 & 9 & 8 & 6 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$\theta \sigma \theta^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 \\ 7 & 4 & 2 & 8 & 10 & 3 & 5 & 9 & 6 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

As a product of disjoint cycles, we have $\sigma = (2, 8, 7, 9, 6, 10)(1, 3, 4, 5)$. Now compute the disjoint cycle form of the conjugate $\theta \sigma \theta^{-1}$. Because σ_1 starts with 2, and σ_2 starts with 1, we start the 6-cycle of $\theta \sigma \theta^{-1}$ with $\theta(2) = 4$, and the 4-cycle with $\theta(1) = 5$:

$$\theta \sigma \theta^{-1} = (4, 8, 9, 6, 3, 2)(5, 10, 1, 7)$$

= $(\theta(2), \theta(8), \theta(7), \theta(9), \theta(6), \theta(10))(\theta(1), \theta(3), \theta(4), \theta(5)).$

The last equation shows that the cycle decomposition can be obtained by applying θ to each letter in σ .

Now we show that every conjugacy class contains a canonical permutation. We continue to employ the notation established above. Consider the permutation

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & s_1 & s_1 + 1 & s_1 + 2 & \dots & s_1 + s_2 & \dots & n \\ \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} & \dots & \sigma_{1s_1} & \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} & \dots & \sigma_{2s_2} & \dots & \sigma_{ks_k} \end{bmatrix}$$

where the second row is obtained by removing all of the parentheses from the product of disjoint cycles $\sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_k$. Hence L is a permutation in S_n . Set $\tau = L^{-1} \sigma L$. Then the disjoint cycle decomposition of τ is obtained by inserting parentheses into $1, 2, \ldots, n$ and splitting it into cycles with the lengths s_1, \ldots, s_k . We illustrate this algorithm on the example from above. Start with the permutation $\sigma = (2, 8, 7, 9, 6, 10)(1, 3, 4, 5)$ in S_{10} . Then

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 \\ 2 & 8 & 7 & 9 & 6 & 10 & 1 & 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

is the permutation whose second row is obtained by removing the parentheses from σ . Compute:

$$L^{-1}\sigma L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 1 & 8 & 9 & 10 & 7 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We see that $L^{-1}\sigma L = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)(7, 8, 9, 10)$ in disjoint cycle form.

The two algorithms specified above combine to prove Lemma 2.6.6.

Lemma 2.6.6. Let $n \geq 2$ and S_n the symmetric group on n letters. Two permutations σ, τ in S_n are in the same conjugacy class if and only if they give rise to the same partition of n. The number of distinct conjugacy classes of S_n is equal to the number of distinct partitions of n.

6.4. The Alternating Group. Let $n \geq 3$. The alternating group on n letters is denoted A_n and is defined to be the kernel of the homomorphism sign: $S_n \to \{1,-1\}$. That is, A_n is the subgroup of all even permutations. We have $[S_n:A_n]=2$ and $|A_n|=n!/2$. Theorem 2.6.9, the main result of this section, is a proof that if $n \neq 4$, then A_n is simple. The proof we give is completely elementary. In Exercise 2.6.12 the reader is asked to prove that A_4 contains a normal subgroup of order 4, hence A_4 is not simple.

LEMMA 2.6.7. If $n \geq 3$, then A_n is generated by 3-cycles.

PROOF. By Corollary 2.6.5, a 3-cycle is even, so A_n contains every 3-cycle. Every permutation in A_n is a product of an even number of transpositions. It suffices to show that a typical product (ab)(cd) factors into 3-cycles. If (ab) and (cd) are disjoint, then we see that

$$(ab)(cd) = (ab)(ac)(ac)(cd)$$
$$= (acb)(acd)$$

is a product of 3-cycles. If a=c, then we have (ab)(ad)=(adb). These are the only cases, so A_n is generated by 3-cycles.

LEMMA 2.6.8. Let $n \geq 3$. If N is a normal subgroup of A_n and N contains a 3-cycle, then $N = A_n$.

PROOF. Without loss of generality assume $(123) \in N$. Then $(123)(123) = (132) \in N$. We assume n > 3, otherwise we are done. By Corollary 2.6.5, a 3-cycle is even, so A_n contains every 3-cycle. Let $3 < a \le n$ be arbitrary. We use the fact that $\sigma^{-1}N\sigma \subseteq N$ for all $\sigma \in A_n$. Then (1a3)(123)(13a) = (1a2) is in N. Also, $(1a2)^2 = (12a) \in N$. Similarly, we see that (13a), (1a3), (23a), (2a3) are in N.

Now let $a \neq b$, a > 2, and b > 2. Then (1b2)(12a)(12b) = (1ab) is in N. Similarly, we see that (2ab), (3ab), (a1b), (a2b), etc. are in N.

Now let $a \neq b \neq c$, a > 1, b > 1, and c > 1. Then (ac1)(a1b)(a1c) = (abc) is in N. So N contains every 3 cycle. By Lemma 2.6.7, $N = A_n$.

Theorem 2.6.9. The alternating group A_n is simple if $n \neq 4$.

PROOF. If n=2, then $A_2=\langle e\rangle$. If n=3, then $A_3=\langle (123)\rangle$ is a cyclic group of order 3, hence is simple. From now on assume n>4, N is a normal subgroup of A_n and $N\neq \langle e\rangle$. We prove that $N=A_n$. The proof consists of a case-by-case analysis.

Case 1: If N contains a 3-cycle, then $N = A_n$, by Lemma 2.6.8.

Case 2: Assume N contains a permutation σ such that the cycle decomposition of σ has cycle of length $r \geq 4$. Write $\sigma = (a_1 a_2 \cdots a_r) \tau$, where τ fixes each a_1, \ldots, a_r element-wise. Let $\delta = (a_1 a_2 a_3)$. Then $\delta \in A_n$ and $\delta \sigma \delta^{-1} \in N$ since N is normal. The following computation

$$\sigma^{-1}\delta\sigma\delta^{-1} = \tau^{-1}(a_1a_r \cdots a_2)(a_1a_2a_3)(a_1a_2 \cdots a_r)\tau(a_1a_3a_2)$$

= $(a_1a_3a_r)$

shows that Case 2 reduces to Case 1.

Case 3: Assume N has a permutation σ such that the cycle decomposition of σ has at least two disjoint 3-cycles. Write $\sigma = (a_1 a_2 a_3)(a_4 a_5 a_6)\tau$, where τ fixes each $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5, a_6$ element-wise. Let $\delta = (a_1 a_2 a_4)$. Then $\delta \in A_n$ and $\delta^{-1} \sigma \delta \in N$ since N is normal. The following computation

$$\delta^{-1}\sigma\delta\sigma^{-1} = (a_1a_4a_2)(a_1a_2a_3)(a_4a_5a_6)\tau(a_1a_2a_4)\tau^{-1}(a_1a_3a_2)(a_4a_6a_5)$$
$$= (a_1a_4a_2a_3a_5)$$

shows that Case 3 reduces to Case 2.

Case 4: Assume N has a permutation σ such that the cycle decomposition of σ consists of one 3-cycles and one or more 2-cycles. Write $\sigma = (a_1a_2a_3)\tau$, where τ is the product of the 2-cycles. Then $\sigma^2 = (a_1a_3a_2) \in N$, hence Case 4 reduces to Case 1.

Case 5: Assume every $\sigma \in N$ has a cycle decomposition that is a product of disjoint 2-cycles. Let $\sigma = (a_1a_2)(a_3a_4)\tau$ where τ is a product of 2-cycles and is disjoint from $(a_1a_2)(a_3a_4)$. Let $\delta = (a_1a_2a_3)$. Then $\delta \in A_n$ and $\delta^{-1}\sigma\delta \in N$ since N is normal. The following computation

$$\delta^{-1}\sigma\delta\sigma^{-1} = (a_1a_3a_2)(a_1a_2)(a_3a_4)\tau(a_1a_2a_3)(a_1a_2)(a_3a_4)\tau$$
$$= (a_1a_4)(a_2a_3)$$

shows that $\beta = (a_1 a_4)(a_2 a_3)$ is in N. Since n > 4 (notice that this is the first time we have used this hypothesis), there exists $a_5 \notin \{a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4\}$. Let $\alpha = (a_1 a_4 a_5)$. The following computation

$$\alpha^{-1}\beta\alpha\beta = (a_1a_5a_4)(a_1a_4)(a_2a_3)(a_1a_4a_5)(a_1a_4)(a_2a_3)$$
$$= (a_1a_4a_5)$$

shows that N contains a 3-cycle, hence Case 5 reduces to Case 1.

COROLLARY 2.6.10. If n > 4, the normal subgroups of S_n are $\langle e \rangle$, A_n , and S_n .

PROOF. Let N be a normal subgroup of S_n . Then $N \cap A_n$ is a normal subgroup of A_n . By Theorem 2.6.9, $N \cap A_n$ is equal to either $\langle e \rangle$, or A_n . If $N \cap A_n = A_n$, then $[S_n : A_n] = 2$ implies $N = A_n$, or $N = S_n$. Suppose $N \cap A_n = \langle e \rangle$ and for contradiction's sake, suppose $N \neq \langle e \rangle$. Then N consists of e and odd permutations. If $\sigma \in N$ is an odd permutation, then σ^2 is even, hence $\sigma^2 \in N \cap A_n = \langle e \rangle$. Therefore, every element of N has order 2 or 1. Let $\sigma \in N$ and assume σ has order 2. Then the cycle decomposition of σ is a product of disjoint transpositions. If $\sigma = (ab)$

is a transposition, then (ab)(acb)(ab)(abc) = (acb) is in N, a contradiction. Assume $\sigma = (ab)(cd)\tau$, where τ is a product of disjoint transpositions that do not involve a, b, c, d. Let $\alpha = (acb)\sigma(abc) = (ac)(bd)\tau$. Then α is in N, and $\sigma\alpha = (ad)(bc)$ is in N. But (ad)(bc) is even, which is a contradiction.

Corollary 2.6.11. Let n > 4. If H is a subgroup of S_n and $[S_n : H] < n$, then $H = A_n$ or $H = S_n$.

PROOF. Let H be a subgroup of S_n , $m = [S_n : H]$, and assume m < n. Then S_n acts on G/H by left multiplication. If we identify $\operatorname{Perm}(G/H)$ with S_m , then there is a homomorphism of groups $\phi: S_n \to S_m$. By the Pigeonhole Principle (Exercise 1.1.11), $\ker \phi$ is a nontrivial normal subgroup of G contained in H. By Corollary 2.6.10, $\ker \phi$ is either A_n or S_n . Therefore, H is either A_n or S_n .

6.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 2.6.12. Let $G = A_4$ be the alternating group on 4 letters. The order of G is twelve.

- (1) Viewing G as a group of permutations of $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, list the twelve elements of G using disjoint cycle notation. For each $x \in G$, compute the cyclic subgroup $\langle x \rangle$. Show that G has eight elements of order three and three elements of order two.
- (2) Show that the subgroup of order 4 is the group of symmetries of a non-square rectangle (see Example 2.1.17).
- (3) Show that G has four subgroups of order three. Show that the subgroup of order four is normal. Show that the center of G has order one. Construct the lattice of subgroups of G. Show that G has only one proper normal subgroup, namely the subgroup of order four.
- (4) In Exercise 2.6.14 you are asked to compute the partition of G into conjugacy classes.

EXERCISE 2.6.13. As in Exercise 2.6.12, the alternating group on four letters is denoted A_4 . Let N be the normal subgroup of A_4 of order four. Show that G is isomorphic to the semidirect product of N and a cyclic subgroup of order three that acts on N by conjugation.

EXERCISE 2.6.14. Let A_4 be the alternating group on 4 letters (see Exercise 2.6.12). Compute the partition of A_4 into conjugacy classes.

EXERCISE 2.6.15. Show that the set of transpositions $\{(12), (23), \dots, (n-1, n)\}$ generates S_n .

EXERCISE 2.6.16. Show that S_n is generated by a transposition (1,2) and an n-cycle $(123 \cdots n)$.

EXERCISE 2.6.17. Compute the number of distinct k-cycles in S_n .

EXERCISE 2.6.18. Let $1 \le k < n$. Show that for each k-subset $A = \{a_1, \ldots, a_k\}$ of \mathbb{N}_n there is a subgroup of S_n isomorphic to $S_k \times S_{n-k}$. Show that any two such subgroups are conjugates of each other. (Hint: Suppose $a \in A$, $b \notin A$, and σ fixes $\mathbb{N}_n - A$. Loot at $(ab)\sigma(ab)$.)

EXERCISE 2.6.19. Let $V = \{e, (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)\}$ be the subgroup of order 4 in A_4 . Show that V is a normal subgroup of S_4 . Prove that S_4/V is a nonabelian group of order 6.

7. The Sylow Theorems

7.1. p-Groups. Let p be a prime number. A finite group G is called a p-group if $|G| = p^r$ for some $r \ge 1$. We begin this section with the following fundamental theorem on p-groups.

THEOREM 2.7.1. (Fundamental Theorem on p-groups) Let p be a prime and G a finite group of order p^n , where $n \ge 1$. Then the following are true.

- (1) $Z(G) \neq \langle e \rangle$.
- (2) If G has order p^2 , then G is abelian.
- (3) If n > 1, then G has a proper normal subgroup N such that $\langle e \rangle \neq N \neq G$.
- (4) (A finite p-group is solvable) There is a sequence of subgroups $G_0 \subseteq G_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq G_{n-1} \subseteq G_n$ such that
 - (a) $G_0 = \langle e \rangle$, $G_n = G$,
 - (b) for $0 \le i \le n$, $|G_i| = p^i$,
 - (c) for $0 \le i \le n-1$, G_i is a normal subgroup of G_{i+1} and the quotient G_{i+1}/G_i is a cyclic group of order p.

We call G_0, G_1, \ldots, G_n a solvable series for G.

(5) Let X be a finite set and assume G acts on X as a group of permutations. Let $X_0 = \{x \in X \mid g * x = x \text{ for all } g \in G\}$. Then $|X| \equiv |X_0| \pmod{p}$.

PROOF. (5): If $x \in X$, then $x \in X_0$ if and only if $G*x = \{x\}$. If $X_0 = X$, there is nothing to prove. Let x_1, \ldots, x_m be a full set of representatives of the orbits with length two or more. The orbit decomposition of X is $X_0 \cup (\bigcup_{i=1}^m G*x_i)$. Taking cardinalities and applying Theorem 2.4.10,

$$|X| = |X_0| + \sum_{i=1}^{m} |G * x_i|$$
$$= |X_0| + \sum_{i=1}^{m} [G : G_{x_i}].$$

Then $[G:G_{x_i}] \neq 1$ for each i and by Corollary 2.2.12, $[G:G_{x_i}]$ divides p^n . Reducing both sides of the equation modulo p, we get $|X| \equiv |X_0| \pmod{p}$.

- (1): Let G act on itself by conjugation. Then Z(G) is the set of all elements fixed by the group action. By Part (5), $0 \equiv |Z(G)| \pmod{p}$.
- (2): By Part (1), Z(G) has order p or p^2 . Then G/Z(G) has order 1 or p, hence is cyclic. By Exercise 2.3.38, G is abelian.
- (3): By Part (1), if $Z(G) \neq G$, then N = Z(G) works. If Z(G) = G, then G is abelian. Every subgroup of G is abelian, so it suffices to find a proper subgroup of G. Let $z \in G \langle e \rangle$ and set $N = \langle z \rangle$. If $G \neq N$, then we are done. Otherwise, N = G and z has order p^n . By Lemma 2.2.16, $|z^p| = p^{n-1}$. In this case, $N = \langle z^p \rangle$ works.
- (4): The proof is by induction on n. If n=1, then $G_0=\langle e\rangle$, $G_1=G$ is a solvable series. If n=2, then by Part (3) $G_0=\langle e\rangle$, $G_1=N$, $G_2=G$ is a solvable series.

Inductively, assume $n \geq 2$ and that a solvable series exists for any p-group of order less than p^n . By Part (3) there exists a proper normal subgroup N. Then $|N| = p^t$, where $1 \leq t < n-1$. By our induction hypothesis, let $G_0 = \langle e \rangle, G_1, \ldots, G_t = N$ be a solvable series for N. Let H = G/N. By Corollary 2.2.12, $|H| = p^{n-t}$. By our induction hypothesis, let $H_0 = \langle e \rangle, H_1, \ldots, H_{n-t-1}, H_{n-t} = H$

be a solvable series for H = G/N. By Theorem 2.3.13, we lift each H_i to a subgroup G_{i+t} of G and get a sequence $G_t = N \subseteq G_{t+1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq G_{n-1} \subseteq G_n = G$. By Theorem 2.3.12, $G_{i+1+t}/G_{i+t} \cong H_{i+1}/H_i$ for each $0 \le i \le t$. Combining the two sequences, $G_0 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq G_t \subseteq \cdots \subseteq G_{n-1} \subseteq G_n = G$ is a solvable series for G.

LEMMA 2.7.2. Let G be a finite group and p a prime number that divides |G|. If H is a subgroup of G and H is a p-group, then the following are true:

- (1) $[N_G(H):H] \equiv [G:H] \pmod{p}$.
- (2) If p divides [G:H], then $[N_G(H):H] > 1$ and $N_G(H) \neq H$.

PROOF. (1): As in Example 2.4.5, H acts on G/H by left multiplications: h*xH=(hx)H. Let X=G/H and $X_0=\{xH\in X\mid h*x=x \text{ for all }h\in H\}$. Then $xH\in X_0$ if and only if $x^{-1}hx\in H$ for all $h\in H$, which is true if and only if $x\in N_G(H)$. But $x\in N_G(H)$ if and only if $xH\subseteq N_G(H)$, hence X_0 consists of those cosets xH such that $xH\subseteq N_G(H)$. Then $|X_0|=[N_G(H):H]$. By Theorem 2.7.1 (5), $|X|\equiv |X_0|\pmod p$, or $[G:H]\equiv [N_G(H):H]\pmod p$.

- (2): By Part (1), $0 \equiv [G:H] \equiv [N_G(H):H] \pmod{p}$. Thus, $[N_G(H):H]$ is a multiple of p.
- **7.2.** Cauchy's Theorem. The proof given below of Cauchy's Theorem is due to J. McKay [41]. This has been the proof of choice used in [15], [29], and other introductory texts on this subject.

Theorem 2.7.3. (Cauchy's Theorem) Let G be a finite group of order n and p a prime divisor of n. Then G contains an element of order p.

PROOF. Let $X = G^p = \prod_{i=1}^p G$ be the product of p copies of G. Elements of G^p are p-tuples (x_1, \ldots, x_p) where each x_i is in G and $|X| = n^p$. Let ξ be the p-cycle $(12\cdots p) \in S_p$. Then the cyclic subgroup $C = \langle \xi \rangle$ acts on X by

$$\xi^{i} * (x_{1}, \dots, x_{p}) = \begin{cases} (x_{p}, x_{1}, \dots, x_{p-1}) & \text{if } i = 1\\ (x_{p-i+1}, \dots, x_{p}, x_{1}, \dots, x_{p-i}) & \text{if } 0 < i < p\\ (x_{1}, \dots, x_{p}) & \text{if } i = 0 \text{ or } i = p. \end{cases}$$

Now define $Z = \{(x_1, \ldots, x_p) \in X \mid x_1x_2\cdots x_p = e\}$. Then Z is a subset of X. Given $x \in Z$, notice that $x_p = (x_1\cdots x_{p-1})^{-1}$, so $|Z| = n^{p-1}$. Since $x_p = (x_1\cdots x_{p-1})^{-1}$ implies $x_px_1x_2\cdots x_{p-1} = e$, it follows that $\xi *Z = Z$. Hence C acts on Z and there is a partition of Z into orbits. Let Z_0 be the set of all z in Z fixed by ξ . A p-tuple $z = (x_1, \ldots, x_p)$ is fixed by ξ if and only if $x_1 = x_2 = \cdots = x_p$. Since $(e, e, \ldots, e) \in Z_0$, we know $Z_0 \neq \emptyset$. By Theorem 2.7.1 (5), $|Z_0| \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Then $|Z_0| \geq p$, and there are at least p elements $g \in G$ such that $g^p = e$. One solution to $g^p = e$ is g = e, any other solution is an element g of order g.

7.3. The Sylow Theorems.

THEOREM 2.7.4. (Sylow's First Theorem) Let G a finite group and p a prime number. If p^{α} divides |G|, then G contains a subgroup of order p^{α} .

We give two proofs for Theorem 2.7.4. The first proof is due to H. Wielandt [63]. It has been the proof of choice used by [15], [27] and other introductory books on this subject.

FIRST PROOF OF THEOREM 2.7.4. Write $|G| = p^{\gamma}r$ where p^{γ} is the highest power of p that divides |G|. Then $0 \le \alpha \le \gamma$, and we write $|G| = p^{\alpha}q$. If we let $\beta = \gamma - \alpha$, then p^{β} is the highest power of p that divides q. Let X be the set of all subsets of G of cardinality p^{ν} . Then

$$|X| = \binom{p^{\alpha}q}{p^{\alpha}} = \frac{p^{\alpha}q}{p^{\alpha}} \cdot \frac{p^{\alpha}q - 1}{p^{\alpha} - 1} \cdots \frac{p^{\alpha}q - i}{p^{\alpha} - i} \cdots \frac{p^{\alpha}q - p^{\alpha} + 2}{p^{\alpha} - p^{\alpha} + 2} \cdot \frac{p^{\alpha}q - p^{\alpha} + 1}{p^{\alpha} - p^{\alpha} + 1}$$

where the factorization on the right hand side results from expanding the binomial coefficient using Lemma 1.1.4, Let $0 < i < p^{\alpha}$ and write $i = p^t k$ where $0 \le t < \alpha$ and $\gcd(p,k) = 1$. Then $p^{\alpha}q - i = p^t(p^{\alpha - t}q - k)$ and $p^{\alpha - t}q - k \equiv -k \pmod{p}$. This implies the highest power of p that divides $p^{\alpha}q - i$ is p^t . Therefore, canceling all powers of p from the numerator and denominator we see that the highest power of p that divides |X| is the same as the highest power of p that divides q, which is p^{β} . As in Example 2.4.3, G acts on itself by left multiplication. If $a \in G$, and $S \in X$, then aS has cardinality p^{α} . Therefore, a*S = aS defines an action by G on X. Under this action, X is partitioned into orbits. Since $p^{\beta+1}$ does not divide |X|, we know there is an orbit, say G*S, such that $p^{\beta+1}$ does not divide |G*S|, the length of the orbit. Let $H = G_S$ be the stabilizer of S. Then $H = \{h \in G \mid hS = S\}$. So $hs \in S$ for each $h \in H$ and $s \in S$. For a fixed $s \in S$, this implies the right coset Hs is a subset of S. Hence $|H| \leq |S| = p^{\alpha}$. By Corollary 2.2.12, $|G*S| = |G|/|H| = (p^{\alpha}q)/|H|$. Thus $p^{\alpha}q = |H||G*S|$. Since $p^{\alpha+\beta}$ divides the left hand side, we have $p^{\alpha+\beta}$ divides |H||G*S|. Since $p^{\beta+1}$ does not divide |G*S|, this implies p^{α} divides |H|. This proves H is a subgroup of G order p^{α} .

SECOND PROOF OF THEOREM 2.7.4. Write $|G| = p^{\gamma}r$ where p^{γ} is the highest power of p that divides |G|. We prove more than is required. In fact, we show that G has a sequence of subgroups $P_0 \subseteq P_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq P_{\gamma}$ such that $|P_i| = p^i$. Thus, this gives us a new proof of Theorem 2.7.1 (4). Set $P_0 = \langle e \rangle$, which has order 1. If $\gamma \geq 1$, then by Theorem 2.7.3, there exists $a \in G$ such that $P_1 = \langle a \rangle$ has order p. The method of proof is to iteratively apply Cauchy's Theorem $\gamma - 1$ times.

Inductively assume $1 \leq i < \gamma$, and that we have already constructed the sequence of subgroups $P_0 \leq P_1 \leq \cdots \leq P_i$ in G, where $|P_i| = p^i$. To finish the proof it suffices to show that G has a subgroup P_{i+1} of order p^{i+1} containing P_i as a normal subgroup. By Corollary 2.2.12, $[G:P_i] = p^{\gamma-i}r$ is a multiple of p. By Lemma 2.7.2, $P_i \neq N_G(P_i)$ and p divides $[N_G(P_i):P_i]$. Since P_i is normal in $N_G(P_i)$, by Theorem 2.7.3, the group $N_G(P_i)/P_i$. has a subgroup P'_{i+1} of order p. By Theorem 2.3.13, $P'_{i+1} = P_{i+1}/P_i$ for a subgroup P_{i+1} of $N_G(P_i)$ such that $P_i \subseteq P_{i+1} \subseteq N_G(P_i)$. By Corollary 2.2.12, $|P_{i+1}| = |P'_{i+1}||P_i| = p^{i+1}$. Since P_i is normal in $N_G(P_i)$, P_i is normal in P_{i+1} .

By Theorem 2.7.4, if p is a prime, G is a finite group, $\alpha \geq 1$, and p^{α} is the highest power of p that divides |G|, then G has a subgroup of order p^{α} , call it P. In this case, we say P is a p-Sylow subgroup of G. Therefore, a p-Sylow subgroup is a maximal member of the set of all subgroups of G that are p-groups.

Theorem 2.7.5. (Sylow's Second Theorem) Let G be a finite group and p a prime that divides |G|. Then any two p-Sylow subgroups of G are conjugates of each other.

PROOF. By Theorem 2.7.4, a p-Sylow subgroup exists. Let P and Q be two p-Sylow subgroups of G. We prove that there exists $x \in G$ such that $x^{-1}Px = Q$. Let

X = G/Q be the set of left cosets of Q in G. Let P act on X by left multiplication (Example 2.4.5). By Theorem 2.7.1 (5), $[G:Q] = |X| \equiv |X_0|$ (mod p). Since p does not divide [G:Q], we know $X_0 \neq 0$. Let $xQ \in X_0$. Then for each $a \in P$, axQ = xQ. Thus $x^{-1}ax \in Q$ for every $a \in P$, hence $x^{-1}Px \subseteq Q$. Since $|P| = |Q| = p^{\alpha}$, this implies $x^{-1}Px = Q$.

COROLLARY 2.7.6. Let G be a finite group and p a prime that divides |G|. Let P be a p-Sylow subgroup of G. Then the following are true.

- (1) For every $a \in G$, $a^{-1}Pa$ is a p-Sylow subgroup of G.
- (2) In G, P is the unique p-Sylow subgroup if and only if P is a normal subgroup.
- (3) $N_G(N_G(P)) = N_G(P)$.

PROOF. (1): Conjugation by a is an automorphism, hence $|P| = |a^{-1}Pa|$.

- (2): The subgroup P is normal in G if and only if $P = a^{-1}Pa$ for all $a \in G$, which by (1) is true if and only if P is the unique p-Sylow subgroup of G.
- (3): By Proposition 2.4.12, P is a normal subgroup of $N_G(P)$. By (2), P is the unique p-Sylow subgroup of $N_G(P)$. Let $z \in N_G(N_G(P))$. Then conjugation by z is an automorphism of $N_G(P)$, hence $zPz^{-1} = P$. This implies $z \in N_G(P)$.

THEOREM 2.7.7. (Sylow's Third Theorem) Let G be a finite group and p a prime that divides |G|. The number of p-Sylow subgroups in G is congruent to 1 modulo p and divides |G|. More precisely, let $|G| = p^{\alpha}r$ where $\alpha \geq 1$ and $\gcd(p, r) = 1$. If n is the number of p-Sylow subgroups in G, then n divides r and $n \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

PROOF. By Theorem 2.7.4, a p-Sylow subgroup exists. Let P be a p-Sylow subgroup. As in Example 2.4.11, let G act by conjugation on 2^G , the power set of all subsets of G. By Theorem 2.7.5, the orbit of P is the set of all p-Sylow subgroups of G. The length of the orbit is $[G:N_G(P)]$, which divides |G|. But $r = [G:P] = [G:N_G(P)][N_G(P):P]$ shows the number of conjugates of P divides r

Let X be the set of all p-Sylow subgroups of G. The number of p-Sylow subgroups in G is equal to |X|. Let P act on X by conjugation. By Theorem 2.7.1 (5), $|X| \equiv |X_0| \pmod{p}$. First note that $P \in X_0$. Suppose Q is another element of X_0 . Then $a^{-1}Qa = Q$ for all $a \in P$. Therefore, $P \subseteq N_G(Q)$. In this case, both P and Q are p-Sylow subgroups of $N_G(Q)$. By Theorem 2.7.5, for some $x \in N_G(Q)$ we have $P = x^{-1}Qx$. But Q is normal in $N_G(Q)$, so $Q = x^{-1}Qx = P$. This proves $X_0 = \{P\}$. We have shown that $|X| \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

PROPOSITION 2.7.8. Let G be a finite group of order n where the unique factorization of n is $p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_m^{e_m}$. Assume for each p_i that G has a unique p_i -Sylow subgroup P_i . Then G is the internal direct product of P_1, \ldots, P_m .

PROOF. By Corollary 2.7.6, each P_i is a normal subgroup of G. We use induction on m to show that P_1, \ldots, P_m satisfy the criteria of Proposition 2.5.5 (4). If m=1, there is nothing to prove. Assume m>1. Then $P_{m-1}P_m$ is a subgroup of G because P_{m-1} is normal. Also, $P_{m-1} \cap P_m = \langle e \rangle$ by Lagrange's Theorem (Corollary 2.2.12), because $p_{m-1} \neq p_m$. Inductively assume 1 < r < m and that

- (1) $P_{r+1} \cdots P_m$ is a subgroup of G, and
- (2) for $i \in \{r, \dots, m-1\}, P_i \cap (P_{i+1} \cdots P_m) = \langle e \rangle$.

Because P_{r-1} is normal in G, by Exercise 2.3.18, $P_{r-1}P_r\cdots P_m$ is a subgroup of G. The order of $P_r\cdots P_m$ is $p_r^{e_r}\cdots p_m^{e_m}$, by Lemma 2.5.4(5). Because p_{r-1} is relatively prime to $|P_r\cdots P_m|$, by Lagrange's Theorem (Corollary 2.2.12), we know that $P_{r-1}\cap (P_r\cdots P_m)=\langle e\rangle$. By Mathematical Induction, this proves $P_1\cdots P_m$ is the internal direct product of P_1,\ldots,P_m . Since $|P_1\cdots P_m|=|G|$, this proves the proposition.

EXAMPLE 2.7.9. Let p and q be distinct primes, and assume p < q. By Theorems 2.7.8 and 2.5.2, an abelian group of order pq is cyclic. If $q \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, then there is a subgroup of order p in $\operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/q) \cong U_q$. Hence there exists a monomorphism $\theta: \mathbb{Z}/p \to \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/q)$. Using θ , the semidirect product $\mathbb{Z}/q \rtimes \mathbb{Z}/p$ is a nonabelian group of order pq. If q is not congruent to 1 modulo p, then by Theorem 2.7.7, we see that in a group of order pq every Sylow subgroup is normal, and a group of order pq is abelian.

Although we have not proved it yet, the group U_q is cyclic (see Theorem 5.5.3). Therefore, if $q \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, then there is a unique subgroup of order p in $\operatorname{Aut}(Q)$. Therefore, the monomorphism θ is unique up to the choice of a generator for \mathbb{Z}/p . Hence there is at most one nonabelian group of order pq up to isomorphism.

7.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 2.7.10. Let G be a finite group and N a normal subgroup of G. Show that if p is a prime and $|N| = p^r$ for some $r \ge 1$, then N is contained in every p-Sylow subgroup of G.

EXERCISE 2.7.11. Let $n \geq 1$, A a nonempty set, and $X = A^n$ the product of n copies of A. An element x of X is an n-tuple (x_1, \ldots, x_n) where each $x_i \in AS$. Alternatively, an n-tuple $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ can be viewed as a function $x : \mathbb{N}_n \to A$ (see Section 1.1.3) where $x(i) = x_i$. Show that the symmetric group S_n acts on X by the rule $\sigma * x = x\sigma^{-1}$ where $x\sigma^{-1}$ refers to the composition of functions:

$$\mathbb{N}_n \xrightarrow{\sigma^{-1}} \mathbb{N}_n \xrightarrow{x} A.$$

EXERCISE 2.7.12. Let G be a group containing subgroups A and B such that $A \subset B \subset G$.

- (1) Give an example such that B is normal in G, A is normal in B, and A is not normal in G. We say that normal over normal is not normal.
- (2) Suppose G is finite and p is a prime number. Assume B is normal in G and A is normal in B and that A is a p-Sylow subgroup of B. Prove that A is normal in G.

EXERCISE 2.7.13. Let G be a group of order $2^r \cdot 7$, where $r \geq 5$. Apply Exercises 2.4.25 and 2.7.10 to show G contains a normal subgroup N satisfying: $2^{r-4} \leq |N| \leq 2^r$ and N is contained in every 2-Sylow subgroup of G.

EXERCISE 2.7.14. Let G be a finite group of order n.

- (1) Show that for each n in the list: $30, 36, 40, 42, 44, 48, 50, 52, 54, 55, 56, 75, <math>3^2 \cdot 5^2, 9 \cdot 37, G$ is not a simple group.
- (2) Show that for each n in the list: $45, 51, 5 \cdot 17, 5^2 \cdot 17, 5^2 \cdot 37$, G is abelian.

EXERCISE 2.7.15. Let G be a group of order p^2q , where p and q are distinct primes. Show that G is not simple.

EXERCISE 2.7.16. Let G be a group of order $(p-1)p^2$, where p is an odd prime. Prove the following.

- (1) G has a unique p-Sylow subgroup.
- (2) There are at least four groups of order $(p-1)p^2$ which are pairwise non-isomorphic.

EXERCISE 2.7.17. Show that a group of order 105 is a semidirect product of two cyclic groups. Show how to construct an example of a nonabelian group of order 105.

8. Finite Abelian Groups

The purpose of this section is to prove that a finite abelian group can be decomposed into an internal direct product of cyclic subgroups in an essentially unique way. This is called the Basis Theorem for finite abelian groups.

8.1. The n-th power map. Let A be an abelian group written multiplicatively and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. The n-th power map $\pi^n : A \to A$ is defined by the rule $\pi^n(x) = x^n$. By Exercise 2.3.16 (where the abelian group was written additively) we see that π^n is an endomorphism of A with kernel $\{x \in A \mid |x| \text{ divides } n\}$ and image $\{x^n \mid x \in A\}$. In the following, the kernel of π^n will be denoted A(n) and the image will be denoted A^n . Then A(n) and A^n are subgroups of A. By the Isomorphism Theorem, Theorem 2.3.12 (a), ϕ induces an isomorphism $A/A(n) \cong A^n$.

LEMMA 2.8.1. Let $\phi: A \to B$ be an isomorphism of abelian groups. Then for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the following are true.

- (1) $\phi: A(n) \to B(n)$ is an isomorphism.
- (2) $\phi: A^n \to B^n$ is an isomorphism.
- (3) $\phi: A/A(n) \to B/B(n)$ is an isomorphism.
- (4) $\phi: A/A^n \to B/B^n$ is an isomorphism.

PROOF. (1): Let $x \in A(n)$. Then $(\phi(x))^n = \phi(x^n) = \phi(e) = e$ implies $\phi(A(n)) \subseteq B(n)$. Given $y \in B(n)$, $y = \phi(x)$ for some $x \in A$. Then $e = y^n = (\phi(x))^n = \phi(x^n)$. So $x \in \ker(\phi) = \langle e \rangle$. This proves $\phi : A(n) \to B(n)$ is an isomorphism.

- (2): Let $x \in A$. Then $\phi(x^n) = (\phi(x))^n$, so $\phi(A^n) \subseteq B^n$. Let $y^n \in B^n$. Then $y = \phi(x)$ for some $x \in A$, so $y^n = (\phi(x))^n = \phi(x^n)$, which proves $\phi : A^n \to B^n$ is an isomorphism.
 - (3): Consider the commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{\phi} & B \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow^{\eta} \\ A/\ker(\eta\phi) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & B/B(n) \end{array}$$

where all of the maps are onto. By Part (1), the kernel of $\eta\phi$ is $\phi^{-1}(B(n)) = A(n)$. By Theorem 2.3.12 (a), $\eta\phi$ factors through A/A(n) giving the isomorphism: $A/A(n) \cong B/B(n)$.

(4): Consider the commutative diagram

$$A \xrightarrow{\phi} B$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \eta$$

$$A/\ker(\eta\phi) \xrightarrow{\cong} B/B^n$$

where all of the maps are onto. By Part (2), the kernel of $\eta\phi$ is $\phi^{-1}(B^n) = A^n$. By Theorem 2.3.12 (a), $\eta\phi$ factors through A/A^n giving the isomorphism: $A/A^n \cong B/B^n$.

LEMMA 2.8.2. Let $A = \langle a \rangle$ be an infinite cyclic group and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $A(n) = \langle e \rangle$ and A/A^n is cyclic of order n.

PROOF. We have the isomorphism $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \to A$ which is defined on generators by the rule $\phi(1)=a$ (Theorem 2.3.25 (5)). The group \mathbb{Z} is written additively as in Exercise 2.3.16, and instead of the n-th power map π^n , we will use the "left multiplication by n" map $\lambda_n: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$. The kernel of λ_n is $\langle 0 \rangle$ and the image of λ_n is $\langle n \rangle = n\mathbb{Z}$. Applying Lemma 2.8.1 we have $A(n) = \langle e \rangle$ and $A/A^n \cong \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is cyclic of order n.

LEMMA 2.8.3. Let $A = \langle a \rangle$ be a finite cyclic group of order m and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. If $d = \gcd(m, n)$, then the following are true.

- (1) $A(n) = \langle a^{m/d} \rangle$ is cyclic of order d.
- (2) $A/A(n) \cong A^n$ is cyclic of order m/d.
- (3) A/A^n is cyclic of order d.

PROOF. We have $A = \{e, a, ..., a^{m-1}\}.$

- (1): Suppose $0 \le i < m$ and $(a^i)^n = e$. Then m divides ni and by Proposition 1.2.10, $\operatorname{lcm}(m,n) = mn/d$ divides ni. This implies m/d divides i. Hence $A(n) \subseteq \langle a^{m/d} \rangle$. But $a^{m/d}$ has order d by Lemma 2.2.16. Since d divides n, $A(n) \supseteq \langle a^{m/d} \rangle$, proving (1).
- (2) and (3): By Theorem 2.3.12 (a), $A/A(n) \cong A^n$. From Part (1) and Lagrange's Theorem (Corollary 2.2.12), we get (2). From Part (2) and Lagrange's Theorem, we get (3).

LEMMA 2.8.4. Let A and B be abelian groups and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then the following are true.

- (1) $(A \times B)(n) = A(n) \times B(n)$.
- (2) $(A \times B)^n = A^n \times B^n$.

PROOF. Let (a, b) be a typical element in $A \times B$. Part (2) follows immediately from the identity $(a, b)^n = (a^n, b^n)$. Part (1) follows from $(A \times B)(n) = \{(a, b) \mid (a, b)^n = (e, e)\} = \{(a, b) \mid a^n = e \text{ and } b^n = e\} = A(n) \times B(n)$.

LEMMA 2.8.5. Let A be a finite abelian group, p a prime, $r \in \mathbb{N}$, and assume p^r is the highest power of p that divides |A|. Then $A(p^r)$ is equal to the p-Sylow subgroup of A.

PROOF. Since A is abelian, every subgroup is normal and by Corollary 2.7.6, A has a unique p-Sylow subgroup. Call it P. Then $|P| = p^r$. If $x \in P$, then |x| divides p^r by Corollary 2.2.17. As a set, $A(p^r)$ consists of those elements $x \in A$ whose order

divides p^r . Therefore, $P \subseteq A(p^r)$. If $x \in A(p^r)$, then by Exercise 2.7.10, x is in P. Therefore, $A(p^r) \subseteq P$.

8.2. The Basis Theorem.

Theorem 2.8.6. Every finite abelian group G is isomorphic to an internal direct product of cyclic groups.

PROOF. Since G is abelian, every subgroup of G is normal. It follows from Proposition 2.7.8 that G is isomorphic to the internal direct product of its Sylow subgroups. Therefore, it suffices to prove the theorem for a finite p-group. From now on, assume p is a prime and $[G:e]=p^n$, for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

The proof is by Mathematical Induction on n. If n=1, then $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/p$ is cyclic. Assume inductively that n>1 and that the theorem is true for all abelian groups of order p^i where 0 < i < n.

Let $a \in G$ be an element of maximal order. If $|a| = p^n$, then $G = \langle a \rangle$ is cyclic and we are done. Assume $|a| = p^{\alpha}$, where $1 \leq \alpha < n$. Set $A = \langle a \rangle$. Look at the quotient G/A. We have $|G/A| = [G:A] = p^{n-\alpha}$. By our induction hypothesis, G/A is an internal direct product of cyclic groups. That is, there exist $b_1, \ldots, b_m \in G$ such that

(8.1)
$$G/A = \langle [b_1] \rangle \times \cdots \times \langle [b_m] \rangle$$

where we write $[b_i]$ for the left coset b_iA . Assume the order of $[b_i]$ in G/A is p^{β_i} . By Exercise 2.3.40, p^{β_i} divides the order of b_i in G. Since |a| is maximal, $\alpha \geq \beta_i$ for each i. Because $(b_iA)^{p^{\beta_i}} = A$, $b_i^{p^{\beta_i}} \in A$. Therefore $b_i^{p^{\beta_i}} = a^{k_i}$ for some k_i . Because the order of every element of G divides p^{α} , we have

$$\left(a^{k_i}\right)^{p^{\alpha-\beta_i}} = \left(b_i^{p^{\beta_i}}\right)^{p^{\alpha-\beta_i}} = b_i^{p^{\alpha}} = e.$$

It follows that p^{α} divides $k_i p^{\alpha-\beta_i}$. Hence p^{β_i} divides k_i . Write $k_i = \ell_i p^{\beta_i}$. Set $a_i = b_i a^{-\ell_i}$. Then

$$a_i^{p^{\beta_i}} = (b_i a^{-\ell_i})^{p^{\beta_i}} = b_i^{p^{\beta_i}} a^{-\ell_i p^{\beta_i}} = a^{k_i} a^{-k_i} = e$$

which implies $|a_i| \leq p^{\beta_i}$. Set $A_i = \langle a_i \rangle$. To finish the proof, we show that G is the internal direct product of A, A_1, \ldots, A_m . Let $x \in G$ be an arbitrary element of G. In G/A we can write the coset xA as a product $b_1^{e_1}A \cdots b_m^{e_m}A$. Since $b_iA = a_iA$, we see that $x = a_1^{e_1} \cdots a_m^{e_m}a^{e_0}$, for some $e_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$. This proves that $G = AA_1 \cdots A_m$.

Suppose $e = a^{e_0} a_1^{e_1} \cdots a_m^{e_m}$. In G/A we have $[e] = [a_1]^{e_1} \cdots [a_m]^{e_m} = [b_1]^{e_1} \cdots [b_m]^{e_m}$. As in Eq. (8.1), G/A is a direct product so $[b_i]^{e_i} = [e]$ for each i. So p^{β_i} divides e_i for each i. Therefore, $a_i^{e_i} = e$ for each i. It follows that $e = a^{e_0}$, hence e has a unique representation.

Theorem 2.8.7. (Basis Theorem for Finite Abelian Groups) Let G be an abelian group of finite order. Then the following are true.

- (1) G is the internal direct product of its Sylow subgroups.
- (2) If p is a prime factor of |G| and P is the unique p-Sylow subgroup of G, then there exist a_1, \ldots, a_m in P such that P is the internal direct product of the cyclic subgroups $\langle a_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle a_m \rangle$, the order of a_i is equal to p^{e_i} , and $e_1 \geq e_2 \geq \cdots \geq e_m$.
- (3) G is uniquely determined by the prime factors p of |G| and the integers e_i that occur in (2).

The prime powers p^{e_i} that occur in (3) are called the invariants of G. Notice that if $|P| = p^n$, then $n = e_1 + \cdots + e_m$ is a partition of the integer n.

PROOF. Part (1) follows from Proposition 2.7.8. Part (2) follows from Theorem 2.8.6.

(3): Let A and B be finite abelian groups. First we prove that if $\phi: A \to B$ is an isomorphism, then A and B have the same invariants. Because ϕ is a oneto-one correspondence, |A| = |B|. Let p be a prime that divides |A| (and |B|). By Lemmas 2.8.5 and 2.8.1, the p-Sylow subgroups of A and B are isomorphic. Using Theorem 2.8.6 we can suppose the p-Sylow subgroup of A is the internal direct product of A_1, \ldots, A_m where $A_i = \langle a_i \rangle, |a_i| = p^{e_i}, \text{ and } e_1 \geq e_2 \geq \cdots \geq e_n$ $e_m \geq 1$. Likewise, assume the p-Sylow subgroup of B is the internal direct product of B_1, \ldots, B_n where $B_i = \langle b_i \rangle, |b_i| = p^{f_i}$, and $f_1 \geq f_2 \geq \cdots \geq f_n \geq 1$. We have $A_1 \times \cdots \times A_m \cong B_1 \times \cdots \times B_n$. Multiply by p and apply Lemmas 2.8.1, 2.8.3 and 2.8.4 to get $(A_1 \times \cdots \times A_m)(p) \cong A_1(p) \times \cdots \times A_m(p)$ is a direct product of cyclic groups of order p, has order p^m , and is isomorphic to $(B_1 \times \cdots \times B_n)(p) \cong B_1(p) \times \cdots \times B_n(p)$ which has order p^n . Therefore m=n. Inductively, assume the uniqueness claim is true for any finite p-group of order less than $p^{e_1+\cdots+e_m}$. By Lemma 2.8.3, the invariants of $(A_1 \times \cdots \times A_m)^p = A_1^p \times \cdots \times A_m^p$ are $e_1 - 1 \ge \cdots \ge e_m - 1$ and the invariants of $(B_1 \times \cdots \times B_m)^p = B_1^p \times \cdots \times B_m^p$ are $f_1 - 1 \ge \cdots \ge f_m - 1$. By induction, $e_i = f_i$ for each i.

For the converse, suppose we are given the cyclic groups $A_1, \ldots, A_m, B_1, \ldots, B_n$, where $|A_i| = p^{e_i}$ for each i, and $|B_j| = p^{f_i}$ for each j. If m = n and $e_i = f_i$ for each i, then clearly $A_i \cong B_i$ for each i and we have $A_1 \times \cdots \times A_m \cong B_1 \times \cdots \times B_m$. \square

8.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 2.8.8. Let G, + be an abelian group. Using Exercise 2.3.16, show that an n-tuple $A \in (a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ defines a homomorphism $A : G^n \to G$ by the rule $A(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i$.

EXERCISE 2.8.9. Let $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$. Show that the direct product $\mathbb{Z}/m \times \mathbb{Z}/n$ is cyclic if and only if $\gcd(m,n)=1$.

EXERCISE 2.8.10. Let G be a finite abelian group. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) G is cyclic.
- (2) For every prime factor p of |G|, the p-Sylow subgroup of G is cyclic.
- (3) For every prime factor p of |G|, G(p) (see Exercise 2.3.16 for this notation) is cyclic.
- (4) For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the order of G(n) is at most n.
- (5) For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the equation $x^n = e$ has at most n solutions in G.

EXERCISE 2.8.11. Let A and B be abelian groups written additively. The set of all homomorphisms from A to B is denoted Hom(A,B).

- (1) If $f, g \in \text{Hom}(A, B)$, then f + g is the function defined by the rule: (f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x). Show that this additive binary operation makes Hom(A, B) into an abelian group.
- (2) Now consider the case where A = B. Show that composition of functions defines a binary operation on Hom(A, A) satisfying the following.
 - (a) f(gh) = (fg)h for all f, g, h in Hom(A, A). In other words, composition of functions is associative.

(b) f(g+h) = fg+fh and (f+g)h = fh+gh for all f,g,h in Hom(A,A). In other words, composition distributes over addition.

Together with the two binary operations of addition and composition of endomorphisms, we call Hom(A, A) the ring of endomorphism of A.

EXERCISE 2.8.12. Let $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ be positive integers. Show that the abelian group $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/m, \mathbb{Z}/n)$ is a cyclic group of order $\gcd(m, n)$. (Hints: Exercises 2.8.11 and 2.4.20.)

EXERCISE 2.8.13. If p is a prime, and $n \ge 1$, compute the following:

- (1) Let $G = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{Z}/2 = \mathbb{Z}/2 \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/2$ be the direct product of n copies of $\mathbb{Z}/2$. How many subgroups of order 2 are there in G?
- (2) Let $G = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{Z}/p = \mathbb{Z}/p \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/p$ be the direct product of n copies of \mathbb{Z}/p . How many elements of order p are there in G? How many subgroups of order p are there in G?
- (3) Let $G = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{Z}/p^{e_i} = \mathbb{Z}/p^{e_1} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/p^{e_n}$ where $e_i \geq 1$ for each i. How many elements of order p are there in G? How many subgroups of order p are there in G?

EXERCISE 2.8.14. Show that if G is a finite group of order at least three, then Aut(G) has order at least two.

9. Classification of Finite Groups

This section consists of computations and applications of the theorems from the previous sections. The examples presented here are not only intended to classify all groups of a given order, but to illustrate the various theorems of Group Theory.

9.1. Groups of order 12. We show in this example that up to isomorphism there are exactly five groups of order 12. Let G be a finite group of order $12 = 2^2 \cdot 3$. Let P be a 2-Sylow subgroup. Then P is either $\langle a \mid a^4 = e \rangle$, a cyclic group of order 4, or P is $\langle a,b \mid a^2 = b^2 = e,ab = ba \rangle$, an isomorphic copy of the Klein four group. In both cases P is abelian. By Theorem 2.7.7, the number of conjugates of P is odd and divides 3, hence P has either 1 or 3 conjugates. Let Q be a 3-Sylow subgroup. By Theorem 2.7.7, the number of conjugates of Q divides 4, hence Q has either 1 or 4 conjugates. We know that $Q = \langle c \mid c^3 = e \rangle$ is cyclic, hence abelian. Since $P \cap Q = \langle e \rangle$, by Theorem 2.2.14 we see that PQ = G. We consider the following four cases.

Case 1: Assume P and Q are both normal in G. By Theorem 2.7.8, G is the internal direct product of P and Q, hence G is abelian. By Theorem 2.8.7, G is isomorphic to either

$$\mathbb{Z}/3 \times \mathbb{Z}/4$$

or

$$\mathbb{Z}/3 \times \mathbb{Z}/2 \times \mathbb{Z}/2$$
.

Case 2: Assume P is normal and Q has 4 conjugates. Then Q acts by conjugation on P and there is a homomorphism $\theta: Q \to \operatorname{Aut}(P)$, where $\theta(c) = \alpha_{c^{-1}}$ is conjugation by c^{-1} . By Exercise 2.4.18, G is isomorphic to $P \rtimes Q$, the semidirect product of P and Q.

There are two subcases to consider. If $P = \langle a \rangle$ is cyclic, then $\operatorname{Aut}(P) \cong U_4$ is a group of order two, by Theorem 2.3.27. Since Q has order three, in this case im $\theta = \langle e \rangle$. Then $\operatorname{cac}^{-1} = a$, hence G must be abelian. In this case, G is the first group of

Case 1. If P is $\langle a, b \mid a^2 = b^2 = e, ab = ba \rangle$, then $\operatorname{Aut}(P)$ is isomorphic to $\operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/2)$. This will be proved in Proposition 4.4.13. By Example 2.1.20, $\operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/2) \cong S_3$. There are two elements of order 3 in S_3 . One element of order three in $\operatorname{Aut}(P)$ is the cyclic permutation π defined by $a \mapsto b \mapsto ab \mapsto a$. The other element of order three is π^{-1} . Therefore, if $\theta(c) = \pi$, then $\theta(c^{-1}) = \pi^{-1}$. Since Q is generated by either c, or c^{-1} , without loss of generality we assume $\theta(c) = \pi$. Then $cac^{-1} = b$ and $cbc^{-1} = ab$. The semidirect product $P \rtimes Q$ has presentation in terms of generators and relations

$$\langle a, b, c \mid a^2 = b^2 = c^3 = e, ab = ba, cac^{-1} = b, cbc^{-1} = ab \rangle$$

This group is isomorphic to A_4 by the map defined by $a \mapsto (12)(34)$, $b \mapsto (14)(23)$, $c \mapsto (123)$. The reader should verify that (123)(12)(34)(132) = (14)(23), (123)(14)(23)(132) = (13)(24), and (123)(13)(24)(132) = (12)(34).

Case 3: Assume P has 3 conjugates and Q is normal. Then P acts on Q by conjugation and there is a homomorphism $\theta: P \to \operatorname{Aut}(Q)$. Then G is the semidirect product $Q \rtimes P$. By Theorem 2.3.27, $\operatorname{Aut}(Q) \cong U_3$ is a group of order 2. The automorphism of order two is defined by $c \mapsto c^{-1}$. There are two subcases to consider. If $P = \langle a \rangle$ is cyclic, then there is one nontrivial possibility for θ . In this case, $aca^{-1} = c^{-1}$. The presentation of the semidirect product in terms of generators and relations is

$$\langle a, c \mid a^4 = c^3 = e, aca^{-1} = c^{-1} \rangle.$$

If P is $\langle a,b \mid a^2=b^2=e,ab=ba \rangle$, then there are three subgroups of order two, hence three possible homomorphisms from P onto $\operatorname{Aut}(Q)$. Therefore, one of a,b,ab commutes with c. Since P is generated by any two of the three, without loss of generality we assume $aca=c^{-1}$ and bcb=c. The semidirect product is described by

$$\langle a, b, c \mid a^2 = b^2 = c^3 = e, ab = ba, aca = c^{-1}, bc = cb \rangle.$$

This group is isomorphic to D_6 the element bc has order 6, and $a(bc)a = (bc)^{-1}$. Another way to view this group is as the internal direct product $\langle b \rangle \times \langle a, c \rangle$ which is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/2 \times D_3$.

Case 4: Assume P has 3 conjugates and Q has 4 conjugates. Counting elements we find that each subgroup of order 3 has 2 elements of order 3. Therefore, G has 8 elements of order 3. The subgroup P has 4 elements. Since P is not normal, the group G has more than 12 elements, which is a contradiction. Case 4 cannot occur.

9.2. Groups of order 30. In this example we show that up to isomorphism there are exactly 4 groups of order 30. Let G be a group of order $30 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$. Using Theorems 2.7.8 and 2.5.2 we see that if G is abelian, then G is cyclic. Let P be a 2-Sylow subgroup of G, Q a 3-Sylow subgroup, and R a 5-Sylow subgroup. By Theorem 2.7.7, Q is either normal or has 10 conjugates. The number of conjugates of R is either 1 or 6. By counting elements, we see that if G has 6 subgroups of order 5 then there are 24 elements of order 5. If G has 10 subgroups of order 3, then this includes 20 elements of order 3. Since |G| = 30, this implies either Q is normal or R is normal. By Exercise 2.3.18, QR is a subgroup of G. Since $Q \cap R = \langle e \rangle$, by Theorem 2.2.14, |QR| = 15. Since [G:QR] = 2, Exercise 2.3.17, implies QR is normal in G. By Theorem 2.5.2, QR is cyclic. Write $QR = \langle b \rangle$. Then P acts by conjugation on QR and there is a homomorphism $\theta: P \to \operatorname{Aut}(QR) \cong U_{15}$. The image of θ has order 1 or 2. The group U_{15} has order $\phi(15) = 8$. The reader

should verify that there are 4 elements in U_{15} that satisfy $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{15}$, they are 1, 4, -1, -4. Therefore, if $P = \langle a \rangle$, then $aba = b^s$, where $s \in \{1, 4, -1, -4\}$. Thus G is the semidirect product $QR \rtimes P$. The presentation in terms of generators and relations is

(9.1)
$$G = \langle a, b \mid a^2 = b^{15} = e, aba = b^s \rangle$$

where $s \in \{1, 4, -1, -4\}$. If s = 1, then a commutes with b, and G is abelian. If s = -1, then G is isomorphic to D_{15} . By Example 2.3.32, the center of D_{15} is $\langle e \rangle$.

If s=4, then because $ab^5a=b^{20}=b^5$ we see that the center of G contains b^5 , an element of order 3. Then $G/\langle b^5\rangle$ has presentation $\langle a,b \mid a^2=b^5=e,aba=b^4\rangle$ which is isomorphic to D_5 . Since the center of D_5 is trivial, this proves the center of G is $Z=\langle b^5\rangle$. Since $ab^3a=b^{12}=b^{-3}$ we see that the subgroup $D=\langle a,b^3\rangle$ has order 10 and is isomorphic to D_5 . generated by a and b^3 . Using Exercise 2.5.19, we see that G is the internal direct product $D\times Z$, hence G is isomorphic to $D_5\times \mathbb{Z}/3$.

If s=-4, then because $ab^3a=b^{-12}=b^3$ we see that the center of G contains b^3 , an element of order 5. Then $G/\langle b^3 \rangle$ has presentation $\langle a,b \mid a^2=b^3=e,aba=b^{-1}\rangle$ which is isomorphic to D_3 . Since the center of D_3 is trivial, this proves the center of G is $Z=\langle b^3 \rangle$. Since $ab^5a=b^{-20}=b^{-5}$ we see that the subgroup $D=\langle a,b^5\rangle$ has order 6 and is isomorphic to D_3 . Using Exercise 2.5.19, we see that G is the internal direct product $D\times Z$, hence G is isomorphic to $D_3\times \mathbb{Z}/5$.

This proves that in (9.1) the four values of s give rise to four groups that are pairwise nonisomorphic.

9.3. Groups of order 63. We show in this example that up to isomorphism there are exactly four groups of order 63. Let G be a finite group of order $63 = 7 \cdot 3^2$. If G is abelian, then by Theorem 2.8.7, G is isomorphic to either $\mathbb{Z}/7 \times \mathbb{Z}/9$, or $\mathbb{Z}/7 \times \mathbb{Z}/3 \times \mathbb{Z}/3$. Assume from now on that G is nonabelian. Let P be a 7-Sylow subgroup. The number of conjugates of P divides 9 and is of the form 1 + 7k. Therefore, we conclude that k = 0 and P is normal. Let Q be a 3-Sylow subgroup. We know that Q is abelian. Since $P \cap Q = \langle e \rangle$, by Theorem 2.2.14 we see that PQ = G. By Exercise 2.4.18, $G = P \rtimes Q$ and the action by Q on P is conjugation. By Example 2.4.8, the homomorphism

$$\theta: Q \to \operatorname{Aut}(P) \cong U_7$$

is defined by $\theta(x) = \alpha_{x^{-1}}$, where $\alpha_{x^{-1}}$ is the inner automorphism of P corresponding to conjugation by x^{-1} . If the image of θ is $\langle 1 \rangle$, then every element of Q commutes with every element of P and G is abelian. By our assumption, we can assume θ is not the trivial map. By Theorem 2.3.27, $\operatorname{Aut}(P) \cong U_7$ which is an abelian group of order $\phi(7) = 6$, hence is cyclic. Since Q has order 9, this implies $\ker(\theta)$ has order 3, and $\operatorname{im}(\theta)$ has order 3. Let $P = \langle a \rangle$. There are two cases.

Case 1: $Q = \langle b \rangle$ is cyclic. Then θ maps b to $\alpha_{b^{-1}}$, the inner automorphism defined by b^{-1} , which is an element of order 3 in U_7 . There are two elements of order 3 in U_7 , namely [2] and [4]. Therefore, $bab^{-1} = a^i$ where i = 2 or 4. Notice that $|b^2| = 9$ so $Q = \langle b^2 \rangle$. Since $b^2ab^{-2} = a^{2i}$, without loss of generality we can replace b with b^2 if necessary and assume i = 2. Then in this case,

$$G = \langle a, b \mid a^7 = b^9 = e, bab^{-1} = a^2 \rangle$$

is the presentation of G in terms of generators and relations.

Case 2: Q is a direct sum of two cyclic groups of order 3. Suppose $\ker(\theta) = \langle c \rangle$ and $b \in Q - \langle c \rangle$. Then $Q = \langle b, c \rangle$. As in Case 1, $bab^{-1} = a^i$ where i = 2 or 4.

Again, we can replace b with b^{-1} if necessary and assume $bab^{-1} = a^2$. Then in this case,

$$G = \langle a, b, c \mid a^7 = b^3 = c^3 = e, bc = cb, bab^{-1} = a^2, cac^{-1} = a \rangle$$

is the presentation of G.

For a continuation of this example, see Exercise 2.9.1.

9.4. Groups of order 171. We show in this example that up to isomorphism there are exactly five groups of order 171. Let G be a finite group of order 171 = $19 \cdot 3^2$. If G is abelian, then by Theorem 2.8.7, G is isomorphic to either $\mathbb{Z}/19 \times \mathbb{Z}/9$, or $\mathbb{Z}/19 \times \mathbb{Z}/3 \times \mathbb{Z}/3$. Assume from now on that G is nonabelian. Let P be a 19-Sylow subgroup. Then $P = \langle a \rangle$ is cyclic. The number of conjugates of P divides 9 and is of the form 1+19k. Therefore, we conclude that k=0 and P is normal. Let Q be a 3-Sylow subgroup. We know that Q is abelian. Since $P \cap Q = \langle e \rangle$, by Theorem 2.2.14 we see that PQ = G. By Exercise 2.4.18, $G = P \times Q$ and the action by Q on P is conjugation. By Example 2.4.8, the homomorphism

$$\theta: Q \to \operatorname{Aut}(P) \cong U_{19}$$

is defined by $\theta(x) = \alpha_{x^{-1}}$, where $\alpha_{x^{-1}}$ is the inner automorphism of P corresponding to conjugation by x^{-1} . If the image of θ is $\langle 1 \rangle$, then every element of Q commutes with every element of P and G is abelian. By our assumption, we can assume θ is not the trivial map. By Theorem 2.3.27, $\operatorname{Aut}(P) \cong U_{19}$ which is an abelian group of order $\phi(19) = 18$. Since Q has order 9, this implies $\ker(\theta)$ has order 1 or 3, and $\operatorname{im}(\theta)$ has order 3 or 9. A direct computation shows that U_{19} is cyclic and has 6 elements of order 9, namely [4], [5], [6], [9], [16], and [17]. The 2 elements of order 3 are [7] and [11]. There are three cases.

Case 1: Assume $Q = \langle b \rangle$ is cyclic and im θ has order 9. Then θ maps Q isomorphically onto the subgroup of order 9 in Aut(P). If necessary, we replace b with the generator of Q that maps to $[4] \in U_{19}$. We have $bab^{-1} = a^4$. The presentation of G in terms of generators and relations is

$$G = \langle a, b \mid a^{19} = b^9 = e, bab^{-1} = a^4 \rangle.$$

Case 2: Assume $Q = \langle b \rangle$ is cyclic and im θ has order 3. Then the kernel of θ is the cyclic subgroup of order 3. Under θ , an element of order 9 is mapped onto one of the elements of order 3. If necessary, we replace b with a generator of Q that maps to $[7] \in U_{19}$. We have $bab^{-1} = a^7$. The presentation of G in terms of generators and relations is

$$G = \langle a, b \mid a^{19} = b^9 = e, bab^{-1} = a^7 \rangle.$$

Case 3: Assume Q is a direct sum of two cyclic groups of order 3. Since U_{19} has a unique subgroup of order 3, the kernel of θ is a group of order 3. Suppose $\ker(\theta) = \langle c \rangle$. Because the image of θ contains both [7] and [11], we pick $b \in Q - \langle c \rangle$ such that $\theta(b) = [7]$. Then $Q = \langle b, c \rangle$, $cac^{-1} = a$, and $bab^{-1} = a^7$. Then in this case,

$$G = \langle a, b, c \mid a^{19} = b^3 = c^3 = e, bc = cb, bab^{-1} = a^7, cac^{-1} = a \rangle$$

is the presentation of G.

9.5. Groups of order 225. In this example we show that there are at least six nonisomorphic groups of order 225. We show how to construct two nonisomorphic nonabelian groups of order $225 = 3^25^2$. Let G denote a group of order 225. Let P be a 5-Sylow subgroup of G. By Theorem 2.7.7, the number of conjugates of P divides 9 and is congruent to 1 modulo 5. We conclude that P is normal in G. Let Q be a 3-Sylow subgroup of G. The number of conjugates of Q divides 25 and is congruent to 1 modulo 3. Therefore, either Q is normal in G, or G has 25 conjugates. By Theorem 2.7.1 (2), both G and G are abelian.

Case 1: Assume P and Q are both normal in G. By Theorem 2.7.8, G is the internal direct product of P and Q, hence G is abelian. By Theorem 2.8.7, G is isomorphic to either

or
$$\mathbb{Z}/9\times\mathbb{Z}/25$$
 or
$$\mathbb{Z}/9\times\mathbb{Z}/5\times\mathbb{Z}/5$$
 or
$$\mathbb{Z}/3\times\mathbb{Z}/3\times\mathbb{Z}/25$$
 or

Case 2: Assume P is normal and Q has 25 conjugates. Then Q acts by conjugation on P and there is a homomorphism of groups $\theta:Q\to \operatorname{Aut}(P)$. There are two subcases to consider.

 $\mathbb{Z}/3 \times \mathbb{Z}/3 \times \mathbb{Z}/5 \times \mathbb{Z}/5$.

Subcase 2.1: Assume P is cyclic. By Theorem 2.3.27, $\operatorname{Aut}(P) \cong U_{25}$ is an abelian group of order $\phi(25) = 20$. Since $\operatorname{Aut}(P)$ has no subgroup of order 3, θ is the trivial homomorphism. Therefore, every element of Q commutes with every element of P. By Exercise 2.5.19, G is the internal direct product of P and Q, hence this case reduces to Case 1.

Subcase 2.2: Assume $P \cong \mathbb{Z}/5 \times \mathbb{Z}/5$. Then $\operatorname{Aut}(P)$ is isomorphic to $\operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/5)$ (we have not proved this yet, it will be proved using properties of Hom and free modules). As seen in Exercise 2.9.5, there are subgroups of order 3 in $\operatorname{Aut}(P)$. Without being more specific, we end this example by showing how to construct two nonisomorphic nonabelian groups of order 225. Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{Aut}(P)$ be an automorphism of P of order 3. There are two cases for Q.

Subcase 2.2.1: Assume $Q = \langle a \mid a^9 = e \rangle$ is cyclic of order 9. Then $a \mapsto \alpha$ induces $\theta : Q \to \operatorname{Aut}(P)$. The kernel of θ has order 3, the image of θ has order 3. Then the semidirect product $P \rtimes Q$ is a nonabelian group of order 225.

Subcase 2.2.2: Assume $Q = \langle a, b \mid a^3 = b^3 = e \rangle$ is a noncyclic group of order 9. Then $a \mapsto \alpha$, $b \mapsto e$ induces $\theta : Q \to \operatorname{Aut}(P)$. The kernel of θ is $\langle b \rangle$, which has order 3, the image of θ is $\langle \alpha \rangle$, which has order 3. Then the semidirect product $P \rtimes Q$ is a nonabelian group of order 225.

9.6. Groups of order p^3 . Let p be an odd prime. In this example we show how to construct a nonabelian group of order p^3 . Let F be the field \mathbb{Z}/p . Let $V = F^2 = \{(x_1, x_2) \mid x_i \in F\}$ where the binary operation on V is written additively. Then V is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/p \times \mathbb{Z}/p$. Let $\theta \in \mathrm{GL}_2(F)$ be the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $\theta^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\theta^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, ..., $\theta^{p-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ p-1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\theta^p = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. This shows that $C = \langle \theta \rangle$ is a cyclic subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}_2(F)$ of order p. Although we have not proved

it yet, using matrices and properties of Hom we will prove that $\operatorname{Aut}(V) \cong \operatorname{GL}_2(F)$. Therefore, the semidirect product $V \rtimes C$ is a nonabelian group of order p^3 containing a normal subgroup isomorphic to V. Before ending this example, we show that every element of the semidirect product has order 1 or p. Let $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$I_{2} + \theta^{i} + \theta^{2i} + \dots + \theta^{(p-1)i} = \begin{bmatrix} p & 0 \\ 0 + i + 2i + \dots + (p-1)i & p \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ ip(p-1)/2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Let $z = (x, \theta^i)$ be a typical element of the semidirect product $V \rtimes C$. Then

$$z^{2} = (x, \theta^{i})(x, \theta^{i}) = (x + \theta^{i}(x), \theta^{2i}) = ((I_{2} + \theta^{i})(x), \theta^{2i})$$

$$z^{3} = ((I_{2} + \theta^{i})(x), \theta^{2i})(x, \theta^{i}) = ((I_{2} + \theta^{i} + \theta^{2i})(x), \theta^{3i})$$

$$\vdots$$

$$z^{p} = ((I_{2} + \theta^{i} + \theta^{2i} + \dots + \theta^{(p-1)i})(x), \theta^{pi}) = (0, I_{2}).$$

This shows z has order 1 or p.

9.7. Exercises.

EXERCISE 2.9.1. This exercise is a continuation of Example 9.3. Let G be a nonabelian group of order 63. Show that G contains a cyclic subgroup N of order 21 and N is normal in G. Show that the center of G is a cyclic group of order 3.

EXERCISE 2.9.2. Classify up to isomorphism all groups of order 99.

EXERCISE 2.9.3. Show that up to isomorphism there are 5 groups of order 8, namely $\mathbb{Z}/8$, $\mathbb{Z}/4 \times \mathbb{Z}/2$, $\mathbb{Z}/2 \times \mathbb{Z}/2 \times \mathbb{Z}/2$, the dihedral group D_4 , and the quaternion 8-group Q_8 .

EXERCISE 2.9.4. (The square roots of unity in $\operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/5)$) The general linear group of 2-by-2 matrices over the field $\mathbb{Z}/5$, denoted $\operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/5)$, is the multiplicative group of invertible matrices $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ with entries in the field $\mathbb{Z}/5$ (see Example 2.1.20). In this exercise the reader is asked to find all matrices M in $\operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/5)$, such that $M^2 = I_2$, where I_2 denotes the identity matrix. The following is a suggested outline to show that there are 31 elements of order two in $\operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/5)$.

- (1) Let $M = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ and assume $M^2 = I_2$. Show that a, b, c, d satisfy the equations: $a^2 d^2 = 0$, $bc = 1 a^2$.
- (2) If a = 0, then M is of the form $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & b \\ b^{-1} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, where b = 1, 2, 3, 4, so there are 4 such matrices.
- (3) If $a = \pm 1$, then M has one of the forms $\pm \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\pm \begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\pm \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ c & -1 \end{bmatrix}$, where b = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, c = 1, 2, 3, 4. There are 20 such matrices, one of them has order 1, the rest order 2.

(4) If $a = \pm 2$, then M has one of the forms $\pm \begin{bmatrix} 2 & b \\ c & -2 \end{bmatrix}$, where bc = 2. There are 8 such matrices.

EXERCISE 2.9.5. (The cube roots of unity in $GL_2(\mathbb{Z}/5)$) The general linear group of 2-by-2 matrices over the field $\mathbb{Z}/5$, denoted $\mathrm{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/5)$, is the multiplicative group of invertible matrices $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ with entries in the field $\mathbb{Z}/5$ (see Example 2.1.20). In this exercise the reader is asked to find all matrices M in $\mathrm{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/5)$, such that $M^3 = I_2$, where I_2 denotes the identity matrix. The following is a three-step outline to show that there are 20 elements of order three in $GL_2(\mathbb{Z}/5)$.

- (1) Let $M = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$. Show that if $M^2 + M + I_2 = 0$, then $M^3 = I_2$. (2) Show that a, b, c, d satisfy the equations: $bc = -(a^2 + a + 1), d = 4 a$.
- (3) Show that there are 5 choices for a and for each a there are 4 choices for the ordered triple (b, c, d).
- (4) This part assumes the reader has basic familiarity with field extensions. Show that every element of order three in the ring of 2-by-2 matrices over the field $\mathbb{Z}/5$ is a root of the polynomial equation $x^2 + x + 1 = 0$. Prove that every element of order 3 in $GL_2(\mathbb{Z}/5)$ is in the list of Part (3).

10. Chain Conditions

10.1. Nilpotent Groups and Solvable Groups.

DEFINITION 2.10.1. Let G be a group. Set $Z^0 = \langle e \rangle$ and $Z^1 = Z(G)$, the center of G. Then $Z^1 = \{x \in G \mid xyx^{-1}y^{-1} \in Z^0 \text{ for all } y \in G\}$. By Exercise 2.3.38, Z^1 is an abelian normal subgroup of G. Inductively assume that $n \geq 1$ and we have the chain of normal subgroups $Z^0 \subseteq Z^1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq Z^n$ in G. Let $\eta_n : G \to G/Z^n$ be the natural map. Then Z^{n+1} is defined by the rules

$$Z^{n+1} = \eta_n^{-1}(Z(G/Z^n))$$

= $\{x \in G \mid xyx^{-1}y^{-1} \in Z^n \text{ for all } y \in G\}.$

By Theorem 2.3.13, Z^{n+1} is a normal subgroup of $G, Z^n \subseteq Z^{n+1}$, and the quotient group Z^{n+1}/Z^n is isomorphic to $Z(G/Z^n)$, hence is abelian. The ascending chain of subgroups $Z^0 \subseteq Z^1 \subseteq Z^2 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq Z^n \subseteq Z^{n+1} \subseteq \cdots$ is called the ascending central series of G.

Definition 2.10.2. Let G be a group. We say G is *nilpotent*, if the ascending central series of G converges to G. That is, if $Z^n = G$ for some $n \ge 1$.

Lemma 2.10.3. Let p be a prime and G a finite p-group. Then G is nilpotent.

PROOF. By Theorem 2.7.1, G has a nontrivial center. If G is abelian, then $Z^1 = G$. Otherwise, $Z^1 \subseteq G$, and the quotient G/Z^1 is a p-group of order less than |G|. Since G is finite, $Z^n = G$ for some $n \ge 1$.

LEMMA 2.10.4. If A and B are groups, then $Z^n(A \times B) = Z^n(A) \times Z^n(B)$.

Proof. The proof is by induction on n. By Exercise 2.3.38, $Z(A \times B) =$ $Z(A) \times Z(B)$, so the result is true for n=1. Assume inductively that $j \geq 1$ and

 $Z^{j}(A \times B) = Z^{j}(A) \times Z^{j}(B)$. By Exercise 2.5.20,

$$\frac{A\times B}{Z^j(A\times B)} = \frac{A\times B}{Z^j(A)\times Z^j(B)} = \frac{A}{Z^j(A)}\times \frac{B}{Z^j(B)}.$$

By Exercises 2.3.38 and 2.5.20,

$$\begin{split} Z\left(\frac{A\times B}{Z^{j}(A\times B)}\right) &= Z\left(\frac{A}{Z^{j}(A)}\times \frac{B}{Z^{j}(B)}\right) \\ &= Z\left(\frac{A}{Z^{j}(A)}\right)\times Z\left(\frac{B}{Z^{j}(B)}\right) \\ &= \frac{Z^{j+1}(A)}{Z^{j}(A)}\times \frac{Z^{j+1}(B)}{Z^{j}(B)} \\ &= \frac{Z^{j+1}(A)\times Z^{j+1}(B)}{Z^{j}(A)\times Z^{j}(B)} \\ &= \frac{Z^{j+1}(A)\times Z^{j+1}(B)}{Z^{j}(A\times B)}. \end{split}$$

This proves $Z^{j+1}(A \times B)/Z^{j}(A \times B) = (Z^{j+1}(A) \times Z^{j+1}(B))/Z^{j}(A \times B)$. It follows from Theorem 2.3.13 that $Z^{j+1}(A \times B) = Z^{j+1}(A) \times Z^{j+1}(B)$. This completes the proof.

Proposition 2.10.5. The direct product of a finite number of nilpotent groups is nilpotent.

PROOF. Let A and B be nilpotent groups. We show that $A \times B$ is nilpotent. A finite induction argument proves the result for a general finite product. By hypothesis, there exists $n \geq 1$ such that $A = Z^m(A)$ and $B = Z^m(B)$. By Lemma $Z^m(A \times B) = Z^m(A) \times Z^m(B) = A \times B$.

LEMMA 2.10.6. Let G be a nilpotent group and H a proper subgroup of G. Then H is a proper subgroup of $H_G(H)$, the normalizer of H in G.

PROOF. For some $n \geq 1$, we are given that $Z^n = G$. Let k be the largest integer such that $Z^k \subseteq H$. Let $a \in Z^{k+1} - H$. Then $aha^{-1} \equiv h \pmod{Z^k}$ implies there exists $z \in Z^k$ such that $aha^{-1} = zh$. But $zh \in H$, hence $a \in H_G(H) - H$. \square

Theorem 2.10.7. Let G be a finite group. Then G is nilpotent if and only if G is the internal direct product of its Sylow subgroups.

PROOF. Assume G is a finite nilpotent group. Let p be a prime divisor of |G| and P a Sylow p-subgroup of G. First we show that P is a normal subgroup of G. By Corollary 2.7.6(3), $N_G(N_G(P)) = N_G(P)$. By Lemma 2.10.6, $N_G(P) = G$. By Proposition 2.4.12, P is a normal subgroup of $N_G(P) = G$. By Proposition 2.7.8, G is the internal direct product of its Sylow subgroups. The converse follows from Lemma 2.10.3 and Proposition 2.10.5.

DEFINITION 2.10.8. Let G be a group. By Exercise 2.3.42, the commutator subgroup of G, denoted G', is the subgroup of G generated by the set $\{xyx^{-1}y^{-1} \mid x,y\in G\}$. Moreover, G' is a normal subgroup of G and the quotient group G/G' is abelian. Set $G^{(0)}=G$ and $G^{(1)}=G'$. Recursively, for $n\geq 1$, define G^{n+1} to be the commutator subgroup of $G^{(n)}$. Then G^{n+1} is a normal subgroup of $G^{(n)}$ and the quotient group $G^{(n)}/G^{(n+1)}$ is an abelian group. The descending chain of

subgroups $G^{(0)} \supseteq G^{(1)} \supseteq G^{(2)} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq G^{(n)} \supseteq G^{(n+1)} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq \langle e \rangle$ is called the derived series of G.

DEFINITION 2.10.9. A group G is said to be *solvable* if there is a descending chain of subgroups $G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq G_m = \langle e \rangle$ starting with G and ending with $\langle e \rangle$ such that for $0 < i \le m$, G_i is a normal subgroup of G_{i-1} and the quotient G_i/G_{i-1} is an abelian group. In this case, we say G_0, G_1, \ldots, G_m is a *solvable series* for G.

Example 2.10.10. It is proved in Theorem 2.7.1 that a finite p-group is solvable.

Example 2.10.11. If G is a finite abelian group, then $\langle e \rangle \subseteq G$ is a solvable series for G.

LEMMA 2.10.12. Let G be a group. If the ascending central series for G converges to G, that is, if there exists $k \ge 1$ such that $Z^k = G$, then G is solvable.

PROOF. Assume the ascending central series $\langle e \rangle = Z^0 \subseteq Z^1 \subseteq Z^2 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq Z^{k-1} \subseteq Z^k = G$ begins at $\langle e \rangle$ and ends at G. Since each quotient Z^{n+1}/Z^n is abelian, this is a solvable series.

Lemma 2.10.13. Let G be a group. Then G has a solvable series if and only if for some $k \geq 1$, the kth derived subgroup $G^{(k)}$ is equal to $\langle e \rangle$. In other words, G is solvable if and only if the derived series converges to $\langle e \rangle$.

PROOF. If $G^{(k)} = \langle e \rangle$, then the derived series is a solvable series. Conversely, assume $G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq G_m = \langle e \rangle$. Since G_1 is a normal subgroup of G and G/G_1 is abelian, by Exercise 2.3.42 (3), $G' \subseteq G_1$. Then $\{aba^{-1}b^{-1} \mid a,b \in G'\}$ is a subset of $\{aba^{-1}b^{-1} \mid a,b \in G_1\}$. So $G^{(2)} = G'' \subseteq G'_1$. But G_2 is a normal subgroup of G_1 and G_1/G_2 is abelian, so $G'_1 \subseteq G_2$. Taken together, we have $G^{(2)} \subseteq G_2$. Iterating this argument shows that $G^{(m)} \subseteq G_m = \langle e \rangle$.

COROLLARY 2.10.14. The symmetric group S_n is solvable if and only if $n \leq 4$.

PROOF. A solvable series for S_3 is $\langle e \rangle \subseteq A_3 = \langle e, (123), (132) \rangle \subseteq S_3$. A solvable series for S_4 is $\langle e \rangle \subseteq \langle e, (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23) \rangle \subseteq A_4 \subseteq S_4$. Let $n \geq 5$ and let $G = S_n$. Since S_n/A_n is cyclic of order two, by Exercise 2.3.42 (3), $G' \subseteq A_n$. Since A_n is nonabelian and simple, $G' = G^{(2)} = A_n$. Therefore, the derived series for G converges to A_n . By Lemma 2.10.13, G is not solvable.

10.2. Composition Series.

Definition 2.10.15. Let G be a group and suppose there is a strictly descending finite chain of subgroups

$$G = G_0 \supsetneq G_1 \supsetneq G_2 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq G_n = \langle e \rangle$$

starting with $G = G_0$ and ending with $G_n = \langle e \rangle$. The *length* of the chain is n. A composition series for G is a chain such that for i = 1, ..., n, G_i is a normal subgroup of G_{i-1} and G_{i-1}/G_i is simple. If G has no composition series, define $\ell(G) = \infty$. Otherwise, let $\ell(G)$ be the minimum of the lengths of all composition series of G.

Lemma 2.10.16. Let G be a finite group. Then G has a composition series.

PROOF. Let G be a finite group of order n. If n=1, there is nothing to prove. If n is a prime number, then $G=G_0\supsetneq G_1=\langle e\rangle$ is a composition series since G is simple. Inductively, assume n>1 is not prime and that a composition series exists for any group of order k, if 1< k< n and $k\mid n$. If G is simple, then $G=G_0\supsetneq G_1=\langle e\rangle$ is a composition series. Otherwise G has a proper normal subgroup N. By our induction hypothesis, G/N has a composition series. By Theorems 2.3.12 and 2.3.13, there is a series $G=G_0\supsetneq G_1\supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq G_{r-1}\supsetneq G_r=N$ such that for $i=1,\ldots,r,$ G_i is a normal subgroup of G_{i-1} and G_{i-1}/G_i is simple. Again by our induction hypothesis, N has a composition series. There is a series $N=N_0\supsetneq N_1\supsetneq N_2\supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq N_s=\langle e\rangle$ such that for $i=1,\ldots,s,$ N_i is a normal subgroup of N_{i-1} and N_{i-1}/N_i is simple. Concatenating the two series,

$$G = G_0 \supsetneq G_1 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq G_{r-1} \supsetneq G_r = N = N_0 \supsetneq N_1 \supsetneq N_2 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq N_s = \langle e \rangle$$
 is a composition series for G .

10.3. Infinite Chains. This short section has only one goal, which is to prove Proposition 2.10.17. It is an application of the Well Ordering Principle (Axiom 1.3.1) and uses transfinite induction. To simplify the statement of the proposition and its proof we use some terminology from the theory of Ordinal Numbers which we define here. For more on this subject the reader is referred to a book on Set Theory, for example [60]. Let I be a well ordered set and $\beta \in I$. As in Section 1.3, denote by $(-\infty, \beta) = \{ \xi \in I \mid \xi < \beta \}$ the segment of I determined by β . We say β has an *immediate predecessor* if the set $(-\infty, \beta)$ contains a maximal element, say α . In this case we write $\beta = \alpha + 1$. This is equivalent to the statement that β is the minimal element of the set $\{\xi \in I \mid \alpha < \xi\}$. The proposition shows that a group G is the union of a chain of subgroups $\{G_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$ indexed by a well ordered set I with the property that for every $\alpha \in I$, the subgroup $G_{\alpha+1}$ is equal to the subgroup of G generated by G_{α} and a single element $x_{\alpha+1}$. The set I and the subgroups making up the chain are not unique. For our purposes the following proposition is sufficient. Nevertheless we remark that if one uses properties of ordinal numbers it is possible to choose I to be minimal among all such ordinals.

PROPOSITION 2.10.17. Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. Then there exists a well ordered set I and a family of subgroups $\{G_{\xi} \mid \xi \in I\}$ satisfying the following.

- (1) If 1 denotes the least element of I, then $G_1 = H$.
- (2) If α and β are in I and $\alpha \leq \beta$, then $H \subseteq G_{\alpha} \subseteq G_{\beta}$.
- (3) For each $\beta \in I$, if β has an immediate predecessor, say α , then there exists $x_{\beta} \in G$ such that G_{β} is the subgroup of G generated by G_{α} and $\{x_{\beta}\}$. If β has no immediate predecessor, then $G_{\beta} = \bigcup_{\xi \in (-\infty,\beta)} G_{\xi}$.
- (4) $G = \bigcup_{\xi \in I} G_{\xi}$.

PROOF. If H=G, then take $I=\{1\},\ G_1=H$, and stop. Otherwise let $X=(G-H)\cup\{e\}$, where e is the identity element of G. By Axiom 1.3.1, there exists a well ordered set I and a function $I\to X$. If $\xi\in I$, then the image of ξ in X will be denoted x_ξ . Without loss of generality, assume the least element of I is 1 and $x_1=e$ and if $1<\xi$, then $x_\xi\neq e$. Set $G_1=H$. The proof is based on Proposition 1.3.2. Assume inductively that $\gamma\in I$, $1<\gamma$, and that we have defined a family of subgroups $\{G_\xi\mid \xi\in (-\infty,\gamma)\}$ satisfying:

(a) If
$$\alpha \leq \beta < \gamma$$
, then $H \subseteq G_{\alpha} \subseteq G_{\beta}$.

(b) If $\beta < \gamma$ and β has an immediate predecessor, say α , then G_{β} is the subgroup of G generated by G_{α} and x_{β} . If β has no immediate predecessor, then $G_{\beta} = \bigcup_{\xi \in (-\infty,\beta)} G_{\xi}$.

To define G_{γ} , there are two cases. If γ has an immediate predecessor, say α , then we define G_{γ} to be the subgroup of G generated by G_{α} and x_{γ} . If γ has no immediate predecessor, then G_{γ} is defined to be $\bigcup_{\xi \in (-\infty, \gamma)} G_{\xi}$, which is a subgroup of G since $\{G_{\xi} \mid \xi \in (-\infty, \gamma)\}$ is a chain of subgroups. By Proposition 1.3.2 this defines $\{G_{\xi} \mid \xi \in I\}$ satisfying properties (1), (2) and (3).

To complete the proof, we show that there exists a chain of subgroups of G that satisfies properties (1) — (4). Let S be the set of all chains of subgroups of G of the form $C = \{G_{\xi} \mid \xi \in I\}$ where I is a well ordered set and properties (1) — (3) are satisfied. By the construction above, S is nonempty. Given a chain $C = \{G_{\xi} \mid \xi \in I\}$ in S, let $G(C) = \bigcup \{G_{\xi} \mid \xi \in I\}$ be the union of the subgroups in C. The usual set containment relation on the sets G(C) defines a partial order on S. That is, if C_1 and C_2 are in S, then $C_1 \leq C_2$ if $G(C_1) \subseteq G(C_2)$. By a Zorn's Lemma argument, S contains a maximal member, say $C = \{G_{\xi} \mid \xi \in I\}$. If $G(C) \neq G$, then we apply the procedure in the first paragraph to get a nontrivial chain of subgroups of G containing G(C) of the form $C_1 = \{K_{\eta} \mid \eta \in J\}$ where J is a well ordered set and if I is the least element of J, then $K_1 = G(C)$. The set I + J is well ordered in the usual way (see Exercise 1.2.25). Combining the two chains C and C_1 gives a chain of subgroups in S that is strictly larger than C, a contradiction. Therefore, C satisfies properties (1) — (4).

10.4. Exercises.

Exercise 2.10.18. Let G be a group. Prove:

- (1) For each $k \geq 1$, the kth derived subgroup, $G^{(k)}$, is a normal subgroup of G.
- (2) If $\theta: G \to H$ is an epimorphism, then $\theta(G^{(k)}) = H^{(k)}$.

EXERCISE 2.10.19. Let G be a solvable group. Prove:

- (1) If H is a subgroup of G, then H is solvable.
- (2) If $\theta: G \to H$ is an epimorphism, then H is solvable.
- (3) Let N be a normal subgroup of G. If N and G/N are solvable, then G is solvable.
- (4) If $G \neq \langle e \rangle$ and G is solvable, then there exists an abelian normal subgroup $A \subseteq G, A \neq \langle e \rangle$.

Exercise 2.10.20. Let $n \geq 3$.

- (1) Show that there is a homomorphism $\theta: D_{2n} \to D_n$ from the dihedral group D_{2n} onto the dihedral group D_n and the kernel of θ is the center of D_{2n} . (Hint: Example 2.3.32.)
- (2) Let 2^m be the highest power of 2 that divides n. Show that the central ascending series of D_n is $Z^{(0)} \subseteq Z^{(1)} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq Z^{(m)}$, where $Z^{(i)} = \langle R^{n/2^i} \rangle$.
- (3) Show that if n is odd, then D_{2n} is the internal direct sum of a cyclic subgroup of order two (the center) and a subgroup isomorphic to D_n .

Exercise 2.10.21. Let G be a finite solvable group. Prove:

(1) If G is abelian and $G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq G_m = \langle e \rangle$ is a composition series, then G_{i-1}/G_i is a cyclic group and $[G_{i-1}, G_i]$ is a prime number.

(2) G has a composition series $G = G_0 \supsetneq G_1 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq G_m = \langle e \rangle$ such that G_{i-1}/G_i is a cyclic group and $[G_{i-1}, G_i]$ is a prime number.

Rings

A ring is an algebraic structure which has two binary operations called addition and multiplication. We have already seen concrete examples of rings. The prototypical example of a ring is the ring of integers, \mathbb{Z} . Its close relative is the ring of integers modulo n, $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$. The fields \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , and \mathbb{C} are rings. The ring of n-by-n matrices $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ is an example of a ring in which multiplication is not commutative. The set of polynomials, the set of rational functions, and the set of power series with coefficients over the field \mathbb{R} are rings. The set of all continuous functions, differentiable functions, and integrable functions from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} are rings. The set of all functions from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} that are continuous at a specific point is a ring. If A is an abelian group, the set of all endomorphisms from A to itself is a ring. Ring Theory can be viewed as the axiomatic abstraction of these examples.

1. Definitions and Terminology

DEFINITION 3.1.1. A ring is a nonempty set R with two binary operations, addition written +, and multiplication written \cdot or by juxtaposition. Under addition (R,+) is an abelian group with identity element 0. Under multiplication (R,\cdot) is associative and contains an identity element, denoted by 1. Multiplication distributes over addition from both the left and the right. If (R,\cdot) is commutative, then we say R is a commutative ring. The trivial ring is $\{0\}$, in which 0=1. Otherwise $0 \neq 1$. If R is not the trivial ring, the reader is asked to prove in Proposition 3.1.2 that $0 \neq 1$.

PROPOSITION 3.1.2. Let R be a ring. Let $a, b \in R$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

- (1) 0a = a0 = 0.
- (2) (-a)b = a(-b) = -(ab).
- (3) (-a)(-b) = ab.
- (4) (na)b = a(nb) = n(ab).
- (5) If $a_1, \ldots, a_s, b_1, \ldots, b_t$ are elements of R, then $(\sum_{i=1}^s a_i)(\sum_{j=1}^t b_j) = \sum_{i=1}^s \sum_{j=1}^t a_i b_j$.

(6) If R contains more than one element, then $0 \neq 1$.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

DEFINITION 3.1.3. Let R be a ring and $a \in R$. We say a is a left zero divisor if $a \neq 0$ and there exists $b \neq 0$ such that ab = 0. We say a is left invertible in case there is $b \in R$ such that ba = 1. The reader should define the terms right zero divisor and right invertible. If a is both a left zero divisor and right zero divisor, then we say a is a zero divisor. If a is both left invertible and right invertible, then we say a is invertible. In this case, the left inverse and right inverse of a are equal and unique (Exercise 2.1.22(2)). An invertible element in a ring R is also called

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a unit of R. If $R \neq (0)$ and R has no zero divisors, then we say R is a domain. A commutative domain is called an integral domain. A domain in which every nonzero element is invertible is called a division ring. A commutative division ring is called a field. The set of all invertible elements in a ring R is a group which is denoted Units(R) or R^* and is called the group of units in R.

REMARK 3.1.4. Notice that in Definition 3.1.3, we have explicitly required a domain to have at least two elements. The only ring with order one is the trivial ring (0). In Example 3.2.5 (4) we see that (0) plays the role of a terminal object in the category of rings. Besides this, there is no significant result that can be proved about the ring (0). It has no proper ideals, is not a subring of any larger ring, and there is no nontrivial module or algebra over (0).

Example 3.1.5. Standard examples of rings and fields are listed here.

- (1) The ring of integers \mathbb{Z} is an integral domain. The ring of integers modulo n, denoted $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$, is a commutative ring containing n elements.
- (2) Denote by \mathbb{Q} the field of rational numbers, by \mathbb{R} the field of real numbers and by \mathbb{C} the field of complex numbers (see Section 1.5).
- (3) If k is a field and $n \ge 1$, the ring of n-by-n matrices over k is denoted by $M_n(k)$. If n > 1, then $M_n(k)$ is noncommutative. We assume the reader is familiar with the basic properties for multiplication of matrices over an arbitrary field. In particular, multiplication of matrices is associative and distributes over addition. The proof is tedious but elementary. If R is any ring, then the ring of n-by-n matrices over R is denoted by $M_n(R)$. We will prove in Corollary 4.4.12 below that $M_n(R)$ is a ring.

EXAMPLE 3.1.6. Let R be a commutative ring and G a finite multiplicative group. Assume the order of G is n and enumerate the elements $G = \{g_1, \ldots, g_n\}$, starting with the group identity $g_1 = e$. Let R(G) be the set of all formal sums

$$R(G) = \{r_1g_1 + \dots + r_ng_n \mid r_i \in R\}.$$

Define addition and multiplication rules on R(G) by

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i g_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} s_i g_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (r_i + s_i) g_i$$
$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i g_i\right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} s_i g_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (r_i s_j) (g_i g_j)$$

The additive identity is $0 = 0g_1 + 0g_2 + \cdots + 0g_n$. The multiplicative identity is $1 = 1g_1 + 0g_2 + \cdots + 0g_n$. Then R(G) is a ring. We call R(G) a group ring.

If R is a commutative ring and G is a group which is not necessarily finite, we can still define the group ring R(G). In this case, take R(G) to be the set of all finite formal sums

$$R(G) = \left\{ \sum_{g \in G} r_g g \mid r_g \in R \text{ and } r_g = 0 \text{ for all but finitely many } g \right\}.$$

If $g \in G$, then in R(G) we have the identity $gg^{-1} = g^{-1}g = 1$. Therefore, we can view G as a subgroup of the group of units in the group ring R(G).

EXAMPLE 3.1.7. If A is an abelian group, let Hom(A, A) be the set of all homomorphisms from A to A. By Exercise 2.8.11, Hom(A, A) is a ring with binary operations coordinate-wise addition and composition of functions:

$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$$
$$(fg)(x) = f(g(x)).$$

In Exercises 3.1.17 and 3.1.18 the reader is asked to prove $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z},\mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/n,\mathbb{Z}/n) \cong \mathbb{Z}/n$.

DEFINITION 3.1.8. If R is any ring, the opposite ring of R is denoted R^o . As an additive abelian group, the opposite ring of R is equal to R. However, the multiplication of R^o is reversed from that of R. Writing the multiplication of R by juxtaposition and multiplication of R^o with the asterisk symbol, we have x*y = yx.

Example 3.1.9. Let R be a ring and R^o the opposite ring.

- (1) See Exercise 7.6.26 for an example of a ring R which is not isomorphic to R^o .
- (2) In Exercise 3.2.39 the reader is asked to prove that any group ring is isomorphic to its opposite ring.
- (3) In Exercise 4.4.29 the reader is asked to prove that the ring of matrices over a commutative ring is isomorphic to its opposite ring.
- (4) The set of all so-called Azumaya algebras is an important class of rings R for which R and R^o are in general not isomorphic. If R is an Azumaya algebra, then R^o represents the inverse of R in the Brauer group. So unless the Brauer class of R is annihilated by two, R and R^o are not isomorphic. The interested reader is referred to [20] for an introduction to this subject.

DEFINITION 3.1.10. If A is a ring and $B \subseteq A$, then we say B is a *subring* of A if B contains both 0 and 1 and B is a ring under the addition and multiplication rules of A. Let A be a ring. The *center* of A is the set

$$Z(A) = \{ x \in A \mid xy = yx \, (\forall y \in A) \}.$$

The reader should verify that Z(A) is a subring of A and Z(A) is a commutative ring. If $x \in Z(R)$, then we say x is *central*.

EXAMPLE 3.1.11. Let $R = \mathbb{Z}/6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ be the ring of integers modulo 6. Let $B = \{0, 2, 4\}$ and $C = \{0, 3\}$. The reader should verify that B is a ring of order 3. In fact, B is isomorphic to the field $\mathbb{Z}/3$. Since B does not contain 1, B is not a subring of B. Likewise, C is a ring, isomorphic to the field $\mathbb{Z}/2$, but C is not a subring of B. The sets B and C are examples of ideals (see Example 3.2.2).

EXAMPLE 3.1.12. If n > 1, then the additive group $(\mathbb{Z}/n, +)$ is generated by 1. Therefore, the ring \mathbb{Z}/n has no proper subring. For the same reason, the ring \mathbb{Z} has no proper subring.

EXAMPLE 3.1.13. Let R be any ring and $M_n(R)$ the ring of n-by-n matrices over R, where $n \geq 2$. The set

$$L = \{ (r_{ij}) \mid r_{ij} = 0 \text{ if } i < j \}$$

of all lower triangular matrices is a noncommutative subring of $M_n(R)$. Likewise, the set of all upper triangular matrices is a noncommutative subring of $M_n(R)$. See Example 3.3.11 for a continuation of this example when R is a field and n = 2.

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EXAMPLE 3.1.14. Let R be a commutative ring and $M_2(R)$ the ring of two-bytwo matrices over R. The proof given in Example 2.3.34 can be readily adapted to show that the center of the ring $M_2(R)$ is equal to the set of scalar matrices $\left\{\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} \mid a \in R\right\}$. Let $n \geq 2$. Using a different proof, we show that the center of the ring $M_n(R)$ is equal to the set of scalar matrices over R. Let $A = (a_{ij})$ be a central matrix. For each ordered pair (i,j), where $1 \leq i,j \leq n$, let e_{ij} be the elementary matrix with 1 in position (i,j) and 0 elsewhere. In the following, we use the following notation: $C_i(A)$ denotes column i of A, $R_j(A)$ denotes row j of A, and $M_{rs}(0)$ denotes the r-by-s matrix with 0 in every position. Then

$$e_{ij}A = \begin{pmatrix} M_{i-1,n}(0) \\ R_j(A) \\ M_{n-i,n}(0) \end{pmatrix}.$$

In words, row i of $e_{ij}A$ is equal to row j of A and all other entries of $e_{ij}A$ are equal to 0. Also,

$$Ae_{ij} = (M_{n,j-1}(0) \quad C_i(A) \quad M_{n,n-j}(0)).$$

In words, column j of Ae_{ij} is equal to column i of A and all other entries of $e_{ij}A$ are equal to 0. Since A commutes with e_{ij} , we conclude that all elements of A that are not on the diagonal are equal to 0. If we assume $i \neq j$, this also means $a_{jj} = a_{ii}$. Therefore, A is a scalar matrix. It is routine to check that a scalar matrix is central.

EXAMPLE 3.1.15. If F is a field the ring of quaternions over F is the four-dimensional vector space over F with basis $\{1, i, j, k\}$ with multiplication defined by extending these relations:

$$i^{2} = j^{2} = k^{2} = -1$$
$$ij = -ji = k$$
$$ik = -ki = -j$$

by associativity and distributivity. We denote the ring of quaternions by $\mathbb{H}(F)$, or \mathbb{H}_F . Notice that under multiplication the set $\{1,-1,i,-i,j,-j,k,-k\}$ is Q_8 , the quaternion 8-group of Example 2.1.18. The ring of quaternions \mathbb{H}_F is a division ring if F is equal to either \mathbb{Q} or \mathbb{R} (Exercise 3.1.19). The ring of quaternions $\mathbb{H}(\mathbb{Z})$ is isomorphic to $M_2(\mathbb{C})$ (Exercise 3.1.21). The ring of quaternions $\mathbb{H}(\mathbb{Z}/(2))$ is commutative (Exercise 3.1.20). The product formula for multiplying two quaternions x = a + bi + cj + dk and y = e + fi + qj + hk is

$$xy = (a + bi + cj + dk)(e + fi + gj + hk)$$

= $(ae - bf - cg - dh) + (af + be + ch - dg)i$
+ $(ag - bh + ce + df)j + (ah + bg - cf + de)k$

and is derived from the relations above. We identify F with $F \cdot 1$. Thus, F is a subring of \mathbb{H}_F . If $x \in F$, then xy = yx. That is, F is a subring of the center of \mathbb{H}_F . For a quaternion x = a + bi + cj + dk define $\chi(x) = a - bi - cj - dk$. Using the product formula above, we find

$$\chi(y)\chi(x) = (e - fi - gj - hk)(a - bi - cj - dk)$$

$$= (ae - bf - cg - dh) - (af + be + ch - dg)i$$

$$- (ag - bh + ce + df)j - (ah + bg - cf + de)k$$

$$= \chi(xy).$$

Define the norm of x by

$$\begin{split} N(x) &= x\chi(x) = (a+bi+cj+dk)(a-bi-cj-dk) \\ &= (a^2+b^2+c^2+d^2) + (-ab+ab+cd-cd)i \\ &+ (ac+bd-ac-bd)j + (-ad-bc+bc+ad)k \\ &= a^2+b^2+c^2+d^2 \end{split}$$

which is an element of F. Using the formulas from above, we see that

$$N(xy) = xy\chi(xy) = xy\chi(y)\chi(x) = xN(y)\chi(x) = x\chi(x)N(y) = N(x)N(y)$$

hence $N: \mathbb{H}_F \to F$ is multiplicative. The function χ is an example of an involution (see Section 12.6.6.1).

DEFINITION 3.1.16. Let R and S be rings. A function $\theta: R \to S$ is called an isomorphism of rings, if θ is a one-to-one correspondence, $\theta(1) = 1$, $\theta(x+y) = \theta(x) + \theta(y)$, and $\theta(xy) = \theta(x)\theta(y)$ for all $x,y \in R$. In this case, we say R and S are isomorphic and write $R \cong S$. From an abstract algebraic point of view, isomorphic rings are indistinguishable.

1.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 3.1.17. The point to this exercise is to compute the ring $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z})$ of all endomorphisms of the infinite cyclic group \mathbb{Z} , + (see Exercise 2.8.11). In the following, f and g always denote endomorphisms of \mathbb{Z} .

- (1) Define $\phi : \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \to \mathbb{Z}$ by $\phi(f) = f(1)$. Show that ϕ is an isomorphism of rings. (Hint: Theorem 2.3.27.)
- (2) Show that $Aut(\mathbb{Z})$ has order two.

EXERCISE 3.1.18. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The object of this exercise is to compute the ring of all endomorphisms of the finite cyclic group $(\mathbb{Z}/n, +)$. As in Exercise 2.8.11, this ring is denoted $\operatorname{Hom}((\mathbb{Z}/n, +), (\mathbb{Z}/n, +))$. In the following, f and g always denote endomorphisms of \mathbb{Z}/n .

- (1) Define $\phi : \text{Hom}((\mathbb{Z}/n,+),(\mathbb{Z}/n,+)) \to \mathbb{Z}/n$ by $\phi(f) = f(1)$. Prove that ϕ is an isomorphism of rings. (Hint: Theorem 2.3.27.)
- (2) Show that $\operatorname{Aut}((\mathbb{Z}/n,+)) \cong U_n$, where U_n is the group of units modulo n. For a generalization of this example, see Exercise 4.4.32.

EXERCISE 3.1.19. Prove that the ring of quaternions (see Example 3.1.15) over \mathbb{Q} (or \mathbb{R}) is a division ring.

EXERCISE 3.1.20. Let $G=\langle a,b\mid a^2=b^2=e,\ ab=ba\rangle$ be an elementary 2-group of order 4. Let $R=\mathbb{Z}/(2)$ be the field with 2 elements. For the definition of the ring of quaternions, see Example 3.1.15. For the definition of a group ring, see Example 3.1.6.

- (1) Prove that the ring of quaternions over R is isomorphic to the group ring R(G).
- (2) Determine the group of units in R(G).
- (3) Determine the set of zero divisors in R(G).
- (4) Determine all elements in R(G) that satisfy the equation $e^2 = e$. These elements are the so-called idempotents.

EXERCISE 3.1.21. Prove that the ring of quaternions over \mathbb{C} is isomorphic to $M_2(\mathbb{C})$. (Hint: Find matrices that play the roles of i and j.)

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EXERCISE 3.1.22. Let R be the ring $M_2(\mathbb{Z}/(2))$ of two-by-two matrices over $\mathbb{Z}/(2)$.

- (1) Determine the group of units in R.
- (2) Determine the set of zero divisors in R.
- (3) Determine all elements in R that satisfy the equation $e^2 = e$. These elements are the so-called idempotents in R.
- (4) Show that R contains exactly two subrings that are fields. One is the image of the canonical homomorphism $\chi: \mathbb{Z} \to R$ which has order 2, and the other is a field of order 4.

EXERCISE 3.1.23. Let R be any ring. Let x and y be elements of R such that xy = yx. Prove the Binomial Theorem:

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^i y^{n-i}$$

for any $n \geq 0$.

EXERCISE 3.1.24. Let $i \in \mathbb{C}$ be the square root of -1.

- (1) Show that $\mathbb{Q}[i] = \{a + bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ is a subfield of \mathbb{C} .
- (2) Show that $\mathbb{Z}[i] = \{a + bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a subring of $\mathbb{Q}[i]$. The ring $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is called the ring of gaussian integers.

Exercise 3.1.25. Consider the set

$$\mathbb{Z}/4[i] = \{a + bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}/4\}$$

where $i^2 = -1 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Addition and multiplication are defined as in the gaussian integers, where a and b are added and multiplied in the ring $\mathbb{Z}/4$. Show that $\mathbb{Z}/4[i]$ is a commutative ring of order 16. Show that the group of units in $\mathbb{Z}/4[i]$ is isomorphic to U_{16} , the group of units modulo 16. Show that the rings $\mathbb{Z}/4[i]$ and $\mathbb{Z}/16$ are not isomorphic.

2. Homomorphisms and Ideals

DEFINITION 3.2.1. A left ideal of A is a nonempty subset $I \subseteq A$ such that (I, +) is a subgroup of (A, +) and $ax \in I$ for all $a \in A$ and all $x \in I$. The reader should define the term right ideal. If I is both a left ideal and right ideal, we say I is an ideal.

Example 3.2.2. Some important examples of ideals are listed here.

- (1) If R is a commutative ring, then a left ideal is a two-sided ideal.
- (2) In a ring R the trivial ideals are $\{0\}$ and R.
- (3) If F is a field, the only ideals are $\{0\}$ and F. This is Exercise 3.2.21.
- (4) Let R be a commutative ring and $M_n(R)$ the ring of n-by-n matrices over R, where $n \geq 2$. The set

$$L = \{ (r_{ij}) \mid r_{ij} = 0 \text{ if } i < j \}$$

of all lower triangular matrices is a subring of $M_n(R)$ (Example 3.1.13). It is not an ideal, because the identity matrix I is in L.

(5) Let F be a field and $M_2(F)$ the ring of 2-by-2 matrices over F. Then

$$I = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mid a, b \in F \right\}$$

is a left ideal in $M_2(F)$, but not a right ideal.

(6) The subgroups of \mathbb{Z} , + are the cyclic subgroups $\mathbb{Z}m$, where $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Any such subgroup is an ideal. So the ideals of \mathbb{Z} are of the form $\mathbb{Z}m$.

DEFINITION 3.2.3. If R and S are rings, a homomorphism from R to S is a function $f: R \to S$ satisfying

- (1) f(x+y) = f(x) + f(y) for all $x, y \in R$,
- (2) f(xy) = f(x)f(y) for all $x, y \in R$, and
- (3) f(1) = 1.

Notice that (1) implies $f:(R,+)\to (S,+)$ is a homomorphism of additive groups. The kernel of f is $\ker(f)=\{x\in R\mid f(x)=0\}$ which is equal to the kernel of the homomorphism on additive groups. In Proposition 3.2.4 below, the reader is asked to verify that the kernel of f is an ideal in R. By Lemma 2.3.7, f is one-to-one if and only if $\ker f=(0)$. The image of the homomorphism f is $\operatorname{im}(f)=\{f(x)\in S\mid x\in R\}$. The reader should verify that the image of f is a subring of f. As we defined in Definition 3.1.16, an isomorphism is a homomorphism $f:R\to S$ that is one-to-one and onto. In this case, we say f and f are isomorphic. An f automorphism of f is a homomorphism f is a homomorphism of f is a homomorphism of f.

Proposition 3.2.4. Let R be a ring and I a left ideal in R. The following are equivalent.

- (1) I is an ideal of R. That is, I is both a left and right ideal.
- (2) The set $R/I = \{a + I \mid a \in R\}$ of all left cosets of I in R is a ring where addition and multiplication of cosets is defined by the rules

$$(a+I) + (b+I) = (a+b) + I$$

 $(a+I)(b+I) = ab + I.$

The additive identity is the coset 0+I, the multiplicative identity is 1+I. If $\eta\colon R\to R/I$ is the natural map defined by $x\mapsto x+I$, then η is a homomorphism, im $\eta=R/I$, and $\ker \eta=I$. The ring R/I is called the residue class ring, or factor ring, or quotient ring of R modulo I.

(3) There exists a ring S, a homomorphism of rings $\theta: R \to S$ and I is equal to the kernel of θ .

PROOF. (1) implies (2): We show that the multiplication rule on left cosets is well defined. The rest follows from Lemma 2.3.4 and the fact that R is a ring. Assume a, b, c, d are elements of R and $a - b \in I$ and $c - d \in I$. Then ac - bd = ac - bc + bc - bd = (a - b)c + b(c - d) is in I since I is a left and right ideal. This shows ac + I = bd + I, hence the multiplication of left cosets is well defined.

- (2) implies (3): Take S to be R/I and θ the natural map η .
- (3) implies (1): This is left to the reader.

Example 3.2.5. Standard examples of homomorphisms are listed here.

- (1) The natural projection $\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/(n)$ maps an integer to its congruence class modulo n. It is a homomorphism of rings which is onto. The kernel is the subgroup generated by n.
- (2) If u is an invertible element of R, the *inner automorphism* of R defined by u is $\sigma_u : R \to R$ where $\sigma_u(x) = uxu^{-1}$. The reader should verify that σ_u is a homomorphism of rings and is a one-to-one correspondence.

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- (3) Suppose R is a commutative ring, H and G are groups and $\theta: H \to G$ is a homomorphism of groups. The action $rh \mapsto r\theta(h)$ induces a homomorphism of group rings $R(H) \to R(G)$ (see Example 3.1.6).
 - (a) The homomorphism $\langle e \rangle \to G$ induces a homomorphism $\theta: R \to R(G)$. Notice that θ is one-to-one and the image of θ is contained in the center of R(G).
 - (b) The homomorphism $G \to \langle e \rangle$ induces $\epsilon : R(G) \to R$. Notice that ϵ is onto, and the kernel of ϵ contains the set of elements $D = \{1 g \mid g \in G\}$. The reader should verify that the kernel of ϵ is the ideal generated by D in R(G) (see Definition 3.2.6). Sometimes ϵ is called the augmentation map.
- (4) If R is a ring, then the zero mapping $R \to (0)$ is a homomorphism of rings. (In the category of rings, (0) is a terminal object.)
- (5) If R is a ring, there is a unique homomorphism $\chi \colon \mathbb{Z} \to R$. In fact, by definition $\chi(1) = 1$ so $\chi(n) = n\chi(1) = n1$ for an arbitrary integer n. (In the category of rings, \mathbb{Z} is an initial object.) The image of χ is the smallest subring of R. If R is a domain, the image of χ is called the *prime ring of* R. The kernel of χ is a subgroup of \mathbb{Z} , hence is equal to (n) for some nonnegative integer n. We call n the *characteristic* of R and write $n = \operatorname{char}(R)$.

DEFINITION 3.2.6. Let R be any ring and $X \subseteq R$. The left ideal generated by X is

$$\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i x_i \mid n \ge 1, \ r_i \in R, \ x_i \in X \right\}.$$

The reader should verify that the left ideal generated by X is equal to the intersection of the left ideals containing X. The *ideal generated by* X is

$$\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_{i} x_{i} s_{i} \mid n \geq 1, \ r_{i}, s_{i} \in R, \ x_{i} \in X \right\}.$$

The reader should verify that the ideal generated by X is equal to the intersection of the ideals containing X. If A and B are left ideals of R, then A+B is the set $\{a+b\mid a\in A,\ b\in B\}$. The reader should verify that if A and B are ideals, then A+B is an ideal. The left ideal generated by the set $\{ab\mid a\in A,\ b\in B\}$ is denoted AB. The reader should verify that if A and B are ideals, then AB is an ideal. A left ideal (or ideal) is principal if it is generated by a single element. If I is generated by X, we write I=(X). A commutative ring R is called a principal principal

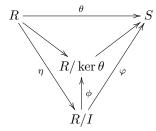
Example 3.2.7. Standard examples of ideals are listed here.

- (1) In any ring, the set (0) is an ideal.
- (2) In any ring R, if u is invertible, then for any $r \in R$ we see that $r = (ru^{-1})u$ is in the left ideal generated by u. That is, (u) = R. We call R the *unit ideal* of R. In R, the *trivial ideals* are (0) and R. If R is a division ring, the only left ideals in R are the trivial ideals.
- (3) The ideals in \mathbb{Z} are precisely the subgroups of $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$. That is, I is an ideal of \mathbb{Z} if and only if I = (n) for some n. The ring \mathbb{Z} is a principal ideal domain.

EXAMPLE 3.2.8. Let k be a field and R = k[w, x, y, z] the polynomial ring in four variables over k. Let A = (w, x) and B = (y, z). Then $wy + xz \in AB$, but wy + xz cannot be factored as uv, where $u \in A$ and $v \in B$. This shows that in general the set $\{uv \mid u \in A, v \in B\}$ is not an ideal.

PROPOSITION 3.2.9. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings. Let I be an ideal of R contained in ker θ . There exists a homomorphism $\varphi: R/I \to S$ satisfying the following.

- (1) $\varphi(a+I) = \theta(a)$, or in other words $\theta = \varphi \eta$.
- (2) φ is the unique homomorphism from $R/I \to S$ such that $\theta = \varphi \eta$.
- (3) $\operatorname{im} \theta = \operatorname{im} \varphi$.
- (4) $\ker \varphi = \eta(\ker \theta) = \ker(\theta)/I$.
- (5) φ is one-to-one if and only if $I = \ker \theta$.
- (6) φ is onto if and only if θ is onto.
- (7) There is a unique homomorphism $\phi \colon R/I \to R/\ker \theta$ such that the diagram



commutes.

PROOF. On the additive groups, this follows straight from Theorem 2.3.11. The map φ is multiplicative since θ is a homomorphism of rings.

Proposition 3.2.10. Let R be a ring and $I \subseteq J \subseteq R$ a chain of ideals in R. Then J/I is an ideal in R/I and

$$R/J \cong \frac{R/I}{J/I}.$$

PROOF. This follows from Proposition 3.2.9 and Theorem 2.3.12 (c). \Box

DEFINITION 3.2.11. Let R be a commutative ring. An ideal I in R is prime in case R/I is an integral domain. An ideal I in R is maximal in case R/I is a field. A field is an integral domain, so a maximal ideal is a prime ideal. By Definition 3.1.3, an integral domain has at least two elements, so the unit ideal is never prime.

PROPOSITION 3.2.12. Let R be a ring and I an ideal in R. There is a one-to-one order-preserving correspondence between the ideals J such that $I \subseteq J \subseteq R$ and the ideals of R/I given by $J \mapsto J/I$. If R is commutative, then there is a one-to-one correspondence between prime ideals of R/I and prime ideals of R that contain I.

PROOF. The first part follows from Proposition 3.2.9 and Theorem 2.3.13. The preimage of a prime ideal is a prime ideal, by Exercise 3.2.36. Proposition 3.2.10 shows that the image of a prime ideal that contains I is a prime ideal in R/I. \square

EXAMPLE 3.2.13. In an integral domain, the zero ideal (0) is a prime ideal. In a commutative ring R, the zero ideal (0) is a maximal ideal if and only if R is a

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field (Exercise 3.2.21). Let P be a nonzero prime ideal in \mathbb{Z} . Then \mathbb{Z}/P is a finite integral domain which is a field, by Exercise 3.2.25. The maximal ideals in \mathbb{Z} are the nonzero prime ideals.

Proposition 3.2.14. Let R be a commutative ring and P an ideal of R. Assume $P \neq R$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) P is a prime ideal. That is, R/P is an integral domain.
- (2) For all $x, y \in R$, if $xy \in P$, then $x \in P$ or $y \in P$.
- (3) For any ideals I, J in R, if $IJ \subseteq P$, then $I \subseteq P$ or $J \subseteq P$.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

Proposition 3.2.15. Let R be a commutative ring.

(1) An ideal M is a maximal ideal in R if and only if M is not contained in a larger proper ideal of R.

- (2) R contains a maximal ideal.
- (3) If I is a proper ideal of R, then R contains a maximal ideal M such that $I \subseteq M$.

PROOF. (1): By Exercise 3.2.21 and Proposition 3.2.12 R/M is a field if and only if there is no proper ideal J such that $M \subseteq J$.

(2): Let S be the set of all ideals I in R such that $I \neq R$. Then $(0) \in S$. Order S by set inclusion. Let $\{A_{\alpha}\}$ be a chain in S. The union $J = \bigcup A_{\alpha}$ is an ideal in R, by Exercise 3.2.23. Since 1 is not in any element of S, it is clear that $1 \notin J$. Therefore, $J \in \mathcal{S}$ is an upper bound for the chain $\{A_{\alpha}\}$. By Zorn's Lemma, Proposition 1.3.3, \mathcal{S} contains a maximal member. By Part (1), this ideal is a maximal ideal.

(3): Is left to the reader.

2.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 3.2.16. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings. Prove:

- (1) The image of θ is a subring of S.
- (2) If B is a subring of S and $A = \{y \in R \mid \theta(y) \in B\}$, then A is a subring of
- (3) If A and B are as in (2), then $\theta: A \to B$ is a homomorphism of rings.

Exercise 3.2.17. Let $\theta \colon R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings. Prove:

- (1) θ is one-to-one if and only if ker $\theta = (0)$.
- (2) If R is a division ring, then θ is one-to-one.

EXERCISE 3.2.18. Let R be any ring. As in Example 3.2.5 (5), the characteristic of R is denoted char R.

- (1) If $n = \operatorname{char} R$, then nx = 0 for any $x \in R$.
- (2) If R is a domain, then the characteristic of R is either 0 or a prime number.

EXERCISE 3.2.19. Let R be any ring and suppose $p = \operatorname{char} R$ is a prime number (see Example 3.2.5(5)). Let x and y be elements of R such that xy = yx. Prove:

- (1) $(x+y)^p = x^p + y^p$.

- (2) $(x-y)^p = x^p y^p$. (3) $(x-y)^{p-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} x^i y^{p-1-i}$. (4) If $n \ge 0$, then $(x+y)^{p^n} = x^{p^n} + y^{p^n}$.

(Hint: Exercise 1.2.21.) See Exercise 3.6.35 for an application of this exercise.

EXERCISE 3.2.20. Let R be a commutative ring and assume char R=p is a prime number (see Example 3.2.5(5)). Define $\theta \colon R \to R$ by $x \mapsto x^p$. Show that θ is a homomorphism of rings. We usually call θ the Frobenius homomorphism. For any $a \ge 1$, show that $\theta^a(x) = x^{p^a}$.

Exercise 3.2.21. Prove:

- (1) If R is a ring with no proper left ideal, then every nonzero element has a left inverse. (Hint: Exercise 2.1.22.)
- (2) If R is a ring with no proper left ideal, then R is a division ring. (Hint: R (0) is a monoid.)
- (3) A commutative ring R is a field if and only if R has no proper ideal.

EXERCISE 3.2.22. Let R be a ring and $M_n(R)$ the ring of n-by-n matrices over R where addition and multiplication are defined in the usual way.

- (1) Let e_{ij} be the elementary matrix which has 0 in every position except in position (i,j) where there is 1. Determine the left ideal in $M_n(R)$ generated by e_{ij} .
- (2) If $n \geq 2$, show that $M_n(R)$ has proper left ideals.
- (3) If I is an ideal in $M_n(R)$, show that $I = M_n(J)$ for some ideal J in R. (Hint: Use multiplication by the various E_{ij} .)
- (4) If D is a division ring, show that $M_n(D)$ has no proper ideal. We say that $M_n(D)$ is a *simple ring*.

EXERCISE 3.2.23. Let R be a ring, I an index set, and $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$ a family of left ideals in R.

- (1) Show that $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i$ is a left ideal in R.
- (2) Suppose $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$ is an ascending chain of left ideals in R. That is, I is a partially ordered set that is a chain, and if $\alpha \leq \beta$ in I, then $A_{\alpha} \subseteq A_{\beta}$. Show that $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ is a left ideal in R.

EXERCISE 3.2.24. Let U and V be ideals in the commutative ring R. Let UV be the ideal generated by the set $\{uv \mid u \in U, v \in V\}$. Prove the following.

- (1) $UV \subseteq U \cap V$.
- (2) If U + V = R, then $UV = U \cap V$.
- (3) Show by counterexample that $UV = U \cap V$ is false in general.

EXERCISE 3.2.25. Prove that a finite domain is a division ring, hence a finite integral domain is a field. By a theorem of Wedderburn ([20, Theorem 7.5.4]), a finite division ring is always commutative.

Exercise 3.2.26. Let n > 1.

- (1) Show that every prime ideal in $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$ is a maximal ideal.
- (2) Let $n = \pi_1^{e_1} \cdots \pi_k^{e_k}$ be the unique factorization of n (Proposition 1.2.7). Determine the maximal ideals in $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$.

EXERCISE 3.2.27. An element x of a ring is said to be *nilpotent* if $x^n = 0$ for some n > 0. If R is a commutative ring, let $Rad_R(0)$ denote the set of all nilpotent elements of R. We call $Rad_R(0)$ the *nil radical* of R.

(1) Show that $Rad_R(0)$ is an ideal.

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(2) Let I be an ideal of R contained in $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$. Show that the nil radical of R/I is $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0)/I$, hence the nil radical of $R/\operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$ is the trivial ideal $(0 + \operatorname{Rad}_R(0))$.

EXERCISE 3.2.28. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings. Prove that θ induces a homomorphism θ : Units $(R) \to \text{Units}(S)$ on the groups of units.

EXERCISE 3.2.29. Let R be a commutative ring, $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$ the nil radical of R, and $\eta: R \to R/\operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$ the natural map. Prove:

- (1) If x is a nilpotent element of R, then 1 + x is a unit in R.
- (2) If $\eta(r)$ is a unit in $R/\operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$, then r is a unit in R.
- (3) If I is an ideal of R contained in $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$, then the natural map η : Units $(R) \to \operatorname{Units}(R/I)$ is onto and the kernel of η is equal to the coset 1 + I.

EXERCISE 3.2.30. Let I and J be ideals in the commutative ring R. The *ideal* quotient is $I: J = \{x \in R \mid xJ \subseteq I\}$. Prove that I: J is an ideal in R.

EXERCISE 3.2.31. For the following, let I, J and K be ideals in the commutative ring R. Prove that the ideal quotient satisfies the following properties.

- (1) $I \subseteq I:J$
- (2) $(I:J)J\subseteq I$
- (3) (I:J):K=I:JK=(I:K):J
- (4) If $\{I_{\alpha} \mid \alpha \in S\}$ is a collection of ideals in R, then

$$\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in S} I_{\alpha}\right) : J = \bigcap_{\alpha \in S} \left(I_{\alpha} : J\right)$$

(5) If $\{J_{\alpha} \mid \alpha \in S\}$ is a collection of ideals in R, then

$$I: \sum_{\alpha \in S} J_{\alpha} = \bigcap_{\alpha \in S} (I: J_{\alpha})$$

(6) If J = (a) is principal and $I \subseteq J$, then I = (I : J)J.

EXERCISE 3.2.32. A local ring is a commutative ring R such that R has exactly one maximal ideal. If R is a local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , then R/\mathfrak{m} is called the residue field of R. If (R,\mathfrak{m}) and (S,\mathfrak{n}) are local rings and $f:R\to S$ is a homomorphism of rings, then we say f is a local homomorphism of local rings in case $f(\mathfrak{m})\subseteq\mathfrak{n}$. Prove:

- (1) A field is a local ring.
- (2) If (R, \mathfrak{m}) is a local ring, then the group of units of R is equal to the set $R-\mathfrak{m}$.
- (3) If $f: R \to S$ is a local homomorphism of local rings, then f induces a homomorphism of residue fields $R/\mathfrak{m} \to S/\mathfrak{n}$.

EXERCISE 3.2.33. Let R be a ring. If A and B are left ideals in R, then the product ideal AB is defined in Definition 3.2.6. The powers of A are defined recursively by the rule:

$$A^{n} = \begin{cases} R & \text{if } n = 0, \\ A & \text{if } n = 1, \\ AA^{n-1} & \text{if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

The left ideal A is *nilpotent* if for some n > 0, $A^n = 0$. Let A and B be nilpotent left ideals of R. Prove:

- (1) Assume $A^n = 0$. If x_1, \ldots, x_n are elements of A, then $x_1 \cdots x_n = 0$.
- (2) Every element x of A is nilpotent.
- (3) A + B is a nilpotent left ideal. (Hint: For all p sufficiently large, if x_1, \ldots, x_p are elements of $A \cup B$, show that $x_1 \cdots x_p = 0$.)

EXERCISE 3.2.34. Let R be a commutative ring and $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ a finite set of nilpotent elements of R. Show that $Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_n$ is a nilpotent ideal.

EXERCISE 3.2.35. Let R be a ring. We say that a left ideal M of R is maximal if M is not equal to R and if I is a left ideal such that $M \subseteq I \subsetneq R$, then M = I. Let I be a left ideal of R which is not the unit ideal. Apply Zorn's Lemma, Proposition 1.3.3, to show that there exists a maximal left ideal M such that $I \subseteq M \subsetneq R$.

EXERCISE 3.2.36. Show that the homomorphic preimage of a prime ideal is a prime ideal. That is, if $f: R \to S$ is a homomorphism of commutative rings and P is a prime ideal in S, then $f^{-1}(P)$ is a prime ideal in R.

EXERCISE 3.2.37. If R is a commutative ring, let Aut(R) denote the group of all ring automorphisms of R. Prove the following.

- (1) $Aut(\mathbb{Z}) = (1)$.
- (2) $\operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/(n)) = (1)$ for any n.
- (3) $Aut(\mathbb{Q}) = (1)$.
- (4) $\operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{R}) = (1)$. For this exercise you can assume that \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} under the metric space topology. In other words, if $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b, then there exists a rational number r such that a < r < b.

EXERCISE 3.2.38. Let $f: R \to S$ be an onto homomorphism of rings. Let M be a maximal left ideal of S (see Exercise 3.2.35). Show that $f^{-1}(M)$ is a maximal left ideal in R.

EXERCISE 3.2.39. Let R be a commutative ring and G a group. Show that the group ring R(G) is isomorphic to the opposite ring $R(G)^{\circ}$. (Hints: Exercise 2.1.24 and Example 3.2.5 (3).)

EXERCISE 3.2.40. Let R be a ring. For every $r \in R$, let $\lambda_r : R \to R$ be "left multiplication by r". That is, $\lambda_r(x) = rx$. Similarly, let $\rho_r : R \to R$ be "right multiplication by r", where $\rho_r(x) = xr$. By Example 3.1.7, if I is an ideal (left, right or two-sided), then Hom(I, I) is a ring.

- (1) Let I be a left ideal of R. Show that $\lambda : R \to \operatorname{Hom}(I, I)$ is a homomorphism of rings, where $\lambda(r) = \lambda_r$.
- (2) Let I be a right ideal of R. As in Definition 3.1.8, R^o denotes the opposite ring of R. Show that $\rho: R^o \to \operatorname{Hom}(I,I)$ is a homomorphism of rings, where $\rho(r) = \rho_r$.

EXERCISE 3.2.41. Let R be a ring and I a proper left ideal in R. Assume the group I, + is cyclic, isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}/n , where n=0 is allowed. Prove that R contains a two-sided ideal A such that the ring R/A is isomorphic to the ring \mathbb{Z}/n . (Hints: Exercises 3.2.40, 3.1.17, 3.1.18, Example 3.1.12, and Proposition 3.2.9.)

3. Direct Products and Direct Sums of Rings

DEFINITION 3.3.1. Let $\{R_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a family of rings. For each $i \in I$, the same symbol 0 is used to denote the additive identity of each R_i . Likewise, 1

denotes the multiplicative identity of each R_i . The direct product is

$$\prod_{i \in I} R_i = \left\{ f : I \to \bigcup_{i \in I} R_i \mid f(i) \in R_i \right\}.$$

Notice that as a set, it is the product of the underlying sets as defined in Definition 1.3.4. The direct product of a family of rings is a ring if addition and multiplication are defined coordinate-wise:

$$(f+g)(i) = f(i) + g(i)$$
$$(fg)(i) = f(i)g(i).$$

Since each R_i contains 0, the additive identity in the product is the function f(i) = 0. Since each R_i contains 1, the multiplicative identity in the product is the function f(i) = 1. The other ring axioms hold in the product because they hold coordinatewise. By Exercise 1.4.10, for each $k \in I$ the canonical projection map

$$\pi_k: \prod_{i\in I} R_i \to R_k$$

is defined by the rule $\pi_k(f) = f(k)$. The reader should verify that π_k is an onto homomorphism of rings. There is a canonical injection map

$$\iota_k: R_k \to \prod_{i \in I} R_i$$

which maps $x \in R_k$ to $\iota_k(x)$ which is equal to x in coordinate k, and 0 elsewhere. The reader should verify that ι_k is a one-to-one homomorphism of additive groups. Moreover, ι_k is multiplicative and we have $\pi_k \iota_k = 1_{R_k}$. The function ι_k is not a homomorphism of rings, since $\iota_k(1) \neq 1$.

DEFINITION 3.3.2. The *direct sum* of a family of rings, denoted $\bigoplus_{i \in I} R_i$, is the smallest subring of the direct product that contains the set

$$\left\{ f: I \to \bigcup_{i \in I} R_i \mid f(i) \in R_i \text{ and } f(i) = 0 \text{ for all but finitely many } i \in I \right\}.$$

The canonical projection map

$$\pi_k: \bigoplus_{i\in I} R_i \to R_k$$

is an onto homomorphism of rings. The canonical injection map

$$\iota_k:R_k\to\bigoplus_{i\in I}R_i$$

is a one-to-one homomorphism of additive groups. Moreover, ι_k is multiplicative and we have $\pi_k \iota_k = 1_{R_k}$. These facts are verified as in Definition 3.3.1. The reader should verify that the direct product and the direct sum are equal if the index set is finite. If $I = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, then

$$\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} R_i = R_1 \oplus R_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_i \in R_i\}$$

which as a set is the usual product.

DEFINITION 3.3.3. Let $\{I_1,\ldots,I_n\}$ be a set of ideals in a ring R. In Definition 3.2.6 the sum A+B of two ideals in R is defined. For $n\geq 2$, $I_1+I_2+\cdots+I_n$ is defined recursively to be $(I_1+\cdots+I_{n-1})+I_n$ and is called the sum of the ideals. The reader should verify that the sum of the ideals is equal to the ideal of R generated by the set $I_1\cup I_2\cup\cdots\cup I_n$. We say that R is the internal direct sum of the ideals in case

- (1) $R = I_1 + I_2 + \cdots + I_n$, and
- (2) for each $x \in R$, x has a unique representation as a sum $x = x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n$ where $x_i \in I_i$.

We denote the internal direct sum by $R = I_1 \oplus I_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus I_n$. Notice that in this case the additive group R, + is the internal direct product of the subgroups $\{(I_i, +) \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ as defined in Definition 2.5.3).

DEFINITION 3.3.4. Let R be a ring. An element e of R satisfying $e^2 = e$ is said to be *idempotent*. A set $\{e_i \mid i \in I\}$ of idempotents in R is said to be *orthogonal* if $e_i e_j = 0$ for all $i \neq j$.

THEOREM 3.3.5. If A_1, \ldots, A_n are ideals in the ring R and $R = A_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus A_n$, then the following are true.

- (1) For each k, $A_k \cap \left(\sum_{j \neq k} A_j\right) = (0)$.
- (2) If $x \in A_i$, $y \in A_j$ and $i \neq j$, then xy = yx = 0.
- (3) For each i, A_i is a ring. If the identity element of A_i is denoted e_i , then $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ is a set of orthogonal idempotents in R. Moreover, each e_i is in the center of R and $A_i = Re_i$ is a principal ideal in R.
- (4) R is isomorphic to the (external) direct sum $A_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus A_n$.
- (5) Suppose for each k that I_k is a left ideal in the ring A_k . Then $I = I_1 + I_2 + \cdots + I_n$ is a left ideal in R, where the sum is a direct sum.
- (6) If I is a left ideal of R, then $I = I_1 \oplus I_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus I_n$ where each I_k is a left ideal in the ring A_k .

PROOF. (1): Assume $x \in A_k \cap \left(\sum_{j \neq k} A_j\right)$. Let $x_k = -x$. Since $x \in \sum_{j \neq k} A_j$, write $x = \sum_{j \neq k} x_j$ where each $x_j \in A_j$. Subtracting, $0 = x - x = x_1 + \dots + x_k + \dots + x_n$. By the uniqueness of the representation of 0 in the internal direct sum, it follows that x = 0.

- (2): Notice that xy and yx are both in $A_i \cap A_j$ since the ideals are two-sided.
- (3): Because A_i is an ideal, it is enough to show that A_i has a multiplicative identity. Write $1 = e_1 + e_2 + \cdots + e_n$. If $x \in A_i$, then multiply by x from the left and use Part (2) to get $x = x1 = \sum_{j=1}^n xe_j = xe_i$. Now multiply by x from the right and use Part (2) to get $x = 1x = \sum_{j=1}^n e_j x = e_i x$. This shows e_i is the multiplicative identity for A_i . Orthogonality of $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ is by Part (2). The rest is left to the reader.
- (4): Define a function $f: A_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus A_n \to R$ from the external ring direct sum to R by the rule $(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \mapsto x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n$. Then f is one-to-one and onto since R is the internal direct sum of the ideals A_i . Clearly f is additive. The reader should verify using Part (2) that f is multiplicative.
- (5): Since each element r in $R = A_1 + A_2 + \cdots + A_n$ has a unique representation in the form $r = r_1 + r_2 + \cdots + r_n$, so does any element x in $I = I_1 + I_2 + \cdots + I_n$. So the sum is a direct sum and we can write $x = x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n$ where each

 $x_k \in I_k$ is unique. Then $rx = r_1x_1 + r_2x_2 + \cdots + r_nx_n$ is in I, which shows I is a left ideal in R.

(6): By Part (3), for each k there is a central idempotent $e_k \in R$ such that $A_k = Re_k$. Let $I_k = e_k I$. Since e_k is central, $I_k = Ie_k$ is a left ideal in R. Since $I \subseteq R$ we have $I_k = Ie_k \subseteq Re_k = A_k$, so I_k is a left ideal in A_k . Since $1 = e_1 + \cdots + e_n$, we see that $I = I_1 + I_2 + \cdots + I_n$. The sum is a direct sum by Part (5).

PROPOSITION 3.3.6. Suppose A_1, \ldots, A_n are ideals in the ring R satisfying

- (1) $R = A_1 + A_2 + \cdots + A_n$ and
- (2) for k = 1, ..., n 1, we have $A_k \cap (A_{k+1} + \cdots + A_n) = (0)$.

Then $R = A_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus A_n$.

PROOF. This follows from Part (4) implies Part (1) of Proposition 2.5.5. \Box

DEFINITION 3.3.7. If R is a ring and I and J are ideals in R, then we say I and J are comaximal if I + J = R.

THEOREM 3.3.8. (The Chinese Remainder Theorem). Let R be any ring. If I_1, \ldots, I_n are ideals in R and

$$\phi: R \to R/I_1 \oplus R/I_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus R/I_n$$

is the natural map given by $x \mapsto (x + I_1, \dots, x + I_n)$, then the following are true.

- (1) ϕ is a homomorphism of rings.
- (2) The kernel of ϕ is equal to $I_1 \cap I_2 \cap \cdots \cap I_n$.
- (3) ϕ is onto if and only if n = 1 or the ideals are pair-wise comaximal, (that is, $I_i + I_j = R$ if $i \neq j$).

PROOF. (1): The proof is left to the reader.

- (2): Clearly the kernel of ϕ is the set of all x in R such that x is in I_k for all k.
- (3): Assume ϕ is onto and n > 1. For each $1 \le i \le n$, consider the idempotent in $R/I_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R/I_n$ which is 1 in coordinate i and 0 in every other coordinate. Since ϕ is onto, there exists an element $a_i \in R$ such that $b_i = 1 a_i \in I_i$ and $a_i \in I_j$ whenever $j \ne i$. Therefore, $1 = a_i + b_i$ is in $I_j + I_i$.

Now we prove the converse of (3). If n = 1, we can apply Proposition 3.2.9. Therefore, assume n > 1 and the ideals are pairwise comaximal. Let a_1, \ldots, a_n be arbitrary elements of R. We show that there exists $a \in R$ such that a satisfies the set of linear congruences $a \equiv a_i \pmod{I_i}$.

For each k = 2, ..., n we have $I_1 + I_k = R$. Write $1 = x_k + y_k$, where $x_k \in I_1$ and $y_k \in I_k$. Multiplying and simplifying, we get

$$1 = (x_2 + y_2)(x_3 + y_3) \cdots (x_n + y_n)$$

= (all the terms with at least one x_k) + $y_2y_3 \cdots y_n$.

Since $y_2y_3\cdots y_n\in \bigcap_{k=2}^nI_k$, we see that $1\in I_1+\bigcap_{k=2}^nI_k$. Therefore $R=I_1+\bigcap_{k=2}^nI_k$. Similarly, for each $k\geq 2$, $R=I_k+\bigcap_{j\neq k}I_j$. There exist $u_k\in I_k$, $v_k\in \bigcap_{j\neq k}I_j$ such that $a_k=u_k+v_k$. Then $a_k\equiv u_k+v_k\equiv v_k\pmod{I_k}$. If $j\neq k$, then $v_j\equiv 0\pmod{I_k}$. If we take $a=v_1+v_2+\cdots+v_n$, then we are done. \square

Proposition 3.3.9. Let R be a commutative ring. If I and J are comaximal ideals, then $IJ = I \cap J$.

PROOF. If $x \in I$ and $y \in J$, then $xy \in I$ and $xy \in J$. Since IJ is generated by elements of the form xy, we have $IJ \subseteq I \cap J$. Let z be an arbitrary element of $I \cap J$. We show $z \in IJ$. Since R = I + J, there exist $u \in I$ and $v \in J$ such that 1 = u + v. Now $zu \in IJ$ since $z \in J$ and $u \in I$. Also $zv \in IJ$ since $z \in I$ and $v \in J$. Then $z = zu + zv \in IJ$.

Corollary 3.3.10. Let R be a commutative ring. If I and J are comaximal ideals, then $R/IJ \cong R/I \times R/J$.

Example 3.3.11. Let F be a field and

$$R = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \mid a, b, d \in F \right\}$$

the set of all upper triangular matrices in $M_2(F)$. As in Example 3.1.13, R is a noncommutative subring of $M_2(F)$. The proof given in Example 3.1.14 can be used to show that the center of R is the set of scalar matrices, which is isomorphic to F by the homomorphism $\delta: F \to R$ defined by $\delta(a) = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix}$. Define $\lambda: R \to F$ by $\lambda \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} = a$. The reader should verify that λ is a homomorphism and $\lambda \delta(a) = a$ for all $a \in F$. We say F is a subfield of R and λ is a section to δ . The homomorphism $\rho: R \to F$ defined by $\rho \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} = d$ also satisfies $\rho \delta(a) = a$, hence a section to δ is not unique. The kernels of λ and ρ are

$$\ker \lambda = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \mid b, d \in F \right\}, \quad \ker \rho = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mid a, b \in F \right\},$$

which are proper ideals in R. We say R is not a simple ring. Since F has no proper ideals, by Proposition 3.2.12, there is no proper ideal of R that contains $\ker \lambda$ or $\ker \rho$. The ideals $\ker \lambda$ and $\ker \rho$ are maximal proper ideals in R. Let $D = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \mid a,d \in F \right\}$. The reader should verify that D is a subring of R. Define $\tau: R \to D$ by $\tau \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix}$. The reader should verify that τ is a homomorphism and for any matrix $A \in D$, $\tau(A) = A$. In other words, τ is a section to the inclusion map $D \to R$. The kernel of τ is the ideal

$$\ker \tau = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mid b \in F \right\}.$$

If $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix}$ is an idempotent matrix, then a and d are idempotents in F. After looking at the possible cases, the reader should verify that the set of all idempotents in R is

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

Only the two trivial idempotents, namely 0 and 1, are central. Therefore, R is not an internal direct sum of proper ideals. Let R^* be the group of units of R. By Exercise 3.2.28, there are homomorphisms of groups $\delta^*: F^* \to R^*$ and $\rho^*: R^* \to F^*$. Let

$$T = \ker \rho^* = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mid a \in F^*, b \in F \right\},\,$$

and

$$Z = \delta(F^*) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} \mid a \in F^* \right\}.$$

By Exercise 2.5.21, the group of units of R is the internal direct product $R^* = T \times Z$ of the two proper normal subgroups T and Z. The ring R is an example of an extension of a ring by a module. Specifically, R is the extension of D by the module ker τ . The interested reader is referred to Exercise 14.1.13 for the general construction.

3.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 3.3.12. Suppose the ring R is the internal direct sum $R = A_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus A_n$ where each A_k is an ideal of R. Prove that for each k there exists a central idempotent $e_k \in R$ such that A_k is equal to the ideal generated by e_k .

EXERCISE 3.3.13. Suppose R is a ring and $e \in R$ is a central idempotent. Assume $e \neq 0$ and $e \neq 1$. Let I be the ideal generated by e. Prove that R is equal to the internal direct sum $I \oplus J$ for some ideal J.

EXERCISE 3.3.14. Let k be a field of characteristic different from 2 (see Example 3.2.5(5)). Let $f = x^2 - 1$. Show that k[x]/(f) is isomorphic to a direct sum of fields.

EXERCISE 3.3.15. Consider the ring $R = \mathbb{Z}/(n)$.

- (1) Suppose n = 1105.
 - (a) Prove that R is isomorphic to a direct sum of fields.
 - (b) Determine all maximal ideals in R.
 - (c) Determine all idempotents in R.
- (2) Suppose n = 1800.
 - (a) Determine all maximal ideals in R.
 - (b) Determine all idempotents in R.

EXERCISE 3.3.16. If n > 1, then we say n is square free if n is not divisible by the square of a prime number. Prove that the nil radical of \mathbb{Z}/n is (0) if and only if n is square free.

EXERCISE 3.3.17. Let I_1, I_2, \ldots, I_n be pairwise comaximal ideals in the commutative ring R. Prove that $I_1I_2\cdots I_n=I_1\cap I_2\cap \cdots \cap I_n$.

EXERCISE 3.3.18. Prove that if I and J are comaximal ideals in the commutative ring R, then for every $m \ge 1$ and $n \ge 1$, I^m and J^n are comaximal. Prove that in this case $I^mJ^n=I^m\cap J^n$. (Hint: Apply the Binomial Theorem, Exercise 3.1.23.)

EXERCISE 3.3.19. Assume the ring R is the direct sum $R = R_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_n$. Let e_1, \ldots, e_n be the central idempotents corresponding to the direct summands (guaranteed by Theorem 3.3.5 (3)). Let D be a ring which has only two idempotents, namely 0 and 1. Let $\theta: R \to D$ be a homomorphism of rings. Prove that there exists e_i such that

$$\theta(e_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

EXERCISE 3.3.20. Let R be any ring. Let I and J be ideals in R and $\phi: R \to R/I \oplus R/J$ the natural homomorphism of Theorem 3.3.8. Show that the image of

 ϕ is the subring of $R/I \oplus R/J$ defined by $\{(x+I,y+J) \mid x-y \in I+J\}$. See Exercise 4.2.27 for an interpretation of this result in terms of modules.

EXERCISE 3.3.21. Let n > 1 and R a finite ring of order n. Suppose n is square free and the factorization of n into primes is $n = p_1 \cdots p_m$. Prove the following:

- (1) $R \cong \mathbb{Z}/n$.
- (2) R is commutative.
- (3) R is a field, or a direct sum of fields.
- (4) In terms of the prime factors of n, describe the maximal ideals of R.

EXERCISE 3.3.22. Let R_1, \ldots, R_n be commutative rings and $R = R_1 \times \cdots \times R_n$ the direct product. Show that R is a principal ideal ring if and only if R_i is a principal ideal ring for each i.

4. Factorization in Commutative Rings

DEFINITION 3.4.1. Let R be a commutative ring. Suppose a and b are elements of R. We say a divides b, and write $a \mid b$, in case there exists $c \in R$ such that b = ac. We also say that a is a factor of b, or b is a multiple of a.

DEFINITION 3.4.2. Let R be a commutative ring and suppose a and b are elements of R. If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid a$, then we say a and b are associates. In this case we write $a \sim b$. The reader should verify that the relation "a is an associate of b" is an equivalence relation on R.

Lemma 3.4.3. Let R be a commutative ring. Let $a, b, r \in R$.

- (1) The following are equivalent:
 - $(a) a \mid b.$
 - (b) $b \in Ra = (a)$.
 - (c) $(a) \supset (b)$.
- (2) a and b are associates if and only if (a) = (b).
- (3) The following are equivalent.
 - (a) u is a unit in R.
 - (b) (u) = R.
 - (c) $u \mid r$ for all r in R.
- (4) If a = bu and u is a unit, then a and b are associates.
- (5) If R is an integral domain and a and b are associates, then a = bu for some unit u.
- (6) Let R be an integral domain. If $a \neq 0$ and $a \mid b$, then there exists a unique c such that b = ac. We write $c = ba^{-1}$, or c = b/a.

PROOF. (1): This follows straight from Definitions 3.2.6 and 3.4.1.

(6): Suppose b = ac = ac'. Subtract and distribute to get a(c - c') = 0. Since $a \neq 0$ and R is an integral domain, this means c - c' = 0, hence c = c'.

The rest of the proof is left to the reader.

DEFINITION 3.4.4. Let R be a commutative ring and a an element of R which is not a unit and not a zero divisor. Then a is irreducible in case whenever a=bc, then either b is a unit or c is a unit. We say that a is prime in case whenever $a\mid bc$, then either $a\mid b$ or $a\mid c$.

Lemma 3.4.5. Let R be an integral domain.

- (1) $p \in R$ is prime if and only if (p) is a prime ideal.
- (2) a ∈ R is irreducible if and only if (a) is maximal among nonunit principal ideals.
- (3) If p is prime, then p is irreducible.
- (4) If p is irreducible and q is an associate of p, then q is irreducible.
- (5) If p is prime and q is an associate of p, then q is prime.
- (6) If p is irreducible, then the only divisors of p are units and associates of p.

PROOF. (3): Suppose $a, b \in R$ and p = ab. So $p \mid ab$ and p is prime. We can assume $p \mid a$. Therefore a and p are associates. By Lemma 3.4.3(5), b is a unit in R.

The rest is left to the reader.

4.1. Greatest Common Divisors.

DEFINITION 3.4.6. Let R be a commutative ring and X a nonempty subset of R. An element $d \in R$ is said to be the *greatest common divisor (GCD)*) of X, if the following are satisfied.

- (1) $d \mid x$ for all $x \in X$.
- (2) If $c \mid x$ for all $x \in X$, then $c \mid d$.

If d is the GCD of X, we write $d = \gcd(X)$. When $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ is finite, we write $d = \gcd(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ for $\gcd(X)$. Notice that if d is a greatest common divisor, so is any associate of d. If $\gcd(X)$ exists, it is not unique. If $d = \gcd(X)$ exists and d = 1, then we say the elements of X are relatively prime.

LEMMA 3.4.7. Let X be a nonempty subset of an integral domain R. If $d = \gcd(X)$ exists, then d is unique up to associates. That is, if d and d' are two greatest common divisors of X, then there exists a unit $u \in R^*$ such that d' = du, hence d and d' are associates.

PROOF. By Definition 3.4.6, we have $d \mid d'$ and $d' \mid d$. Thus d and d' are associates. By Lemma 3.4.3(5), d' = du for some $u \in \mathbb{R}^*$.

Proposition 3.4.8. Let R be a commutative ring and X a nonempty subset of R.

- (1) If the ideal generated by X is principal and d is a generator for (X), then $d = \gcd(X)$.
- (2) If $d = \gcd(X)$ exists and d is in the ideal (X), then (d) = (X).

PROOF. (1): If (d) = (X), then $d \mid x$, for all $x \in X$. Also, $d = a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n$ for some $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in R$ and $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in X$. Suppose $c \mid x$ for each $x \in X$. Then $c \mid a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n = d$.

(2): This follows from Definition 3.4.6 and Exercise 3.4.24.

COROLLARY 3.4.9. (A PID is a Bézout domain) If R is a PID, and X is a nonempty subset of R, then $d = \gcd(X)$, the greatest common divisor of X, exists and is unique up to associates. Any generator d of the ideal (X) is a greatest common divisor of a and b. In this case, $d = a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n$ for some $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in R$ and $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in X$.

PROOF. Since (X) is principal, there exists $d \in R$ such that (d) = (X). Proposition 3.4.8 (1) implies $d = \gcd(X)$ exists and can be written in the form $d = a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n$ for some $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in R$ and $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in X$. By Lemma 3.4.7, d is unique up to associates.

COROLLARY 3.4.10. Let R be a PID and $p \in R$ an irreducible element. Then the following are true.

- (1) p is prime. That is, if $p \mid ab$, then $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b$.
- (2) If x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n in R and $p \mid x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n$, then $p \mid x_i$ for some i.

PROOF. (1): Assume $p \mid ab$ and p does not divide b. We prove $p \mid a$. The ideal (p,b) is principal, hence is equal to (d), for some $d \in R$. Then $d \mid p$ and $d \mid b$. Since p is irreducible, d is a unit, or d is an associate of p (Lemma 3.4.5 (6)). We are assuming p does not divide b, hence d is not an associate of p, hence d is a unit. Therefore (d) = (1). By Corollary 3.4.9, we can write 1 = px + by. Multiply by a to get a = pax + aby. Since $p \mid ab$, this shows $p \mid a$.

(2) If n=1, then take i=1 and stop. Assume inductively that n>1 and the result holds for a product of n-1 factors. Then $p \mid (x_1 \cdots x_{n-1})x_n$. By Part (1), $p \mid x_n$, or $p \mid (x_1 \cdots x_{n-1})$. By the induction hypothesis, $p \mid x_i$ for some i.

DEFINITION 3.4.11. Let R be an integral domain. Then R is a unique factorization domain (UFD) if for every nonzero nonunit x in R, the following are satisfied:

- (1) x has a representation as a product of irreducibles. That is, there exist irreducible elements x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n in R such that $x = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n$.
- (2) In any factorization of x as in (1), the number of factors is unique.
- (3) In any factorization of x as in (1), the irreducible factors are unique up to order and associates.

EXAMPLE 3.4.12. The ring \mathbb{Z} is a UFD, by the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic. We will prove in Theorem 3.4.16 that any PID is a UFD.

COROLLARY 3.4.13. Let R be a UFD. If $X = \{r_1, ..., r_n\}$ is a finite nonempty subset of R, then $d = \gcd(X)$ exists and is unique up to associates.

PROOF. If n=1, then by Proposition 3.4.8 (1), $r_1=\gcd(X)$ exists. By Mathematical Induction and Exercise 3.4.25, it suffices to prove the n=2 case. Assume $X=\{a,b\}$. If a=0, then (a,b)=(b) and by Proposition 3.4.8 (1), $b=\gcd(a,b)$ exists. If (a,b)=(1), then by Proposition 3.4.8 (1), $1=\gcd(a,b)$ exists. Assume a and b are both nonzero and nonunits. Then by Exercise 3.4.26, $\gcd(a,b)$ exists and we are done.

COROLLARY 3.4.14. Let R be a unique factorization domain and $p \in R - (0)$. Then the following are equivalent.

- (1) p is irreducible.
- (2) p is prime.
- (3) The principal ideal (p) is a prime ideal.

PROOF. By Lemma 3.4.5 (1), (2) is equivalent to (3). By Lemma 3.4.5 (3), (2) implies (1). We prove that (1) implies (2). Suppose p is irreducible and $p \mid ab$. Write ab = pc for some c. Factor a, b, c into irreducibles. By uniqueness of factorization, p is an associate of one of the irreducible factors of a or b.

EXAMPLE 3.4.15. Let R be a unique factorization domain. If x is a nonzero nonunit in R, then the number of factors in a factorization of x into primes is unique (Definition 3.4.11(2)). Let $\nu(x)$ be the number of factors in a prime factorization of x. Extend ν to a function from R to the well ordered set $\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \cup \{\infty\}$ by setting $\nu(0) = \infty$ and $\nu(x) = 0$ if x is a unit. The function ν satisfies:

- (1) $\nu(xy) = \nu(x) + \nu(y)$.
- (2) $\nu(x) = 0$ if and only if x is a unit.
- (3) $\nu(x) = 1$ if and only if x is irreducible.

4.2. Principal Ideal Domains. The fundamental properties of a principal ideal domain are derived in Theorem 3.4.16. In particular, every principal ideal domain is a unique factorization domain, by Part (6). In Part (2) we prove that a PID satisfies the ascending chain condition on ideals. See Section 7.6 for more examples of rings that satisfy the ascending chain condition or descending chain condition on left ideals.

THEOREM 3.4.16. Let R be a principal ideal domain (a PID, for short).

- (1) If p is an irreducible element, then p is a prime element.
- (2) R satisfies the ascending chain condition on ideals. That is, given a chain of ideals $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq I_3 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq I_n \subseteq \cdots$, there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $I_N = I_{N+1} = \cdots$.
- (3) If $a \in R$ is a nonunit, nonzero element of R, then the set

$$S = \{ p \in R \mid p \text{ is irreducible and } p \mid a \}$$

contains only a finite number of associate classes. In other words, up to associates, a has only a finite number of irreducible factors.

- (4) (a) If I is an ideal in R which is not the unit ideal, then $\bigcap_{n\geq 1} I^n = (0)$.
 - (b) Suppose a is a nonzero element in R, p is irreducible and p is a factor of a. Then for some $n \ge 1$ we have $a \in (p^n)$ and $a \notin (p^{n+1})$.
- (5) If $a \in R$ is a nonunit and a nonzero element, then there exists an irreducible element p such that $p \mid a$.
- (6) R is a unique factorization domain.

PROOF. (1): This is Corollary 3.4.10.

- (2): Let $I = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} I_k$. By Exercise 3.2.23, I is an ideal in R. Since R is a PID, there exists $a \in R$ such that I = (a). Given $a \in I$, we know $a \in I_N$ for some N. Then $I = (a) \subseteq I_N \subseteq I_{N+1} \subseteq \cdots$ and we are done.
- (3): The proof is by contradiction. Assume $\{p_1, p_2, ...\}$ is a sequence in S such that for each n > 1, p_n does not divide $p_1p_2 \cdots p_{n-1}$. Write $a = p_1a_1$. Then $p_2 \mid p_1a_1$. By assumption, p_2 does not divide p_1 . By Part (1), $p_2 \mid a_1$ and we write $a_1 = p_2a_2$. Iteratively we arrive at the factorizations

$$a = p_1 a_1 = p_1 p_2 a_2 = \dots = p_1 p_2 \dots p_n a_n.$$

Applying one more step, we know $p_{n+1} \mid a$. Since p_{n+1} does not divide $p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n$, and p_{n+1} is prime, it follows that $p_{n+1} \mid a_n$. Write $a_n = p_{n+1} a_{n+1}$. Therefore $(a_n) \subseteq (a_{n+1})$ with equality if and only if a_n and a_{n+1} are associates. But p_{n+1} is not a unit, so by Lemma 3.4.3(5), the chain of ideals

$$(a_1) \subseteq (a_2) \subseteq \cdots \subseteq (a_n) \subseteq (a_{n+1}) \subseteq \cdots$$

is strictly increasing. This contradicts Part (2).

- (4): Because R is a PID, I=(b) for some $b\in R$. If I=0, then Part (a) is trivial, so we assume $b\neq 0$. Let $M=\bigcap_{n=1}^\infty I^n$. Then M is an ideal in R, so M=(r) for some $r\in R$. Since M is an ideal, $bM\subseteq M$. To show that bM=M, assume $x\in M$. Then $x\in M\subseteq I$ implies x=by for some $y\in R$. Let $n\geq 1$. Then $x\in M\subseteq I^{n+1}=(b^{n+1})$ implies $x=b^{n+1}z$ for some $z\in R$. Since R is an integral domain and $b\neq 0$, $x=by=b^{n+1}z$ implies $y=b^nz\in I^n=(b^n)$. This proves $y\in \bigcap_{n\geq 1}I^n=M$. Therefore $x\in bM$, and bM=M. Since bM=(br), Lemma 3.4.3 says br and r are associates. But b is not a unit, so r=0, which proves (a). For (b), take I=(p). By assumption, $a\in (p)$ and $a\neq 0$. For some $n\geq 1$ we have $a\not\in (p^{n+1})$ and $a\in (p^n)$.
- (5): The proof is by contradiction. Suppose $a \in R$ is not a unit, and not divisible by an irreducible. Then a is not irreducible. There are nonunits a_1 , b_1 in R such that $a = a_1b_1$. By our assumption, a_1 and b_1 are not irreducible. By Lemma 3.4.3, $(a) \subsetneq (a_1)$. Since a_1 is not irreducible, there are nonunits a_2 , b_2 in R such that $a_1 = a_2b_2$. Since a_2 and b_2 are divisors of a, they are both irreducible. By Lemma 3.4.3, $(a) \subsetneq (a_1) \subsetneq (a_2)$. Recursively construct a strictly increasing sequence of ideals $(a_i) \subsetneq (a_{i+1})$, contradicting Part (2).
 - (6): This proof is left to the reader.

Theorem 3.4.17. If R is an integral domain that is not a field, then the following are equivalent.

- (1) R is a principal ideal domain.
- (2) R is a unique factorization domain with the property that every nonzero prime ideal is a maximal ideal.
- PROOF. (1) implies (2): Assume R is a PID. By Theorem 3.4.16 (6), R is a UFD. Let P be a nonzero prime ideal. Then $P=(\pi)$ is principal and π is irreducible. Let $x \in R-P$. The ideal Q=(x)+P is principal. Then Q=(y) for some $y \in R$. Since $\pi \in (y)$, there is some π_1 such that $\pi=y\pi_1$. For contradiction's sake assume y is not a unit. Then y is irreducible, since π is irreducible. In this case, π and y are associates, so $y \in P$, a contradiction. This proves Q=R, hence P is maximal.
- (2) implies (1): Assume R is a UFD and every nonzero prime ideal is maximal. As in Example 3.4.15, let $\nu: R \to \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\infty\}$ be the function defined by: $\nu(x)$ is the number of factors in a representation of x as a product of irreducibles. Given a nonzero ideal I, define $\nu(I)$ to be the minimum of $\{\nu(x) \mid x \in I\}$. Then $\nu(I) = 0$ if and only if I = R. If I is a prime ideal in R, then by Exercise 3.4.30 there is a prime element $\pi \in I$. By Lemma 3.4.5, (π) is a prime ideal and by hypothesis (π) is a maximal ideal in R. Hence $(\pi) \subseteq I$ implies $I = (\pi)$ is principal. This and Corollary 3.4.14 imply that $\nu(I) = 1$ if and only if I is a prime ideal.
- Let I be a nonzero ideal in R. The proof is by induction on $\nu(I)$. As seen already, if $\nu(I) \leq 1$, then I is principal. Inductively, assume n > 1 and that if J is an ideal of R with $\nu(J) < n$, then J is principal. Let I be an ideal with $\nu(I) = n$. We prove that I is principal. Let $x \in I$ be such that $\nu(x) = n$. Let p be an irreducible factor of x and write $x = px_1$. Then $\nu(x_1) = n 1$. Let $y \in I (0)$. Assume for sake of contradiction that y is not in (p). Then (y) + (p) = (1) since (p) is a maximal ideal. For some $a, b \in R$ we have 1 = ay + bp. Then $x_1 = ayx_1 + bpx_1 = ax_1y + bx$ is in I. This is a contradiction, since $\nu(x_1) = n 1$ and $\nu(I) = n$. We conclude that $y \in (p)$, which proves that $I \subseteq (p)$. By Exercise 3.2.31 (6), I = (I : (p))(p),

where (I:(p)) is the quotient ideal. In particular, $x = px_1$ and $x_1 \in (I:(p))$. This proves $\nu(I:(p)) \leq n-1$. By our induction hypothesis, I:(p)=(z) is principal. Then I=(I:(p))(p)=(z)(p)=(zp) is principal, which completes the proof. \square

4.3. Euclidean Domains.

DEFINITION 3.4.18. A *euclidean domain* is an integral domain R together with a function $\phi: R - (0) \to \mathbb{N}$, satisfying the following two properties.

- (1) If $a, b \in R (0)$, then $\phi(a) \leq \phi(ab)$.
- (2) If $a, b \in R$ and $b \neq 0$, then there exist $q, r \in R$ such that a = bq + r and either r = 0, or $\phi(r) < \phi(b)$.

Example 3.4.19. Here are two standard examples of euclidean domains.

- (1) The ring of integers \mathbb{Z} is a euclidean domain, where ϕ is the absolute value function. Property (2) is the Division Algorithm (Proposition 1.2.3).
- (2) The ring of gaussian integers, denoted $\mathbb{Z}[i]$, is the subring of \mathbb{C} consisting of all complex numbers of the form a+bi where $a,b\in\mathbb{Z}$ (see Exercise 3.1.24). Define $\phi:\mathbb{Z}[i]\to\mathbb{N}$ by $\phi(a+bi)=a^2+b^2=(a+bi)(a-bi)$. If $y\neq 0$, then $\phi(y)\geq 1$. Since $\phi(xy)=\phi(x)\phi(y)\geq \phi(x)$, Property (1) is satisfied. Assume x=a+bi and $N=a^2+b^2\neq 0$. Let y=c+di. Then $x^{-1}=(a-bi)/N$, so $yx^{-1}=((c+di)(a-bi))/N=(e+fi)/N$. Divide in \mathbb{Z} to get $yx^{-1}=(q_1+r_1/N)+(q_2+r_2/N)i$. If we assume $0\leq |r_i|\leq N/2$, then $r_1^2+r_2^2\leq N^2/4< N^2$. Let $q=q_1+q_2i$. Then

$$yx^{-1} = q + (r_1 + r_2)/N$$

$$y(a - bi) = qN + (r_1 + r_2)$$

$$y(a - bi) = qx(a - bi) + (r_1 + r_2)$$

$$(y - qx)(a - bi) = (r_1 + r_2)$$

$$\phi(y - qx)(a^2 + b^2) = r_1^2 + r_2^2 < (a^2 + b^2)^2$$

$$\phi(y - qx) < a^2 + b^2 = \phi(x)$$

Set r = y - qx. Then $\phi(r) < \phi(x)$, hence Property (2) is satisfied. Therefore, $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is a euclidean domain.

THEOREM 3.4.20. If R is a euclidean domain, then

- (1) R is a principal ideal domain.
- (2) R is a unique factorization domain.

PROOF. (1): Let I be a nonzero ideal in R. Let M be the least element of the set $\{\phi(x) \mid x \in I - (0)\}$. Let $a \in I - (0)$ such that $\phi(a) = M$. Let $u \in I$. Dividing, u = qa + r and either r = 0, or $\phi(r) < \phi(a)$. Since $r = u - qa \in I$ we conclude that r = 0.

PROPOSITION 3.4.21. (The Euclidean Algorithm) Let R be a euclidean domain with associated function $\phi: R-(0) \to \mathbb{N}$. Let a and b be elements of R. The greatest common divisor of a and b exists and satisfies the following recursive formula:

- (Basis) If b = 0, then gcd(a, b) = a.
- (Recurrence) If $b \neq 0$, then gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, r), where a = bq + r and either r = 0 or $\phi(r) < \phi(b)$.

PROOF. If b=0, then the ideals (a,b) and (a) are equal in R, and Corollary 3.4.9 implies $\gcd(a,b)=a$. If $b\neq 0$, then by Definition 3.4.18, a=bq+r, for elements q and r in R such that either r=0 or $\phi(r)<\phi(b)$. Then the ideals (a,b) and (b,r) are equal in R. By Corollary 3.4.9, $\gcd(a,b)=\gcd(b,r)$. To see that the recursive algorithm converges, set $r_0=b$ and successively apply Definition 3.4.18 to find a sequence of quotients q_1,q_2,\ldots,q_{n+1} and a sequence of remainders r_0,r_1,r_2,\ldots,r_n satisfying:

$$a = r_0 q_1 + r_1, \quad 0 < \phi(r_1) < \phi(r_0)$$

$$r_0 = r_1 q_2 + r_2, \quad 0 < \phi(r_2) < \phi(r_1)$$

$$r_1 = r_2 q_3 + r_3, \quad 0 < \phi(r_3) < \phi(r_2)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$r_{n-3} = r_{n-2} q_{n-1} + r_{n-1}, \quad 0 < \phi(r_{n-1}) < \phi(r_{n-2})$$

$$r_{n-2} = r_{n-1} q_n + r_n, \quad 0 < \phi(r_n) < \phi(r_{n-1})$$

$$r_{n-1} = r_n q_{n+1} + 0$$

where r_n is the last nonzero remainder. The algorithm converges for some n such that $0 \le n \le \phi(b)$ because $\phi(r_0) > \phi(r_1) > \phi(r_2) > \cdots > \phi(r_n) > 0$. As mentioned above.

$$r_n = \gcd(r_n, r_{n-1}) = \gcd(r_n, r_{n-1}) = \gcd(r_{n-1}, r_{n-2})$$

= $\cdots = \gcd(r_3, r_2) = \gcd(r_2, r_1) = \gcd(r_1, r_0) = \gcd(a, b).$

COROLLARY 3.4.22. (Bézout's Identity) Let R be a euclidean domain with associated function $\phi: R - (0) \to \mathbb{N}$. Let a and b be elements of R. There exist x, y in R such that gcd(a, b) = ax + by.

PROOF. If a=0, then $b=\gcd(a,b)$. Take x=0 and y=1. If b=0, then $a=\gcd(a,b)$. Take x=1 and y=0. If $b\neq 0$, then by Definition 3.4.18, a=bq+r, for elements q and r in R such that either r=0 or $\phi(r)<\phi(b)$. Then $\gcd(a,b)=\gcd(b,r)$ and by induction on $\phi(b)$ we can write $\gcd(b,r)=bu+rv$ for some u,v in R. Then

$$\gcd(a, b) = bu + rv$$
$$= bu + (a - bq)v$$
$$= av + b(u - qv).$$

Take x = v and y = u - qv.

4.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 3.4.23. Let a and b be elements of a commutative ring R. If (a,b) = (1) and $a \mid bc$, then $a \mid c$.

EXERCISE 3.4.24. Let X be a nonempty subset of a commutative ring R. If $d \in (X)$ and $d \mid x$ for all $x \in X$, then (d) = (X).

EXERCISE 3.4.25. Let $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ be a nonempty finite subset of a commutative ring R, with $n \geq 2$. If $e = \gcd(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1})$ and $d = \gcd(e, x_n)$, then $d = \gcd(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$.

EXERCISE 3.4.26. (Exponential Notation in a UFD) Let a and b be elements of a unique factorization domain R. Assume a and b are both nonzero and nonunits.

- (1) Show that there exist irreducible elements p_1, \ldots, p_m in R such that p_i and p_j are associates of each other if and only if i = j and nonnegative integers $e_1, \ldots, e_m, f_1, \ldots, f_m$ such that $a = p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_m^{e_m}$ and $b = p_1^{f_1} \cdots p_m^{f_m}$.
- (2) Show that in the notation from (1) that $a \mid b$ if and only if $e_i \leq f_i$ for each i.
- (3) In the notation from (1), for j = 1, ..., m, let ℓ_j be the least element in the set $\{e_j, f_j\}$. Prove that $d = x_1^{\ell_1} x_2^{\ell_2} \cdots x_m^{\ell_m} = \gcd(a, b)$.

EXERCISE 3.4.27. Let R be an integral domain and X a nonempty subset of R. Assume $d = \gcd(X)$ exists and $d \neq 0$. Let $Y = \{xd^{-1} \mid x \in X\}$ (see Lemma 3.4.3 (6) for this notation). Prove that $1 = \gcd(Y)$.

EXERCISE 3.4.28. Let R be a euclidean domain with norm function $\phi: R-(0) \to \mathbb{N}$. Prove:

- (1) $\phi(1)$ is the least element of the set $\{\phi(x) \mid x \in R (0)\}$.
- (2) The group of units of R is $R^* = \{x \in R (0) \mid \phi(x) = \phi(1)\}.$

EXERCISE 3.4.29. Let R be an integral domain that satisfies the two properties:

- (A) In R an irreducible element is a prime element.
- (B) R satisfies the ascending chain condition on principal ideals. That is, given a chain of principal ideals $\langle a_1 \rangle \subseteq \langle a_2 \rangle \subseteq \langle a_3 \rangle \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \langle a_n \rangle \subseteq \cdots$, there exists $N \geq 1$ such that $\langle a_N \rangle = \langle a_{N+1} \rangle = \cdots$.

Follow the outline below to show that R is a unique factorization domain.

(1) Prove that if $a \in R$ is a nonunit, nonzero element of R, then the set

$$S = \{ p \in R \mid p \text{ is irreducible and } p \mid a \}$$

contains only a finite number of associate classes. In other words, up to associates, a has only a finite number of irreducible factors.

- (2) Suppose a is a nonzero element in R, p is irreducible and p is a factor of a. Prove that for some $n \ge 1$ we have $a \in (p^n)$ and $a \notin (p^{n+1})$.
- (3) Prove that if $a \in R$ is a nonunit and a nonzero element, then there exists an irreducible element p such that $p \mid a$.
- (4) R is a unique factorization domain.

(Hints: For (1) and (2), use the proof of Theorem 3.4.16(3). For (3) and (4), use the proofs of Parts (5) and (6) of Theorem 3.4.16.)

EXERCISE 3.4.30. Let R be a UFD and P a nonzero prime ideal of R. Prove that P contains a prime element π of R. (Hint: Let $x \in P - (0)$. Show that P contains at least one prime divisor of x.)

5. Ring of Quotients

DEFINITION 3.5.1. Let R be a commutative ring and W a subset of R that satisfies

- (1) $1 \in W$, and
- (2) if x and y are in W, then $xy \in W$.

In this case, we say that W is a multiplicative subset of R.

Example 3.5.2. Here are some typical examples of multiplicative sets.

- (1) If P is a prime ideal in R, then Proposition 3.2.14 says that R P is a multiplicative set.
- (2) If R is an integral domain, then W = R (0) is a multiplicative set.
- (3) If $f \in R$, then $\{1, f, f^2, f^3, \dots\}$ is a multiplicative set.
- (4) The set of all $x \in R$ such that x is not a zero divisor is a multiplicative set

Suppose W is a multiplicative subset of R. Define a relation on $R \times W$ by $(r,v) \sim (s,w)$ if and only if there exists $q \in W$ such that q(rw-sv)=0. Clearly \sim is reflexive and symmetric. Let us show that it is transitive. Suppose $(r,u) \sim (s,v)$ and $(s,v) \sim (t,w)$. There exist $e,f \in W$ such that e(rv-su)=0 and f(sw-tv)=0. Multiply the first by fw and the second by eu to get fwe(rv-su)=0 and euf(sw-tv)=0. Subtracting, we have rfwev-sfweu+seufw-teufv=evf(rw-tu)=0. Since $evf \in W$, this shows $(r,u) \sim (t,w)$. Therefore \sim is an equivalence relation on $R \times W$. The set of equivalence classes is denoted $W^{-1}R$ and the equivalence class containing (r,w) is denoted by the fraction r/w.

Lemma 3.5.3. Let R be a commutative ring and W a multiplicative subset of R.

(1) $W^{-1}R$ is a commutative ring under the addition and multiplication operations

$$\frac{r}{v} + \frac{s}{w} = \frac{rw + sv}{vw}, \quad \frac{r}{v}\frac{s}{w} = \frac{rs}{vw}.$$

The additive identity is 0/1, the multiplicative identity is 1/1.

- (2) The map $\theta: R \to W^{-1}R$ defined by $r \mapsto r/1$ is a homomorphism of rings. The image of W under θ is a subset of the group of units of $W^{-1}R$.
- (3) If R is an integral domain and $W \subseteq R (0)$, then the following are true.
 - (a) The map θ of Part (2) is one-to-one.
 - (b) If R is a field, then the map θ of Part (2) is an isomorphism.
 - (c) r/v = s/w if and only if rw = sv.
 - (d) $W^{-1}R$ is an integral domain.
 - (e) If W = R (0), then $W^{-1}R$ is a field, which we call the quotient field of R.

PROOF. (1): Assume $\frac{r}{v} = \frac{r_1}{v_1}$ and $\frac{s}{w} = \frac{s_1}{w_1}$. Then there exist α and β in W such that

$$(5.1) \qquad \qquad \alpha(rv_1 - r_1v) = 0$$

$$\beta(sw_1 - s_1 w) = 0.$$

Multiply (5.1) by βww_1 and (5.2) by αvv_1 to get the identities

$$\alpha \beta r v_1 w w_1 - \alpha \beta r_1 v w w_1 = 0$$

$$\alpha \beta s w_1 v v_1 - \alpha \beta s_1 w v v_1 = 0.$$

Adding the left-hand sides we derive

$$\alpha\beta((rw + sv)v_1w_1 - (r_1w_1 + s_1v_1)vw) = 0.$$

This is the center equation in:

$$\frac{r}{v} + \frac{s}{w} = \frac{rw + sv}{vw} = \frac{r_1w_1 + s_1v_1}{v_1w_1} = \frac{r_1}{v_1} + \frac{s_1}{w_1}.$$

Hence, addition of fractions is well defined. Multiply (5.1) by βsw_1 and (5.2) by $\alpha r_1 v$ to get the identities

$$\alpha\beta (rsv_1w_1 - r_1vsw_1) = 0$$

$$\alpha\beta (sw_1r_1v - s_1wr_1v) = 0.$$

Adding the left-hand sides we derive

$$\alpha\beta \left(rsv_1w_1 - r_1s_1vw\right) = 0.$$

This is the center equation in:

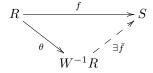
$$\frac{r}{v}\frac{s}{w} = \frac{rs}{vw} = \frac{r_1s_1}{v_1w_1} = \frac{r_1}{v_1}\frac{s_1}{w_1}.$$

Hence, multiplication of fractions is well defined. It is routine to check that the associative and distributive laws hold and that $W^{-1}R$ is a commutative ring.

The rest of the proof is left to the reader.

DEFINITION 3.5.4. As in Lemma 3.5.3, let R be a commutative ring and W a multiplicative subset of R. The ring $W^{-1}R$ is called the *localization* of R at W. It comes with the natural map $\theta: R \to W^{-1}R$. If W is the set of all elements of R that are not zero divisors, then $W^{-1}R$ is called the *total ring of quotients* of R. If R is an integral domain and W = R - (0), then $W^{-1}R$ is called the *quotient field*, or *field of fractions* of R.

Theorem 3.5.5. (Universal Mapping Property) Let R be a commutative ring, W a multiplicative subset of R, and $W^{-1}R$ the localization. If S is a commutative ring and $f: R \to S$ a homomorphism such that $f(W) \subseteq \mathrm{Units}(S)$, then there exists a unique homomorphism $\bar{f}: W^{-1}R \to S$



such that $f = \bar{f}\theta$.

PROOF. First we show the existence of \bar{f} . Assume $x_1/y_1 = x_2/y_2$. Then there exists $y \in W$ such that $y(x_1y_2 - x_2y_1) = 0$. Applying f, we get $f(y)(f(x_1)f(y_2) - f(x_2)f(y_1)) = 0$. Since $f(W) \subseteq \text{Units}(S)$ we get $f(x_1)f(y_1)^{-1} = f(x_2)f(y_2)^{-1}$. The reader should verify that $\bar{f}(x/y) = f(x)f(y)^{-1}$ defines a homomorphism of rings.

Now we prove the uniqueness of \bar{f} . Suppose $g:W^{-1}R\to S$ is another such homomorphism. Then for each $y\in W$, $f(y)=g\theta(y)=g(y/1)$ is a unit in S. Then $g(1/y)=g(y/1)^{-1}$ for each $y\in W$. Now $g(x/y)=g(\theta(x))g(\theta(y))^{-1}=f(x)f(y)^{-1}=\bar{f}(x/y)$.

Corollary 3.5.6. Let R be an integral domain with quotient field K and natural map $\theta: R \to K$. If F is a field and $f: R \to F$ is a monomorphism, then there exists a unique $\bar{f}: K \to F$ such that $f = \bar{f}\theta$.

5.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 3.5.7. Let R be a commutative ring and $f \in R$. As remarked in Example 3.5.2 (3), $W = \{1, f, f^2, \dots\}$ is a multiplicative set. Localization of R at W is denoted $R[f^{-1}]$ and is sometimes called the R-algebra formed by "inverting f". Let α and β be two elements of R. Prove the following.

- (1) If $\beta/1$ denotes the image of β in $R[\alpha^{-1}]$, then the rings $R[(\alpha\beta)^{-1}]$ and $R[\alpha^{-1}][(\beta/1)^{-1}]$ are isomorphic.
- (2) If i > 0, then $R[\alpha^{-1}]$ and $R[\alpha^{-i}]$ are isomorphic as rings.

EXERCISE 3.5.8. Let R be a commutative ring and $W \subseteq R$ a multiplicative set. Let $V \subseteq W^{-1}R$ be a multiplicative set. Show that there exists a multiplicative set $U \subseteq R$ such that the rings $U^{-1}R$ and $V^{-1}(W^{-1}R)$ are isomorphic.

EXERCISE 3.5.9. Let R be a commutative ring, $W \subseteq R$ a multiplicative set, and $\theta: R \to W^{-1}R$ the natural map.

- (1) The kernel of θ is equal to $\{x \in R \mid xw = 0 \text{ for some } w \in W\}$.
- (2) θ is an isomorphism if and only if $W \subseteq \text{Units}(R)$.

EXERCISE 3.5.10. Let R be a local PID with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . Let π be a generator for \mathfrak{m} . Let K be the quotient field of R. Prove:

- (1) If π_1 is another irreducible element of R, then π and π_1 are associates. That is, up to associates, π is the unique irreducible element in R.
- (2) As in Exercise 3.5.7, let $R[\pi^{-1}]$ be the R-algebra formed by inverting π . Then $R[\pi^{-1}]$ is equal to K, the quotient field of R.
- (3) If x is a nonzero element of K, then x has a representation in the form $x = u\pi^n$, for a unit $u \in R^*$ and an integer n in \mathbb{Z} . The unit u and integer n are uniquely determined by x.

EXERCISE 3.5.11. Let D be an integer that is not a square. Let \sqrt{D} be the complex number given by Proposition 1.5.3 (5).

- (1) Show that $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{D}] = \{r + s\sqrt{D} \mid r, s \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ is a subfield of \mathbb{C} . The field $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{D}]$ is an example of an algebraic number field.
- (2) Show that $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}] = \{a + b\sqrt{D} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a subring of $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{D}]$.
- (3) Show that $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{D}]$ is equal to the quotient field of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}]$.

6. Polynomial Rings

Let R be any ring. The *polynomial ring* in one variable x with coefficients in R,

$$R[x] = \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i x^i \mid n \ge 0, a_i \in R \right\}$$

is constructed in the usual way. It is assumed that the *indeterminate* x commutes with elements of R. The ring R[x] is commutative if and only if R is commutative. If $a \in R - (0)$, the degree of the monomial ax^n is n. For convenience, the degree of 0 is taken to be $-\infty$. The degree of a polynomial $f = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i x^i$ in R[x] is the maximum of the degrees of the terms a_0x^0, \ldots, a_nx^n . If f is nonzero of degree n, the leading coefficient of f is a_n . We say that f is monic if the leading coefficient

of f is 1. If $f = \sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i x^i$ has degree m and $g = \sum_{i=0}^{n} b_i x^i$ has degree n, then

$$fg = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i x^i\right) \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} b_i x^i\right)$$
$$= a_0 b_0 + (a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0) x + \dots + \left(\sum_{j=0}^{k} a_j b_{k-j}\right) x^k + \dots + a_m b_n x^{m+n}.$$

It follows that deg(fg) = deg(f) + deg(g) in case one of the leading coefficients a_m or b_n is not a zero divisor in R.

LEMMA 3.6.1. If R is a domain, then R[x] is a domain.

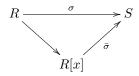
PROOF. The proof is left to the reader.

EXAMPLE 3.6.2. The natural mapping $R \to R[x]$ which maps $a \in R - (0)$ to the polynomial of degree zero is a monomorphism.

Theorem 3.6.3. Let $\sigma: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings.

(1) The definition $\bar{\sigma}(\sum r_i x^i) = \sum \sigma(r_i) x^i$ extends σ to a homomorphism on the polynomial rings $\bar{\sigma}: R[x] \to S[x]$. If $K = \ker(\sigma)$, then the kernel of $\bar{\sigma}$ is the set K[x] consisting of those polynomials $f \in R[x]$ such that every coefficient of f is in K.

(2) (Universal Mapping Property) Let s be an element of S such that $s\sigma(r) = \sigma(r)s$ for every $r \in R$. Then there is a unique homomorphism $\bar{\sigma}$ such that $\bar{\sigma}(x) = s$ and the diagram



commutes. We say $\bar{\sigma}$ is the evaluation homomorphism defined by $x \mapsto s$.

PROOF. The proof is left to the reader.

Theorem 3.6.4. (The Division Algorithm) Let R be any ring. Let $f, g \in R[x]$ and assume the leading coefficient of g is a unit of R. There exist unique polynomials $q, r \in R[x]$ such that f = qg + r and $\deg r < \deg g$.

PROOF. (Existence.) If $\deg f < \deg g$, then set q=0 and r=f. Otherwise assume $f=\sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i$ where $a_m \neq 0$ and $g=\sum_{i=0}^n b_i x^i$ where $b_n \neq 0$ and b_n is a unit in R. If m=0, then n=0 so $q=a_0b_0^{-1}$ and r=0. Proceed by induction on m. The leading coefficient of $\left(a_m b_n^{-1} x^{m-n}\right)g$ is a_m . Set $h=f-\left(a_m b_n^{-1} x^{m-n}\right)g$. Then $\deg h < \deg f$. By induction, $h=q_1g+r$ where $\deg r < \deg g$. Now

$$f = (a_m b_n^{-1} x^{m-n}) g + q_1 g + r$$

= $(a_m b_n^{-1} x^{m-n} + q_1) g + r$

so take $q = a_m b_n^{-1} x^{m-n} + q_1$.

(Uniqueness.) Assume $f = qg + r = q_1g + r_1$ where $\deg r < \deg g$ and $\deg r_1 < \deg g$. Subtracting, we have $(q - q_1)g = r_1 - r$. The degree of the right hand side is $\deg (r_1 - r) \le \max(\deg r_1, \deg r) < \deg g$. The degree of the left hand side is

 $\deg g + \deg (q - q_1)$. If $q - q_1 \neq 0$, this is impossible. So $q_1 = q$ and $r = r_1$. Hence the quotient and remainder are unique.

COROLLARY 3.6.5. (Synthetic Division) If R is any ring, $f = \sum_{i=0}^{m} r_i x^i \in R[x]$ and $a \in R$, then there exists a unique polynomial $q \in R[x]$ such that f = q(x-a) + f(a) where $f(a) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} r_i a^i \in R$.

PROOF. If a is in the center of R, then upon dividing x-a into f, this follows straight from Theorem 3.6.4. If $\deg f \leq 0$, then take q=0. Otherwise assume $m=\deg f\geq 1$. Notice that

$$x^{k+1} - a^{k+1} = (x^k + ax^{k-1} + \dots + a^{k-1}x + a^k)(x - a).$$

Multiply by r_{k+1} to get

$$r_{k+1}(x^{k+1} - a^{k+1}) = r_{k+1}(x^k + ax^{k-1} + \dots + a^{k-1}x + a^k)(x - a),$$

which can be written

$$r_{k+1}x^{k+1} - r_{k+1}a^{k+1} = q_{k+1}(x-a).$$

Add over all k in the range $0, 1, \ldots, n-1$:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i x^i - \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i a^i = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} q_i\right) (x - a) = q(x - a).$$

To get f - f(a) = q(x - a), simply add $r_0 - r_0$ to the left-hand side. The quotient q and remainder f(a) are unique by Theorem 3.6.4.

COROLLARY 3.6.6. If k is a field, then k[x] is a euclidean domain with the degree function $\deg: k[x] - (0) \to \mathbb{N}$. It follows that k[x] is a PID and a UFD.

If k is a field, and R = k[x], then the quotient field of k[x], denoted k(x), is called the field of rational functions over k. If S is a ring and R a subring, then by Theorem 3.6.3 we can view R[x] as a subring of S[x].

EXAMPLE 3.6.7. Let R be a commutative ring and $g \in R[x]$ a monic polynomial of degree n. Consider the residue class ring R[x]/(g). Given any $f \in R[x]$, by the Division Algorithm, Theorem 3.6.4, there is a unique polynomial $r \in R[x]$ such that f + (g) = r + (g) and $\deg r < n$. Therefore, the set of polynomials $\{r \in R[x] \mid \deg r < n\}$ is a complete set of coset representatives for R[x]/(g).

DEFINITION 3.6.8. Let R be any ring, $u \in R$, and $f = \sum_{i=0}^{m} r_i x^i \in R[x]$. We say that u is a root of f in case $f(u) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} r_i u^i = 0$.

Lemma 3.6.9. Let R be a commutative ring, $u \in R$, and $f \in R[x]$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) u is a root of f.
- (2) f is in the kernel of the evaluation homomorphism $R[x] \to R$ defined by $x \mapsto u$.
- (3) There exists $q \in R[x]$ such that f = (x u)q.

PROOF. The proof is left to the reader.

Corollary 3.6.10. If R is an integral domain, and $f \in R[x]$ has degree $d \ge 0$, then

(1) If u is a root of f in R, then there exists $m \ge 1$ such that $f = (x - u)^m q$ and $q(u) \ne 0$.

- (2) f has at most d roots in R.
- (3) (Lagrange Interpolation) Let $n \geq 1$. Given n+1 distinct elements of R: $\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_n$, and n+1 arbitrary elements of R: β_0, \ldots, β_n , there exists a unique polynomial $f \in R[x]$ such that $\deg f \leq n$ and $f(\alpha_i) = \beta_i$ for each i.

PROOF. (1): Apply Lemma 3.6.9 and induction on the degree.

- (2): If d=0, then f has no root. Inductively assume $d\geq 1$ and that the result holds for any polynomial of degree in the range $0,\ldots,d-1$. If f has no root, then we are done. Suppose u is a root of f. By Part (1) we can write $f=(x-u)^mq$, where $\deg q=d-m$. If $v\neq u$ is another root of f, then $0=f(u)=(v-u)^mq(u)$. Since R is an integral domain, this means u is a root of q. By induction, there are at most d-m choices for v.
- (3): (Existence.) The Lagrange basis polynomials with respect to the set $\{\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$ are

$$L_0(x) = \frac{(x - \alpha_1) \cdots (x - \alpha_n)}{(\alpha_0 - \alpha_1) \cdots (\alpha_0 - \alpha_n)}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$L_j(x) = \frac{(x - \alpha_0) \cdots (x - \alpha_{j-1})(x - \alpha_{j+1}) \cdots (x - \alpha_n)}{(\alpha_j - \alpha_0) \cdots (\alpha_j - \alpha_{j-1})(\alpha_j - \alpha_{j+1}) \cdots (\alpha_j - \alpha_n)}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$L_n(x) = \frac{(x - \alpha_0) \cdots (x - \alpha_{n-1})}{(\alpha_n - \alpha_0) \cdots (\alpha_n - \alpha_{n-1})}.$$

Notice that $L_i(x)$ has degree n and

$$L_j(\alpha_k) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } k = j. \end{cases}$$

Set

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} \beta_j L_j(x).$$

Then $f(\alpha_k) = \beta_k$ for each k = 0, ..., n and deg $f \le n$.

(Uniqueness.) Suppose f and g are two polynomials in R[x] such that $\deg f \le n$, $\deg g \le n$ and $f(\alpha_k) = \beta_k = g(\alpha_k)$ for each $k = 0, \ldots, n$. Then $\deg (f - g) \le n$ and f - g has n + 1 roots, namely $\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_n$. By Part (2), f - g = 0.

COROLLARY 3.6.11. Let R be an integral domain. Let n > 1 be an integer. The group of nth roots of unity in R, $\mu_n = \{u \in R \mid u^n = 1\}$, is a cyclic group of order at most n.

PROOF. The set μ_n is clearly a subgroup of R^* . The order of μ_n is at most n, by Corollary 3.6.10(2). For every divisor d of n, the equation $x^d = 1$ has at most d solutions in R^* . By Exercise 2.8.10, μ_n is a cyclic group.

Corollary 3.6.12. Let F be a finite field of order q. Then F^* is a cyclic abelian group of order q-1.

PROOF. In a field the nonzero elements make up an abelian group. The group F^* has order q-1. By Corollary 2.2.17, every $u \in F^*$ satisfies the equation $u^{q-1} = 1$. By Corollary 3.6.11, F^* is a cyclic group of order q-1.

EXAMPLE 3.6.13. If F is a field, the ring F[x,y] is not a PID. The ideal $(x,y) = \{ux + vy \mid u,v \in F[x,y]\}$ is not a principal ideal.

Example 3.6.14. We show by example that in Corollaries 3.6.10 (2) and 3.6.11 it is necessary to assume R is commutative. The example we give is the ring of quaterions $\mathbb H$ over the field $\mathbb R$. Since $\mathbb H$ is a division ring, it is a domain. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb R$ and assume $\alpha > 0$. Then $f(x) = x^2 + \alpha$ is an irreducible quadratic in $\mathbb R[x]$. We show:

- (1) $f(x) = x^2 + \alpha$ has infinitely many roots in \mathbb{H} and
- (2) the set $\{u \in \mathbb{H} \mid u^4 = 1\}$ is infinite.

Start with real numbers b,c,d such that $b^2+c^2+d^2=\alpha$. Since $x_1^2+x_2^2+x_3^2=\alpha$ is the equation of a sphere in \mathbb{R}^3 with positive radius, there are infinitely many choices for (b,c,d). Consider the quaternion $\xi=bi+cj+dk$. Using the norm function from Example 3.1.15 we have $N(\xi)=-\xi^2=b^2+c^2+d^2=\alpha$. Therefore, ξ is a root of $f(x)=x^2+\alpha$. This proves (1). Now we prove (2). By (1) with $\alpha=1$, there are infinitely many $\xi\in\mathbb{H}$ such that $\xi^2=-1$. For each such ξ we have $\xi^4=1$.

DEFINITION 3.6.15. If R is an integral domain, $f \in R[x]$, and u is a root of f, then the *multiplicity* of u as a root of f is the positive number m given by Corollary 3.6.10(1). We say that u is a *simple root* if m = 1. If m > 1, then u is called a *multiple root*.

DEFINITION 3.6.16. If R is any ring and $f = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i x^i \in R[x]$, then the formal derivative of f is defined to be

$$f' = \sum_{i=1}^{n} i a_i x^{i-1}$$

which is also in R[x]. The reader should verify the usual identities satisfied by the derivative operator. In particular, (af + bg)' = af' + bg' and (fg)' = f'g + fg'. If R is commutative, then $(f^n)' = nf^{n-1}f'$.

PROPOSITION 3.6.17. Suppose S is an integral domain and R is a subring of S. Let f be a nonconstant polynomial in R[x] and $u \in S$. Then u is a multiple root of f if and only if f'(u) = f(u) = 0.

PROOF. Suppose u is a multiple root of f. Write $f=(x-u)^2q$ for some $q \in S[x]$ and compute $f'=2(x-u)q+(x-u)^2q'$. It is immediate that f'(u)=0. Conversely, assume f(u)=f'(u)=0. Write f=(x-u)q for some $q \in S[x]$ and compute f'=q+(x-u)q'. It is immediate that q(u)=0, so $f=(x-u)^2q_2$ for some $q_2 \in S[x]$.

Theorem 3.6.18. Let k be a subfield of the integral domain S and f a nonconstant polynomial in k[x].

- (1) Assume
 - (a) gcd(f, f') = 1, or
 - (b) f is irreducible in k[x] and $f' \neq 0$ in k[x], or
 - (c) f is irreducible in k[x] and k has characteristic zero (see Example 3.2.5(5)).

Then f has no multiple root in S.

- (2) Suppose p denotes the characteristic of k. Assume u is a root of f in S.
 - (a) If f is irreducible in k[x] and u is a multiple root of f, then p > 0 and $f \in k[x^p]$.
 - (b) If p > 0 and $f \in k[x^p]$, then u is a multiple root of f.
- PROOF. (1): Assuming $\gcd(f, f') = 1$, by Proposition 3.4.8 there exist $s, t \in k[x]$ such that 1 = fs + f't. It is clear that f and f' do not have a common root in S. By Proposition 3.6.17, f has no multiple root in S. Case (b) reduces immediately to case (a). Case (c) reduces immediately to case (b).
- (2) (a): If $u \in S$ is a multiple root of f, then because f is irreducible in k[x], Part (1) implies p > 0 and f' = 0. The reader should verify that under these conditions $f \in k[x^p]$.
- (2) (b): If k has characteristic p > 0 and $f \in k[x^p]$, then clearly f' = 0. If $u \in S$ is a root of f, then by Proposition 3.6.17, u is a multiple root of f.
- **6.1. Polynomials in Several Variables.** The polynomial ring over R in several variables is defined by iterating the one-variable construction. If m > 1and x_1, \ldots, x_m are indeterminates, then $R[x_1, \ldots, x_m] = R[x_1, \ldots, x_{m-1}][x_m]$. A monomial in $S = R[x_1, \ldots, x_m]$ is a polynomial of the form $M = rx_1^{e_1} \cdots x_m^{e_m}$, where $r \in R$ is the *coefficient* and each exponent e_i is a nonnegative integer. The degree of a monomial is $-\infty$ if r=0, otherwise it is the sum of the exponents. If $M \neq 0$, then deg $M = e_1 + \cdots + e_m$. If M_1 and M_2 are monomials with coefficients r_1, r_2 , then M_1M_2 is a monomial with coefficient r_1r_2 . So $M_1M_2=0$ if and only if $r_1r_2=0$. If $M_1M_2\neq 0$, then $\deg M_1M_2=\deg M_1+\deg M_2$. A polynomial f in S is a sum $f=\sum_{j=1}^d M_j$ where each M_j is a monomial. A polynomial $f\in S$ is said to be homogeneous if f can be written as a sum of monomials all of the same degree. Let $S_0 = R$ be the set of all polynomials in S of degree less than or equal to 0. For all $n \geq 1$, let S_n be the R-submodule generated by the set of all homogeneous polynomials in S of degree n. If f is homogeneous of degree d and g is homogeneous of degree e, then we see fg is homogeneous of degree d+e. A polynomial $f \in S$ can be written $f = f_0 + f_1 + \cdots + f_d$ where each f_i is homogeneous of degree i. We call f_i the homogeneous component of f of degree i. This representation of fas a sum of homogeneous polynomials is unique. The degree of a polynomial is the maximum of the degrees of the homogeneous components. If k is a field, then $k[x_1,\ldots,x_m]$ is an integral domain. The quotient field of $k[x_1,\ldots,x_m]$, denoted $k(x_1,\ldots,x_m)$, is called the field of rational functions over k in m variables.

In Exercise 1.2.23 the lexicographical order \leq is defined on the set of all m-tuples of nonnegative integers $\prod_{i=1}^m \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} = \{(e_1, \ldots, e_m) \mid x_i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}\}$. Under this partial ordering $\prod_{i=1}^m \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ is a chain. This notion induces the lexicographical order on the set of nonzero monomials in $R[x_1, \ldots, x_m]$. If $M_1 = r_1 x_1^{a_1} \cdots x_m^{a_m}$, and $M_2 = r_2 x_1^{b_1} \cdots x_m^{b_m}$ are two nonzero monomials, then $M_1 < M_2$ if and only if $(a_1, \ldots, a_m) < (b_1, \ldots, b_m)$. We see that M_1 and M_2 are comparable if $(a_1, \ldots, a_m) \neq (b_1, \ldots, b_m)$.

LEMMA 3.6.19. Let R be a ring and $S = R[x_1, \ldots, x_m]$.

(1) A nonzero polynomial f in S can be written as a sum $f = \sum_{j=1}^{d} M_j$ where each M_j is a nonzero monomial such that $M_1 < M_2 < \cdots < M_d$. This representation as a sum of strictly increasing monomials is unique. The monomial M_d is called the leading term of f.

- (2) Let f and g be nonzero polynomials in S. Let L(f) be the leading term of f and L(g) the leading term of g. Then the leading term of fg is equal to L(f)L(g).
- (3) If U is a nonempty set of nonzero monomials in S, then there exists an element $\alpha \in U$ with the property that if $\beta \in U$ and β is comparable to α , then $\alpha < \beta$. If U has the property that any two distinct elements are comparable, then there exists $\alpha \in U$ such that if $\beta \in U \{\alpha\}$, then $\alpha < \beta$.

PROOF. (1): Given a nonzero polynomial f, write $f = \sum_{j=1}^d M_j$ where each M_j is a nonzero monomial. By adding coefficients, all monomials that are incomparable can be combined. Hence we can assume the monomials appearing in the sum are comparable. After rearranging if necessary, we can assume $M_1 < M_2 < \cdots < M_d$. Conversely, if $M_1 < M_2 < \cdots < M_d$ is a strictly increasing sequence of monomials, then the sum $f = \sum_{j=1}^d M_j$ is nonzero. The uniqueness claim follows from this fact.

- (2): The proof of this part is left to the reader.
- (3): This follows from Exercise 1.2.23 (3).

6.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 3.6.20. Let $f = x^3 + 1$. Prove that there is an isomorphism θ : $\mathbb{Q}[x]/(f) \to F_1 \oplus F_2$ where F_1 and F_2 are fields. Carefully describe the fields F_1 and F_2 , and the map θ .

EXERCISE 3.6.21. Let k be a field. Let $R = k[x^2, x^3]$ be the subring of k[x] consisting of all polynomials such that the coefficient of x is zero. Prove:

- (1) R is an integral domain.
- (2) Show that the quotient field of R is k(x). We say that R is birational to k[x].
- (3) R is not a UFD. (Hint: x^2 and x^3 are both irreducible.)
- (4) R is not a PID. (Hint: Neither x^2 nor x^3 is prime.)
- (5) The converse of Lemma 3.4.5(3) is false.

For a continuation of this exercise, see Exercise 7.7.16.

EXERCISE 3.6.22. Let F be a field of positive characteristic p. Let $\theta: F[y] \to F[y]$ be the evaluation mapping given by $y \mapsto y^p$. Let $F[y^p]$ denote the image of θ . Prove that θ extends to a homomorphism $\chi: F(y) \to F(y)$ and let $F(y^p)$ be the image of χ . Prove that $F(y^p)$ is the quotient field of $F[y^p]$ and that the diagram

$$F[y] \longrightarrow F(y)$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow$$

$$F[y^p] \longrightarrow F(y^p)$$

commutes where each of the four maps is the set inclusion homomorphism.

EXERCISE 3.6.23. Let $K = F(y^p)$ be the subfield of L = F(y) defined as in Exercise 3.6.22. We say that L/K is an extension of fields. Show that the polynomial $f = x^p - y^p$ is irreducible in K[x], but that $f = (x - y)^p$ in L[x].

EXERCISE 3.6.24. Prove that if R is an integral domain, then the homomorphism $R \to R[x]$ induces an isomorphism on the groups of units Units $(R) \to \text{Units}(R[x])$.

Exercise 3.6.25. Let R be a commutative ring. Prove:

- (1) The nil radical of R[x] is equal to $Rad_R(0)[x]$. That is, a polynomial is nilpotent if and only if every coefficient is nilpotent.
- (2) The kernel of $R[x] \to (R/\operatorname{Rad}_R(0))[x]$ is equal to the nil radical of R[x].
- (3) The group of units of R[x] consists of those polynomials of the form $f = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_n x^n$, where a_0 is a unit in R and $f a_0 \in \operatorname{Rad}_R(0)[x]$.
- (4) If $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0) = (0)$, then the homomorphism $R \to R[x]$ induces an isomorphism on the groups of units $\operatorname{Units}(R) \to \operatorname{Units}(R[x])$.

EXERCISE 3.6.26. (GCD is invariant under a change of base field) Let $k \subseteq F$ be a tower of fields such that k is a subfield of F. In this case we view k[x] as a subring of F[x]. Let $f, g \in k[x]$. Prove that if d is the greatest common divisor of f and g in k[x], then d is the greatest common divisor of f and g in F[x].

EXERCISE 3.6.27. Let R be an integral domain and $a \in R$. Prove that the linear polynomial x - a is a prime element in R[x].

EXERCISE 3.6.28. Let R be a commutative ring and $a \in R$. Show that there is an automorphism $\theta : R[x] \to R[x]$ such that $\theta(x) = x + a$ and for all $r \in R$, $\theta(r) = r$.

EXERCISE 3.6.29. Let R be an integral domain and a an irreducible element of R. Prove that a is an irreducible element in R[x].

EXERCISE 3.6.30. Let k be a field and A = k[x]. Prove:

- (1) If I = (x) is the ideal in A generated by x, then $I^n = (x^n)$.
- (2) Let $n \ge 1$. The nil radical of $k[x]/(x^n)$ consists of those cosets represented by polynomials of the form $\alpha_1 x + \cdots + \alpha_{n-1} x^{n-1}$.
- (3) The group of units of $k[x]/(x^n)$ consists of those cosets represented by polynomials of the form $\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x + \cdots + \alpha_{n-1} x^{n-1}$, where α_0 is a unit in k.

Exercise 3.6.31. Let R be an integral domain.

- (1) A polynomial f in R[x] defines a function $f: R \to R$. If R is infinite, show that f is the zero function (that is, f(a) = 0 for all $a \in R$) if and only if f is the zero polynomial.
- (2) A polynomial f in $R[x_1, \ldots, x_r]$ defines a function $f: R^r \to R$. If R is infinite, use induction on r to show f is the zero function if and only if f is the zero polynomial.

EXERCISE 3.6.32. Let R be a commutative ring and S = R[x] the polynomial ring in one variable over R. If $W = \{1, x, x^2, \dots\}$, then the localization $W^{-1}S$ is called the *Laurent polynomial ring* over R. Usually, the ring of Laurent polynomials over R is denoted $R[x, x^{-1}]$.

- (1) Let G=(a) be the infinite cyclic group generated by a and R(G) the group ring over R. Prove that $R[x,x^{-1}]\cong R(G)$.
- (2) Prove that $R[x, x^{-1}] \cong R[x, y]/(xy 1)$.
- (3) Show that every element of $R[x, x^{-1}]$ has a unique representation in the form $f(x)/x^n$ where $f(x) \in R[x]$ and $n \ge 0$.
- (4) Prove that the group of units in the Laurent polynomial ring $R[x, x^{-1}]$ is equal to the set $\{ux^e \mid u \in R^* \text{ and } e \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$

(5) Prove that the group of units in $R[x, x^{-1}]$ is the internal direct product $R^* \times \langle x \rangle$.

EXERCISE 3.6.33. Let R be a commutative ring, A an R-algebra, and $a \in A$. Let $\sigma: R[x] \to A$ be the evaluation map defined by $x \mapsto a$. Let R[a] denote the image of σ . Show that R[a] is the smallest subring of A containing $R \cdot 1$ and a. Show that R[a] is commutative.

EXERCISE 3.6.34. Let $n \geq 2$ be an integer and ζ a primitive nth root of unity in \mathbb{C} (see Exercise 2.3.21). Let R be a commutative $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ -algebra. Let $a \in R$ and set $S = R[x]/(x^n - a)$. Show that there is an R-algebra automorphism $\sigma: S \to S$ induced by the assignment $x \mapsto \zeta x$.

EXERCISE 3.6.35. Let p be a prime number and R a ring of characteristic p. Let R[x,y] be the ring of polynomials in two variables with coefficients in R. Prove:

- (1) If $n \ge 0$, then $(x+y)^{p^n} = x^{p^n} + y^{p^n}$ in R[x,y]. (Hint: Exercise 3.2.19.) (2) If n > 0 and $0 < k < p^n$, then $\binom{p^n}{k}$ is divisible by p.

EXERCISE 3.6.36. Let R be a commutative ring and $a \in R$. Prove that $R[x]/(x-a) \cong R.$

EXERCISE 3.6.37. Let k be an infinite field and assume there exists a monic irreducible polynomial of degree d in k[x]. Show that there are infinitely many monic irreducible polynomials of degree d in k[x].

EXERCISE 3.6.38. Let k be a field and f, g two nonzero polynomials in k[x]. Show that if $d = \gcd(f,g)$, then there exist polynomials u,v in k[x] such that d = fu + gv, $\deg u < \deg g$, and $\deg v < \deg f$.

7. Polynomials over a Unique Factorization Domain

Proposition 3.7.1. (The Rational Root Theorem) Suppose R is a UFD with quotient field K and u = b/c is an element of K such that gcd(b,c) = 1. If $f = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_d x^d \in R[x]$ and u is a root of f, then $b \mid a_0$ and $c \mid a_d$.

PROOF. If f(b/c) = 0, then

$$a_0 + \frac{a_1b}{c} + \frac{a_2b^2}{c^2} + \dots + \frac{a_db^d}{c^d} = 0.$$

Multiply by c^d

$$a_0c^d + a_1bc^{d-1} + a_2b^2c^{d-2} + \dots + a_db^d = 0.$$

Since b divides the last d terms, it follows that $b \mid a_0 c^d$. Since c divides the first d terms, it follows that $c \mid a_d b^d$. Since gcd(b,c) = 1 and R is a UFD, it follows that $b \mid a_0 \text{ and } c \mid a_d.$

Let R be a unique factorization domain, or UFD for short. Suppose f is a nonzero polynomial in R[x]. If we write $f = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n$, then the content of f, written C(f), is defined to be $gcd(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n)$. By Proposition 3.4.8 (4), C(f) is unique up to associates, which means C(f) is unique up to multiplication by a unit of R. If C(f) = 1, then we say f is primitive. By Exercise 3.4.27, if we factor out the content, then $f = C(f)f_1$ where f_1 is primitive.

LEMMA 3.7.2. Let R be a UFD with quotient field K. Let $f, g \in R[x]$.

(1) If f and g are primitive, then fg is primitive.

(2) C(fg) = C(f)C(g).

(3) Suppose f and g are primitive. Then f and g are associates in R[x] if and only if they are associates in K[x].

PROOF. (1): Assume p is an irreducible element of R and p divides C(fg). Under the natural map $\eta: R[x] \to R/(p)[x]$, we have $\eta(fg) = \eta(f)\eta(g) = 0$. By Corollary 3.4.14, p is prime, so R/(p) is an integral domain. Thus R/(p)[x] is an integral domain, which implies one of $\eta(f)$ or $\eta(g)$ is zero. That is, p divides the content of f or the content of g.

(2): Factor $f = C(f)f_1$, $g = C(g)g_1$, where f_1 and g_1 are primitive. Then $fg = C(f)C(g)f_1g_1$. By Part (1), f_1g_1 is primitive.

(3): By Exercise 3.6.24, a unit in K[x] is a nonzero constant polynomial. Suppose f = ug where u = r/s is a unit in K and $\gcd(r,s) = 1$. Then sf = rg implies sC(f) = rC(g), which implies r and s are associates. Therefore u = 1. The converse is trivial, since $R \subseteq K$.

THEOREM 3.7.3. (Gauss' Lemma) Let R be a UFD with quotient field K. Suppose $f \in R[x]$ is primitive. Then f is irreducible in R[x] if and only if f is irreducible in K[x].

PROOF. If f has a nontrivial factorization in R[x], then this factorization still holds in K[x]. Assume f = pq is a factorization in K[x], where we assume $m = \deg p \ge 1$, and $n = \deg q \ge 1$. Write

$$p = \sum_{i=0}^{m} \frac{a_i}{b_i} x^i, \quad q = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{c_i}{d_i} x^i$$

and set $b = b_0 b_1 \cdots b_m$, $d = d_0 d_1 \dots d_m$. Then $b(a_i/b_i) = \alpha_i \in R$ and $d(c_i/d_i) = \gamma_i \in R$ for each i, so we get

$$bp = \sum_{i=0}^{m} \alpha_i x^i, \quad dq = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \gamma_i x^i$$

are both in R[x]. Let $\alpha = C(bp)$ and factor $bp = \alpha p_1$, where p_1 is primitive. Set $\gamma = C(dq)$ and factor $dq = \gamma q_1$ where q_1 is primitive. Combining all of this, we have $(bd)f = (\alpha \gamma)(p_1q_1)$. By Lemma 3.7.2, it follows that bd and $\alpha \gamma$ are associates in R. Up to a unit in R, $f = p_1q_1$.

THEOREM 3.7.4. Let R be a UFD. Then $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is a UFD.

PROOF. By finite induction, it is enough to show R[x] is a UFD.

(Existence.) Let $f \in R[x]$ be a nonunit nonzero. If f has degree zero, then we can view f as an element of R and factor f into irreducibles in R. This is a factorization into irreducibles in R[x].

Assume deg $f \ge 1$ and factor $f = C(f)f_1$ where f_1 is primitive and $C(f) \in R$. Since C(f) can be factored into irreducibles, we can reduce to the case where f is primitive. Let K be the quotient field of R. We know that K[x] is a UFD, by Corollary 3.6.6. Let $f = p_1 \cdots p_n$ be the unique factorization of f into a product of irreducibles in K[x]. By Theorem 3.7.3, for each i we can write

$$p_i = \frac{a_i}{b_i} q_i$$

where $a_i, b_i \in R$, and $q_i \in R[x]$ is primitive and irreducible. Set $\alpha = a_1 \cdots a_n$ and $\beta = b_1 \cdots b_n$. Multiplying,

$$f = \frac{\alpha}{\beta} q_1 q_2 \cdots q_n.$$

By Lemma 3.7.2 (3) we conclude that α and β are associates in R. Up to associates, we have factored $f = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_n$ into irreducibles in R[x].

(Uniqueness.) Let f be a nonzero nonunit element of R[x]. Then f can be factored into a product of irreducibles $f = (c_1 \cdots c_m)(p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n)$ where each p_i is a primitive irreducible polynomial in R[x] and each c_i is an irreducible element of R. Up to associates, $C(f) = c_1 c_2 \cdots c_m$ is uniquely determined by f. Since R is a UFD, the factorization $C(f) = c_1 c_2 \cdots c_m$ is unique in R. In K[x] the factorization $p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n$ is uniquely determined up to associates. By Lemma 3.7.2 (3), the factorization is unique in R[x].

THEOREM 3.7.5. Let R be a commutative ring and $f = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + a_n x^n$ a polynomial of degree $n \ge 1$ in R[x]. Let P be a prime ideal in R such that $a_n \notin P$ and $a_i \in P$ for $i = 0, 1, \ldots, n-1$. Suppose f = gh is a factorization in R[x] where $\deg g = s \ge 1$, $\deg h = t \ge 1$, and s + t = n. Then $a_0 \in P^2$.

PROOF. Assume $a_n \notin P$, $(a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1}) \subseteq P$ and there is a factorization f = gh, where $\deg g = s \ge 1$, $\deg h = t \ge 1$, and s + t = n. By Theorem 3.6.3(1) the natural map $\eta: R \to R/P$ induces $\bar{\eta}: R[x] \to R/P[x]$. Under this homomorphism, $\bar{\eta}(f) = \bar{\eta}(g)\bar{\eta}(h)$. By hypothesis, $\bar{\eta}(f) = \eta(a_n)x^n$ has degree n. If we write $g = b_0 + b_1x + \cdots + b_sx^s$ and $h = c_0 + c_1x + \cdots + c_tx^t$, then

$$(7.1) \quad \eta(a_n)x^n = (\eta(b_0) + \eta(b_1)x + \dots + \eta(b_s)x^s)(\eta(c_0) + \eta(c_1)x + \dots + \eta(c_t)x^t)$$

holds in R/P[x]. Since P is prime, R/P is an integral domain. Let K denote the quotient field of R/P. The factorization of $\bar{\eta}(f)$ in (7.1) holds in K[x]. By Corollary 3.6.6, K[x] is a UFD. We conclude that $(b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_{s-1}) \subseteq P$ and $(c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_{t-1}) \subseteq P$. The constant term of f is equal to $a_0 = b_0 c_0 \in P^2$.

COROLLARY 3.7.6. Let R be an integral domain and $f = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + x^n$ a monic polynomial of degree $n \ge 1$ in R[x]. Let P be a prime ideal in R such that $a_i \in P$ for $i = 0, 1, \ldots, n-1$, and $a_0 \notin P^2$. Then f is irreducible in R[x].

COROLLARY 3.7.7. (Eisenstein's Irreducibility Criterion) Let R be UFD and $f = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_n x^n$ a primitive polynomial of degree $n \ge 1$ in R[x]. Let p be a prime in R such that $p \nmid a_n$, $p \mid a_i$ for $i = 0, 1, \ldots, a_{n-1}$, and $p^2 \nmid a_0$. Then f is irreducible.

Example 3.7.8. Let $\Phi(x)=x^p-1\in\mathbb{Z}[x]$. Consider $\phi(x)=\Phi(x)/(x-1)=x^{p-1}+x^{p-2}+\cdots+x+1$. By Exercise 3.6.28, the change of variable x=y+1 induces an isomorphism $\mathbb{Z}[x]\cong\mathbb{Z}[y]$. Applying the Binomial Theorem (Exercise 3.1.23) we

see that

$$\phi(y+1) = \frac{\Phi(y+1)}{y}$$

$$= \frac{(y+1)^p - 1}{y}$$

$$= y^{p-1} + \binom{p}{1} y^{p-2} + \dots + \binom{p}{p-2} y + \binom{p}{p-1}.$$

By Exercise 1.2.21, p divides $\binom{p}{i}$ if $1 \leq i \leq p-1$. By Corollary 3.7.7, $\phi(y+1)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[y]$. Therefore, $\phi(x)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ and by Gauss' Lemma (Theorem 3.7.3), $\phi(x)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

EXAMPLE 3.7.9. Let k be a field and $f(x) \in k[x]$. Assume $\deg f \geq 2$ and f is square free. In other words, f is not divisible by the square of an irreducible polynomial. By Corollary 3.7.7, $y^2 - f(x)$ is irreducible in k[x, y]. The set of zeros of $y^2 - f(x)$ in k^2 is called an affine hyperelliptic curve.

Example 3.7.10. In this example we apply Gauss' Lemma, Theorem 3.7.3, to construct a large class of rings of the form $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}]$ which are not unique factorization domains. Let D be a square free integer such that $D \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Let $u = \sqrt{D}$ be the complex number given by Proposition 1.5.3 (5). If $f(x) = x^2 - D$, then by Corollary 3.7.7, f(x) is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ and $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, hence u is not in \mathbb{Q} . If $S = \mathbb{Z}[u]$ and $L = \mathbb{Q}[u]$, then by Exercise 3.5.11, S is an integral domain and L is equal to the quotient field of S. In L, let $\alpha = (1+u)/2$ and $\beta = (1-u)/2$. Since u is not in \mathbb{Q} , we see that α and β are not in S. Since $D \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, there exists an integer k such that 1 = D + 4k. Then $\alpha\beta = (1-u^2)/4 = (1-D)/4 = k$ and $\alpha + \beta = 1$. Consider the polynomial $g(y) = (y - \alpha)(y - \beta) = y^2 - y + k$ in L[y]. We conclude that g(y) is irreducible in S, but factors in L[y]. By Theorem 3.7.3, this implies S is not a unique factorization domain.

7.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 3.7.11. Let k be a field and K = k(x) the field of rational functions over k in the variable x. Let y be an indeterminate. Show that for any $d \ge 1$, the polynomial $y^d - x$ is irreducible in K[y].

EXERCISE 3.7.12. Let $f = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_nx^n$ be a polynomial of degree $n \ge 1$ in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. Let p be a prime and $[f] = [a_0] + [a_1]x + [a_2]x^2 + \cdots + [a_{n-1}]x^{n-1} + [a_n]x^n$ be the polynomial over the prime field $\mathbb{Z}/(p)$ achieved by reducing the coefficients of f modulo p.

- (1) If [f] has degree n and is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}/(p)$, then f is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} . Proof:
- (2) Show by counterexample that (a) is false if the degree of [f] is less than n.
- (3) Show by counterexample that the converse of (a) is false.

EXERCISE 3.7.13. The following Eisenstein irreducibility criterion for polynomials in K[y] first appeared in [46]. Let k be a field and x, y indeterminates. Let K = k(x) be the field of rational functions over k in the variable x. Let $f(y) = f_0 + f_1 y + f_2 y^2 + \cdots + f_n y^n$ be a polynomial in K[y] where $n \ge 1$ and $f_n \ne 0$. Prove that if

- (1) each f_i is a polynomial in k[x],
- (2) x divides each of $f_0, f_1, \ldots, f_{n-1}$ and x does not divide f_n , and
- (3) x^2 does not divide f_0 ,

then f is irreducible in K[y].

EXERCISE 3.7.14. Let k be a field and K = k(x) the field of rational functions over k in the variable x. Let $\sigma: K \to K$ be the function which maps a typical rational function $f(x) \in K$ to the rational function $f(x^{-1})$. Show that σ is an automorphism of the field K.

EXERCISE 3.7.15. Let k be a field. If $f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n$ and $a_n \neq 0$, then the reverse of f is the polynomial $f^r(x) = a_0 x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} x + a_n$.

- (1) Show that $f^{r}(x) = x^{n} f(x^{-1})$.
- (2) If $a_0 \neq 0$, show that f is irreducible over k if and only if f^r is irreducible over k.

EXERCISE 3.7.16. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and consider the polynomial $f(x) = x^3 + nx - 2$. Show that f(x) is reducible over \mathbb{Q} if and only if n is in the set $\{1, -3, -5\}$.

EXERCISE 3.7.17. Let $f(x) = 20x^5 + 35x^4 - 42x^3 + 21x^2 + 70$ and $g(x) = 80x^5 + 18x^3 - 24x - 15$. Let $F = \mathbb{Q}[x]/(f)$ and $G = \mathbb{Q}[x]/(g)$. Show that F and G are fields.

EXERCISE 3.7.18. Modify the method of Example 3.7.8 to show that the following polynomials are irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

- (1) $x^4 + 1$
- (2) $x^4 + a^2$, where $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ is odd.
- $(3) x^8 + 1$
- $(4) x^9 + 2$
- (5) $x^{2^n} + a^2$, where $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ is odd and $n \ge 1$.
- (6) $x^{p^n} + p 1$, where p is prime and $n \ge 1$.

(Hint: For (5) and (6), apply Exercise 3.6.35.)

EXERCISE 3.7.19. Let R be a UFD with quotient field K. Let a be an element of R which is not a square in R and let $f = x^2 - a \in R[x]$. Show that S = R[x]/(f) is an integral domain and L = K[x]/(f) is a field.

EXERCISE 3.7.20. Let R be a UFD with quotient field K. Let f be a monic irreducible polynomial in R[x].

- (1) Show that S = R[x]/(f) is an integral domain and L = K[x]/(f) is a field.
- (2) Show that there is a commutative square



where each arrow is the natural map and each arrow is one-to-one. (Hint: Example 3.6.7.)

(3) Show that L is the quotient field of S.

CHAPTER 4

Linear Algebra

1. Modules and Algebras

1.1. Definitions and First Properties. In this section we introduce the notion of a module over an arbitrary ring R. An abelian group M is an R-module if multiplication by elements of R turns R into a ring of endomorphisms of M.

DEFINITION 4.1.1. If R is a ring, an R-module is a nonempty set M with an addition operation making M an abelian group together with a left multiplication action by R such that for all $r, s \in R$ and $x, y \in M$ the rules

- (1) r(x+y) = rx + ry
- (2) r(sx) = (rs)x
- (3) (r+s)x = rx + sx
- (4) 1x = x

are satisfied. If R is a division ring, then M is called a *vector space*.

By default, an R-module is assumed to be a left R-module. This is in agreement with our convention that functions act from the left (Section 1.1.2). There will be times when for sake of convenience we will utilize right R-modules. The statement of the counterpart of Definition 4.1.1 for a right R-module is left to the reader. In Lemma 2.4.1 we saw that a group G acts on a set X if and only if there is a homomorphism of G into Perm(X). Lemma 4.1.2 is the counterpart of this notion in the context of modules. By Exercise 2.8.11, if M is an abelian group, then the set of all endomorphisms of M, Hom(M, M), is a ring. Endomorphisms are added point-wise and multiplication is composition of functions.

Lemma 4.1.2. Let R be a ring an M an additive abelian group. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M is an R-module.
- (2) There is a homomorphism of rings $\theta: R \to \text{Hom}(M, M)$.

PROOF. (2) implies (1): Instead of $\theta(r)(x)$ we will write r * x. This defines a left multiplication action by R on M. Then

$$r * (x + y) = \theta(r)(x + y) = \theta(r)(x) + \theta(r)(y)) = r * x + r * y$$

is Part (1) of Definition 4.1.1,

$$r*(s*x) = \theta(r)(\theta(s)(x) = (\theta(r)\theta(s))(x) = \theta(rs)(x)) = (rs)*x$$

is Part (2),

$$(r+s) * x = \theta(r+s)(x) = (\theta(r) + \theta(s))(x) = \theta(r)(x) + \theta(s)(x) = r * x + s * x$$

is Part (3), and lastly,

$$1 * x = \theta(1)(x) = 1_M(x) = x$$

is Part (4).

(1) implies (2): For each $r \in R$, define $\lambda_r : M \to M$ to be the "left multiplication by r" function defined by $\lambda_r(x) = rx$. By the first distributive law, $\lambda_r(x+y) = r(x+y) = rx + ry = \lambda_r(x) + \lambda_r(y)$, so $\lambda_r \in \text{Hom}(M,M)$. Define $\theta : R \to \text{Hom}(M,M)$ by $\theta(r) = \lambda_r$. The associative law implies $\lambda_{rs}(x) = (rs)x = r(sx)$, so $\theta(rs) = \theta(r)\theta(s)$ and θ is multiplicative. By the second distributive law, $\lambda_{r+s}(x) = (r+s)x = rx + sx = \lambda_r(x) + \lambda_s(x)$, so $\theta(r+s) = \theta(r) + \theta(s)$ and θ is additive. Lastly, $\lambda_1 = 1_M$, so $\theta(1) = 1$, hence θ is a homomorphism of rings. \square

DEFINITION 4.1.3. Let R be a ring, M an R-module, and $\theta: R \to \operatorname{Hom}(M, M)$ the homomorphism of Lemma 4.1.2. The kernel of θ is denoted $\operatorname{annih}_R(M)$ and is called the $\operatorname{annihilator}$ of M in R. Then $\operatorname{annih}_R(M)$ is equal to $\{r \in R \mid rx = 0 \text{ for all } x \in M\}$. Since θ is a homomorphism of rings, $\operatorname{annih}_R(M)$ is a two-sided ideal in R. If θ is one-to-one, then we say M is a $\operatorname{faithful} R\text{-module}$.

EXAMPLE 4.1.4. Standard examples of modules are listed here.

(1) Let M be any additive abelian group. Then $\mathbb Z$ acts on M. If $x \in M$ and $n \in \mathbb Z$, then

$$nx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 0\\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x = x + x + \dots + x & \text{if } n > 0\\ -\sum_{i=1}^{|n|} x = -(x + x + \dots + x) & \text{if } n < 0 \end{cases}$$

Using Exercise 2.3.16 the reader should verify that this action makes M into a \mathbb{Z} -module.

- (2) If R is any ring, and I is a left ideal in R, then R acts on I from the left. If $x \in I$ and $r \in R$, then $rx \in I$. The associative and distributive laws in R apply. Thus I is an R-module. As a special case, taking I = R implies R is a left R-module.
- (3) Let $\phi: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings. Then R acts on S by the multiplication rule $rx = \phi(r)x$, for $r \in R$ and $x \in S$. By this action, S is an R-module.
- (4) Let $\phi: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings. If M is an S-module, then R acts on M by the multiplication rule $rx = \phi(r)x$, for $r \in R$ and $x \in M$. By this action, M is an R-module.
- (5) Let A be an abelian group written additively. Let m > 1 be an integer and assume mx = 0 for all $x \in A$. If follows from Exercise 4.1.20 that A is a \mathbb{Z}/m -module by the action [n]x = nx. In particular, if p is a prime and px = 0 for all $x \in A$, then A is a vector space over the field \mathbb{Z}/p .

LEMMA 4.1.5. Let M be an R-module, $x \in M$, and $r \in R$. Then the following are true:

- (1) r0 = 0.
- (2) 0x = 0.
- (3) -1x = -x.

PROOF. (1): r0 = r(0+0) = r0 + r0. Since M, + is a group, we cancel r0 to get r0 = 0.

(2): 0x = (0+0)x = 0x + 0x. Since M, + is a group, we cancel 0x to get 0x = 0.

(3):
$$0 = (1-1)x = 1x + (-1)x = x + (-1)x$$
. Since M , $+$ is a group, we get $-x = (-1)x$.

DEFINITION 4.1.6. Let R be a commutative ring. An R-algebra is a ring A together with a homomorphism of rings $\theta: R \to Z(A)$ mapping R into the center of A. Then A is an R-module with action $ra = \theta(r)a$. For all $r \in R$, $a, b \in A$, it follows that $\theta(r)(ab) = (\theta(r)a)b = (a\theta(r))b = a(\theta(r)b)$. Therefore

$$(1.1) r(ab) = (ra)b = a(rb).$$

We call θ the structure homomorphism of A. Conversely, if A is a ring and R is a commutative ring and A is an R-module satisfying (1.1), then $\theta: R \to Z(A)$ given by $\theta(r) = r1$ is a homomorphism of rings, so A is an R-algebra. We write $R \cdot 1$ for the image of θ . If B is a subring of A containing $R \cdot 1$, then we say B is an R-subalgebra of A. We say A is a finitely generated R-algebra in case there exists a finite subset $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ of A and A is the smallest subalgebra of A containing X and $R \cdot 1$. In the milieu of R-algebras, the definitions for the terms center, left ideal, ideal are the same as for rings.

DEFINITION 4.1.7. A homomorphism from the R-algebra A to the R-algebra B is a homomorphism of rings $\theta: A \to B$ such that for each $r \in R$ and $x \in A$, $\theta(rx) = r\theta(x)$. An R-algebra automorphism of A is a homomorphism from A to A that is one-to-one and onto. The set of all R-algebra automorphisms is a group and is denoted $\operatorname{Aut}_R(A)$.

EXAMPLE 4.1.8. Let R be any ring and $\chi: \mathbb{Z} \to R$ the unique homomorphism of Example 3.2.5 (5). The reader should verify that the image of χ is in the center of R, hence R is a \mathbb{Z} -algebra.

1.2. Submodules.

DEFINITION 4.1.9. Let R be a ring and M an R-module. A submodule of M is a nonempty subset $N \subseteq M$ such that N is an R-module under the operation by R on M. If $X \subseteq M$, the submodule of M generated by X is

$$\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i x_i \mid n \ge 1, r_i \in R, x_i \in X \right\}.$$

The reader should verify that the submodule generated by X is equal to the intersection of the submodules of M containing X. A submodule is *principal*, or *cyclic*, if it is generated by a single element. The submodule generated by X is denoted (X). If $X = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$ is finite, we sometimes write $(X) = Rx_1 + Rx_2 + \cdots + Rx_n$.

DEFINITION 4.1.10. If I is a left ideal of R and M is an R-module, then IM denotes the R-submodule of M generated by the set $\{rx \mid r \in I, x \in M\}$. Notice that a typical element of IM is not a product rx, but a finite sum of the form $r_1x_1 + \cdots + r_nx_n$.

DEFINITION 4.1.11. Let R be a ring and M an R-module. If A and B are R-submodules of M, then A+B denotes the R-submodule generated by the set $A \cup B$. For a general sum, see Definition 4.2.4.

DEFINITION 4.1.12. Let R be a ring and M an R-module. We say that M is finitely generated if there exists a finite subset $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \subseteq M$ such that $M = Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_n$.

1.3. Homomorphisms.

DEFINITION 4.1.13. If M and N are R-modules, a homomorphism from M to N is a function $f:M\to N$ satisfying

- (1) f(x+y) = f(x) + f(y) and
- $(2) \ f(rx) = rf(x)$

for all $x,y \in M$ and $r \in R$. The kernel of the homomorphism f is $\ker(f) = \{x \in M \mid f(x) = 0\}$. The image of the homomorphism f is $\inf(f) = \{f(x) \in N \mid x \in M\}$. The set of all R-module homomorphisms from M to N is denoted $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$. An epimorphism is a homomorphism that is onto. A monomorphism is a homomorphism that is one-to-one. An isomorphism is a homomorphism $f: M \to N$ that is one-to-one and onto. In this case we say M and N are isomorphic. An endomorphism of M is a homomorphism from M to M. The set $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ is a ring (see Exercise 4.1.21) which is called the ring of endomorphisms of M.

PROPOSITION 4.1.14. If $f: M \to N$ is an R-module homomorphism, then the following are true:

- (1) The kernel of f is a submodule of M.
- (2) f is one-to-one if and only if $\ker(f) = (0)$.
- (3) If A is a submodule of M, then f(A), the image of A under f, is a submodule of N.
- (4) If B is a submodule of N, then $f^{-1}(B)$, the preimage of B under f, is a submodule of M.

PROOF. Let A be a submodule of M and B a submodule of N. Since f is a homomorphism of additive groups, $\ker(f)$ is a subgroup of M,+, f(A) is a subgroup of N,+, and $f^{-1}(B)$ is a subgroup of M,+, by Exercise 2.3.15. Part (2) follows from the corresponding result for group homomorphisms, Lemma 2.3.7. Let $x \in \ker(f)$ and $r \in R$. Then f(rx) = rf(x) = r0 = 0 by Lemma 4.1.5. This completes Part (1). If x is an arbitrary element of A, then f(x) represents a typical element of f(A). Then $rf(x) = f(rx) \in f(A)$, which completes Part (3). Let $x \in M$ such that $f(x) \in B$. Then x represents a typical element of $f^{-1}(B)$. Then $f(rx) = rf(x) \in B$, which completes Part (4).

DEFINITION 4.1.15. Let R be a ring, M an R-module and S a submodule. The factor module of M modulo S is the set $M/S = \{a+S \mid a \in M\}$ of all left cosets of S in M. We sometimes call M/S the quotient module of M modulo S. We define addition and scalar multiplication of cosets by the rules

$$(a + S) + (b + S) = (a + b) + S$$

 $r(a + S) = ra + S.$

The reader should verify that M/S is an R-module. Let $\eta: M \to M/S$ be the natural map defined by $x \mapsto x + S$. Then η is a homomorphism, im $\eta = M/S$, and $\ker \eta = S$.

Definition 4.1.16. The cokernel of a homomorphism $f:M\to N$ is defined to be

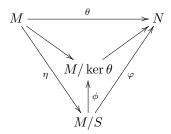
$$coker(f) = N/im(f)$$

which is a homomorphic image of N under the natural map.

Theorems 4.1.17, 4.1.18, and 4.1.19 are the counterparts for modules of Theorems 2.3.11, 2.3.12, and 2.3.13.

THEOREM 4.1.17. (Fundamental Theorem on Homomorphisms of Modules) Let $\theta: M \to N$ be a homomorphism of R-modules. Let S be a submodule of M contained in ker θ . There exists a homomorphism $\varphi: M/S \to N$ satisfying the following.

- (a) $\varphi(a+S) = \theta(a)$, or in other words $\theta = \varphi \eta$.
- (b) φ is the unique homomorphism from $M/S \to N$ such that $\theta = \varphi \eta$.
- (c) $\operatorname{im} \theta = \operatorname{im} \varphi$.
- (d) $\ker \varphi = \eta(\ker \theta) = \ker(\theta)/S$.
- (e) φ is one-to-one if and only if $S = \ker \theta$.
- (f) φ is onto if and only if θ is onto.
- (g) There is a unique homomorphism $\phi: M/S \to M/\ker \theta$ such that the diagram



commutes.

PROOF. On the additive groups, this follows straight from the Fundamental Theorem Group Homomorphisms, Theorem 2.3.11. The rest is left to the reader.

Theorem 4.1.18. (The Isomorphism Theorems) Let M be an R-module with submodules A and B.

(a) The natural map

$$\frac{A}{A\cap B}\to \frac{A+B}{B}$$

sending the coset $x + A \cap B$ to the coset x + B is an isomorphism.

(b) If $A \subseteq B$, then B/A is a submodule of M/A and the natural map

$$\frac{M/A}{B/A} \to M/B$$

sending the coset containing x + A to the coset x + B is an isomorphism.

PROOF. This follows from Theorem 4.1.17 and Theorem 2.3.12, its counterpart for groups. $\hfill\Box$

Theorem 4.1.19. (The Correspondence Theorem) Let M be an R-module and A a submodule of M. There is a one-to-one order-preserving correspondence between the submodules B such that $A \subseteq B \subseteq M$ and the submodules of M/A given by $B \mapsto B/A$.

PROOF. This follows from Proposition 4.1.14 and The Correspondence Theorem for Groups, Theorem 2.3.13. $\hfill\Box$

1.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 4.1.20. Let R be a ring, I a two-sided ideal of R, and M a left R-module. Prove:

- (1) If I is contained in $\operatorname{annih}_R(M)$, then M is an R/I-module under the multiplication rule (r+I)x=rx.
- (2) M/IM is an R/I-module under the action (r+I)(x+IM) = rx + IM.
- (3) An R-submodule of M/IM is an R/I-submodule, and conversely.

EXERCISE 4.1.21. Let M and N be R-modules, where R is any ring. Extend Exercise 2.8.11 by proving the following.

- (1) With point-wise addition of functions, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is an abelian group.
- (2) $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ is a ring where the multiplication operation is composition of functions. As in Definition 4.1.13, this ring is called the ring of endomorphisms of M.

EXERCISE 4.1.22. This exercise is based on Exercise 4.1.21. Let M be an R-module, where R is any ring. Let $S = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)$ be the ring of R-module endomorphisms of M. Show that M is a left S-module under the action $\phi x = \phi(x)$, for all $\phi \in S$ and $x \in M$.

EXERCISE 4.1.23. (Module version of Finitely Generated over Finitely Generated is Finitely Generated) Let $R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings such that S is finitely generated as an R-module. If M is a finitely generated S-module, prove that M is finitely generated as an R-module.

EXERCISE 4.1.24. Let R be a commutative ring and S a commutative R-algebra. Prove:

- (1) The polynomial ring $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ in n indeterminates over R is a finitely generated R-algebra.
- (2) S is a finitely generated R-algebra if and only if S is the homomorphic image of $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ for some n.
- (3) (Algebra version of Finitely Generated over Finitely Generated is Finitely Generated) If T is a finitely generated S-algebra and S is a finitely generated R-algebra, then T is a finitely generated R-algebra.

EXERCISE 4.1.25. Let A be a commutative ring and R a subring of A. The conductor from A to R is

$$R: A = \{ \alpha \in A \mid \alpha A \subseteq R \}.$$

Prove that R: A is an A-submodule of R, hence it is an ideal of both R and A.

EXERCISE 4.1.26. Let R be a ring and M a left R-module. Prove that if I and J are submodules of M, then $\operatorname{annih}_R(I+J)=\operatorname{annih}_R(I)\cap\operatorname{annih}_R(J)$.

EXERCISE 4.1.27. Let R be a ring and M a left R-module. If I and J are submodules of M, then the *module quotient* is $I: J = \{r \in R \mid rJ \subseteq I\}$. Prove:

- (1) I: J is a two-sided ideal in R.
- (2) $I: J = \operatorname{annih}_R((I+J)/I) = \operatorname{annih}_R(J/(I\cap J)).$

Exercise 4.1.28. Let R be any ring and I a left ideal of R. Prove:

- (1) $\operatorname{annih}_R(R/I)$ is a two-sided ideal of R.
- (2) $\operatorname{annih}_{R}(R/I) \subseteq I$.

(3) I is a two-sided ideal of R if and only if $\operatorname{annih}_R(R/I) = I$.

EXERCISE 4.1.29. Let R be a commutative ring, $f \in R - (0)$, and $R[f^{-1}]$ the R-algebra formed by inverting f (Exercise 3.5.7). Show that $R[f^{-1}]$ is a finitely generated R-algebra.

2. Free Modules and Vector Spaces

2.1. Products and Sums of Modules.

DEFINITION 4.2.1. Let R be a ring and $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ a family of R-modules. The direct product is

$$\prod_{i \in I} M_i = \big\{ f : I \to \bigcup M_i \mid f(i) \in M_i \big\}.$$

The product of R-modules is an R-module, if addition and multiplication are defined coordinate-wise

$$(f+g)(i) = f(i) + g(i)$$
$$(rf)(i) = rf(i).$$

For each $k \in I$ there is the canonical injection map

$$\iota_k:M_k\to\prod_{i\in I}M_i$$

which maps $x \in M_k$ to $\iota_k(x)$ which is equal to x in coordinate k, and 0 elsewhere. The reader should verify that ι_k is a one-to-one homomorphism of R-modules. The canonical projection map

$$\pi_k: \prod_{i\in I} M_i \to M_k$$

is defined by the rule $\pi_k(f) = f(k)$ as in Exercise 1.4.10. The reader should verify that π_k is an onto homomorphism of R-modules. We have $\pi_k \iota_k = 1_{M_k}$.

DEFINITION 4.2.2. Let R be a ring and $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ a family of R-modules. The *direct sum* is

$$\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i = \left\{ f: I \to \bigcup_{i \in I} M_i \mid f(i) \in M_i \text{ and } f(i) = 0 \text{ for all but finitely many } i \in I \right\}$$

which is a submodule of the product. For each $k \in I$ the canonical injection map ι_k of Definition 4.2.1 defines a one-to-one homomorphism of R-modules $\iota_k : M_k \to \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$. The reader should verify that all of the maps

$$M_k \xrightarrow{\iota_k} \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i \xrightarrow{\subseteq} \prod_{i \in I} M_i \xrightarrow{\pi_k} M_k$$

are R-module homomorphisms. The restriction of π_k to the direct sum is an onto homomorphism of R-modules $\pi_k: \bigoplus_{i\in I} M_i \to M_k$. We have $\pi_k \iota_k = 1_{M_k}$. The direct sum $\bigoplus_{i\in I} M_i$ is sometimes called the *external direct sum* to distinguish it from the internal direct sum of submodules defined in Definition 4.2.4 below.

DEFINITION 4.2.3. If the index set is finite, the product and the direct sum are equal. If $I = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ then $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} M_i$ is the usual (external) direct sum $M_1 \oplus M_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_n = \{(x_1, ..., x_n) \mid x_i \in M_i\}$.

DEFINITION 4.2.4. Let I be an index set and $\{S_i \mid i \in I\}$ a set of submodules of the R-module M. The submodule of M generated by the set $\bigcup_{i \in I} S_i$ is called the sum of the submodules and is denoted $\sum_{i \in I} S_i$. This is a generalization of Definition 4.1.11. Let $\bigoplus_{i \in I} S_i$ be the external direct sum of the R-modules $\{S_i \mid i \in I\}$. Define $\phi: \bigoplus_{i \in I} S_i \to M$ by $\phi(f) = \sum_{i \in I} f(i)$. This is a well defined R-module homomorphism since f(i) is nonzero on a finite subset of I. The reader should verify that the image of ϕ is equal to the sum $\sum_{i \in I} S_i$. We say that M is the internal direct sum of the submodules $\{S_i \mid i \in I\}$ in case ϕ is an isomorphism. In this case we write $M = \bigoplus_{i \in I} S_i$.

LEMMA 4.2.5. Let M be an R-module and $\{S_i \mid i \in I\}$ a family of R-submodules of M. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M is the internal direct sum of the submodules $\{S_i \mid i \in I\}$.
- (2) For each $x \in M$ there is a unique representation of x in the form $x = \sum_{i \in I} x_i$ where each x_i comes from S_i and for all but finitely many $i \in I$ we have $x_i = 0$.

PROOF. The proof is left to the reader.

PROPOSITION 4.2.6. Suppose M is an R-module and S_1, \ldots, S_n are submodules. The following are equivalent.

(1) $M = S_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus S_n$ is the internal direct sum of S_1, \ldots, S_n .

(2)
$$M = S_1 + S_2 + \cdots + S_n$$
 and for each $k, S_k \cap \left(\sum_{j \neq k} S_j\right) = (0)$.

PROOF. This follows from Proposition 2.5.5.

2.2. Free Modules.

DEFINITION 4.2.7. Let R be any ring. As defined in Definition 4.1.12, an R-module M is finitely generated if there is a finite subset $\{x_1,\ldots,x_n\}$ of M such that $M=Rx_1+\cdots+Rx_n$. Thus, M is finitely generated if and only if M is equal to the sum of a finite number of cyclic submodules. If M has a finite generating set, then by the Well Ordering Principle, there exists a generating set with minimal cardinality. We call such a generating set a minimal generating set. The rank of M, written Rank(M), is defined to be the number of elements in a minimal generating set.

EXAMPLE 4.2.8. If k is a field and V is a finite dimensional k-vector space, then we will see in Theorem 4.2.35 below that the rank of V as defined in Definition 4.2.7 is equal to $\dim_k(V)$, the dimension of V over k.

DEFINITION 4.2.9. Let R be a ring and I any index set. For $i \in I$, let $R_i = R$ as R-modules. By Example 4.1.4, R is a left R-module. Denote by R^I the R-module direct sum $\bigoplus_{i \in I} R_i$. If $I = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, then write $R^{(n)}$ for R^I . Let M be an R-module. We say M is free if M is isomorphic to R^I for some index set I. If $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ is a finite subset of M, define $\phi_X : R^{(n)} \to M$ by $\phi_X(r_1, \ldots, r_n) = r_1x_1 + \ldots r_nx_n$. The reader should verify that ϕ_X is an R-module homomorphism. We say X is a linearly independent set in case ϕ_X is one-to-one. An arbitrary subset $Y \subseteq M$ is a linearly independent set if every finite subset of Y is linearly independent. The function $\delta: I \times I \to \{0,1\}$ defined by

(2.1)
$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

is called the Kronecker delta function. The standard basis for R^I is $\{e_i \in R^I \mid i \in I\}$ where $e_i(j) = \delta_{ij}$. The reader should verify that the standard basis is a linearly independent generating set for R^I .

LEMMA 4.2.10. An R-module M is free if and only if there exists a subset $X = \{b_i \mid i \in I\} \subseteq M$ which is a linearly independent generating set for M. A linearly independent generating set is called a basis for M.

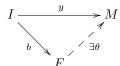
PROOF. Given a basis $\{b_i \mid i \in I\}$ define $\phi : R^I \to M$ by $\phi(f) = \sum_{i \in I} f(i)b_i$. This is well defined since f(i) is nonzero on a finite subset of I. Clearly ϕ is a homomorphism. Because X generates M and is linearly independent, the map ϕ is one-to-one and onto. The converse is left to the reader.

Example 4.2.11. We have already seen examples of free modules.

- (1) If R is any ring, then the ring of polynomials R[x] is a free R-module and the set $\{1, x, x^2, \ldots, x^i, \ldots\}$ is a basis.
- (2) If R is a commutative ring, G a group, and R(G) the group ring (see Example 3.1.6), then R(G) is a free R module with basis $\{g \mid g \in G\}$.

Lemma 4.2.12. Let R be a ring and M an R-module.

(1) (Universal Mapping Property) Let F be a free R-module and $\{b_i \mid i \in I\}$ a basis for F. For any function $y: I \to M$, there exists a unique R-module homomorphism $\theta: F \to M$ such that $\theta(b_i) = y_i$ for each $i \in I$ and the diagram



commutes.

- (2) There exists a free R-module F and a surjective homomorphism $F \to M$.
- (3) M is finitely generated if and only if M is the homomorphic image of a free R-module $R^{(n)}$ for some n.

PROOF. Part (1) is left to the reader.

(2) and (3): Let X be a generating set for M and F the free R-module on X. Map the basis elements of R^X to the generators for M. If M is finitely generated, X can be taken to be finite. \square

DEFINITION 4.2.13. Let R be a ring and $\{M_i \mid i=1,2,...\}$ a sequence of R-modules. Suppose we have a sequence of R-module homomorphisms

$$(2.2) M_1 \xrightarrow{\phi_1} M_2 \xrightarrow{\phi_2} M_3 \xrightarrow{\phi_3} \cdots.$$

Then (2.2) is a *complex* if for all $i \geq 1$, $\phi_{i+1}\phi_i = 0$, or equivalently, if $\operatorname{im} \phi_i \subseteq \ker \phi_{i+1}$. We say (2.2) is an *exact sequence* if for all $i \geq 1$, $\operatorname{im} \phi_i = \ker \phi_{i+1}$. A short exact sequence is an exact sequence with exactly five modules and four maps

$$(2.3) 0 \to M_2 \xrightarrow{\phi_2} M_3 \xrightarrow{\phi_3} M_4 \to 0$$

where $M_1=0=M_5$ and $\phi_1=0=\phi_4$. The short exact sequence (2.3) is *split-exact* if there exists an R-module homomorphism $\psi_3:M_4\to M_3$ such that $\phi_3\psi_3=1$. By Exercise 4.2.20, (2.3) is split-exact if and only if there exists an R-module homomorphism $\psi_2:M_3\to M_2$ such that $\psi_2\phi_2=1$.

Example 4.2.14. Let R be a ring and $f:M\to N$ a homomorphism of R-modules. There is an exact sequence

$$0 \to \ker(f) \to M \xrightarrow{f} N \to \operatorname{coker}(f) \to 0$$

of R-modules.

DEFINITION 4.2.15. If M is an R-module and N is an R-submodule of M, then N is a direct summand of M if there is a submodule L of M such that $M = N \oplus L$.

Lemma 4.2.16. Let R be a ring, M an R-module, and N an R-submodule of M. The following are equivalent.

- (1) N is a direct summand of M. That is, $M = N \oplus L$ for some submodule L of M.
- (2) There exists $\pi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)$ such that
 - (a) $\pi^2 = \pi$ (that is, π is idempotent),
 - (b) for each $m \in M$, $\pi(m) \in N$, and
 - (c) for each $x \in N$, $\pi(x) = x$.
- (3) The short exact sequence

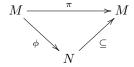
$$0 \to N \to M \to M/N \to 0$$

is split exact.

(4) There exists $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ such that for each $x \in N$, $\phi(x) = x$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): There is an R-submodule L such that $M=N\oplus L$. We view elements of M as ordered pairs (x,y) where $x\in N$ and $y\in L$. Define $\pi:M\to M$ by $\pi(x,y)=(x,0)$. Then π has the desired properties.

(2) implies (4): Since the image of π is a subset of N, the map π factors through the set inclusion map $N \to M$. That is, the diagram



commutes where $\phi(x) = \pi(x)$.

- (3) is equivalent to (4): This follows from Exercise 4.2.20 and Definition 4.2.13.
- (4) implies (1): Let $L = \ker \phi$. Given $m \in M$, set $x = \phi(m)$. Then $x \in N$. Also set y = m x. Then $\phi(y) = \phi(m) \phi(x) = x x = 0$ shows that $y \in L$. Since m = x + y, this proves M = N + L. Suppose $m \in N \cap L$. Then $m \in L$ implies $\phi(m) = 0$ and $m \in N$ implies $\phi(m) = m$. Therefore, $N \cap L = (0)$. By Proposition 4.2.6, this proves $M = N \oplus L$.

DEFINITION 4.2.17. Let R be a ring and M an R-module. We say that M is of finite presentation if there exists an exact sequence

$$R^{(m)} \to R^{(n)} \to M \to 0$$

for some m and n.

2.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 4.2.18. Suppose S is a ring and R is a subring of S. Let I be an index set and view the free R-module R^I as a subset of the free S-module S^I .

- (1) Prove that if $X \subseteq R^I$ is a generating set for R^I , then $X \subseteq S^I$ is a generating set for the S-module S^I .
- (2) Assume S is commutative, I is finite, and X is a basis for the free R-module R^I . Prove that X is a basis for the free S-module S^I .

Exercise 4.2.19. Let R be a ring and

$$0 \to L \to M \to N \to 0$$

an exact sequence of R-modules. Prove:

- (1) If M is finitely generated, then N is finitely generated.
- (2) If L and N are both finitely generated, then M is finitely generated.

Exercise 4.2.20. Let R be a ring and

$$0 \to L \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} N \to 0$$

a short exact sequence of R-modules. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) f has a left inverse which is an R-module homomorphism. That is, there exists $\phi: M \to L$ such that $\phi f = 1_L$.
- (2) g has a right inverse which is an R-module homomorphism. That is, there exists $\psi: N \to M$ such that $g\psi = 1_N$.

EXERCISE 4.2.21. Let R be a ring and

$$0 \to L \to M \to N \to 0$$

a split-exact sequence of R-modules. Prove that M is isomorphic to $L\oplus N$ as R-modules.

EXERCISE 4.2.22. Let m and n be positive integers. Let $\eta: \mathbb{Z}/mn\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ be the natural map. If ι is the set inclusion map, show that the sequence

$$0 \to m\mathbb{Z}/mn\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\iota} \mathbb{Z}/mn\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\eta} \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules. Show that it is split-exact if and only if $\gcd(m,n)=1$.

EXERCISE 4.2.23. Let R be a ring and B an R-module. Suppose $B = B_1 \oplus B_2$ and let $\pi: B \to B_2$ be the projection. Suppose $\sigma: A \to B$ is one-to-one and consider the composition homomorphism $\pi\sigma: A \to B_2$. If $A_1 = \ker(\pi\sigma)$ and $A_2 = \operatorname{im}(\pi\sigma)$, show that there is a commutative diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow A_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha} A \xrightarrow{\beta} A_2 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \sigma_1 \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \sigma_2 \downarrow$$

$$0 \longrightarrow B_1 \xrightarrow{\iota} B \xrightarrow{\pi} B_2 \longrightarrow 0$$

satisfying the following.

- (1) α , ι , and σ_2 are the set inclusion maps.
- (2) σ_1 is the restriction of σ to A_1 .
- (3) The two horizontal rows are split-exact sequences.

EXERCISE 4.2.24. Let R be a ring. Show that the direct sum of short exact sequences is a short exact sequence. That is, assume J is an index set and that for each $j \in J$ there is an exact sequence

$$0 \to A_j \to B_j \to C_j \to 0$$

of R-modules. Show that the sequence

$$0 \to \bigoplus_{j \in J} A_j \to \bigoplus_{j \in J} B_j \to \bigoplus_{j \in J} C_j \to 0$$

is exact.

EXERCISE 4.2.25. Let R be a commutative ring and F a free R-module with basis $\{b_i\}_{i\in I}$. Prove that if J is a proper ideal of R and $\pi: F \to F/JF$ is the natural homomorphism, then F/JF is a free R/J-module with basis $\{\pi(b_i)\}_{i\in I}$.

EXERCISE 4.2.26. Let R be a commutative ring and $f \in R[x]$ a monic polynomial of degree n. Show that S = R[x]/(f) is a free R-module of rank n and the set $\{1, x, x^2, \ldots, x^{n-1}\}$ is a free basis.

EXERCISE 4.2.27. Let R be a ring, and M an R-module with submodules S and T. If ϕ is the subtraction mapping $(x,y) \mapsto (x-y) + (S+T)$, and ψ is the diagonal $z \mapsto (z+S,z+T)$, then

$$0 \to S \cap T \to M \xrightarrow{\psi} M/S \oplus M/T \xrightarrow{\phi} M/(S+T) \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of R-modules.

EXERCISE 4.2.28. Let R_1 and R_2 be rings and $R = R_1 \oplus R_2$.

- (1) If M_1 and M_2 are left R_1 and R_2 -modules respectively, show how to make $M_1 \oplus M_2$ into a left R-module.
- (2) If M is a left R-module, show that there are R-submodules M_1 and M_2 of M such that $M = M_1 \oplus M_2$ and for each i, M_i is a left R_i -module.

EXERCISE 4.2.29. Let R be a ring and M a free R-module. Prove that M is faithful.

EXERCISE 4.2.30. Let R be a ring. Let x be an element of R that is not a right zero divisor in R. Prove that Rx, the left ideal generated by x, is a free R-module.

EXERCISE 4.2.31. Let R be a ring and

$$M \xrightarrow{\alpha} F \to 0$$

an exact sequence of R-modules. If F is a free R-module, show that there exists an R-module homomorphism $\psi: F \to M$ such that $\alpha \psi = 1_F$.

EXERCISE 4.2.32. Let G be a group and H a subgroup. For any commutative ring R, let $\theta: R(H) \to R(G)$ be the homomorphism of group rings induced by the set inclusion man $H \to G$ (see Example 3.2.5(3)). Show that R(G) is a free R(H)-module.

EXERCISE 4.2.33. (Universal Mapping Property) Let R be a commutative ring, G a group, and R(G) the group ring (see Example 3.1.6). Let A be an R-algebra and $h:G\to A^*$ a homomorphism from G to the group of units of A. Show that there is a unique homomorphism of R-algebras $\phi:R(G)\to A$ such that $\phi(rg)=rh(g)$ for all $r\in R$ and $g\in G$.

2.4. Vector Spaces. A vector space is a module over a division ring. A submodule of a vector space is called a subspace. Elements of a vector space are called a vectors. If D is a division ring and V, W are D-vector spaces, then a homomorphism $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_D(V,W)$ is called a linear transformation. A generating set for V as a D-module is called a spanning set.

Theorem 4.2.34. Let D be a division ring and V a nonzero vector space over D.

- (1) Every linearly independent subset of V is contained in a basis for V.
- (2) If $S \subseteq V$ is a generating set for V, then S contains a basis for V.
- (3) V is a free D-module.

PROOF. (3) follows from either (1) or (2).

(1): Let X be a linearly independent subset of V. Let S be the set of all $Y \subseteq V$ such that Y is linearly independent and $X \subseteq Y$. The union of any chain in S is also in S. By Zorn's Lemma, Proposition 1.3.3, S contains a maximal member, say S. Assume S and S is not in the span of S. Assume there is a dependence relation

$$\sum_{i} \beta_i b_i + \alpha v = 0$$

where $\alpha, \beta_i \in D$ and $b_i \in B$. If $\alpha = 0$, then each $\beta_i = 0$. Otherwise, we can solve

$$v = -\alpha^{-1} \sum_{i} \beta_i b_i.$$

This contradicts the choice of v, hence $B \cup \{v\}$ is a linearly independent set which contradicts the choice of B as a maximal element of S. This proves that the span of B is equal to V.

(2): Let X be a generating set for V over D. Let S be the set of all $Y \subseteq X$ such that Y is linearly independent. The union of any chain in S is also in S. By Zorn's Lemma, Proposition 1.3.3, S contains a maximal member, say B. By the previous argument, we show that every $v \in X$ is in the span of B. Therefore B is a basis for V.

Theorem 4.2.35. Let V be a finitely generated vector space over the division ring D and $B = \{b_1, \ldots, b_n\}$ a basis for V.

- (1) If $Y = \{y_1, \ldots, y_m\}$ is a linearly independent set in V, then $m \le n$. We can re-order the elements of B such that $\{y_1, \ldots, y_m, b_{m+1}, \ldots, b_n\}$ is a basis for V.
- (2) Every basis for V has n elements.

PROOF. Step 1: Write $y_1 = \alpha_1 b_1 + \dots + \alpha_n b_n$ where each $\alpha_i \in D$. For some i, $\alpha_i \neq 0$. Re-order the basis elements and assume $\alpha_1 \neq 0$. Solve for b_1 to get $b_1 = \alpha_1^{-1} y_1 - \sum_{i=2}^n \alpha_1^{-1} \alpha_i b_i$. Therefore $B \subseteq Dy_1 + Db_2 + \dots + Db_n$, hence $\{y_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$ is a spanning set for V. Suppose $0 = \beta_1 y_1 + \beta_2 b_2 + \dots + \beta_n b_n$. Then

$$0 = \beta_1 (\alpha_1 b_1 + \dots + \alpha_n b_n) + \beta_2 b_2 + \dots + \beta_n b_n$$

= $\beta_1 \alpha_1 b_1 + (\beta_1 \alpha_2 + \beta_2) b_2 + \dots + (\beta_1 \alpha_n + \beta_n) b_n$,

from which it follows that $\beta_1 \alpha_1 = 0$, hence $\beta_1 = 0$. Now $0 = \beta_2 b_2 + \cdots + \beta_n b_n$ implies $0 = \beta_2 = \cdots = \beta_n$. We have shown that $\{y_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n\}$ is a basis for V.

Step j: Inductively, assume $j \geq 2$ and that $\{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{j-1}, b_j, \dots, b_n\}$ is a basis for V. Write $y_j = \alpha_1 y_1 + \dots + \alpha_{j-1} y_{j-1} + \alpha_j b_j + \dots + \alpha_n b_n$ where each

 $\alpha_i \in D$. Since the set $\{y_1, \ldots, y_j\}$ is linearly independent, for some $i \geq j$, $\alpha_i \neq 0$. Re-order the basis elements and assume $\alpha_j \neq 0$. Solve for b_j and by a procedure similar to that used in Step 1, we see that $\{y_1, \ldots, y_j, b_{j+1}, \ldots, b_n\}$ is a basis for V.

By finite induction, Part (1) is proved. For Part (2), assume $\{c_1, \ldots, c_m\}$ is another basis for V. By applying Part (1) from both directions, it follows that $m \leq n$ and $n \leq m$.

DEFINITION 4.2.36. Suppose D is a division ring and V is a vector space over D. If V is finitely generated and nonzero, then we define the *dimension* of V, written $\dim_D(V)$, to be the number of elements in a basis for V. If V=(0), set $\dim_D(V)=0$ and if V is not finitely generated, set $\dim_D(V)=\infty$.

DEFINITION 4.2.37. Let R be a commutative ring and M a free R-module with a finite basis $\{b_1, \ldots, b_n\}$. By Exercise 4.2.42, any other basis of M has n elements. We call n the rank of M and write $\operatorname{Rank}_R M = n$.

DEFINITION 4.2.38. Let M be an R-module. A dual basis for M is a set of ordered pairs $\{(m_i, f_i) \mid i \in I\}$ over an index set I consisting of $m_i \in M$, $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, R)$ and satisfying

- (1) For each $m \in M$, $f_i(m) = 0$ for all but finitely many $i \in I$, and
- (2) for all $m \in M$, $m = \sum_{i \in I} f_i(m) m_i$.

Proposition 4.2.39. (Free over Free is Free) Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings such that S is free as an R-module. Let M be a free S-module.

- (1) Then M is a free R module.
- (2) If M has a finite basis over S, and S has a finite basis over R, then M has a finite basis over R. In this case, if R and S are both commutative, then $\operatorname{Rank}_R(M) = \operatorname{Rank}_S(M) \operatorname{Rank}_R(S)$.
- (3) If R and S are fields, then $\dim_R(S)$ and $\dim_S(M)$ are both finite if and only if $\dim_R(M)$ is finite.

PROOF. Start with a free basis $\{m_i \mid i \in I\}$ for M over S where $m_i \in M$. If we let $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_S(M,S)$ be the coordinate projection onto the submodule Sm_i (in Definition 4.2.2 this projection map was called π_i), then we have a dual basis $\{(m_i,f_i)\mid i\in I\}$ for M over S. Likewise, there exists a dual basis $\{(s_j,g_j)\mid j\in J\}$ for S over R where $\{s_j\mid j\in J\}$ is a free basis and $g_j:S\to R$ is the projection homomorphism onto coordinate j. Consider the set $\{(s_jm_i,g_jf_i)\mid (i,j)\in I\times J\}$. For each $(i,j)\in I\times J$ the composition of functions g_jf_i is in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,R)$ and the product s_jm_i is in M. For each $x\in M$, $g_jf_i(x)=0$ for all but finitely many choices of (i,j). For each $x\in M$ we have

$$\sum_{(i,j)\in I\times J} g_j(f_i(x))s_j m_i = \sum_{i\in I} \left(\sum_{j\in J} g_j(f_i(x))s_j\right) m_i$$
$$= \sum_{i\in I} f_i(x)m_i$$
$$= x$$

This shows $\{(s_j m_i, g_j f_i)\}$ is a dual basis for M over R. To show that $\{s_j m_i\}$ is a free basis, assume there is a finite dependence relation

$$0 = \sum_{(i,j)\in I\times J} \alpha_{i,j} s_j m_i = \sum_{i\in I} \left(\sum_{j\in J} \alpha_{i,j} s_j\right) m_i.$$

Because $\{m_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a free basis, for each i we have $\sum_j \alpha_{i,j} s_j = 0$. Because $\{s_j \mid j \in J\}$ is a free basis, each $\alpha_{i,j}$ is zero. The rest of the proof is left to the reader.

2.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 4.2.40. Let V be a vector space over a division ring D and v a nonzero vector in V. Show that $\{v\}$ is a linearly independent set. Equivalently, show that if $\alpha \in D$ and $\alpha v = 0$, then $\alpha = 0$.

EXERCISE 4.2.41. Let D be a division ring, V a nonzero vector space over D, and $B \subseteq V$. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) B is a basis for V. That is, B is a linearly independent spanning set for V.
- (2) B is a spanning set for V and no proper subset of B is a spanning set for V.

EXERCISE 4.2.42. Let R be a commutative ring and F a finitely generated free R-module. Show that any two bases for F have the same number of elements. (Hint: Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal and consider $F/\mathfrak{m}F$ as a vector space over R/\mathfrak{m} .)

EXERCISE 4.2.43. Suppose D is a division ring, V is a finite dimensional vector space over D, and W is a subspace of V. Prove:

- (1) W is finite dimensional and $\dim_D(W) \leq \dim_D(V)$.
- (2) There is a subspace U of V such that $V = U \oplus W$ is an internal direct sum and $\dim_D(V) = \dim_D(U) + \dim_D(W)$.
- (3) $\dim_D(V/W) = \dim_D(V) \dim_D(W).$

EXERCISE 4.2.44. Suppose $\phi \in \text{Hom}_D(V, W)$, where V and W are vector spaces over the division ring D. Prove:

- (1) If V is finite dimensional, then the kernel of ϕ is finite dimensional and the image of ϕ is finite dimensional.
- (2) If the kernel of ϕ is finite dimensional and the image of ϕ is finite dimensional, then V is finite dimensional.

EXERCISE 4.2.45. (The Rank-Nullity Theorem) Suppose $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_D(V, W)$, where V and W are vector spaces over the division ring D. The rank of ϕ , written $\operatorname{Rank}(\phi)$, is defined to be the dimension of the image of ϕ . The $\operatorname{nullity}$ of ϕ , written $\operatorname{Nullity}(\phi)$, is defined to be the dimension of the kernel of ϕ . Prove that if V is finite dimensional, then $\dim_D(V) = \operatorname{Rank}(\phi) + \operatorname{Nullity}(\phi)$.

EXERCISE 4.2.46. Suppose $\phi \in \text{Hom}_D(V, V)$, where V is a finite dimensional vector space over the division ring D. Prove that the following are equivalent.

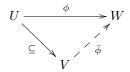
- (1) ϕ is invertible.
- (2) Nullity(ϕ) = 0.
- (3) $\operatorname{Rank}(\phi) = \dim_D(V)$.

EXERCISE 4.2.47. Let V be a finite dimensional vector space over a division ring D. Let ϕ , ψ be elements of $\operatorname{Hom}_D(V,W)$. Prove:

- (1) $\operatorname{Rank}(\phi\psi) \leq \operatorname{Rank}(\phi)$.
- (2) $\operatorname{Rank}(\phi\psi) \leq \operatorname{Rank}(\psi)$.
- (3) $\operatorname{Rank}(\phi\psi) \leq \min(\operatorname{Rank}(\phi), \operatorname{Rank}(\psi)).$

(4) If ϕ is invertible, $Rank(\phi\psi) = Rank(\psi\phi) = Rank(\psi)$.

EXERCISE 4.2.48. Let D be a division ring and V and W finitely generated vector spaces over D. Suppose U is a subspace of V and $\phi: U \to W$ an element of $\operatorname{Hom}_D(U,W)$. Show that there exists an element $\bar{\phi}$ of $\operatorname{Hom}_D(V,W)$ such that the diagram



commutes. That is, $\bar{\phi}$ is an extension of ϕ .

EXERCISE 4.2.49. Let D be a division ring and V a vector space over D. Let A and B be finite dimensional subspaces of V. Prove:

- (1) A + B is finite dimensional.
- (2) $\dim_D(A+B) = \dim_D(A) + \dim_D(B) \dim_D(A \cap B)$. (Hint: Apply Exercise 4.2.43 and Theorem 4.1.18(1).)

3. Finitely Generated Modules over a Principal Ideal Domain

Throughout this section, R is a principal ideal domain, or PID for short. A commutative ring R is called a *semilocal ring* if R has only a finite number of maximal ideals. A local ring has only one maximal ideal, hence is a semilocal ring.

Proposition 4.3.1. Let R be a PID.

- (1) Every nonzero ideal of R is a free R-module of rank 1.
- (2) Let π be an irreducible element of R, e > 0 and $A = R/(\pi^e)$. The following are true.
 - (a) A is a principal ideal ring which is a field if and only if e = 1.
 - (b) A is a local ring, the unique maximal ideal is generated by π .
 - (c) A has exactly e + 1 ideals, namely

$$(0)\subseteq (\pi^{e-1})\subseteq \cdots \subseteq (\pi^2)\subseteq (\pi)\subseteq A$$

- (3) Let π_1, \ldots, π_n be irreducible elements of R that are pairwise nonassociates. Let e_1, \ldots, e_n be positive integers. If $x = \pi_1^{e_1} \pi_2^{e_2} \cdots \pi_n^{e_n}$, then the following are true.
 - (a) A = R/(x) is a semilocal ring with exactly n maximal ideals.
 - (b) A = R/(x) is isomorphic to the direct sum of the local rings $\bigoplus_i R/(\pi_i^{e_i})$.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

Let F be a free module over R with a finite basis. By Exercise 4.2.42, every basis of F over R has the same number of elements, namely $\operatorname{Rank}_R(F)$.

THEOREM 4.3.2. Let R be a PID and let F be a free R-module with a finite basis. If M is a submodule of F, then M is a free R-module and $\operatorname{Rank}_R(M) \leq \operatorname{Rank}_R(F)$.

PROOF. Let $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ be a basis for F over R. Let Rx_1 be the submodule of F spanned by x_1 . The assignment $1 \mapsto x_1$ defines an isomorphism of R-modules $\theta: R \to Rx_1$. If $M_1 = M \cap Rx_1$, then M_1 is an R-submodule of the free R-module Rx_1 . Then M_1 is equal to the image under θ of an ideal I = Ra for some $a \in R$. In other words, $M_1 = Rax_1$. If a = 0, then $M_1 = 0$. Otherwise, there is an

isomorphism $R\cong M_1$ given by the assignment $1\mapsto ax_1$. For each j in the range $1\leq j\leq n$ define $M_j=M\cap (Rx_1+\cdots+Rx_j)$. The proof is by induction on n. If n=1, we are done. Assume $j\geq 1$ and that M_j is a free R-module on j or fewer generators. We now prove that $M_{j+1}=M\cap (Rx_1+\cdots+Rx_{j+1})$ is free of rank j+1 or less. Let $\psi:Rx_1+\cdots+Rx_{j+1}\to Rx_{j+1}$ be the projection onto the last summand. The image of M_{j+1} under ψ is a submodule of the free R-module Rx_{j+1} . Therefore, $\psi(M_{j+1})=Rax_{j+1}$ for some $a\in R$. If $a\neq 0$, then Rax_{j+1} is free of rank 1. The exact sequence

$$M_{j+1} \xrightarrow{\psi} Rax_{j+1} \to 0$$

splits and the kernel is $M_{j+1} \cap (Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_j) = M_j$.

COROLLARY 4.3.3. Let R be a PID and M a finitely generated R-module. Then

- (1) M is of finite presentation, and
- (2) every submodule of M is finitely generated.

PROOF. By Lemma 4.2.12, there is a surjection $\psi: R^{(n)} \to M$. By Theorem 4.3.2, the kernel of ψ is free of rank $m \le n$, so there is an exact sequence

$$0 \to R^{(m)} \to R^{(n)} \xrightarrow{\psi} M \to 0$$

which shows M is of finite presentation. If N is a submodule of M, then $\psi^{-1}(N)$ is a submodule of $R^{(n)}$, which is free of rank n or less. This shows N is the homomorphic image of a finitely generated R-module.

DEFINITION 4.3.4. Let R be an integral domain and M an R-module. If $x \in M$, then we say x is a torsion element of M in case the annihilator of x in R is nonzero. So x is torsion if there exists a nonzero $r \in R$ such that rx = 0. If every element of M is torsion, then we say M is torsion. Since R is an integral domain, the set of all torsion elements in M is a submodule of M, denoted M_t . If $M_t = 0$, then we say M is torsion free.

PROPOSITION 4.3.5. Let R be a PID and M a finitely generated R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M is torsion free.
- (2) M is free.

PROOF. (2) implies (1): Is left to the reader.

(1) implies (2): Assume $M = Ry_1 + \cdots + Ry_n$. Let $\{v_1, \ldots, v_m\}$ be a linearly independent subset of $\{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}$ such that m is maximal. If $N = Rv_1 + \cdots + Rv_m$, then N is a free R-module. By the choice of $\{v_1, \ldots, v_m\}$, for each $j = 1, \ldots, n$, there is a nontrivial dependence relation

$$c_j y_j = \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} v_i$$

such that $c_j, a_{1j}, \ldots, a_{mj}$ are in R and $c_j \neq 0$. Since R is a domain, if $c = c_1 c_2 \cdots c_n$, then $c \neq 0$. For each j, c factors into $c = c_j d_j$. Consider the submodule $cM = c_j d_j$.

 $\{cx \mid x \in M\}$ of M. A typical element of $cM = c(Ry_1 + \cdots + Ry_n)$ looks like

$$cx = c \sum_{j=1}^{n} r_j y_j$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} r_j c y_j$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} r_j d_j c_j y_j$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(r_j d_j \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{ij} y_j \right)$$

which is in N. Since N is free of rank m, Theorem 4.3.2 says that cM is free of rank no more than m. Because c is nonzero and M is torsion free, the assignment $x \mapsto cx$ defines an isomorphism $M \to cM$.

In Example 6.2.6 we prove that a finitely generated projective module over a principal ideal domain is free.

COROLLARY 4.3.6. Let R be a PID and M a finitely generated R-module. Let M_t denote the submodule consisting of all torsion elements of M. Then there is a finitely generated free submodule F such that M is the internal direct sum $M = F \oplus M_t$. The rank of F is uniquely determined by M.

PROOF. The reader should verify that M/M_t is torsion free. By Proposition 4.3.5, M/M_t is free. By Exercise 4.2.31, the sequence

$$0 \to M_t \to M \to M/M_t \to 0$$

is split-exact. Let $\psi: M/M_t \to F$ be a splitting map to the natural map $M \to M/M_t$. Set $F = \operatorname{im} \psi$. By Exercise 4.2.21, M is the internal direct sum $M = F \oplus M_t$. The rank of F is equal to the rank of M/M_t , which is uniquely determined by M. \square

Let M be an R-module and $x \in M$. The cyclic submodule generated by x is Rx. Denote by I_x the annihilator of Rx in R. That is,

$$I_x = \operatorname{annih}_R(x) = \{r \in R \mid rx = 0\}$$

which is an ideal in R, hence is principal. So $I_x = Ra$ and up to associates in R, a is uniquely determined by x. We call a the order of x. The sequence of R-modules

$$0 \to I_x \to R \to Rx \to 0$$

is exact, so $Rx \cong R/(I_x) \cong R/Ra$.

The left regular representation of R in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ maps $r \in R$ to $\ell_r : M \to M$, where ℓ_r is "left multiplication by r" (see Example 4.4.2). Let π be a prime element in R and n a positive integer. The kernel of ℓ_{π^n} is contained in the kernel of $\ell_{\pi^{n+1}}$. Therefore the union

$$M(\pi) = \bigcup_{n>0} \ker (\ell_{\pi^n})$$
$$= \{x \in M \mid \exists n > 0 : \pi^n x = 0\}$$

is a submodule of M.

LEMMA 4.3.7. Assume R is a PID, π is a prime in R, and M is an R-module.

- (1) If $(\pi, q) = 1$, then $\ell_q : M(\pi) \to M(\pi)$ is one-to-one.
- (2) If $M \cong R/(\pi^e R)$ is a cyclic R-module of order π^e , where $e \geq 1$, then
 - (a) πM is cyclic of order π^{e-1} , and
 - (b) $M/\pi M$ is a vector space of dimension one over the field $R/\pi R$.

PROOF. (1): Suppose $x \in \ker(\ell_q)$ and $\pi^n x = 0$. Then $(\pi^n, q) = 1$, so there exist $a, b \in R$ such that $1 = qa + \pi^n b$. Therefore, $x = aqx + b\pi^n x = 0$.

(2): Is left to the reader.
$$\Box$$

THEOREM 4.3.8. Let R be a PID and M a torsion R-module. Then M is the internal direct sum of the submodules $M(\pi)$

$$M = \bigoplus_{\pi} M(\pi)$$

where the sum is over all primes π in R. If M is finitely generated, then there exists a finite set π_1, \ldots, π_n of primes in R such that $M = M(\pi_1) \oplus \cdots \oplus M(\pi_n)$.

PROOF. Let $x \in M$ and let a be the order of x. Since M is torsion, $a \neq 0$. Since R is a UFD, we factor a into primes, $a = \pi_1^{e_1} \cdots \pi_n^{e_n}$ where each $e_i > 0$. For each π_i , let $q_i = a/\pi_i^{e_i}$. Then $Rq_1 + \cdots + Rq_n = 1$. There exist $s_1, \ldots s_n \in R$ such that $1 = s_1q_1 + \cdots + s_nq_n$. This means $x = s_1q_1x + \cdots + s_nq_nx$. Note that $\pi_i^{e_i}q_ix = ax = 0$ so $q_ix \in M(\pi_i)$. This proves $x \in M(\pi_1) + \cdots + M(\pi_n)$ and that M is spanned by the submodules $M(\pi_i)$. If M is finitely generated, then clearly only a finite number of primes are necessary in the sum.

To show that the sum is direct, assume π is a prime in R and

$$x\in M(\pi)\bigcap \Bigl(\sum_{q\neq \pi}M(q)\Bigr)$$

where the second summation is over all primes different from π . In the sum, only finitely many summands are nonzero. Assume q_1, \ldots, q_n are primes different from π and that x is in $M(\pi) \cap (M(q_1) + \cdots + M(q_n))$. Because x is in the sum $M(q_1) + \cdots + M(q_n)$, for some large integer m, if $s = (q_1 \cdots q_n)^m$, then sx = 0. But $(s, \pi) = 1$ and Lemma 4.3.7 says $\ell_s : M(\pi) \to M(\pi)$ is one-to-one. This implies x = 0.

LEMMA 4.3.9. Let R be a PID and M a torsion R-module such that the annihilator of M in R is $R\pi^n$, where π is a prime and n > 0. Then there exists an element $a \in M$ of order π^n such that the cyclic submodule Ra is a direct summand of M.

PROOF. There exists $a \in M$ such that $\pi^n a = 0$ and $\pi^{n-1} a \neq 0$. If Ra = M, then we are done. Otherwise continue.

Step 1: There exists $b \in M$ such that $\pi b = 0$, $b \neq 0$ and $Ra \cap Rb = 0$. Start with any element c in M-Ra. Pick the least positive integer j such that $\pi^j c \in Ra$. Then $1 \leq j \leq n$. Let $\pi^j c = r_1 a$. Since R is factorial, write $r_1 = r \pi^k$ and assume $(r,\pi) = 1$. Now $0 = \pi^n c = \pi^{n-j} \pi^j c = r \pi^{n-j} \pi^k a$. By Lemma 4.3.7, $\pi^{n-j+k} a = 0$. Since the order of a is π^n , this implies $0 \leq -j + k$, so we have $1 \leq j \leq k$. Set $b = \pi^{j-1}c - r\pi^{k-1}a$. Since $\pi^{j-1}c \notin Ra$ but $r\pi^{k-1}a \in Ra$ we know $b \neq 0$. Also, $\pi b = \pi^j c - r\pi^k a = 0$. Now check that $Ra \cap Rb = 0$. Assume otherwise. Then for some $s \in R$ we have $sb \in Ra$ and $sb \neq 0$. Since the order of b is π , this implies $(s,\pi^n) = 1$. For some $x,y \in R$ we can write $xs + y\pi^n = 1$. In this case $b = xsb + y\pi^n b = xsb \in Ra$ which is a contradiction.

Step 2: Ra is a direct summand of M. Let \mathcal{S} be the set of all submodules S of M such that $S \cap Ra = 0$. By Step 1, \mathcal{S} is nonempty. Order \mathcal{S} by set inclusion. Zorn's Lemma, Proposition 1.3.3, says there is a maximal member, C. To complete the proof, it suffices to show C + Ra = M, which is equivalent to showing M/C is generated by a + C. For contradiction's sake, assume $M \neq C + Ra$. Since $C \cap Ra = 0$, the order of a + C in M/C is π^n . By Step 1, there exists $b + C \in M/C$ such that $b + C \neq C$, $\pi b + C = C$, and $(Ra + C) \cap (Rb + C) = C$. It suffices to show that Rb + C is in \mathcal{S} . Suppose $x \in (Rb + C) \cap Ra$. We can write x in two ways, $x = rb + c \in Rb + C$, and $x = sa \in Ra$. Hence $rb \equiv sa \pmod{C}$. The choice of b implies $\pi \mid r$. Then $x = (r/\pi)\pi b + c$ is an element of C. So $x \in C \cap Ra = 0$, which says x = 0. This says $x \in C$ is in $x \in C$, which contradicts the choice of $x \in C$.

3.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 4.3.10. Let R be a PID, π a prime in R, and $e \ge 1$ an integer. This exercise describes the group of units in the principal ideal ring $R/(\pi^e)$ in terms of the additive and multiplicative groups of the field $R/(\pi)$. To simplify notation, write $(\cdot)^*$ for the group of units in a ring. Let $I = (\pi)/(\pi^e)$ be the maximal ideal of $R/(\pi^e)$. Starting with the descending chain of ideals

$$R/(\pi^e) = I^0 \supseteq I^1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq I^{e-1} \supseteq I^e = (0),$$

for i = 1, ..., e, define U_i to be the coset $1 + I^i$. Write U_0 for the group of units $(R/(\pi^e))^*$. Prove

$$(R/(\pi^e))^* = U_0 \supseteq U_1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq U_{e-1} \supseteq U_e = (1)$$

is a series of subgroups satisfying these properties: U_0/U_1 is isomorphic to the multiplicative group $(R/(\pi))^*$, and for $i = 1, \ldots, e-1, U_i/U_{i+1}$ is isomorphic to the additive group $R/(\pi)$. To prove this, follow this outline.

(1) To show the U_i form a series of subgroups and U_0/U_1 is isomorphic to $(R/(\pi))^*$, use Exercise 3.2.29 to prove that

$$1 \to U_i \to (R/(\pi^e))^* \to (R/(\pi^i))^* \to 1$$

is an exact sequence, for $i = 1, \ldots, e$.

- (2) Assume $e \geq 2$. Show that $R/(\pi) \cong U_{e-1}$ by the assignment which sends x to the coset represented by $1 + x\pi^{e-1}$. This can be proved directly. By induction on e, conclude that $R/(\pi) \cong 1 + (\pi^{i-1})/(\pi^i)$, for all $i \geq 2$.
- (3) Prove that $U_{i-1}/U_i \cong 1 + (\pi^{i-1})/(\pi^i)$, for all $i \geq 2$. This can be proved directly, or by applying the Snake Lemma (Theorem 6.6.2) to the commutative diagram:

$$1 \longrightarrow U_{i} \longrightarrow (R/(\pi^{e}))^{*} \longrightarrow (R/(\pi^{i}))^{*} \longrightarrow 1$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$1 \longrightarrow U_{i-1} \longrightarrow (R/(\pi^{e}))^{*} \longrightarrow (R/(\pi^{i-1}))^{*} \longrightarrow 1$$

EXERCISE 4.3.11. Let k be a field and $n \ge 1$. Show that there is a series of subgroups

Units
$$(k[x]/(x^n)) = U_0 \supseteq U_1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq U_{n-1} \supseteq U_n = (1),$$

where $U_0/U_1 = \text{Units}(k)$, and for each i = 1, ..., n-1, the factor group U_i/U_{i+1} is isomorphic to the additive group of k.

EXERCISE 4.3.12. (The abelian group \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) This exercise is a continuation of Exercise 2.3.21. Under addition, \mathbb{Z} is a subgroup of \mathbb{Q} . By the Division Algorithm (Proposition 1.2.3), every nonzero coset in the quotient group \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} has a unique representative of the form n/d where $\gcd(n,d)=1,\ 0< n< d$. For any integer $r\geq 1$, let $\ell_r:\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}\to\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$ be the left multiplication by r map. Prove the following.

- (1) Show that ℓ_r is onto. We say \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is a divisible abelian group (see Definition 6.7.5).
- (2) \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is a torsion \mathbb{Z} -module.
- (3) The kernel of ℓ_r is a cyclic group of order r.
- (4) If H is a finite subgroup of \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} , then H is cyclic. (Hint: Exercise 2.8.10.)
- (5) If H is a finite subgroup of \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} , then $(\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})/H$ is isomorphic to \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} .

EXERCISE 4.3.13. (The *p*-torsion subgroup of \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) Let *p* be a prime number. As in Section 4.3, let

$$\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}(p) = \bigcup_{n>0} \ker(\ell_{p^n})$$

be the subgroup of \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} consisting of all elements annihilated by some power of p. Some authors denote the group $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}(p)$ by $\mathbb{Z}(p^{\infty})$. Prove the following.

- (1) Every proper subgroup of $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}(p)$ is a finite cyclic group.
- (2) $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}(p)$ is a divisible group (see Exercise 4.3.12(1)).
- (3) \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is equal to the internal direct sum $\bigoplus_{p\in P} \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}(p)$, where P is the set of all prime numbers.
- (4) If H is a proper subgroup of $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}(p)$, then the quotient $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}(p)/H$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}(p)$.

3.2. The Basis Theorems.

Theorem 4.3.14. (Basis Theorem – Elementary Divisor Form) Let R be a PID and M a finitely generated R-module. In the notation established above, the following are true.

- (1) $M = F \oplus M_t$, where F is a free submodule of finite rank. The rank of F is uniquely determined by M.
- (2) $M_t = \bigoplus_{\pi} M(\pi)$ where π runs through a finite set of primes in R.
- (3) For each prime π such that $M(\pi) \neq 0$, there exists a basis $\{a_1, \ldots, a_m\}$ such that $M(\pi) = Ra_1 \oplus Ra_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus Ra_m$ where the order of a_i is equal to π^{e_i} and $e_1 \geq e_2 \geq \cdots \geq e_m$.
- (4) M_t is uniquely determined by the primes π that occur in (2) and the integers e_i that occur in (3).

The prime powers π^{e_i} that occur are called the elementary divisors of M.

PROOF. (1): is Corollary 4.3.6.

- (2): is Theorem 4.3.8.
- (3): Since $M(\pi)$ is a direct summand of M, it follows from Corollary 4.3.3 that $M(\pi)$ is finitely generated. Let x_1, \ldots, x_n be a generating set. Let k be the maximum integer in the set $\{k_i \mid x_i \text{ has order } \pi^{k_i}\}$. Then $\pi^k M(\pi) = 0$. There exists $e_1 > 0$ such that $\pi^{e_1} M(\pi) = 0$ and $\pi^{e_1-1} M(\pi) \neq 0$. By Lemma 4.3.9, there exists $a_1 \in M(\pi)$ such that a_1 has order π^{e_1} and $M = Ra_1 \oplus C_1$. If $C_1 \neq 0$, then we can apply Lemma 4.3.9 and find $a_2 \in C_1$ such that a_2 has order π^{e_2} , where $e_1 \geq e_2 \geq 1$ and $C_1 = Ra_2 \oplus C_2$. Notice that $R/\pi R$ is a field, and

$$M(\pi)/\pi M(\pi) = (Ra_1)/(\pi Ra_1) \oplus (Ra_2)/(\pi Ra_2) \oplus C_2/\pi C_2.$$

is a finite dimensional vector space. Since $(Ra_i)/(\pi Ra_i)$ is a vector space of dimension one, the number of times we can apply Lemma 4.3.9 is bounded by the dimension of the vector space $M/\pi M$. After a finite number of iterations we arrive at (3).

(4): Fix a prime π in R such that $M(\pi)$ is nonzero. In the proof of Step (3) we saw that the integer m is uniquely determined since it is equal to the dimension of the vector space $M/\pi M$ over the field $R/\pi R$. Suppose there are two decompositions of $M(\pi)$ into direct sums of cyclic submodules

$$M(\pi) = Ra_1 \oplus Ra_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus Ra_m = Rb_1 \oplus Rb_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus Rb_m,$$

where the order of a_i is equal to π^{e_i} where $e_1 \geq e_2 \geq \cdots \geq e_m$, and the order of b_i is equal to π^{f_i} , where $f_1 \geq f_2 \geq \cdots \geq f_m$. We must show that $e_i = f_i$ for each i. Consider the submodule

$$\pi M(\pi) = \pi Ra_1 \oplus \pi Ra_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus \pi Ra_m = \pi Rb_1 \oplus \pi Rb_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus \pi Rb_m.$$

By Lemma 4.3.7, the order of the cyclic module πRa_i is π^{e_i-1} . If $e_1=1$, then $\pi M(\pi)=0$ which implies $f_1=1$. The proof follows by induction on e_1 .

Theorem 4.3.15. (Basis Theorem – Invariant Factor Form) Let R be a PID and M a finitely generated R-module. The following are true.

- (1) $M = F \oplus M_t$, where F is a free submodule of finite rank. The rank of F is uniquely determined by M.
- (2) There exist $r_1, \ldots, r_\ell \in R$ such that $r_1 \mid r_2 \mid r_3 \mid \cdots \mid r_\ell$ and

$$M_t \cong R/(r_1R) \oplus \cdots \oplus R/(r_\ell R).$$

The integer ℓ is uniquely determined by M. Up to associates in R, the elements r_i are uniquely determined by M.

The elements r_1, \ldots, r_ℓ are called the invariant factors of M.

PROOF. By Theorem 4.3.14, there is a finite set of primes $\{\pi_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq k\}$ and a finite set of nonnegative integers $\{e_{ij} \mid 1 \leq i \leq k, 1 \leq j \leq \ell\}$ such that

$$M_t \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^k \bigoplus_{j=1}^\ell R/(\pi_i^{e_{ij}}R).$$

For each i we assume $e_{i1} \geq e_{i2} \geq \cdots \geq e_{i\ell} \geq 0$. Also assume for at least one of the primes π_i that $e_{i\ell} \geq 1$. For each j such that $1 \leq j \leq \ell$, set $r'_j = \prod_{i=1}^k \pi_i^{e_{ij}}$. Then $r'_\ell \mid \cdots \mid r'_2 \mid r'_1$. Reverse the order by setting $r_1 = r'_\ell, r_2 = r'_{\ell-1}, \ldots, r_\ell = r'_1$. By Proposition 4.3.1 (3),

$$R/(r'_j) \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^k R/(\pi_i^{e_{ij}}R)$$

from which it follows that $M_t \cong R/(r_1R) \oplus \cdots \oplus R/(r_\ell R)$. This proves the existence claim of Part (2).

For the uniqueness claim, suppose we are given the elements r_1, \ldots, r_ℓ in R. By unique factorization in R, $r_\ell = \pi_1^{e_{1\ell}} \cdots \pi_k^{e_{k\ell}}$. Likewise, factor each of the other r_i . By stepping through the existence proof backwards, we get

$$M_t \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^k \bigoplus_{j=1}^\ell R/(\pi_i^{e_{ij}}R).$$

The uniqueness of the primes and the exponents follows from Theorem 4.3.14. This gives the uniqueness of the r_i .

4. Matrix Theory

4.1. The Endomorphism Ring of a Module.

EXAMPLE 4.4.1. Let R be any ring. Let M and N be R-modules. By $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ we denote the set of all R-module homomorphisms from M to N. We recall two results from Exercise 4.1.21. First, point-wise addition of functions

$$(\phi + \psi)(x) = \phi(x) + \psi(x)$$

is a binary operation that turns $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ into an additive abelian group. Secondly, if M=N, then composition of functions

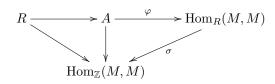
$$(\phi\psi)(x) = \phi(\psi(x))$$

is a multiplication operation that turns $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ into a ring, which is called the ring of endomorphisms of M. If R is commutative, then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ can be turned into a left R-module by defining (rf)(x) = rf(x). If R is noncommutative, then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ cannot be turned into an R-module per se. Four such possibilities are given in Lemma 6.5.1.

EXAMPLE 4.4.2. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. If $r \in R$, then "left multiplication by r" is $\ell_r : M \to M$, where $\ell_r(x) = rx$. By Lemma 4.1.2, the mapping $r \mapsto \ell_r$ defines a homomorphism of rings $\lambda : R \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$, which we call the *left regular representation* of R in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$. The kernel of λ is the annihilator of M in R, denoted $\operatorname{annih}_R(M)$ (Definition 4.1.3). We say R acts as a ring of endomorphisms of M. The homomorphism λ turns $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ into an R-algebra. The proofs are left to the reader.

EXAMPLE 4.4.3. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. Then A acts on itself as a ring of R-module homomorphisms. That is, if $a \in A$, then "left multiplication by a" is $\ell_a : A \to A$, where $\ell_a(x) = ax$. The mapping $a \mapsto \ell_a$ defines an R-algebra homomorphism $\theta : A \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,A)$ which is called the *left regular representation* of A in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(A,A)$. Because $\ell_\alpha(1) = \alpha$, the map θ is one-to-one. The proofs are left to the reader.

EXAMPLE 4.4.4. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. Let M be a left A-module. By virtue of the structure homomorphism $\theta: R \to A$, we view M as a left R-module. Then A acts as a ring of R-module homomorphisms of M. That is, if $a \in A$, then "left multiplication by a" is $\ell_a: M \to M$, where $\ell_a(x) = ax$. The mapping $a \mapsto \ell_a$ defines an R-algebra homomorphism $\varphi: A \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ which is called the left regular representation of A in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$. The kernel of φ is annihA(M), the annihilator of M in A, which is a two-sided ideal of A (Definition 4.1.3). Every ring is a \mathbb{Z} -algebra (Example 4.1.8). By Exercise 4.4.33, the natural map $\mathbb{Z} \to A$ induces a monomorphism of rings $\sigma: \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M) \to \operatorname{Hom}_\mathbb{Z}(M,M)$ such that the diagram



commutes. By Lemma 4.1.2, the homomorphism σ makes M into a module over the ring $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$. The proofs are left to the reader.

EXAMPLE 4.4.5. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. Let M be a left A-module. By virtue of the structure homomorphism $\theta: R \to A$, we view M as a left R-module. By Exercise 4.4.33, θ induces a monomorphism of rings $\operatorname{Hom}_A(M,M) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$. In particular, any ring A is a \mathbb{Z} -algebra in a unique way (Example 4.1.8), hence $\operatorname{Hom}_A(M,M)$ embeds as a subring of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M,M)$ (see Example 3.1.7).

4.2. The Matrix of a Linear Transformation.

DEFINITION 4.4.6. Let R be any ring and m, n positive integers. By $M_{nm}(R)$ we denote the set of all n-by-m matrices over R. If m = n, then we simply write $M_n(R)$ instead of $M_{nn}(R)$. Addition of matrices is coordinate-wise $(\alpha_{ij}) + (\beta_{ij}) = (\alpha_{ij} + \beta_{ij})$. We can multiply by elements of R from the left $r(\alpha_{ij}) = (r\alpha_{ij})$, or from the right $(\alpha_{ij})r = (\alpha_{ij}r)$. Therefore, in the terminology of Definition 6.4.8, $M_{nm}(R)$ is a left R right R bimodule. If $(\alpha_{ij}) \in M_{nm}(R)$ and $(\beta_{jk}) \in M_{mp}(R)$, then the matrix product is defined by $(\alpha_{ij})(\beta_{jk}) = (\gamma_{ik}) \in M_{np}(R)$, where $\gamma_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \alpha_{ij}\beta_{jk}$. When the products are defined, multiplication of matrices is associative. The reader should verify that the general case can be proved from the following special case. Assume $\alpha = (\alpha_i) \in M_{1m}(R)$, $\beta = (\beta_{ij}) \in M_{mn}(R)$, and $\gamma = (\gamma_j) \in M_{n1}(R)$. Then

$$(\alpha\beta)\gamma = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i \beta_{ij}\right) \gamma_j$$

is equal to

$$\alpha(\beta\gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(\alpha_i \sum_{j=1}^{n} \beta_{ij} \gamma_j \right).$$

The reader should verify that multiplication of matrices distributes over addition from both the left and right.

DEFINITION 4.4.7. Let e_{ij} be the matrix with 1 in position (i, j) and 0 elsewhere. The matrix e_{ij} is called an *elementary* matrix.

LEMMA 4.4.8. For any ring R, the set $M_{nm}(R)$ of n-by-m matrices over R is a free R-module. The set $\{e_{ij} \mid 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m\}$ of elementary matrices is a free basis with nm elements.

PROOF. The proof is left to the reader.

DEFINITION 4.4.9. Let R be any ring, M a free left R-module of rank m and N a free left R-module of rank n. Let $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$ be a basis for M and $Y = \{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}$ a basis for N. Given $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, N)$, ϕ maps $x_j \in X$ to a linear combination of Y. That is,

$$\phi(x_j) = \sum_{i=1}^n \phi_{ij} y_i$$

where the elements ϕ_{ij} are in R. The matrix of ϕ with respect to the bases X and Y is defined to be $M(\phi, X, Y) = (\phi_{ij})$, which is a matrix in $M_{nm}(R)$.

PROPOSITION 4.4.10. Let R be any ring. If M is a free R-module of rank m, and N is a free R-module of rank n, then there is a \mathbb{Z} -module isomorphism $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N) \cong M_{nm}(R)$. If R is a commutative ring, then this is an R-module isomorphism and $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is a free R-module of rank mn.

PROOF. Let $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$ be a basis for M and $Y = \{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ a basis for N. The assignment $\phi \mapsto M(\phi, X, Y)$ defines a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism

$$M(\cdot, X, Y) : \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, N) \to M_{nm}(R).$$

Conversely, assume $(\alpha_{ij}) \in M_{nm}(R)$. Applying Lemma 4.2.12 (1), we define α in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ by

$$\alpha(x_j) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_{ij} y_i.$$

The rest is left to the reader.

PROPOSITION 4.4.11. Let R be any ring. Let M, N, and P denote free R-modules, each of finite rank. Let X, Y and Z be bases for M, N, and P respectively. Let $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ and $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(N,P)$. If the matrices $M(\psi,Y,Z)$ and $M(\phi,X,Y)$ are treated as having entries from the ring R^o , the opposite ring of R, then

$$M(\psi\phi, X, Z) = M(\psi, Y, Z)M(\phi, X, Y).$$

PROOF. The opposite ring R^o is defined as in Definition 3.1.8. Let $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$, $Y = \{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}$, and $Z = \{z_1, \ldots, z_p\}$. Let $M(\phi, X, Y) = (\phi_{ij})$, $M(\psi, Y, Z) = (\psi_{ij})$. It follows from

$$\psi\phi(x_j) = \psi\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \phi_{ij} y_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \phi_{ij} \sum_{k=1}^p \psi_{ki} z_k = \sum_{k=1}^p \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \phi_{ij} \psi_{ki}\right) z_k$$

that $M(\psi \phi, X, Z) = (\gamma_{kj})$, where $\gamma_{kj} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \phi_{ij} \psi_{ki}$. Computing the product of the two matrices over R^o , we get $M(\psi, Y, Z)M(\phi, X, Y) = (\tau_{kj})$, where

$$\tau_{kj} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \psi_{ki} * \phi_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \phi_{ij} \psi_{ki}.$$

COROLLARY 4.4.12. Let R be any ring. With the binary operations defined in Definition 4.4.6, $M_n(R)$ is a ring with identity element $I_n = e_{11} + \cdots + e_{nn}$. The set $R \cdot I_n$ of all scalar matrices in $M_n(R)$ is a subring which is isomorphic to R. The center of the ring $M_n(R)$ is equal to the center of the subring $R \cdot I_n$. If R is commutative, $M_n(R)$ is an R-algebra and the center of $M_n(R)$ is equal to $R \cdot I_n$.

PROOF. Use Proposition 4.4.11 to show that matrix multiplication is associative. The rest is left to the reader. \Box

PROPOSITION 4.4.13. Let R be any ring. If M is a free R-module of rank n, then there is an isomorphism of rings $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M) \cong M_n(R^o)$. If R is commutative, this is an isomorphism of R-algebras.

PROOF. Pick a basis for M. The map of Proposition 4.4.10 defines an isomorphism of abelian groups. It is multiplicative by Proposition 4.4.11.

DEFINITION 4.4.14. Let R be a commutative ring and $n \geq 1$. If A, B are matrices in $M_n(R)$ and P is an invertible matrix in $M_n(R)$ such that $A = P^{-1}BP$, then we say A and B are *similar*. The reader should verify that this defines an equivalence relation on $M_n(R)$.

PROPOSITION 4.4.15. Let R be a commutative ring and M a free R-module of rank n. Let X and Y be two bases for M. If $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$, then the matrix $M(\phi,X,X)$ of ϕ with respect to X and the matrix $M(\phi,Y,Y)$ of ϕ with respect to Y are similar. In fact, if $1 \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ is the identity map, then $M(1,X,Y)^{-1} = M(1,Y,X)$ and $M(\phi,X,X) = M(1,Y,X)M(\phi,Y,Y)M(1,X,Y)$.

PROOF. Let $I \in M_n(R)$ be the identity matrix. It follows from Proposition 4.4.11 that I = M(1, X, X) = M(1, Y, Y), M(1, X, Y)M(1, Y, X) = I, and M(1, Y, X)M(1, X, Y) = I. Additionally, $M(\phi, X, Y) = M(1, X, Y)M(\phi, X, X) = M(\phi, Y, Y)M(1, X, Y)$.

EXAMPLE 4.4.16. Let R be a commutative ring and $A \in M_{nm}(R)$. Elements of R^m can be viewed as m-by-1 column matrices in M_{m1} . As in Proposition 4.4.10, multiplication by A from the left defines an R-module homomorphism ℓ_A in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(R^m,R^n)$. In particular, if k is a field and $A \in M_{nm}(k)$, then left multiplication by A defines a linear transformation $\ell_A : k^m \to k^n$. We define the rank of A and the nullity of A as in Exercise 4.2.45. Define the kernel of A to be the kernel of ℓ_A . The column space of A is defined to be the subspace of k^n spanned by the columns of A. The rank of A is seen to be the dimension of the column space of A.

4.3. The Dual of a Module.

DEFINITION 4.4.17. Let R be any ring. Let M be a left R-module. The dual of M is defined to be $M^* = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,R)$. We turn M^* into a right R-module by the action (fr)(x) = (f(x))r, for $r \in R$, $f \in M^*$, $x \in M$. The reader should verify that this multiplication by elements of R is a well defined right R-module structure on M^* . If N is another left R-module, and $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$, define $\psi^*: N^* \to M^*$ by the rule $\psi^*(f) = f \circ \psi$, for any $f \in N^*$.

LEMMA 4.4.18. Let R be any ring. Let M and N be left R-modules. If $\psi: M \to N$ is a homomorphism of left R-modules, then $\psi^*: N^* \to M^*$ is a homomorphism of right R-modules. If L is another R-module, and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(L, M)$, then $(\psi \phi)^* = \phi^* \psi^*$.

PROOF. Let $f, g \in N^*$ and $a \in R$. The reader should verify that $\psi^*(f+g) = \psi^*(f) + \psi^*(g)$. If $x \in M$, then

$$(\psi^*(fa))(x) = (fa)(\psi(x)) = (f(\psi(x)))a = (\psi^*(f)(x))a = (\psi^*(f)a)(x).$$
 Lastly, $\phi^*\psi^*(f) = (\psi\phi)^*(f).$

DEFINITION 4.4.19. Let M be a left R-module which is free of finite rank. If $B = \{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is a basis for M, then define v_1^*, \ldots, v_n^* in M^* by the rules

$$v_i^*(v_j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

PROPOSITION 4.4.20. If M is a free left R-module with basis $B = \{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$, then M^* is a free right R-module with basis $B^* = \{v_1^*, \ldots, v_n^*\}$.

PROOF. By Proposition 4.4.10, M^* is isomorphic to $M_{1n}(R)$ as \mathbb{Z} -modules. Under this isomorphism, v_i^* is mapped to the row matrix e_{1i} which has 1 in position i and zeros elsewhere. This is therefore a homomorphism of right R-modules. \square

THEOREM 4.4.21. Let R be any ring. Let M and N be free R-modules, each of finite rank. Let X be a basis for M, and Y a basis for N. Let X^* and Y^* be the corresponding bases for M^* and N^* . Given $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$,

$$M(\phi^*, Y^*, X^*) = M(\phi, X, Y)^T.$$

That is, the matrix of ϕ^* with respect to Y^* and X^* is the transpose of the matrix of ϕ with respect to X and Y.

PROOF. Let $X=\{u_1,\ldots,u_m\}$ and $Y=\{v_1,\ldots,v_n\}$. Let $M(\phi,X,Y)=(\phi_{ij})$. Consider $\phi^*(v_l^*)(u_j)=v_l^*(\phi(u_j))=v_l^*(\sum_{i=1}^n\phi_{ij}v_i)=\phi_{lj}$. Now consider $(\sum_{i=1}^m\phi_{li}u_i^*)(u_j)=\phi_{lj}$. Therefore, $\phi^*(v_l^*)=\sum_{i=1}^m\phi_{li}u_i^*$ as elements of $M^*=\mathrm{Hom}_R(M,R)$ because they agree on a basis of M. This also shows that column l of the matrix $M(\phi^*,Y^*,X^*)$ is the transpose of $(\phi_{l1},\phi_{l2},\ldots,\phi_{lm})$, which is row l of $M(\phi,X,Y)$

DEFINITION 4.4.22. If k is a field, the space $V^{**} = \operatorname{Hom}_k(V^*, k)$ is called the double dual of V. Given $v \in V$, let $\varphi_v : V^* \to k$ be the "evaluation at v" map. That is, if $f \in V^*$, then $\varphi_v(f) = f(v)$. The reader should verify that φ_v is an element of V^{**} , and that the assignment $v \mapsto \varphi_v$ is a homomorphism of k-vector spaces $V \to V^{**}$.

Theorem 4.4.23. Let V be a vector space over a field k. The map $V \to V^{**}$ which sends a vector $v \in V$ to φ_v is one-to-one. If V is finite dimensional, this is a vector space isomorphism.

PROOF. Let v be a nonzero vector in V. By Theorem 4.2.34 we can extend $\{v\}$ to a basis for V, say $B = \{v, v_2, \ldots, v_n\}$. Define $f \in V^*$ to be the projection mapping onto the v-coordinate. Then f(v) = 1, and $f(v_i) = 0$ for $2 \le i \le n$. Then $\varphi_v(f) = f(v) = 1$. This proves $V \to V^{**}$ is one-to-one. If V is finite dimensional, then $V \to V^{**}$ is onto since $\dim_k(V) = \dim_k(V^{**})$.

Exercise 6.5.21 extends Theorem 4.4.23 to finitely generated projective modules over any ring.

Theorem 4.4.24. Let D be a division ring and V and W finitely generated D-vector spaces. Let $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_D(V,W)$. Let $\phi^*: W^* \to V^*$ be the associated homomorphism of right D-vector spaces.

- (1) If ϕ is one-to-one, then ϕ^* is onto.
- (2) If ϕ is onto, then ϕ^* is one-to-one.
- (3) The rank of ϕ is equal to the rank of ϕ^* .

PROOF. (1): Assume ϕ is one-to-one. Let $f:V\to D$ be in V^* . By Exercise 4.2.48 there is $\bar f:W\to D$ in W^* such that $f=\bar f\phi=\phi^*(\bar f)$.

- (2): Assume ϕ is onto. A typical element of W is of the form $w = \phi(v)$, for some $v \in V$. Assume $g \in W^*$ and $g\phi = 0$. Then $g(w) = g(\phi(v)) = 0$.
- (3): Let $n = \dim_D(V)$. By Proposition 4.4.10, $\dim_D(V^*) = n$. Let $U = \ker \phi$. Let $\psi : U \to V$ be the inclusion map. By (1), ψ^* is onto. Then $\operatorname{Rank}(\psi^*) = \dim(U^*) = \dim(U) = \operatorname{Nullity}(\phi) = n \operatorname{Rank} \phi$. By Lemma 4.4.18, $\operatorname{im} \phi^* \subseteq \ker \psi^*$. We prove the reverse inclusion. Suppose $f \in V^*$ and $\psi^*(f) = f\psi = 0$. Then

f factors through $V/\ker\phi=\mathrm{im}\,\phi$. There is $\bar{f}:\mathrm{im}\,\phi\to D$ such that $f=\bar{f}\phi$. By Exercise 4.2.48, f extends to W, so f is in the image of ϕ^* . This proves $\operatorname{Rank} \phi^* = \operatorname{Nullity} \psi^* = n - \operatorname{Rank} \psi^* = \operatorname{Rank} \phi.$

Corollary 4.4.25. Let D be a division ring and $A \in M_{nm}(D)$. The row rank of A is equal to the column rank of A.

PROOF. As in Proposition 4.4.10, define α in $\operatorname{Hom}_D(D^m, D^n)$ to be "left multiplication by A". Let α^* be the associated map on dual spaces. By Theorem 4.4.21 the matrix of α^* is A^T . The column rank of A is equal to Rank α which is equal to Rank α^* , by Theorem 4.4.24. But Rank α^* is equal to the column rank of A^T , which is the row rank of A.

4.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 4.4.26. Let k be a field and V a finite dimensional vector space over k. Show that $\operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$ is a commutative ring if and only if $\dim_k(V) \leq 1$.

EXERCISE 4.4.27. Suppose $\phi \in \text{Hom}_D(V, V)$, where V is a finite dimensional vector space over the division ring D. Prove:

- (1) There is a chain of subspaces $\ker(\phi) \subseteq \ker(\phi^2) \subseteq \ker(\phi^3) \subseteq \cdots$.
- (2) There is a chain of subspaces $\phi(V) \supseteq \phi^2(V) \supseteq \phi^3(V) \supseteq \cdots$
- (3) The kernel of $\phi: \phi(V) \to \phi^2(V)$ is equal to $\ker(\phi) \cap \phi(V)$. More generally, if $m \ge 1$, the kernel of $\phi^m : \phi^m(V) \to \phi^{2m}(V)$ is equal to $\ker(\phi^m) \cap \phi^m(V)$.
- (4) If $m \ge 1$ and $\phi^m(V) = \phi^{m+1}(V)$, then $\phi^m(V) = \phi^{m+i}(V)$ for all $i \ge 1$.
- (5) If $n = \dim_D(V)$, then there exists m such that $1 \le m \le n$ and $\phi^m(V) =$ $\phi^{m+1}(V)$.
- (6) If $n = \dim_D(V)$, then there exists m such that $1 \le m \le n$ and $\ker(\phi^m) \cap$ $\phi^m(V) = (0).$

EXERCISE 4.4.28. Let R be a commutative ring. Let $A \in M_{nm}(R)$ and $B, C \in$ $M_{ml}(R)$. Prove:

- (1) $(A^T)^T = A$. (2) $(B+C)^T = B^T + C^T$. (3) $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$.

EXERCISE 4.4.29. If R is a commutative ring, show that the mapping $M_n(R) \to$ $M_n(R)^o$ defined by $A \mapsto A^T$ is an isomorphism of R-algebras.

EXERCISE 4.4.30. If R is any ring, show that the mapping $M_n(R) \to M_n(R^o)^o$ defined by $A \mapsto A^T$ is an isomorphism of rings. Using the Morita Theorems, a very general version of this is proved in Corollary 6.9.3(4).

EXERCISE 4.4.31. Let R be any ring, M and N finitely generated R-modules, and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$. Show that there exist positive integers m and n, epimorphisms $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to M$, $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to N$, and $\theta \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathbb{R}^n)$ such that the diagram

$$R^{m} \xrightarrow{\theta} R^{n}$$

$$\downarrow g$$

$$M \xrightarrow{\phi} N$$

commutes. Therefore, given generators for M and N, ϕ can be represented as a matrix.

EXERCISE 4.4.32. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal in R. The natural ring homomorphism $\eta:R\to R/I$ turns R/I into an R-module. Show that there is an isomorphism $R/I\cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(R/I,R/I)$ of rings induced by the left regular representation $\lambda:R\to \operatorname{Hom}_R(R/I,R/I)$ of R (see Example 4.4.2). For a noncommutative example, see Exercise 8.3.19. (Hint: Exercise 4.1.28.)

EXERCISE 4.4.33. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings. Let M and N be S-modules. Via θ , M and N can be viewed as R-modules (see Example 4.1.4 (4)). Show that θ induces a well defined \mathbb{Z} -module monomorphism $\operatorname{Hom}_S(M,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$. (Note: The dual result, how the tensor group behaves when the ring in the middle is changed, is studied in Exercise 6.4.41.

EXERCISE 4.4.34. Let R be a ring. Show that there exists an isomorphism of rings $\operatorname{Hom}_R(R,R) \cong R^o$, where R is viewed as a left R-module and R^o denotes the opposite ring.

EXERCISE 4.4.35. Let $Z=\operatorname{Max}(\mathbb{Z})$ denote the set of maximal ideals in \mathbb{Z} . Then each $\mathfrak{m}\in Z$ is a principal ideal $p\mathbb{Z}$ for some positive prime $p\in \mathbb{Z}$. In other words, Z is parametrized by the set of prime numbers. For each $\mathfrak{m}\in Z$, the residue ring \mathbb{Z}/\mathfrak{m} is a finite field whose order is a prime number. Let $P=\prod_{\mathfrak{m}\in Z}\mathbb{Z}/\mathfrak{m}$ be the direct product of the finite prime fields. Then P is a ring and there is a natural homomorphism $\theta:\mathbb{Z}\to P$. As in Example 4.4.3, the left regular representation $\lambda:P\to\operatorname{Hom}_\mathbb{Z}(P,P)$ is defined by $\alpha\mapsto\ell_\alpha$. The following steps outline a proof that λ is an isomorphism of rings.

- (1) Let $W \subseteq Z$ and assume W is infinite. Show that $\theta : \mathbb{Z} \to \prod_{\mathfrak{m} \in W} \mathbb{Z}/\mathfrak{m}$ is one-to-one. Hence the ring $\prod_{\mathfrak{m} \in W} \mathbb{Z}/\mathfrak{m}$ (and in particular P) is a faithful \mathbb{Z} -algebra and has characteristic zero.
- (2) Let p be a prime number, $\pi_p: P \to \mathbb{Z}/p$ the projection map, and $\iota_p: \mathbb{Z}/p \to P$ the injection map. Show that

$$0 \to \mathbb{Z}/p \xrightarrow{\iota_p} P \xrightarrow{\ell_p} P \xrightarrow{\pi_p} \mathbb{Z}/p \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules.

- (3) Let $h: P \to P$ be a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism. Show that h restricts to \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphisms $h: \ker \pi_p \to \ker \pi_p$ and $h: \operatorname{im} \iota_p \to \operatorname{im} \iota_p$.
- (4) Let h be as in (3). Show that there exists $\alpha \in P$ such that h is equal to ℓ_{α} .
- (5) Conclude that $\lambda: P \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(P, P)$ is an isomorphism of rings.

EXERCISE 4.4.36. In this exercise we continue to use the notation introduced in Exercise 4.4.35. Let $S = \bigoplus_{\mathfrak{m} \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/\mathfrak{m}$ be the direct sum of the finite prime fields. The following steps outline a proof that the endomorphism rings $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(S,S)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(P,P)$ are equal.

- (1) Show that S is an ideal in the ring P.
- (2) Show that if $h: P \to P$ is a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism, then h restricts to a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism $h: S \to S$.
- (3) Show that every $h \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(S, S)$ is equal to ℓ_{α} for some $\alpha \in P$.
- (4) Show that $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(P,P) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(S,S)$ by the restriction map of (2).

For a continuation of this example, see Example 6.7.7.

EXERCISE 4.4.37. Let k be a field, A a k-algebra, and M a left A-module. Prove that if $\dim_k(M) = 1$, then A contains a two-sided ideal \mathfrak{m} such that $A/\mathfrak{m} \cong k$. (Hint: Consider the left regular representation $\lambda : A \to \operatorname{Hom}_k(M, M)$.)

5. Minimal Polynomial

DEFINITION 4.5.1. Let k be a field, A a k-algebra, and α and element of A. If there is a nonzero polynomial $f \in k[x]$ and $f(\alpha) = 0$, then we say α is algebraic over k. Otherwise we say α is transcendental over k. We say A is algebraic over k if every $\alpha \in A$ is algebraic over k.

Theorem 4.5.2. Let k be a field, A a k-algebra, and $\alpha \in A - \{0\}$. There is a k-algebra homomorphism $\tau : k[x] \to A$ satisfying the following.

- (1) $\tau(x) = \alpha$.
- (2) The kernel of τ is $I(\alpha) = \{ p \in k[x] \mid p(\alpha) = 0 \}$. There is a polynomial $f \in k[x]$ such that $I(\alpha)$ is equal to the principal ideal (f) generated by f.
- (3) The image of τ is $k[\alpha]$, the subalgebra of A generated by k and α .
- (4) α is transcendental over k if and only if $I(\alpha) = (0)$.
- (5) α is algebraic over k if and only if $I(\alpha) \neq (0)$. In this case, $\deg f > 0$, $\dim_k k[\alpha] = \deg f$, f can be taken to be monic, and if $p \in I(\alpha)$, then $f \mid p$.
- (6) $k[\alpha] \cong k[x]/(f)$.
- (7) $k[\alpha]$ is a commutative principal ideal ring.

The polynomial f is called the minimal polynomial of α and is denoted min. poly_k(α). If α is algebraic and f is taken to be monic, then f is uniquely determined by α .

PROOF. Given $\alpha \in A$, the evaluation homomorphism (Theorem 3.6.3) is a k-algebra homomorphism $\tau: k[x] \to A$ determined by $x \mapsto \alpha$. Since k[x] is a principal ideal domain (Corollary 3.6.6), there exists a polynomial $f \in k[x]$ which generates the kernel of τ . The image of τ is denoted $k[\alpha]$. By Exercise 3.6.33, $k[\alpha]$ is a commutative principal ideal ring and is the smallest subring of A containing k and α . By Proposition 3.2.9, $k[\alpha] \cong k[x]/(f)$. By Definition 4.5.1, α is transcendental if and only if $I(\alpha) = (0)$. In this case, τ is one-to-one and $k[\alpha] \cong k[x]$. If $I(\alpha) \neq (0)$, then deg $f \geq 1$ and f is unique up to associates in k[x]. Hence if f is taken to be monic, then f is unique. Let $f = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0$ be the minimal polynomial of α , where $n \geq 1$. Exercise 4.2.26 says $k[\alpha]$ is a k-vector space of dimension n spanned by $1, \alpha, \ldots, \alpha^{n-1}$.

COROLLARY 4.5.3. If k is a field, A is a finite dimensional k-algebra, and α is an element of A, then the following are true.

- (1) α is is algebraic over k.
- (2) The degree of min. $\operatorname{poly}_k(\alpha)$ is less than or equal to $\dim_k(A)$.
- (3) α is an invertible element of A if and only if min. $\operatorname{poly}_k(u)$ has a nonzero constant term.
- (4) α is not a zero divisor if and only if α is invertible.

PROOF. (1) and (2): Let $\dim_k A = n$ and consider the subset $\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^n\}$ of A. There is a nontrivial dependence relation $a_n\alpha^n + \dots + a_1\alpha + a_0$. Let $\tau: k[x] \to A$ be the evaluation homomorphism determined by $x \mapsto \alpha$. Since $a_nx^n + \dots + a_1x + a_0$ is in the kernel of τ , min. poly_k(α) has degree less than or equal to n.

(3) and (4): Let $f(x) = \min \operatorname{poly}_k(\alpha) = x^d + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$. If $\alpha \in k$, then d = 1, $f(x) = x - \alpha$, and in this case the result holds. Assume $d \geq 2$ and solve

for a_0 in $f(\alpha)=0$ to get $a_0=-\alpha(\alpha^{d-1}+a_{d-1}\alpha^{d-2}+\cdots+a_1)$. By definition of minimal polynomial, $\alpha^{d-1}+a_{d-1}\alpha^{d-2}+\cdots+a_1$ is nonzero in A. If $a_0=0$, then α is a zero divisor. If $a_0\neq 0$, then $1=\alpha(-a_0^{-1})(\alpha^{d-1}+a_{d-1}\alpha^{d-2}+\cdots+a_1)$ shows α is invertible.

Example 4.5.4. Since $M_n(k)$ is finite dimensional over k, every matrix $A \in$ $M_n(k)$ has a minimal polynomial min. poly_k(A). The evaluation homomorphism $x \mapsto A$ maps k[x] onto the commutative subring k[A] of $M_n(R)$.

Example 4.5.5. Let k be a field, $n \geq 2$, and $A = M_n(k)$ the ring of n-by-n matrices over k. Let e_{st} be the elementary matrix with 1 in position (s,t) and 0 elsewhere (see Definition 4.4.7). Notice that

$$e_{st}e_{uv} = \begin{cases} e_{sv} & \text{if } t = u, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Therefore, $e_{st}e_{st}=0$ if $s\neq t$ and $e_{ss}e_{ss}=e_{ss}$. From this it follows that

min.
$$\operatorname{poly}_k(e_{st}) = \begin{cases} x^2 - x & \text{if } s = t, \\ x^2 & \text{if } s \neq t. \end{cases}$$

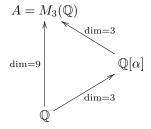
In both cases we see that the minimal polynomial of e_{st} is not irreducible and $k[e_{st}]$ is not a field.

EXAMPLE 4.5.6. Let
$$k$$
 be a field, $a \in k$, $A = M_3(k)$ the ring of 3-by-3 matrices over k , and $\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & a \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Notice that $\alpha^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\alpha^3 = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a \end{bmatrix} = aI_3$. Therefore, α^3 is in k . Let $p(x) = x^3 - a$. Then $p(\alpha) = 0$. Let $f(x) = aI_3$.

min. poly_k(α). Then f(x) divides p(x). To show that f(x) is equal to p(x), it suffices to show f(x) has degree greater than 2. First, since α is not a diagonal matrix we know f(x) has degree greater than 1. For contradiction's sake, suppose $f(x) = x^2 + bx + c$ for some $b, c \in k$. Then $\alpha^2 + b\alpha \in k$. But

$$\alpha^2 + b\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & ab \\ b & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a & ab \\ b & 0 & a \\ 1 & b & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

is not a diagonal matrix. This contradiction implies f(x) has degree greater than 2, hence min. poly_k(α) = $x^3 - a$. This example is a special case of Exercise 4.7.21. The matrix α is called the companion matrix of the polynomial $x^3 - a$. Notice that $k[\alpha] \cong k[x]/(x^3-a)$ is a field if and only if x^3-a is irreducible in k[x]. For instance, if $k = \mathbb{Q}$, and a = 8, then $x^3 - 8 = (x - 2)(x^2 + 2x + 4)$ is not irreducible, hence $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ is not a field. On the other hand, if $k=\mathbb{Q}$ and a=10, then $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ is an extension field of k inside of A. In this case there is a lattice of subrings



where an arrow denotes set containment. Using the fact that $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ is a subring of A we can view A as a vector space over $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$. We have $9 = (A : \mathbb{Q}) = (\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] : \mathbb{Q}) (\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] : \mathbb{Q}) = 3 \cdot 3$. Notice that $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ is not contained in the center of A, hence A is not an algebra over $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$.

If V is a finite dimensional vector space over k, then $\operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$ is finite dimensional by Proposition 4.4.10, so every ϕ in $\operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$ has a minimal polynomial $p=\min$ poly $_k(\phi)$. By Proposition 4.4.13, $M_n(k)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$ are isomorphic as k-algebras. If X is a basis for V, and $A=M(\phi,X,X)$, then \min poly $_k(\phi)=\min$ poly $_k(A)$. The evaluation homomorphism $\sigma:k[x]\to\operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$ defined by $x\mapsto \phi$ maps k[x] onto the commutative subring $k[\phi]$. There is a k-algebra isomorphism $k[x]/(p)\cong k[\phi]$ and $k[\phi]$ is a principal ideal ring which is a semilocal ring. The ideals in $k[\phi]$ correspond up to associates to the divisors of p in k[x] (see Proposition 4.3.1).

Using the k-algebra homomorphism σ , k[x] acts as a ring of k-vector space homomorphisms on V. Given a polynomial $f \in k[x]$, and a vector $u \in V$ the action is given by $fu = \sigma(f)u = f(\phi)u$. This makes V into a k[x]-module, which is denoted by V_{ϕ} . Since V is finitely generated as a vector space over k, it is immediate that V_{ϕ} is finitely generated as a module over k[x]. The structure theory of Section 4.3 applies to the $k[\phi]$ -module V_{ϕ} . If $p = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0$ is the minimal polynomial of ϕ , then a k-basis for $k[\phi]$ is $\{\phi^{n-1}, \ldots, \phi, 1\}$. If $u \in V$, the cyclic k[x]-submodule of V generated by u is therefore equal to

$$k[\phi]u = \{f(\phi)u \mid f \in k[x]\} = k\phi^{n-1}u + \dots + k\phi u + ku.$$

Since ϕ maps this subspace to itself, we say $k[\phi]u$ is ϕ -invariant. If u is nonzero, the k[x]-module homomorphism $k[x] \to k[\phi]u$ is onto and the kernel is a principal ideal $I_u = (q)$,

$$k[\phi]u \cong k[x]/(q).$$

The polynomial q is the order of u. Since u is nonzero and $k[\phi]u$ is finite dimensional over k, we can assume q is a monic polynomial of positive degree. In fact, q is the polynomial of minimal degree such that $q(\phi)u = 0$. By Exercise 4.6.12, q is a divisor of the minimal polynomial p of ϕ . Because the dimension of the k-vector space $k[\phi]u$ is equal to the degree of q, we see that q is the minimal polynomial of the restriction of ϕ to the ϕ -invariant subspace $k[\phi]u$.

For reference, Proposition 4.5.7 lists the fundamental results on cyclic $k[\phi]$ -modules derived in the previous paragraphs.

PROPOSITION 4.5.7. Let k be a field, V a k-vector space of dimension n, and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$. Let V_{ϕ} be the k[x]-module structure on V induced by the ring homomorphism $k[x] \to \operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$ which maps x to ϕ . If V_{ϕ} is a cyclic k[x]-module with generator u, then the following are true.

- (1) The set $B = \{u, \phi u, \phi^2 u, \dots, \phi^{n-1} u\}$ is a k-basis for V.
- (2) As k[x]-modules, $V_{\phi} \cong k[x]/(f)$.
- (3) If min. poly_k(ϕ) = f, then deg f = n and f is the monic polynomial of minimal degree such that $f(\phi)u = 0$.

Proof. See the paragraphs immediately preceding the proposition. \Box

Lemma 4.5.8. Let V be a finite dimensional vector space over the field k. Let ϕ and ψ be linear transformations in $\operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$. The k[x]-modules V_{ϕ} and V_{ψ}

are isomorphic if and only if there exists an invertible linear transformation ρ in $\operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$ such that $\phi = \rho^{-1}\psi\rho$.

PROOF. Let $f: V_{\phi} \to V_{\psi}$ be an isomorphism of k[x]-modules. Then f is an isomorphism of k-vector spaces. That is, $f = \rho$ for some invertible element ρ in $\operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$. For each $u \in V$ we have $f(\phi u) = \psi f(u)$. Therefore, $\phi = \rho^{-1}\psi\rho$. Conversely, if $\phi = \rho^{-1}\psi\rho$, define $f: V_{\phi} \to V_{\psi}$ by $f(u) = \rho u$. For $i \geq 1$, we have $\rho\phi^i = \psi^i\rho$. Then $f(\phi^i u) = \rho\phi^i u = \psi^i\rho u = \psi^i f(u)$. The rest follows from the fact that ρ is k-linear.

5.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 4.5.9. Let k be a field and A a finite dimensional k-algebra. Let $\alpha \in A$ and $f = \min. \operatorname{poly}_k(\alpha)$. Prove:

- (1) α is invertible in A if and only if $f(0) \neq 0$.
- (2) α is left invertible if and only if α is right invertible.

EXERCISE 4.5.10. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. Suppose $\alpha \in A$ is a root of the polynomial $p \in R[x]$. Prove:

- (1) If $\phi: A \to A$ is an R-algebra homomorphism, then $\phi(\alpha)$ is a root of p.
- (2) If u is a unit in A, then $u^{-1}\alpha u$ is a root of p.

EXERCISE 4.5.11. Let k be a field and A a finite dimensional k-algebra. Let $\alpha \in A$. The assignment $x \mapsto \alpha$ defines the evaluation homomorphism $k[x] \to A$ whose image is the commutative subalgebra $k[\alpha]$ of A (Exercise 3.6.33). Show that $k[\alpha]$ is a field if and only if min. poly $_k(\alpha)$ is irreducible.

EXERCISE 4.5.12. Let k be a field, a, b, c some elements of k and assume $a \neq b$. Let f = (x - a)(x - b) and $g = (x - c)^2$. Prove:

- (1) The k-algebra k[x]/(x-a) is isomorphic to k.
- (2) There is a k-algebra isomorphism $k[x]/(f) \cong k \oplus k$.
- (3) There is a k-algebra isomorphism $k[x]/(g) \cong k[x]/(x^2)$.
- (4) If h is a monic irreducible quadratic polynomial in k[x], then the k-algebras k[x]/(f), k[x]/(g), and k[x]/(h) are pairwise nonisomorphic.

EXERCISE 4.5.13. Let k be a field and A a finite dimensional k-algebra. Prove that if $\dim_k(A) = 2$, then A is commutative.

EXERCISE 4.5.14. Classify up to isomorphism all finite rings of order four. For a generalization of this result to rings of order p^2 , p a prime number, see Exercise 5.5.8. The reader interested in rings that do not necessarily contain a unit element is referred to the classification obtained in [57].

EXERCISE 4.5.15. Let k be a field and A a finite-dimensional k-algebra. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) A is a division ring.
- (2) A has no zero divisors.

6. Canonical Forms

We apply the basis theorems for finitely generated modules over a principal ideal domain (Theorems 4.3.14 and 4.3.15) to derive two canonical forms for matrices over a field. The first two canonical forms are unique up to similarity. In other

words, a matrix is similar to a unique matrix in rational canonical form. The Jordan canonical form of a matrix exists over the algebraic closure of the ground field and is also unique up to similarity. Let V be a finite dimensional vector space over a field k, and ϕ an endomorphism of V. In Corollary 4.6.2 we show that there is a basis for V such that the matrix of ϕ is in rational canonical form. If k is algebraically closed, then in Corollary 4.6.4 there is a basis for V such that the matrix of ϕ is in Jordan canonical form.

In Proposition 4.6.30 we show that any matrix over a field has a unique reduced row echelon form.

In Theorem 4.6.25 we show that a matrix over a principal ideal domain has a Smith normal form. This and the Invariant Factor Form of the basis theorem (Theorem 4.3.15) are applied to derive the Simultaneous Bases Theorem (Corollary 4.6.26) for a submodule of a finitely generated free module.

6.1. Rational Canonical Form.

THEOREM 4.6.1. If V is a finite dimensional vector space over the field k, and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$, then there is a basis $\{u_1,u_2,\ldots,u_r\}$ for the $k[\phi]$ -module V such that the following are true.

- (1) The $k[\phi]$ -module V is equal to the internal direct sum $U_1 \oplus U_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus U_r$ where $U_i = k[\phi]u_i$ is the cyclic submodule of V spanned by u_i .
- (2) $U_i \cong k[x]/(q_i)$ where q_i is the order of u_i and $q_1 \mid q_2 \mid \cdots \mid q_r$.
- (3) U_i is a ϕ -invariant subspace of V and the minimal polynomial of $\phi|_{U_i}$ is q_i .
- (4) The minimal polynomial of ϕ is q_r .
- (5) The sequence of polynomials (q_1, q_2, \dots, q_r) is uniquely determined by ϕ .

The polynomials q_1, \ldots, q_r are called the invariant factors of ϕ .

PROOF. Apply Theorem 4.3.15 to the finitely generated k[x]-module V. \square

If V and ϕ are as in Theorem 4.6.1, then $V = U_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus U_r$ where each $\phi(U_i) \subseteq U_i$. Then each U_i is a k-subspace of V. We can pick a k-basis B_i for each subspace U_i and concatenate to get a basis $B = B_1 + \cdots + B_r$ for V. It is clear that the matrix of ϕ with respect to B is the block diagonal matrix (see Exercise 4.7.23)

$$M(\phi, B) = \text{diag}(M(\phi|_{U_1}, B_1), \dots, M(\phi|_{U_r}, B_r))$$

where there are r blocks and block i is the matrix with respect to B_i of the restriction of ϕ to U_i .

Now we determine a canonical form for the matrix of ϕ . In other words, we try to find a basis B of V for which the matrix $M(\phi, B)$ is simplified. Based on the previous paragraph, we consider the case where $V = k[\phi]u$ is a cyclic module over the ring $k[\phi]$. We are in the context of Proposition 4.5.7. Suppose the minimal polynomial of ϕ is min. poly_k $(\phi) = p = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0$. The k[x]-module homomorphism $k[x] \to k[\phi]u$ defined by $1 \mapsto u$ is surjective and the kernel is the principal ideal $I_u = (p)$ generated by p. Therefore, as a k[x]-module, V is isomorphic to k[x]/(p). Applying the division algorithm, we see that $1, x, x^2, \ldots, x^{n-1}$ is a k-basis for k[x]/(p). Therefore, a k-basis for V is $B = \{u, \phi u, \phi^2 u, \ldots, \phi^{n-1} u\}$.

Introduce the notation $x_i = \phi^{i-1}u$. The action of ϕ on $B = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ determines the matrix $M(\phi, B)$. Computing, we get

$$\phi x_1 = \phi u = x_2$$

$$\phi x_2 = \phi \phi u = x_3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\phi x_{n-1} = \phi^{n-1} u = x_n$$

$$\phi x_n = \phi^n u = -a_{n-1} \phi^{n-1} u - \dots - a_1 \phi^1 u - a_0 u = -a_0 x_1 - a_1 x_2 - \dots - a_{n-1} x_n$$

(6.1)
$$M(\phi, B) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & -a_0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & -a_1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & -a_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & -a_{n-3} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & -a_{n-2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 & -a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

We call (6.1) the companion matrix of the polynomial $p = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0$. If $p \in k[x]$ is a polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$, denote the companion matrix of p in $M_n(k)$ by C(p). Conversely, by Exercise 4.6.13, the minimal polynomial of (6.1) is again $p = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0$.

COROLLARY 4.6.2. If V is a finite dimensional vector space over the field k, $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$, and q_1,q_2,\ldots,q_r are the invariant factors of ϕ , then there is a basis B for V such that the matrix of ϕ with respect to B is the block diagonal matrix

$$M(\phi, B) = \operatorname{diag}\left(C(q_1), C(q_2), \dots, C(q_r)\right)$$

where block i is the companion matrix of q_i . The matrix $M(\phi, B)$ is called the rational canonical form for ϕ .

6.2. Jordan Canonical Form.

so the matrix is

THEOREM 4.6.3. If V is a finite dimensional vector space over the field k, and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(V, V)$, then there exist positive integers s, ν_1, \ldots, ν_s and a basis $\{u_{ij} \mid 1 \leq i \leq s; 1 \leq j \leq \nu_i\}$ for the $k[\phi]$ -module V such that the following are true.

(1) The $k[\phi]$ -module V is equal to the internal direct sum

$$V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^{s} \bigoplus_{j=1}^{\nu_i} U_{ij}$$

where $U_i = k[\phi]u_{ij}$ is the cyclic submodule of V spanned by u_{ij} .

- (2) $U_{ij} \cong k[x]/(\pi_i^{e_{ij}})$ where
 - (a) π_1, \ldots, π_s are distinct monic irreducible polynomials,
 - (b) the order of u_{ij} is $\pi_i^{e_{ij}}$, and
 - (c) $e_{i1} \geq e_{i2} \geq \cdots \geq e_{i\nu_i} \geq 1$.
- (3) U_{ij} is a ϕ -invariant subspace of V and the minimal polynomial of $\phi|_{U_{ij}}$ is $\pi_i^{e_{ij}}$.

(4) The minimal polynomial of ϕ is

$$\min.\operatorname{poly}_k(\phi) = \prod_{i=1}^s \pi_i^{e_{i1}}$$

(5) The sequence of irreducible polynomials $(\pi_1, \pi_2, ..., \pi_s)$ and the positive integers $\{e_{ij}\}$ are uniquely determined by ϕ .

The polynomials $\pi_i^{e_{ij}}$ are called the elementary divisors of ϕ .

PROOF. Apply Theorem 4.3.14 to the finitely generated
$$k[x]$$
-module V . \square

Using the basis for V given by Theorem 4.6.3, we determine a canonical form for the matrix of ϕ . The minimal polynomial for ϕ restricted to U_{ij} is a power of the irreducible polynomial π_i . We assume each π_i is a linear polynomial, because the canonical form of ϕ in this case is particularly simplified. This case will occur if and only if the minimal polynomial of ϕ factors into a product of linear polynomials in k[x]. The k-bases for the individual ϕ -invariant subspaces U_{ij} can be concatenated for a basis of V. We now determine a canonical form for the matrix of ϕ under the following assumptions

- (1) V is a cyclic $k[\phi]$ -module spanned by u.
- (2) min. poly_k $(\phi) = (x b)^n$ is a power of a linear polynomial.

Notice that V is a cyclic $k[\phi]$ -module, spanned by u. Since $k[\phi] = k[\phi - b]$, it follows that V is a cyclic $k[\phi - b]$ -module, spanned by u. If $\theta : k[x] \to \operatorname{Hom}_k(V, V)$ is defined by $x \mapsto \phi$, then $\ker \theta$ is the principal ideal generated by $(x - b)^n$. If $\tau : k[x] \to \operatorname{Hom}_k(V, V)$ is defined by $x \mapsto \phi - b$, then the minimal polynomial of $\psi = \phi - b$ is the monic generator of $\ker \tau$, which is x^n . Therefore $B = \{u, \psi u, \psi^2 u, \ldots, \psi^{n-1} u\}$ is a k-basis for V. The matrix of $\psi = \phi - b$ with respect to the basis B is

$$M(\phi - b, B) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & & & \vdots & & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

which is the companion matrix of the polynomial x^n . The matrix of ϕ with respect to the basis B is equal to $M(\phi, B) = M(\phi - b, B) + M(b, B)$. Therefore,

$$M(\phi, B) = \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & b & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & b & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & & & \vdots & & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & b & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & b & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 & b \end{bmatrix}.$$

We denote the *n*-by-*n* matrix (6.2) by $J_n(b)$ and refer to it as the basic *Jordan block* for the polynomial $(x-b)^n$.

COROLLARY 4.6.4. Assume V is a finite dimensional vector space over the field $k, \phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(V, V)$, and that the minimal polynomial min. $\operatorname{poly}_k(\phi)$ factors into a

product of linear factors in k[x]. If b_1, \ldots, b_s are the distinct roots of min. poly_k (ϕ) and $\{e_{ij}\}\$ is the set of exponents of the elementary divisors of ϕ , then there is a basis B for V such that the matrix of ϕ with respect to B is the block diagonal matrix

$$M(\phi, B) = \text{diag}\left(J_{e_{11}}(b_1), J_{e_{12}}(b_1), \dots, J_{e_{ij}}(b_i), \dots\right)$$

where the block corresponding to the ordered pair (i,j) is the Jordan matrix of $(x-b_i)^{e_{ij}}$. The matrix $M(\phi,B)$ is called the Jordan canonical form for ϕ and B is called a Jordan basis.

Let k be a field, and A a matrix in $M_n(k)$. With respect to the standard basis on $k^{(n)}$, left multiplication by A defines a linear transformation ℓ_A in $\operatorname{Hom}_k(k^{(n)},k^{(n)})$. The invariant factors, elementary divisors, rational canonical form, and the Jordan canonical form of A are defined to be the corresponding invariants of ℓ_A .

COROLLARY 4.6.5. Let k be a field, and A and B two matrices in $M_n(k)$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) A and B are similar.
- (2) A and B have the same invariant factors.
- (3) A and B have the same rational canonical form.

PROOF. If A and B have the same invariant factors, say q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_r , then they are both similar to the block diagonal matrix $C = \operatorname{diag}(C(q_1), C(q_2), \dots, C(q_r))$. The matrix C is in rational canonical form. The reader should verify that the invariant factors of C are q_1, \ldots, q_r . If A and B are similar, then by Proposition 4.4.13 and Lemma 4.5.8, the k[x]-modules that they induce on k^n are isomorphic. So they have the same invariant factors. П

EXAMPLE 4.6.6. Consider the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ over the field \mathbb{Q} .

Let $S = \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ be the standard basis for $V = \mathbb{Q}^{(3)}$. By Proposition 4.4.10, $A = M(\phi, S, S)$, where ϕ is the linear transformation in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Q}}(V, V)$ defined by mul-

tiplication by A from the left. Notice that
$$A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
, and $A^3 = 0$. Thus,

A is nilpotent and the index of nilpotency is 3. This proves that min. poly $(A) = x^3$. Since the minimal polynomial of A has only one root and is split, the rational canon-

ical form of A is equal to the Jordan canonical form, which is $J_3(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

Let $u_1 = (1,0,0)^t$, $u_2 = Au_1 = (1,-1,1)^t$, and $u_3 = Au_2 = (1,-1,0)^t$. Then $B = \{u_1, u_2, u_3\}$ is a Jordan basis for ϕ . If $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is the matrix

with columns u_1, u_2, u_3 , the reader should verify that $P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $P^{-1}AP = J_3(0).$

6.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 4.6.7. Let k be a field and $A \in M_n(k)$. Let F be a field which contains k as a subfield. Prove:

- (1) A is invertible in $M_n(k)$ if and only if A is invertible in $M_n(F)$.
- (2) The rank of A over k is equal to the rank of A over F.
- (3) The invariant factors of A in k[x] are the same as the invariant factors of A in F[x].
- (4) If $A, B \in M_n(k)$, then A and B are similar in $M_n(k)$ if and only if A and B are similar in $M_n(F)$.

EXERCISE 4.6.8. Let k be a field and $A, B, C \in M_n(k)$. Prove:

- (1) If C is invertible, then Rank(AC) = Rank(CA) = Rank(A).
- (2) If A and B are similar, then Rank(A) = Rank(B).

EXERCISE 4.6.9. Let R be any ring and $b \in R$. Let $B \in M_n(R)$ be the Jordan block corresponding to $(x-b)^n$. That is, B is the matrix which has main diagonal entries all equal to b, first lower subdiagonal entries all equal to 1 and 0 elsewhere. Prove that the transpose of B is similar to B. For a continuation of this exercise, see Exercise 5.9.2.

EXERCISE 4.6.10. Assume A is an n-by-n matrix over the field \mathbb{Q} such that the minimal polynomial of A in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ is equal to $(x^2 + 1)(x + 2)$. If n = 7, exhibit all possible rational canonical forms for A.

EXERCISE 4.6.11. Let R be any ring, and M an R-module. Prove that the ring of endomorphisms $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ is the trivial ring (0) if and only if M is the trivial R-module (0).

EXERCISE 4.6.12. Let k be a field, V a finite dimensional k-vector space, u a nonzero vector in V, and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(V, V)$. Let $f \in k[x]$ be the monic polynomial of minimal degree such that $f(\phi)u = 0$. Prove that f divides min. poly $_k(\phi)$.

EXERCISE 4.6.13. Let k be a field, V a k-vector space of dimension n, and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$. Suppose $B = \{x_1,\ldots,x_n\}$ is a k-basis for V and $\{a_0,\ldots,a_{n-1}\} \subseteq k$ such that $\phi x_1 = x_2, \ \phi x_2 = x_3, \ldots, \ \phi x_{n-1} = x_n, \ \text{and} \ \phi x_n = -a_0x_1 - a_1x_2 - \cdots - a_{n-1}x_n$. Prove:

- (1) $V_{\phi} = k[\phi]x_1$. In other words, V_{ϕ} is a cyclic $k[\phi]$ -module and is generated by x_1 .
- (2) min. poly_k $(\phi) = x^n + a_{n-1}x_{n-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$.

EXERCISE 4.6.14. Let k be a field. Let q and ℓ be monic polynomials in k[x], where q is an irreducible quadratic and ℓ is linear. If A is a 7-by-7 matrix over k such that the minimum polynomial of A in k[x] is $q\ell$, exhibit all possible rational canonical forms for A.

EXERCISE 4.6.15. Let k be a field. Let q and ℓ be monic polynomials in k[x], where q is an irreducible quadratic and ℓ is linear. Let A be a 6-by-6 matrix over k. Exhibit all possible rational canonical forms for A, if the minimum polynomial of A in k[x] is $q^2\ell$. Do the same if the minimum polynomial of A in k[x] is ℓ^2q .

EXERCISE 4.6.16. Let k be a field. Let q and t be irreducible monic polynomials in k[x], where deg q=2 and deg t=3. Let A be a 15-by-15 matrix over k. Exhibit

all possible rational canonical forms for A, if the minimum polynomial of A in k[x] is q^2t^2 . Do the same if the minimum polynomial of A in k[x] is q^3t .

EXERCISE 4.6.17. Let k be a field. Let q_1 , q_2 and ℓ be distinct irreducible monic polynomials in k[x], where q_1 and q_2 are quadratics and ℓ is linear. Let A be a 10-by-10 matrix over k. Exhibit all possible rational canonical forms for A, if the minimum polynomial of A in k[x] is $\ell q_1^2 q_2$.

EXERCISE 4.6.18. Let k be a field. Let ℓ_1 , ℓ_2 be distinct monic polynomials in k[x], where $\deg \ell_1 = \deg \ell_2 = 1$. Let A be an 8-by-8 matrix over k. Exhibit all possible rational canonical forms for A, if the minimum polynomial of A in k[x] is $\ell_1^2 \ell_2^3$.

6.4. Smith Normal Form.

DEFINITION 4.6.19. Let R be any ring and let M and N be left R-modules. Given two homomorphisms f,g in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$, we say f and g are equivalent, if there exist automorphisms $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(N,N)$ and $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
M & \xrightarrow{f} & N \\
\downarrow^{\psi} & & \downarrow^{\phi} \\
M & \xrightarrow{g} & N
\end{array}$$

commutes. It is routine to check that equivalence of matrices defines an equivalence relation on $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$.

Lemma 4.6.20 is a very special case of the Five Lemma (Theorem 6.6.1).

LEMMA 4.6.20. Let R be a ring and let M and N be left R-modules. If f and g are equivalent homomorphisms in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$, then $\ker f \cong \ker g$, $\operatorname{im} f \cong \operatorname{im} g$, and $\operatorname{coker} f \cong \operatorname{coker} g$.

PROOF. There exist automorphisms $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(N, N)$ and $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)$ such that $\phi f = g\psi$. Therefore, ψ maps $\ker f$ isomorphically onto $\ker g$, and ϕ maps $\operatorname{im} f$ isomorphically onto $\operatorname{im} g$. The composition

$$N \xrightarrow{\phi} N \xrightarrow{\eta} \operatorname{coker} q$$

is onto and the kernel is equal to im f. By Theorem 4.1.17, $\eta \phi$ factors through coker f giving the isomorphism coker $f \cong \operatorname{coker} g$.

DEFINITION 4.6.21. Let R be a commutative ring. Two matrices A, B in $M_{nm}(R)$ are said to be equivalent if there exist invertible matrices $Q_l \in M_n(R)$ and $Q_r \in M_m(R)$ such that $B = Q_l A Q_r$. It is routine to check that equivalence of matrices defines an equivalence relation on $M_{nm}(R)$. As in Proposition 4.4.10, multiplication from the left by A and B define homomorphisms ϕ_A, ϕ_B in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(R^m, R^n)$. Hence A and B are equivalent matrices if and only if ϕ_A and ϕ_B are equivalent homomorphisms in the sense of Definition 4.6.19.

DEFINITION 4.6.22. Let R be a commutative ring and A a nonzero n-by-m matrix in $M_{nm}(R)$. As in Definition 4.4.7, let e_{ij} be the elementary matrix in $M_n(R)$ with 1 in position (i,j) and 0 elsewhere. If $(a_1,\ldots,a_n)\in R^n$, then $\mathrm{diag}(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$ denotes the diagonal matrix $a_1e_{11}+\cdots+a_ne_{nn}$. In particular, $I=\mathrm{diag}(1,\ldots,1)$ is the identity matrix in $M_n(R)$. The three types of elementary row operations on A are defined below where matrices multiplied from the left are in $M_n(R)$.

- (1) Multiplication of a row by a unit. Let $u \in R^*$ be a unit in R and denote by $L_i(u)$ the diagonal matrix diag $(1, \ldots, u, \ldots, 1)$ with u in row i and 1 on the rest of the diagonal. Clearly, $L_i(u)$ is invertible with inverse $L_i(u^{-1})$ and the product $L_i(u)A$ is the matrix obtained by multiplying row i of A by u.
- (2) Adding a scalar multiple of row j to row i. If $i \neq j$, let $\Delta_{ij}(v) = I + ue_{ij}$, where $v \in R$. Then $\Delta_{ij}(v)\Delta_{ij}(-v) = (I + ue_{ij})(I ue_{ij}) = I$ (see Example 4.5.5). Therefore, $\Delta_{ij}(v)$ is invertible with inverse $\Delta_{ij}(-v)$. The product $\Delta_{ij}(v)A$ is the matrix obtained by adding v times row j of A to row i.
- (3) Switch rows i and j. If $i \neq j$, let T_{ij} denote the matrix obtained by switching rows i and j of I. Clearly $T_{ij}^2 = I$ and the product $T_{ij}A$ is the matrix obtained by switching rows i and j of A.

An elementary row operation on A corresponds to multiplication by an invertible matrix, hence results in a matrix that is equivalent to A.

DEFINITION 4.6.23. In the notation of Definition 4.6.22, the three types of elementary column operations on A are defined below where matrices multiplied from the right are in $M_m(R)$:

- (1) Multiplication of a column by a unit. The product $AL_j(u)$ is the matrix obtained by multiplying column j of A by u.
- (2) Adding a scalar multiple of column i to column j. The product $A\Delta_{ij}(v)$ is the matrix obtained by adding v times column i of A to column j.
- (3) Switch columns i and j. The product AT_{ij} is the matrix obtained by switching columns i and j of A.

An elementary column operation on A corresponds to multiplication by an invertible matrix, hence results in a matrix that is equivalent to A.

LEMMA 4.6.24. Let R be a principal ideal domain and $A = (a_{ij})$ a nonzero matrix in $M_{nm}(R)$. Then A is equivalent to a matrix $B = (b_{ij})$ such that b_{11} divides every other entry of B.

PROOF. As in Example 3.4.15, let $\nu(x)$ be the number of factors in a prime factorization of x. Now let $V = \{\nu(x) \mid x \text{ is an entry in a matrix that is equivalent to } A\}$. Let $\nu(\alpha)$ be the minimum in V and $B = (b_{ij})$ a matrix that is equivalent to A such that α is an entry in B. By multiplying B from the left and right by appropriate matrices T_{1i} and T_{1j} , we can assume $\alpha = b_{11}$. We prove that α divides every entry in B. For sake of contradiction, assume not. So α is not a unit and there is some b_{ij} in B such that α does not divide b_{ij} . There are three cases. Because the statement of the theorem depends only on the equivalence class of B, throughout the proof we will repetitively replace B with a matrix that is obtained from B by an elementary row or column operation.

Case 1: j=1. After multiplying by T_{2i} we assume α does not divide b_{21} . By Corollary 3.4.9, let $d=\gcd(\alpha,b_{21})$ and write $d=\alpha x+b_{21}y$. If $u=\alpha/d$ and $v=b_{21}/d$, then 1=ux+vy. Notice

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ -v & u \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u & -y \\ v & x \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

shows that the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ -v & u \end{bmatrix}$ is invertible. If we set

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ -v & u \end{bmatrix} \oplus I \end{pmatrix} B = (c_{ij})$$

then $c_{11} = d$. But d is a proper factor of α , C is a matrix that is equivalent to B and B is equivalent to A. Therefore, this is a contradiction to the choice of α .

Case 2: Suppose α divides column one of B, but there is some b_{1j} that is not a multiple of α . Transposing all of the row and column arguments of Case 1 shows B is equivalent to a matrix $C = (c_{ij})$ and $\nu(c_{11}) < \nu(\alpha)$, a contradiction.

Case 3: Suppose α divides every entry in column one and row one of B. Factoring α from each entry in column one, we write $a_{i1} = \alpha b_i$ for $2 \le i \le n$. Likewise, factoring row one, we have $a_{1j} = \alpha c_j$ for $2 \le j \le m$. Eliminate all nonzero entries below the diagonal in column one and to the right of the diagonal in row one by the matrix product:

$$C = \Delta_{21}(-b_2) \cdots \Delta_{n1}(-b_n) B \Delta_{12}(-c_2) \cdots \Delta_{1m}(-c_m).$$

Then C is the matrix direct sum $(\alpha) \oplus C_1$ where C_1 is an (n-1)-by-(m-1) matrix over R. Moreover, since α does not divide B we know α does not divide C_1 . There is some c_{ij} in C such that $1 < i \le n$, $1 < j \le m$ and α does not divide c_{ij} . Then $C\Delta_{j1}(1)$ is equivalent to C and has an entry in column one that is not a multiple of α . By Case 1 applied to $C\Delta_{j1}(1)$, we get a contradiction.

Theorem 4.6.25. (Smith Normal Form) Let R be a principal ideal domain and $A=(a_{ij})$ a nonzero matrix in $M_{nm}(R)$. Then A is equivalent to a matrix of the form $\operatorname{diag}(d_1,d_2,\ldots,d_r)\oplus 0$ where d_1,\ldots,d_r are nonzero elements of R and $d_1\mid d_2\mid \cdots \mid d_r$. The matrix $\operatorname{diag}(d_1,d_2,\ldots,d_r)\oplus 0$ is called the Smith normal form of A.

PROOF. Inductively assume m > 1, n > 1, and that the result holds for any matrix over R of size (n-1)-by-(m-1). Because the statement of the theorem depends only on the equivalence class of A, throughout the proof we will repetitively replace A with a matrix that is equivalent to A. For instance, by Lemma 4.6.24, we can assume entry a_{11} in A divides all other entries in A. Use the method of Case 3 in the proof of Lemma 4.6.24 to eliminate all nonzero entries below the diagonal in column one and to the right of the diagonal in row one. Call the new matrix B. Then B is the matrix direct sum $(a_{11}) \oplus B_1$ where B_1 is an (n-1)-by-(m-1)matrix over R. If m = 1 or n = 1 or B_1 is a zero matrix, then we are done and B is the Smith normal form of A. This proves the basis step for an induction proof. Otherwise, B_1 is a nonzero matrix and a_{11} divides every entry in B_1 . By the induction hypothesis applied to B_1 , there exist invertible matrices Q_l of rank n-1 and Q_r of rank m-1 such that $Q_lB_1Q_r=\mathrm{diag}\left(d_2,\ldots,d_r\right)\oplus 0$ is in Smith normal form. Moreover, a_{11} divides the diagonal entries d_2, \ldots, d_r since a_{11} divides all entries of B_1 . Set $P_l = (1) \oplus Q_l$ and $P_r = (1) \oplus Q_r$. Then $P_l B P_r$ is in Smith normal form with $d_1 = a_{11}$ in the upper left position.

COROLLARY 4.6.26. Let R be a principal ideal domain, F a free R-module of rank n, and S a submodule of F. Then there exist a basis $\{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}$ of F and nonzero elements d_1, \ldots, d_r in R satisfying the following.

- (1) (Simultaneous Bases Theorem) $\{d_1y_1, d_2y_2, \dots, d_ry_r\}$ is a free basis for S.
- (2) $d_1 \mid d_2 \mid \cdots \mid d_r$.
- (3) The elements in the list d_1, \ldots, d_r that are not units are precisely the invariant factors of the quotient module F/S.
- (4) The elements d_1, \ldots, d_r are uniquely determined up to associates by S and F.

PROOF. (1) and (2): By Theorem 4.3.2, S is finitely generated free R-module. Let $\{s_1,\ldots,s_m\}$ be a generating set for S and $\{u_1,\ldots,u_n\}$ a basis for F. For $1\leq j\leq m$ write $s_j=\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij}u_i$ and set $A=(a_{ij})$ the associated matrix in $M_{nm}(R)$. Let $\phi_A:R^m\to F$ be the homomorphism defined by left multiplication by A. The image of ϕ_A is the column space of A, which is equal to the submodule S. By Theorem 4.6.25, there exist bases $X=\{x_1,\ldots,x_m\}$ for R^m and $Y=\{y_1,\ldots,y_n\}$ for F such that the matrix $M(\phi_A,X,Y)$ is in Smith normal form $\mathrm{diag}(d_1,\ldots,d_r)\oplus 0$. This means $\{d_1y_1,\ldots,d_ry_r\}$ is a basis for S.

(3) and (4): By (1),

$$F/S \cong \frac{Ry_1}{Rd_1y_1} \oplus \frac{Ry_2}{Rd_2y_2} \oplus \cdots \oplus \frac{Ry_r}{Rd_ry_r} \oplus Ry_{r+1} \oplus \cdots \oplus Ry_n.$$

The R-module $\frac{Ry_i}{Rd_iy_i}$ is nonzero if and only if d_i is not a unit. If d_q, \ldots, d_r are the nonunits, then the torsion submodule of F/S is isomorphic to $R/Rd_q \oplus \cdots \oplus RRd_r$. By Theorem 4.3.15, the elements d_q, \ldots, d_r are the invariant factors of F/S. The numbers q and r are uniquely determined by F/S. Up to associates the elements d_1, \ldots, d_r are uniquely determined by F/S.

COROLLARY 4.6.27. Let R be a principal ideal domain and A a nonzero matrix in $M_{nm}(R)$. If $D = \operatorname{diag}(d_1, \ldots, d_r) \oplus 0$ and $E = \operatorname{diag}(e_1, \ldots, e_s) \oplus 0$ are two matrices in Smith normal form such that A is equivalent to both D and E, then r = s and for each i the elements d_i and e_i are associates.

PROOF. This follows from Corollary 4.6.26 and Lemma 4.6.20.

6.5. Reduced Row Echelon Form. In this section we show that any matrix over a field has a unique reduced row echelon form. This canonical form exists whether the matrix is square or not. Using gaussian elimination and elementary row operations, an algorithm which is not included in this book, the reduced row echelon form can be efficiently computed.

DEFINITION 4.6.28. Let k be a field and $R \in M_{mn}(k)$ an m-by-n matrix. We say R is in reduced row echelon form, if the following conditions are satisfied:

- (1) Any row that consists only of zeros is below any nonzero row.
- (2) The left-most nonzero entry of a row is equal to 1. We call this 1 a *leading* 1.
- (3) The leading ones form a staggered, or echelon pattern from left to right and top to bottom. That is, if i < j and rows i and j are nonzero, then the leading 1 in row i is to the left of the leading 1 in row j.
- (4) Above and below any leading 1 are zeros.

LEMMA 4.6.29. Let k be a field and $R \in M_{mn}(k)$ an m-by-n matrix in reduced row echelon form.

- (1) The rank of R is equal to the number of nonzero rows.
- (2) The rank of R is equal to the number of leading ones.
- (3) The nullity of R is equal to the number of columns that do not contain a leading 1.
- (4) Let R_1, \ldots, R_n be the columns of R. If R_j does not contain a leading 1, then R_j is a unique linear combination of the columns in the set $\{R_1, \ldots, R_{j-1}\}$ that contain a leading one. In other words, there is a

unique vector in the kernel of R of the form $(x_1, \ldots, x_{j-1}, 1, 0, \ldots, 0)$ such that for $1 \le i < j$, $x_i = 0$ if R_i does not contain a leading 1.

PROOF. The proof is left to the reader.

Proposition 4.6.30. Let k be a field and $A \in M_{mn}(k)$.

- (1) There is an invertible matrix Q in $M_m(k)$ such that QA is in reduced row echelon form.
- (2) The reduced row echelon form of A is unique in the sense that if Q_1 is another invertible matrix in $M_m(k)$ and Q_1A is in reduced row echelon form, then $QA = Q_1A$.

PROOF. (1): Let $X = \{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n\}$ be the columns of A. The column space of A is equal to the span of X in $k^{(m)}$. By Theorem 4.2.34(2) there exists a subset of X that is a basis for the column space of A. Let $U \subseteq X$ be a basis for the column space of A such that U is minimal with respect to the ordering on 2^X defined in Exercise 1.2.24. Then $U \subseteq X$ has the property that if $A_i \in X - U$, then A_j is a linear combination of $\{A_i \in U \mid i < j\}$. By Theorem 4.2.34(1), we can extend U to a basis for $k^{(m)}$. Call the resulting basis B. Let Q be the change of basis matrix. Then Q is an invertible matrix in $M_m(k)$. Let QA = R. We show that R is a matrix in reduced row echelon form. Let Rank(A) = r and $M_U = (u_1, \ldots, u_r)$ the m-by-r matrix with columns the r vectors in U. Then QM_U is the m-by-r matrix equal to the first r columns of the identity matrix I_m in $M_m(k)$. Therefore, the columns of A in U correspond to the standard basis vectors e_1, \ldots, e_r in R. The column space of R is spanned by e_1, \ldots, e_r , hence rows $r+1, \ldots, m$ of R are zeros. As mentioned above, if $A_i \in X - U$, then A_i is a linear combination of those columns of A that are in U and to the left of A_i . This says that every nonzero row of R has a leading one.

(2): Since Q is invertible, the kernel of ℓ_{QA} is equal to the kernel of ℓ_A . Suppose $Q_1A=R_1$ and $Q_2A=R_2$ are two reduced row echelon forms for A. For sake of contradiction, suppose there is a difference in the columns containing leading ones. Say there is a leading 1 in column i of R_1 but not in column i of R_2 . Then this contradicts Lemma 4.6.29 (4) because a column containing a leading 1 is not linearly dependent on the columns to its left. The uniqueness of those columns that do not contain leading ones follows from Lemma 4.6.29 (4) and the fact that the kernels of ℓ_{R_1} and ℓ_{R_2} are equal.

PROPOSITION 4.6.31. Let k be a field, A a matrix in $M_{mn}(k)$, and Q an invertible matrix in $M_m(k)$ such that QA is in reduced row echelon form.

- (1) The columns of QA containing leading ones correspond to a set of columns of A that make up a basis for the column space of A.
- (2) If A has rank r, then the n-r vectors described in Lemma 4.6.29 (4) make up a basis for the kernel of A.

PROOF. The proof is left to the reader.

EXAMPLE 4.6.32. Consider the matrix
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
 over a field k , where we assume char $k \neq 3$. Notice that $Q = \begin{bmatrix} -1/3 & 2/3 & 0 \\ 2/3 & -1/3 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is invertible and the inverse is $Q^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Multiplying, $QA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is invertible reduced row echelon form. The rank of A is 2, the nullity of A is 2. The first two

and the inverse is
$$Q^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
. Multiplying, $QA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is in

reduced row echelon form. The rank of A is 2, the nullity of A is 2. The first two columns of A make up a basis for the column space of A. From Lemma 4.6.29 (4), we obtain a basis for the kernel of A by writing columns 3 and 4 of QA as linear combinations of columns 1 and 2:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

A basis for the kernel of A is $(-1, 1, 1, 0)^t$, $(-2, 1, 0, 1)^t$.

6.5.1. A System of Linear Equations. Let k be a field. Consider a system of m linear equations in n variables over k:

(6.3)
$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m$$

Then the matrix of coefficients $A = (a_{ij})$ is in $M_{mn}(k)$ and the vector b = $(b_1,\ldots,b_m)^t$ on the right-hand side is in $k^{(m)}$. If $x=(x_1,\ldots,x_n)^t$, then (6.3) can be expressed in matrix form: Ax = b. With respect to the standard bases on $k^{(n)}$ and $k^{(m)}$, left multiplication by A defines a linear transformation $T = \ell_A$ in $\operatorname{Hom}_k(k^{(n)},k^{(m)})$. The image of T is the column space of A. The rank of A is the dimension of the column space of T. The nullity of A is the dimension of the kernel of T.

Proposition 4.6.33. In the above context,

- (1) If b is in the image of T, then the system of linear equations (6.3) has a solution. Let $c = (c_1, \ldots, c_n)^t$ be a particular solution. Then the general solution to (6.3) is x = c + z, where $z = (z_1, \ldots, z_n)^t$ represents a typical element in the kernel of T. The nullity of T is equal to the number of degrees of freedom in the solution. The solution x is unique if and only if the nullity of T is zero. If the nullity of T is positive, then we say the system of equations is underdetermined.
- (2) If b is not in the image of T, then there is no solution to (6.3). In this case, we say the system of equations is overdetermined.

Proof. The proof is left to the reader.

EXAMPLE 4.6.34. This is a continuation of Example 4.6.32. Consider the system of 3 linear equations in 4 variables:

$$x_1 + 2x_2 - x_3 = 2$$

$$2x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + 3x_4 = 7$$

$$x_1 - x_2 + 2x_3 + 3x_4 = 5$$

Then the matrix of coefficients is $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and the right-hand side

vector is $b = (2,7,5)^t$. From Example 4.6.32, the reduced row echelon form of A is obtained by multiplying by $Q = \begin{bmatrix} -1/3 & 2/3 & 0 \\ 2/3 & -1/3 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Let $x = (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)^t$.

A basis for the kernel of A is $(-1, 1, 1, 0)^t$, $(-2, 1, 0, 1)^{t}$. Multiply both sides of the matrix equation Ax = b by Q:

$$QAx = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then the general solution is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + a \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + b \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where a and b represent arbitrary elements of k.

7. The Determinant

7.1. Alternating Multilinear Forms. Throughout this section, R is a commutative ring. Let $J = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $J^n = J \times \cdots \times J$ (n times). We view the symmetric group S_n as the subset of J^n consisting of n-tuples $\vec{j} = (j_1, \ldots, j_n)$ that are permutations of J. The sign of a permutation $\sigma \in S_n$ is denoted sign(σ).

DEFINITION 4.7.1. Let R be a commutative ring, $n \ge 1$, and $(R^n)^n = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n R^n$. Consider a function $f:(R^n)^n \to R$. We say that f is a multilinear form if for each i,

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, \alpha u + \beta v, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) = \alpha f(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, u, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) + \beta f(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, v, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n).$$

We say that f is an alternating form if $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = 0$ whenever $x_i = x_j$ for some pair $i \neq j$.

LEMMA 4.7.2. If $f:(R^n)^n \to R$ is an alternating multilinear form and $\sigma \in S_n$ is a permutation on the set $\{1,\ldots,n\}$, then

$$f(x_{\sigma 1}, \dots, x_{\sigma n}) = \operatorname{sign}(\sigma) f(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

We say that f is skew symmetric.

PROOF. Because σ factors into a product of transpositions, it is enough to show that acting on the variables by a transposition changes the sign of f. For simplicity's sake, assume $\sigma = (i, j) = (1, 2)$. Look at

$$0 = f(x_1 + x_2, x_1 + x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n)$$

$$= f(x_1, x_1, x_3, \dots, x_n) + f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) +$$

$$f(x_2, x_1, x_3, \dots, x_n) + f(x_2, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n)$$

$$= f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) + f(x_2, x_1, x_3, \dots, x_n).$$

This shows $f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) = -f(x_2, x_1, x_3, \dots, x_n)$.

LEMMA 4.7.3. If R is a commutative ring and $r \in R$, there is a unique alternating multilinear form $f:(R^n)^n \to R$ such that $f(e_1,\ldots,e_n)=r$, where (e_1,\ldots,e_n) is the standard basis for R^n .

PROOF. (Uniqueness) Given $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in (\mathbb{R}^n)^n$, for each i we can write $x_i = a_{1i}e_1 + \cdots + a_{ni}e_n$. Since f is multilinear,

$$f(x_{1},...,x_{n}) = f\left(\sum_{j \in J} a_{j1}e_{j},...,\sum_{j \in J} a_{jn}e_{j}\right)$$

$$= \sum_{j_{1} \in J} \left(a_{j_{1}1}f\left(e_{j_{1}},\sum_{j \in J} a_{j2}e_{j},...,\sum_{j \in J} a_{jn}e_{j}\right)\right)$$

$$= \sum_{j_{1} \in J} \sum_{j_{2} \in J} \left(a_{j_{1}1}a_{j_{2}2}f\left(e_{j_{1}},e_{j_{2}},...,\sum_{j \in J} a_{jn}e_{j}\right)\right)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$= \sum_{(j_{1},...,j_{n}) \in J^{n}} a_{j_{1}1} \cdot \cdot \cdot a_{j_{n}n}f\left(e_{j_{1}},...,e_{j_{n}}\right).$$

Since f is alternating, if $\vec{j} = (j_1, \ldots, j_n) \in J^n$ is not a permutation, then $f(e_{j_1}, \ldots, e_{j_n}) = 0$. We can restrict the latest summation to $\vec{j} \in S_n$. In this case, since f is skew symmetric, $f(e_{j_1}, \ldots, e_{j_n}) = \text{sign}(j) f(e_1, \ldots, e_n) = \text{sign}(j) r$. This proves that

(7.1)
$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = r \sum_{\vec{j} \in S_n} \operatorname{sign}(\vec{j}) a_{j_1 1} \cdots a_{j_n n}$$

is completely determined by r and (x_1, \ldots, x_n) .

(Existence) The formula in (7.1) defines a function $f:(\mathbb{R}^n)^n\to\mathbb{R}$. Notice that

$$f(e_1,\ldots,e_n)=r$$

since only for $\vec{j} = (1, 2, ..., n)$ is the product formula in the summation (7.1) nonzero. We need to prove f is an alternating multilinear form. Let $\alpha, \beta \in R$, $u, v \in R^n$. Write $u = \sum u_i e_i$ and $v = \sum v_i e_i$. Set $a_{ik} = \alpha u_i + \beta v_i$, so that

$$x_k = \sum a_{ik}e_i = \sum (\alpha u_i + \beta v_i)e_i = \alpha u + \beta v. \text{ Then}$$

$$f(x_1, \dots, \alpha u + \beta v, \dots, x_n) = r \sum_{\vec{j} \in S_n} \operatorname{sign}(j)a_{j_11} \cdots a_{j_kk} \cdots a_{j_nn}$$

$$= r \sum_{\vec{j} \in S_n} \operatorname{sign}(j)a_{j_11} \cdots (\alpha u_{j_k} + \beta v_{j_k}) \cdots a_{j_nn}$$

$$= r \alpha \sum_{\vec{j} \in S_n} \operatorname{sign}(j)a_{j_11} \cdots u_{j_k} \cdots a_{j_nn} +$$

$$r \beta \sum_{\vec{j} \in S_n} \operatorname{sign}(j)a_{j_11} \cdots v_{j_k} \cdots a_{j_nn}$$

$$= \alpha f(x_1, \dots, u, \dots, x_n) + \beta f(x_1, \dots, v, \dots, x_n)$$

shows f is multilinear.

Now we show f is alternating. Suppose i < j and let τ be the transposition that switches i and j. The alternating group A_n has index 2 in S_n , so every odd permutation is of the form $\sigma\tau$ for some $\sigma \in A_n$. Assume $x_i = x_j$ and show $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = 0$. For all k we have $a_{ki} = a_{kj}$. Also, if $\sigma \in A_n$ then $\sigma\tau(i) = \sigma(j)$ and $\sigma\tau(j) = \sigma(i)$.

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = r \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \operatorname{sign}(\sigma) a_{\sigma(1)1} \cdots a_{\sigma(n)n}$$

$$= r \sum_{\sigma \in A_n} \left(a_{\sigma(1)1} \cdots a_{\sigma(n)n} - a_{\sigma\tau(1)1} \cdots a_{\sigma\tau(n)n} \right)$$

$$= r \sum_{\sigma \in A_n} \left(a_{\sigma(1)1} \cdots a_{\sigma(n)n} - a_{\sigma\tau(1)1} \cdots a_{\sigma\tau(i)i} \cdots a_{\sigma\tau(j)j} \cdots a_{\sigma\tau(n)n} \right)$$

$$= r \sum_{\sigma \in A_n} \left(a_{\sigma(1)1} \cdots a_{\sigma(n)n} - a_{\sigma(1)1} \cdots a_{\sigma(j)i} \cdots a_{\sigma(i)j} \cdots a_{\sigma(n)n} \right)$$

$$= r \sum_{\sigma \in A_n} \left(a_{\sigma(1)1} \cdots a_{\sigma(n)n} - a_{\sigma(1)1} \cdots a_{\sigma(j)j} \cdots a_{\sigma(i)i} \cdots a_{\sigma(n)n} \right)$$

$$= 0.$$

DEFINITION 4.7.4. By viewing the columns of a matrix in $M_n(R)$ as vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , we identify $M_n(R)$ with $(\mathbb{R}^n)^n$. The determinant is the unique alternating multilinear form det: $M_n(R) \to R$ such that $\det(I_n) = 1$. By Lemma 4.7.3,

$$\det(a_{ij}) = \sum_{\vec{j} \in S} \operatorname{sign}(j) a_{j_1,1} \cdots a_{j_n,n}.$$

LEMMA 4.7.5. Let $A, B \in M_n(R)$.

- (1) $\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B)$.
- (2) A is invertible if and only if det(A) is a unit in R.
- (3) If A and B are similar, then det(A) = det(B).
- (4) $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$.
- (5) The determinant is an alternating multilinear form on the rows of matrices in $M_n(R)$.

PROOF. (1): Fix A. Taking $r = \det(A)$ in (7.1) defines an alternating multilinear form $g: M_n(R) \to R$, where $g(C) = \det(A) \det(C)$. Define another function $f: M_n(R) \to R$ by $f(C) = \det(AC)$. Since $f(I_n) = \det(A)$, by Lemma 4.7.3, it is enough to prove that f is alternating and multilinear. Assume $u,v\in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $C=(x_1,\ldots,x_n)\in M_n(R)$. Then

$$f(c_1, \dots, \alpha u + \beta v, \dots, c_n) = \det (A(c_1, \dots, \alpha u + \beta v, \dots, c_n))$$

$$= \det (Ac_1, \dots, \alpha Au + \beta Av, \dots, Ac_n)$$

$$= \alpha \det (Ac_1, \dots, Au, \dots, Ac_n) + \beta \det (Ac_1, \dots, Av, \dots, Ac_n)$$

$$= \alpha f(c_1, \dots, u, \dots, c_n) + \beta f(c_1, \dots, v, \dots, c_n)$$

If two columns of C are equal, then two columns of AC are equal, so f is alternating.

- (2): If $AB = I_n$, then $\det(A) \det(B) = 1$. The converse follows from Lemma 4.7.9 because in this case $A^{-1} = \det(A)^{-1}A^a$.
 - (3): If $A = X^{-1}BX$, then

$$det(A) = det(X^{-1}) det(B) det(X)$$
$$= det(B) det(X^{-1}) det(X)$$
$$= det(B) det(X^{-1}X)$$
$$= det(B).$$

(4): Since R is commutative, for every $\sigma \in S_n$ we have

$$a_{\sigma(1),1}\cdots a_{\sigma(n),n} = a_{1,\sigma^{-1}(1)}\cdots a_{n,\sigma^{-1}(n)}.$$

This together with the fact that $sign(\sigma) = sign(\sigma^{-1})$ lead to

$$\det(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \operatorname{sign}(\sigma) a_{\sigma(1),1} \cdots a_{\sigma(n),n}$$

$$= \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \operatorname{sign}(\sigma) a_{1,\sigma^{-1}(1)} \cdots a_{n,\sigma^{-1}(n)}$$

$$= \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \operatorname{sign}(\sigma) a_{1,\sigma(1)} \cdots a_{n,\sigma(n)}$$

$$= \det(A^T).$$

(5): Follows from (4).

DEFINITION 4.7.6. For $A \in M_n(R)$, let A_{ij} be the matrix in $M_{n-1}(R)$ obtained by deleting row i and column j from A. Then $det(A_{ij})$ is called the minor of A in position (i, j) and $(-1)^{i+j} \det(A_{ij})$ is called the *cofactor* of A in position (i, j).

LEMMA 4.7.7. If A is a matrix in $M_n(R)$, then the following are true.

- (1) For each row i, $\det(A) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} (-1)^{i+j} \det(A_{ij})$, and (2) For each column j, $\det(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} (-1)^{i+j} \det(A_{ij})$.

PROOF. We prove that the determinant can be computed by cofactor expansion of row i. The statement about column expansion follows from Lemma 4.7.5(4). Define a function $f: M_n(R) \to R$ by the formula $f(A) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} (-1)^{i+j} \det(A_{ij})$. The reader should verify that $f(I_n) = 1$. By Lemma 4.7.3 it is enough to show that f is alternating and multilinear.

Assume the columns of A are (A_1, \ldots, A_n) and assume $A_k = A_\ell$ and $k < \ell$. Therefore $a_{ik} = a_{i\ell}$. If $j \neq k$ and $j \neq \ell$, then A_{ij} has two columns that are equal, so $\det(A_{ij}) = 0$. The formula for f reduces to

$$f(A) = a_{ik}(-1)^{i+k} \det(A_{ik}) + a_{i\ell}(-1)^{i+\ell} \det(A_{i\ell})$$

= $a_{ik}(-1)^{i+k} \det(A_{ik}) + a_{ik}(-1)^{i+\ell} \det(A_{i\ell})$
= $a_{ik} \left((-1)^{i+k} \det(A_{ik}) + (-1)^{i+\ell} \det(A_{i\ell}) \right)$.

But A_{ik} is obtained from $A_{i\ell}$ by permuting the columns. In fact, $\ell - k - 1$ transpositions are sufficient. Since the determinant form is skew symmetric, $\det(A_{ik}) = (-1)^{\ell-k-1} \det(A_{i\ell})$. The reader should verify that $(-1)^{i+k} + (-1)^{i+\ell} (-1)^{\ell-k-1} = 0$, hence

$$f(A) = a_{ik} \left((-1)^{i+k} \det(A_{ik}) + (-1)^{i+\ell} \det(A_{i\ell}) \right)$$

$$= a_{ik} \left((-1)^{i+k} \det(A_{ik}) + (-1)^{i+\ell} (-1)^{\ell-k-1} \det(A_{ik}) \right)$$

$$= a_{ik} \det(A_{ik}) \left((-1)^{i+k} + (-1)^{i+\ell} (-1)^{\ell-k-1} \right)$$

$$= 0$$

which proves f is alternating.

Assume the columns of A are (A_1, \ldots, A_n) where $A_k = \alpha u + \beta v$ for some $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $B = (b_{ij})$ be the matrix obtained by replacing column k of A with the vector u. Let $C = (c_{ij})$ be the matrix obtained by replacing column k of A with the vector v. We show that $f(A) = \alpha f(B) + \beta f(C)$. Because they differ only in column k, we have $A_{ik} = B_{ik} = C_{ik}$. If $j \neq k$, then the determinant is multilinear, so $\det(A_{ij}) = \alpha \det(B_{ij}) + \beta \det(C_{ij})$. Therefore

$$f(A) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} (-1)^{i+j} \det(A_{ij})$$

$$= \sum_{j\neq k} a_{ij} (-1)^{i+j} (\alpha \det(B_{ij}) + \beta \det(C_{ij})) + (\alpha b_{ik} + \beta c_{ik}) (-1)^{i+k} \det(A_{ik})$$

$$= \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{ij} (-1)^{i+j} \det(B_{ij}) + \beta \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{ij} (-1)^{i+j} \det(C_{ij})$$

$$= \alpha f(B) + \beta f(C)$$

DEFINITION 4.7.8. Let $A \in M_n(R)$. The adjoint of A, denoted A^a , is the transpose of the matrix of cofactors of A. Therefore, $A^a = ((-1)^{i+j} \det(A_{ji}))$.

LEMMA 4.7.9.
$$A^{a}A = AA^{a} = \det(A)I_{n}$$
.

PROOF. Assume $i \neq j$. Let B be the matrix which is equal to A with column i replaced with a copy of column j. Compute $\det(B) = 0$ by column expansion down column i. Use the facts that $B_{ki} = A_{ki}$ and $b_{ki} = b_{kj} = a_{kj}$ for each k.

$$0 = \sum_{k=1}^{n} b_{ki} (-1)^{i+k} \det(B_{ki})$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{kj} (-1)^{i+k} \det(A_{ki})$$

Let $A^a A = (c_{ij})$. Then

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+k} \det(A_{ki}) a_{kj} = \begin{cases} \det(A) & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

The determinant is constant on similarity classes, by Lemma 4.7.5. If M is a finitely generated free R-module and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$, then the determinant of ϕ is defined to be the determinant of the matrix of ϕ with respect to any basis of M. If A is an R-algebra which is free of finite rank and $\alpha \in A$, then we have the left regular representation $\theta : A \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,A)$ of A as a ring of R-module homomorphisms of A (see Example 4.4.3). Under θ , the element $\alpha \in A$ is mapped to ℓ_{α} , which is "left multiplication by α ". The determinant of α is defined to be the determinant of ℓ_{α} .

7.2. The Characteristic Polynomial.

EXAMPLE 4.7.10. Let R be a commutative ring. If $n \ge 1$ and $M_n(R)$ is the ring of n-by-n matrices over R, then we can identify the ring of polynomials over $M_n(R)$ with the ring of matrices over R[x]. That is,

$$M_n(R)[x] = M_n(R[x]).$$

In fact, given a polynomial $f = \sum_{i=0}^m A_i x^i$ in the left-hand side, we can view $x^i = x^i I_n$ as a matrix, and $f = \sum_{i=0}^m A_i (x^i I_n)$ is an element of the right-hand side. Conversely, if $M = (f_{ij})$ is in the right-hand side, then we can write each polynomial f_{ij} in the form $f_{ij} = \sum_{k \geq 0} a_{ijk} x^k$ where it is understood that only a finite number of the coefficients are nonzero. For a fixed $k \geq 0$, let M_k be the matrix (a_{ijk}) . Then M is equal to the polynomial $M = \sum_{k \geq 0} M_k x^k$ in the left-hand side.

DEFINITION 4.7.11. Let R be a commutative ring and $M \in M_n(R)$. If x is an indeterminate, then we can view M as a matrix in $M_n(R[x])$. The characteristic polynomial of M is char. $\operatorname{poly}_R(M) = \det(xI_n - M)$, which is a polynomial in R[x]. Computing the determinant using row expansion (Lemma 4.7.7) along row one, it is easy to see that char. $\operatorname{poly}_R(M)$ is monic and has degree n. The characteristic polynomial is constant on similarity classes, by Exercise 4.7.22. If P is a finitely generated free R-module and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(P,P)$, then the characteristic polynomial of ϕ is defined to be the characteristic polynomial of the matrix of ϕ with respect to any basis of P. If A is an R-algebra which is free of finite rank and $\alpha \in A$, then we have the left regular representation $\theta : A \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,A)$ of A as a ring of R-module homomorphisms of A (see Example 4.4.3). Under θ , the element $\alpha \in A$ is mapped to ℓ_{α} , which is "left multiplication by α ". The characteristic polynomial of α is defined to be the characteristic polynomial of ℓ_{α} .

Theorem 4.7.12. (Cayley-Hamilton Theorem) Let R be a commutative ring, M an n-by-n matrix over R, and $p(x) = \operatorname{char.poly}_R(M)$ the characteristic polynomial of M. Then p(M) = 0.

PROOF. In the polynomial ring $M_n(R)[x]$, apply Corollary 3.6.5 to p(x) and M. There is a unique $q(x) \in M_n(R)[x]$ such that p(x) = q(x)(x-M) + p(M). Lemma 4.7.9 implies that $p(x)I_n = \det(xI_n - M)I_n = (xI_n - M)^a(xI_n - M)$ is a factorization of p(x) in $M_n(R[x])$. As in Example 4.7.10, we identify the

R[x]-algebras $M_n(R)[x]$ and $M_n(R[x])$. By the uniqueness part of The Division Algorithm 3.6.4, we conclude that p(M) = 0 and $q(x) = (xI_n - M)^a$.

Theorem 4.7.13. Let k be a field and V a finite dimensional vector space over k. Let $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$. As in Theorem 4.6.1, let q_1,q_2,\ldots,q_r be the invariant factors of ϕ .

- (1) char. poly_k $(\phi) = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_r$.
- (2) (Cayley-Hamilton) If $p(x) = \text{char.poly}_k(\phi)$, then $p(\phi) = 0$. In other words, min. poly_k(ϕ) | char. poly_k(ϕ).
- (3) If $f \in k[x]$ is irreducible, then $f \mid \text{char.poly}_k(\phi)$ if and only if $f \mid$ min. $\operatorname{poly}_k(\phi)$. The roots of min. $\operatorname{poly}_k(\phi)$ are precisely the roots of char. $\operatorname{poly}_k(\phi)$.

PROOF. (1): By Corollary 4.6.2 there is a basis for V such that the matrix of ϕ is the block diagonal matrix $(C(q_1), C(q_2), \ldots, C(q_r))$, where $C(q_i)$ is the companion matrix for q_i . By Exercise 4.7.21, the characteristic polynomial of $C(q_i)$ is q_i . Apply Exercise 4.7.23 iteratively to show that char. poly_k $(\phi) = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_r$.

- (2): By Theorem 4.6.1, min. poly_k(ϕ) = q_r .
- (3): By Theorem 4.6.1, $q_1 \mid q_2 \mid \cdots \mid q_r$. The irreducible factors of char. poly_k (ϕ) are equal to the irreducible factors of min. $\operatorname{poly}_k(\phi)$.

DEFINITION 4.7.14. Let k be a field, V a finite dimensional vector space over k and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(V,V)$. We call $\lambda \in k$ an eigenvalue of ϕ if there exists a nonzero $v \in V$ satisfying $\phi(v) = \lambda v$. In this case we say v is an eigenvector corresponding to λ . The set $U(\lambda) = \{x \in V \mid \phi(x) = \lambda x\}$ is called the eigenspace of λ . The reader should verify that $U(\lambda)$ is a ϕ -invariant subspace of V.

THEOREM 4.7.15. Let k be a field, V a finite dimensional vector space over k and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(V, V)$.

- (1) The eigenvalues of ϕ are precisely the roots of the minimal polynomial of
- (2) The following are equivalent.
 - (a) There is a basis B for V such that $M(\phi, B)$ is diagonal.
 - (b) There is a basis of V consisting of eigenvectors of ϕ .
 - (c) The minimal polynomial min. $poly_k(\phi)$ factors into a product of linear factors in k[x] and has no multiple roots.

PROOF. (1): Let $\lambda \in k$. Then λ is an eigenvalue of ϕ if and only if there exists a nonzero $v \in V$ such that $(\phi - \lambda I)(v) = 0$, which is true if and only if $\phi - \lambda I$ is not invertible, which is true if and only if $\det(\phi - \lambda I) = 0$, which is true if and only if λ is a root of char. poly $_{k}(\phi)$.

- (2): (a) is clearly equivalent to (b).
- (a) is equivalent to (c): This follows from Corollary 4.6.4. The Jordan blocks are one-by-one if and only if the exponents e_{ij} are equal to 1, if and only if the matrix is diagonal.

EXAMPLE 4.7.16. Consider the matrix $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ over the field \mathbb{Q} . Then $B^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, and $B^3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. By Definition 4.7.11, the

characteristic polynomial of B is

$$\operatorname{char.poly}(B) = \det(x - B)$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} x - 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & x + 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & x - 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (x - 1)(x + 1)(x - 1) + 1 + (x - 1) + (x - 1)$$

$$= x(x^2 - x + 1).$$

The roots of the characteristic polynomial are 0, $\alpha = (1 - \sqrt{3}i)/2$ and $\beta = (1 + \sqrt{3}i)/2$ $\sqrt{3}i$)/2. By Theorem 4.7.15, $0, \alpha, \beta$ are also roots of the minimal polynomial of B. This proves that min. poly(B) = $x(x^2 - x + 1)$. The rational canonical form of B over \mathbb{Q} is therefore equal to the companion matrix of $x(x^2-x+1)$, which

is
$$C(x^3 - x^2 + x) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
. Let $V = \mathbb{Q}^{(3)}$ and $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Q}}(V, V)$ the linear

transformation corresponding to left multiplication by B. Since min. poly(ψ) has degree 3, we know V is a cyclic $\mathbb{Q}[\psi]$ -module. Let $u_1 = (1,0,0)^t$, $u_2 = Bu_1 =$

that
$$M(\psi, U, U) = C(x^3 - x^2 + x)$$
. Set $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then we see that

$$P = P^{-1}$$
 and $PBP = C(x^3 - x^2 + x)$.

The Jordan canonical form of ψ exists over $F = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$, the splitting field of x^2 – x+1. Since B has 3 distinct eigenvalues, the Jordan form of ψ is the diagonal matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \beta \end{bmatrix}.$$
 By Theorem 4.7.15, a Jordan basis for B is a basis of eigenvectors.

Using elementary row operations and gaussian elimination, the reduced row echelon form of
$$B$$
 is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Therefore, $v_1 = (0, 1, -1)^t$ is an eigenvector for 0. Using

the identity $\alpha^2 - \alpha + 1 = 0$, we find the reduced row echelon form of $B - \alpha$ is 0 1 $1-\alpha$. Therefore, $v_2=(1-\alpha,\alpha-1,1)^t$ is an eigenvector for α . Likewise,

 $\overline{v_3} = (1-\beta, \beta-1, 1)^t$ is an eigenvector for β . Then $V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$ is a Jordan basis for ψ . Let P be the matrix with columns v_1, v_2, v_3 . Using a symbolic calculator such as [61], for instance, one can show that $P^{-1}BP$ is equal to the matrix with diagonal $(0, \alpha, \beta)$.

EXAMPLE 4.7.17. Consider the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 4 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ over the field \mathbb{Q} .

Using determinants we compute the characteristic polynomial of A:

char. poly(A) = det(x - A)
=
$$\begin{vmatrix} x - 2 & -3 & -1 \\ 1 & x - 2 & -1 \\ -4 & 1 & x + 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

= $(x - 2)^2(x + 1) - 12 - 1 + (x - 2) + 3(x + 1) - 4(x - 2)$
= $x^2(x - 3)$.

The roots of the characteristic polynomial are 0 and 3. Since the rank of the matrix $A(A-3) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & -6 & -3 \\ -7 & 14 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$ is equal to 1, it follows from Theorem 4.7.13

that the minimal polynomial of A is equal to the characteristic polynomial. That is, min. poly $(A) = x^2(x-3)$. The rational canonical form of A over \mathbb{Q} is therefore

equal to the companion matrix of
$$x^3 - 3x^2$$
, which is $C(x^3 - 3x^2) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

Let $V = \mathbb{Q}^{(3)}$ and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Q}}(V, V)$ the linear transformation corresponding to left multiplication by A. Since min. poly (ϕ) has degree 3, we know V is a cyclic $\mathbb{Q}[\phi]$ -

multiplication by A. Since min. poly(
$$\phi$$
) has degree 3, we know V is a cyclic $\mathbb{Q}[\phi]$ -
module. Let $u_1 = (1,0,0)^t$, $u_2 = Au_1 = (2,-1,4)^t$, and $u_3 = Au_2 = (5,0,5)^t$.

Then $U = \{u_1, u_2, u_3\}$ is a basis for V such that $M(\phi, U, U) = C(x^3 - 3x^2)$.

Set $Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$. Then we see that $AQ = QC(x^3 - 3x^2)$. The Jordan

canonical form of ψ exists over \mathbb{Q} . By Theorem 4.6.3, the elementary divisors of ϕ

are
$$x^2, x-3$$
. The Jordan canonical form for ϕ is $J(\phi) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$. The cyclic

submodule of
$$V$$
 corresponding to the eigenvalue 0 has dimension 2. The matrix $A - 3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 4 & -1 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$ has rank 2 and $A^2(A - 3) = 0$. Set $w_1 = (1, 1, -4)^t$ and $w_2 = Aw_1 = (1, -3, 7)^t$. Then $A^2w_1 = 0$ and $Aw_2 = 0$. Set $w_3 = (1, 0, 1)^t$. Then

 $(A-3)w_3=0$, so w_3 is an eigenvector for 3. Let P be the matrix with columns w_1, w_2, w_3 . The reader should verify that P is invertible and $AP = PJ(\phi)$. So w_1, w_2, w_3 is a Jordan basis for ϕ .

Example 4.7.18. Let k be a field and $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. The characteristic polynomial of A is $(x-1)^2 - 1 = x^2 - 2x = x(x-2)$. If char $k \neq 2$, then A has two distinct eigenvalues, hence the Jordan form of A is diagonal: $J(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$. A Jordan basis for A is a basis of eigenvectors, $(1,-1)^t$, $(1,1)^t$. If char k=2, then 0 is the only eigenvalue of A. The Jordan form of A is therefore $J(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and a Jordan basis for A is $(1,0)^t$, $(1,1)^t$.

7.3. Block Matrices. The main result of this section is Theorem 4.7.19 which is a determinant formula for a matrix A in $M_{mn}(R)$, where A is viewed as a matrix in $M_m(M_n(R))$. Such a matrix is called a block matrix. The theorem and its proof are from [56]. We begin by fixing some notation and establishing the context of the theorem. Let R be a commutative ring and S a commutative R-subalgebra of $M_n(R)$. We view $M_{mn}(R)$ as the ring of m-by-m matrices over $M_n(R)$. Thus, a matrix M in $M_m(S)$ can be viewed as a matrix in $M_{mn}(R)$. We have the lattice of R-algebras

$$(7.2) \qquad M_{mn}(R) \longrightarrow M_{mn}(R)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$S \longrightarrow M_{n}(R)$$

where an arrow denotes subring. When M is viewed as a matrix in $M_m(S)$, the determinant is denoted $\det_S(M)$. By $\det_R(M)$ we denote the determinant when M is viewed as a matrix with entries in R. In the context of (7.2), there are three such determinant maps

(7.3)
$$M_{m}(S) \xrightarrow{\subseteq} M_{mn}(R)$$

$$\downarrow^{\det_{R}}$$

$$S \xrightarrow{\subseteq} M_{n}(R) \xrightarrow{\det_{R}} R$$

and the purpose of Theorem 4.7.19 below is to show that (7.3) is a commutative diagram.

THEOREM 4.7.19. In the above context, the following are true for any matrix A in $M_m(S)$.

- (1) $\det_R(A) = \det_R(\det_S(A))$. In other words, diagram (7.3) commutes.
- (2) char. $\operatorname{poly}_R(A) = \det_{R[x]} (\operatorname{char. poly}_S(A)).$

PROOF. Part (2) follows from (1). The proof of (1) is by induction on m. If m=1, then \det_S is the identity map and there is nothing to prove. Assume $m \geq 1$ and that the determinant formula of the theorem holds for every matrix in $M_m(S)$. Let $A=(a_{ij})$ be a matrix in $M_{m+1}(S)$. Partition A into four blocks

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1m} & a_{1,m+1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mm} & a_{m,m+1} \\ a_{m+1,1} & \dots & a_{m+1,m} & a_{m+1,m+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_0 & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$$

where A_0 is the *m*-by-*m* matrix obtained by deleting row m+1 and column m+1 from M, B is the *m*-by-1 column matrix $(a_{1,m+1},\ldots,a_{m,m+1})^t$, C is the 1-by-*m* row matrix $(a_{m+1,1},\ldots,a_{m+1,m})$, and D=(d) is the 1-by-1 matrix $(a_{m+1,m+1})$.

To prove the determinant formula for the matrix A, we use what can be viewed as a "homotopy trick". Let x be an indeterminate. As in Example 4.7.10, we view the ring $M_{mn}(R)$ as the subring of $M_{mn}(R[x])$ corresponding to the polynomials

in x of degree 0. Likewise $M_m(S)$ is a subring of $M_m(S[x])$. Let $\theta: R[x] \to R$ be the evaluation homomorphism defined by $x \mapsto 0$. By Exercise 4.7.33 the diagram

(7.4)
$$M_{n}(R[x]) \xrightarrow{\theta} M_{n}(R)$$

$$\det_{R[x]} \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow_{\det_{R}}$$

$$R[x] \xrightarrow{\theta} R$$

commutes. The counterpart of (7.4) with S instead of R also commutes. The strategy is to replace A with a matrix A_x in the ring $M_{m+1}(S[x])$ such that $\theta(A_x) = A$ and show that the equation

$$\det_{R[x]} (A_x) = \det_{R[x]} \left(\det_{S[x]} (A_x) \right)$$

holds in the ring R[x]. The equation

(7.6)
$$\det_{R}(A) = \det_{R}(\det_{S}(A))$$

then follows from (7.4) and (7.5).

Let A_x be the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} A_0 & B \\ C & (d+x) \end{bmatrix}$ obtained by adding x to the entry in position m+1, m+1 of A. Then A_x is in the ring $M_{m+1}(S[x])$ and $\theta(A_x) = A$. The equation

$$(7.7) \qquad \begin{bmatrix} A_0 & B \\ C & (d+x) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (d+x)I_m & 0 \\ -C & (1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (d+x)A_0 - BC & B \\ 0 & (d+x) \end{bmatrix}$$

holds in the ring $M_{m+1}(S[x])$. Taking determinants in (7.7), we use Lemma 4.7.5 and Lemma 4.7.7 to get the equation

(7.8)
$$\det_{S[x]}(A_x)(d+x)^m = \det_{S[x]}((d+x)A_0 - BC)(d+x)$$

in the ring S[x]. The equation (7.8) holds in the ring $M_n(R[x])$, and taking determinants we get the equation

(7.9)
$$\det_{R[x]} \left(\det_{S[x]} (A_x) \right) \det_{R[x]} (d+x)^m = \det_{R[x]} \left(\det_{S[x]} \left((d+x)A_0 - BC \right) \right) \det_{R[x]} (d+x)$$

in the ring R[x]. The equation (7.7) holds in the ring $M_{mn}(R[x])$, and taking determinants we get the equation

(7.10)
$$\det_{R[x]}(A_x) \det_{R[x]}(d+x)^m = \det_{R[x]}((d+x)A_0 - BC) \det_{R[x]}(d+x)$$
 in the ring $R[x]$. By induction on m , we have

$$\det_{R[x]} ((d+x)A_0 - BC) = \det_{R[x]} (\det_{S[x]} ((d+x)A_0 - BC))$$

which implies the right hand side of (7.10) is equal to the right hand side of (7.9). Equating the left hand sides of (7.10) and (7.9), we get the equation

(7.11)
$$\det_{R[x]} (A_x) \det_{R[x]} (d+x)^m = \det_{R[x]} \left(\det_{S[x]} (A_x) \right) \det_{R[x]} (d+x)^m$$

in R[x]. But $\det_{R[x]}(d+x)$ is a monic polynomial of degree n, hence is not a zero divisor. Canceling in (7.11) yields the equation (7.5) in R[x]. From (7.5) we get (7.6), and this completes the induction proof.

PROPOSITION 4.7.20. Let R be a commutative ring and assume A, B, C, D are matrices in $M_n(R)$. Let $M = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$. Then M is a block matrix in $M_{2n}(R)$.

- (1) If AC = CA, then det(M) = det(AD CB).
- (2) If CD = DC, then det(M) = det(AD BC).
- (3) If BD = DB, then det(M) = det(DA BC).
- (4) If AB = BA, then det(M) = det(DA CB).

PROOF. (1): The proof is based on the commutative diagram (7.4). We replace M with the matrix $M_x = \begin{bmatrix} A + xI_n & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$ which is in the ring $M_{2n}(R[x])$. Notice that $\theta(M_x) = M$. Since AC = CA, the equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} I_n & 0 \\ -C & A+xI_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A+xI_n & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A+xI_n & B \\ 0 & AD-CB+xD \end{bmatrix}$$

holds in the ring $M_{2n}(R[x])$. Take determinants in (7.12). Using Lemma 4.7.5 and Exercise 4.7.40, the equation

$$(7.13) det(A + xI_n) \det(M_x) = \det(A + xI_n) \det(AD - CB + xD)$$

holds in the ring R[x]. Now $\det(A + xI_n)$ is a monic polynomial of degree n, hence is not a zero divisor in R[x]. Therefore, (7.13) yields the polynomial identity

$$\det(M_x) = \det(AD - CB + xD)$$

in which both sides are polynomials of degree n. By the commutative diagram (7.4), evaluating (7.14) at x = 0 yields the formula det(M) = det(AD - CB).

The proofs of (2), (3), and (4) are similar and left to the reader.

7.4. Exercises.

Exercise 4.7.21. Suppose k is a field and

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & -a_0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & -a_1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & -a_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & -a_{n-3} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & -a_{n-2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 & -a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

is a matrix in $M_n(k)$.

- (1) Prove that min. $poly_k(M) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$.
- (2) Prove that char. $poly_k(M) = \min. poly_k(M)$.
- (3) Prove that the rank of M is equal to the rank of the transpose of M.

EXERCISE 4.7.22. Let R be a commutative ring and A and B similar matrices in $M_n(R)$. Prove that char. poly $_R(A) = \text{char. poly}_R(B)$.

EXERCISE 4.7.23. Let R be a commutative ring, $A \in M_m(R)$, $B \in M_n(R)$. Define the direct sum of A and B by

$$A \oplus B = \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & B \end{bmatrix}$$

which is a matrix in $M_{m+n}(R)$. The direct sum $A \oplus B$ is sometimes called a block diagonal matrix and is denoted diag(A, B). Prove:

- (1) $\det(A \oplus B) = \det(A) \det(B)$.
- (2) char. $\operatorname{poly}_R(A \oplus B) = \operatorname{char. poly}_R(A) \operatorname{char. poly}_R(B)$.

(3) $\operatorname{Rank}(A \oplus B) = \operatorname{Rank}(A) + \operatorname{Rank}(B)$.

EXERCISE 4.7.24. Let R be a commutative ring and $n \ge 1$. Define the trace of a matrix $\alpha = (\alpha_{ij}) \in M_n(R)$ by $\operatorname{trace}(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_{ii}$.

- (1) Prove that the trace mapping is an R-module homomorphism from $M_n(R)$ to R.
- (2) Prove that $\operatorname{trace}(\alpha\beta) = \operatorname{trace}(\beta\alpha)$. (Hint: First show $\operatorname{trace}(\alpha e_{ij}) =$ $\operatorname{trace}(e_{ij}\alpha)$ if e_{ij} is an elementary matrix and α is arbitrary.)
- (3) Prove that if α and β are similar, then $\operatorname{trace}(\alpha) = \operatorname{trace}(\beta)$.

EXERCISE 4.7.25. Let R be a commutative ring, M a finitely generated free R-module, and X a basis for M over R. Define the trace of $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ to be $\operatorname{trace}(\phi) = \operatorname{trace}(M(\phi, X))$. Show that this definition is independent of the choice for X. Show that the trace mapping is an R-module homomorphism from $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ to R.

EXERCISE 4.7.26. Let R be a commutative ring and suppose A is an R-algebra which is finitely generated and free of rank n as an R-module. By Example 4.4.3 we have $\theta: A \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,A)$, the left regular representation of A in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(A,A)$ which is defined by $\alpha \mapsto \ell_{\alpha}$. Define $T_R^A : A \to R$ by the assignment $\alpha \mapsto \operatorname{trace}(\ell_{\alpha})$. We call T_R^A the trace from A to R. Define $N_R^A:A\to R$ by the assignment $\alpha\mapsto$ $\det(\ell_{\alpha})$. We call N_R^A the norm from A to R.

- (1) Show that $T_R^A(r\alpha + s\beta) = rT_R^A(\alpha) + sT_R^A(\beta)$, if $r, s \in R$ and $\alpha, \beta \in A$. (2) Show that $N_R^A(\alpha\beta) = N_R^A(\alpha)N_R^A(\beta)$ and $N_R^A(r\alpha) = r^nN_R^A(\alpha)$, if $r \in R$ and $\alpha, \beta \in A$.

EXERCISE 4.7.27. Let k be a field, $n \ge 1$, $f = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0 \in k[x]$ and M = C(f) the companion matrix of f. Prove the following.

- (1) $\det(M) = (-1)^n a_0$.
- (2) trace $(M) = -a_{n-1}$.

EXERCISE 4.7.28. Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated free R-module of rank n. Let $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$. Show that if char. poly_R $(\phi) =$ $x^{n} + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_{0}$, then $\operatorname{trace}(\phi) = -a_{n-1}$ and $\operatorname{det}(\phi) = (-1)^{n}a_{0}$.

EXERCISE 4.7.29. Let k be a field, V a finitely generated vector space over k, and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(V, V)$. Suppose $q = \min \operatorname{poly}_k(\phi) = x^m + a_{m-1}x^{m-1} + \cdots + a_0$ is irreducible in k[x]. Prove the following.

- (1) char. $\operatorname{poly}_k(\phi) = q^r$ for some integer r.
- (2) $\det(\phi) = (-1)^{mr} a_0^r$.
- (3) trace(ϕ) = $-ra_{m-1}$.

EXERCISE 4.7.30. Let k be a field and A a matrix in $M_n(k)$ such that Rank(A) = r < n. Prove:

- (1) $\det(A) = 0$.
- (2) If B is an r + 1-by-r + 1 submatrix of A, then det(B) = 0.
- (3) A contains an r-by-r submatrix of rank r.

Exercise 4.7.31. (Cramer's Rule) Let R be a commutative ring. Suppose $A \in M_n(R), x, b \in R^n$ such that Ax = b. Prove that $x_i \det(A) = \det(B_i)$, where $B_i = (a_1, \ldots, b, \ldots, a_n)$ is the matrix obtained by replacing column i of A with the column vector b. (Hint: If $A = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ is written in columnar form, then $b = x_1 a_1 + \cdots + x_n a_n$. Use the multilinear and alternating properties when computing $det(B_i)$.)

EXERCISE 4.7.32. Let k be a field and f an irreducible polynomial with coefficients in k. Show that if M is an n-by-n matrix over k such that f(M) = 0, then $\deg(f) \leq n$.

Exercise 4.7.33. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings.

- (1) Show that θ induces a homomorphism of rings $\theta: M_n(R) \to M_n(S)$.
- (2) Show that $\theta(\det(M)) = \det(\theta(M))$, for every M in $M_n(R)$. In other words, show that the diagram

$$M_n(R) \xrightarrow{\theta} M_n(S)$$

$$\downarrow^{\text{det}}$$

$$R \xrightarrow{\theta} S$$

commutes.

(3) We know from Theorem 3.6.3 that θ induces a homomorphism of rings $R[x] \to S[x]$. Show that $\theta(\operatorname{char.poly}_R(M)) = \operatorname{char.poly}_S(\theta(M))$.

EXERCISE 4.7.34. Let R be a commutative ring and $n \ge 1$. If $A \in M_n(R)$, show that the trace of A (see Exercise 4.7.24) satisfies:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} e_{ij} A e_{ji} = \operatorname{trace}(A) I_n$$

where e_{ij} denotes the elementary matrix (Definition 4.4.7) and $I_n = e_{11} + \cdots + e_{nn}$ the identity matrix.

EXERCISE 4.7.35. Let R be a commutative ring and $A = M_n(R)$ the ring of n-by-n matrices over R. The so-called trace pairing $\tau : A \times A \to R$ is defined by $\tau(\alpha, \beta) = \operatorname{trace}(\alpha\beta)$, where the trace map is defined in Exercise 4.7.24. Show that τ satisfies these properties:

- (1) $\tau(\alpha, \beta) = \tau(\beta, \alpha)$.
- (2) $\tau(a_1\alpha_1 + a_2\alpha_2, \beta) = a_1\tau(\alpha_1, \beta) + a_2\tau(\alpha_2, \beta)$ for $a_1, a_2 \in R$.
- (3) $\tau(\alpha, b_1\beta_1 + b_2\beta_2) = b_1\tau(\alpha, \beta_1) + b_2\tau(\alpha, \beta_2)$ for $b_1, b_2 \in R$.
- (4) If $\alpha \neq 0$ is fixed, then $\tau(\alpha,): A \to R$ is nonzero. That is, there exists β such that $\tau(\alpha, \beta) \neq 0$.

We say that τ is a symmetric nondegenerate bilinear form.

EXERCISE 4.7.36. Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated R-module. Let $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$. Show that there exists a monic polynomial $p(x) \in R[x]$ such that $p(\phi) = 0$. (Hint: Exercise 4.4.31 and Theorem 4.7.12.)

EXERCISE 4.7.37. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ -4 & -4 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ in the ring of 3-by-3 matrices over

the field \mathbb{Q} .

- (1) Find char. poly(A), the characteristic polynomial.
- (2) Find min. poly(A), the minimal polynomial.
- (3) Find the invariant factors of A in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.
- (4) Find the elementary divisors of A in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

- (5) Find the rational canonical form of A.
- (6) Find the Jordan canonical form of A.
- (7) Find an invertible matrix P such that $P^{-1}AP$ is equal to the Jordan canonical form of A. In other words, find a Jordan basis for the linear transformation on $\mathbb{Q}^{(3)}$ defined by A.

EXERCISE 4.7.38. Let R be a commutative ring and $A \in M_{nm}(R)$. For each i, let A_i denote column i. Assume $1 \le i < j \le m$ and $\alpha \in R$. If B is the matrix obtained by replacing A_i with $\alpha A_i + A_j$, show that $\det(B) = \det(A)$.

Exercise 4.7.39. This exercise is a generalization of Example 4.7.18 Let k be a field and $A = (a_{ij})$ the *n*-by-*n* matrix in $M_n(k)$ with $a_{ij} = 1$ for every pair (i, j).

- (1) Assume the characteristic of k does not divide n. Prove the following:
 - (a) min. poly_k(A) = x(x n).
 - (b) char. poly_k(A) = $\pm x^{n-1}(n-x)$.
 - (c) The set

$$v_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1\\1\\0\\0\\\vdots\\0 \end{bmatrix}, v_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} -1\\0\\1\\0\\\vdots\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \dots, v_{n-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1\\0\\0\\\vdots\\0\\1 \end{bmatrix}, v_{n} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1\\1\\1\\\vdots\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix}$$

is a Jordan basis for A.

- (2) Assume the characteristic of k divides n. Prove the following:
 - (a) min. poly_k $(A) = x^2$.
 - (b) char. poly_k $(A) = \pm x^n$.
 - (c) The set $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_{n-2}, v_{n-1} = (0, 0, \ldots, 0, 1)^t, v_n$ is a Jordan basis for A, where v_1, \ldots, v_{n-2} and v_n are the vectors from Part (1) (c).

Exercise 4.7.40. Let R be a commutative ring, $m \geq 1$, and $n \geq 1$. Let $A \in M_m(R)$ and $D \in M_n(R)$. Let M be a block triangular matrix of the form $\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & D \end{bmatrix} \text{ or } \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}. \text{ Show that } \det(M) = \det(A)\det(D). \text{ (Hint: Use induction)}$

EXERCISE 4.7.41. Let S be a commutative R-algebra that is a finitely generated free R-module of rank n. Let A be an S-algebra that is a finitely generated free S-module of rank m. Then for any $a \in A$,

- $\begin{array}{ll} (1) \ T_R^A(a) = T_R^S\left(T_S^A(a)\right), \, \mathrm{and} \\ (2) \ N_R^A(a) = N_R^S\left(N_S^A(a)\right). \end{array}$

See Exercise 4.7.26 for the definition of the trace and norm functions. (Hint: After choosing free bases for A and S, reduce this to statements about block matrices over R. Prove (1) directly and for (2) apply Theorem 4.7.19.)

8. Polynomial Functions

8.1. The Ring of Polynomial Functions on a Module. Let R be a commutative ring, M an R-module, and $M^* = \text{Hom}_R(M,R)$ the dual of M. By $\operatorname{Map}(M,R)$ we denote the set of all functions $f:M\to R$. Then $\operatorname{Map}(M,R)$ can be turned into an R-algebra. The addition and multiplication operations are defined point-wise: $(f+g)(x)=f(x)+g(x), \ (fg)(x)=f(x)g(x).$ An element a in R defines the constant function $a:M\to R$, where a(x)=a. We can view M^* as an R-submodule of Map(M,R). The R-subalgebra of Map(M,R) generated by the set M^* is denoted $R[M^*]$ and is called the ring of polynomial functions on M. If $d\geq 0$, then a polynomial function $f\in R[M^*]$ is said to be homogeneous of degree d, if $f(rx)=r^df(x)$, for all $x\in M$ and $r\in R$. Proposition 4.8.1 shows that the ring $R[M^*]$ is in fact a coordinate-free way to generalize the usual ring of polynomial functions on a vector space.

PROPOSITION 4.8.1. Let k be an infinite field, and V a finite dimensional k-vector space. If $\dim_k(V) = n$, then $k[V^*] \cong k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ as k-algebras.

PROOF. Let $\{(v_i, f_i) \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ be a dual basis for V. As a k-vector space, f_1, \ldots, f_n is a basis for V^* . Define $\theta : k[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \to k[V^*]$ by $x_i \mapsto f_i$. The reader should verify that θ is onto, and by Exercise 3.6.31 is one-to-one.

LEMMA 4.8.2. Let R be a commutative ring and P a finitely generated free R-module with $\operatorname{Rank}_R(P) = n$. Let $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(P,P)$. If the characteristic polynomial of ϕ is $p(x) = x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_{n-1} x + a_n$, then for each $i = 1, \ldots, n$, the assignment $\phi \mapsto (-1)^i a_i$ defines a polynomial function $N_i : \operatorname{Hom}_R(P,P) \to R$ which is homogeneous of degree i.

PROOF. Fix a basis B for P. Let $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(P,P)$, and $(\phi_{ij}) = M(\phi,B)$ the matrix of ϕ . By Proposition 4.8.1, a polynomial function on $\operatorname{Hom}_R(P,P)$ corresponds to a polynomial in the n^2 indeterminates $\Phi = \{\phi_{ij} \mid 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$. The characteristic polynomial of ϕ is given by the combinatorial formula for the determinant (Definition 4.7.4)

(8.1)
$$\det(xI_n - (\phi_{ij})) = \sum_{\vec{\ell} \in S_n} \operatorname{sign}(\ell) b_{\ell_1,1} \cdots b_{\ell_n,n}$$

where $b_{ii} = x - \phi_{ii}$ and $b_{ij} = -\phi_{ij}$ if $i \neq j$. A typical summand in (8.1) can be written in the form

$$sign(\ell)b_{\ell_1,1}\cdots b_{\ell_n,n} = (x - \phi_{i_1i_1})\cdots (x - \phi_{i_di_d})m$$

where m is a monomial in $R[\Phi]$ of degree n-d. Therefore, $b_{\ell_1,1} \cdots b_{\ell_n,n}$ is a polynomial in x of degree d and for $0 \le k < n$, the coefficient of x^k is a homogeneous polynomial of degree n-k in $R[\Phi]$.

EXAMPLE 4.8.3. Let k be a field and A a k-algebra. Assume $\dim_k(A) = n$ is finite. Using the left regular representation (see Example 4.4.3), we can embed A as a k-subalgebra of $\operatorname{Hom}_k(A,A)$. As in Lemma 4.8.2, let $N_i:\operatorname{Hom}_k(A,A)\to k$ be the homogeneous polynomial function of degree i defined by the coefficient of x^{n-i} in the characteristic polynomial of ϕ . For each i, upon restriction to $A, N_i:A\to k$ defines a homogeneous polynomial function on A of degree i. In particular N_n is the norm $N_k^A:A\to k$ defined in Exercise 4.7.26, and N_1 the trace $T_k^A:A\to k$. Fix a k-basis α_1,\ldots,α_n for A. Then this basis can be extended to a basis for $\operatorname{Hom}_k(A,A)$ and N_i can be identified with a homogeneous polynomial in $k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ of degree i.

8.2. Resultant of Two Polynomials. Assume $m \ge 0$, $n \ge 0$, and $m+n \ge 1$. Let $f = \sum_{i=0}^m f_i x^i$ and $g = \sum_{i=0}^n g_i x^i$ be two polynomials in k[x], where k is a field. So the degree of f is at most m, and the degree of f is at most f. In the general case, f and f are both positive, and the *Sylvester matrix* of f and f is the f is the f and f is the f and f is the f is the f and f is the f and f is the f is the f and f is the f and f is the f is the f in f is the f is the f in f

where blank spaces consist of zeros. The top n rows are constructed from the coefficients of f, shifted and padded with zeros. The bottom m rows are constructed from shifting the coefficients of g, and padding with zeros. In the degenerate case when m=0, $\mathrm{Syl}(f,g)$ is defined to be the n-by-n diagonal matrix $f_0(E_{11}+\cdots+E_{nn})$. In the degenerate case when n=0, $\mathrm{Syl}(f,g)$ is defined to be the m-by-m diagonal matrix $g_0(E_{11}+\cdots+E_{nm})$. The resultant of f and g, written $\mathrm{Res}(f,g)$, is the determinant of $\mathrm{Syl}(f,g)$.

LEMMA 4.8.4. In the above context, we view $f_0, \ldots, f_m, g_0, \ldots, g_n$ as variables. Then in the terminology of Section 4.8.1, $\operatorname{Res}(f,g)$ satisfies the following:

- (1) Res(f,g) is a polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}[f_0,\ldots,f_m,g_0,\ldots,g_n]$ which is homogeneous of degree n+m.
- (2) For any constant $c \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$Res(cf, g) = c^n Res(f, g)$$

$$Res(f, cg) = c^m Res(f, g)$$

Thus, $\operatorname{Res}(f,g)$ is homogeneous of degree n in f_0, \ldots, f_m and homogeneous of degree m in g_0, \ldots, g_n .

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

Lemma 4.8.5. In the above context, the following are true.

- (1) If deg(f) < m and deg(g) < n, then Res(f, g) = 0.
- (2) If m = 0, then $Res(f, g) = f_0^n$.
- (3) If n = 0, then $Res(f, g) = g_0^m$.
- (4) $\operatorname{Res}(f,g) = (-1)^{mn} \operatorname{Res}(g,f)$.
- (5) If $\deg(f) = m$ and $d = \deg(g) < n$, then $\operatorname{Res}(f,g) = f_m^{n-d} \operatorname{Res}(f,h)$, where $h = g_d x^d + \dots + g_1 x + g_0$.

PROOF. (1) - (4): Are left to the reader.

(5): The Sylvester matrix has the form

$$\operatorname{Syl}(f,g) = \begin{bmatrix} T & * \\ 0 & \operatorname{Syl}(f,h) \end{bmatrix}$$

where T is an upper triangular matrix of size (n-d)-by-(n-d) with diagonal (f_m, \ldots, f_m) .

LEMMA 4.8.6. In the context of Lemma 4.8.5, assume $m \le n$ and $\deg(f) = m$. Let q and r be the unique polynomials in k[x] guaranteed by The Division Algorithm (Theorem 3.6.4) which satisfy: $q = \sum_{i=0}^{n-m} q_i x^i$, $r = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} r_i x^i$, and g = qf + r. Then $\operatorname{Res}(f,g) = f_m^{n-m+1} \operatorname{Res}(f,r)$.

PROOF. Write $c = -q_{n-m} = -g_n/f_m$, and set $h = g + cx^{n-m}f = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} h_i x^i$. Let $I_m = E_{11} + \dots + E_{mm} \in M_m(k)$, $I_n = E_{11} + \dots + E_{nn} \in M_n(k)$, and $I_{mn} = E_{11} + \dots + E_{mm} \in M_{mn}(k)$. The product

$$\begin{bmatrix} I_n & 0 \\ cI_{mn} & I_m \end{bmatrix} \operatorname{Syl}(f,g) = \begin{bmatrix} f_m & * \\ & \operatorname{Syl}(f,h) \end{bmatrix}$$

corresponds to elementary row operations. The determinant formulas in Lemma 4.7.5 and Lemma 4.7.7 imply that $\operatorname{Res}(f,g) = f_m \operatorname{Res}(f,h)$. By induction on n-m, we are done.

Theorem 4.8.7. In the context of Lemma 4.8.5, assume F/k is an extension of fields such that in the unique factorization domain F[x] both polynomials f and g have no irreducible factor of degree greater than one.

(1) If $m = \deg(f) \ge 1$ and $f = f_m(x - \alpha_1) \cdots (x - \alpha_m)$ is a factorization of f into a product of linear polynomials, then

$$\operatorname{Res}(f,g) = f_m^n \prod_{i=1}^m g(\alpha_i).$$

(2) If $\deg(g) = n \ge 1$ and $g = g_n(x - \beta_1) \cdots (x - \beta_n)$ is a factorization of g into a product of linear polynomials, then

$$\operatorname{Res}(f,g) = (-1)^{mn} g_n^m \prod_{j=1}^n f(\beta_j).$$

(3) Suppose $\deg(f) = m \ge 1$ and $\deg(g) = n \ge 1$. If $f = f_m(x - \alpha_1) \cdots (x - \alpha_m)$ and $g = g_n(x - \beta_1) \cdots (x - \beta_n)$ are factorizations of f and g into products of linear polynomials, then

$$\operatorname{Res}(f,g) = f_m^n g_n^m \prod_{i=1}^m \prod_{j=1}^n (\alpha_i - \beta_j).$$

PROOF. We prove (1) and (2) simultaneously. The reader should verify that Part (3) follows from Parts (1) and (2).

The proof is by induction on m+n. The basis for the induction, which follows from Lemma 4.8.5, is when n=0 or m=0. Assume from now on that $1 \le m$ and $1 \le n$.

Case 1: $\deg(f) = m \ge 1$, and $\deg(g) = d < n$. If we set $h = \sum_{i=0}^{d} g_i x^i$, then by Lemma 4.8.5 (5), $\operatorname{Res}(f,g) = f_m^{n-d} \operatorname{Res}(f,g)$. By the induction hypothesis, $\operatorname{Res}(f,g) = f_m^{n-d} \operatorname{Res}(f,g) = f_m^{n-d} f_m^d \prod_{i=1}^m g(\alpha_i)$. Which proves (1) in this case.

Case 2: $\deg(g) = n \ge 1$, and $\deg(f) = d < m$. In this case, Part (2) follows by Case 1 and Lemma 4.8.5 (4).

Case 3: Assume $\deg(f)=m\geq 1$ and $\deg(g)=n\geq 1$, and $m\leq n$. As in Lemma 4.8.6, write g=fq+r, where $r=\sum_{i=0}^{m-1}r_ix^i$. By Lemma 4.8.6 and the induction hypothesis,

$$\operatorname{Res}(f,g) = f_m^{n-m+1} \operatorname{Res}(f,r)$$
$$= f_m^{n-m+1} f_m^{m-1} \prod_{i=1}^m r(\alpha_i)$$
$$= f_m^n \prod_{i=1}^m g(\alpha_i)$$

where the last equation follows since $r(\alpha_i) = g(\alpha_i) - f(\alpha_i)q(\alpha_i)$. In this case, we have proved Part (1). By

$$\operatorname{Res}(f,g) = f_m^n \prod_{i=1}^m g(\alpha_i)$$

$$= f_m^n \prod_{i=1}^m g_n(\alpha_i - \beta_1) \cdots (\alpha_i - \beta_n)$$

$$= g_n^m \prod_{j=1}^n f_m(\alpha_1 - \beta_j) \cdots (\alpha_m - \beta_j)$$

$$= (-1)^{mn} g_n^m \prod_{i=1}^n f(\beta_i)$$

we see that Part (2) holds in Case 3.

Case 4: Assume $\deg(f)=m\geq 1$ and $\deg(g)=n\geq 1$, and $n\leq m$. By Lemma 4.8.5 (4), this reduces to Case 3.

COROLLARY 4.8.8. In the above context, Res(f,g) = 0 if and only if one of the following is satisfied:

- (1) $\deg(f) < m \text{ and } \deg(g) < n$.
- (2) $(f,g) \neq k[x]$, or equivalently, f and g have a common irreducible factor, or equivalently, f and g have a common root in some extension field F/k.

PROOF. If (1) is true, then the first column of $\mathrm{Syl}(f,g)$ is made up of zeros, so $\mathrm{Res}(f,g)=0$. Otherwise, by Lemma 4.8.5, we can reduce to the case where $\mathrm{deg}(f)=m$. By Theorem 4.8.7 (1), $\mathrm{Res}(f,g)=0$ if and only if f and g have a common root in some extension field F/k. By Exercise 3.6.26, this is equivalent to (2).

Fields

If k is a field, there is a unique homomorphism $\eta: \mathbb{Z} \to k$ and the kernel of η is either (0), or (p) for some prime p. If η is one-to-one, then the characteristic of k is zero and k contains the quotient field of im η , which is isomorphic to the field of rational numbers \mathbb{Q} . Otherwise, the characteristic of k is positive and the image of η is a finite field isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}/p , where $p = \operatorname{char} k$. The image of η is contained in every subring of k. The prime subfield of k is the smallest subfield P of k, it contains the image of η . If char k=0, then P is isomorphic to \mathbb{Q} . Otherwise, char k = p is positive and P is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}/p .

1. Algebraic Extensions and Transcendental Extensions

Let k and F be fields. If k is a subring of F, then we say F is an extension of k, k is a subfield of F, or that F/k is an extension of fields.

Let F/k be an extension of fields. Then F is a k-algebra, and in particular F is a vector space over k. If $X \subseteq F$, then by k[X] we denote the k-subalgebra of F generated by k and X. By k(X) we denote the subfield of F generated by k and X. If $F = k(u_1, \ldots, u_n)$, then we say F is finitely generated over k. If F = k(u), then we say F is a *simple extension* of k.

LEMMA 5.1.1. Let F/k be an extension of fields and $X \subseteq F$.

(1)
$$k[X] = \{g(u_1, \dots, u_n) \mid n \ge 1, u_i \in X, g \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]\}$$

(2) $k(X) = \left\{\frac{g(u_1, \dots, u_n)}{h(v_1, \dots, v_n)} \mid n \ge 1, u_i, v_j \in X, g, h \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n], h(v_1, \dots, v_n) \ne 0\right\}$

As k-algebras, the quotient field of k[X] is isomorphic to k(X).

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

Let F/k be an extension of fields. Let L and M be intermediate fields. That is, $k \subseteq L \subseteq F$ and $k \subseteq M \subseteq F$. The composite of L and M, denoted LM, is $k(L \cup M)$.

Let F/k be an extension of fields and $u \in F$. By Definition 4.5.1, u is algebraic over k if there is a nonzero polynomial $f \in k[x]$ and f(u) = 0. Otherwise, u is transcendental over k. We say F/k is an algebraic extension if each element of F is algebraic over k.

Proposition 5.1.2. Let F/k be an extension of fields and $u \in F$ a transcendental element. Let x be an indeterminate. Then $k(x) \cong k(u)$ by a k-algebra isomorphism which maps x to u.

PROOF. Let $\phi: k[x] \to k(u)$. Since u is transcendental, if $h(x) \in k[x]$ is nonzero, then $h(u) \neq 0$ in k(u). By Theorem 3.5.5, ϕ factors through k(x).

THEOREM 5.1.3. Let F/k be an extension of fields. Let u be an element of F which is algebraic over k. Let x be an indeterminate.

- (1) k[u] = k(u)
- (2) $k[u] \cong k[x]/(f)$ where $f \in k[x]$ satisfies
 - (a) f is monic, irreducible,
 - (b) f(u) = 0, and
 - (c) if g(u) = 0 for some $g \in k[x]$, then f divides g.

The polynomial f is uniquely determined by u. We call f the irreducible polynomial for u over k and write $f = \text{Irr. poly}_k(u)$. Sometimes f is called the minimal polynomial for u over k, in which case we write $f = \min. \text{poly}_k(u)$.

- (3) If f is the irreducible polynomial of u and deg f = n, then $\{1, u, ..., u^{n-1}\}$ is a basis for k[u] as a k-vector space.
- (4) $\dim_k(k[u])$ is equal to the degree of the irreducible polynomial of u.

PROOF. (2): Let $\phi: k[x] \to F$ be the k-algebra homomorphism determined by $x \mapsto u$. Since k[x] is a principal ideal domain, the kernel of ϕ is a principal ideal, say $\ker(\phi) = (f)$. Then ϕ factors to give the isomorphism $k[x]/(f) \cong k[u]$. Since F is a field, the kernel of ϕ is a prime ideal. Since k[x] is a principal ideal domain, the prime ideal (f) is maximal, f is irreducible, and we can assume f is monic. It follows that the image of ϕ is a field, so k[u] = k(u). Notice that $g \in \ker(\phi)$ if and only if g(u) = 0 if and only if f divides g.

- (2) implies (1): By (2), k[u] is a field.
- (2) implies (3): By Exercise 4.2.26.
- (3) implies (4): Immediate.

Theorem 5.1.4. Assume F/k is an extension of fields and $u \in F$. Assume L/K is another extension of fields and $v \in L$. Let $\sigma : k \to K$ be an isomorphism of fields and assume either

- (1) u is transcendental over k and v is transcendental over K, or
- (2) u is a root of the irreducible polynomial $f \in k[x]$ and v is a root of the irreducible polynomial $\bar{\sigma}(f) \in K[x]$.

Then there is an isomorphism $\tau: k(u) \to K(v)$ such that $\tau|_k = \sigma$ and $\tau(u) = v$.

PROOF. (1): Follows straight from Proposition 5.1.2.

(2): Note that σ induces an isomorphism $\bar{\sigma}: k[x] \to K[x]$ and the image of the irreducible polynomial f is the irreducible polynomial $\bar{\sigma}(f)$. Consequently, the kernel of

$$k[x] \to \frac{K[x]}{(\bar{\sigma}(f))}$$

is the principal ideal (f). The rest follows from Theorem 5.1.3.

Corollary 5.1.5. Let F/k be an extension of fields and assume $u, v \in F$. Assume either

- (1) u and v are transcendental over k, or
- (2) u and v are algebraic and satisfy the same irreducible polynomial.

Then there is a k-algebra isomorphism $\tau: k(u) \to k(v)$ such that $\tau(u) = v$.

COROLLARY 5.1.6. Let F/k be an extension of fields. Assume $u, v \in F$ are algebraic over k and that there is a k-algebra isomorphism $\tau : k(u) \to k(v)$ such that $\tau(u) = v$. Then u and v satisfy the same irreducible polynomial.

PROOF. Let $\phi: k[x] \to k[u]$ where $\phi(x) = u$. Let $\psi: k[x] \to k[v]$ where $\psi(x) = v$. The diagram of k-algebra homomorphisms

$$k[x] \xrightarrow{\phi} k[u]$$

$$= \bigvee_{\psi} \bigvee_{\kappa[x] \xrightarrow{\psi} k[v]} \tau$$

commutes. Let $\ker(\phi) = (f)$, where f is the monic irreducible polynomial for u. The diagram commutes, so $f \in \ker(\psi)$. It follows that f(v) = 0. Since $\ker(\psi)$ is a principal ideal and maximal, it follows that $\ker(\psi)$ is generated by f.

EXAMPLE 5.1.7. In $\mathbb{R}[x]$, the polynomial $f=x^2+1$ is irreducible. The two roots of f in \mathbb{C} are i,-i. By Corollary 5.1.5, there is an \mathbb{R} -algebra automorphism $\chi:\mathbb{C}\to\mathbb{C}$ such that $\chi(i)=-i$. The automorphism χ is usually called *complex conjugation* (see Section 1.5). Let $\sigma\in\mathrm{Aut}_\mathbb{R}\mathbb{C}$. By Corollary 5.1.6, $\sigma(i)$ is equal to i or -i. This proves $\mathrm{Aut}_\mathbb{R}\mathbb{C}=\langle\chi\rangle$ is a group of order two. For a generalization of this example, see Exercise 5.1.26.

Theorem 5.1.8. (Kronecker's Theorem) Let k be a field and f a polynomial of positive degree in k[x]. There exists an extension field F of k and an element $u \in F$ satisfying

- (1) u is a root of f,
- (2) $\dim_k(k[u]) \le \deg(f)$, and
- (3) if f is irreducible, then $\dim_k(k[u]) = \deg(f)$ and k[u] is unique up to a k-algebra isomorphism.

PROOF. Let g be an irreducible factor of f, set F = k[x]/(g) and take u to be the coset of x in F. The rest follows from Theorem 5.1.3 and Corollary 5.1.5. \square

EXAMPLE 5.1.9. Let p be a prime and k a field of characteristic p. Let $\alpha \in k$ and $f = x^p - \alpha$. In this example we show that f is either irreducible, or factors into a product of linear polynomials. The Frobenius homomorphism $\theta: k \to k$ is defined by $a \mapsto a^p$ (Exercise 3.2.20). If $\alpha = a^p$ for some $a \in k$, then $f = x^p - a^p = (x - a)^p$ by (Exercise 3.2.19). This shows that f is a product of linear polynomials over k, if f has a root in k. Now assume that α is not in the image of the Frobenius map. Thus f does not have a root in k. For sake of contradiction assume f is reducible over k. Let $f = gg_1$ where g is irreducible and deg g = m where $1 \le m < p$. Let F = k[x]/(g). By Theorem 5.1.8, F is an extension field of k containing a root u of g. Every root of g is a root of f. By the first part, $f = (x-u)^p$ in F[x]. By unique factorization (Theorem 3.7.4), this implies $g = (x - u)^m$ in F[x]. But $g \in k[x]$. By the Binomial Theorem (Exercise 3.1.23), $g = x^m - mux^{m-1} + \cdots + (-u)^m$, which implies $mu \in k$. But gcd(m,p) = 1 implies $u \in k$. This contradicts our original assumption that f does not have a root in k. We have shown that $f = x^p - \alpha$ is either irreducible, or factors into a product of linear polynomials. For a continuation of this example, see Exercise 5.1.27.

Proposition 5.1.10. Let F/k be an extension of fields.

(1) If F is finite dimensional over k, then F is finitely generated and algebraic over k.

(2) (Finitely Generated and Algebraic is Finite Dimensional) If $X = \{u_1, \ldots, u_n\} \subseteq F$ and each u_i is algebraic over k, then $\dim_k k(X) < \infty$.

- (3) If F = k(X) and every element of X is algebraic over k, then F is algebraic over k.
- (4) (Algebraic over Algebraic is Algebraic) Let E be an intermediate field of F/k. If F/E is algebraic and E/k is algebraic, then F/k is algebraic.
- (5) (Algebraic Closure of k in F) If $E = \{u \in F \mid u \text{ is algebraic over } k\}$, then E is an intermediate field of F/k.

PROOF. (1): Clearly F is finitely generated. Suppose $u \in F$, and $\dim_k(F) = n$. The set $\{u^n, u^{n-1}, \dots, u, 1\}$ is linearly dependent. A dependence relation $0 = a_n u^n + a_{n-1} u^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 u + a_0$ over k shows that u is algebraic over k.

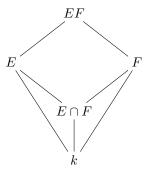
- (2): By Theorem 5.1.3, $\dim_k k(u_1) < \infty$. Now use induction and Proposition 4.2.39.
- (3): Let $u \in k(X)$. Then there exist $u_1, \ldots, u_m, v_1, \ldots, v_n$ in X and polynomials f, g over k such that

$$u = \frac{f(u_1, \dots, u_m)}{g(v_1, \dots, v_n)}.$$

This shows $u \in k(u_1, \ldots, u_m, v_1, \ldots, v_n)$. By Parts (2) and (1) this shows u is algebraic over k.

- (4): Let $u \in F$. There is a polynomial $f = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i x^i$ in E[x] such that f(u) = 0. Let $K = k(a_0, \ldots, a_n)$. Then u is algebraic over K and $\dim_K K(u) < \infty$. Since each a_i is algebraic over k, by Part (2), $\dim_k K < \infty$. By Proposition 4.2.39, $\dim_k K(u) < \infty$. By Part (1), u is algebraic over k.
- (5): Let u, v be algebraic over k. By Part (3), k(u, v) is an algebraic extension of k. So $k(u, v) \subseteq E$. Therefore, u + v, u v, uv, u/v are all in E. It follows that E is a field.

Theorem 5.1.11. Let K/k be an extension of fields. Let E and F be intermediate fields.



Assume $\dim_k F = n$ is finite and that $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is a basis for F as a k-vector space. The following are true.

- (1) As a vector space over E, EF is spanned by $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$.
- (2) $\dim_E (EF) \leq \dim_k F$.
- (3) If $\dim_k E = m$ is finite and $\{u_1, \ldots, u_m\}$ is a basis for E as a k-vector space, then $\dim_k EF \leq \dim_k E \dim_k F$ and as a vector space over k, EF is spanned by $\{u_i v_j \mid 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$.
- (4) If $m = \dim_k E$ and $n = \dim_k F$ are finite and gcd(m, n) = 1, then $\dim_k EF = \dim_k F \dim_k E$.

(5) If $\dim_k EF = \dim_k F \dim_k E$, then $k = E \cap F$.

PROOF. (1): We have $F = k(v_1, \ldots, v_n)$. Then $EF = k(E \cup F) = k(E)(F) = E(F) = E(k(v_1, \ldots, v_n)) = E(v_1, \ldots, v_n)$. By Lemma 5.1.1, a typical element u in EF is a linear combination $u = e_1 M_1 + \cdots + e_r M_r$ where each e_i is in E and each M_i is a monomial of the form $M_i = v_1^{\epsilon_{i,1}} \cdots v_n^{\epsilon_{i,n}}$, where $\epsilon_{i,j} \geq 0$ for each i,j. In the field F, each monomial M_i can be written as a k-linear combination in the form $M_i = a_{i,1}v_1 + \cdots + a_{i,n}v_n$, where $a_{i,j} \in k$ for each i,j. Therefore,

$$u = e_1 M_1 + \dots + e_r M_r$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^r \left(e_i \sum_{j=1}^n a_{i,j} v_j \right)$$

This proves (1).

- (2): This part follows from (1) and Proposition 4.2.34.
- (3) This part follows from (2), Proposition 4.2.39, and its proof.
- (4): We have $\dim_k(E) = m$ and $\dim_k(F) = n$ both divide $\dim_k(EF)$. Since m and n are relatively prime, it follows that mn is the least common multiple of m and n. Thus $mn \leq \dim_k(EF)$. This and (3) proves (4).
- (5): We have $\dim_k (EF) = \dim_k (F) \dim_k (E) = \dim_E (EF) \dim_k (E)$, which implies $\dim_E (EF) = \dim_k (F)$. By this and (2), $\dim_E (EF) = \dim_k (F) \le \dim_{E \cap F} (F)$. Proposition 4.2.39 implies $k = E \cap F$.

PROPOSITION 5.1.12. Let F/k be an extension of fields and assume $\dim_k F = n$ is finite. Using the left regular representation $\lambda : F \to \operatorname{Hom}_k(F,F)$, we view $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F,F)$ as a left F-vector space. Then the following are true.

- (1) $\dim_F (\operatorname{Hom}_k(F, F)) = n$.
- (2) If $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is a k-basis for F and $\{\phi_1, \ldots, \phi_n\}$ is an F-basis for $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F, F)$, then the matrix $(\phi_i(v_i))$ is invertible in $M_n(F)$.

PROOF. By Example 4.4.3, the left regular representation $\lambda: F \to \operatorname{Hom}_k(F, F)$ is a k-algebra homomorphism and by Lemma 4.1.2 this makes $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F, F)$ into a left F-vector space. By Proposition 4.4.10, $\dim_k(\operatorname{Hom}_k(F, F)) = n^2$. By Proposition 4.2.39,

$$\dim_k (\operatorname{Hom}_k(F, F)) = \dim_F (\operatorname{Hom}_k(F, F)) \dim_k(F).$$

It follows that $\dim_F(\operatorname{Hom}_k(F,F)) = n$, which is (1). To prove (2), by Exercise 4.2.46 and Proposition 4.4.13, it suffices to show that the kernel of the homomorphism $F^n \to F^n$ defined by left multiplication by $(\phi_i(v_j))$ is (0). Assume $(u_1,\ldots,u_n) \in F^n$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n u_i \phi_i(v_j) = 0$ for each j. Let x be an arbitrary element

of F. Then we can write $x = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j v_j$ for some a_1, \ldots, a_n in k. Consider

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i \phi_i(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i \phi_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j v_j \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j \phi_i(v_j)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j u_i \phi_i(v_j)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i \phi_i(v_j)$$

$$= 0.$$

Since $x \in F$ was arbitrary and $\{\phi_1, \ldots, \phi_n\}$ is an F-basis for $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F, F)$, this implies $u_i = 0$ for each i. This proves (2).

- 1.1. Classical Straightedge and Compass Constructions. A real number a in \mathbb{R} is *constructible* if by use of straightedge and compass we can construct a line segment of length |a|. We are given that 1 is constructible. Ruler and compass constructions involve
 - (1) Drawing lines through two points.
 - (2) Intersecting two lines.
 - (3) Drawing a circle with a given center and radius.
 - (4) Intersecting a line and a circle.
 - (5) Intersecting two circles.

Lemma 5.1.13. The set of all constructible numbers is a subfield of \mathbb{R} containing \mathbb{Q} .

PROOF. Using the straightedge we can construct the x-axis. Given the unit length 1 and compass we can construct any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. In fact, for any constructible numbers a and b, the compass can be used to construct $a \pm b$. Using the straightedge and compass we can construct the y-axis, by erecting a perpendicular to the x-axis at the number 0. The line L through the points (0,0) and (1,b) in \mathbb{R}^2 is the set of solutions to y = bx. The point (a,ab) is the intersection of L with the vertical line through (a,0). If $b \neq 0$, the point (a/b,b) is the intersection of L with the horizontal line through (0,b). Therefore, ab and a/b are constructible.

Let F be any subfield of \mathbb{R} . Let $F^2 = \{(x,y) \mid x,y \in F\}$ be the plane over F, which we view as a subset of the euclidean plan \mathbb{R}^2 . A linear equation over F in two variables is an equation of the form ax + by + c = 0, where a and b are in F and are not both equal to 0. A line in F^2 is the set of solutions $(x,y) \in F^2$ to a linear equation over F. A circle in F^2 is the set of solutions $(x,y) \in F^2$ to a quadratic equation of the form $x^2 + y^2 + ax + by + c = 0$, where $a, b, c \in F$.

Lemma 5.1.14. The following are true.

(1) Given $A_0 = (x_0, y_0)$ and $A_1 = (x_1, y_1)$ in F^2 , if $A_0 \neq A_1$, there is a line L in F^2 passing through A_0 and A_1 .

- (2) Given a point $A_0 = (x_0, y_0)$ in F^2 and a positive $r \in F$, there is a circle in F^2 with center A_0 and radius r.
- (3) If L_1 and L_2 are non-parallel lines in F^2 , then $L_1 \cap L_2$ is a point in F^2 .
- (4) If L is a line and C a circle, both in F^2 , and $L \cap C$ is non-empty in \mathbb{R}^2 , then $L \cap C$ is non-empty in the plane over $F(\sqrt{\gamma})$, for some $\gamma \in F$, $\gamma \geq 0$.
- (5) If C_0 and C_1 are circles in F^2 , and $C_0 \cap C_1$ is non-empty in \mathbb{R}^2 , then $C_0 \cap C_1$ is non-empty in the plane over $F(\sqrt{\gamma})$, for some $\gamma \in F$, $\gamma \geq 0$.

PROOF. (1), (2) and (3): Proofs are left to the reader.

(4): Suppose the equation for C is $x^2 + y^2 + ax + by + c = 0$, and the equation for L is dx + ey + f = 0, where $a, b, c, d, e, f \in F$. Without loss of generality, assume $e \neq 0$. Solve for y on the line L to get y = -(f + dx)/e. Substituting into C,

$$x^{2} + (f + dx)^{2}/e^{2} + ax - b(f + dx)/e + c = 0.$$

This is a quadratic equation over F of the form $Ax^2 + Bx + C = 0$, where $A = (e^2 + d^2)/e^2 > 0$. In the field of complex numbers $\mathbb C$ the solutions are

$$x = \frac{-B \pm \sqrt{B^2 - 4AC}}{2A}.$$

Let $\gamma = B^2 - 4AC$. Then $\gamma \in F$. If $\gamma = 0$, then $L \cap C$ consists of one point in F^2 . If $\gamma < 0$, then in \mathbb{R}^2 , $L \cap C = \emptyset$. If $\gamma > 0$, then there are two points in $L \cap C$, and both belong to the plane over $F(\sqrt{\gamma})$.

(5): Suppose the equation for C_0 is $x^2+y^2+a_0x+b_0y+c_0=0$, and the equation for C_1 is $x^2+y^2+a_1x+b_1y+c_1=0$. If $C_0=C_1$, then take γ to be 1. Otherwise subtract to get $(a_0-a_1)x+(b_0-b_1)y+(c_0-c_1)=0$. If $a_0=a_1$ and $b_0=b_1$, then $C_0\cap C_1=\emptyset$. Otherwise the linear equation $(a_0-a_1)x+(b_0-b_1)y+(c_0-c_1)=0$ defines a line, which we call L. Then $C_0\cap L=C_1\cap L=C_0\cap C_1$, and we reduce to part (4).

PROPOSITION 5.1.15. If $u \in \mathbb{R}$ is constructible, then for some $r \geq 0$, $\dim_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(u))$ is equal to 2^r .

PROOF. To construct u, a finite sequence of straightedge and compass constructions are performed. By Lemma 5.1.14, u belongs to a field extension of \mathbb{Q} obtained by a finite number of quadratic extensions, each of which is inside \mathbb{R} . There exist positive real numbers $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_n$ such that u belongs to $\mathbb{Q}(\gamma_1) \cdots (\gamma_n)$, a subfield of \mathbb{R} . Moreover, $\gamma_1^2 \in \mathbb{Q}$ and for $1 < i \le n$, $\gamma_i^2 \in \mathbb{Q}(\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_{i-1})$. By Proposition 4.2.39, degrees of consecutive extensions multiply. The degree of each consecutive extension is either 1 or 2. This means $\dim_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_n))$ is 2^s for some $s \ge 0$. Since $\dim_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(u))$ divides 2^s , we are done.

COROLLARY 5.1.16. Suppose $u \in \mathbb{R}$ is algebraic over \mathbb{Q} and the degree of Irr. $\operatorname{poly}_{\mathbb{Q}}(u)$ has degree d. If d is not of the form 2^r , then u is not constructible.

THEOREM 5.1.17. It is impossible by straightedge and compass alone to

- (1) trisect the angle 60° (that is, $\cos 20^{\circ}$ is not constuctible),
- (2) double the cube (that is, $\sqrt[3]{2}$ is not constuctible), or
- (3) square the circle (that is, $\sqrt{\pi}$ is not constuctible).

PROOF. (1): Take θ to be 60°. Then $\cos \theta = \frac{1}{2}$. By trigonometry, $\cos \theta = 4\cos^3\left(\frac{\theta}{3}\right) - 3\cos\left(\frac{\theta}{3}\right)$. Let $u = 2\cos 20^\circ$. Then u satisfies $u^3 - 3u - 1 = 0$. The

irreducible polynomial for u over \mathbb{Q} is $x^3 - 3x - 1$, which has degree 3. Then u is not constructible, $\cos 20^\circ$ is not constructible, and it is impossible to trisect 60° .

- (2): The irreducible polynomial for $\sqrt[3]{2}$ over \mathbb{Q} is $x^3 2$, which has degree 3.
- (3): We have not proved it here, but π is transcendental. Hence $\sqrt{\pi}$ is not constuctible.

1.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 5.1.18. Let p be an odd prime and $k = \mathbb{Z}/p$ the field of order p. Show that there are (p-1)/2 elements $\alpha \in U_p$ such that $\phi_{\alpha} = x^2 - \alpha$ is irreducible. Show that in this case $k[x]/(\phi_{\alpha})$ is a field of order p^2 .

EXERCISE 5.1.19. Let $k = \mathbb{Z}/3$ be the field of order 3. Show that $f = x^2 + 1$ is irreducible over k. Let F = k[x]/(f). Let $u \in F$ be the coset represented by x. Show that u + 1, u - 1, -u + 1, -u - 1 have order 8 in F^* . Show that u and -u have order 4.

EXERCISE 5.1.20. Let $p(x) = x^3 - 3x - 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$. Show that p is irreducible and let $F = \mathbb{Q}[x]/(p)$ be the quotient. Let u denote the element of F corresponding to the coset containing x.

- (1) Exhibit a basis for F as a \mathbb{Q} -vector space.
- (2) Write the following in terms of the basis given in (1): u^{-1} , $u^4 + 2u^3 + 3$, u^{-2} .

EXERCISE 5.1.21. Let F/k be an extension of fields. Prove that F/k is an algebraic extension if and only if for every k-subalgebra R of F, R is a field.

EXERCISE 5.1.22. Let k be a field and F an extension field of k. Suppose α and β are elements of F that are algebraic over k. Using resultants (Section 4.8.2), show that $\alpha + \beta$ and $\alpha\beta$ are algebraic over k. Show how to find the minimal polynomials for $\alpha + \beta$ and $\alpha\beta$.

EXERCISE 5.1.23. Let F/k be an extension of fields and assume $\dim_k F = p$ is prime. Let u be any element of F that is not in k. Prove that F = k(u).

EXERCISE 5.1.24. Let F/k be an extension of fields and assume $\dim_k F = 2$. Let u be an element of F that is not in k and $f = \operatorname{Irr.poly}_k u$. Show that over F, f factors into a product of linear polynomials.

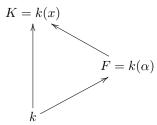
EXERCISE 5.1.25. Suppose K/k is an extension of fields. For i=1,2 let F_i be an intermediate field, $k \subseteq F_i \subseteq K$, such that $[F_i:k]=2$. Prove that F_1 and F_2 are isomorphic as k-algebras if and only if they are equal as sets.

EXERCISE 5.1.26. Let k be a field, $f \in k[x]$ an irreducible polynomial of degree two and K = k[x]/(f). Show that if f has two distinct roots in K, then $\mathrm{Aut}_k K$ is a cyclic group of order two.

EXERCISE 5.1.27. As in Example 5.1.9, let p be a prime, k a field of characteristic $p, \alpha \in k$, and $f = x^p - \alpha \in k[x]$. Show that if f is irreducible and K = k[x]/(f), then Aut_k $K = \langle 1 \rangle$ is the trivial group of order one.

EXERCISE 5.1.28. Let k be a field, x an indeterminate, and K = k(x) the field of rational functions. Let α denote the rational function $x^4/(4x^3-1)$ in K. Then

 $F = k(\alpha)$ is a field extension of k and K is a field extension of F. There is a lattice of subfields



where an arrow denotes set containment. Show that K is algebraic over F. Determine the minimal polynomial of x over F and the dimension $\dim_F(K)$. (Hint: Apply Exercise 3.7.13 to show that $y^4 - \alpha(4y^3 - 1)$ is an irreducible polynomial in K[y].

EXERCISE 5.1.29. Let k be a field, x an indeterminate, and n > 1 an integer. For the extension of fields $F = k(x^n) \subseteq K = k(x)$, prove the following.

- (1) $y^n x$ is an irreducible polynomial in K[y].
- (2) $y^n x^n$ is an irreducible polynomial in F[y].
- (3) $\dim_F(K) = n$.
- (4) Irr. poly_F(x^{n+1}) has degree n. (5) $y^n x^{n+1}$ is an irreducible polynomial in K[y].

EXERCISE 5.1.30. Let k be a field, x an indeterminate, and n > 1 an integer. Let T = k[x], $S = k[x^n, x^{n+1}]$, and $R = k[x^n]$. For the tower of subrings $R \subseteq S \subseteq T$, prove:

- (1) T is free over R of rank n.
- (2) S is free over R of rank n.
- (3) T is not free over S.

(Hint: Exercise 5.1.29.) For a continuation of this example, see Exercise 10.1.22.

EXERCISE 5.1.31. Let R be a unique factorization domain with quotient field K. Assume char(R) \neq 2. Let F/K be a quadratic extension of fields. In other words, assume $\dim_K F = 2$. Show that there exists a square free element $a \in R$ such that $F = K[x]/(x^2 - a) = K(\sqrt{a})$.

2. The Fundamental Theorem of Galois Theory

In this section we present a proof of the Fundamental Theorem of Galois Theory which is due to DeMeyer [17].

Let F/k be an extension of fields. As in Definition 4.1.7, by $Aut_k(F)$ we denote the group of all k-algebra automorphisms of F. If G is a group and H is a subgroup, the index of H in G is denoted [G:H]. The order of G is [G:1].

Definition 5.2.1. Let F/k be an extension of fields and G a finite subgroup of $Aut_k(F)$. If $k = F^G$, then we say F/k is a Galois extension with Galois group G.

Proposition 5.2.2. Let F/k be an extension of fields.

- (1) Let $f \in k[x]$, $\sigma \in \text{Aut}_k(F)$, and $u \in F$. If f(u) = 0, then $f(\sigma(u)) = 0$.
- (2) Assume $u \in F$ is algebraic over k and E = k[u]. If $\sigma \in Aut_k(E)$, then σ is completely determined by $\sigma(u)$.

(3) If H is a subset of $G = Aut_k(F)$, then

$$F^H = \{ v \in F \mid \sigma(v) = v, \, (\forall \sigma \in H) \}$$

is an intermediate field of F/k which is called the fixed field of H.

(4) If $G = Aut_k(F)$ and E is an intermediate field of F/k, then

$$G_E = \{ \sigma \in G \mid \sigma(v) = v, (\forall v \in E) \}$$

is a subgroup of G which is called the subgroup of G fixing E. Note that $G_E = \operatorname{Aut}_E(F)$.

PROOF. (1): If $f = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$, then $f(\sigma(u)) = \sum a_i (\sigma(u))^i = \sum \sigma(a_i u^i) = \sigma(\sum a_i u^i) = \sigma(0) = 0$.

- (2): By Theorem 5.1.3, there is a k-basis for E of the form $1, u, u^2, \ldots, u^{n-1}$ where $n = \dim_k(E)$.
- (3) and (4): Proofs are left to the reader. See Section 2.4.1, especially Definition 2.4.9. $\hfill\Box$

EXAMPLE 5.2.3. Let $\mathbb{F}_2 = \{0,1\}$ be the field of order 2, which is isomorphic to the ring $\mathbb{Z}/2$. Let $p(x) = x^2 + x + 1 \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$. Since p(0) = p(1) = 1, p(x) has no root in \mathbb{F}_2 and is irreducible in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$. Let F be the splitting field of p(x). Then F has order 4. Let α be a root of p(x) in F. Then $\alpha^2 = \alpha + 1$ and by Theorem 5.1.3, $F = \{0, 1, \alpha, \alpha + 1\}$. Let $\phi \in \operatorname{Aut}(F)$. Then $\phi(0) = 0$, $\phi(1) = 1$ and $\phi(\alpha)$ is equal to α or $\alpha + 1$. If $\phi(\alpha) = \alpha$, then ϕ is equal to $1 \in \operatorname{Aut}(F)$, the identity function. By Proposition 5.2.2, ϕ is determined by the value of $\phi(\alpha)$. Therefore, $\operatorname{Aut}(F)$ has order at most 2. We prove that there is an automorphism of order two in $\operatorname{Aut}(F)$. By Exercise 3.2.20, the Frobenius homomorphism $\sigma: F \to F$ defined by $\sigma(\alpha) = \alpha^2$ is a homomorphism. Since F is a finite field, σ is necessarily one-to-one and onto (Exercises 3.2.17 and 1.1.11). Since $\sigma(\alpha) = \alpha^2 = \alpha + 1$, we have shown that $\operatorname{Aut}(F)$ has order two.

LEMMA 5.2.4. Let F be a field with automorphism group $\operatorname{Aut}(F)$. Let G be a finite subset of $\operatorname{Aut}(F)$, and set $k = F^G$. Let E be an intermediate field of F/k and $G_E = G \cap \operatorname{Aut}_E(F)$. Then there exist elements a_1, \ldots, a_n in E and y_1, \ldots, y_n in F such that for each $\sigma \in G$

(2.1)
$$a_1 \sigma(y_1) + \dots + a_n \sigma(y_n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sigma \in G_E \\ 0 & \text{if } \sigma \notin G_E. \end{cases}$$

PROOF. If $G = G_E$, then simply take n = 1, $a_1 = y_1 = 1$. If $G \neq G_E$, pick σ in $G - G_E$ and let $S = G_E \cup \{\sigma\}$. There is an element $a \in E$ such that $\sigma(a) \neq a$. Since F is a field and σ is an automorphism, there is $b \in F$ such that $b(\sigma^{-1}(a) - a) = 1$. Set $a_1 = a$, $a_2 = 1$, $y_1 = -b$, $y_2 = b\sigma^{-1}(a)$. For any $\tau \in G_E$ we have

$$a_1\tau(y_1) + a_2\tau(y_2) = \tau(a_1y_1 + a_2y_2) = \tau(-ab + b\sigma^{-1}(a)) = \tau(1) = 1$$

and for $\sigma \in S - G_E$,

$$a_1\sigma(y_1) + a_2\sigma(y_2) = -a\sigma(b) + \sigma(b\sigma^{-1}(a)) = 0.$$

Now suppose S is a subset of G containing G_E such that there exist a_1, \ldots, a_m in E and y_1, \ldots, y_m in F satisfying (2.1) for all $\sigma \in S$. Also suppose S' is another

subset of G containing G_E such that there exist a'_1, \ldots, a'_n in E and y'_1, \ldots, y'_n in F satisfying (2.1) for all $\sigma' \in S'$. For any $\tau \in S \cup S'$ we get

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_i a'_j \tau(y_i y'_j) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i \tau(y_i)\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} a'_j \tau(y'_j)\right)$$
$$= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \tau \in G_E \\ 0 & \text{if } \tau \notin G_E. \end{cases}$$

The sets of elements $\{a_ia'_j \mid 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$ in E and $\{y_iy'_j \mid 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$ in F satisfy (2.1) for all τ in $S \cup S'$. The proof is complete, by a finite induction argument, since G has a finite covering by the sets $G_E \cup \{\sigma\}$.

LEMMA 5.2.5. Let F be a field and G a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}(F)$. Let $k = F^G$ and let E be an intermediate field of F/k. Let $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_m$ be a set of left coset representatives for G_E in G. If u_1, \ldots, u_m are in F such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_i \sigma_i(x) = 0$$

for all $x \in E$, then each u_i is equal to zero.

PROOF. Fix an integer p such that $1 \leq p \leq m$. By Lemma 5.2.4 applied to the set $\{\sigma_1^{-1}\sigma_p,\ldots,\sigma_m^{-1}\sigma_p\}$, there exist elements a_1,\ldots,a_n in E and elements y_1,\ldots,y_n in F such that for each $1\leq j\leq m$,

$$a_1 \sigma_j^{-1} \sigma_p(y_1) + \dots + a_n \sigma_j^{-1} \sigma_p(y_n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p = j \\ 0 & \text{if } p \neq j. \end{cases}$$

If $u_1\sigma_1(x) + \cdots + u_m\sigma_m(x) = 0$ for all $x \in E$, then

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} u_j \sigma_j(a_i) \right) \sigma_p(y_i)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{m} u_j \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_j(a_i) \sigma_p(y_i) \right)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{m} u_j \sigma_j \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \sigma_j^{-1} \sigma_p(y_i) \right)$$

$$= u_p.$$

LEMMA 5.2.6. If F is a field and G is a finite subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}(F)$, then there exists $c \in F$ such that $\sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(c) = 1$.

PROOF. By Lemma 5.2.5 with E=F, there exists an element $b \in F$ such that $x=\sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(b) \neq 0$. Since x is in $F^G=k$ and k is a field, $x^{-1} \in k$. Take $c=x^{-1}b$. Then

$$\sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(c) = \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(x^{-1}b) = x^{-1} \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(b) = 1.$$

LEMMA 5.2.7. Let F/k be a Galois extension with finite group G. Let E be an intermediate field of F/k and let $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_m$ be a full set of left coset representatives for G_E in G. If $T \in \text{Hom}_k(E, F)$, then there exist unique elements u_1, \ldots, u_m in F such that

$$T(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} u_j \sigma_j(x)$$

for all $x \in E$.

PROOF. By Lemma 5.2.4 there exist a_1, \ldots, a_n in E and y_1, \ldots, y_n in F satisfying

$$a_1\sigma(y_1) + \dots + a_n\sigma(y_n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sigma \in G_E \\ 0 & \text{if } \sigma \notin G_E. \end{cases}$$

By Lemma 5.2.6 there exists $c \in F$ such that $\sum_{\sigma \in G_E} \sigma(c) = 1$. If $x \in E$ and $\sigma \in G_E$, then $\sigma(x) = x$. It follows that

$$x = \sum_{\sigma \in G_E} \sigma(c)\sigma(x)$$

$$= \sum_{\sigma \in G_E} \left(\sigma(c)\sigma(x) \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \sigma(y_i) \right)$$

$$= \sum_{\sigma \in G} \left(\sigma(cx) \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \sigma(y_i) \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{\sigma \in G} a_i \sigma(y_i cx).$$

For any $y \in F$, $\sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(y) \in k$. Applying T,

$$T(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} T\left(a_i \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(y_i cx)\right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} T(a_i) \left(\sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(y_i cx)\right)$$
$$= \sum_{\sigma \in G} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} T(a_i) \sigma(y_i c)\right) \sigma(x).$$

The outer sum can be split over the cosets of G_E in G. Therefore, setting

$$u_j = \sum_{\sigma \in \sigma_j G_E} \sum_{i=1}^n T(a_i) \sigma(y_i c),$$

we have

$$T(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} u_j \sigma_j(x).$$

To prove that the coefficients are unique, assume

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} u_j \sigma_j(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} v_j \sigma_j(x)$$

for all $x \in E$. Then

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} (u_j - v_j)\sigma_j(x) = 0$$

and by Lemma 5.2.5, $u_j - v_j = 0$ for all j.

Theorem 5.2.8. Let F/k be a finite Galois extension with group G. Let E be an intermediate field of F/k. If $\tau: E \to F$ is a k-algebra homomorphism, then τ is the restriction of some $\sigma \in G$. In particular, $\mathrm{Aut}_k(F) = G$.

PROOF. Let $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_m$ be a full set of left coset representatives for G_E in G. By Lemma 5.2.7 there exist u_1, \ldots, u_m such that $\tau(x) = u_1 \sigma_1(x) + \cdots + u_m \sigma_m(x)$ for all $x \in E$. For any $a, b \in E$ we have

$$\tau(ab) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} u_j \sigma_j(a) \sigma_j(b)$$

as well as

$$\tau(ab) = \tau(a)\tau(b) = \tau(a)\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_j \sigma_j(b) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_j \tau(a)\sigma_j(b).$$

Subtracting yields

$$0 = \sum_{j=1}^{m} u_j \left(\sigma_j(a) - \tau(a) \right) \sigma_j(b).$$

The uniqueness part of Lemma 5.2.7 says $u_j(\sigma_j(a) - \tau(a)) = 0$ for all $a \in E$ and for all j. There is at least one j such that $u_j \neq 0$. For that j we have $\tau(a) = \sigma_j(a)$ for all $a \in E$.

THEOREM 5.2.9. Let F be a field, G a subgroup of Aut(F) and $k = F^G$. Then G is finite if and only if $\dim_k(F)$ is finite and in this case the order of G is equal to $\dim_k(F)$.

PROOF. If G is finite, then apply Lemma 5.2.4 to E = F. There are elements $a_1, \ldots, a_n, y_1, \ldots, y_n$ in F such that

(2.2)
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i y_i = 1$$

and

$$(2.3) \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \sigma(y_i) = 0$$

for all $\sigma \neq 1$. Let x be an element of F. Multiply (2.2) by x, multiply (2.3) by $\sigma(x)$, and sum over all σ to get

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i y_i x + \sum_{\sigma \neq 1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \sigma(y_i x)$$
$$= \sum_{\sigma \in G} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \sigma(y_i x) \right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \left(\sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(y_i x) \right).$$

Since $\sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(y_i x) \in k$, it follows that a_1, \ldots, a_n is a spanning set for F as a k-vector space.

Conversely, assume $n = \dim_k(F)$ is finite. By Proposition 5.1.12, $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F, F)$ is an F-vector space of dimension n. By Lemma 5.2.5, with E = F, every finite subset of G is a linearly independent subset of the F-vector space $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F, F)$. This proves $[G:1] \leq n$. By Lemma 5.2.7, the set G is a basis for $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F, F)$ as an F-vector space. This proves [G:1] = n.

Theorem 5.2.10. (The Fundamental Theorem of Galois Theory) Let F/k be a Galois extension of fields with finite group G. There is a one-to-one order inverting correspondence between the subgroups H of G and the intermediate fields E of F/k. A subgroup H corresponds to the fixed field F^H . An intermediate field E corresponds to the subgroup G_E . If E is an intermediate field of F/k, then

- (1) $\dim_E(F) = [G_E : 1], \dim_k(E) = [G : G_E], G_E = \operatorname{Aut}_E(F),$
- (2) F/E is a Galois extension with group G_E , and
- (3) E/k is a Galois extension if and only if G_E is a normal subgroup of G and in this case, $G/G_E \cong Aut_k(E)$.

PROOF. The reader should verify that the correspondences given are well defined and order inverting. Suppose H and K are two subgroups of G such that $F^H = F^K$. Apply Theorem 5.2.8 with $k = F^H = F^K$ and E = F. Then we get $H \subseteq K$ and $K \subseteq H$. Let E be an intermediate field of F/k. Then $E \subseteq F^{G_E}$. We show the reverse inclusion. Let $x \in F^{G_E}$. If $\sigma \in G_E$, then $\sigma(x) = x$. By the first part of the proof of Lemma 5.2.7, there exist a_1, \ldots, a_n in E, y_1, \ldots, y_n in F, and $c \in F$ such that

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(a_i \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(y_i cx) \right),$$

which is in E. The correspondence between subgroups and intermediate fields is one-to-one. If E is an intermediate field, then F is a Galois extension of $E = F^{G_E}$ and (2) follows. By Theorem 5.2.9, $\dim_E(F) = [G_E:1]$. Also $[G:1] = [G:G_E][G_E:1]$ and $\dim_k(F) = \dim_k(E)\dim_E(F)$ says $\dim_k(E) = [G:G_E]$. By Theorem 5.2.8 with k = E and E = F, it follows that $G_E = \operatorname{Aut}_E(F)$ and (1) is done

(3): Assume G_E is a normal subgroup of G. Given $\sigma \in G$, we show that $\sigma|_E \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(E, E)$. If not, there is some $x \in E$ such that $\sigma(x) \notin E$. Since $F^{G_E} = E$, there is $\tau \in G_E$ such that $\tau \sigma(x) \neq \sigma(x)$, which implies $\sigma^{-1} \tau \sigma(x) \neq x$. This contradicts the assumption that $\sigma^{-1} \tau \sigma \in G_E$. Consequently, the restriction map defines a homomorphism of groups $G \to \operatorname{Aut}_k(E)$ with kernel G_E . So G/G_E is isomorphic to a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}_k(E)$. Since $F^G = k$, it follows that $k = E^G = E^{G/G_E}$, so E/k is a Galois extension with group G/G_E . For the converse, assume E is an intermediate field of F/k which is a Galois extension of k with group $\operatorname{Aut}_k(E)$. By Theorem 5.2.8, every $\tau \in \operatorname{Aut}_k(E)$ is the restriction of some element $\sigma \in G$. So there is a subgroup G' of G such that the restriction map $\sigma \mapsto \sigma|_E$ defines a surjective homomorphism $\theta : G' \to \operatorname{Aut}_k(E)$. The kernel of θ contains G_E . Since $[\operatorname{Aut}_k(E) : 1] = [E : k] = [G : G_E]$, a finite counting argument shows that G' = G and G_E is equal to the kernel of θ . Hence G_E is normal in G and $G/G_E \cong \operatorname{Aut}_k(E)$.

COROLLARY 5.2.11. Let F/k be a Galois extension of fields with finite group G, then $n = \dim_k(F) = [G:1]$ and if $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is a k-basis for F and $G = \{\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n\}$, then the matrix $(\sigma_i(v_j))$ in $M_n(F)$ is invertible.

PROOF. This follows from Theorem 5.2.9 and Proposition 5.1.12. \Box

2.1. Exercise.

EXERCISE 5.2.12. Let F/k be a finite dimensional extension of fields with $\dim_k(F) = n$. Prove:

- (1) The order of the group of automorphisms $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$ is less than or equal to n.
- (2) If $\{\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n\}$ is a set of *n* distinct automorphisms in $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$, then F/k is a Galois extension and $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F) = \{\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n\}$.

3. Splitting Fields

DEFINITION 5.3.1. Let k be a field and p a polynomial in k[x] of positive degree. If F/k is an extension of fields, then we say that p splits in F if each irreducible factor of p in F[x] is linear. Equivalently, p factors in F[x] into a product of linear polynomials.

Lemma 5.3.2. Let F be a field. The following are equivalent.

- (1) Every nonconstant polynomial $p \in F[x]$ has a root in F.
- (2) Every nonconstant polynomial $p \in F[x]$ splits in F.
- (3) Every irreducible polynomial $p \in F[x]$ has degree 1.
- (4) If K/F is an algebraic extension of fields, then F = K.
- (5) F contains a subfield k such that F/k is algebraic and every polynomial in k[x] splits in F.

PROOF. (1), (2), and (3) are clearly equivalent.

To show (3) and (4) are equivalent, use Theorem 5.1.3.

- (2) implies (5): Is trivial.
- (5) implies (4): If K/F is algebraic, then by Proposition 5.1.10 (4), K/k is algebraic. If $u \in K$, then the irreducible polynomial of u over k splits in F. Therefore $u \in F$.

DEFINITION 5.3.3. If F is a field that satisfies any of the equivalent statements of Lemma 5.3.2, then we say F is algebraically closed. If F/k is an extension of fields, we say F is an algebraic closure of k in case F is algebraic over k, and F is algebraically closed.

DEFINITION 5.3.4. Let F/k be an extension of fields and p a nonconstant polynomial in k[x]. We say that F is a *splitting field* of p if

- (1) p splits in F, and
- (2) $F = k(u_1, \ldots, u_n)$ where $p(u_i) = 0$ for each i.

If S is a set of polynomials in k[x], then we say F is a splitting field of S if

- (1) every polynomial p in S splits in F, and
- (2) if X is the set of all $u \in F$ such that p(u) = 0 for some $p \in S$, then F = k(X).

The reader should verify that if $S = \{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$ is a finite subset of k[x], then F is a splitting field for S if and only if F is a splitting field for $p_1 \cdots p_n$.

EXAMPLE 5.3.5. Let F/k be an extension of fields and assume $\dim_k F = 2$. Let u be an element of F that is not in k and $f = \text{Irr. poly}_k u$. By Exercises 5.1.23 and 5.1.24, F is a splitting field for f over k.

EXAMPLE 5.3.6. Let $n \geq 2$. In \mathbb{C} , let $\zeta = e^{2\pi i/n}$ (see Exercise 2.3.21). Then ζ is a primitive nth root of unity. That is, $\{\zeta^k \mid 0 \leq k \leq n-1\}$ are the n distinct roots of x^n-1 in \mathbb{C} . Therefore, in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ we have

$$x^{n} - 1 = (x - 1)(x - \zeta)(x - \zeta^{2}) \cdots (x - \zeta^{n-1})$$

is the unique factorization of $x^n - 1$. For each $k, \zeta^k \in \mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$. This shows that $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ is a splitting field for $x^n - 1$ over \mathbb{Q} . The cyclotomic polynomial of degree n - 1 is

$$\phi_n(x) = 1 + x + \dots + x^{n-1} = \frac{x^n - 1}{x - 1}.$$

The distinct roots of ϕ_n in \mathbb{C} are $\zeta, \zeta^2, \ldots, \zeta^{n-1}$. By the same reasoning as above, $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ is a splitting field for ϕ_n over \mathbb{Q} . If p is a prime, then by Example 3.7.8, ϕ_p is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} . By Theorem 5.1.3, $\phi_p = \operatorname{Irr.poly}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\zeta)$, $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta) = \mathbb{Q}[x]/(\phi_p)$, and $\{1, \zeta, \zeta^2, \ldots, \zeta^{p-2}\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ as a \mathbb{Q} -vector space.

Proposition 5.3.7. Let k be a field.

- (1) Let f be a polynomial in k[x] of positive degree n. There exists a splitting field F/k for f such that $\dim_k(F) \leq n!$.
- (2) Let S be a set of polynomials in k[x]. There exists a splitting field F/k for S.
- (3) There exists an algebraic closure Ω/k for k.

PROOF. (1): Factor $f = p_1 \dots p_m$ in k[x] where each p_i is irreducible. If $\deg p_i = 1$ for each i, then take F = k and stop. Otherwise, assume $\deg p_1 > 1$ and by Kronecker's Theorem (Theorem 5.1.8), there is an extension field F_1/k such that $F_1 = k(\alpha)$ and $p_1(\alpha) = 0$. Note that $f(\alpha) = 0$ and $\dim_k(F_1) = \deg p_1 \leq n$. Factor $f = (x - \alpha)g$ in $F_1[x]$. By induction on n, there exists a splitting field F/F_1 for g and $\dim_{F_1}(F) \leq (n-1)!$. So f splits in F and there exist roots u_1, \dots, u_m of f such that $F = F_1(u_1, \dots, u_m) = k(\alpha, u_1, \dots, u_m)$. Lastly, $\dim_k(F) = \dim_k(F_1) \dim_{F_1}(F) \leq n!$

- (2): Assume every element of S has degree greater than one. If not, simply take F=k and stop. The proof is by transfinite induction, Proposition 1.3.2. By the Well Ordering Principle, Axiom 1.2.1, assume S is indexed by a well ordered index set I. For any $\gamma \in I$, let p_{γ} be the corresponding element of S and let $S(\gamma) = \{p_{\alpha} \in S \mid \alpha \leq \gamma\}$. Let p_1 be the first element of S and use Part (1) to construct a splitting field F_1/k for p_1 . Let $\gamma \in I$ and assume $1 < \gamma$. Inductively, assume that we have constructed for each $\alpha < \gamma$ an extension field F_{α}/k that is a splitting field for $S(\alpha)$. Assume moreover that the set $\{F_{\alpha} \mid \alpha < \gamma\}$ is an ascending chain. That is, if $\alpha < \beta < \gamma$, then $F_{\alpha} \subseteq F_{\beta}$. It follows that $E = \bigcup_{\alpha < \gamma} F_{\alpha}$ is an extension field of k and k is a splitting field for k and k is a splitting field for k and k is a splitting field for k and k is a splitting field of k and k is a splitting field for k.
 - (3) Apply Part (2) to the set of all nonconstant polynomials in k[x].

LEMMA 5.3.8. Let $\sigma: k \to K$ be an isomorphism of fields. Let S be a set of polynomials in k[x] and $\sigma(S)$ its image in K[x]. Let F/k be a splitting field for S.

Let L/K be an extension field such that every polynomial in $\sigma(S)$ splits in L. Then σ extends to a homomorphism of k-algebras $\bar{\sigma}: F \to L$. If L is a splitting field for $\sigma(S)$, then $\bar{\sigma}$ is an isomorphism.

PROOF. Step 1: Assume $S = \{f\}$ contains only one polynomial and F is a splitting field for f. If F = k, then take $\bar{\sigma} = \sigma$ and stop. Otherwise, $\dim_k(F) > 1$ and there is an irreducible factor g of f such that $\deg g > 1$. Let α be a root of g in F and β a root of $\sigma(g)$ in L. By Theorem 5.1.4 there is a k-algebra isomorphism $\tau: k(\alpha) \to K(\beta)$ such that $\tau(\alpha) = \beta$. Also, F is a splitting field for f over $k(\alpha)$, and $\dim_{k(\alpha)}(F) < \dim_k(F)$. By induction on $\dim_k(F)$, τ can be extended to a k-algebra homomorphism $\bar{\sigma}: F \to L$. A root of f is mapped under $\bar{\sigma}$ to a root of $\sigma(f)$. Since f splits in F, $\sigma(f)$ splits in $\bar{\sigma}(F)$. By Corollary 3.6.10, $\sigma(f)$ has at most $\deg(f)$ roots in L, and they all belong to $\bar{\sigma}(F)$. If $\lambda \in L$ is a root of $\sigma(f)$, then $\lambda \in \bar{\sigma}(F)$. If L/K is generated by roots of $\sigma(f)$, then $L \subseteq \bar{\sigma}(F)$ and $\bar{\sigma}$ is an isomorphism.

Induction step: Consider the set S of all k-algebra isomorphisms $\tau: E \to M$ where E is an intermediate field of F/k and M is an intermediate field of L/K. Define a partial order on S. If $\tau: E \to M$ and $\tau_1: E_1 \to M_1$ are two members of S, then say $\tau < \tau_1$ in case $E \subseteq E_1$ and τ is equal to the restriction of τ_1 . Since $\sigma: k \to K$ is in S, the set is nonempty. Any chain in S is bounded above by the union. By Zorn's Lemma, Proposition 1.3.3, there is a maximal member, say $\tau: E \to M$. We need to show that E = F. If not, then Step 1 shows how to extend τ , which leads to a contradiction. Also $\tau(F)$ contains every root of every polynomial in $\sigma(S)$, so τ is onto if L is a splitting field of $\sigma(S)$.

COROLLARY 5.3.9. Let k be a field.

- (1) If S is a set of polynomials in k[x], the splitting field of S is unique up to k-algebra isomorphism.
- (2) If Ω is an algebraic closure of k and F/k is an algebraic extension field, then there is a k-algebra homomorphism $F \to \Omega$.
- (3) The algebraic closure of k is unique up to k-algebra isomorphism.

PROOF. (1): Follows straight from Lemma 5.3.8.

- (2): Let X be a set of algebraic elements of F such that F = k(X). For each $\alpha \in X$, let $\operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(\alpha)$ denote the irreducible polynomial of α over k. Let $S = \{\operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(\alpha) \mid \alpha \in X\}$. By Proposition 5.3.7, let E/F be a splitting field for S over F. The set of all roots of elements of S contains X as well as a generating set for E over F. Therefore E/k is a splitting field for S over k. By Lemma 5.3.8, there is a k-algebra homomorphism $\tau : E \to \Omega$. The restriction, $\tau|_F : F \to \Omega$ is the desired k-algebra homomorphism.
- (3): Let Ω' be another algebraic closure. Applying Part (2), there exists a homomorphism $\theta: \Omega' \to \Omega$. By Lemma 5.3.8, θ is an isomorphism.

DEFINITION 5.3.10. Let F/k be an algebraic extension of fields. We say F/k is a *normal* extension if every irreducible polynomial over k that has a root in F actually splits over F.

Theorem 5.3.11. If F/k is an algebraic extension of fields, then the following are equivalent.

- (1) F/k is a normal extension.
- (2) F is the splitting field over k of a set of polynomials in k[x].

(3) If Ω is an algebraic closure of k containing F, then any k-algebra homomorphism $\theta: F \to \Omega$, maps F to F, hence θ restricts to a k-automorphism of F.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): If B is a basis for F/k, then F is the splitting field of the set of polynomials {Irr. poly_k(β) | $\beta \in B$ } over k.

- (2) implies (3): Suppose S is a set of polynomials in k[x] and F is the splitting field for S over k. Let Ω be an algebraic closure for k containing F and $\theta: F \to \Omega$ a k-algebra homomorphism. Suppose $f \in S$ and that α is a root of f in Ω . Then $\theta(\alpha) = \beta$ is another root of f in Ω . But F contains every root of f. Moreover, F is generated by roots of polynomials in S. Therefore, θ maps F onto F.
- (3) implies (1): Suppose f is an irreducible polynomial in k[x]. Let $\alpha \in F$ be a root of f. In Ω , let β be any other root of f. We show that β is in F. By Corollary 5.1.5 there is a k-algebra isomorphism $\theta: k(\alpha) \to k(\beta)$. By Lemma 5.3.8, θ extends to an isomorphism $\bar{\theta}: \Omega \to \Omega$. By assumption, the restriction of $\bar{\theta}$ to F maps F to F. This proves that $\beta \in F$.

DEFINITION 5.3.12. Suppose F/k is an algebraic extension of fields. Let B be a basis for F/k, and K the splitting field of $\{\text{Irr.poly}_k(\beta) \mid \beta \in B\}$ over F. The reader should verify that K/k is a normal extension of k containing F. We call K the normal closure of F over k.

Example 5.3.13. This is an example of a Galois extension of $\mathbb Q$ with abelian Galois group of order 8. Let a be a positive odd integer and $f=x^8+a^4$. By Exercise 3.7.18, f is irreducible over $\mathbb Q$. Let ζ be the complex number $e^{2\pi i/16}$. Then $\zeta^8=-1$. Let α be the positive real number such that $\alpha^2=a$. For any integer k, $f(\zeta^{2k+1}\alpha)=\zeta^8\zeta^{16k}\alpha^8+a^4=0$. Therefore the eight roots of f in $\mathbb C$ are $S=\{\zeta^{2k+1}\alpha\mid 0\le k\le 7\}$. By Theorem 5.1.3, the set $\{1,\zeta\alpha,\zeta^2\alpha^2,\ldots,\zeta^7\alpha^7\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb Q(\zeta\alpha)$ as a $\mathbb Q$ -vector space. Since $(\zeta\alpha)^{2k+1}=\zeta^{2k+1}a^k\alpha$, we see that $S\subseteq \mathbb Q(\zeta\alpha)$. Hence $\mathbb Q(\zeta\alpha)$ is a splitting field for f. By Corollary 5.1.5 applied to $\zeta\alpha$ and $\zeta^3\alpha$, there is an automorphism $\tau\in \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb Q}(\mathbb Q(\zeta\alpha))$ such that $\tau(\zeta\alpha)=\zeta^3\alpha$. Since $\zeta^2\alpha^2=\zeta^2a$, it follows that $\zeta^2\in\mathbb Q(\zeta\alpha)$. We have $\tau(\zeta^2)=\tau((\zeta\alpha)^2a^{-1})=\tau(\zeta\alpha)^2a^{-1}=(\zeta^6a)a^{-1}=\zeta^6$. Using this it is now possible to compute the action of τ on S: $\tau(\zeta\alpha)=\zeta^3\alpha$, $\tau(\zeta^3\alpha)=-\zeta\alpha$, $\tau(-\zeta\alpha)=-\zeta^3\alpha$, $\tau(-\zeta\alpha)=\zeta\alpha$, $\tau(-\zeta\alpha)=-\zeta\alpha$, $\tau(-\zeta\alpha)=-\zeta\alpha$. So τ has two disjoint orbits, each of length four. Fix this ordering of the 8 elements of S:

(3.1)
$$S = \{ \zeta \alpha, \zeta^3 \alpha, -\zeta \alpha, -\zeta^3 \alpha, \zeta^7 \alpha, \zeta^5 \alpha, -\zeta^7 \alpha, -\zeta^5 \alpha \}.$$

Then τ has the cycle representation $\tau=(1234)(5678)$ (see Example 2.1.14). Let $\chi:\mathbb{C}\to\mathbb{C}$ be complex conjugation (see Example 5.1.7). Then χ restricts to a permutation of S, hence defines an automorphism of $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta\alpha)$. Based on the ordering of S in (3.1), $\chi=(17)(28)(35)(46)$ is the disjoint cycle representation of χ . By direct computation, we see that $\tau\chi=(1836)(2547)=\chi\tau$. By Exercise 2.5.19, τ and χ generate an abelian group, call it G, isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/4\oplus\mathbb{Z}/2$. Since $\dim_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta\alpha))=8=[G:1]$, by Exercise 5.2.12, $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta\alpha)$ is Galois over \mathbb{Q} and the Galois group is $G=\langle \tau,\chi\rangle$. This also shows $G=\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta\alpha))$.

EXAMPLE 5.3.14. This is a generalization of Example 5.3.13. In this example we construct a Galois extension over \mathbb{Q} such that the Galois group is isomorphic to the group of units in $\mathbb{Z}/(2^{n+1})$. As in Example 2.1.3, the set of invertible elements in the ring $\mathbb{Z}/(2^{n+1})$ is denoted $U_{2^{n+1}}$ and the order of this group is 2^n . Let a be

a positive odd integer and $n \ge 2$. Let $f = x^{2^n} + a^{2^{n-1}}$. When n = 3, this example agrees with Example 5.3.13. By Exercise 3.7.18, f is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} . Let ζ be the complex number $e^{2\pi i/2^{n+1}}$, a primitive 2^{n+1} th root of unity. Then $\zeta^{2^{n+1}} = 1$ and $\zeta^{2^n} = -1$. Let α be the positive real number such that $\alpha^2 = a$. For any integer k,

$$f(\zeta^{2k-1}\alpha) = (\zeta^{2k-1}\alpha)^{2^n} + a^{2^{n-1}} = \zeta^{-2^n}(\zeta^{2^{n+1}})^k\alpha^{2^n} + a^{2^{n-1}} = -a^{2^{n-1}} + a^{2^{n-1}} = 0.$$

Therefore the 2^n roots of f in \mathbb{C} are

$$S = \{\zeta^{2k-1}\alpha \mid 1 \le k \le 2^n\} = \{\zeta\alpha, \zeta^3\alpha, \dots, \zeta^{2^{n+1}-1}\alpha\}.$$

By Theorem 5.1.3, the set

$$\{(\zeta \alpha)^j \mid 0 \le j < 2^n\} = \{1, \zeta \alpha, (\zeta \alpha)^2, \dots, (\zeta \alpha)^{2^n - 1}\}$$

is a basis for $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta\alpha)$ as a \mathbb{Q} -vector space. Since $(\zeta\alpha)^{2k+1} = \zeta^{2k+1}a^k\alpha$, we see that $S \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\zeta\alpha)$. Hence $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta\alpha)$ is a splitting field for f. Let t be an arbitrary odd integer. By Corollary 5.1.5 applied to $\zeta\alpha$ and $\zeta^t\alpha$, there is an automorphism $\tau_t \in \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta\alpha))$ such that $\tau_t(\zeta\alpha) = \zeta^t\alpha$. Let s be another odd integer. Since ζ is a primitive 2^{n+1} th root of unity, Proposition 5.2.2(2) implies that $\tau_t = \tau_s$ if and only if $s \equiv t \pmod{2^{n+1}}$. Since $\zeta^2\alpha^2 = \zeta^2a$, it follows that $\zeta^2 \in \mathbb{Q}(\zeta\alpha)$. We have

$$\tau_t(\zeta^2) = \tau_t((\zeta\alpha)^2 a^{-1}) = \tau_t(\zeta\alpha)^2 a^{-1} = (\zeta^t \alpha)^2 a^{-1} = (\zeta^2 a) a^{-1} = \zeta^2 a^{-1}.$$

Using this, we see that

$$\tau_t(\zeta^{2k+1}\alpha) = \tau_t((\zeta^2)^k \zeta\alpha) = (\zeta^{2t})^k (\zeta^t \alpha) = (\zeta^{2k+1})^t \alpha$$

and

$$\tau_s \tau_t(\zeta \alpha) = \tau_s(\zeta^t \alpha) = \zeta^{ts} \alpha = \tau_{ts}(\zeta \alpha).$$

Let σ denote an arbitrary automorphism in $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta\alpha))$. Then Proposition 5.2.2(1) implies $\sigma(\zeta\alpha) = \zeta^t\alpha$ for a unique $t \in \{1, 3, \dots, 2^{n+1} - 1\}$. By Proposition 5.2.2(2), σ is equal to τ_t . The computations above show that the assignment $\theta(t) = \tau_t$ defines an isomorphism of groups $\theta: U_{2^{n+1}} \to \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta\alpha))$. Since $\dim_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta\alpha)) = 2^n$, Exercise 5.2.12 implies $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta\alpha)$ is Galois over \mathbb{Q} and the Galois group is isomorphic to $U_{2^{n+1}}$. See Theorem 5.8.5 for a related result concerning cyclotomic extensions.

3.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 5.3.15. Show that over \mathbb{Q} the polynomials x^2+1 , x^4+4 , x^2+2x+2 , and x^2-2x+2 all have the same splitting field.

EXERCISE 5.3.16. Consider the polynomial $f = x^4 + a^2$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, where a is an odd number. Determine the following.

- (1) The splitting field of f over \mathbb{Q} . Call this field K.
- (2) The Galois group $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(K)$.
- (3) The lattice of intermediate fields of K/\mathbb{Q} . Determine which intermediate fields are normal over \mathbb{Q} .

EXERCISE 5.3.17. Let $\alpha = \sqrt[3]{2}$ be the cube root of 2 in \mathbb{R} and $\zeta = e^{2\pi i/3}$ a primitive cube root of 1 in \mathbb{C} .

- (1) Show that the splitting field for $f = x^3 2$ over \mathbb{Q} is $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta, \alpha)$.
- (2) Show that $\dim_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}(\zeta, \alpha) = 6$.
- (3) Show that $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta,\alpha))$ is a nonabelian group of order 6 and that $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta,\alpha)$ is a Galois extension of \mathbb{Q} .

- (4) Show that $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta, \alpha)$ is equal to the composite field EF where E and F are any two fields from this list: $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$, $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$, $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta^2\alpha)$.
- (5) Show that $\operatorname{Irr.poly}_{\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)}(\alpha)$ has degree 3. Show that $\operatorname{Irr.poly}_{\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)}(\zeta\alpha)$ has degree 3. Show that $\operatorname{Irr.poly}_{\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)}(\zeta^2\alpha)$ has degree 3.
- (6) Show that $\operatorname{Irr.poly}_{\mathbb{Q}(\zeta^{\alpha})}(\alpha)$ has degree 2. Show that $\operatorname{Irr.poly}_{\mathbb{Q}(\zeta^{2}\alpha)}(\alpha)$ has degree 2.

EXERCISE 5.3.18. Let D be a division ring with center k = Z(D). Prove the following.

- (1) k is a field.
- (2) If k is algebraically closed and $\dim_k(D)$ is finite, then k=D.

4. Separable Extensions

DEFINITION 5.4.1. Let k be a field and Ω the algebraic closure of k. Let $f \in k[x]$. We say f is separable in case for every irreducible factor p of f, every root of p in Ω is a simple root. If F/k is a extension of fields, then we say F/k is separable if every $u \in F$ is the root of a separable polynomial in k[x]. If $u \in F$ is the root of a separable polynomial in k[x], then we say u is separable. A separable extension is an algebraic extension. If char k=0, then by Theorem 3.6.18, every polynomial $f \in k[x]$ is separable.

Theorem 5.4.2. Let F/k be a finite dimensional extension of fields. The following are equivalent.

- (1) F/k is a Galois extension.
- (2) F/k is separable and F is the splitting field over k of a set of polynomials in k[x].
- (3) F is the splitting field over k of a set of separable polynomials in k[x].
- (4) F/k is normal and separable.

PROOF. (2) is equivalent to (4): follows from Theorem 5.3.11.

- (2) implies (3): Suppose F/k is the splitting field of the set $S \subseteq k[x]$. Let T be the set of irreducible factors of all polynomials in S. Given $f \in T$, let $u \in F$ be a root of f. Then $f = \operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(u)$. Since F/k is separable, u is the root of a separable polynomial $g \in k[x]$. In this case f divides g, so f is also separable.
- (1) implies (4): If f is a monic irreducible polynomial in k[x] and $\alpha \in F$ is a root of f, then by Theorem 5.1.3, $f = \operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(\alpha)$. Let $u \in F k$. It is enough to prove that $\operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(u)$ is separable and splits over F. Let $G = \operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$ and $G_u = \{\sigma \in G \mid \sigma(u) = u\}$ the subgroup fixing u. If $U = \{\sigma(u) \mid \sigma \in G\}$ is the orbit of u under the action of G, then U has length $m = [G : G_u]$ and G acts as a group of permutations on U [18, Proposition 4.1.2]. Let $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_m$ be a full set of left coset representatives for G_u in G. Then the orbit of u is equal to $U = \{\sigma_1(u), \ldots, \sigma_m(u)\}$. Consider the polynomial

$$\phi = \prod_{i=1}^{m} (x - \sigma_i(u))$$

in F[x]. By Theorem 3.6.3, we can view G as a group of automorphisms of F[x] such that the stabilizer is $F[x]^G = F^G[x] = k[x]$. Since ϕ is fixed by each $\sigma \in G$, it follows that ϕ is in k[x]. Since $\phi(u) = 0$, Theorem 5.1.3 says Irr. poly_k(u) divides ϕ . Since ϕ splits over F, so does Irr. poly_k(u). By construction, ϕ is a separable polynomial in k[x], hence so is Irr. poly_k(u).

(3) implies (1): Suppose F is the splitting field for a set S of separable polynomials over k. Proceed by induction on $n=\dim_k(F)$. If n=1, there is nothing to prove. Otherwise, let g be a monic irreducible factor of one of the polynomials in S and assume $\deg g=d>1$. Since g is separable and splits in F, there are d distinct roots α_1,\ldots,α_d in F and $g=(x-\alpha_1)\cdots(x-\alpha_d)$. Now $k(\alpha_1)$ is an intermediate field of F/k and F is a splitting field of a set of separable polynomials over $k(\alpha_1)$. By induction, we can assume $F/k(\alpha_1)$ is a Galois extension with group H and $[H:1]=\dim_{k(\alpha_1)}(F)$. By Corollary 5.1.5, for each i, there is a k-algebra isomorphism $\sigma_i:k(\alpha_1)\to k(\alpha_i)$. By Lemma 5.3.8 each σ_i extends to an automorphism $\bar{\sigma}_i\in \operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$. Since H is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$, consider the cosets $\bar{\sigma}_iH$. By construction, $\bar{\sigma}_iH\cap\bar{\sigma}_jH=\emptyset$ if $i\neq j$. Therefore, the set $\bar{\sigma}_1H\cup\cdots\cup\bar{\sigma}_d$ has exactly d[H:1] elements. Notice that this is equal to $\dim_k(k(\alpha_1))\dim_{k(\alpha_1)}(F)=\dim_k(F)$. Let G be the subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$ generated by $\bar{\sigma}_1H\cup\cdots\cup\bar{\sigma}_dH$. We have shown $[G:1]\geq \dim_k(F)$. By Theorem 5.2.9, $\dim_{F^G}(F)=[G:1]$. This shows $k=F^G$.

COROLLARY 5.4.3. (Embedding Theorem for Fields) Let F/k be a finite dimensional extension of fields. If F/k is separable, then there exists a finite dimensional Galois extension K/k which contains F as an intermediate field.

PROOF. Pick a finite set of separable elements u_1, \ldots, u_n that generate F/k. If $f_i = \operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(u_i)$, then f_i is separable over k. Let K be the splitting field for $f_1 \cdots f_n$ over k. So K contains a generating set for F, hence F is an intermediate field of K/k. By Theorem 5.4.2, K/k is a Galois extension.

COROLLARY 5.4.4. Let k be a field, f an irreducible separable polynomial in k[x], and F a splitting field for f over k. If $n = \deg(f)$, then the following are true:

- (1) F/k is a Galois extension with group $G = \operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$.
- (2) G acts as a group of permutations of the roots $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ of f.
- (3) G is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_n , the symmetric group on n letters.

PROOF. By Theorem 5.4.2, F/k is Galois. By Exercise 5.4.10, G acts on the roots of f. There is a homomorphism $\theta: G \to S_n$. Since $F = k(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$, if two automorphisms define the same permutation of $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$, they define the same automorphism of F. This proves θ is one-to-one.

EXAMPLE 5.4.5. This is an example of a Galois extension of \mathbb{Q} with Galois group the full symmetric group S_p . Let p be a prime number and $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ an irrreducible polynomial of degree p such that f has exactly two nonreal roots. In this example we show that the Galois group of f is isomorphic to S_p , the symmetric group on p letters. Let F be the splitting field for f in \mathbb{C} . By Theorem 5.4.2, F is Galois over \mathbb{Q} . Let a and b be the nonreal roots of f. If p=2, then $F=\mathbb{Q}(a)$ has degree two over \mathbb{Q} and $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(F)$ has order two hence is isomorphic to S_2 . Assume p>2 and let c be a real root of f. Then $\dim_{\mathbb{Q}}\mathbb{Q}(c)=p$ and by Theorem 5.2.10, p divides the order of $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(F)$. By Cauchy's Theorem (Corollary 2.4.14), $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(F)$ contains an element σ of order p. By Proposition 5.2.2 we know that $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(F)$ is a group of permutations of the roots of f. By Corollary 2.6.4 we know that σ is a p-cycle and can be written in the form $\sigma=(s_1s_2\cdots s_p)$. For some i and j we have $a=s_i$ and $b=s_j$. Then $\sigma^{j-i}(s_i)=s_j$. Therefore, we can write σ^{j-i} in the cycle form $(abt_3\cdots t_p)$. Let χ be the automorphism of $\mathbb C$ defined by complex conjugation (Example 5.1.7). Then χ maps F to F. Also, $\chi(a)=b$ and χ fixes every real root

of f. So χ corresponds to the transposition $\chi=(ab)$. By Exercise 2.6.16, the group S_p is generated by the transposition (12) and the p-cycle $(123\cdots p)$. Therefore, $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(F)$ is generated by χ and σ^{j-i} , hence is isomorphic to S_p .

PROPOSITION 5.4.6. Let R be an integral domain. Let n > 1 be an integer. The group of nth roots of unity in R, $\mu_n = \{u \in R \mid u^n = 1\}$, is a cyclic group of order at most n.

PROOF. The set μ_n is clearly a subgroup of R^* . The order of μ_n is at most n, by Corollary 3.6.10. Using the Invariant Factor form of the Basis Theorem for finite abelian groups, Theorem 4.3.15, the finite abelian group μ_n decomposes into cyclic subgroups $\mu_n = \mathbb{Z}/m_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}/m_{\nu}$, where $1 < m_1, m_1 \mid m_2, \ldots, m_{\nu-1} \mid m_{\nu}$. Let q be a prime divisor of m_1 . The subgroup of μ_n annihilated by q is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/q \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}/q$, and has order q^{ν} . The polynomial $x^q - 1$ has at most q solutions in R, by Corollary 3.6.10. This means $\nu = 1$.

Theorem 5.4.7. (The Primitive Element Theorem) Let F/k be a finite dimensional extension of fields. If

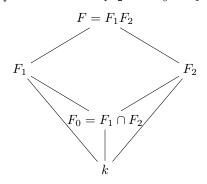
- (1) k is infinite and F/k is separable, or
- (2) k is finite,

then there is a separable element $u \in F$ such that F = k(u).

PROOF. (1): By Corollary 5.4.3, let L/k be a finite Galois extension containing F as an intermediate field. By Theorem 5.2.10, there are only finitely many intermediate fields of L/k. That means there are only finitely many intermediate fields of F/k. Choose $u \in F$ such that $\dim_k(k(u))$ is maximal. For contradiction's sake, assume $k(u) \neq F$. Let $v \in F - k(u)$. Consider the set of intermediate fields $S = \{k(u+av) \mid a \in k\}$. Since k is infinite and the set S is finite, there exist $a,b \in k$ such that $a \neq b$ and k(u+av) = k(u+bv). Then $(u+av) - (u+bv) = (a-b)v \in k(u+av)$, and since $(a-b)^{-1} \in k$, $v \in k(u+av)$. In this case, $u \in k(u+av)$ so $k(u,v) \subseteq k(u+av)$. Since k(u,v) is a proper extension of k(u), this shows that the simple extension k(u+av) is a proper extension of k(u). This contradicts the choice of u.

(2): If F has order q, and F^* denotes the group of units of F, then F^* has order q-1. Every element u of F^* satisfies $u^{q-1}=1$. By Proposition 5.4.6 the group F^* is cyclic. There exists $u \in F^*$ such that $F^* = \{1, u, \ldots, u^{q-2}\}$. The polynomial $x^{q-1}-1$ splits in F[x] and has q-1 roots in F.

Theorem 5.4.8. Let K/k be a finite dimensional extension of fields. Let F_1 and F_2 be intermediate fields. Set $F = F_1F_2$ and $F_0 = F_1 \cap F_2$.



If F_1 is a Galois extension of k, then F is a Galois extension of F_2 and there is an isomorphism of groups $\operatorname{Aut}_{F_2}(F) \cong \operatorname{Aut}_{F_0}(F_1)$ defined by the assignment $\phi \mapsto \phi|_{F_1}$.

PROOF. By Theorem 5.4.7, $F_1 = k(u)$ is a simple extension. Let $f = \operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(u)$. By Theorem 5.1.11, $F = F_2(u)$. Let $g = \operatorname{Irr.poly}_{F_2}(u)$. Theorem 5.1.3 implies g divides f. Then every root of g is in F, hence F is a splitting field for g. By Theorem 5.4.2, F/F_2 is a Galois extension. If $\phi \in \operatorname{Aut}_{F_2} F$, then ϕ is completely determined by the value of $\phi(u)$. But $\phi(u)$ is a root of f. Since F_1 is a splitting field for f, $\phi(F_1) \subseteq F_1$. Since ϕ fixes F_2 point-wise, ϕ fixes F_2 point-wise. Therefore, θ : $\operatorname{Aut}_{F_2}(F) \to \operatorname{Aut}_k(F_1)$ is a homomorphism of groups. If ϕ fixes F_1 point-wise, then $\phi(u) = u$ and ϕ is the identity function on F. This proves θ is one-to-one. Using θ , we identify $\operatorname{Aut}_{F_2}(F)$ with a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}_k F_1$. Let $E = F_1^{\operatorname{Aut}_{F_2}(F)}$. By Theorem 5.2.10, F_1/E is a Galois extension and $\dim_E(F_1) = |\operatorname{Aut}_{F_2}(F)| = \dim_{F_2}(F)$. Since $F_1 \subseteq F$, we have $E \subseteq F^{\operatorname{Aut}_{F_2}(F)} = F_2$. Since $\dim_{F_2}(F) = \dim_{E}(F_1)$, Proposition 4.2.39 implies that $\dim_E(F) = \dim_E(F_1) \dim_E(F_2)$. By Theorem 5.1.11 (5), we have $E = F_1 \cap F_2$, which completes the proof.

As an application, we show that for a Galois extension F/k, if f is an irreducible separable polynomial in k[x], then the irreducible factors of f in F[x] all have the same degree.

COROLLARY 5.4.9. Let F/k be a Galois extension of fields and f an irreducible separable polynomial in k[x]. If the unique factorization of f in F[x] is $f = f_1 \cdots f_m$, then $\deg f_1 = \deg f_2 = \cdots = \deg f_m$.

PROOF. We prove this in two steps.

Step 1: Suppose K/k is a Galois extension of fields with group G. Assume f splits in K[x]. Let N be a normal subgroup of G and assume $F = K^N$. We prove that the irreducible factors of f in F[x] all have the same degree. Let $X = \{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$ be the roots of f in K. If L = k(X) is the splitting field for f in K, then L/k is Galois by Theorem 5.4.2. By Exercise 5.4.10, $\operatorname{Aut}_k(L)$ acts transitively on X. By Theorem 5.2.10, $\operatorname{Aut}_k(L)$ is a homomorphic image of G, hence G acts transitively on X. Let a, b be two arbitrary elements of X. Let $\tau \in G$ such that $\tau(a) = b$. Since N is normal, $\tau N = N\tau$. Therefore $\tau Na = N\tau a = Nb$. This shows the orbit containing a is in one-to-one correspondence with the orbit containing b. Let O_1, \ldots, O_m be the orbits of N acting on X. Then $|O_1| = \cdots = |O_m|$. For each $1 \leq i \leq m$, set $f_i = \prod_{a \in O_i} (x - a)$. We have

$$f = \prod_{a \in X} (x - a)$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{m} \prod_{a \in O_i} (x - a)$$
$$= f_1 \cdots f_m.$$

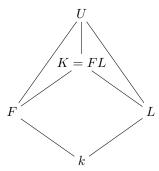
Since deg $f_i = |O_i|$, all of the f_i have the same degree. Now we prove that each f_i is in F[x]. If $\tau \in N$, then $\tau O_i = O_i$, hence

$$\tau(f_i) = \prod_{a \in O_i} (x - \tau(a)) = \prod_{a \in O_i} (x - a) = f_i$$

so the coefficients of f_i are fixed by N. Hence $f_i \in F[x]$. Now we prove that each f_i is irreducible in F[x]. Fix one element of O_i , say a_i . If $p_i = \text{Irr. poly}_F(a_i)$, then by

Theorem 5.1.3 we have $p_i \mid f_i$. For each $\tau \in N$, $p_i(\tau a_i) = \tau(p_i(a_i)) = 0$ shows that every element of O_i is a root of p_i . Therefore, $\deg p_i \geq \deg f_i$. This proves $f_i = p_i$ and in particular, f_i is irreducible over F. We have proved that $f = f_1 \cdots f_m$ is the factorization of f into irreducibles in the ring F[x] and all of the factors f_i have the same degree.

Step 2. In the context of the proposition, assume F/k is a Galois extension. Let U/F be a splitting field for f over F. Let $X = \{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$ be the roots of f in U. Let L = k(X) be the splitting field for f over k in U. Then L/k is Galois by Theorem 5.4.2.



By Exercise 5.4.11, K = FL is a Galois extension of k containing F and L. By Theorem 5.2.10, Step 2 reduces to Step 1.

4.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 5.4.10. Let $f \in k[x]$ be an irreducible separable polynomial of degree n over the field k. Let F/k be the splitting field for f over k and let $G = \operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$ be the Galois group. We call G the Galois group of f. Prove the following.

- (1) G acts transitively on the roots of f. That is, given two roots α, β of f, there is $\sigma \in G$ such that $\sigma(\alpha) = \beta$. (Hint: apply Theorem 5.1.4 and Lemma 5.3.8.)
- (2) n divides [G:1].

EXERCISE 5.4.11. In the context of Theorem 5.4.8, let K/k be a finite dimensional extension of fields with intermediate fields F_1 and F_2 . If F_1 and F_2 are both Galois extensions of k, prove the following:

- (1) F is a Galois extension of k.
- (2) If $F_1 \cap F_2 = k$, then $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F) \cong \operatorname{Aut}_{F_1}(F) \times \operatorname{Aut}_{F_2}(F)$.

EXERCISE 5.4.12. Let F/k be an extension of fields where char k = p > 0. Let $\alpha \in F$. Prove that α is separable over k if and only if $k(\alpha) = k(\alpha^p)$.

5. Finite Fields

A finite field has positive characteristic and is finite dimensional over its prime subfield.

LEMMA 5.5.1. Let F be a field and assume char F=p is positive. For any r>0, the mapping $\varphi:F\to F$ defined by $x\mapsto x^{p^r}$ is a homomorphism of fields. If F is finite, then φ is an automorphism of F. If r=1, then φ is called the Frobenius homomorphism.

PROOF. The reader should verify that φ is additive and multiplicative. Since F is a field, φ is one-to-one.

LEMMA 5.5.2. For each prime number p and for every $n \ge 1$, there exists a field F of order p^n .

PROOF. Let k denote the field \mathbb{Z}/p . Let $f = x^{p^n} - x \in k[x]$. Let F be the splitting field of f over k. Since f' = -1, by Theorem 3.6.18, f has no multiple roots in F. Therefore, f is separable and there are p^n distinct roots of f in F. Let $\varphi: F \to F$ be the automorphism of F defined by $x \mapsto x^{p^n}$. If $u \in F$ is a root of f, then $\varphi(u) = u$. By Exercise 3.2.37, the prime field k is fixed by φ . Since F is generated over k by roots of f, F is fixed point-wise by φ . Every f in F is a root of f, and f has order f.

Theorem 5.5.3. Let F be a finite field with char F=p. Let k be the prime subfield of F and $n=\dim_k(F)$.

- (1) The group of units of F is a cyclic group.
- (2) F = k(u) is a simple extension, for some $u \in F$.
- (3) The order of F is p^n .
- (4) F is the splitting field for the separable polynomial $x^{p^n} x$ over k.
- (5) Any two finite fields of order p^n are isomorphic as fields.
- (6) F/k is a Galois extension.
- (7) The Galois group $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$ is cyclic of order n and is generated by the Frobenius homomorphism $\varphi: F \to F$ defined by $\varphi(x) = x^p$.
- (8) If d is a positive divisor of n, then $E = \{u \in F \mid u^{p^d} = u\}$ is an intermediate field of F/k which satisfies the following.
 - (a) $\dim_E(F) = n/d$, and $\dim_k(E) = d$.
 - (b) If φ is the generator for $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$, then $\operatorname{Aut}_E(F)$ is the cyclic subgroup generated by φ^d .
 - (c) E/k is Galois and $\operatorname{Aut}_k(E)$ is the cyclic group of order d generated by the restriction $\varphi|_E$.
- (9) If E is an intermediate field of F/k, and $d = \dim_k(E)$, then d divides n and E is the field described in Part (8).

PROOF. (1): This was proved in Theorem 5.4.7 (2).

- (2): Take u to be a generator for U(F).
- (3): As a k-vector space, F is isomorphic to k^n .
- (4), (5) and (6): By Theorem 5.4.7, the group of units of F is cyclic of order $p^n 1$. The polynomial $x^{p^n} x = x(x^{p^n-1} 1)$ has p^n roots in F and they are all simple. Therefore F is the splitting field for the separable polynomial $x^{p^n} x$ over k. The rest follows from Corollary 5.3.9 and Theorem 5.4.2.
- (7): Let $\varphi: F \to F$ be the Frobenius homomorphism, $\varphi(x) = x^p$. For all $i \geq 1$, $\varphi^i(x) = x^{p^i}$. Let G_i denote the subgroup generated by φ^i and let $F_i = F^{G_i}$ be the fixed field of φ^i . Then $F^{G_i} = \{u \in F \mid x^{p^i} x = 0\}$ is equal to the set of roots in F of the polynomial $x^{p^i} x$. For $1 \leq i \leq n$ the order of the subfield F^{G_i} is less than or equal to p^i . The field F is equal to F^{G_n} and the order of φ is n.
 - (8) and (9): The proof follows straight from Theorem 5.2.10 and Part (7). \Box
- **5.1. Irreducible Polynomials.** Throughout this section, p will be a fixed prime number and $\mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p$ is the prime field of order p.

Theorem 5.5.4. The factorization of the polynomial $x^{p^n} - x$ in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$ into irreducible factors is equal to the product of all the monic irreducible polynomials of degree d where d runs through all divisors of n.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.
$$\Box$$

THEOREM 5.5.5. Let $\psi(n)$ denote the number of distinct monic irreducible polynomials of degree n in \mathbb{F}_p .

(1) If
$$\mu$$
 is the Möbius function, then $\psi(n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) p^{n/d} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{d|n} \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) p^d$.

$$(2) \ \psi(n) > \frac{p^n}{2n}.$$

PROOF. (1): By Theorem 5.5.4, $p^n=\sum_{d|n}d\psi(d)$. Now apply the Möbius Inversion Formula (Theorem 1.2.16).

(2): The reader should verify the identities:

$$n\psi(n) = p^n + \sum_{d|n,d < n} \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) p^d$$

$$\geq p^n - \sum_{d|n,d < n} p^d$$

$$\geq p^n - \sum_{1 \le d \le n/2} p^d$$

$$\geq p^n - p^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1}$$

where $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ is the greatest integer less than n/2. If n > 2, then $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1 \le n-1$, so

$$\psi(n) > \frac{1}{n} \left(p^n - p^{n-1} \right) = \frac{p^n}{n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p} \right) \ge \frac{p^n}{2n}.$$

If n=2, the formula can be derived from $\psi(2)=(1/2)(p^2-p)$.

5.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 5.5.6. Let K be a finite field of order p^d . As in Theorem 5.5.5, let $\psi(n)$ be the number of irreducible monic polynomials of degree n in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$. If $d \mid n$, show that there are at least $\psi(n)$ irreducible monic polynomials of degree n/d in K[x].

EXERCISE 5.5.7. Let k be a finite field and K/k a finite dimensional extension of fields, with $\dim_k K = d$. Let n be an arbitrary positive integer and $A = K \oplus \cdots \oplus K$ the direct sum of n copies of K.

- (1) Show that if there exists a surjective k-algebra homomorphism $f: k[x] \to A$, then there exist at least n distinct irreducible monic polynomials in k[x] of degree d.
- (2) Find an example of k and A such that the k-algebra A is not the homomorphic image of k[x].
- (3) Show that for some integer $m \ge 1$, there exist n distinct irreducible monic polynomials h_1, \ldots, h_n in k[x] such that each h_i has degree md.

- (4) Show that for some integer $m \geq 1$, if F/k is a finite extension field with $\dim_k F = md$, then the direct sum $F \oplus \cdots \oplus F$ of n copies of F is the homomorphic image of k[x]. Show that m can be chosen to be relatively prime to d.
- (5) Show that there is a separable polynomial $g \in k[x]$ such that A is isomorphic to a subalgebra of k[x]/(g).

EXERCISE 5.5.8. Let p be a prime number and A a finite ring of order p^2 .

- (1) Prove that either A is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/(p^2)$, or the characteristic of A is p and A is isomorphic as \mathbb{Z}/p -algebras to $(\mathbb{Z}/p)[x]/(\phi)$, for some monic quadratic polynomial ϕ with coefficients in the field \mathbb{Z}/p .
- (2) Prove that A is commutative.
- (3) Prove that A is isomorphic to exactly one of the following four rings:
 - (a) $\mathbb{Z}/(p^2)$ (if char $(A) = p^2$).
 - (b) $\mathbb{Z}/p \oplus \mathbb{Z}/p$ (if char(A) = p and ϕ factors and is separable).
 - (c) $(\mathbb{Z}/p)[x]/(x^2)$ (if char(A) = p and ϕ is a square).
 - (d) a finite field of order p^2 (if char(A) = p and ϕ is irreducible).

6. Separable Closure

Let k be a field of positive characteristic p. Let F/k be an extension of fields and u and element of F which is algebraic over k. We say that u is purely inseparable over k in case the irreducible polynomial $Irr.poly_k(u)$ splits in F[x] and has only one root, namely u. Equivalently, u is purely inseparable over k if and only if there exists $m \geq 1$ such that $Irr.poly_k(u) = (x - u)^m$ in F[x]. If $u \in k$, then $Irr.poly_k(u) = x - u$, hence u is both purely inseparable over k and separable over k.

LEMMA 5.6.1. Let F/k be an extension of fields and assume char k = p > 0. Let $u \in F$ and assume u is algebraic over k.

- (1) If u is separable over k and purely inseparable over k, then $u \in k$.
- (2) There exists $n \ge 0$ such that u^{p^n} is separable over k.

PROOF. (1): If u is purely inseparable over k, then $Irr.poly_k(u) = (x - u)^m$. If u is separable over k, then m = 1.

(2): If u is separable over k, then take n=0. Let $f=\operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(u)$ and use induction on the degree of f. Assume f is not separable and $d=\deg f>1$. By Theorem 3.6.18, $f\in k[x^p]$. Therefore, u^p is algebraic over k and the degree of $\operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(u^p)$ is equal to d/p. By induction on d, there is some $n\geq 0$ such that $(u^p)^{p^n}$ is separable over k.

THEOREM 5.6.2. Let F/k be an algebraic extension of fields. If

$$S = \{u \in F \mid k(u) \text{ is separable over } k\},\$$

then

- (1) S is an intermediate field of F/k,
- (2) S/k is separable, and
- (3) F/S is purely inseparable.

PROOF. (1) and (2): It is enough to show S is a field. Let α and β be elements of S-k. If $f=\operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(\alpha)$, then f is separable and irreducible over k. Likewise, $g=\operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(\beta)$ is separable and irreducible over k. By Theorem 5.4.2, if E is the

splitting field over k of fg, then E/k is a separable extension of fields. Since $k(\alpha, \beta)$ is an intermediate field of E/k, it is itself a separable extension of k. Therefore, S contains $\alpha + \beta$, $\alpha - \beta$, $\alpha\beta$, α/β .

(3): Let $u \in F - S$. We can assume char k = p > 0. By Lemma 5.6.1, there exists n > 0 such that u^{p^n} is separable over k. Then u^{p^n} is in S. Let $\alpha = u^{p^n}$. Consider the polynomial $f = x^{p^n} - \alpha$ in S[x]. Then f factors in F[x] as $f = (x-u)^{p^n}$. Since f(u) = 0, this proves that u is purely inseparable over S.

DEFINITION 5.6.3. If F/k is an extension of fields, the *separable closure* of k in F is the field S defined in Theorem 5.6.2. If Ω is an algebraic closure of k, and S is the separable closure of k in Ω , then we call S a *separable closure of* k. We say k is *separably closed*, if k is equal to its separable closure in Ω .

Theorem 5.6.4. Let k be a field. The following are equivalent.

- (1) Every irreducible polynomial in k[x] is separable.
- (2) The splitting field over k of any polynomial in k[x] is a Galois extension of k.
- (3) Every algebraic extension of k is separable over k.
- (4) k has characteristic zero or k has positive characteristic p and the Frobenius homomorphism $x \mapsto x^p$ is an automorphism of k.

PROOF. Using Theorem 5.4.2, the reader should verify that (1), (2) and (3) are equivalent.

- (3) implies (4): Assume k has positive characteristic p and every algebraic extension of k is separable. Let $\varphi: k \to k$ be the Frobenius homomorphism. Let $\alpha \in k$. We show $\alpha = \varphi(u)$ for some $u \in k$. Consider the polynomial $x^p \alpha$ in k[x]. Let F be an extension of k containing a root u of $x^p \alpha$. In F[x] we have the factorization $x^p \alpha = (x u)^p$. By assumption, F/k is separable, which implies this factorization occurs in k[x]. That is, $u \in k$ and $\alpha = \varphi(u)$.
- (4) implies (3): Let F/k be an algebraic extension. Let $\alpha \in F k$. Let $f \in k[x]$ be the irreducible polynomial of α over k. We show that $k(\alpha)$ is a separable extension of k. If char k = 0, it follows from Theorem 3.6.18 that f is separable and we are done. Assume char k = p > 0 and the Frobenius homomorphism $\varphi : k \to k$ is an automorphism of k. By Theorem 3.6.3, $\varphi(f) = g$ is an irreducible polynomial in k[x] such that $\deg g = \deg f$. Since $g(\alpha^p) = (f(\alpha))^p = 0$, we see that $k(\alpha^p)$ is a field extension of k which is an intermediate field of $k(\alpha)/k$ such that $\dim_k(k(\alpha^p)) = \dim_k(k(\alpha))$. It follows that $k(\alpha^p) = k(\alpha)$, hence the Frobenius homomorphism is an automorphism $\varphi : k(\alpha) \to k(\alpha)$. For any m > 0, $\varphi^m(x) = x^{p^m}$. Since $k[\alpha] = k(\alpha)$, a typical element in $k(\alpha)$ can be represented in the form $u = \sum_i a_i \alpha^i$ where $a_i \in k$. Therefore $\varphi^m(u) = \sum_i a_i^{p^m} (\alpha^{p^m})^i$ is in $k(\alpha^{p^m})$. This shows $k(\alpha^{p^m}) = k(\alpha)$ for all m > 0. Let S be the separable closure of k in $k(\alpha)$. For some $n \geq 0$, $\alpha^{p^n} \in S$. Therefore $k(\alpha) = k(\alpha^{p^n}) \subseteq S$ so $k(\alpha)$ is a separable extension of k.

Example 5.6.5. A field k is called *perfect* if it satisfies one of the statements (1) - (4) in Theorem 5.6.4. The following is a list of fields that are perfect fields.

- (1) A field of characteristic zero satisfies Theorem 5.6.4(4).
- (2) An algebraically closed field satisfies Theorem 5.6.4(1).
- (3) By Lemma 5.5.1, a finite field satisfies Theorem 5.6.4 (4).

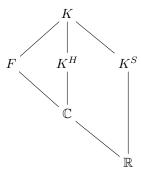
Theorem 5.6.6. (Separable over Separable is Separable) Let $k \subseteq F \subseteq K$ be a tower of algebraic field extensions. If F is separable over k and K is separable over k, then K is separable over k.

PROOF. If char k=0, then we are done. Assume char k=p>0. Let S be the separable closure of k in K. Then $F\subseteq S\subseteq K$. It is enough to show S=K. Let $u\in K$. For some $n\geq 0$ we have $\alpha=u^{p^n}\in S$. Then u satisfies the polynomial $x^{p^n}-\alpha\in S[x]$ and in K[x] we have the factorization $x^{p^n}-\alpha=(x-u)^{p^n}$. If $f=\operatorname{Irr.poly}_S(u)$, then f divides $(x-u)^{p^n}$ in K[x]. If $g=\operatorname{Irr.poly}_F(u)$, then g is separable and since f divides g in S[x], we know that f has no multiple roots in K. So f=x-u and $u\in S$.

6.1. The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra. As in Section 1.5, the field of real numbers is denoted \mathbb{R} and the field of complex numbers is denoted \mathbb{C} . The proof of the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra utilizes results from Calculus. By Theorem 1.5.2, an irreducible polynomial of odd degree in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ is linear. By Proposition 1.5.3 (5), the ring $\mathbb{C}[x]$ contains no irreducible quadratic polynomial.

Theorem 5.6.7. The field of complex numbers is algebraically closed. In particular, an irreducible polynomial over $\mathbb C$ is linear.

PROOF. Let F be a finite dimensional extension field of \mathbb{C} . By Theorem 5.1.8, it suffices to show that $F = \mathbb{C}$. Since F is a finite dimensional separable extension field of \mathbb{R} , by Corollary 5.4.3, there is a finite dimensional Galois extension K/\mathbb{R} which contains F as an intermediate field. Let G be the Galois group of K over \mathbb{R} . Let S be a Sylow-2 subgroup of G. Then K^S is an extension field of \mathbb{R} and $\dim_{\mathbb{R}} K^S$ is odd. If $\alpha \in K^S$, then $\dim_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R}(\alpha)$ divides $\dim_{\mathbb{R}} K^S$, hence is odd. By Theorem 5.1.3, the degree of $\mathrm{Irr.poly}_{\mathbb{R}}(\alpha)$ is odd. By Theorem 1.5.2, an irreducible polynomial of odd degree in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ is linear. Therefore, $K^S = \mathbb{R}$. This proves S = G is a 2-group. For sake of contradiction, assume $\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathbb{C}}(K)$ is a nontrivial 2-group. By Theorem 2.7.1, there exists a normal subgroup H of $\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathbb{C}}(K)$ of index 2. Then K^H is a field extension of \mathbb{C} of degree 2. This is a contradiction, because by Proposition 1.5.3 (5), the ring $\mathbb{C}[x]$ contains no irreducible quadratic polynomial.



Theorem 5.6.8. An irreducible polynomial in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ has degree 1 or 2. If f is a monic polynomial of positive degree in $\mathbb{R}[x]$, then the unique factorization of f into irreducible polynomials has the general form

$$f = (x - u_1)^{m_1} \cdots (x - u_{r_1})^{m_{r_1}} q_1^{n_1} \cdots q_{r_2}^{n_{r_2}}$$

where u_1, \ldots, u_{r_1} are the distinct real roots of f, $r_1 \geq 0$, each $m_i \geq 1, q_1, \ldots, q_{r_2}$ are the distinct irreducible monic quadratic factors of f in $\mathbb{R}[x]$, $r_2 \geq 0$, and each $n_j \geq 1$.

PROOF. In $\mathbb{C}[x]$, f factors into linear factors. Let z = a + bi be a nonreal complex number. Then the irreducible polynomial of z over \mathbb{R} is Irr. poly_{\mathbb{R}}(z) = $(x-z)(x-\bar{z})=x^2-2ax-(a^2+b^2)$. The nonreal roots of f come in conjugate pairs. The rest of the proof is left to the reader.

7. The Trace Map and Norm Map

Let F/k be a finite dimensional separable extension of fields. In this section we show that there is a trace map $T_k^F: F \to k$ which is a k-linear homomorphism, and a norm map $N_k^F: F^* \to k^*$ which is a homomorphism of multiplicative abelian groups. To define the trace and norm maps we first embed F into a Galois extension K/k with Galois group G. Then F corresponds to a subgroup $H = G_F$. We show that the trace and norm maps are defined by a complete set of coset representatives for G/H. The resulting trace map and norm map agree with the usual trace and norm maps defined in Exercise 4.7.26. In the present context, we show that T_{ι}^{F} is nonzero, hence is a free generator for the F-vector space $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F,k)$. We will see in Corollary 9.6.9 below that a finite dimensional extension of fields F/k is separable if, and only if, the trace map T_k^F is a free generator for the F-vector space $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F, k)$. For a generalization of the trace and norm maps defined below, see the corestriction homomorphism of Definition 12.5.17 (3).

Lemma 5.7.1. Let K/k be a Galois extension with finite group G. Let H be a subgroup of G with [G:H]=m. Let $\{\tau_1,\ldots,\tau_m\}$ be a complete set of left coset representatives for H in G. Let $F=K^H$. The following are true.

- (1) The assignment $x \mapsto y = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \tau_i(x)$ defines a k-linear transformation $T_k^F: F \to k$ which does not depend on the choice of left coset representatives for H in G.
- (2) The assignment $x \mapsto z = \prod_{i=1}^m \tau_i(x)$ defines a homomorphism of multiplicative groups $N_k^F : F^* \to k^*$ which does not depend on the choice of left $coset\ representatives\ for\ H\ in\ G.$
- (3) For any $\alpha \in F$, $T_k^F(\alpha)$ is the trace and $N_k^F(\alpha)$ is the determinant of $\ell_{\alpha}: F \to F.$ (4) The functions $T_k^F: F \to k$ and $N_k^F: F \to k$ depend on F and k, not K.

PROOF. We prove (1), the proof of (2) is similar. Let $\{\rho_1,\ldots,\rho_m\}$ be another complete set of left coset representatives for H in G and $x \in F = K^H$. After a permutation, we can assume $\tau_i H = \rho_i H$ for each i. So there exist $h_i \in H$ such that $\tau_i h_i = \rho_i$. For every $x \in F$, $y = \sum_{i=1}^m \tau_i(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m \tau_i h_i(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m \rho_i(x)$. By Example 2.4.5, G acts as a group of permutations on G/H. If $\sigma \in G$, then $\sigma \tau_i H = \sigma \tau_j H$ if and only if $\tau_i H = \tau_j H$. That is, $\{\sigma \tau_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq m\}$ is a complete set of coset representatives, and $\sigma(y) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sigma \tau_i(x) = y$. So $y \in K^G = k$. Since each $\sigma \in G$ is k-linear, so is the function T_k^F .

(3): Let $\alpha \in F = K^H$ and consider the polynomial

$$g = \prod_{\sigma \in G} (x - \sigma(\alpha)) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} \prod_{\rho \in H} (x - \tau_i \rho(\alpha)) = \left(\prod_{i=1}^{m} (x - \tau_i(\alpha))\right)^{[H:1]}.$$

As in Exercise 5.7.9, the polynomial g is the characteristic polynomial of $\ell_{\alpha}: K \to \mathbb{R}$ K, and $f = \prod_{i=1}^{m} (x - \tau_i(\alpha))$ is the characteristic polynomial of $\ell_\alpha : F \to F$. The only irreducible factor of f in k[x] is Irr. $poly_k(\alpha)$. By Exercise 4.7.28, $T_k^F(\alpha)$ is the trace and $N_k^F(\alpha)$ is the determinant of $\ell_\alpha: F \to F$.

(4): Follows from (3).
$$\Box$$

DEFINITION 5.7.2. Let F/k be a finite dimensional separable extension. Let K/k be a Galois extension with finite group G which contains F as an intermediate field. Then there is a subgroup H of G such that $F = K^H$. As in Lemma 5.7.1, if $\{\tau_1,\ldots,\tau_m\}$ is a complete set of left coset representatives for H, then for $x\in F$ K^H , $T_k^F(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m \tau_i(x)$ and $N_k^F(x) = \prod_{i=1}^m \tau_i(x)$. Note that both T_k^F and N_k^F are functions from F to k. The function T_k^F , which is called the *trace from* F to k, is k-linear and represents an element of $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F,k)$. The function N_k^F , called the norm from F to k, induces a homomorphism of multiplicative groups $F^* \to k^*$.

LEMMA 5.7.3. In the context of Lemma 5.7.1 and Definition 5.7.2,

- (1) There exists $c \in F$ such that $T_k^F(c) = 1$.
- (2) $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F,k)$ is an F-vector space of dimension 1 and $\{T_k^F\}$ is a basis.
- (3) If $\{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m\}$ is a k-basis for F, then there exist elements $\{\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_m\}$ in F such that

 - (a) $T_k^F(\mu_j\lambda_i) = \delta_{ij}$ (Kronecker delta), and (b) for each $\sigma \in G$: $\lambda_1\sigma(\mu_1) + \dots + \lambda_m\sigma(\mu_m) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sigma \in H \\ 0 & \text{if } \sigma \notin H \end{cases}$.

PROOF. (1): By Lemma 5.2.5, there is $b \in F$ such that $x = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \tau_i(b) = T_k^F(b) \neq 0$. Let $c = x^{-1}b$. Since $x \in k$, we have $T_k^F(c) = x^{-1}x = 1$.

- (2): As we have seen already (Example 4.4.3), the field F is a k-algebra, hence it acts as a ring of k-homomorphisms on itself. Let $\theta: F \to \operatorname{Hom}_k(F,F)$ be the left regular representation of F in $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F,F)$. Using θ we can turn $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F,k)$ into a right F-vector space. For every $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(F,k)$ and $\alpha \in F$, define $f\alpha$ to be $f \circ \ell_{\alpha}$. By counting dimensions, it is easy to see that $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F,k)$ is an F-vector space of dimension one. As an F-vector space, any nonzero element $f \in \text{Hom}_k(F, k)$ is a generator. By (1), T_k^F is a generator for $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F,k)$. This implies for every $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(F, k)$ there is a unique $\alpha \in F$ such that $f(x) = T_k^F(\alpha x)$ for all $x \in F$. The mapping $F \to \operatorname{Hom}_k(F,k)$ given by $\alpha \mapsto T_k^F \circ \ell_\alpha$ is an isomorphism of k-vector spaces.
- (3): Let $\{\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_m\}$ be a k-basis for F. For each $j=1,2,\ldots,m$, let $f_j:F\to k$ be the projection onto coordinate j. That is, $f_j(\lambda_i) = \delta_{ij}$ (Kronecker delta) and $\{(\lambda_j, f_j) \mid j = 1, \dots, m\}$ is a dual basis for F. For each $x \in F$, $x = \sum_{j=1}^m f_j(x)\lambda_j$. Since T_k^F is a generator for $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F,k)$ over F, there exist unique μ_1,\ldots,μ_m in F such that for each $x\in F$, $f_j(x)=T_k^F(\mu_jx)=\sum_{i=1}^m\tau_i(\mu_jx)$. We have $T_k^F(\mu_j\lambda_i)=$

 $f_i(\lambda_i) = \delta_{ij}$, which is (a). For (b), consider

$$x = \sum_{j=1}^{m} f_j(x)\lambda_j$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \tau_i(\mu_j x)\lambda_j$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(\tau_i(x) \sum_{j=1}^{m} \tau_i(\mu_j)\lambda_j\right).$$

Since $G_F = H$, for exactly one $i_0 \in \{1, \dots, m\}$, we have $\tau_{i_0} \in H$. In other words, $\tau_i(x) = x$ for all $x \in F$ if and only if $i = i_0$ if and only if $\tau_i \in H$. By Lemma 5.2.7, $\{\tau_1,\ldots,\tau_m\}$ are linearly independent over F. If $\sigma\in G$, then $\sigma\equiv\tau_i\pmod H$ for a unique i. Then $\sigma(x) = \tau_i(x)$ for all $x \in F$. Hence

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} \sigma(\mu_j) \lambda_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sigma \in H \\ 0 & \text{if } \sigma \notin H. \end{cases}$$

We have shown that the elements $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ and μ_1, \ldots, μ_m satisfy the conclusion of Lemma 5.2.4. This is (b).

LEMMA 5.7.4. Suppose K/k is a Galois extension of fields with finite group G. If H is a subgroup of G and $F=K^H$, then $T_k^K=T_k^F\circ T_F^K$ and $N_k^K=N_k^F\circ N_F^K$.

PROOF. Let $\{\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_m\}$ be a complete set of left coset representatives for H in G and let $x \in K$. Then

$$T_k^F \left(T_F^K(x) \right) = T_k^F \left(\sum_{\rho \in H} \rho(x) \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m \tau_i \left(\sum_{\rho \in H} \rho(x) \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{\rho \in H} \tau_i \rho(x)$$

$$= \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(x)$$

$$= T_k^K(x).$$

The proof of the second identity is left to the reader.

For generalizations of Theorem 5.7.5, see Theorem 12.5.25.

THEOREM 5.7.5. (Hilbert's Theorem 90) Let F/k be a Galois extension of fields with finite group G. Assume $G = \langle \sigma \rangle$ is cyclic and $u \in F$. Then

- (1) $T_k^F(u) = 0$ if and only if $u = v \sigma(v)$ for some $v \in F$. (2) $N_k^F(u) = 1$ if and only if $u = v/\sigma(v)$ for some $v \in F^*$.

PROOF. Throughout the proof, assume $G = \{1, \sigma, \sigma^2, \dots, \sigma^{n-1}\}$ and $\sigma^n = 1$.

(1): If $v \in F$, then $T(\sigma(v)) = \sum_{\tau \in G} \tau \sigma(v) = \sum_{\rho \in G} \rho(v) = T(v)$. It follows that $T(v - \sigma(v)) = 0$. Conversely, assume T(u) = 0. By Lemma 5.2.6, there exists $w \in F$ with T(w) = 1. Starting with

$$v = uw + (u + \sigma(u))\sigma(w) + (u + \sigma(u) + \sigma^{2}(u))\sigma^{2}(w) + \dots + (u + \sigma(u) + \sigma^{2}(u) + \dots + \sigma^{n-2}(u))\sigma^{n-2}(w),$$

apply σ to get

$$\sigma(v) = \sigma(u)\sigma(w) + (\sigma(u) + \sigma^{2}(u))\sigma^{2}(w) + \dots + (\sigma(u) + \sigma^{2}(u) + \dots + \sigma^{n-1}(u))\sigma^{n-1}(w).$$

Subtract $\sigma(v)$ from v. Use the identities $T(u) = u + \sigma(u) + \cdots + \sigma^{n-1}(u) = 0$ and T(w) = 1 to simplify

$$v - \sigma(v) = uw + u\sigma(w) + u\sigma^{2}(w) + \dots + u\sigma^{n-2}(w)$$

$$- (\sigma(u) + \sigma^{2}(u) + \dots + \sigma^{n-1}(u)) \sigma^{n-1}(w)$$

$$= u ((w + \sigma(w) + \sigma^{2}(w) + \dots + \sigma^{n-2}(w)) - (-u)\sigma^{n-1}(w)$$

$$= u ((w + \sigma(w) + \sigma^{2}(w) + \dots + \sigma^{n-2}(w) + \sigma^{n-1}(w))$$

$$= uT(w) = u.$$

(2): If $v \in F^*$, then $N(\sigma(v)) = \prod_{\tau \in G} \tau \sigma(v) = N(v)$. This shows $N(v/\sigma(v)) = 1$. Conversely, assume N(u) = 1. By Lemma 5.2.5, we know that

$$v = ux + u\sigma(u)\sigma(x) + u\sigma(u)\sigma^{2}(u)\sigma^{2}(x) + \dots + u\sigma(u)\sigma^{2}(u)\cdots\sigma^{n-1}(u)\sigma^{n-1}(x)$$

is nonzero for some $x \in F$. In this case, we have

$$u^{-1}v = x + \sigma(u)\sigma(x) + \sigma(u)\sigma^{2}(u)\sigma^{2}(x) + \dots + \sigma(u)\sigma^{2}(u)\dots\sigma^{n-1}(u)\sigma^{n-1}(x)$$

and

$$\begin{split} \sigma(v) &= \sigma(u)\sigma(x) + \sigma(u)\sigma^2(u)\sigma^2(x) + \dots + \sigma(u)\sigma^2(u) \dots \sigma^n(u)\sigma^n(x) \\ &= \sigma(u)\sigma(x) + \sigma(u)\sigma^2(u)\sigma^2(x) + \dots + N(u)x \\ &= \sigma(u)\sigma(x) + \sigma(u)\sigma^2(u)\sigma^2(x) + \dots + x. \end{split}$$

This shows $\sigma(v) = u^{-1}v$, hence $u = v/\sigma(v)$.

7.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 5.7.6. Let k be a field. Show that for any $n \ge 1$ there exists a polynomial $f \in F[x]$ of degree n such that f has no repeated roots.

EXERCISE 5.7.7. Let F/k be a Galois extension of fields with finite group G. Assume $G = \langle \sigma \rangle$ is cyclic.

- (1) Show that the function $D: F^* \to F^*$ defined by $D(u) = u/\sigma(u)$ is a homomorphism of abelian groups.
- (2) Show that the kernel of D is k^* , and the image of D is the kernel of $N_k^F: F^* \to F^*$.
- (3) If F is a finite field, show that the image of $N_k^F: F^* \to F^*$ is equal to k^* .

EXERCISE 5.7.8. Let F/k be a Galois extension of fields with finite group G. Let $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ be a k-basis for F. For each j, let f_j be the map in $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F,k)$ which projects onto coordinate j.

- (1) If $\alpha \in F$, use the dual basis $\{(a_i, f_i) \mid i = 1, ..., n\}$ to show that the matrix of ℓ_{α} with respect to the basis $\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ is $(f_j(\alpha a_i))$.
- (2) Use the results derived in Lemma 5.7.3 to show that the trace map T_k^F defined in Exercise 4.7.26 is equal to the trace map defined in Definition 5.7.2.

EXERCISE 5.7.9. Let F/k be a Galois extension of fields with finite group G. Let α be an arbitrary element of F, and set

$$g = \prod_{\sigma \in G} (x - \sigma(\alpha)).$$

- (1) Show that $g = \text{char.poly}_k(\alpha)$. (Hint: Show that $g \in k[x]$. The only irreducible factor of g is Irr. $\text{poly}_k(\alpha)$. Use Exercise 4.7.29.)
- (2) Show that the trace map T_k^F defined in Exercise 4.7.26 is equal to the trace map defined in Definition 5.7.2.
- (3) Show that the norm map N_k^F defined in Exercise 4.7.26 is equal to the norm map defined in Definition 5.7.2.

8. Cyclic Galois Extensions

We say a finite Galois extension of fields F/k is cyclic of degree n if the group $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$ is a cyclic group of order n.

THEOREM 5.8.1. (The Normal Basis Theorem) Let F/k be a cyclic Galois extension of degree n with group $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F) = \langle \sigma \rangle$. Then there exists $\alpha \in F$ such that the set $\{\alpha, \sigma(\alpha), \sigma^2(\alpha), \ldots, \sigma^{n-1}(\alpha)\}$ is a basis for F as a k-vector space. We call the basis $\{\alpha, \sigma(\alpha), \sigma^2(\alpha), \ldots, \sigma^{n-1}(\alpha)\}$ a normal basis for F/k.

PROOF. We have $\dim_k(F) = n$. View $1, \sigma, \sigma^2, \ldots, \sigma^{n-1}$ as elements of $\operatorname{Hom}_k(F, F)$. Then char. $\operatorname{poly}_k(\sigma)$ has degree n (see Definition 4.7.11). Since $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F) = \langle \sigma \rangle$ has order n, the minimal polynomial of σ divides $x^n - 1$. By Lemma 5.2.5, the automorphisms $1, \sigma, \sigma^2, \ldots, \sigma^{n-1}$ are linearly independent over k, so the degree of min. $\operatorname{poly}_k(\sigma)$ is at least n. Therefore, min. $\operatorname{poly}_k(\sigma) = x^n - 1$. Since the minimal polynomial and the characteristic polynomial of σ both have degree n, this implies they are equal. By Theorem 4.7.13, F is a cyclic $k[\sigma]$ -module. By Theorem 4.6.1, there exists $\alpha \in F$ such that the set $\{\alpha, \sigma(\alpha), \sigma^2(\alpha), \ldots, \sigma^{n-1}(\alpha)\}$ is a k-basis for F.

8.1. Artin-Schreier Theorem.

EXAMPLE 5.8.2. Let k be a field of positive characteristic p. For any $a \in k$, the polynomial $f = x^p - x - a \in k[x]$ is separable over k. To see this, assume u is a root of f in any extension field F/k. Let $i \in \mathbb{Z}/p$ be any element of the prime field of k. Then $f(u+i) = (u+i)^p - (u+i) - a = u^p + i - u - i - a = f(u) = 0$. Therefore, f has p distinct roots in F, namely $u, u+1, \ldots, u+p-1$.

Theorem 5.8.3. (Artin-Schreier) Suppose k is a field of positive characteristic p.

- (1) If F/k is a cyclic Galois extension of degree p, then there exists $a \in k$ such that $f = x^p x a$ is an irreducible separable polynomial over k and F is the splitting field for f over k. In this case F = k(u), where u is any root of f.
- (2) If $a \in k$ and $f = x^p x a$, then

- (a) f is separable, and
- (b) either f is irreducible over k, or splits in k[x].
- (3) If $a \in k$ and $f = x^p x a$ is irreducible over k, then
 - (a) F = k[x]/(f) is a splitting field for f,
 - (b) F/k is a cyclic Galois extension of k of degree p.

PROOF. (1): Let $G = \operatorname{Aut}_k(F) = \langle \sigma \rangle$. Since G is simple and abelian, there are no proper intermediate fields for F/k. Since $\operatorname{char}(k) = \dim_k(F) = p$, $T_k^F(1) = p = 0$. By Theorem 5.7.5, there is $v \in F$ such that $v - \sigma(v) = 1$. If u = -v, then $\sigma(u) = 1 + u$. This shows $u \notin k$, hence F = k(u). Note that $\sigma(u^p) = (\sigma(u))^p = (1+u)^p = 1+u^p$, and $\sigma(u^p-u) = \sigma(u^p) - \sigma(u) = (1+u^p) - (u+1) = u^p - u$. If $a = u^p - u$, then $a \in k$ and u satisfies the polynomial $f = x^p - x - a$. Since the dimension of k(u) over k is p, this implies f is equal to the irreducible polynomial of u. By Example 5.8.2, f is separable and splits in F.

(2): Let $f = x^p - x - a$ in k[x]. Let F be a splitting field for f. As was shown in Example 5.8.2, f is separable and if $u \in F$ is a root of f, then the p distinct roots of f are $u, u + 1, \ldots, u + p - 1$, hence F = k(u). By Theorem 5.4.2, F/k is a Galois extension. For any τ in $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$, by Proposition 5.2.2(1), $\tau(u)$ is a root of f. Thus, $\tau(u) - u$ is an element of the prime field \mathbb{Z}/p . Define a function θ : $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F) \to \mathbb{Z}/p$ by $\theta(\tau) = \tau(u) - u$. If σ is another element of $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$, then $\sigma(\tau(u) - u) = \tau(u) - u$. Hence $\sigma\tau(u) - \sigma(u) = \tau(u) - u$. From this we see that

(8.1)
$$\sigma \tau(u) - u = \sigma(u) + \tau(u) - u - u.$$

The left hand side of (8.1) is $\theta(\sigma\tau)$, the right hand side is $\theta(\sigma) + \theta(\tau)$. This shows θ is a homomorphism from the group $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$ to the additive cyclic group \mathbb{Z}/p . By Proposition 5.2.2(1), θ is one-to-one. Since \mathbb{Z}/p is a simple group, either $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$ has order 1 or p. By Theorem 5.2.10, if $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$ has order 1, then F = k and f splits in k[x]. If $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$ has order p, then $\dim_k(F) = p$. Since F = k(u), by Theorem 5.1.3, $\operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(u)$ has degree p. Therefore, $f = \operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(u)$, which shows f is irreducible.

- (3): This follows from Part (2).
- **8.2.** Kummer Theory. If $\zeta \in k^*$ and ζ generates a subgroup of order n in k^* , then we say ζ is a *primitive nth root of* 1 *in* k and write $\zeta = \sqrt[n]{1}$. There are at most n solutions to $x^n 1$ in k, so the subgroup $\langle \zeta \rangle$ has $\varphi(n)$ generators. That is, if k contains a primitive nth root of 1, then k contains $\varphi(n)$ primitive nth roots of 1. A cyclic extension F/k of degree n is called a *Kummer extension* if $\sqrt[n]{1} \in k$.

Theorem 5.8.4. Let n > 0 and assume k is a field containing a primitive nth root of 1. The following are equivalent.

- (1) F/k is a cyclic Galois extension of degree d, for some positive divisor d of n.
- (2) F is a splitting field over k of $x^n a$ for some $a \in k^*$.
- (3) F is a splitting field over k of $x^d a$ for some $a \in k^*$ and some positive divisor d of n.

PROOF. Throughout the proof, let $\zeta = \sqrt[n]{1}$ be a primitive nth root of 1 in k.

(2) implies (1): Let α be a root of $x^n - a$ in F. For each $i \geq 0$ we have $\left(\zeta^i\alpha\right)^n = \left(\zeta^n\right)^i\alpha^n = a$, so the roots of $x^n - a$ in F are $\left\{\zeta^i\alpha \mid 0 \leq i < n\right\}$. This shows $x^n - a$ is separable. Also, since $\zeta \in k$, this implies $F = k(\alpha)$ is a simple extension. If $\sigma \in G = \operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$, then $\sigma(\alpha) = \zeta^i\alpha$ for some i such that $0 \leq i < n$.

As σ runs through the nonidentity elements of G, consider the positive numbers i such that $\sigma(\alpha) = \zeta^i \alpha$ and pick the smallest. Fix $\sigma \in G$, such that $\sigma(\alpha) = \zeta^i \alpha$ and i is minimal. We prove that G is generated by σ . Let τ be any element of G. Then $\tau(\alpha) = \zeta^j \alpha$ and we can assume $0 < i \le j < n$. Dividing, j = iq + r, where $0 \le r < i$. Now $\sigma^q(\alpha) = \zeta^{qi} \alpha$. Therefore, $\sigma^{-q} \tau(\alpha) = \sigma^{-q} (\zeta^j \alpha) = \zeta^j \sigma^{-q} (\alpha) = \zeta^j \zeta^{-qi} \alpha = \zeta^r \alpha$. By the choice of i we conclude that r = 0, so $\tau = \sigma^q$. The order of G is equal to the order of G, which is a divisor of G.

- (3) implies (2): Assume F is the splitting field of $x^d a$ where d is a divisor of n, and $a \in k$. Let $\rho = \zeta^{n/d}$. Then $\rho = \sqrt[d]{1}$. Let $\alpha \in F$ satisfy $\alpha^d = a$. Then $x^d a$ factors in F[x] as $(x \alpha)(x \rho\alpha) \cdots (x \rho^{d-1}\alpha)$. This implies $F = k(\alpha)$, because $\rho \in k$. Consider the polynomial $x^n a^{n/d}$. For any i such that $0 \le i < n$ we see that $(\zeta^i \alpha)^n = \alpha^n = (\alpha^d)^{n/d} = a^{n/d}$. So $x^n a^{n/d}$ splits in F.
- (1) implies (3): Assume F/k is cyclic of degree d and that σ is a generator for $G = \operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$. Since $\rho = \zeta^{n/d} = \sqrt[d]{1}$ is in k, the norm of ρ is $N(\rho) = \rho^d = 1$. By Theorem 5.7.5, there is $u \in F^*$ such that $\rho = u/\sigma(u)$. Setting $v = u^{-1}$, we have $\rho = v^{-1}\sigma(v)$, or $\sigma(v) = \rho v$. Then $\sigma(v^d) = (\rho v)^d = v^d$. This says $v^d \in k$ and v satisfies the polynomial $x^d v^d$. The roots of $x^d v^d$ are $\{v, \rho v, \dots, \rho^{d-1} v\}$. Note that $\sigma^i(v) = \rho^i v$, for all i such that $0 \le i < d$. If f is the irreducible polynomial for v, then f has d roots in F. Therefore $\deg(f) = d$ and $f = x^d v^d$. We have shown that F is the splitting field of f and F = k(v).
- **8.3.** Cyclotomic Extensions. Let k be a field. We say F is a cyclotomic extension of k of order n if F is the splitting field over k of x^n-1 . If char k=p>0, then we can factor $n=p^em$ where (m,p)=1. Then $x^n-1=(x^m)^{p^e}-1^{p^e}=(x^m-1)^{p^e}$, so the splitting field of x^n-1 is equal to the splitting field of x^m-1 . For this reason, we assume n is relatively prime to char k and x^n-1 is separable. In Theorem 5.8.5, $\varphi(n)$ denotes the Euler φ function.

THEOREM 5.8.5. Let F be a cyclotomic extension of k of order n. If char k = p > 1, assume (n, p) = 1. Then

- (1) $F = k(\zeta)$ where ζ is a primitive nth root of 1 over k.
- (2) F is a Galois extension of k and $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$ is a subgroup of the group of units in \mathbb{Z}/n . The dimension $\dim_k(F)$ is a divisor of $\varphi(n)$.
- PROOF. (1): By assumption, $x^n 1$ is separable, and the group μ_n of nth roots of unity in F is a cyclic group of order n, by Proposition 5.4.6. Let ζ be a primitive nth root of unity in F. Therefore $F = k(\zeta)$ is a simple extension.
- (2): Since F is the splitting field of a separable polynomial, F/k is Galois. The Galois group $G = \operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$ acts on the cyclic group of order n generated by ζ . This defines a homomorphism $G \to \operatorname{Aut}(\langle \zeta \rangle)$. Since $F = k(\zeta)$, this mapping is one-to-one. The order of $\operatorname{Aut}(\langle \zeta \rangle)$ is $\varphi(n)$.

8.4. Radical Extensions.

DEFINITION 5.8.6. Let k be a field and Ω the algebraic closure of k. If F is an intermediate field of Ω/k , we say F is a radical extension of k in case there exist elements u_1, \ldots, u_n in Ω and positive integers e_1, \ldots, e_n such that

- (1) $F = k(u_1, \ldots, u_n),$
- (2) $u_1^{e_1} \in k$, and
- (3) for $1 < i \le n$, $u_i^{e_i} \in k(u_1, \dots, u_{i-1})$.

If $f \in k[x]$, we say f is solvable by radicals in case the splitting field of f is contained in a radical extension of k.

LEMMA 5.8.7. Let F/k be a radical extension of fields. As in Definition 5.3.12, let K be the normal closure of F/k. Then K/k is a radical extension.

PROOF. First we show that $K = F_1 F_2 \cdots F_m$ where each F_i is an intermediate field of K/k and $F_i \cong F$. We are given $F = k(u_1, \ldots, u_n)$ as in Definition 5.8.6. For each i, and for each root α of Irr. $\operatorname{poly}_k(u_i)$, there is a k-algebra isomorphism $\theta: k(u_i) \to k(\alpha)$ which extends by Lemma 5.3.8 to a k-algebra isomorphism $\bar{\theta}: K \to K$. Then $\bar{\theta}(F)$ is an intermediate field of K/k which is k-isomorphic to F and contains α . Since K/k is generated by the roots α of the irreducible polynomials of the elements u_i , there is a finite number of fields of the form $\bar{\theta}(F)$ that generate K.

Let $F_1 = k(u_1, \ldots, u_n)$ as in Definition 5.8.6. By the first step, there are isomorphic copies F_i of F_1 such that $K = F_1 F_2 \cdots F_m$. Then $F_2 = k(v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ where the v_i are as in Definition 5.8.6. Clearly $F_1 F_2 = k(u_1, \ldots, u_n, v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ is a radical extension of k. An iterative argument shows that $K = F_1 F_2 \ldots F_m$ is a radical extension of k.

Theorem 5.8.8. If F/k is a radical extension of fields, and E is an intermediate field, then $\operatorname{Aut}_k(E)$ is solvable.

PROOF. Step 1: Reduce to the case where F = E and F/k is a Galois extension. Let L be the fixed field $E^{\operatorname{Aut}_k(E)}$. Then E/L is a Galois extension with group $\operatorname{Aut}_k(E) = \operatorname{Aut}_L(E)$. By Theorem 5.4.2, E/L is normal and separable. Let K be the normal closure of F/L. Then K/L is a radical extension by Lemma 5.8.7 and F/L is a radical extension because F/k is. By Theorem 5.3.11, any $\sigma \in \operatorname{Aut}_L(K)$ maps E to E. There is a homomorphism of groups $\operatorname{Aut}_L(K) \to \operatorname{Aut}_L(E)$ defined by $\sigma \mapsto \sigma|_E$ which is onto since K is a splitting field over L of a set of polynomials. Since the homomorphic image of a solvable group is solvable, it suffices to show that $\operatorname{Aut}_L(K)$ is solvable. Let L_1 be the fixed field $K^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(K)}$. Then K/L_1 is a Galois extension with group $\operatorname{Aut}_{L_1}(K) = \operatorname{Aut}_L(K)$. Since K/k is a radical extension, so is K/L_1 . It is enough to prove the result for the radical Galois extension K/L_1 .

Step 2: Assume $F = k(u_1, \ldots, u_n)$ is a radical extension of k and that F/k is Galois with group G. We prove that G is solvable. For each i, there is n_i such that $u_i^{n_i} \in k(u_1, \ldots, u_{i-1})$. If $p = \operatorname{char} k$ is positive, then we factor $n_i = p^t m_i$ such that $(p, m_i) = 1$. In this case, $(u_i^{m_i})^{p^t} \in k(u_1, \ldots, u_{i-1})$ and since F is separable over $k(u_1, \ldots, u_{i-1})$, we see that $u_i^{m_i} \in k(u_1, \ldots, u_{i-1})$. From now on we assume $(p, n_i) = 1$. Set $m = n_1 n_2 \cdots n_n$. Since (m, p) = 1, the polynomial $x^m - 1$ is separable over k and if ζ is a primitive mth root of unity over k, then $F(\zeta)/k$ is a Galois extension with intermediate field F. Since F/k is Galois, by Theorem 5.2.10, G is the homomorphic image of $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F(\zeta))$. It suffices to show $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F(\zeta))$ is solvable. By Theorem 5.8.5, $k(\zeta)/k$ is a Galois extension with an abelian Galois group. Therefore $\operatorname{Aut}_{k(\zeta)}(F(\zeta))$ is a normal subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F(\zeta))$ and since

$$\operatorname{Aut}_k(F(\zeta))/\operatorname{Aut}_{k(\zeta)}(F(\zeta)) \cong \operatorname{Aut}_k(k(\zeta))$$

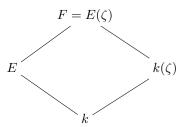
it suffices to show $\operatorname{Aut}_{k(\zeta)}(F(\zeta))$ is a solvable group. Set $E_0 = k(\zeta)$ and for each $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ set $E_i = k(\zeta, u_1, \ldots, u_i)$. Therefore $E_n = F(\zeta)$ is a Galois extension of each E_i . Let $H_i = \operatorname{Aut}_{E_i}(E_n)$ be the corresponding subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}_{E_0}(E_n)$. By

construction, E_i/E_{i-1} is a Kummer extension, hence is a cyclic Galois extension, by Theorem 5.8.4. Therefore, $H_{i-1} = \operatorname{Aut}_{E_{i-1}}(E_n)$ is a normal subgroup of $H_i = \operatorname{Aut}_{E_i}(E_n)$ and the factor group $H_i/H_{i-1} \cong \operatorname{Aut}_{E_{i-1}}(E_i)$ is a cyclic group. This shows $1 = H_n \subseteq H_{n-1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq H_1 \subseteq H_0 = \operatorname{Aut}_{k(\zeta)}(F(\zeta))$ is a solvable series. \square

Theorem 5.8.9 is a partial converse to Theorem 5.8.8. At least in characteristic zero, if f is a polynomial with solvable Galois group, then f is solvable by radicals.

Theorem 5.8.9. Let k be a field, Ω the algebraic closure of k. Let $f \in k[x]$ be a separable polynomial and E the splitting field for f in Ω . Assume $\mathrm{Aut}_k(E)$ is solvable. Moreover, assume if $\mathrm{char}\, k=p>0$, then p does not divide $\mathrm{dim}_k(E)$. Then f is solvable by radicals. That is, E is contained in a radical extension of k in Ω .

PROOF. Let $n = \dim_k(E)$, ζ a primitive nth root of unity in Ω , and set $F = E(\zeta)$.



By Theorem 5.4.2, E/k is a Galois extension and by hypothesis $\operatorname{Aut}_k(E)$ is a solvable group. By Theorem 5.4.8, $F = E(\zeta)$ is a Galois extension of $k(\zeta)$ and $G = \operatorname{Aut}_{k(\zeta)}(F)$ embeds as a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}_k(E)$. By Exercise 2.10.19, G is a solvable group. By our hypothesis, if $\operatorname{char} k = p$ is positive, then p does not divide |G|. By Exercise 2.10.21, G has a composition series $G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \supseteq G_2 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq G_m = \langle e \rangle$ where the factor group G_i/G_{i+1} is cyclic of order $[G_i : G_{i+1}]$, a prime divisor of |G|. By Theorem 5.2.10, there is a tower of field extensions $F = F_0 \supseteq F_1 \supseteq F_2 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq F_m = k(\zeta)$ and F_i/F_{i+1} is a cyclic extension, hence a Kummer extension. By Theorem 5.8.4, $F_i = F_{i+1}(v_i)$ is a radical extension. Since $k(\zeta)$ is a radical extension, this proves F/k is a radical extension.

9. Exercises

EXERCISE 5.9.1. Let F/k be a purely inseparable finite dimensional extension of fields. Show that $\dim_k(F) = p^n$ for some $n \ge 0$.

EXERCISE 5.9.2. This exercise is a continuation of Exercise 4.6.9. Let k be a field and A a matrix in $M_n(k)$. Prove that A is similar to the transpose of A.

EXERCISE 5.9.3. Prove the following for $f = x^3 + x - 1$.

- (1) f is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.
- (2) If $F = \mathbb{Q}[x]/(f)$ and σ is an automorphism of F, then σ is the identity function.
- (3) In $\mathbb{R}[x]$, f factors into a product of a linear polynomial and an irreducible quadratic.
- (4) If F is the splitting field of f over \mathbb{Q} , then the Galois group $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(F)$ is a nonabelian group of order six.

EXERCISE 5.9.4. Let F be the splitting field of $f = x^3 - 5$ over \mathbb{Q} .

- (1) Show that the Galois group $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(F)$ is a nonabelian group of order six.
- (2) Find all intermediate fields K between \mathbb{Q} and F.
- (3) Prove or give a counterexample: Each intermediate field K is a Galois extension of \mathbb{Q} .

EXERCISE 5.9.5. Let F be the splitting field of $f = (x^2 - 2)(x^2 - 3)$ over \mathbb{Q} .

- (1) Show that the Galois group $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(F)$ is a noncyclic abelian group of order four.
- (2) Find all intermediate fields K between \mathbb{Q} and F.
- (3) Prove or give a counterexample: Each intermediate field K is a Galois extension of \mathbb{Q} .

EXERCISE 5.9.6. Let k be a field, $n \ge 1$ and $a \in k$. Let $f = x^n - a$ and F/k a splitting field for f. Show that the following are equivalent.

- (1) Every root of f in F is a simple root.
- (2) F[x]/(f) is a direct sum of fields.
- (3) $n = 1 \text{ or } na \neq 0.$

EXERCISE 5.9.7. This exercise is a continuation of Exercise 3.7.19. Let R be a UFD with quotient field K. Assume the characteristic of R is not equal to 2. Let $a \in R$ be an element which is not a square in R and $f = x^2 - a \in R[x]$. Let S = R[x]/(f), L = K[x]/(f). Prove:

- (1) Aut_K $L = \langle \sigma \rangle$ is a cyclic group of order two and L/K is a Galois extension.
- (2) If $\sigma: L \to L$ is the automorphism of order two, then σ restricts to an R-automorphism of S.
- (3) The norm map $N_K^L: L \to K$ restricts to a norm map $N_R^S: S \to R$. (4) An element $c \in S$ is invertible if and only if $N_R^S(c)$ is invertible in R.

EXERCISE 5.9.8. Let p be a prime number, and F/k an extension of fields which is cyclic of degree p^n . If E is an intermediate field such that F = E(a), and E/k is cyclic of degree p^{n-1} , then F = k(a).

EXERCISE 5.9.9. Let k be a field of positive characteristic p.

- (1) The map $a \mapsto a^p a$ defines a homomorphism of additive groups $\varphi : k \to k$. Prove that a cyclic extension field E/k of degree p exists if and only if the map φ is not onto.
- (2) In this exercise, we outline a proof that a cyclic extension field E/k of degree p^{n-1} can be embedded in a cyclic extension field F/k of degree p^n . For the complete classification of cyclic extensions F/k of degree p^n , the interested reader is referred to [1]. Assume n > 1, E/k is cyclic of degree p^{n-1} , and $\operatorname{Aut}_k(E) = \langle \sigma \rangle$.
 - (a) Show that there exists $a, b \in E$ satisfying: $T_k^E(a) = 1$ and $\sigma(b) b =$ $a^p - a$.
 - (b) Show that $x^p x a$ is irreducible in E[x].
 - (c) Let $F = E[x]/(x^p x a)$. Show that F/E is cyclic of degree p and F/k is cyclic of degree p^n .

EXERCISE 5.9.10. Consider the polynomial $f = x^4 - 2$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. Let α be the positive root of f in \mathbb{R} . Let i be a primitive fourth root of unity in \mathbb{C} .

(1) Show that $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha, i)$ is the splitting field for f in \mathbb{C} .

- (2) Show that the Galois group of f over \mathbb{Q} is isomorphic to the dihedral group D_4 .
- (3) (Galois over Galois is not Galois) Prove the following:
 - (a) $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ is Galois over $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha^2)$.
 - (b) $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha^2)$ is Galois over \mathbb{Q} .
 - (c) $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ is not Galois over \mathbb{Q} .

EXERCISE 5.9.11. Let F/k be a separable extension of fields such that $\dim_k(F) = 2$. Show that F/k is a Galois extension.

EXERCISE 5.9.12. Let $f(x) = x^3 + 3x + 3$. Show that f is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ and f has exactly one real root and two nonreal roots. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ be the real root and β_1, β_2 be the nonreal roots of f(x). Show that $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta_1]$ is the splitting field for f over \mathbb{Q} and $\dim_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta_1] = 6$. Show that $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]) = \langle 1 \rangle$. Show that $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta_1])$ is isomorphic to S_3 , the group of permutations of $\{\alpha, \beta_1, \beta_2\}$.

EXERCISE 5.9.13. Determine the Galois group of the polynomial $x^4 + x^2 - 6$ over \mathbb{Q} .

EXERCISE 5.9.14. Determine the smallest Galois extension K/\mathbb{Q} containing $2^{1/2} + 2^{1/3}$. Determine $\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(K)$.

EXERCISE 5.9.15. Determine the Galois group of the polynomial $x^6 - 8$ over each of these fields: \mathbb{Q} , $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$, and $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$, where $\zeta = e^{2\pi i/3}$ is a primitive third root of 1 in \mathbb{C} .

EXERCISE 5.9.16. Determine the Galois group of the polynomial $(x^2 - 2)(x^3 + 2)$ over each of these fields: \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{Q} , $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$, and $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$, where $\zeta = e^{2\pi i/6}$ is a primitive third root of -1 in \mathbb{C} .

EXERCISE 5.9.17. Let k be a field. Assume the characteristic of k is not 2 or 3 and that k contains a primitive sixth root of unity denoted ζ_6 .

- (1) Show that k(x) is a cyclic Galois extension of $k(x^6)$ of degree 6 (in other words, a Kummer extension). Let $G = \langle \sigma \rangle$ be the Galois group. Determine the lattice of subfields and lattice of subgroups guaranteed by the Fundamental Theorem of Galois Theory.
- (2) Show that G acts on k[x] and the fixed subring is $k[x^6]$. Determine the lattice of fixed subrings of k[x] corresponding to the subgroups of G.
- (3) As in Exercise 3.6.21, let $R = k[x^2, x^3]$. Determine the subgroup of G that fixes R pointwise (that is, the stabilizer of R in G).

EXERCISE 5.9.18. Let R be an integral domain with char R=p a prime number. Let K be the quotient field of R and Ω an algebraic closure of K. Let $r \geq 1$, $q=p^r$, and $\theta: \Omega \to \Omega$ the r-th power of the Frobenius homomorphism on Ω defined by $\theta(x) = x^q$. If $L = \{y \in \Omega \mid y^q \in K\}$ and $S = \{y \in \Omega \mid y^q \in R\}$, prove:

- (1) L is a subfield of Ω containing K.
- (2) S is a subring of L containing R.
- (3) $\theta: L \to K$ is an isomorphism of fields.
- (4) $\theta: S \to R$ is an isomorphism of rings.
- (5) L is equal to the quotient field of S.

EXERCISE 5.9.19. Determine the Galois group of the polynomial $f(x) = x^4 - x^2 - 1$ over each of these fields: $\mathbb{Q}(i)$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$, $\mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{5})$, \mathbb{Q} , where i is a primitive fourth root of 1 in \mathbb{C} .

10. Transcendental Field Extensions

DEFINITION 5.10.1. Let F/k be an extension of fields and $\Xi \subseteq F$. We say Ξ is algebraically dependent over k if there exist n distinct elements ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_n in Ξ and a nonzero polynomial $f \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ such that $f(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n) = 0$. Otherwise we say Ξ is algebraically independent. A transcendence base for F/k is a subset $\Xi \subseteq F$ which satisfies

- (1) Ξ is algebraically independent over k and
- (2) if $\Xi \subseteq Z$ and Z is algebraically independent over k, then $\Xi = Z$.

LEMMA 5.10.2. Let F/k be an extension of fields and Ξ a subset of F which is algebraically independent over k. For $u \in F - k(\Xi)$, the following are equivalent.

- (1) $\Xi \cup \{u\}$ is algebraically independent over k.
- (2) u is transcendental over $k(\Xi)$.

PROOF. (2) implies (1): Suppose there exist a polynomial f in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ and elements ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_{n-1} in Ξ such that $f(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_{n-1}, u) = 0$. Expand f as a polynomial in x_n with coefficients in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}]$, say $f = \sum_j h_j x_n^j$. Then $0 = f(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_{n-1}, u) = \sum_j h_j(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_{n-1})u^j$. But u is transcendental over $k(\Xi)$, so $h_j(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_{n-1}) = 0$ for each j. But Ξ is algebraically independent, so each polynomial $h_j = 0$. Thus f = 0.

(1) implies (2): Prove the contrapositive. Assume u is algebraic over $k(\Xi)$ and $f = \min. \operatorname{poly}_{k(\Xi)}(u) = x^m + h_{m-1}x^{m-1} + \dots + h_1x + h_0$. Each h_j is in $k(\Xi)$, so there is a finite subset ξ_1, \dots, ξ_n of Ξ and polynomials $\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_m, \beta_0, \dots, \beta_m$ in $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ such that $h_j = \alpha_j(\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n)/\beta_j(\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n)$. Multiply across by the least common multiple, β , of the denominators to get

$$f(x)\beta(\xi_1,\ldots,\xi_n) = \sum_j \gamma_j(\xi_1,\ldots,\xi_n)x^j$$

where $\beta(\xi_1,\ldots,\xi_n)\neq 0$ and each γ_j is in $k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$. Since $(f\beta)(\xi_1,\ldots,\xi_n,u)=0$, we are done.

LEMMA 5.10.3. Let F/k be an extension of fields and Ξ a subset of F which is algebraically independent over k. The following are equivalent.

- (1) F is algebraic over $k(\Xi)$.
- (2) Ξ is a transcendence base for F over k.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Suppose Z is linearly independent, $Z \supseteq \Xi$, and $z \in Z$. Then z is algebraic over $k(\Xi)$, so by Lemma 5.10.2, $\Xi \cup \{z\}$ is linearly dependent. Therefore, $z \in \Xi$, which implies $Z = \Xi$.

(2) implies (1): We prove the contrapositive. Suppose $u \in F - k(\Xi)$ and u is transcendental over $k(\Xi)$. Then $\Xi \cup \{u\}$ is algebraically independent, so Ξ is not a transcendence base.

Lemma 5.10.4. Let F/k be an extension of fields.

- (1) If Ξ is a subset of F such that F is algebraic over $k(\Xi)$, then Ξ contains a subset which is a transcendence base for F over k.
- (2) If F is a finitely generated field extension of k, then there is a finite transcendence base for F/k.

PROOF. (1): The reader should verify that by Zorn's Lemma, Proposition 1.3.3, the set

 $\{Z \subseteq \Xi \mid Z \text{ is algebraically independent over } k\}$

contains a maximal member, call it X. Given $u \in \Xi$, by Lemma 5.10.2, u is algebraic over k(X). Then $k(\Xi)$ is algebraic over k(X). By Proposition 5.1.10 (4), F is algebraic over k(X). By Lemma 5.10.3, X is a transcendence base.

(2): Is left to the reader.

THEOREM 5.10.5. Let F/k be an extension of fields and assume $\Xi = \{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n\}$ is a transcendence base for F over k. If Z is another transcendence base for F over k, then Z also has cardinality n.

PROOF. Step 0: If n=0, then by Exercise 5.10.14, F/k is an algebraic extension. Since Z is algebraically independent over k, we conclude that $Z=\emptyset$. Assume from now on that n>0.

Step 1: There exists $\zeta_1 \in Z$ such that $\zeta_1, \xi_2, \ldots, \xi_n$ is a transcendence base for F/k. First we show that there exists $\zeta \in Z$ such that ζ is transcendental over $K = k(\xi_2, \ldots, \xi_n)$. Assume the contrary. Then F is algebraic over K(Z) and K(Z) is algebraic over K, hence F is algebraic over K. Then ξ_1 is algebraic over K, which contradicts Lemma 5.10.2. Suppose $\zeta_1 \in Z$ and ζ_1 is transcendental over K. By Lemma 5.10.2, $\{\zeta_1, \xi_2, \ldots, \xi_n\}$ is algebraically independent over k. The set $\{\zeta_1, \xi_2, \ldots, \xi_n\} \cup \{\xi_1\}$ is algebraically dependent, so Lemma 5.10.2 says ξ_1 is algebraic over $k(\zeta_1, \xi_2, \ldots, \xi_n)$. In this case, the field $k(\Xi)(\zeta_1) = k(\zeta_1, \xi_2, \ldots, \xi_n)(\xi_1)$ is algebraic over $k(\zeta_1, \xi_2, \ldots, \xi_n)$ and F is algebraic over $k(\Xi)(\zeta_1) = k(\zeta_1, \xi_2, \ldots, \xi_n)(\xi_1)$, hence F is algebraic over $k(\zeta_1, \xi_2, \ldots, \xi_n)$. By Lemma 5.10.3, the set $\zeta_1, \xi_2, \ldots, \xi_n$ is a transcendence base for F/k.

Step 2: Iterate Step 1 n-1 more times to get a subset $\{\zeta_1,\ldots,\zeta_n\}$ of Z which is a transcendence base for F/k. By Definition 5.10.1, this implies $Z=\{\zeta_1,\ldots,\zeta_n\}$.

DEFINITION 5.10.6. Let F/k be an extension of fields such that a finite transcendence base exists. The transcendence degree of F/k, denoted tr. $\deg_k(F)$, is the number of elements in any transcendence base of F over k.

THEOREM 5.10.7. Suppose $k \subseteq F \subseteq K$ is a tower of field extensions. Assume $\Xi = \{\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n\}$ is a transcendence base for F/k and $Z = \{\zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_m\}$ is a transcendence base for K/F. Then

- (1) $\Xi \cup Z$ is a transcendence base for K/k, and
- (2) $\operatorname{tr.deg}_k(K) = \operatorname{tr.deg}_k(F) + \operatorname{tr.deg}_F(K)$.

PROOF. (2): Follows straight from (1).

(1): The reader should verify that K is algebraic over $k(Z \cup \Xi)(F)$ and $k(Z \cup \Xi)(F)$ is algebraic over $k(Z \cup \Xi)$. Therefore, K is algebraic over $k(Z \cup \Xi)$. Let f be a polynomial in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n][z_1, \ldots, z_m]$ such that $f(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n, \zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_m) = 0$. Since Z is algebraically independent over F, this implies $f(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n, z_1, \ldots, z_m)$ is the zero polynomial in the ring $k(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n)[z_1, \ldots, z_m]$. Therefore, each coefficient of $f(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n, z_1, \ldots, z_m)$ is an algebraic relation over k involving ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_n . Because ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_n are algebraically independent over k, we conclude that f = 0. This proves $Z \cup \Xi$ is algebraically independent over k. By Lemma 5.10.3 we are done.

10.1. Symmetric Rational Functions and Symmetric Polynomials. Let k be a field and $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ the ring of polynomials over k in the variables x_1, \ldots, x_n (see Section 3.6.1). The field of rational functions in x_1, \ldots, x_n over k is denoted $K = k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$. Let S_n be the symmetric group on $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$. The group S_n acts on A as a group of k-algebra automorphisms in the following way. Given any permutation $\sigma \in S_n$ and any polynomial $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in A$, define $\sigma(f)$ to be the polynomial $f(x_{\sigma(1)}, \ldots, x_{\sigma(n)})$. Using Theorem 3.6.3 we see that σ defines an automorphism of A that fixes each element of k. The permutation σ induces an automorphism of K and S_n can be viewed as a group of automorphisms of K. Then K is a Galois extension of K^{S_n} with group S_n . The degree of the extension K/K^{S_n} is equal to the order of the group S_n , which is n!, by Example 2.1.14. The fixed field K^{S_n} is called the field of symmetric rational functions in n variables over k. The subring of A fixed by S_n is denoted A^{S_n} . We call A^{S_n} the ring of symmetric polynomials in n variables over k. Let λ be another indeterminate. Consider the polynomial

$$\Lambda = (\lambda - x_1)(\lambda - x_2) \cdots (\lambda - x_n)$$

in $A[\lambda]$. Notice that Λ is symmetric in x_1, \ldots, x_n . In other words, if we extend the action by S_n on A to an action on the ring $A[\lambda]$, then Λ is fixed by S_n . Therefore, the coefficients of Λ are symmetric polynomials and belong to the ring A^{S_n} . The elementary symmetric polynomial of degree i in the variables x_1, \ldots, x_n , denoted $\sigma_{i,n}$, is the coefficient of λ^{n-i} in the expansion of Λ :

$$\Lambda = \lambda^n - \sigma_{1,n}\lambda^{n-1} + \sigma_{2,n}\lambda^{n-2} - \dots + (-1)^i \sigma_{i,n}\lambda^{n-i} + \dots + (-1)^n \sigma_{n,n}.$$

We see that

$$\sigma_{1,n} = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$$

$$\sigma_{2,n} = \sum_{i_1 < i_2} x_{i_1} x_{i_2}$$

$$\sigma_{3,n} = \sum_{i_1 < i_2 < i_3} x_{i_1} x_{i_2} x_{i_3}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\sigma_{n,n} = x_1 x_2 \dots x_n$$

By Exercise 5.10.18, if $1 < i < m \le n$, then the polynomials $\sigma_{i,m}$ satisfy the recurrance relation: $\sigma_{i,m} = \sigma_{i,m-1} + x_m \sigma_{i-1,m-1}$. Therefore, we have the tower of fields: $k(\sigma_{1,n},\ldots,\sigma_{n,n}) \subseteq k(x_1,\ldots,x_n)^{S_n} \subseteq k(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$.

THEOREM 5.10.8. (The Theorem on Symmetric Rational Functions) Let k be a field and $k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ the field of rational functions in the variables x_1, \ldots, x_n over k. Let S_n be the symmetric group on $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)^{S_n}$ the field of symmetric rational functions in the variables x_1, \ldots, x_n over k. Then the following are true.

- (1) $k(x_1, ..., x_n)$ is a Galois extension of $k(x_1, ..., x_n)^{S_n}$ with Galois group S_n .
- (2) The degree of the extension $k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)/k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)^{S_n}$ is n!.
- (3) If $\sigma_{1,n}, \ldots, \sigma_{n,n}$ are the elementary symmetric polynomials in x_1, \ldots, x_n , then $k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)^{S_n} = k(\sigma_{1,n}, \ldots, \sigma_{n,n})$.

(4) $k(x_1, ..., x_n)$ is the splitting field of the polynomial $\Lambda = \lambda^n - \sigma_{1,n}\lambda^{n-1} + \sigma_{2,n}\lambda^{n-2} - \dots + (-1)^i \sigma_{i,n}\lambda^{n-i} + \dots + (-1)^n \sigma_{n,n}$ over the field $k(x_1, ..., x_n)^{S_n} = k(\sigma_{1,n}, ..., \sigma_{n,n})$.

PROOF. Parts (1) and (2) were proved in the paragraph preceding this theorem. By definition, $\Lambda = (\lambda - x_1)(\lambda - x_2) \cdots (\lambda - x_n)$ splits over $k(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and $k(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is generated by the roots of Λ . This proves $k(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is the splitting field for Λ over $k(\sigma_{1,n}, \dots, \sigma_{n,n})$. By Proposition 5.3.7 and Corollary 5.3.9, the dimension of $k(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ as a vector space over $k(\sigma_{1,n}, \dots, \sigma_{n,n})$ is at most n!. Part (2) and Proposition 4.2.39 imply $k(x_1, \dots, x_n)^{S_n} = k(\sigma_{1,n}, \dots, \sigma_{n,n})$. \square

COROLLARY 5.10.9. Let k be a field and $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ the ring of polynomials in the variables x_1, \ldots, x_n over k. If $\sigma_{1,n}, \ldots, \sigma_{n,n}$ are the elementary symmetric polynomials in x_1, \ldots, x_n , then the k-algebra homomorphism $k[t_1, \ldots, t_n] \to k[\sigma_{1,n}, \ldots, \sigma_{n,n}]$ defined by $t_i \mapsto \sigma_{i,n}$ is an isomorphism.

PROOF. By Exercise 5.10.16, $K = k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ has transcendence degree n over k. By Theorem 5.10.8, K is algebraic over $k(s_{1,n}, \ldots, s_{n,n})$. By Lemma 5.10.4, $\{s_{1,n}, \ldots, s_{n,n}\}$ is a transcendence base for K over k. Therefore, the k-algebra homomorphism $k[t_1, \ldots, t_n] \to k[s_{1,n}, \ldots, s_{n,n}]$ defined by $t_i \mapsto \sigma_{i,n}$ is a k-algebra isomorphism. \square

Corollary 5.10.10. If G is a finite group, then there exists a Galois field extension with Galois group isomorphic to G.

PROOF. Let [G:e]=n. By Cayley's Theorem, Theorem 2.4.4, we can identify G with a subgroup of S_n . By Theorem 5.10.8 and Theorem 5.2.10, $k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is a Galois extension of $k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)^G$ with Galois group G.

10.1.1. The General Polynomial of Degree n is not solvable by Radicals. Let k be a field, $t_0, t_1, \ldots, t_{n-1}$ indeterminates, and $K = k(t_0, t_1, \ldots, t_{n-1})$ the field of rational functions over k. The general polynomial of degree n over the field k is

$$p(x) = x^n - t_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + (-1)^{n-1}t_1x + (-1)^nt_0$$

which is an element of the ring K[x].

Corollary 5.10.11. If $n \geq 5$, the general polynomial of degree n is not solvable by radicals.

PROOF. Let $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n$ be the elementary symmetric polynomials in the n variables x_1, \ldots, x_n . By Theorem 5.10.8, $K = k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is the splitting field of the polynomial

$$\Lambda = (\lambda - x_1)(\lambda - x_2) \cdots (\lambda - x_n)$$

= $\lambda^n - \sigma_1 \lambda^{n-1} + \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} \sigma_{n-1} \lambda + (-1)^n \sigma_n$.

By Corollary 5.10.9, the field $k(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n)$ is isomorphic to $k(t_0, t_1, \ldots, t_{n-1})$, the field of rational functions in n variables over k. Therefore, Λ is a general polynomial of degree n over k. The Galois group of K over $k(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n)$ is S_n , the symmetric group on n letters. By Corollary 2.10.14, S_n is not solvable. By Theorem 5.8.8, Λ is not solvable by radicals,

10.1.2. Symmetric Polynomials. Theorem 5.10.8(3) says that every symmetric rational function is a rational function in the elementary symmetric polynomials. In Theorem 5.10.12, which is due to Gauss, we improve this result by proving that every symmetric polynomial is a polynomial in the elementary symmetric polynomials.

THEOREM 5.10.12. (The Theorem on Symmetric Polynomials) Let k be a field and $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ the ring of polynomials in the variables x_1, \ldots, x_n over k. Let S_n be the symmetric group on $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]^{S_n}$ the ring of symmetric polynomials in the variables x_1, \ldots, x_n over k. If $\sigma_{1,n}, \ldots, \sigma_{n,n}$ are the elementary symmetric polynomials in x_1, \ldots, x_n , then the following are true.

- (1) If f is a nonzero symmetric polynomial, then there exists a polynomial $g \in k[t_1, \ldots, t_n]$ such that $f = g(\sigma_{1,n}, \ldots, \sigma_{n,n})$.
- (2) $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]^{S_n} = k[\sigma_{1,n}, \dots, \sigma_{n,n}].$
- (3) The polynomial g in (1) is unique.

The proof of the theorem will utilize the following lemma.

LEMMA 5.10.13. In the context of Theorem 5.10.12, let f be a nonzero symmetric polynomial in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]^{S_n}$. If the leading term of f (see Lemma 3.6.19) is $M = rx_1^{e_1} \cdots x_n^{e_n}$, then $e_1 \geq e_2 \geq \cdots \geq e_n$.

PROOF. For sake of contradiction assume $1 \le i < j \le n$ and $e_i < e_j$. Apply the transposition $\tau = (i, j)$ to f. Since $\tau f = f$, we know that f has the monomial

$$\tau M = r x_1^{e_1} \cdots x_{i-1}^{e_{i-1}} x_j^{e_i} x_{i+1}^{e_{i+1}} \cdot \cdots \cdot x_{j-1}^{e_{j-1}} x_i^{e_j} x_{j+1}^{e_{j+1}} \cdots x_n^{e_n} = r x_1^{e_1} \cdots x_i^{e_j} \cdots x_j^{e_i} \cdots x_n^{e_n}.$$

Thus in the monomial τM , the exponents of x_i and x_j are swapped. But

$$M=rx_1^{e_1}\cdots x_i^{e_i}\cdots x_j^{e_j}\cdots x_n^{e_n}< rx_1^{e_1}\cdots x_i^{e_j}\cdots x_j^{e_i}\cdots x_n^{e_n}=\tau M.$$

This is a contradiction, since M is the leading term of f.

PROOF OF THEOREM 5.10.12. (1) and (2): Let $f \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]^{S_n}$ be a nonzero symmetric polynomial and assume the leading term of f is $r_1x_1^{e_1}\cdots x_n^{e_n}$. By Lemma 5.10.13, $e_1 \geq e_2 \geq \cdots \geq e_n$. Set $d_1 = e_1 - e_2$, $d_2 = e_2 - e_3$, ..., $d_{n-1} = e_{n-1} - e_n$, and $d_n = e_n$. By Exercise 5.10.20, the leading term of $s_{1,n}^{d_1}s_{2,n}^{d_2}\cdots s_{n,n}^{d_n}$ is equal to

$$x_1^{d_1+d_2+\dots+d_n} x_2^{d_2+\dots+d_n} \dots x_n^{e_n} = x_1^{e_1} x_2^{e_2} \dots x_n^{e_n}.$$

Let $g_1 = r_1 s_{1,n}^{d_1} s_{2,n}^{d_2} \cdots s_{n,n}^{d_n}$. Then $g_1 \in k[s_{1,n}, \ldots, s_{n,n}]$ and $f_1 = f - g_1$ is a symmetric polynomial in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]^{S_n}$. The leading terms of f and g_1 are equal, so if f_1 is nonzero, the leading term of f_1 is less than the leading term of f in the lexicographical order (see Section 3.6.1). If f_1 is nonzero, then we repeat the above steps to get $g_2 \in k[s_{1,n}, \ldots, s_{n,n}]$ with the same leading term as f_1 . Hence $f_2 = f_1 - g_2$ is either zero, or has a leading term less than the leading term of f_1 . Iterating, we get a sequence of symmetric polynomials f, f_1, f_2, \ldots such that the leading terms form a strictly decreasing sequence. By Lemma 3.6.19 (3), after a finite number of iterations we have $f_m = 0$. This shows that $f = g_1 + g_2 + \cdots + g_m$ is in $k[s_{1,n}, \ldots, s_{n,n}]$, proving (1) and (2).

(3): This follows from Corollary 5.10.9, because the map induced by sending t_i to $\sigma_{i,n}$ is a k-algebra isomorphism $k[t_1, \ldots, t_n] \cong k[s_{1,n}, \ldots, s_{n,n}]$.

10.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 5.10.14. If F/k is an extension of fields, show that \emptyset is a transcendence base if and only if F/k is an algebraic extension.

EXERCISE 5.10.15. If F/k is an extension of fields, and $\Xi \subseteq F$ is algebraically independent over k, show that there exists a transcendence base Z such that $Z \supseteq \Xi$.

EXERCISE 5.10.16. Let k is a field, and x_1, \ldots, x_n a set of indeterminates. Show that $\operatorname{tr.deg}_k k(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = n$ and $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ is a transcendence base for $k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ over k.

EXERCISE 5.10.17. If F is a finitely generated extension field of the field k, show that $\operatorname{tr.deg}_k(F)$ is equal to the least integer n such that there exist ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_n in F and F is algebraic over $k(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n)$.

EXERCISE 5.10.18. Let x_1, \ldots, x_n be a set of indeterminates. If $1 \le i \le m \le n$, let $\sigma_{i,m}$ be the elementary symmetric polynomial of degree i in the variables x_1, \ldots, x_m . Prove the following recursive formula:

$$\sigma_{i,m} = \begin{cases} x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_m & \text{if } i = 1, \\ x_1 x_2 \dots x_m & \text{if } i = m, \\ \sigma_{i,m-1} + x_m \sigma_{i-1,m-1} & \text{if } 1 < i < m \le n. \end{cases}$$

EXERCISE 5.10.19. Let S_n be the symmetric group on $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ and S_{n-1} the symmetric group on $\{1, 2, \ldots, n-1\}$. We view S_{n-1} as a subgroup of S_n . Let k be a field. Prove that if $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]^{S_n}$, then $f(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}, 0) \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}]^{S_{n-1}}$. Show that there exists a commutative diagram

$$A_{n} = k[x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}] \xrightarrow{\alpha} A_{n-1} = k[x_{1}, \dots, x_{n-1}]$$

$$\downarrow a \subseteq \qquad \qquad \downarrow b \subseteq \qquad \qquad \downarrow \beta$$

$$A_{n}^{S_{n}} \xrightarrow{\beta} A_{n-1}^{S_{n-1}}$$

$$\downarrow c \subseteq \qquad \qquad \downarrow d = \qquad \qquad \downarrow \beta$$

$$k[\sigma_{1,n}, \dots, \sigma_{n,n}] \xrightarrow{\gamma} k[\sigma_{1,n-1}, \dots, \sigma_{n-1,n-1}]$$

of commutative rings satisfying the following:

- (1) The maps a, b, c, d are homomorphisms defined by set inclusion.
- (2) The epimorphism α is defined by $x_n \mapsto 0$.
- (3) The homomorphism β is the restriction of α to $A_n^{S_n}$.
- (4) The epimorphism γ is the restriction of α to $k[\sigma_{1,n},\ldots,\sigma_{n,n}]$.

EXERCISE 5.10.20. Let $e_i \geq 0$ for each i. In the context of Theorem 5.10.12, show that the leading term of $s_{1,m}^{e_1}s_{2,m}^{e_2}\cdots s_{m,m}^{e_m}$ is equal to $x_1^{e_1+e_2+\cdots+e_m}x_2^{e_2+\cdots+e_m}\cdots x_m^{e_m}$.

EXERCISE 5.10.21. Follow the steps below to show that the map γ in Exercise 5.10.19 has a section.

(1) Show that there is a k-algebra homomorphism

$$\epsilon: k[\sigma_{1,n-1}, \dots, \sigma_{n-1,n-1}] \to k[\sigma_{1,n}, \dots, \sigma_{n,n}]$$

defined by $\sigma_{i,n-1} \mapsto \sigma_{i,n}$.

(2) Show that $\gamma \epsilon$ is the identity map on $k[\sigma_{1,n-1}, \ldots, \sigma_{n-1,n-1}]$.

Modules

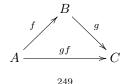
1. Categories and Functors

A category consists of a collection of objects and a collection of morphisms between pairs of those objects. The composition of morphisms is defined and is again a morphism. For our purposes, a category will usually be one of the following:

- (1) The category whose objects are modules over a ring R and whose morphisms are homomorphisms of modules. By $_R\mathfrak{M}$ we denote the category of all left R-modules together with R-module homomorphisms. By \mathfrak{M}_R we denote the category of all right R-modules together with R-module homomorphisms. If A and B are R-modules, the set of all R-module homomorphisms from A to B is denoted $\operatorname{Hom}_R(A,B)$.
- (2) The category of whose objects are rings and whose morphisms are homomorphisms of rings. A subcategory would be the category whose objects are commutative rings.
- (3) The category whose objects are finitely generated algebras over a fixed commutative ring R and whose morphisms are R-algebra homomorphisms.
- (4) The category whose objects are sets and whose morphisms are functions.
- (5) The category of pointed sets. A pointed set is a pair (X, x) where X is a nonempty set and x is a distinguished element of X called the base point. A morphism from a pointed set (X, x) to a pointed set (Y, y) is a function $f: X \to Y$ such that f(x) = y.

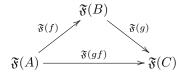
For any pair of objects A, B in a category \mathfrak{C} , the collection of all morphisms from A to B is denoted $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}(A, B)$. A covariant functor from a category \mathfrak{C} to a category \mathfrak{D} is a correspondence $\mathfrak{F}: \mathfrak{C} \to \mathfrak{D}$ which is a function on objects $A \mapsto \mathfrak{F}(A)$ and for any pair of objects $A, B \in \mathfrak{C}$, each morphism f in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}(A, B)$ is mapped to a morphism $\mathfrak{F}(f)$ in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{D}}(\mathfrak{F}(A), \mathfrak{F}(B))$ such that the following are satisfied

- (1) If $1: A \to A$ is the identity map, then $\mathfrak{F}(1): \mathfrak{F}(A) \to \mathfrak{F}(A)$ is the identity map.
- (2) Given a commutative triangle in \mathfrak{C}



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the triangle



commutes in \mathfrak{D} .

EXAMPLE 6.1.1. As in Definition 3.1.8, the opposite ring of R is denoted R^o . Multiplication in R^o is denoted by * and is reversed from multiplication in R: x*y = yx. Any $M \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}$ can be made into a right R^o -module by defining m*r = rm. The reader should verify that this defines a covariant functor ${}_R\mathfrak{M} \to \mathfrak{M}_{R^o}$.

The definition of a contravariant functor is similar, except the arrows get reversed. That is, if $\mathfrak{F}: \mathfrak{C} \to \mathfrak{D}$ is a contravariant functor and f is an element of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}(A, B)$, then $\mathfrak{F}(f)$ is in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{D}}(\mathfrak{F}(B), \mathfrak{F}(A))$.

If $\mathfrak{F}:\mathfrak{C}\to\mathfrak{D}$ is a covariant functor between categories of modules, then \mathfrak{F} is left exact if for every short exact sequence

$$(1.1) 0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \to 0$$

in \mathfrak{C} , the corresponding sequence

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}(\alpha)} \mathfrak{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}(\beta)} \mathfrak{F}(C)$$

is exact in \mathfrak{D} . We say \mathfrak{F} is *right exact* if for every short exact sequence (1.1) in \mathfrak{C} , the sequence

$$\mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}(\alpha)} \mathfrak{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}(\beta)} \mathfrak{F}(C) \to 0$$

is exact in \mathfrak{D} .

If $\mathfrak{F}:\mathfrak{C}\to\mathfrak{D}$ is a contravariant functor between categories of modules, then \mathfrak{F} is *left exact* if for every short exact sequence (1.1) in \mathfrak{C} , the sequence

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}(\beta)} \mathfrak{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}(\alpha)} \mathfrak{F}(A)$$

is exact in \mathfrak{D} . We say the contravariant functor \mathfrak{F} is right exact if for every short exact sequence (1.1) in \mathfrak{C} , the sequence

$$\mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}(\beta)} \mathfrak{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}(\alpha)} \mathfrak{F}(A) \to 0$$

is exact in \mathfrak{D} .

DEFINITION 6.1.2. Let $F: \mathfrak{A} \to \mathfrak{C}$ and $G: \mathfrak{C} \to \mathfrak{A}$ be covariant functors. We say that (F,G) is an *adjoint pair* if for every $A \in \mathfrak{A}$ and $C \in \mathfrak{C}$ there exists a bijection

$$\psi: \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}(FA, C) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{A}}(A, GC)$$

such that for any $\alpha: A \to A'$ in \mathfrak{A} , the diagram

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}(FA',C) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{F\alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}(FA,C)$$

$$\downarrow^{\psi} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\psi}$$

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{A}}(A',GC) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{A}}(A,GC)$$

commutes and given any $\gamma: C \to C'$ in ${}_{S}\mathfrak{M}$, the diagram

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}(FA,C) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\gamma}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}(FA,C')$$

$$\downarrow^{\psi} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\psi}$$

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{A}}(A,GC) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{G\gamma}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{A}}(A,GC')$$

commutes. We say that ψ is natural in the variable A and the variable C.

Presently, we give an example of two functors that are adjoint pairs obtained by tensor products and groups of homomorphisms (see Theorem 6.5.10).

DEFINITION 6.1.3. Let $\mathfrak C$ and $\mathfrak D$ be categories of modules and suppose we have two functors $\mathfrak F$ and $\mathfrak F'$ from $\mathfrak C$ to $\mathfrak D$. We say that $\mathfrak F$ and $\mathfrak F'$ are naturally equivalent if for every module M in $\mathfrak C$ there is an isomorphism φ_M in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak D}\big(\mathfrak F(M),\mathfrak F'(M)\big)$ such that, for every pair of modules M and N in $\mathfrak C$ and any $f\in\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak C}(M,N)$, the diagram

$$\mathfrak{F}(M) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}(f)} \mathfrak{F}(N)
\varphi_M \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \varphi_N
\mathfrak{F}'(M) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}'(f)} \mathfrak{F}'(N)$$

commutes. We denote by $I_{\mathfrak{C}}$ the identity functor on the category \mathfrak{C} defined by $I_{\mathfrak{C}}(M) = M$ and $I_{\mathfrak{C}}(f) = f$, for modules M and maps f. Then we say two categories \mathfrak{C} and \mathfrak{D} are equivalent if there is a functor $\mathfrak{F}: \mathfrak{C} \to \mathfrak{D}$ and a functor $\mathfrak{G}: \mathfrak{D} \to \mathfrak{C}$ such that $\mathfrak{F} \circ \mathfrak{G}$ is naturally equivalent to $I_{\mathfrak{D}}$ and $\mathfrak{G} \circ \mathfrak{F}$ is naturally equivalent to $I_{\mathfrak{C}}$. The functors \mathfrak{F} and \mathfrak{G} are then referred to as inverse equivalences.

EXAMPLE 6.1.4. Let R be a ring. The reader should verify that the category of left R-modules, $_R\mathfrak{M}$, is equivalent to the category of right R^o -modules, \mathfrak{M}_{R^o} .

DEFINITION 6.1.5. Let \mathfrak{C} and \mathfrak{D} be categories of modules and $\mathfrak{F}:\mathfrak{C}\to\mathfrak{D}$ a covariant functor. We say that \mathfrak{F} is fully faithful if

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}(A,B) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{D}}(\mathfrak{F}(B),\mathfrak{F}(A))$$

is a one-to-one correspondence. We say that \mathfrak{F} is essentially surjective if for every object D in \mathfrak{D} , there exists C in \mathfrak{C} such that D is isomorphic to $\mathfrak{F}(C)$.

PROPOSITION 6.1.6. Let $\mathfrak C$ and $\mathfrak D$ be categories of modules and $\mathfrak F:\mathfrak C\to\mathfrak D$ a covariant functor. Then $\mathfrak F$ establishes an equivalence of categories if and only if $\mathfrak F$ is fully faithful and essentially surjective.

PROOF. Assume there is a functor $\mathfrak{G}: \mathfrak{D} \to \mathfrak{C}$ such that the functors \mathfrak{F} and \mathfrak{G} are inverse equivalences. By the natural equivalence of $\mathfrak{F} \circ \mathfrak{G}$ with the identity functor, we see that \mathfrak{F} is essentially surjective. To prove that \mathfrak{F} is fully faithful, we show that $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}(A,B) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{D}}(\mathfrak{F}(A),\mathfrak{F}(B))$ is one-to-one and onto.

Suppose f, g are elements of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}(A, B)$ with $\mathfrak{F}(f) = \mathfrak{F}(g)$ in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{D}}\big(\mathfrak{F}(A), \mathfrak{F}(B)\big)$. Then $\mathfrak{G}\big(\mathfrak{F}(f)\big) = \mathfrak{G}\big(\mathfrak{F}(g)\big)$ in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}\big(\mathfrak{G}\big(\mathfrak{F}(A)\big), \mathfrak{G}\big(\mathfrak{F}(B)\big)\big)$. By the natural equivalence of $\mathfrak{G} \circ \mathfrak{F}$ with the identity functor, this implies that f = g. By a symmetric argument we see that

$$(1.2) \qquad \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{D}}(\mathfrak{F}(A),\mathfrak{F}(B)) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}(\mathfrak{G}(\mathfrak{F}(A)),\mathfrak{G}(\mathfrak{F}(B)))$$

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is one-to-one.

Now suppose g is any element of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{D}}(\mathfrak{F}(A),\mathfrak{F}(B))$. We then obtain the square

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathfrak{G}\big(\mathfrak{F}(A)\big) & \stackrel{\mathfrak{G}(g)}{\longrightarrow} \mathfrak{G}\big(\mathfrak{F}(B)\big) \\ & & \downarrow^{\varphi_B} \\ & A & \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} B \end{array}$$

where φ_A and φ_B , arise from the natural equivalence of $\mathfrak{G} \circ \mathfrak{F}$ with the identity and where $f = \varphi_B \mathfrak{G}(g) \varphi_A^{-1}$. On the other hand, we also have the square

$$\mathfrak{G}(\mathfrak{F}(A)) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{G}(\mathfrak{F}(f))} \mathfrak{G}(\mathfrak{F}(B))$$

$$\downarrow^{\varphi_{A}} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\varphi_{B}}$$

$$A \xrightarrow{f} \qquad B$$

from which we deduce that $\mathfrak{G}(g) = \mathfrak{G}(\mathfrak{F}(f))$. Since (1.2) is one-to-one, it follows that $g = \mathfrak{F}(f)$. This shows \mathfrak{F} is fully faithful.

For a proof of the converse, the reader is referred to a book on Category Theory. For example, see [10, Proposition (1.1), p. 4].

2. Progenerator Modules

DEFINITION 6.2.1. Let R be a ring and M an R-module. We say M is a projective R-module if M is isomorphic as an R-module to a direct summand of a free R-module.

EXAMPLE 6.2.2. A free module trivially satisfies Definition 6.2.1, hence a free module is a projective module.

Proposition 6.2.3. Let R be a ring and M an R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M is projective.
- (2) Every short exact sequence of R-modules

$$0 \to A \to B \xrightarrow{\beta} M \to 0$$

is split exact.

(3) For any diagram of R-modules

$$\begin{array}{c}
M \\
\downarrow \phi \\
A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\alpha}
\end{array}$$

with the bottom row exact, there exists an R-module homomorphism ψ : $M \to A$ such that $\alpha \psi = \phi$.

PROOF. (3) implies (2): Start with the diagram

$$\begin{array}{c}
M \\
\downarrow \downarrow \\
0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow B \xrightarrow{\not = \beta} M \longrightarrow 0
\end{array}$$

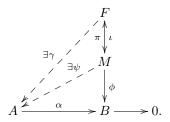
where we assume the bottom row is exact. By Part (3) there exists $\psi: M \to B$ such that $\beta \psi = 1_M$. Then ψ is the splitting map.

(2) implies (1): Take I to be the set M. Let $B = R^I$ be the free R-module on I. Take $\beta: B \to M$ to be $\beta(f) = \sum f(i)i$. The reader should verify that this is a well defined epimorphism. By Part (2) the exact sequence

$$B \xrightarrow{\beta} M \to 0$$

splits. By Exercise 4.2.21, M is isomorphic to a direct summand of B.

(1) implies (3): We are given a free module F and $F \cong M \oplus M'$. Let $\pi : F \to M$ be the projection onto the first factor and let $\iota : M \to F$ be the splitting map to π . Given the diagram of R-modules in Part (3), consider this augmented diagram



First we show that there exists γ making the outer triangle commutative, then we use γ to construct ψ . Pick a basis $\{e_i \mid i \in I\}$ for F. For each $i \in I$ set $b_i = \phi \pi(e_i) \in B$. Since α is onto, lift each b_i to get $a_i \in A$ such that $\alpha(a_i) = b_i$ (this uses the Axiom of Choice, Proposition 1.3.5). Define $\gamma: F \to A$ on the basis elements by $\gamma(e_i) = a_i$ and extend by linearity. By construction, $\alpha \gamma = \phi \pi$. Applying ι to both sides gives $\alpha \gamma \iota = \phi \pi \iota$. But $\pi \iota = 1_M$, hence $\alpha \gamma \iota = \phi$. Define ψ to be $\gamma \iota$.

EXAMPLE 6.2.4. Let D be a division ring and $R = M_2(D)$ the ring of two-by-two matrices over D. By Lemma 4.4.8, $\dim_D(R) = 4$. Let

$$e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad e_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The reader should verify the following facts.

- (1) e_1 and e_2 are orthogonal idempotents.
- (2) Re_1 is the set of all matrices with second column consisting of zeros.
- (3) Re_2 is the set of all matrices with first column consisting of zeros.
- (4) $\dim_D(Re_1) = \dim_D(Re_2) = 2$.
- (5) $R = Re_1 \oplus Re_2$ as R-modules.

By (5), Re_1 and Re_2 are projective R-modules. It follows from Proposition 4.2.39 that Re_1 and Re_2 are not free R-modules.

EXAMPLE 6.2.5. If $R = M_n(D)$ is the ring of n-by-n matrices over a division ring D, then we will see in Example 8.3.2 that R is a simple artinian ring. By Theorem 8.2.3, every R-module is projective. If $n \geq 2$, then using the method of Example 6.2.4 one can show that R contains left ideals that are not free.

EXAMPLE 6.2.6. Here is a list of rings with the property that every finitely generated projective module is free.

(1) If R is a division ring (in particular, a field) and M is an R-module, then M is a vector space. It follows from Theorem 4.2.34 that M is free.

- (2) Let R be a principal ideal domain and M a finitely generated projective R-module. For some $n \ge 1$ there is an exact sequence $R^n \to M \to 0$. By Proposition 6.2.3 this sequence splits, so M is isomorphic to a submodule of R^n . By Theorem 4.3.2, M is free.
- (3) Let R be a commutative local ring. If M is projective, then Kaplansky proved that M is free. If M is finitely generated, we prove this in Proposition 7.4.2.
- (4) We will not give a proof, but if k is a field and $R = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, then Quillen and Suslin proved that any finitely generated projective R-module is free [50, Theorem 4.62]. The same conclusion is true if k is a principal ideal domain [50, Theorem 4.63] or [35, Theorem V.2.9].

EXAMPLE 6.2.7. Here is another example of a projective module that is not free. Let $R=\mathbb{Z}/6$ be the ring of integers modulo 6. In R let $I=\{0,2,4\}$ be the ideal generated by the coset containing 2. Let $J=\{0,3\}$. Then R is the internal direct sum $R=I\oplus J$. Then both I and J are projective R-modules by Proposition 6.2.3(1). But I is not free, since it has only 3 elements. Likewise J is not free.

COROLLARY 6.2.8. Let R be a ring and M a finitely generated projective Rmodule. Then M is of finite presentation over R. There exists a finitely generated
projective R-module N such that $M \oplus N$ is a finitely generated free R-module.

Proof. Is left to the reader. \Box

LEMMA 6.2.9. (Dual Basis Lemma) Let R be a ring and M an R-module. Then M is projective if and only if M has a dual basis $\{(m_i, f_i) \mid i \in I\}$ consisting of $m_i \in M$, $f_i \in \text{Hom}_R(M, R)$ as in Definition 4.2.38. Moreover, the R-module M is finitely generated if and only if I can be chosen to be a finite set.

PROOF. Assume M is projective. Let $\{m_i \mid i \in I\} \subseteq M$ be a generating set for the R-module M. Let $\{e_i \mid i \in I\}$ be the standard basis for R^I . Using Lemma 4.2.12, define an onto homomorphism $\pi: R^I \to M$ by $\pi(e_i) = m_i$. By Proposition 6.2.3 (3) with M = B and $\alpha = \pi$, there is a splitting map $\iota: M \to R^I$ such that $\pi\iota = 1$. Let $\pi_i: R^I \to R$ be the projection onto the ith summand. For each $f \in R^I$, $\pi_i(f) = f(i)$. Then $h = \sum_{i \in I} \pi_i(h)e_i$ for each $h \in R^I$. For each $i \in I$, set $f_i = \pi_i \circ \iota$. By definition of π_i , for each $m \in M$, $f_i(m) = 0$ for all but finitely many $i \in I$. For any $m \in M$

$$\sum_{i \in I} f_i(m) m_i = \sum_{i \in I} \pi_i(\iota(m)) \pi(e_i)$$

$$= \pi \left(\sum_{i \in I} \pi_i(\iota(m)) e_i \right)$$

$$= \pi(\iota(m))$$

$$= m.$$

This shows $\{(m_i, f_i) \mid i \in I\}$ satisfies both parts of Definition 4.2.38, hence is a dual basis

Conversely, assume $\{(m_i, f_i) \mid i \in I\}$ is a dual basis. We show that M is a direct summand of R^I . Define $\iota : M \to R^I$ by $\iota(m)(j) = f_j(m)$. Define $\pi : R^I \to M$ by

 $\pi(h) = \sum_{i \in I} h(i) m_i$. The reader should verify that π and ι are R-linear. The proof follows from

$$\pi(\iota(m)) = \sum_{i \in I} \iota(m)(i)m_i$$
$$= \sum_{i \in I} f_i(m)m_i$$
$$= m.$$

LEMMA 6.2.10. Let R be a ring and M an R-module. The set

$$\mathfrak{T}_R M = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(m_i) \mid n \ge 1, f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, R), m_i \in M \right\}$$

is a 2-sided ideal in R. The ideal \mathfrak{T}_RM is called the trace ideal of M in R.

PROOF. As in Definition 4.4.17, we make $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,R)$ into a right R-module by the action (fr)(m) = f(m)r. The rest is left to the reader.

DEFINITION 6.2.11. Let R be a ring and M an R-module. We say that M is a generator over R in case $\mathfrak{T}_R M = R$. We say that M is a progenerator over R in case M is finitely generated, projective and a generator over R.

PROPOSITION 6.2.12. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings and let M be an S-module. Using θ , we can view S and M as R-modules.

- (1) (Finitely Generated over Finitely Generated is Finitely Generated) If S is a finitely generated R-module and M is a finitely generated S-module, then M is a finitely generated R-module.
- (2) (Projective over Projective is Projective) If S is a projective R-module and M is a projective S-module, then M is a projective R-module.
- (3) (A Generator over a Generator is a Generator) If S is a generator over R and M is a generator over S, then M is a generator over R.
- (4) (A Progenerator over a Progenerator is a Progenerator) If S is a progenerator over R and M is a progenerator over S, then M is a progenerator over R.

PROOF. Part (1) is Exercise 4.1.23. Part (4) follows from Parts (1), (2) and (3).

(2): There exists a dual basis $\{(m_i, f_i) \mid i \in I\}$ for M over S where $m_i \in M$ and $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_S(M, S)$ and $f_i(m) = 0$ for almost all $i \in I$ and $\sum_i f_i(m)m_i = m$ for all $m \in M$. There exists a dual basis $\{(s_j, g_j) \mid j \in J\}$ for S over R where $s_j \in S$ and $g_j \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(S, R)$ and $g_j(s) = 0$ for almost all $j \in J$ and $\sum_j g_j(s)s_j = s$ for all $s \in S$. For each $(i, j) \in I \times J$ the composition of functions $g_j f_i$ is in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, R)$ and the product $s_j m_i$ is in M. For each $m \in M$ we have

$$\sum_{(i,j)\in I\times J} g_j(f_i(m))s_j m_i = \sum_{i\in I} \left(\sum_{j\in J} g_j(f_i(m))s_j\right) m_i$$
$$= \sum_{i\in I} f_i(m)m_i$$
$$= m.$$

Under the finite hypotheses, both I and J can be taken to be finite.

(3): For some m > 0 there exist $\{f_1, \ldots, f_m\} \subseteq \operatorname{Hom}_S(M, S)$ and $\{x_1, \ldots, x_m\} \subseteq M$ such that $1 = \sum_{i=1}^m f_i(x_i)$. For some n there exist $\{g_1, \ldots, g_n\} \subseteq \operatorname{Hom}_R(S, R)$ and $\{s_1, \ldots, s_n\} \subseteq S$ such that $1 = \sum_{j=1}^n g_j(s_j)$. For each $(i, j), g_j f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, R)$ and $s_j m_i \in M$ and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} g_j f_i(s_j m_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} g_j \left(s_j f_i(m_i) \right)$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} g_j \left(s_j \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(m_i) \right)$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} g_j(s_j)$$
$$= 1.$$

EXAMPLE 6.2.13. Let R be a ring with no zero divisors. Let I be a nonzero left ideal of R. Then I is an R-module. Since $\operatorname{annih}_R(I) = (0)$, I is faithful. If $a \in R$, the principal ideal I = Ra is a free R-module and $\operatorname{Rank}_R(I) = 1$.

EXAMPLE 6.2.14. Let k be a field of characteristic different from 2. Let x and y be indeterminates over k. Let $f = y^2 - x(x^2 - 1)$. Set S = k[x,y]/(f) and let M = (x,y) be the maximal ideal of S generated by the images of x and y. By Exercise 6.3.6, S is an integral domain. By Exercise 6.3.7, M is not free. In this example, we prove that M is projective. The proof consists of constructing a dual basis for M. An arbitrary element $m \in M$ can be written in the form m = ax + by, for some $a, b \in S$. From

$$\left(\frac{x^2 - 1}{y}\right) m = \frac{x^2 - 1}{y} (ax + by)$$

$$= \frac{ax(x^2 - 1) + by(x^2 - 1)}{y}$$

$$= \frac{ay^2 + by(x^2 - 1)}{y}$$

$$= ay + b(x^2 - 1)$$

we see that $\left(\frac{x^2-1}{y}\right)m\in S.$ For each $m\in M$ we have

$$m = mx^2 - m(x^2 - 1) = mx^2 - \left(\frac{x^2 - 1}{y}\right)my.$$

This also shows that M is generated by x^2 and y. Define the dual basis. Set $m_1 = x^2$ and $m_2 = y$. Define $\phi_i : M \to S$ by $\phi_1(m) = m$ and $\phi_2(m) = -\left(\frac{x^2-1}{y}\right)m$. Since $m = \phi_1(m)m_1 + \phi_2(m)m_2$ for every $m \in M$, $\{(m_1, \phi_1), (m_2, \phi_2)\}$ is a dual basis and M is a projective S-module. To see how this fits into the Dual Basis Lemma 6.2.9, notice that a splitting of

$$S^2 \xrightarrow{\pi} M$$
$$(a,b) \mapsto ax^2 + by$$

is $\phi: M \to S^2$ which is given by

$$\phi(m) = (\phi_1(m), \phi_2(m))$$
$$= \left(m, -\left(\frac{x^2 - 1}{y}\right)m\right).$$

Notice that $\phi(x) = (x, -y)$ and $\phi(y) = (y, -(x^2 - 1))$.

EXAMPLE 6.2.15. Let $\mathbb R$ be the field of real numbers. Let x and y be indeterminates over $\mathbb R$. Let $f=x^2+y^2-1$. Set $S=\mathbb R[x,y]/(f)$ and let M=(x,y-1) be the maximal ideal of S generated by the images of x and y-1. By Exercise 6.3.8, S is an integral domain. By Exercise 6.3.9, M is not free. In this example, we prove that M is projective. The proof consists of constructing a dual basis for M. An arbitrary element $m \in M$ can be written in the form m=ax+b(y-1), for some $a,b\in S$. From

$$\left(\frac{y+1}{x}\right)m = \frac{y+1}{x}(ax+b(y-1))$$

$$= \frac{ax(y+1)+b(y^2-1)}{x}$$

$$= \frac{ax(y+1)-bx^2}{x}$$

$$= a(y+1)-bx$$

we see that $\binom{y+1}{x}m \in S$. For each $m \in M$ we have

$$\begin{split} m &= \frac{y+1}{2}m - \frac{y-1}{2}m \\ &= \left(\frac{y+1}{2x}\right)mx - \frac{m}{2}(y-1). \end{split}$$

Define the dual basis. Set $m_1 = x$ and $m_2 = y - 1$. Define $\phi_i : M \to S$ by $\phi_1(m) = \left(\frac{y+1}{2x}\right)m$ and $\phi_2(m) = \frac{-m}{2}$. Since $m = \phi_1(m)m_1 + \phi_2(m)m_2$ for every $m \in M$, $\{(m_1, \phi_1), (m_2, \phi_2)\}$ is a dual basis and M is a projective S-module. To see how this fits into the Dual Basis Lemma 6.2.9, notice that the splitting of

$$S^2 \xrightarrow{\pi} M$$
$$(a,b) \mapsto ax + b(y-1)$$

is $\iota: M \to S^2$ which is given by

$$\iota(m) = (\phi_1(m), \phi_2(m))$$
$$= \left(\frac{y+1}{2x}m, \frac{-m}{2}\right).$$

Notice that $\iota(x) = (\frac{y+1}{2}, \frac{-x}{2})$ and $\iota(y-1) = (\frac{-x}{2}, \frac{-y-1}{2})$.

3. Nakayama's Lemma

Let R be a ring, $A \subseteq R$ a left ideal of R, and M an R-module. As in Definition 4.1.10, we denote by AM the R-submodule of M generated by all elements of the form am, where $a \in A$ and $m \in M$.

LEMMA 6.3.1. (Nakayama's Lemma) Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated R-module. An ideal A of R has the property that AM = M if and only if $A + \operatorname{annih}_R(M) = R$.

PROOF. Assume $A + \operatorname{annih}_R(M) = R$. Write $1 = \alpha + \beta$ for some $\alpha \in A$ and $\beta \in \operatorname{annih}_R(M)$. Given m in M, $m = 1m = (\alpha + \beta)m = \alpha m + \beta m = \alpha m$. Therefore AM = M.

Conversely, say AM = M. Choose a generating set $\{m_1, \ldots, m_n\}$ for M over R. Define

$$M = M_1 = Rm_1 + \dots + Rm_n$$

$$M_2 = Rm_2 + \dots + Rm_n$$

$$\vdots$$

$$M_n = Rm_n$$

$$M_{n+1} = 0.$$

We prove that for every $i=1,2,\ldots,n+1$, there exists α_i in A such that $(1-\alpha_i)M\subseteq M_i$. Since $(1-0)M=M\subseteq M_1$, take $\alpha_1=0$. Proceed inductively. Let $i\geq 1$ and assume $\alpha_i\in A$ and $(1-\alpha_i)M\subseteq M_i$. Then

$$(1 - \alpha_i)M = (1 - \alpha_i)AM$$
$$= A(1 - \alpha_i)M$$
$$\subseteq AM_i.$$

In particular, $(1 - \alpha_i)m_i \in AM_i = Am_i + Am_{i+1} + \cdots + Am_n$. So there exist $\alpha_{ii}, \ldots, \alpha_{im} \in A$ such that

$$(1 - \alpha_i)m_i = \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{ij}m_j.$$

Subtracting

$$(1 - \alpha_i - \alpha_{ii})m_i = \sum_{j=i+1}^n \alpha_{ij}m_j$$

is in M_{i+1} . Look at

$$(1 - \alpha_i)(1 - \alpha_i - \alpha_{ii})M = (1 - \alpha_i - \alpha_{ii})((1 - \alpha_i)M)$$

$$\subseteq (1 - \alpha_i - \alpha_{ii})M_i$$

$$\subseteq M_{i+1}.$$

Set $\alpha_{i+1} = -(-\alpha_i - \alpha_{ii} - \alpha_i + \alpha_i^2 + \alpha_i \alpha_{ii})$. Then $\alpha_{i+1} \in A$ and $(1 - \alpha_{i+1})M \subseteq M_{i+1}$. By finite induction, $(1 - \alpha_{n+1})M = 0$. Hence $1 - \alpha_{n+1} \in \operatorname{annih}_R(M)$ and $1 \in A + \operatorname{annih}_R(M)$.

COROLLARY 6.3.2. Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated R-module. If $\mathfrak{m}M = M$ for every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of R, then M = 0.

PROOF. If $M \neq 0$, then $1 \notin \operatorname{annih}_R(M)$. Some maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} contains $\operatorname{annih}_R(M)$. So $\mathfrak{m} + \operatorname{annih}_R(M) = \mathfrak{m} \neq R$. By Nakayama's Lemma 6.3.1, $\mathfrak{m}M \neq M$.

PROPOSITION 6.3.3. Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated and projective R-module. Then $\mathfrak{T}_R(M) \oplus \operatorname{annih}_R(M) = R$.

PROOF. There exists a dual basis $\{(m_i, f_i) \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ for M. For each $m \in M$, we see that $m = f_1(m)m_1 + \cdots + f_n(m)m_n$ is in $\mathfrak{T}_R(M)M$. Then $\mathfrak{T}_R(M)M = M$. By Nakayama's Lemma 6.3.1, $\mathfrak{T}_R(M) + \operatorname{annih}_R(M) = R$. Now check that $\mathfrak{T}_R(M) \operatorname{annih}_R(M) = 0$. A typical generator for $\mathfrak{T}_R(M)$ is f(m) for some $m \in M$ and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, R)$. Given $\alpha \in \operatorname{annih}_R(M)$, we see that $\alpha f(m) = f(\alpha m) = f(0) = 0$. By Exercise 3.2.24, $\mathfrak{T}_R(M) \cap \operatorname{annih}_R(M) = 0$.

COROLLARY 6.3.4. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. Then the following are true.

- (1) M is an R-progenerator if and only if M is finitely generated projective and faithful.
- (2) Assume R has no idempotents except 0 and 1. Then M is an R-progenerator if and only if M is finitely generated, projective, and $M \neq (0)$.

PROOF. (1): By Proposition 6.3.3, $\mathfrak{T}_R(M) = R$ if and only if $\operatorname{annih}_R(M) = (0)$ which is true if and only if M is faithful.

(2): If 0 and 1 are the only idempotents, then $\operatorname{annih}_{R}(M) = (0)$.

Here is another variation of Nakayama's Lemma.

COROLLARY 6.3.5. Let R be a commutative ring. Suppose I is an ideal in R, M is an R-module, and there exist submodules A and B of M such that M = A + IB. If

- (1) I is nilpotent (that is, $I^n = 0$ for some n > 0), or
- (2) I is contained in every maximal ideal of R and M is finitely generated, then M = A.

PROOF. Notice that

$$M/A = \frac{A + IB}{A}$$

$$\subseteq \frac{A + IM}{A}$$

$$\subseteq I(M/A)$$

$$\subset M/A.$$

Assuming (1) we get $M/A = I(M/A) = \cdots = I^n(M/A) = 0$. Assume (2) and let \mathfrak{m} be an arbitrary maximal ideal of R. Then $M/A = I(M/A) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}(M/A)$. By Corollary 6.3.2, M/A = 0.

3.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 6.3.6. For the following, let k be a field of characteristic different from 2. Let R = k[x] and f be the polynomial $f = y^2 - x(x^2 - 1)$ in R[y]. Let S be the factor ring

$$S = \frac{k[x,y]}{(y^2 - x(x^2 - 1))}.$$

Elements of S are cosets represented by polynomials in k[x,y]. For example, in S the polynomial x represents a coset. When it is clear that we are referring to a coset in S, we choose not to adorn the polynomial with an extra "bar", "tilde" or "mod" symbol. So, for the sake of notational simplicity in what follows, we refer to a coset by one of its representatives. The following is an outline of a proof that S is not a UFD. In particular, S is not a PID.

- (1) Use Exercise 5.9.7 to show that S = R[y]/(f) = k[x][y]/(f) is an extension ring of R and there is an R-algebra automorphism $\sigma: S \to S$ defined by $y \mapsto -y$. The norm map $N_R^S: S \to R$ is defined by $u \mapsto u\sigma(u)$.
- (2) Use the norm map to prove that the group of invertible elements of S is equal to the nonzero elements in k.
- (3) Show that x and y are irreducible in S. (Hint: First show that x is not a norm. That is, x is not in the image of N_R^S . Likewise x-1 and x+1 are not norms.)
- (4) Prove that S is not a UFD. In particular, S is not a PID.

EXERCISE 6.3.7. In what follows, let S be the ring defined in Exercise 6.3.6. Any ideal in S is an S-module. Let M = (x, y) denote the ideal in S generated by x and y. To show that M is not a free S-module, prove the following:

- (1) If J is a nonzero ideal of S, then as an S-module J is faithful.
- (2) The principal ideal (x) is not a maximal ideal in S.
- (3) The ideal M=(x,y) is a maximal ideal in S. The factor ring S/M is a field.
- (4) The ideal M is not a principal ideal. (Hint: Lemma: 3.4.5(2))
- (5) The ideal M^2 is a principal ideal in S. (Hint: $x \in M^2$.)
- (6) Over the field S/M, the vector space M/M^2 has dimension one. (Hint: $y \in M$, but $y \notin M^2$.)
- (7) M is not a free S module. (Hint: Exercise 4.1.20. If M were free, it would have rank one.)

EXERCISE 6.3.8. Let $R = \mathbb{R}[x]$ and f be the polynomial $f = y^2 + x^2 - 1$ in R[y]. Let S be the factor ring

$$S = \frac{\mathbb{R}[x, y]}{(y^2 + x^2 - 1)}.$$

The following is an outline of a proof that S is not a UFD. In particular, S is not a PID.

- (1) Use Exercise 5.9.7 to show that $S = R[y]/(f) = \mathbb{R}[x][y]/(f)$ is an extension ring of R and there is an R-algebra automorphism $\sigma: S \to S$ defined by $y \mapsto -y$. The norm map $N_R^S: S \to R$ is defined by $u \mapsto u\sigma(u)$.
- (2) Use the norm map to prove that the group of invertible elements of S is equal to the nonzero elements in \mathbb{R} .
- (3) Show that x and y-1 are irreducible in S. (Hint: First show that x is not a norm from S.)
- (4) Prove that S is not a UFD. In particular, S is not a PID.

EXERCISE 6.3.9. In what follows, let S be the ring defined in Exercise 6.3.8. Any ideal in S is an S-module. Let M = (x, y - 1) denote the ideal in S generated by x and y - 1. To show that M is not a free S-module, prove the following:

- (1) The principal ideal (x) is not a maximal ideal in S.
- (2) The ideal M = (x, y 1) is a maximal ideal in S. The factor ring S/M is a field.
- (3) The ideal M is not a principal ideal. (Hint: Lemma: 3.4.5(2))
- (4) The ideal M^2 is a principal ideal in S. (Hint: $y-1 \in M^2$.)
- (5) Over the field S/M, the vector space M/M^2 has dimension one. (Hint: $x \in M$, but $x \notin M^2$.)

(6) M is not a free S module. (Hint: Exercise 4.1.20. If M were free, it would have rank one.)

EXERCISE 6.3.10. Let R be any ring and M an R-module. Suppose there is an infinite exact sequence

$$(3.1) \cdots \to A_{n+1} \to A_n \to \cdots \to A_2 \to A_1 \to A_0 \to M \to 0$$

of R-modules. If each A_i is a free R-module, then we say (3.1) is a free resolution of M. Use Lemma 4.2.12 and induction to show that a free resolution exists for any R and any M. Since a free module is also projective, this also shows that M has a projective resolution.

EXERCISE 6.3.11. Let R be a ring, I an index set and $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ a family of R-modules. In this exercise it is shown that the direct sum is the solution to a universal mapping problem. For each $j \in I$, let $\iota_j : M_j \to \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$ denote the injection homomorphism into coordinate j.

(1) Suppose X is an R-module and that for each $j \in I$ there is an R-module homomorphism $f_j: M_j \to X$. Show that there exists a unique R-module homomorphism f such that for each $j \in I$ the diagram

$$M_j \xrightarrow{\iota_j} \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$$

$$\downarrow_{j \exists ! f}$$

$$\downarrow_{X}$$

commutes.

(2) Suppose S is an R-module, $\lambda_j: M_j \to S$ is an R-module homomorphism for each $j \in I$, and S satisfies the universal mapping property of Part (1). That is, if X is an R-module and $f_j: M_j \to X$ is an R-module homomorphism for each $j \in I$, then there exists a unique R-module homomorphism φ such that for each $j \in I$ the diagram

$$M_{j} \xrightarrow{\lambda_{j}} S$$

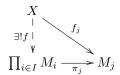
$$\downarrow \\ \downarrow \exists ! \varphi$$

$$\downarrow X$$

commutes. Prove that $S \cong \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$.

EXERCISE 6.3.12. Let R be a ring, I an index set and $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ a family of R-modules. Show that the direct product is the solution to a universal mapping problem. For each $j \in I$, let $\pi_j : \prod_{i \in I} M_i \to M_j$ denote the projection homomorphism onto coordinate j.

(1) Suppose X is an R-module and $f_j: X \to M_j$ is an R-module homomorphism for each $j \in I$. Show that there exists a unique R-module homomorphism f such that for each $j \in I$ the diagram



commutes.

(2) Suppose P is an $R\text{-module},\, p_j:P\to M_j$ is an R-module homomorphism for each $j \in I$, and P satisfies the universal mapping property of Part (1). That is, if X is an R-module and $f_j: X \to M_j$ is an R-module homomorphism for each $j \in I$, then there exists a unique R-module homomorphism φ such that for each $j \in I$ the diagram



commutes. Prove that $P \cong \prod_{i \in I} M_i$.

EXERCISE 6.3.13. Let R be a ring and $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ a family of R-modules. Show that the direct sum $\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$ is projective over R if and only if each M_i is projective over R.

Exercise 6.3.14. Let R be a unique factorization domain. Let α be a nonzero element of R which is not invertible.

- (1) Show that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(R[\alpha^{-1}],R)=(0)$. (2) Show that $R[\alpha^{-1}]$ is not a projective R-module.

EXERCISE 6.3.15. This is a slight generalization of Exercise 6.3.14. Let R be an integral domain. Let α be a nonzero element of R such that the ideals $I^n = (\alpha^n)$ satisfy the identity $\bigcap_{n>0}(\alpha^n)=(0)$. Show that $R[\alpha^{-1}]$ is not a projective Rmodule.

EXERCISE 6.3.16. Let R be a ring and M a left R-module. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) M is an R-generator.
- (2) The R-module R is the homomorphic image of a direct sum $M^{(n)}$ of finitely many copies of M.
- (3) The R-module R is the homomorphic image of a direct sum M^I of copies of M over some index set I.
- (4) Every left R-module A is the homomorphic image of a direct sum M^I of copies of M over some index set I.

EXERCISE 6.3.17. Let $\phi: R \to S$ be a local homomorphism of commutative local rings. Assume S is a finitely generated R-module, and \mathfrak{m} is the maximal ideal of R. Show that if the map $R/\mathfrak{m} \to S/\mathfrak{m}S$ induced by ϕ is an isomorphism, then ϕ is onto. (Hint: S is generated by $\phi(R)$ and $\mathfrak{m}S$.)

EXERCISE 6.3.18. Let R be a commutative ring and J an ideal in R. Prove:

- (1) If J is a direct summand of R (see Definition 3.3.3), then $J^2 = J$.
- (2) If J is a finitely generated ideal, and $J^2 = J$, then J is a direct summand of R.

Exercise 6.3.19. State and prove a version of Exercise 6.3.12 for rings. That is, show that the product $\prod_{i \in I} R_i$ of a family $\{R_i \mid i \in I\}$ of rings is the solution to a universal mapping problem.

EXERCISE 6.3.20. This exercise is based on Example 6.2.14. Let k be a field of characteristic different from 2, $S = k[x,y]/(y^2 - x(x^2 - 1))$, and M = (x,y) the maximal ideal of S generate by x and y. Prove that the assignment

$$(m_1, m_2) \mapsto \left(-\left(\frac{x^2 - 1}{y}\right)m_1 + m_2, xm_1 - \left(\frac{x^2 - 1}{y}\right)m_2\right)$$

defines an isomorphism of S-modules: $M \oplus M \cong S \oplus S$.

EXERCISE 6.3.21. Let R be a local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and S a commutative R-algebra. Assume S is a finitely generated R-module and $S/\mathfrak{m}S$ is a field. Show that S is a local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}S$.

4. Tensor Product

4.1. Tensor Product of Modules and Homomorphisms.

DEFINITION 6.4.1. Let R be a ring, $M \in \mathfrak{M}_R$ and $N \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}$. Let C be a \mathbb{Z} -module. Let $f: M \times N \to C$ be a function. Then f is an R-balanced map if it satisfies

- (1) $f(m_1 + m_2, n) = f(m_1, n) + f(m_2, n),$
- (2) $f(m, n_1 + n_2) = f(m, n_1) + f(m, n_2)$, and
- (3) f(mr, n) = f(m, rn).

for all possible $m_i \in N$, $n_i \in N$, $r \in R$.

DEFINITION 6.4.2. Let R be a ring, $M \in \mathfrak{M}_R$ and $N \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}$. The tensor product of M and N over R consists of an abelian group, denoted $M \otimes_R N$, and an R-balanced map $\tau: M \times N \to M \otimes_R N$ satisfying the following universal mapping property. If C is an abelian group and $f: M \times N \to C$ is R-balanced, then there exists a unique homomorphism $\phi: M \otimes_R N \to C$ such that $\phi \tau = f$. Hence the diagram

commutes. The element $\tau(x,y)$ is denoted $x \otimes y$.

Theorem 6.4.3. Let R be a ring, $M \in \mathfrak{M}_R$ and $N \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}$.

- (1) The tensor product $M \otimes_R N$ exists and is unique up to isomorphism of abelian groups.
- (2) The image of τ generates $M \otimes_R N$. That is, every element of $M \otimes_R N$ can be written as a finite sum of the form $\sum_{i=1}^n \tau(m_i, n_i)$.

PROOF. Part (2) follows from the proof of Part (1).

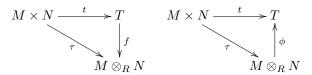
- (1): Existence of $M \otimes_R N$. Let $F = \mathbb{Z}^{M \times N}$ be the free \mathbb{Z} -module on the set $M \times N$. Write (x,y) as the basis element of F corresponding to (x,y). Let K be the subgroup of F generated by all elements of the form
 - (1) $(m_1 + m_2, n) (m_1, n) (m_2, n),$
 - (2) $(m, n_1 + n_2) (m, n_1) (m, n_2)$, and
 - (3) (mr, n) (m, rn).

We show that F/K satisfies Definition 6.4.2. Define $\tau: M \times N \to F/K$ by $\tau(x,y) = (x,y) + K$. Clearly τ is R-balanced. Since F has a basis consisting of the elements of the form (x,y), the image of τ contains a generating set for the abelian group F/K.

Now we show that F/K satisfies the universal mapping property. Assume that we have a balanced map $f: M \times N \to C$. By Lemma 4.2.12(1) we define a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism $h: F \to C$. On a typical basis element (x, y), h is defined to be h(x, y) = f(x, y). This diagram

commutes. The reader should verify that K is contained in the kernel of h, since f is balanced. So h factors through F/K, showing that ϕ exists. Since F/K is generated by elements of the form (x,y)+K and $\phi((x,y)+K)=f(x,y)$, it is clear that ϕ is unique.

Uniqueness of $M \otimes_R N$. Suppose there exist an abelian group T and an R-balanced map $t: M \times N \to T$ such that Definition 6.4.2 is satisfied. We show that T is isomorphic to $M \otimes_R N$. There exist f and ϕ such that $\tau = ft$ and $t = \phi \tau$. That is, the diagrams



commute. Notice that both $\psi = 1$ and $\psi = f\phi$ make the diagram

commute. By the uniqueness of ψ , it follows that $f\phi = 1$. Likewise, $\phi f = 1$.

EXAMPLE 6.4.4. Let R, M, N be as in Theorem 6.4.3.

(1) It follows from the proof of Theorem 6.4.3(1) that the identities

$$(m_1 + m_2) \otimes n = m_1 \otimes n + m_2 \otimes n$$

 $m \otimes (n_1 + n_2) = m \otimes n_1 + m \otimes n_2$
 $mr \otimes n = m \otimes rn$

hold in $M \otimes_R N$.

(2) In $M \otimes_R N$ the zero element is $0 \otimes 0$. Usually the representation of zero is not unique. For instance,

$$x \otimes 0 = x \otimes 0(0) = (x)0 \otimes 0 = 0 \otimes 0$$

and

$$0 \otimes y = (0)0 \otimes y = 0 \otimes 0(y) = 0 \otimes 0.$$

EXAMPLE 6.4.5. Let \mathbb{Q} denote the additive group of rational numbers. Let n > 1. Let \mathbb{Z}/n denote the cyclic group of integers modulo n. A typical generator of $\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/n$ looks like $(a/b) \otimes c$, for $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore

$$\frac{a}{b} \otimes c = \frac{na}{nb} \otimes c = \frac{a}{nb} \otimes n(c) = \frac{a}{b} \otimes 0 = 0 \otimes 0$$

which proves $\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/n = 0$.

LEMMA 6.4.6. Let $f: M \to M'$ in \mathfrak{M}_R and $g: N \to N'$ in ${}_R\mathfrak{M}$. Then there is a homomorphism of abelian groups

$$f \otimes g : M \otimes_R N \to M' \otimes_R N'$$

which satisfies $(f \otimes g)(x \otimes y) = f(x) \otimes g(y)$.

PROOF. Define $\rho: M \times N \to M' \otimes_R N'$ by $\rho(x,y) = f(x) \otimes g(y)$. The reader should check that ρ is balanced.

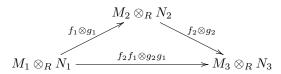
Lemma 6.4.7. Given

$$M_1 \xrightarrow{f_1} M_2 \xrightarrow{f_2} M_3$$

in \mathfrak{M}_R and

$$N_1 \xrightarrow{g_1} N_2 \xrightarrow{g_2} N_3$$

in $_R\mathfrak{M}$, the triangle



in the category of \mathbb{Z} -modules commutes so that $(f_2 \otimes g_2)(f_1 \otimes g_1) = (f_2 f_1 \otimes g_2 g_1)$.

Proof. Left to the reader.
$$\Box$$

DEFINITION 6.4.8. If S and R are rings and $M \in \mathfrak{M}_R$ and $M \in \mathfrak{SM}$, then M is a left S right R bimodule if s(mr) = (sm)r for all possible $s \in S$, $m \in M$ and $r \in R$. Denote by $s\mathfrak{M}_R$ the category of all left S right R bimodules. We say that M is a left R left S bimodule if M is both a left R-module and a left S-module and r(sm) = s(rm) for all possible $r \in R$, $m \in M$ and $s \in S$. Denote by $R = S\mathfrak{M}$ the category of all left R left S bimodules.

Example 6.4.9. Let R and S be two rings.

- (1) If I is an ideal in R, the associative law for multiplication in R shows that I is a left R right R bimodule.
- (2) If R is a commutative ring, any left R-module M can be made into a left R right R bimodule by defining mr to be rm.
- (3) If R is a subring of S, the associative law for multiplication in S shows that S is a left R right R bimodule.
- (4) If $\phi: R \to S$ is a homomorphism of rings, then as in Example 4.1.4, R acts on S from both the left and right by the rules $rx = \phi(r)x$ and $xr = x\phi(r)$. The associative law for multiplication in S shows that S is a left R right R bimodule.

If R is a noncommutative ring, the tensor product $M \otimes_R N$ cannot be turned into an R-module per se. If S is another ring and M or N is a bimodule over R and S, then we can turn $M \otimes_R N$ into an S-module. Lemma 6.4.10 lists four such possibilities.

Lemma 6.4.10. Let R and S be rings.

- (1) If M and M' are in $_S\mathfrak{M}_R$, and N and N' are in $_R\mathfrak{M}$, then the following are true.
 - (a) $M \otimes_R N$ is in $s\mathfrak{M}$, with the action of S given by $s(m \otimes n) = sm \otimes n$.
 - (b) If $f: M \to M'$ and $g: N \to N'$ are homomorphisms in ${}_S\mathfrak{M}_R$ and ${}_R\mathfrak{M}$ respectively, then $f \otimes g: M \otimes_R N \to M' \otimes_R N'$ is a homomorphism in ${}_S\mathfrak{M}$.
- (2) If M and M' are in \mathfrak{M}_R , and N and N' are in ${}_{R-S}\mathfrak{M}$, then the following are true.
 - (a) $M \otimes_R N$ is in $s\mathfrak{M}$, with the action of S given by $s(m \otimes n) = m \otimes sn$.
 - (b) If $f: M \to M'$ and $g: N \to N'$ are homomorphisms in \mathfrak{M}_R and $R-S\mathfrak{M}$ respectively, then $f \otimes g: M \otimes_R N \to M' \otimes_R N'$ is a homomorphism in $S\mathfrak{M}$.
- (3) If M and M' are in \mathfrak{M}_{R-S} , and N and N' are in ${}_R\mathfrak{M}$, then the following are true.
 - (a) $M \otimes_R N$ is in \mathfrak{M}_S , with the action of S given by $(m \otimes n)s = ms \otimes n$.
 - (b) If $f: M \to M'$ and $g: N \to N'$ are homomorphisms in \mathfrak{M}_{R-S} and ${}_R\mathfrak{M}$ respectively, then $f \otimes g: M \otimes_R N \to M' \otimes_R N'$ is a homomorphism in \mathfrak{M}_S .
- (4) If M and M' are in \mathfrak{M}_R , and N and N' are in $R\mathfrak{M}_S$, then the following are true.
 - (a) $M \otimes_R N$ is in \mathfrak{M}_S , with the action of S given by $(m \otimes n)s = m \otimes ns$.
 - (b) If $f: M \to M'$ and $g: N \to N'$ are homomorphisms in \mathfrak{M}_R and ${}_R\mathfrak{M}_S$ respectively, then $f \otimes g: M \otimes_R N \to M' \otimes_R N'$ is a homomorphism in \mathfrak{M}_S .

PROOF. (1): Given $s \in S$ define $\ell_s : M \times N \to M \otimes_R N$ by $\ell_s(x,y) = s(x \otimes y) = sx \otimes y$. Check that ℓ_s is balanced, hence the action by S on $M \otimes_R N$ is well defined. The rest of (a) is left to the reader. For (b) the reader should verify that $f \otimes g$ is S-linear.

The proofs of (2) – (4) are similar and left to the reader.

COROLLARY 6.4.11. Let R be a commutative ring. If M and N are R-modules, then the following are true.

- (1) $M \otimes_R N$ is a left R-module by the rule: $r(m \otimes n) = rm \otimes n = m \otimes rn$.
- (2) If $f: M \to M'$ and $g: N \to N'$ are homomorphisms of R-modules, then $f \otimes g: M \otimes_R N \to M' \otimes_R N'$ is a homomorphism of R-modules.

Proof. Apply Lemma 6.4.10.

COROLLARY 6.4.12. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings. If M and M' are R-modules, then the following are true.

- (1) $S \otimes_R M$ is a left S-module under the action $s_1(s_2 \otimes m) = s_1 s_2 \otimes m$.
- (2) If $f: M \to M'$ is an R-module homomorphism, then $1 \otimes f: S \otimes_R M \to S \otimes_R M'$ is an S-module homomorphism.

PROOF. This follows from Lemma 6.4.10 since by Example 6.4.9 parts (3) and (4), S is a left S right R bimodule.

LEMMA 6.4.13. If R is a ring, then $R \otimes_R M \cong M$ as left R-modules under the map $x \otimes y \mapsto xy$.

PROOF. Since $R \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}_R$, given $M \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}$ we view $R \otimes_R M$ as a left R-module. Define $f: R \times M \to M$ by f(x,y) = xy. Since M is an R-module, f is balanced. There exists $\phi: R \otimes_R M \to M$ such that the diagram

$$R \times M \xrightarrow{\tau} R \otimes_R M$$

$$\downarrow^{\phi}$$

$$M$$

commutes. Define $\psi: M \to R \otimes M$ by $x \mapsto 1 \otimes x$. The reader should verify that ψ is R-linear. Notice that $\phi\psi(x) = \phi(1 \otimes x) = x$. On a typical generator $\psi\phi(x \otimes y) = 1 \otimes xy = x \otimes y$. It follows that ϕ and ψ are inverses.

LEMMA 6.4.14. (Tensor Product Is Associative) Let R and S be rings and assume $L \in \mathfrak{M}_R$, $M \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}_S$ and $N \in {}_S\mathfrak{M}$. Then $(L \otimes_R M) \otimes_S N$ is isomorphic as an abelian group to $L \otimes_R (M \otimes_S N)$ under the map which sends $(x \otimes y) \otimes z$ to $x \otimes (y \otimes z)$.

PROOF. Fix $z \in N$ and define

$$L \times M \xrightarrow{\rho_z} L \otimes_R (M \otimes_S N)$$
$$(x, y) \mapsto x \otimes (y \otimes z).$$

The reader should verify that ρ_z is R-balanced. Therefore,

$$L \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{f_z} L \otimes_R (M \otimes_S N)$$
$$x \otimes y \mapsto x \otimes (y \otimes z).$$

is a well defined homomorphism of groups. The function

$$(L \otimes_R M) \times N \xrightarrow{f} L \otimes_R (M \otimes_S N)$$
$$(\sum_i x_i \otimes y_i, z) \mapsto f_z(\sum_i x_i \otimes y_i) = \sum_i x_i \otimes (y_i \otimes z).$$

is well defined. The following equations show that f is balanced.

$$f\left(\sum_{i} x_{i} \otimes y_{i}, z_{1} + z_{2}\right) = \sum_{i} x_{i} \otimes \left(y_{i} \otimes \left(z_{1} + z_{2}\right)\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i} x_{i} \otimes \left(y_{i} \otimes z_{1} + y_{i} \otimes z_{2}\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i} x_{i} \otimes \left(y_{i} \otimes z_{1}\right) + \sum_{i} x_{i} \otimes \left(y_{i} \otimes z_{2}\right)$$

$$= f\left(\sum_{i} x_{i} \otimes y_{i}, z_{1}\right) + f\left(\sum_{i} x_{i} \otimes y_{i}, z_{2}\right)$$

$$f\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} x_{i} \otimes y_{i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{\ell} x_{i} \otimes y_{i}, z\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} x_{i} \otimes (y_{i} \otimes z)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{k} x_{i} \otimes (y_{i} \otimes z) + \sum_{i=k+1}^{\ell} x_{i} \otimes (y_{i} \otimes z)$$

$$= f\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} x_{i} \otimes y_{i}, z\right) + f\left(\sum_{i=k+1}^{\ell} x_{i} \otimes y_{i}, z\right)$$

$$f\left(\sum_{i} x_{i} \otimes y_{i}s, z\right) = \sum_{i} x_{i} \otimes (y_{i}s \otimes z)$$

$$= \sum_{i} x_{i} \otimes (y_{i} \otimes sz)$$

$$= f\left(\sum_{i} x_{i} \otimes y_{i}, sz\right)$$

In the diagram

$$(L \otimes_R M) \times_S N \xrightarrow{\tau} (L \otimes_R M) \otimes_S N$$

$$\downarrow^{\phi}$$

$$L \otimes_R (M \otimes_S N)$$

the homomorphism ϕ is well defined. The inverse of ϕ is defined in a similar way. \square

Lemma 6.4.15 shows that tensoring distributes across a direct sum. The analogous result for a direct product is false if the index set is infinite. For a counterexample, see Example 7.5.10.

LEMMA 6.4.15. (Tensor Product Distributes over a Direct Sum) Let M and $\{M_i\}_{i\in I}$ be right R-modules. Let N and $\{N_j\}_{j\in J}$ be left R-modules. There are isomorphisms of abelian groups

$$M \otimes_R \left(\bigoplus_{j \in J} N_j \right) \cong \bigoplus_{j \in J} \left(M \otimes_R N_j \right)$$

and

$$\left(\bigoplus_{i\in I} M_i\right) \otimes_R N \cong \bigoplus_{i\in I} \left(M_i \otimes_R N\right).$$

PROOF. Define $\rho: (\bigoplus M_i) \times N \to \bigoplus (M_i \otimes N)$ by $\rho(f, n) = g$ where $g(i) = f(i) \otimes n$. We prove that ρ is balanced. First, say $f_1, f_2 \in \bigoplus M_i$ and $\rho(f_1 + f_2, n) = g$, $\rho(f_1, n) = g_1$ and $\rho(f_2, n) = g_2$. Then

$$g(i) = (f_1(i) + f_2(i)) \otimes n$$

= $f_1(i) \otimes n + f_2(i) \otimes n$
= $g_1(i) + g_2(i)$

which shows $g = g_1 + g_2$. Next say $\rho(fr, n) = g$ and $\rho(f, rn) = h$. Then

$$g(i) = (fr(i) \otimes n)$$

$$= f(i)r \otimes n$$

$$= f(i) \otimes rn$$

$$= h(i)$$

which shows g = h. Clearly $\rho(f, n_1 + n_2) = \rho(f, n_1) + \rho(f, n_2)$. Therefore the homomorphism ϕ exists and the diagram

$$(\bigoplus M_i) \times N \xrightarrow{\tau} (\bigoplus M_i) \otimes N$$

$$\downarrow^{\phi}$$

$$\bigoplus (M_i \otimes N)$$

commutes. Let $\iota_j: M_j \to \bigoplus M_i$ be the injection of the jth summand into the direct sum. Let $\psi_j = \iota_j \otimes 1$. Then $\psi_j: M_j \otimes N \to \left(\bigoplus M_i\right) \otimes N$. Define $\psi = \bigoplus \psi_i$ to be the direct sum map of Exercise 6.3.11. Then $\psi: \bigoplus \left(M_i \otimes N\right) \to \left(\bigoplus M_i\right) \otimes N$. The reader should verify that ϕ and ψ are inverses of each other.

Lemma 6.4.16. Let R be a ring, M a right R-module and N a left R-module. Then $M \otimes_R N \cong N \otimes_{R^o} M$ under the map $x \otimes y \mapsto y \otimes x$.

PROOF. Define $\rho: M \times N \to N \otimes_{R^o} M$ by $\rho(x,y) = y \otimes x$. Then

$$\rho(x_1 + x_2, y) = y \otimes (x_1 + x_2)$$

$$= y \otimes x_1 + y \otimes x_2$$

$$= \rho(x_1, y) + \rho(x_2, y).$$

Likewise $\rho(x, y_1 + y_2) = \rho(x, y_1) + \rho(x, y_2)$. Also

$$\rho(xr, y) = y \otimes xr$$

$$= y \otimes r * x$$

$$= y * r \otimes x$$

$$= ry \otimes x$$

$$= \rho(x, ry)$$

which shows ρ is balanced. There exists a homomorphism ϕ and the diagram

$$M \times N \xrightarrow{\tau} M \otimes_R N$$

$$\downarrow^{\phi}$$

$$N \otimes_{R^o} M$$

commutes. Since $R = (R^o)^o$, it is clear that ϕ is an isomorphism.

4.2. Tensor Functor.

Lemma 6.4.17. Let R be a ring.

(1) If M is a right R-module, then tensoring with M defines a covariant functor $M \otimes_R (\cdot) : {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ from the category of left R-modules to the category of abelian groups.

- (2) If S is a ring and M is a left S right R bimodule, then $M \otimes_R (\cdot)$ defines a covariant functor from $_R\mathfrak{M}$ to $_S\mathfrak{M}$.
- (3) If R is a commutative ring and M is an R module, then $M \otimes_R (\cdot)$ defines a covariant functor from $_R \mathfrak{M}$ to $_R \mathfrak{M}$.
- (4) If $\theta: R \to S$ is a homomorphism of rings, then $S \otimes_R (\cdot)$ defines a covariant functor from $_R \mathfrak{M}$ to $_S \mathfrak{M}$.

If N is a left R-module, then versions of (1) – (3) hold for the functor defined by $(\cdot) \otimes_R N$ provided the roles of left and right are switched. The right hand version of (4) holds for the functor defined by $(\cdot) \otimes_R B$.

PROOF. (1): For any object N in the category $_R\mathfrak{M}$ we can construct the \mathbb{Z} -module $M \otimes_R N$. Given any homomorphism $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,B)$, there is a homomorphism $1 \otimes f : M \otimes_R A \to M \otimes_R B$. By Lemma 6.4.7, the composition of functions is preserved by tensoring with M.

For Part (2), use Part (1) and Lemma 6.4.10. For Part (3), use Part (1) and Corollary 6.4.11. For Part (4), use Part (1) and Corollary 6.4.12. \Box

Lemma 6.4.18. (Tensoring Is Right Exact.) Let R be a ring and M a right R-module. Given a short exact sequence in $_R\mathfrak{M}$

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \to 0$$

the sequence

$$M \otimes_R A \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \alpha} M \otimes_R B \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta} M \otimes_R C \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules.

PROOF. Step 1: Show that $1 \otimes \beta$ is onto. Given an element $x \otimes c$ in $M \otimes_R C$, use the fact that β is onto and find $b \in B$ such that $\beta(b) = c$. Notice that $(1 \otimes \beta)(x \otimes b) = x \otimes c$. The image of $1 \otimes \beta$ contains a generating set for $M \otimes_R C$.

Step 2: $\operatorname{im}(1 \otimes \alpha) \subseteq \ker(1 \otimes \beta)$. By Lemma 6.4.7, $(1 \otimes \beta) \circ (1 \otimes \alpha) = 1 \otimes \beta \alpha = 1 \otimes 0 = 0$.

Step 3: $\operatorname{im}(1 \otimes \alpha) \supseteq \ker(1 \otimes \beta)$. Write $E = \operatorname{im}(1 \otimes \alpha)$. By Step 2, $E \subseteq \ker(1 \otimes \beta)$ so $1 \otimes \beta$ factors through $M \otimes_R B/E$, giving

$$\bar{\beta}: \frac{M \otimes_R B}{E} \to M \otimes_R C.$$

It is enough to show that $\bar{\beta}$ is an isomorphism. To do this, we construct the inverse map. First, let $c \in C$ and consider two elements b_1, b_2 in $\beta^{-1}(c)$. Then $\beta(b_1 - b_2) = \beta(b_1) - \beta(b_2) = c - c = 0$. That is, $b_1 - b_2 \in \ker \beta = \operatorname{im} \alpha$. For any $x \in M$, it follows that $x \otimes b_1 - x \otimes b_2 = x \otimes (b_1 - b_2) \in \operatorname{im}(1 \otimes \alpha) = E$. Therefore we can define a function

$$M \times C \xrightarrow{f} \frac{M \otimes_R B}{E}$$

 $(x,c) \mapsto x \otimes b + E$

where b is an arbitrary element in $\beta^{-1}(c)$. The reader should verify that f is R-balanced. So there exists a homomorphism γ making the diagram

$$M \times C \xrightarrow{\tau} M \otimes_R C$$

$$\downarrow^{\gamma}$$

$$M \otimes_R B$$

$$M \otimes_R B$$

commutative. By construction, $\gamma = \bar{\beta}^{-1}$.

DEFINITION 6.4.19. By Lemma 6.4.18 the functor $M \otimes_R (\cdot)$ is right exact. In case $M \otimes_R (\cdot)$ is also left exact, then we say M is a flat R-module.

Example 6.4.20. Take $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $M = \mathbb{Z}/n$. The sequence

$$0 \to \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \to 0$$

is exact. In $M \otimes \mathbb{Q}$, $1 \otimes 1$ is equal to $1 \otimes n/n = n \otimes 1/n = 0 \otimes 0$. So tensoring the previous sequence with $M \otimes (\cdot)$,

$$0 \to \mathbb{Z}/n \to 0 \to 0 \to 0$$

is not exact. As a \mathbb{Z} -module, \mathbb{Z}/n is not flat.

4.2.1. Tensor Product of Algebras.

LEMMA 6.4.21. If A and B are R-algebras, then $A \otimes_R B$ is an R-algebra with multiplication induced by $(x_1 \otimes y_1)(x_2 \otimes y_2) = x_1x_2 \otimes y_1y_2$.

PROOF. Using Corollary 6.4.11(1), the tensor product of R-modules is an R-module. Using Lemma 6.4.16, the "twist" map

$$\tau: A \otimes_R B \to B \otimes_R A$$
$$x \otimes y \mapsto y \otimes x$$

is an R-module isomorphism. The reader should verify that multiplication in A and in B induce R-module homomorphisms

$$\mu: A \otimes_R A \to A$$
$$x \otimes y \mapsto xy$$

and

$$\nu: B \otimes_R B \to B$$
$$x \otimes y \mapsto xy$$

respectively. Consider the R-module homomorphisms

$$(A \otimes_R B) \otimes_R (A \otimes_R B) \xrightarrow{\cong} A \otimes_R (B \otimes_R A) \otimes_R B$$

$$\xrightarrow{1 \otimes \tau \otimes 1} A \otimes_R (A \otimes_R B) \otimes_R B$$

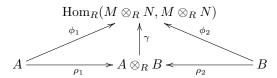
$$\xrightarrow{\cong} (A \otimes_R A) \otimes_R (B \otimes_R B)$$

$$\xrightarrow{\mu \otimes \nu} A \otimes_R B.$$

Since it is defined by the composition of the homomorphisms in (4.1), the multiplication rule in $A \otimes_R B$ is well defined. The reader should verify that the associative and distributive laws hold. The multiplicative identity is $1 \otimes 1$. If $r \in R$, then $r \otimes 1 = 1 \otimes r$ in $A \otimes_R B$. The reader should verify that $r \mapsto r \otimes 1$ defines a homomorphism from R to the center of $A \otimes_R B$.

LEMMA 6.4.22. Let R be a commutative ring and let A and B be R-algebras. Let M be a left A-module and N a left B-module. Given $a \in A$, $b \in B$, $x \in M$, and $y \in N$, if $(a \otimes b)(x \otimes y)$ is defined to be $ax \otimes by$, then this makes $M \otimes_R N$ into a left $A \otimes_R B$ -module.

PROOF. The R-algebras A and B come with homomorphisms $\theta_1: R \to A$ and $\theta_2: R \to B$ satisfying $\operatorname{im}(\theta_1) \subseteq Z(A)$ and $\operatorname{im}(\theta_2) \subseteq Z(B)$. Therefore, A and B are both left R right R bimodules and by Example 6.4.9 we can view M as a left A right R bimodule and R as a left R bimodule. By Lemma 6.4.10, R is a left R-module and a left R-module. By Example 4.4.4, the left regular representations of R and R are R-algebra homomorphisms R in R and R are R-algebra homomorphisms R in the image of R and R in the image of R in the image o



commutes. By Lemma 4.1.2, this makes $M \otimes_R N$ into a left $A \otimes_R B$ -module. Finally, left multiplication of $x \otimes y$ by $a \otimes b$ is equal to $ax \otimes by$,

4.2.2. Modules Under a Change of Base Ring.

Theorem 6.4.23. Let $\phi: A \to B$ be a homomorphism of rings. As in Example 6.4.9, ϕ makes B into a left A right A bimodule.

- (1) The assignment $M \mapsto M \otimes_A B$ defines a right exact covariant functor $\mathfrak{M}_A \to \mathfrak{M}_B$ which satisfies:
 - (a) A is mapped to B.
 - (b) Any direct sum $\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$ is mapped to the direct sum $\bigoplus_{i \in I} (M_i \otimes_A B)$.
 - (c) The free module A^I is mapped to the free B-module B^I .
- (2) If M is A-projective, then $M \otimes_A B$ is B-projective.
- (3) If M is an A-generator, then $M \otimes_A B$ is a B-generator.
- (4) If M is finitely generated over A, then $M \otimes_A B$ is finitely generated over B.
- (5) If M is a flat A-module, then $M \otimes_A B$ is a flat B-module.

Left hand versions of (1) – (5) hold for the covariant functor ${}_A\mathfrak{M} \to {}_B\mathfrak{M}$ which is defined by $M \mapsto B \otimes_A M$.

PROOF. (1): Apply Lemmas 6.4.13, 6.4.15, 6.4.17, and 6.4.18.

- (2): By Proposition 6.2.3, M is a direct summand of a free A-module. By (1), $M \otimes_A B$ is a direct summand of a free B-module.
 - (3): If $M^{(n)} \to A \to 0$ is an exact sequence of right A-modules, then by (1)

$$(M \otimes_A B)^{(n)} \to B \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of right B-modules. By Exercise 6.3.16 we are done.

(4): If $A^{(n)} \to M \to 0$ is an exact sequence of right A-modules, then by (1)

$$B^{(n)} \to M \otimes_A B \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of right B-modules. By Lemma 4.2.12 we are done.

(5): Is left to the reader.

Proposition 6.4.24. Let R be a commutative ring and let M and N be two R-modules.

- (1) If M and N are finitely generated over R, then so is $M \otimes_R N$.
- (2) If M and N are projective over R, then so is $M \otimes_R N$.
- (3) If M and N are generators over R, then so is $M \otimes_R N$.
- (4) If M and N are progenerators over R, then so is $M \otimes_R N$.

PROOF. (1): We are given exact sequences

$$(4.2) R^{(m)} \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \to 0$$

and

$$(4.3) R^{(n)} \xrightarrow{\beta} N \to 0.$$

Tensor (4.2) with $(\cdot) \otimes_R N$ to get the exact sequence

$$(4.4) R^{(m)} \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{\alpha \otimes 1} M \otimes_R N \to 0.$$

Tensor (4.3) with $R^{(m)} \otimes_R (\cdot)$ to get the exact sequence

(4.5)
$$R^{(m)} \otimes_R R^{(n)} \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta} R^{(m)} \otimes_R N \to 0.$$

The composition map $(\alpha \otimes 1) \circ (1 \otimes \beta)$ is onto.

(2): Start with dual bases $\{(f_i, m_i) \mid i \in I\}$ for M and $\{(g_j, n_j) \mid j \in J\}$ for N. Then $f_i \otimes g_j \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M \otimes_R N, R)$. For a typical generator $x \otimes y$ of $M \otimes_R N$, the following equations

$$\sum_{(i,j)} (f_i \otimes g_j)(x \otimes y)(m_i \otimes n_j) = \sum_{(i,j)} (f_i(x)g_j(y)(m_i \otimes n_j))$$

$$= \sum_{(i,j)} f_i(x)m_i \otimes g_j(y)n_j)$$

$$= \sum_{(i,j)} \left(f_i(x)m_i \otimes \left(\sum_j g_j(y)n_j \right) \right)$$

$$= \sum_i \left(f_i(x)m_i \otimes y \right)$$

$$= \sum_i \left(f_i(x)m_i \otimes y \right)$$

$$= \sum_i f_i(x)m_i \otimes y$$

$$= x \otimes y$$

show that $\{(f_i \otimes g_j, m_i \otimes n_j) \mid (i, j) \in I \times J\}$ is a dual basis for $M \otimes_R N$.

(3): By Exercise 6.5.16(1) there are exact sequences

$$(4.6) M^{(m)} \xrightarrow{\alpha} R \to 0$$

and

$$(4.7) N^{(n)} \xrightarrow{\beta} R \to 0.$$

Tensor (4.6) with $(\cdot) \otimes_R N^{(n)}$ to get the exact sequence

$$(4.8) M^{(m)} \otimes_R N^{(n)} \xrightarrow{\alpha \otimes 1} R \otimes_R N^{(n)} \to 0.$$

Then the composition $(1 \otimes \beta) \circ (\alpha \otimes 1)$ maps $(M \otimes_R N)^{(mn)}$ onto R.

$$(4)$$
: Follows from (1) , (2) and (3) .

PROPOSITION 6.4.25. Let R be a ring. Let M and N be left R right R-bimodules. Assume $M \otimes_R N$ is a left R-generator module. Then the following are true.

- (1) M and N are both left R-generator modules.
- (2) If $M \otimes_R N$ is projective as a left R-module, then M and N are both projective as left R-modules.
- (3) If $M \otimes_R N$ is finitely generated as a left R-module, then M and N are both finitely generated as left R-modules.
- (4) If $M \otimes_R N$ is a left progenerator over R, then M and N are both left progenerators over R.

If $M \otimes_R N$ is a right R-generator module, then right hand versions of (1) – (4) hold for M and N.

PROOF. (1): By Exercise 6.3.16 there is a free R-module F_1 of finite rank and a homomorphism f_1 of left R-modules such that $f_1: F_1 \otimes_R (M \otimes_R N) \to R$ is onto. By Lemma 4.2.12 there is a free R-module F_2 and a left R-module homomorphism f_2 such that $f_2: F_2 \to M$ is onto. By Lemma 6.4.18,

$$F_2 \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{f_2 \otimes 1} M \otimes_R N \to 0$$

is exact. For the same reason,

$$F_1 \otimes_R (F_2 \otimes_R N) \xrightarrow{1 \otimes f_2 \otimes 1} F_1 \otimes_R (M \otimes_R N) \to 0$$

is exact. Since $F_1 \otimes_R F_2$ is a free R-module, Lemma 6.4.14 and Lemma 6.4.15 show that $F_1 \otimes_R (F_2 \otimes_R N)$ is a direct sum of copies of N. Then $f_1 \circ (1 \otimes f_2 \otimes 1)$ maps a direct sum of copies of N onto R. Use Exercise 6.3.16 again to show N is a left R-module generator. The other case is left to the reader.

(2) and (3): By Part (1) and Exercise 6.3.16 there is a free R-module F of finite rank and a left R-module homomorphism f such that $N \otimes_R F \xrightarrow{f} R$ is onto. But f is split since R is projective over R. By Exercise 6.4.31,

$$M \otimes_R N \otimes_R F \xrightarrow{f \otimes 1} M \to 0$$

is split exact. If $M \otimes_R N$ is projective, then by Lemma 6.4.15 and Exercise 6.3.13, M is projective. If $M \otimes_R N$ is finitely generated, then so is M. The other cases are left to the reader.

4.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 6.4.26. Assume A is a \mathbb{Z} -module and m > 0. Prove that $A \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/m \cong A/mA$.

EXERCISE 6.4.27. If m > 0, n > 0 and $d = \gcd(m, n)$, then $\mathbb{Z}/m \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/n \cong \mathbb{Z}/d$.

EXERCISE 6.4.28. Let R be a ring, M a right R-module, N a left R-module. If M' is a submodule of M and N' is a submodule of N, then show that $M/M' \otimes_R N/N' \cong (M \otimes_R N)/C$ where C is the subgroup of $M \otimes_R N$ generated by all elements of the form $x' \otimes y$ and $x \otimes y'$ with $x \in M$, $x' \in M'$, $y \in N$ and $y' \in N'$.

EXERCISE 6.4.29. Let $B = \langle b \rangle$ be the cyclic group of order four, $A = \langle 2b \rangle$ the subgroup of order two and $\alpha : A \to B$ the homomorphism defined by $A \subseteq B$. Show that the groups $A \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} A$ and $A \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} B$ are both nonzero. Show that $1 \otimes \alpha : A \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} A \to A \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} B$ is the zero homomorphism.

EXERCISE 6.4.30. Let R be a ring and let R^I and R^J be free R-modules.

(1) Show that $R^I \otimes_R R^J$ is a free R-module.

(2) If A is a free R-module of rank m and B is a free R-module of rank n, then show that $A \otimes_R B$ is free of rank mn.

Exercise 6.4.31. Let

$$(4.9) 0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \to 0$$

be a short exact sequence of left R-modules. Given a right R-module M, consider the sequence

$$(4.10) 0 \to M \otimes_R A \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \alpha} M \otimes_R B \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta} M \otimes_R C \to 0.$$

Prove:

- (1) If (4.9) is split exact, then (4.10) is split exact.
- (2) If M is a free right R-module, then (4.10) is exact, hence M is flat.
- (3) If M is a projective right R-module, then (4.10) is exact, hence M is flat.

EXERCISE 6.4.32. If R is any ring and M is an R-module, use Exercise 6.4.31 and Exercise 6.3.10 to show that M has a flat resolution.

EXERCISE 6.4.33. Let R be a ring and I a right ideal of R. Let B be a left R-module. Prove that there is an isomorphism of groups

$$R/I \otimes_R B \cong B/IB$$

where IB is the subgroup of B generated by $\{rx \mid r \in I, x \in B\}$.

EXERCISE 6.4.34. Prove that if R is a commutative ring with ideals I and J, then there is an isomorphism of R-modules

$$R/I \otimes_R R/J \cong R/(I+J).$$

EXERCISE 6.4.35. Let R be a commutative ring. Suppose A and B are R-algebras. Then A and B come with homomorphisms $\theta_1: R \to A$ and $\theta_2: R \to B$ satisfying $\operatorname{im}(\theta_1) \subseteq Z(A)$ and $\operatorname{im}(\theta_2) \subseteq Z(B)$.

(1) Show that there exist R-algebra homomorphisms $\rho_1:A\to A\otimes_R B$ and $\rho_2:B\to A\otimes_R B$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{c}
A \otimes_R B \\
 & \rho_1
\end{array}$$

$$A \otimes_R B \\
 & \rho_2$$

$$B \otimes_R B \\
 & \rho_2$$

$$B \otimes_R B \\
 & \rho_2$$

commutes. Show that $\operatorname{im}(\rho_1)$ commutes with $\operatorname{im}(\rho_2)$. That is, $\rho_1(x)\rho_2(y) = \rho_2(y)\rho_1(x)$ for all $x \in A, y \in B$.

(2) Suppose there exist R-algebra homomorphisms $\alpha: A \to C$ and $\beta: B \to C$ such that $\operatorname{im}(\alpha)$ commutes with $\operatorname{im}(\beta)$. Show that there exists a unique R-algebra homomorphism $\gamma: A \otimes_R B \to C$ such that the diagram

$$(4.12) \qquad C \\ A \xrightarrow[\rho_1]{\alpha} A \otimes_R B \xrightarrow[\rho_2]{\beta} B$$

commutes.

(3) Show that if there exists an R-algebra homomorphism $\gamma: A \otimes_R B \to C$, then there exist R-algebra homomorphisms $\alpha: A \to C$ and $\beta: B \to C$ such that the image of α commutes with the image of β and diagram (4.12) commutes.

EXERCISE 6.4.36. Let S be a commutative R-algebra. Show that there is a well defined homomorphism of R-algebras $\mu: S \otimes_R S \to S$ which maps a typical element $\sum x_i \otimes y_i$ in the tensor algebra to $\sum x_i y_i$ in S.

EXERCISE 6.4.37. Let R be a commutative ring and let A and B be R-algebras. Prove that $A \otimes_R B \cong B \otimes_R A$ as R-algebras.

EXERCISE 6.4.38. Let A be an R-algebra. Show that $A \otimes_R R[x] \cong A[x]$ as R-algebras.

Exercise 6.4.39. Let S and T be commutative R-algebras. Prove:

- (1) If S and T are both finitely generated R-algebras, then $S \otimes_R T$ is a finitely generated R-algebra.
- (2) If T is a finitely generated R-algebra, then $S \otimes_R T$ is a finitely generated S-algebra.

EXERCISE 6.4.40. Let R be a commutative ring. Prove that if I is an ideal in R, then $I \otimes_R R[x] \cong I[x]$ and $R[x]/I[x] \cong (R/I)[x]$.

EXERCISE 6.4.41. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings. Let $M \in \mathfrak{M}_S$ and $N \in {}_S\mathfrak{M}$. Via θ , M can be viewed as a right R-module and N as a left R-module. Show that θ induces a well defined \mathbb{Z} -module epimorphism $M \otimes_R N \to M \otimes_S N$. (Note: The dual result, how a Hom group behaves when the ring in the middle is changed, is studied in Exercise 4.4.33.)

EXERCISE 6.4.42. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings. Let $M \in \mathfrak{M}_R$ and $N \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}, \, M' \in \mathfrak{M}_S$ and $N' \in {}_S\mathfrak{M}$. Via $\theta, \, M'$ and N' are viewed as R-modules. In this context, let $f: M \to M'$ be a right R-module homomorphism and $g: N \to N'$ a left R-module homomorphism. Using Lemma 6.4.6 and Exercise 6.4.41, show that there is a well defined \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism $M \otimes_R N \to M' \otimes_S N'$ which satisfies $x \otimes y \mapsto f(x) \otimes g(y)$.

EXERCISE 6.4.43. Let R be a commutative ring and S a commutative R-algebra. Let A be an S-algebra. Using Exercise 6.4.41, show that there is a well defined epimorphism of rings $A \otimes_R A \to A \otimes_S A$.

EXERCISE 6.4.44. Prove that if A is an R-algebra, then $A \otimes_R M_n(R) \cong M_n(A)$ as R-algebras.

EXERCISE 6.4.45. Let R be an integral domain and K the field of fractions of R. Show that $M \otimes_R K = 0$, if M is a torsion R-module (Definition 4.3.4).

EXERCISE 6.4.46. Let k be a field and n > 1 an integer. Let T = k[x, y], $S = k[x^n, xy, y^n]$, and $R = k[x^n, y^n]$. For the tower of subrings $R \subseteq S \subseteq T$, prove:

- (1) T is free over R of rank n^2 .
- (2) S is free over R of rank n.
- (3) T is not free over S. (Hint: Consider the residue class rings $S/(x^n, xy, y^n)$ and $T/(x^n, xy, y^n)$.)

For more properties of the ring $k[x^n, xy, y^n]$, see Exercise 15.4.19.

5. Hom Groups

If R is a ring and M and N are R-modules, then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is the set of R-module homomorphisms from M to N. Then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is an additive group under point-wise addition:

$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x).$$

See Exercise 2.8.11. If R is commutative, then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ can be turned into a left R-module by defining (rf)(x) = rf(x). If R is noncommutative, then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ cannot be turned into an R-module per se. If S is another ring and M or N is a bimodule over R and S, then we can turn $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ into an S-module. Lemma 6.5.1 lists four such possibilities.

Lemma 6.5.1. Let R and S be rings.

- (1) If M is a left R right S bimodule and N is a left R-module, then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is a left S-module, with the action of S given by (sf)(m) = f(ms).
- (2) If M is a left R-module and N is a left R right S bimodule, then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is a right S-module, with the action of S given by (fs)(m) = (f(m))s.
- (3) If M is a left R left S bimodule and N is a left R-module, then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is a right S-module, with the action of S given by (fs)(m) = f(sm).
- (4) If M is a left R-module and N is a left R left S bimodule, then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is a left S-module, with the action of S given by (sf)(m) = s(f(m)).

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

Let R be a ring and M a left R-module. Then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ is a ring where multiplication is composition of functions:

$$(fg)(x) = f(g(x)).$$

When M is a \mathbb{Z} -module, this is Example 3.1.7. The ring $S = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)$ acts as a ring of functions on M and this makes M a left S-module. If R is commutative, then $S = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)$ is an R-algebra. The next two results are corollaries to Lemma 6.3.1 (Nakayama's Lemma).

COROLLARY 6.5.2. Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated R-module. Let $f: M \to M$ be an R-module homomorphism such that f is onto. Then f is one-to-one.

PROOF. Let R[x] be the polynomial ring in one variable over R. We turn M into an R[x]-module using f. Given $m \in M$ and $p(x) \in R[x]$, define

$$p(x) \cdot m = p(f)(m).$$

Since M is finitely generated over R, M is finitely generated over R[x]. Let I be the ideal in R[x] generated by x. Then IM = M because f is onto. By Nakayama's Lemma 6.3.1, $I + \operatorname{annih}_{R[x]} M = R[x]$. For some $p(x)x \in I$, $1 - p(x)x \in \operatorname{annih}_{R[x]} M$. Then (1 - p(x)x)M = 0 which says for each $m \in M$, m = (p(f)f)(m). Then p(f)f is the identity function, so f is one-to-one.

COROLLARY 6.5.3. Let R be a commutative ring, M an R-module, N a finitely generated R-module, and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$. Then f is onto if and only if for each maximal ideal $\mathfrak m$ in R, the induced map $\bar f: M/\mathfrak m M \to N/\mathfrak m N$ is onto.

PROOF. Let C denote the cokernel of f and let \mathfrak{m} be an arbitrary maximal ideal of R. Since N is finitely generated, so is C. Tensor the exact sequence

$$M \xrightarrow{f} N \to C \to 0$$

with $(\cdot) \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m}$ to get

$$M/\mathfrak{m}M \xrightarrow{\bar{f}} N/\mathfrak{m}N \to C/\mathfrak{m}C \to 0$$

which is exact since tensoring is right exact. If f is onto, then C = 0 so \bar{f} is onto. Conversely if $\mathfrak{m}C = C$ for every \mathfrak{m} , then Corollary 6.3.2 (Corollary to Nakayama's Lemma) implies C = 0.

5.1. Hom Functor.

Lemma 6.5.4. For a ring R and a left R-module M, the following are true.

(1) $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,\cdot)$ is a covariant functor from ${}_R\mathfrak{M}$ to ${}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ which sends a left R module N to the abelian group $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$. Given any R-module homomorphism $f:A\to B$, there is a homomorphism of groups

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,A) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_f} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,B)$$

which is defined by the assignment $g \mapsto fg$.

(2) $\operatorname{Hom}_R(\cdot, M)$ is a contravariant functor from ${}_R\mathfrak{M}$ to ${}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ which sends a left R module N to the abelian group $\operatorname{Hom}_R(N, M)$. Given any R-module homomorphism $f: A \to B$, there is a homomorphism of groups

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(B,M) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_f} \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,M)$$

which is defined by the assignment $q \mapsto qf$.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

Proposition 6.5.5. Let R be a ring and M a left R-module.

- (1) $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M,\cdot)$ is a left exact covariant functor from ${}_{R}\mathfrak{M}$ to ${}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$.
- (2) M is projective if and only if $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,\cdot)$ is an exact functor.
- (3) $\operatorname{Hom}_R(\cdot, M)$ is a left exact contravariant functor from ${}_R\mathfrak{M}$ to ${}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$.

Proof. (1): Given an exact sequence

$$(5.1) 0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \to 0$$

in $_{R}\mathfrak{M}$, we prove that the corresponding sequence

$$(5.2) 0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,A) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,B) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\beta}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,C)$$

in $\mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{M}$ is exact.

Step 1: Show that H_{α} is one-to-one. Assume $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, A)$ and $\alpha g = 0$. Since α is one-to-one, then g = 0.

Step 2: Show im $H_{\alpha} \subseteq \ker H_{\beta}$. Suppose $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, A)$. Then $H_{\beta} H_{\alpha}(g) = \beta \alpha g = 0$ since (5.1) is exact.

Step 3: Show im $H_{\alpha} \supseteq \ker H_{\beta}$. Suppose $h \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, B)$ and $H_{\beta}(h) = \beta h = 0$. Then im $(h) \subseteq \ker(\beta) = \operatorname{im}(\alpha)$. Since α is one-to-one, there is an isomorphism of R-modules $\alpha^{-1} : \operatorname{im}(\alpha) \to A$. So the composition $g = \alpha^{-1} \circ h$ is an R-module homomorphism $g : M \to A$ and $H_{\alpha}(g) = \alpha g = h$.

A partial converse to Proposition 6.5.5(3) is

Lemma 6.5.6. Let R be a ring. The sequence of R-modules

$$A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C$$

is exact, if for all R-modules M

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(C,M) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\beta}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(B,M) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,M)$$

is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules.

PROOF. Step 1: im $\alpha \subseteq \ker \beta$. Suppose there exists $a \in A$ such that $\beta \alpha a \neq 0$. We take M to be the nonzero module C. By assumption,

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(C,C) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\beta}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(B,C) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,C)$$

is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules. Let 1 denote the identity element in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(C,C)$. By evaluating at the element a, we see that $\operatorname{H}_{\alpha}\operatorname{H}_{\beta}(1)\neq 0$, a contradiction.

Step 2: $\operatorname{im} \alpha \supseteq \ker \beta$. Suppose there exists $b \in B$ such that $\beta b = 0$ and $b \notin \operatorname{im} \alpha$. By Proposition 6.5.5(3), the exact sequence

$$A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\pi} B/\operatorname{im} \alpha \to 0$$

gives rise to the exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(B/\operatorname{im}\alpha, B/\operatorname{im}\alpha) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\pi}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(B, B/\operatorname{im}\alpha) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(A, B/\operatorname{im}\alpha).$$

The identity map $1 \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(B/\operatorname{im} \alpha, B/\operatorname{im} \alpha)$ maps to the nonzero map $\pi = \operatorname{H}_{\pi}(1)$. Since $\operatorname{H}_{\alpha}(\pi) = \pi\alpha = 0$, we see that $\pi \in \ker \operatorname{H}_{\alpha}$. If we take M to be the nonzero module $B/\operatorname{im} \alpha$, then by assumption,

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(C,B/\operatorname{im}\alpha)\xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_\beta}\operatorname{Hom}_R(B,B/\operatorname{im}\alpha)\xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_\alpha}\operatorname{Hom}_R(A,B/\operatorname{im}\alpha)$$

is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules. So $\pi \in \operatorname{im} H_{\beta}$. There exists $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(C, B/\operatorname{im} \alpha)$ such that $g\beta = \pi$. On the one hand we have $g\beta(b) = 0$. On the other hand we have $\pi(b) \neq 0$, a contradiction.

5.2. Various Identities Involving the Hom Functor.

LEMMA 6.5.7. Let R be a ring and M a left R-module. Then the map $f \mapsto f(1)$ defines an R-module isomorphism $\phi : \operatorname{Hom}_R(R, M) \to M$.

PROOF. By Lemma 6.5.1 (1), we make $\operatorname{Hom}_R(R, M)$ into a left R-module by the action (rf)(x) = f(xr). The equations

$$\phi(f_1 + f_2) = (f_1 + f_2)(1) = f_1(1) + f_2(1) = \phi(f_1) + \phi(f_2)$$

and

$$\phi(rf) = (rf)(1) = f(1r) = f(r1) = rf(1) = r\phi(f)$$

show that ϕ is an R-module homomorphism. Given any $x \in M$, define $\rho_x : R \to M$ to be "right multiplication by x". That is, $\rho_x(a) = ax$ for any $a \in R$. Since M is a left R-module, it follows that $\rho_x \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(R, M)$. This defines a function $\rho: M \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(R, M)$ which is the inverse to ϕ .

PROPOSITION 6.5.8. Let R be a ring. Let M, N, $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ and $\{N_j \mid j \in J\}$ be R-modules. There are isomorphisms

(1)
$$\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\bigoplus_{i\in I} M_{i}, N\right) \cong \prod_{i\in I} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M_{i}, N)$$

(2)
$$\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, \prod_{j \in J} N_{j}\right) \cong \prod_{j \in J} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N_{j})$$

of \mathbb{Z} -modules.

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PROOF. (1): Let $\iota_j: M_j \to \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$ be the injection into coordinate j. Define

$$\phi: \operatorname{Hom}_R\Bigl(\bigoplus_{i\in I} M_i, N\Bigr) \to \prod_{i\in I} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M_i, N)$$

by $\phi(f) = g$ where $g(i) = f\iota_i$. Clearly ϕ is a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism. Given any $g \in \prod_{i \in I} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M_i, N)$, by Exercise 6.3.11 there exists a unique f such that the diagram

commutes for every $j \in I$. Therefore $\phi(f) = g$. This shows that ϕ is a one-to-one correspondence, completing (1).

(2): Is left to the reader. (Hint: instead of the injection maps, use projections. Use Exercise 6.3.12.)

COROLLARY 6.5.9. (Hom Distributes over a Finite Direct Sum) Let R be a ring and say $\{M_1, \ldots, M_m\}$ and $\{N_1, \ldots, N_n\}$ are R-modules. There is an isomorphism of \mathbb{Z} -modules

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^{m} M_{i}, \bigoplus_{j=1}^{n} N_{j}\right) \xrightarrow{\phi} \bigoplus_{(i,j)=(1,1)}^{(m,n)} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M_{i}, N_{j})$$

given by $\phi(f) = g$ where $g(k, \ell) \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M_k, N_\ell)$ is defined by $g(k, \ell) = \pi_\ell \circ f \circ \iota_k$. Here we use the notation $\iota_k : M_k \to \bigoplus M_i$ is the injection into the kth summand and $\pi_\ell : \bigoplus N_j \to N_\ell$ is the projection onto the ℓ th summand.

5.3. Hom Tensor Relations. In this section we prove several identities involving Hom groups and the tensor product. We usually refer to these as "Hom Tensor Relations".

Theorem 6.5.10. (Adjoint Isomorphism) Let R and S be rings.

(1) If $A \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}$, $B \in {}_S\mathfrak{M}_R$ and $C \in {}_S\mathfrak{M}$, then there is an isomorphism of \mathbb{Z} -modules

$$\operatorname{Hom}_S(B \otimes_R A, C) \xrightarrow{\psi} \operatorname{Hom}_R(A, \operatorname{Hom}_S(B, C))$$

defined by $\psi(f)(a) = f(\cdot \otimes a)$.

(2) If $A \in \mathfrak{M}_R$, $B \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}_S$ and $C \in \mathfrak{M}_S$, then there is an isomorphism of \mathbb{Z} -modules

$$\operatorname{Hom}_S(A \otimes_R B, C) \xrightarrow{\phi} \operatorname{Hom}_R(A, \operatorname{Hom}_S(B, C))$$

defined by $\phi(f)(a) = f(a \otimes \cdot)$.

In both cases, the isomorphism is natural in both variables A and C. The "Tensor-Hom" pair, $(B \otimes_R (\cdot), \operatorname{Hom}_S(B, \cdot))$, is an adjoint pair.

PROOF. (1): Make $B \otimes_R A$ into a left S-module by $s(b \otimes a) = sb \otimes a$. Make $\operatorname{Hom}_S(B,C)$ into a left R-module by (rf)(b) = f(br). Let $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_S(B \otimes_R A,C)$. For any $a \in A$, define $f(\cdot \otimes a) : B \to C$ by $b \mapsto f(b \otimes a)$. The reader should verify that $a \mapsto f(\cdot \otimes a)$ is an R-module homomorphism $A \to \operatorname{Hom}_S(B,C)$. This map is additive in f so ψ is well defined. Conversely, say $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(A, \operatorname{Hom}_S(B,C))$. Define $B \times A \to C$ by $(b,a) \mapsto g(a)(b)$. The reader should verify that this map is balanced and commutes with the left S-action on B and C. Hence there is induced $\phi(g) \in \operatorname{Hom}_S(B \otimes_R A,C)$ and the reader should verify that ϕ is the inverse to ψ . The reader should verify that ψ is natural in both variables.

(2): is left to the reader.
$$\Box$$

LEMMA 6.5.11. Let R and S be rings. Let $A \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}$ be finitely generated and projective. For any $B \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}_S$ and $C \in \mathfrak{M}_S$ there is a natural isomorphism

$$\operatorname{Hom}_S(B,C) \otimes_R A \xrightarrow{\alpha} \operatorname{Hom}_S(\operatorname{Hom}_R(A,B),C)$$

of abelian groups. On generators, the map is defined by $\alpha(f \otimes a)(g) = f(g(a))$.

PROOF. Note that $\operatorname{Hom}_S(B,C)$ is a right R-module by the action (fr)(b)=f(rb) and $\operatorname{Hom}_R(A,B)$ is a right S-module by the action (gs)(a)=g(a)s. Given any (f,a) in $\operatorname{Hom}_S(B,C)\times A$, define $\phi(f,a)\in\operatorname{Hom}_S(\operatorname{Hom}_R(A,B),C)$ by $\phi(f,a)(g)=f(g(a))$. The reader should verify that ϕ is a well defined balanced map. Therefore α is a well defined group homomorphism. Also note that if $\psi:A\to A'$ is an R-module homomorphism, then the diagram

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{S}(B,C) \otimes_{R} A \xrightarrow{\quad \alpha \quad} \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(A,B),C)$$

$$\downarrow^{\operatorname{H}(\operatorname{H}(\psi))}$$

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{S}(B,C) \otimes_{R} A' \xrightarrow{\quad \alpha \quad} \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(A',B),C)$$

commutes. If A=R, then by Lemma 6.5.7 we see that α is an isomorphism. If $A=R^n$ is finitely generated and free, then use Lemma 6.5.9 to show α is an isomorphism. If A is a direct summand of a free R-module of finite rank, then combine the above results to complete the proof.

Theorem 6.5.12. Let R be a commutative ring and let A and B be R-algebras. Let M be a finitely generated projective A-module and N a finitely generated projective B-module. Then for any A-module M' and any B-module N', the mapping

$$\operatorname{Hom}_A(M,M') \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_B(N,N') \xrightarrow{\psi} \operatorname{Hom}_{A \otimes_R B}(M \otimes_R N, M' \otimes_R N')$$

induced by $\psi(f \otimes g)(x \otimes y) = f(x) \otimes g(y)$ is an R-module isomorphism. If M = M' and N = N', then ψ is also a homomorphism of rings.

PROOF. By Lemma 6.4.22, $M \otimes_R N$ and $M' \otimes_R N'$ are $A \otimes_R B$ -modules. Define $\rho : \operatorname{Hom}_A(M, M') \times \operatorname{Hom}_B(N, N') \to \operatorname{Hom}_{A \otimes_R B}(M \otimes_R N, M' \otimes_R N')$ by

$$\rho(f,g)(x \otimes y) = f(x) \otimes g(y). \text{ The equations}$$

$$\rho(f_1 + f_2, g)(x \otimes y) = (f_1 + f_2)(x) \otimes g(y)$$

$$= (f_1(x) + f_2(x)) \otimes g(y)$$

$$= f_1(x) \otimes g(y) + f_2(x) \otimes g(y)$$

$$= \rho(f_1, g)(x \otimes y) + \rho(f_2, g)(x \otimes y)$$

$$= (\rho(f_1, g) + \rho(f_2, g))(x \otimes y)$$

and

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$$\rho(fr,g)(x \otimes y) = (fr)(x) \otimes g(y)$$

$$= f(x)r \otimes g(y)$$

$$= f(x) \otimes rg(y)$$

$$= f(x) \otimes (rg)(y)$$

$$= \rho(f,rg)(x \otimes y)$$

show that ρ is R-balanced. Therefore ψ is well defined. Now we show that ψ is an isomorphism. The method of proof is to reduce to the case where M and N are free modules.

Case 1: Show that ψ is an isomorphism if M=A and N=B. By Lemma 6.5.7, both sides are naturally isomorphic to $M'\otimes_R N'$.

Case 2: Show that ψ is an isomorphism if M is free of finite rank m over A and N is free of finite rank n over B. By Lemma 6.5.9, Lemma 6.4.15 and Case 1, both sides are naturally isomorphic to $(M' \otimes_R N')^{(mn)}$.

Case 3: The general case. By Proposition 6.2.3 (1), we can write $M \oplus L \cong F$ where F is a free A module of finite rank and $N \oplus K \cong G$ where G is a free B module of finite. Using Lemma 6.5.9 and Lemma 6.4.15

(5.3) $\operatorname{Hom}_A(F, M') \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_B(G, N') = (\operatorname{Hom}_A(M, M') \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_B(N, N')) \oplus H$ is an internal direct sum of the left hand side for some submodule H. Likewise,

(5.4)
$$\operatorname{Hom}_{A\otimes_R B}(F\otimes_R G, M'\otimes_R N') = \operatorname{Hom}_{A\otimes_R B}(M\otimes_R N, M'\otimes_R N') \oplus H'$$
 is an internal direct sum of the right hand side, for some submodule H' . By Case 2, the natural map Ψ is an isomorphism between the left hand sides of (5.3) and (5.4). The restriction of Ψ gives the desired isomorphism ψ .

Corollary 6.5.13. Let R be a commutative ring and N a finitely generated projective R-module. Let A be an R-algebra. Then

$$A \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_R(N, N') \xrightarrow{\psi} \operatorname{Hom}_A(A \otimes_R N, A \otimes_R N')$$

is an R-module isomorphism for any R-module N'.

PROOF. Set
$$B = R$$
, $M = M' = A$.

Corollary 6.5.14. If R is commutative and M and N are finitely generated projective R-modules, then

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)\otimes_R\operatorname{Hom}_R(N,N)\xrightarrow{\psi}\operatorname{Hom}_R(M\otimes_RN,M\otimes_RN)$$

 $is\ an\ R-algebra\ isomorphism.$

PROOF. Take
$$A = B = R$$
, $M = M'$ and $N = N'$.

Theorem 6.5.15. Let A and B be rings. Let L be a finitely generated and projective left A-module. Let M be a left B-module. Let D be a left B-module. Then

$$\operatorname{Hom}_A(L, M) \otimes_B N \xrightarrow{\psi} \operatorname{Hom}_A(L, M \otimes_B N)$$

is a \mathbb{Z} -module isomorphism, where $\psi(f \otimes y)(x) = f(x) \otimes y$ for all $y \in N$ and $x \in L$.

PROOF. By Lemma 6.5.1, $\operatorname{Hom}_A(L, M)$ is a right *B*-module by the action (fb)(x) = f(x)b. The reader should verify that ψ is balanced, hence well defined.

Case 1: Show that ψ is an isomorphism if L=A. By Lemma 6.5.7, both sides are naturally isomorphic to $M \otimes_B N$.

Case 2: Show that ψ is an isomorphism if L is free of rank n over A. By Lemma 6.5.9, Lemma 6.4.15 and Case 1, both sides are naturally isomorphic to $(M \otimes_R N)^{(n)}$.

Case 3: The general case. By Proposition 6.2.3 (1), we can write $L \oplus K \cong F$ where F is a free A module of rank n. Using Lemma 6.5.9 and Lemma 6.4.15

(5.5)
$$\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(F, M) \otimes_{B} N = \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(L, M) \otimes_{R} N \oplus H$$

is an internal direct sum of the left hand side for some submodule H. Likewise,

(5.6)
$$\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(F, M \otimes_{B} N) = \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(L, M \otimes_{R} N) \oplus H'$$

is an internal direct sum of the right hand side, for some submodule H'. By Case 2, the natural map Ψ is an isomorphism between the left hand sides of (5.5) and (5.6). The restriction of Ψ gives the desired isomorphism ψ .

5.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 6.5.16. Let R be a ring and M a left R-module. The functor $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,-)$ from the category of left R-modules to the category of \mathbb{Z} -modules is said to be faithful in case for every R-module homomorphism $\beta:A\to B$, if $\beta\neq 0$, then there exists $h\in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,A)$ such that $\beta h\neq 0$. This exercise outlines a proof that M is an R-generator if and only if the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,-)$ is faithful. (This idea comes from $[10,\operatorname{Proposition}\ 1.1(a),\operatorname{p.}\ 52]$.)

(1) For any left R-module A, set $H = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,A)$. Let M^H denote the direct sum of copies of M over the index set H. Show that there is an R-module homomorphism

$$\alpha: M^H \to A$$

defined by $\alpha(f) = \sum_{h \in H} h(f(h))$.

- (2) Show that if $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, -)$ is faithful, then for any left R-module A, the map α defined in Part (1) is surjective. Conclude that M is an R-generator. (Hint: Let $\beta: A \to B$ be the cokernel of α . Show that the composition $M \xrightarrow{h} A \xrightarrow{\beta} B$ is the zero map for all $h \in H$.)
- (3) Prove that if M is an R-generator, then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,-)$ is faithful. (Hint: Use Exercise 6.3.16.

EXERCISE 6.5.17. Let R be any ring and $\phi: A \to B$ a homomorphism of left R-modules. Prove that the following are equivalent.

(1) ϕ has a left inverse. That is, there exists an R-module homomorphism $\psi: B \to A$ such that $\psi \phi = 1_A$.

(2) For every left R-module M, the sequence

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(B,M) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\phi}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,M) \to 0$$

is exact.

(3) The sequence

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(B,A) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\phi}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,A) \to 0$$

is exact.

See Exercise 6.5.24 for the dual result on the splitting of $A \to B \to 0$.

EXERCISE 6.5.18. Let R be any ring and $\phi: A \to B$ a homomorphism of left R-modules. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) ϕ is an isomorphism.
- (2) For every R-module M, $H_{\phi}: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(B, M) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(A, M)$ is an isomorphism.

EXERCISE 6.5.19. Let A be an R-algebra that is finitely generated as an R-module. Suppose x and y are elements of A satisfying xy=1. Prove that yx=1. (Hints: Let $\rho_y:A\to A$ be defined by "right multiplication by y". That is, $\rho_y(a)=ay$. Show that ρ_y is onto. Conclude that ρ_y is one-to-one and use this to prove yx=1.)

EXERCISE 6.5.20. Let R be a ring, M a left R-module, and N a right R-module. Prove the following:

- (1) $M^* = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, R)$ is a right R-module by the formula given in Lemma 6.5.1 (2).
- (2) $N^* = \operatorname{Hom}_R(N, R)$ is a left R-module by the rule (rf)(x) = rf(x).
- (3) Let $M^{**} = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M^*, R)$ be the double dual of M (see Definition 4.4.22). For $m \in M$, let $\varphi_m : M^* \to R$ be the "evaluation at m" map. That is, if $f \in M^*$, then $\varphi_m(f) = f(m)$. Prove that $\varphi_m \in M^{**}$, and that the assignment $m \mapsto \varphi_m$ defines a homomorphism of left R-modules $M \to M^{**}$.

EXERCISE 6.5.21. Let R be a ring. We say a left R-module M is reflexive in case the homomorphism $M \to M^{**}$ of Exercise 6.5.20 is an isomorphism. Prove the following:

- (1) If M_1, \ldots, M_n are left *R*-modules, then the direct sum $\bigoplus_{i=1}^n M_i$ is reflexive if and only if each M_i is reflexive.
- (2) A finitely generated free R-module is reflexive.
- (3) A finitely generated projective R-module is reflexive.
- (4) Let R be a commutative ring. If P is a finitely generated projective R-module and M is a reflexive R-module, then $P \otimes_R M$ is reflexive.

EXERCISE 6.5.22. Let A be a finite abelian group. Prove that $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A,\mathbb{Z})=(0)$. Conclude that A is not a reflexive \mathbb{Z} -module.

EXERCISE 6.5.23. Let R be a PID and A a finitely generated torsion R-module. Prove that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(A,R)=(0)$. Conclude that A is not a reflexive R-module.

EXERCISE 6.5.24. Let R be any ring and $\phi: A \to B$ a homomorphism of left R-modules. Prove that the following are equivalent.

(1) ϕ has a right inverse. That is, there exists an R-module homomorphism $\psi: B \to A$ such that $\phi \psi = 1_B$.

(2) For every left R-module M, the sequence

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,A) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\phi}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,B) \to 0$$

is exact.

(3) The sequence

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(B,A) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_\phi} \operatorname{Hom}_R(B,B) \to 0$$

is exact.

See Exercise 6.5.17 for the dual result on the splitting of $0 \to A \to B$.

6. Some Homological Algebra

6.1. The Five Lemma.

THEOREM 6.6.1. (The Five Lemma) Let R be any ring and

$$A_{1} \xrightarrow{f_{1}} A_{2} \xrightarrow{f_{2}} A_{3} \xrightarrow{f_{3}} A_{4} \xrightarrow{f_{4}} A_{5}$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha_{1}} \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha_{2}} \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha_{3}} \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha_{4}} \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha_{5}}$$

$$B_{1} \xrightarrow{g_{1}} B_{2} \xrightarrow{g_{2}} B_{3} \xrightarrow{g_{3}} B_{4} \xrightarrow{g_{4}} B_{5}$$

a commutative diagram of R-modules with exact rows.

- (1) If α_2 and α_4 are onto and α_5 is one-to-one, then α_3 is onto. (2) If α_2 and α_4 are one-to-one and α_1 is onto , then α_3 is one-to-one.

PROOF. (1) Let $b_3 \in B_3$. Since α_4 is onto there is $a_4 \in A_4$ such that $\alpha_4(a_4) =$ $g_3(b_3)$. The second row is exact and α_5 is one-to-one and the diagram commutes, so $f_4(a_4) = 0$. The top row is exact, so there exists $a_3 \in A_3$ such that $f_3(a_3) = a_4$. The diagram commutes, so $g_3(b_3 - \alpha_3(a_3)) = 0$. The bottom row is exact, so there exists $b_2 \in B_2$ such that $g_2(b_2) = b_3 - \alpha_3(a_3)$. Since α_2 is onto, there is $a_2 \in A_2$ such that $\alpha_2(a_2) = b_2$. The diagram commutes, so $\alpha_3(f_2(a_2) + a_3) = b_3 - \alpha_3(a_3) + \alpha_3(a_3) = b_3$. (2) Is left to the reader.

6.2. The Snake Lemma. We now prove what is perhaps the most fundamental tool in homological algebra, the so-called Snake Lemma.

THEOREM 6.6.2. (The Snake Lemma) Let R be any ring and

$$A_{1} \xrightarrow{f_{1}} A_{2} \xrightarrow{f_{2}} A_{3} \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad$$

a commutative diagram of R-modules with exact rows. Then there is an exact sequence

$$\ker\alpha\xrightarrow{f_1^*}\ker\beta\xrightarrow{f_2^*}\ker\gamma\xrightarrow{\partial}\operatorname{coker}\alpha\xrightarrow{g_1^*}\operatorname{coker}\beta\xrightarrow{g_2^*}\operatorname{coker}\gamma.$$

If f_1 is one-to-one, then f_1^* is one-to-one. If g_2 is onto, then g_2^* is onto.

PROOF. The proof is a series of small steps.

Step 1: There is an exact sequence

$$\ker \alpha \xrightarrow{f_1^*} \ker \beta \xrightarrow{f_2^*} \ker \gamma$$

where the maps are the restriction maps of f_1 and f_2 to submodules. If f_1 is one-to-one, then f_1^* is one-to-one. These are routine diagram chasing arguments.

Step 2: Construct the exact sequence

$$\operatorname{coker} \alpha \xrightarrow{g_1^*} \operatorname{coker} \beta \xrightarrow{g_2^*} \operatorname{coker} \gamma.$$

Since $g_1(\alpha(A_1) = \beta(f_1(A_1))$, it follows from Theorem 4.1.17 that g_1^* is well-defined. Likewise, since $g_2(\beta(A_2) = \gamma(f_2(A_2)))$, it follows that g_2^* is well-defined. Since $g_2g_1 = 0$ it follows that $g_2^*g_1^* = 0$. Suppose $x \in B_2$ and $g_2(x) \in \operatorname{im}(\gamma)$. Then there is $y \in A_3$ and $\gamma(y) = g_2(x)$. Since f_2 is onto, there is $z \in A_2$ such that $f_2(z) = y$. We have $\gamma(f_2(z)) = g_2(\beta(z)) = g_2(x)$. Then $x - \beta(z) \in \ker(g_2) = \operatorname{im}(g_1)$. There exists $w \in B_1$ such that $g_1(w) = x - \beta(z)$. Then $x \equiv g_1(w)$ (mod im β) which proves im $g_1^* = \ker g_2^*$. If g_2 is onto, then it is easy to see that g_2^* is onto.

Step 3: Define the connecting homomorphism $\partial:\ker\gamma\to\operatorname{coker}\alpha$ by the formula

$$\partial(x) = g_1^{-1}\beta f_2^{-1}(x) \pmod{\text{im } \alpha}.$$

Step 3.1: Check that ∂ is well defined. First notice that

$$g_2(\beta(f_2^{-1}(x))) = \gamma(f_2(f_2^{-1}(x))) = \gamma(x) = 0$$

since $x \in \ker \gamma$. Therefore, $\beta(f_2^{-1}(x)) \in \operatorname{im} g_1$. Now pick $y \in f_2^{-1}(x)$. Then

$$f_2^{-1}(x) = y + \operatorname{im} f_1$$

$$\beta(f_2^{-1}(x)) = \beta(y) + \beta(\operatorname{im} f_1)$$

$$\beta(f_2^{-1}(x)) = \beta(y) + g_1(\operatorname{im} \alpha)$$

$$g_1^{-1}(\beta(f_2^{-1}(x))) = g_1^{-1}(\beta(y)) + \operatorname{im} \alpha.$$

So $\partial(x) \equiv g_1^{-1}(\beta(y))$ (mod im α), hence ∂ is well defined.

Step 3.2: Construct the complex

$$\ker \beta \xrightarrow{f_2^*} \ker \gamma \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{coker} \alpha \xrightarrow{g_1^*} \operatorname{coker} \beta.$$

The proof follows directly from the definition of ∂ .

Step 3.3: Prove exactness at ker γ . Suppose $\partial(x) = 0$. That is, $g_1^{-1}(\beta(f_2^{-1}(x))) \in \operatorname{im} \alpha$. Pick $y \in A_2$ such that $f_2(y) = x$. Then for some $z \in A_1$,

$$\beta(y) = g_1 \alpha(z) = \beta f_1(z).$$

Hence $y - f_1(z) \in \ker \beta$ and $f_2(y - f_1(z)) = f_2(y) - f_2f_1(z) = f_2(y) = x$. So $x \in \operatorname{im} f_2^*$.

Step 3.4: Prove exactness at coker α . Suppose $x \in B_1$ and $g_1(x) \in \text{im } \beta$. Then $g_1(x) = \beta(y)$ for some $y \in A_2$. Then $\gamma(f_2(y)) = g_2(\beta(y)) = g_2(g_1(x)) = 0$. So $f_2(y) \in \text{ker } \gamma$ and $\partial(f_2(y)) \equiv x \pmod{\text{im } \alpha}$.

6.3. The Product Lemma. The following lemma is another fundamental tool in homological algebra. It is called the Product Lemma in [11], [36], and [13]. Sometimes it is called the Kernel-Cokernel Sequence.

Theorem 6.6.3. If R is any ring and

$$A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$$

a sequence of R-module homomorphisms, then there exists an exact sequence

$$0 \to \ker f \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} \ker (gf) \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} \ker g \xrightarrow{\alpha_3} \operatorname{coker} f \xrightarrow{\alpha_4} \operatorname{coker} (gf) \xrightarrow{\alpha_5} \operatorname{coker} g \to 0$$

where α_3 is the natural map $B \to \operatorname{coker} f$ restricted to $\ker g$.

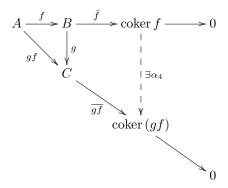
PROOF. The proof consists of a sequence of five steps. Each homomorphism α_i is defined, and exactness proved at each term in the sequence.

Step 1: Exactness at ker f. The map α_1 is defined to be the set inclusion homomorphism, which is well defined because ker $f \subseteq \ker(gf)$. Being the set inclusion map, α_1 is one-to-one.

Step 2: Exactness at $\ker(gf)$. The map α_2 is f restricted to $\ker f$. If $x \in \ker f$, then gf(x) = g(f(x)) = g(0) = 0, which implies $\alpha_2\alpha_1 = 0$. Let $x \in \ker(gf)$ and assume $\alpha_2(x) = f(x) = 0$. Then $x \in \ker f$. This proves $\operatorname{im} \alpha_1 = \ker \alpha_2$.

Step 3: Exactness at $\ker g$. The map α_3 is the natural map $\bar{f}: B \to \operatorname{coker} f$ restricted to $\ker g$. If $x \in \ker(gf)$, then $\alpha_3\alpha_2(x) = \bar{f}f(x) = 0$. Hence $\alpha_3\alpha_2 = 0$. Let $y \in \ker g$ and assume $\bar{f}(y) = 0$. Then $y \in \operatorname{im} f$, so there exists $x \in A$ such that y = f(x). Therefore 0 = g(y) = gf(x), which implies $x \in \ker(gf)$. Hence $y \in \operatorname{im} \alpha_2$. This proves $\operatorname{im} \alpha_2 = \ker \alpha_3$.

Step 4: Exactness at coker f. To define the map α_4 , consider the following commutative diagram.



A typical $y \in \text{im } f = \ker f$ can be written y = f(x) for some $x \in A$. Then $g(y) \in \text{im } (gf)$, and it follows that $\overline{gf}(g(y)) = 0$. By Theorem 4.1.17, α_4 is well defined. If $y \in \ker g$, then $\alpha_4 \bar{f}(y) = \overline{gf}(g(y)) = 0$. Therefore $\alpha_3 \alpha_4 = 0$. To see that im $\alpha_3 = \ker \alpha_4$, let $y \in B$ and assume $\alpha_4 \bar{f}(y) = 0$. Then $0 = \alpha_4 \bar{f}(y) = \overline{gf}g(y)$. Thus $g(y) \in \text{im } gf$, hence g(y) = gf(x) for some $x \in A$. We have $y - f(x) \in \ker g$. Since $\bar{f}(y - f(x)) = \bar{f}(y)$ we see that $\bar{f}(y) \in \text{im } \alpha_3$.

Step 5: Exactness at coker (gf). To define the map α_5 , consider the following commutative diagram.

$$A \xrightarrow{gf} C \xrightarrow{\overline{gf}} \operatorname{coker}(gf) \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow g \qquad \qquad \downarrow \exists \alpha_5 \qquad \qquad \downarrow g$$

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Let $z \in \ker \overline{gf} = \operatorname{im}(gf)$. Then z = gf(x) for some $x \in A$, hence $z \in \operatorname{im} g = \ker \overline{g}$. Therefore $\overline{g}(z) = \overline{g}gf(x) = 0$. By Theorem 4.1.17, α_5 is well defined. Let $y \in B$. Then $\alpha_4 \overline{f}(y) = \overline{g}fg(y)$ and $\alpha_5 \alpha_4 \overline{f}(y) = \alpha_5 \overline{g}fg(y) = \overline{g}g(y) = 0$. Therefore $\alpha_5 \alpha_4 = 0$. Given $z \in C$, if $0 = \alpha_5 \overline{g}f(z) = \overline{g}(z)$, then $z \in \operatorname{im} g$. So z = g(y) for some $y \in B$. Thus $\overline{g}f(z) = \alpha_4 \overline{f}(y)$ is in α_4 . This shows $\alpha_4 = \ker \alpha_5$. Given $z \in C$ we have $\overline{g}(z) = \alpha_5 \overline{g}f(z)$ is in $\operatorname{im} \alpha_5$. This shows α_5 is onto.

6.4. Exercise.

EXERCISE 6.6.4. In the context of Theorem 6.6.3, let

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & \xrightarrow{g} & C \\
\downarrow a & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\
A_1 & \xrightarrow{f_1} & B_1 & \xrightarrow{g_1} & C_1
\end{array}$$

be a commutative diagram of R-modules. Show that there exist homomorphisms $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_6$ connecting the six term exact sequence for gf and the six term exact sequence for g_1f_1 such that the diagram

$$\ker f \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} \ker gf \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} \ker g \xrightarrow{\alpha_3} \operatorname{coker} f \xrightarrow{\alpha_4} \operatorname{coker} gf \xrightarrow{\alpha_5} \operatorname{coker} g$$

$$\uparrow_1 \downarrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow_2 \downarrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow_3 \downarrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow_4 \downarrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow_5 \downarrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow_6 \downarrow$$

$$\ker f_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} \ker g_1 f_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} \ker g_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_3} \operatorname{coker} f_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_4} \operatorname{coker} g_1 f_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_5} \operatorname{coker} g_1$$
commutes.

7. Injective Modules

Throughout this section, R will be an arbitrary ring. Unless otherwise specified, an R-module is a left R-module.

DEFINITION 6.7.1. Let R be a ring and E an R-module. Then E is *injective* if for any diagram of R-modules

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
E & & & \exists \psi \\
\phi & & & \\
0 & \longrightarrow A & \xrightarrow{\alpha} B
\end{array}$$

with the bottom row exact, there exists an R-module homomorphism $\psi: B \to E$ such that $\psi \alpha = \phi$.

THEOREM 6.7.2. An R-module E is injective if and only if the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_R(\cdot, E)$ is exact.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.
$$\Box$$

PROPOSITION 6.7.3. If $\{E_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a family of R-modules, then the direct product $\prod_{i \in I} E_i$ is injective if and only if each E_i is injective.

PROOF. Assume each E_i is injective. For each $i \in I$, let $\pi_i : \prod_i E_i \to E_i$ be the projection onto coordinate i. In the following diagram, assume that we are given α and ϕ and that α is one-to-one.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
\prod_{i} E_{i} \xrightarrow{\pi_{i}} E_{i} \\
\downarrow \phi \\
\downarrow \phi \\
\downarrow \exists \psi_{i} \\
\downarrow 0 \\
\downarrow 0
\end{array}$$

For each *i* there exists $\psi_i: B \to E_i$ such that $\psi_i \alpha = \pi_i \phi$. Define $\psi: B \to \prod_i E_i$ to be the product of the ψ_i . That is, for any $x \in B$, $\psi(x)(i) = \psi_i(x)$. The reader should verify that $\psi \alpha = \phi$. The converse is left to the reader.

Lemma 6.7.4. An R-module E is injective if and only if for every left ideal I of R, every homomorphism $I \to E$ can be extended to an R-module homomorphism $R \to E$.

PROOF. Suppose E is injective and $\alpha: I \to R$ is the set inclusion map. Then any R-homomorphism $\phi: I \to E$ can be extended to $\psi: R \to E$.

Conversely suppose any homomorphism $I \to E$ can be extended to R if I is a left ideal of R. Let

$$\begin{array}{c}
E \\
\phi \\
\downarrow \\
0 \longrightarrow A \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} B
\end{array}$$

be a diagram of R-modules with the bottom row exact. We need to find an R-module homomorphism $\psi: B \to E$ such that $\psi\alpha = \phi$. Consider the set $\mathcal S$ of all R-module homomorphisms $\sigma: C \to E$ such that $\alpha(A) \subseteq C \subseteq B$ and $\sigma\alpha = \phi$. Then $\mathcal S$ is nonempty because $\phi: A \to E$ is in $\mathcal S$. Put a partial ordering on $\mathcal S$ by saying $\sigma_1: C_1 \to E$ is less than or equal to $\sigma_2: C_2 \to E$ if $C_1 \subseteq C_2$ and σ_2 is an extension of σ_1 . By Zorn's Lemma, Proposition 1.3.3, $\mathcal S$ contains a maximal member, $\psi: M \to E$. To finish the proof, it is enough to show M = B.

Suppose $M \neq B$ and let $b \in B - M$. The proof is by contradiction. Let $I = \{r \in R \mid rb \in M\}$. Then I is a left ideal of R. Define an R-module homomorphism $\sigma: I \to E$ by $\sigma(r) = \psi(rb)$. By hypothesis, there exists $\tau: R \to E$ such that τ is an extension of σ . To arrive at a contradiction, we show that there exists a homomorphism $\psi_1: M + Rb \to E$ which is an extension of ψ . Define ψ_1 in the following way. If $m + rb \in M + Rb$, define $\psi_1(m + rb) = \psi(m) + r\tau(1)$. To see that ψ_1 is well defined, assume that in M + Rb there is an element expressed in two ways: $m + rb = m_1 + r_1b$. Subtracting gives $m - m_1 = (r_1 - r)b$ which is in M. Therefore $r_1 - r$ is in $r_2 - r$. From $r_3 - r$ is in $r_3 - r$ is in $r_4 - r$ in the follows that $r_4 - r$ in th

DEFINITION 6.7.5. An abelian group A is said to be *divisible* in case for every nonzero integer n and every $a \in A$ there exists $x \in A$ such that nx = a.

EXAMPLE 6.7.6. Let n be a nonzero integer and $a \in \mathbb{Q}$. Set $x = a/n \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then nx = a, which shows the additive group \mathbb{Q} is divisible.

EXAMPLE 6.7.7. Let $Z = \operatorname{Max}(\mathbb{Z})$ denote the set of maximal ideals in \mathbb{Z} . Then each $\mathfrak{m} \in Z$ is a principal ideal $p\mathbb{Z}$ for some positive prime $p \in \mathbb{Z}$. Let

$$P = \prod_{\mathfrak{m} \in Z} \mathbb{Z}/\mathfrak{m}$$

$$S = \bigoplus_{\mathfrak{m} \in Z} \mathbb{Z}/\mathfrak{m}$$

be the direct product and the direct sum of the prime fields \mathbb{Z}/\mathfrak{m} . By Exercises 4.4.35 and 4.4.36, S is an ideal in the ring P. In this example we show that the quotient P/S is a divisible abelian group. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$ be a positive integer. Let $V(\alpha) = \{\mathfrak{m} \in Z \mid \alpha \in \mathfrak{m}\}$ and $U(\alpha) = \{\mathfrak{m} \in Z \mid \alpha \notin \mathfrak{m}\}$. Then $Z = V(\alpha) \cup U(\alpha)$ is a disjoint union. By Proposition 1.2.7, $V(\alpha)$ is a finite set. If we set $P_0 = \prod_{\mathfrak{m} \in V(\alpha)} \mathbb{Z}/\mathfrak{m}$ and $P_1 = \prod_{\mathfrak{m} \in U(\alpha)} \mathbb{Z}/\mathfrak{m}$, then $P = P_0 \oplus P_1$ is the internal direct sum of the ideals. Let e_0 and e_1 be the idempotent generators of P_0 and P_1 respectively. The reader should verify that in the ring P_0 , αe_0 is equal to 0 and in the ring P_1 , αe_1 is invertible. Then $\alpha P = P_1$ and $P \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/\alpha = P/\alpha P \cong P_0$. Notice that $P_0 \subseteq S$ and $S \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/\alpha = S/\alpha S \cong P_0$. Consider the exact sequence

$$0 \to S \to P \to P/S \to 0.$$

By Lemma 6.4.18, $(P/S) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/\alpha = 0$. This proves P/S is a divisible abelian group. For a continuation of this example, see Exercise 6.7.20.

Lemma 6.7.8. An abelian group A is divisible if and only if A is an injective \mathbb{Z} -module.

PROOF. Assume A is an injective \mathbb{Z} -module. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z} - (0)$ and $a \in A$. Let $\phi : \mathbb{Z}n \to A$ be the map induced by $n \mapsto a$. By Lemma 6.7.4, ϕ can be extended to a homomorphism $\psi : \mathbb{Z} \to E$. In this case, $a = \phi(n) = \psi(n) = n\psi(1)$ so a is divisible by n.

Conversely, assume A is divisible. A typical ideal of \mathbb{Z} is $I = \mathbb{Z}n$. Suppose $\sigma: I \to A$ is a homomorphism. By Lemma 6.7.4, it is enough to construct an extension $\tau: \mathbb{Z} \to A$ of σ . If n = 0, then simply take $\tau = 0$. Otherwise solve $nx = \sigma(n)$ for x and define $\tau(1) = x$.

Lemma 6.7.9. If A is an abelian group, then A is isomorphic to a subgroup of a divisible abelian group.

PROOF. The \mathbb{Z} -module A is the homomorphic image of a free \mathbb{Z} -module, $\sigma: \mathbb{Z}^I \to A$, for some index set I. Then $A \cong \mathbb{Z}^I/K$ where $K \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^I$ is the kernel of σ . Since $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$, there is a chain of subgroups $K \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^I \subseteq \mathbb{Q}^I$. This means \mathbb{Z}^I/K is isomorphic to a subgroup of \mathbb{Q}^I/K . By Example 6.7.6, \mathbb{Q} is divisible and by Exercises 6.7.13 and 6.7.14, \mathbb{Q}^I/K is divisible.

LEMMA 6.7.10. Let A be a divisible abelian group and R a ring. Then $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,A)$ is an injective left R-module.

PROOF. Since $R \in \mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{M}_R$, we make $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,A)$ into a left R-module by (rf)(x) = f(xr). If M is any left R-module, then by the Adjoint Isomorphism (Theorem 6.5.10) there is a \mathbb{Z} -module isomorphism $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R \otimes_R M, A) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, A))$.

To prove the lemma, we show that the contravariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}_R(\cdot, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, A))$ is right exact and apply Theorem 6.7.2. Let $0 \to M \to N$ be an exact sequence of R-modules. The diagram

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(N,A) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M,A) \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\cong \downarrow \qquad \qquad \cong \downarrow$$
 $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N,\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,A)) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M,\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,A)) \longrightarrow 0$

commutes. The top row is exact because by Lemma 6.7.8 and Theorem 6.7.2, the contravariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\cdot, A)$ is right exact. The vertical maps are the adjoint isomorphisms, so the bottom row is exact.

Proposition 6.7.11. Every left R-module M is isomorphic to a submodule of an injective R-module.

PROOF. By Lemma 6.5.7 there is an R-module isomorphism $M \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(R, M)$ given by $m \mapsto \rho_m$, where ρ_m is "right multiplication by m". Every R-homomorphism is a \mathbb{Z} -homomorphism, so $\operatorname{Hom}_R(R,M) \subseteq \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,M)$. By Lemma 6.7.9, there is a one-to-one homomorphism of abelian groups $\sigma: M \to D$ for some divisible abelian group D. By Proposition 6.5.5, there is an exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, M) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, D).$$

Combining the above, the composite map

$$M \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(R, M) \subseteq \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, M) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, D)$$

is one-to-one and is given by $m \mapsto \sigma \rho_m$. This is an R-module homomorphism since the left R-module action on $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,D)$ is given by (rf)(x) = f(xr). By Lemma 6.7.10, we are done.

Proposition 6.7.12. Let R be a ring and E an R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) E is injective.
- (2) Every short exact sequence of R-modules $0 \to E \to A \to B \to 0$ is split exact.
- (3) E is a direct summand of any R-module of which it is a submodule.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Let $\phi : E \to E$ be the identity map on E. By Definition 6.7.1 there exists $\psi : A \to E$ such that ψ is the desired splitting map.

- (2) implies (3): Suppose that E is a submodule of M. The sequence $0 \to E \to M \to M/E \to 0$ is exact. By (2) there is a splitting map $\psi: M \to E$ such that for any $x \in E$ we have $\psi(x) = x$. If $K = \ker \psi$, then $M = E \oplus K$.
- (3) implies (1): By Proposition 6.7.11, there is an injective R-module I such that E is a submodule of I. By (3), $I = E \oplus K$ for some submodule K. By Proposition 6.7.3, E is injective.

7.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 6.7.13. Prove that if A is a divisible abelian group and $B \subseteq A$ is a subgroup, then A/B is divisible.

EXERCISE 6.7.14. Prove that for any family of divisible abelian groups $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$, the direct sum $\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$ is divisible.

EXERCISE 6.7.15. Let A be a divisible abelian group. Prove that if B is a subgroup of A which is a direct summand of A, then B is divisible.

EXERCISE 6.7.16. Let R be any ring and M an R-module. Suppose there is an infinite exact sequence

$$(7.1) 0 \to M \to E^0 \to E^1 \to E^2 \to \cdots \to E^n \to E^{n+1} \to \cdots$$

of R-modules. If each E^i is an injective R-module, then we say (7.1) is an *injective* resolution of M. Use Proposition 6.7.11 and induction to show that an injective resolution exists for any R and any M. We say that the category ${}_R\mathfrak{M}$ has enough injectives.

EXERCISE 6.7.17. Prove that if D is a division ring, then any nonzero vector space over D is an injective D-module.

EXERCISE 6.7.18. Let p be a prime number and A an abelian group. We say that A is p-divisible, if for every $n \ge 0$ and for every $x \in A$, there exists $y \in A$ such that $p^n y = x$. Prove that a p-divisible p-group is divisible.

EXERCISE 6.7.19. Let R be a ring of characteristic 0 such that (R, +) is a divisible abelian group. Show that the center of R contains a subfield isomorphic to \mathbb{Q} , hence R is a \mathbb{Q} -algebra. (Hint: Theorem 3.5.5.)

EXERCISE 6.7.20. As in Example 6.7.7, let S be the direct sum and P the direct product of the finite prime fields. Show that the quotient P/S is a \mathbb{Q} -algebra. (Hint: Exercise 6.7.19.)

7.2. Injective Modules and Flat Modules. Throughout this section, R is an arbitrary ring.

THEOREM 6.7.21. Let R and S be arbitrary rings. Let $M \in {}_S\mathfrak{M}_R$ and assume M is a flat right R-module. Let I be a left injective S-module. Then $\operatorname{Hom}_S(M,I)$ is an injective left R-module.

PROOF. Notice that $\operatorname{Hom}_S(M,I)$ is a left R-module by the action (rf)(x) = f(xr). By the hypothesis on M and I, the functors $M \otimes_R(\cdot)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_S(\cdot,I)$ are both exact. The composite functor $\operatorname{Hom}_S(M \otimes_R(\cdot),I)$ is also exact. By Theorem 6.5.10, this functor is naturally isomorphic to $\operatorname{Hom}_R(\cdot,\operatorname{Hom}_S(M,I))$, which is also exact. By Theorem 6.7.2, $\operatorname{Hom}_S(M,I)$ is injective.

DEFINITION 6.7.22. A module C is a cogenerator for ${}_R\mathfrak{M}$ if for every module M and every nonzero $x \in M$ there exists $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,C)$ such that $f(x) \neq 0$.

Lemma 6.7.23. The \mathbb{Z} -module \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is a cogenerator for $\mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{M}$.

PROOF. By Example 6.7.6 and Exercise 6.7.13, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is a divisible abelian group. By Lemma 6.7.8, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is an injective \mathbb{Z} -module. Let M be a \mathbb{Z} -module and let x be a nonzero element of M. To define a map $f: \mathbb{Z}m \to \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$, it is enough to specify the image of the generator m. If d is the order of m, then

$$f(m) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} + \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } d = \infty \\ \frac{1}{d} + \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } d < \infty \end{cases}$$

produces a well defined map f. Also $f(m) \neq 0$ and since \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is injective, f can be extended to $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$.

DEFINITION 6.7.24. Let M be a right R-module. The R-module $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is called the *character module* of M. The character module of M is a left R-module by the action rf(x) = f(xr) where $r \in R$, $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ and $x \in M$.

Lemma 6.7.25. The sequence of right R-modules

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \to 0$$

is exact if and only if the sequence of character modules

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(C, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\beta}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(B, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to 0$$

is exact.

PROOF. Assume the original sequence is exact. By Theorem 6.7.2, the second sequence is exact. Conversely, it is enough to assume

$$(7.2) \qquad \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(C, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\beta}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(B, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$$

is exact and prove that

$$A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C$$

is exact.

Step 1: Show that im $\alpha \subseteq \ker \beta$. For contradiction's sake, assume $a \in A$ and $\beta \alpha(a) \neq 0$. By Lemma 6.7.23, there is $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(C, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ such that $f\beta\alpha(a) \neq 0$. Therefore $\operatorname{H}_{\alpha} \operatorname{H}_{\beta}(f) \neq 0$ which is a contradiction.

Step 2: Show that im $\alpha \supseteq \ker \beta$. For contradiction's sake, assume $b \in B$ and $\beta(b) = 0$ and $b \notin \operatorname{im} \alpha(a)$. Then $b + \operatorname{im} \alpha$ is a nonzero element of $B / \operatorname{im} \alpha$. The exact sequence

$$A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\pi} B/\operatorname{im} \alpha$$

gives rise to the exact sequence

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(B/\operatorname{im}\alpha,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\pi}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(B,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}).$$

By Lemma 6.7.23, there is $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(B/\operatorname{im} \alpha, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ such that $g(b+\operatorname{im} \alpha) \neq 0$. Let $f = \operatorname{H}_{\pi}(g)$. Then $\operatorname{H}_{\alpha}(f) = 0$ and exactness of (7.2) implies $f = \operatorname{H}_{\beta}(h)$ for some $h \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(C, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$. On the one hand, $f(b) = g\pi(b) \neq 0$. On the other hand, $f(b) = h\beta(b) = h(0) = 0$. This is a contradiction.

THEOREM 6.7.26. Let R be any ring and M a right R-module. Then M is flat if and only if the character module $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is an injective left R-module.

PROOF. View M as a left \mathbb{Z} -right R-bimodule. Since \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is an injective \mathbb{Z} -module, if M is flat, apply Theorem 6.7.21 to see that $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is an injective left R-module.

Conversely assume $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is an injective left R-module. By Theorem 6.7.2, the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_R(\cdot,\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}))$ is exact. By Theorem 6.5.10, the isomorphic functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M\otimes_R(\cdot),\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is also exact. Suppose $0\to A\to B$ is an exact sequence of left R-modules. The sequence

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M \otimes_R B, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M \otimes_R A, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules. By Lemma 6.7.25, $0 \to M \otimes_R A \to M \otimes_R B$ is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules. This proves M is flat. \square

For another proof of Theorem 6.7.27, see Corollary 7.8.7. For a stronger version when R is a local ring, see Corollary 7.8.5.

Theorem 6.7.27. The R-module M is finitely generated projective over R if and only if M is flat and of finite presentation over R.

PROOF. If M is finitely generated and projective, then M is flat by Exercise 6.4.31 and of finite presentation by Corollary 6.2.8.

Assume M is flat and of finite presentation over R. Then M is finitely generated, so by Proposition 6.5.5 it is enough to show that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,\cdot)$ is right exact. Let $A \to B \to 0$ be an exact sequence of R-modules. It is enough to show that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,A) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,B) \to 0$ is exact. By Lemma 6.7.25, it is enough to show that

$$(7.3) 0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, B), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, A), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$$

is exact. Since M is of finite presentation, there exist free R-modules F_1 and F_0 of finite rank, and an exact sequence

$$(7.4) F_1 \to F_0 \to M \to 0.$$

Suppose $B \in {}_{R}\mathfrak{M}_{\mathbb{Z}}$. Suppose $E \in \mathfrak{M}_{\mathbb{Z}}$ is injective. Consider the diagram

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(B,E) \otimes_{R} F_{1} & \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(B,E) \otimes_{R} F_{0} & \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(B,E) \otimes_{R} M \to 0 \\ & \downarrow^{\alpha} & \downarrow^{\alpha} & \downarrow^{\alpha} \\ \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F_{1},B),E) & \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F_{0},B),E) & \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M,B),E) \to 0 \end{split}$$

The top row is obtained by tensoring (7.4) with $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(B, E)$, hence it is exact. The bottom row is exact because it comes from (7.4) by first applying the left exact contravariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\cdot, E)$. The vertical maps come from the proof of Lemma 6.5.11, so the diagram commutes. The two left-most vertical maps are isomorphisms, by Lemma 6.5.11. The Five Lemma (Theorem 6.6.1) says that the third vertical map is an isomorphism. The isomorphism is natural in B which says we can apply this result to the exact sequence $A \to B \to 0$ and get a commutative diagram

where the vertical arrows are isomorphisms. The top row is obtained from the exact sequence $A \to B \to 0$ by first applying the exact contravariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\cdot,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ followed by the exact functor $(\cdot)\otimes_R M$. Therefore, the top row is exact, which implies the bottom row is exact. The bottom row is (7.3), so we are done.

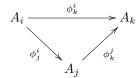
8. Direct Limits and Inverse Limits

8.1. The Direct Limit.

DEFINITION 6.8.1. An index set I is called a directed set in case there is a reflexive, transitive binary relation, denoted \leq , on I such that for any two elements $i, j \in I$, there is an element $k \in I$ with $i \leq k$ and $j \leq k$. Let I be a directed set and \mathfrak{C} a category. Usually \mathfrak{C} will be a category of R-modules for some ring R. At other times, \mathfrak{C} will be a category of R-algebras for some commutative ring R. Suppose

that for each $i \in I$ there is an object $A_i \in \mathfrak{C}$ and for each pair $i, j \in I$ such that $i \leq j$ there is a \mathfrak{C} -morphism $\phi_j^i : A_i \to A_j$ such that the following are satisfied.

- (1) For each $i \in I$, $\phi_i^i : A_i \to A_i$ is the identity on A_i , and
- (2) for all $i, j, k \in I$ with $i \leq j \leq k$, the diagram

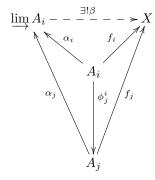


commutes.

Then the collection of objects and morphisms $\{A_i, \phi_j^i\}$ is called a *directed system* in $\mathfrak C$ with index set I.

DEFINITION 6.8.2. Let $\{A_i, \phi_j^i\}$ be a directed system in \mathfrak{C} for a directed index set I. The direct limit of this system, denoted $\varinjlim A_i$, is an object in \mathfrak{C} together with a set of morphisms $\alpha_i : A_i \to \varinjlim A_i$ indexed by I such that the following are satisfied.

- (1) For all $i \leq j$, $\alpha_i = \alpha_j \phi_j^i$, and
- (2) $\varinjlim A_i$ satisfies the universal mapping property. Namely, if X is an object in \mathfrak{C} and $f_i:A_i\to X$ is a set of morphisms indexed by I such that for all $i\leq j,\ f_i=f_j\phi^i_j$, then there exists a unique morphism $\beta:\varinjlim A_i\to X$ making the diagram



commute for all $i \leq j$ in I.

PROPOSITION 6.8.3. Let R be a ring. If $\{A_i, \phi_j^i\}$ is a directed system of R-modules for a directed index set I, then the direct limit $\varinjlim A_i$ exists. The direct limit is unique up to isomorphism.

PROOF. Let $U=\bigcup_i A_i$ be the disjoint union of the modules. Define a binary relation \sim on U in the following way. For any $x\in A_i$ and $y\in A_j$, we say x and y are related and write $x\sim y$ in case there exists $k\in I$ such that $i\leq k$ and $j\leq k$ and $\phi_k^i(x)=\phi_k^j(y)$. Clearly \sim is reflexive and symmetric. Assume $x\in A_i, y\in A_j$ and $z\in A_k$ and there exists m and n such that $i\leq m, j\leq m, j\leq n, k\leq n$, and $\phi_m^i(x)=\phi_m^j(y)$ and $\phi_n^j(y)=\phi_n^k(z)$. Since I is directed, there exists p such that $m\leq p$ and $n\leq p$. It follows that $\phi_p^i(x)=\phi_p^j(y)=\phi_p^k(z)$, so \sim is transitive. Denote the equivalence class of $x\in U$ by [x] and let $L=U/\sim$ be the set of all equivalence classes. Turn L into an R-module in the following way. If $r\in R$ and $x\in U$, define

r[x] = [rx]. If $x \in A_i$ and $y \in A_j$ and k is such that $i \le k$ and $j \le k$, then define $[x] + [y] = [\phi_k^i(x) + \phi_k^j(y)]$. For each $i \in I$, let $\alpha_i : A_i \to L$ be the assignment $x \mapsto [x]$. It is clear that α_i is R-linear. If $i \le j$ and $x \in A_i$, then $x \sim \phi_j^i(x)$, which says $\alpha_i = \alpha_j \phi_j^i$.

To see that L satisfies the universal mapping property, let X be an R-module and $f_i:A_i\to X$ a set of morphisms indexed by I such that for all $i\leq j,\ f_i=f_j\phi_j^i$. Suppose $x\in A_i$ and $y\in A_j$ are related. Then there exists $k\in I$ such that $i\leq k,$ $j\leq k$ and $\phi_k^i(x)=\phi_k^j(y)$. Then $f_i(x)=f_k(\phi_k^i(x))=f_k(\phi_k^j(y))=f_j(y)$, so the assignment $[x]\mapsto f_i(x)$ induces a well defined R-module homomorphism $\beta:L\to X$. The R-module L satisfies Definition 6.8.2, so $L=\lim_i A_i$.

Mimic the uniqueness part of the proof of Theorem 6.4.3 to prove that the direct limit is unique.

COROLLARY 6.8.4. Let R be a commutative ring. If $\{A_i, \phi_j^i\}$ is a directed system of R-algebras for a directed index set I, then the direct limit $\lim_{i \to \infty} A_i$ exists.

PROOF. The proof is left to the reader.

LEMMA 6.8.5. Let R be a ring and $\{A_i, \phi_j^i\}$ a directed system of R-modules for a directed index set I. Suppose for some $i \in I$ and $x \in A_i$ that [x] = 0 in the direct limit $\lim_{i \to \infty} A_i$. Then there exists $k \geq i$ such that $\phi_k^i(x) = 0$ in A_k .

PROOF. This follows straight from the construction in Proposition 6.8.3. Namely, $x \sim 0$ if and only if there exists $k \geq i$ such that $\phi_k^i(x) = 0$ in A_k .

Let R be a ring and I a directed index set. Suppose $\{A_i, \phi_j^i\}$ and $\{B_i, \psi_j^i\}$ are two directed systems of R-modules. A morphism from $\{A_i, \phi_j^i\}$ to $\{B_i, \psi_j^i\}$ is a set of R-module homomorphisms $\alpha = \{\alpha_i : A_i \to B_j\}_{i \in I}$ indexed by I such that the diagram

$$A_{i} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{i}} B_{i}$$

$$\phi_{j}^{i} \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \psi_{j}^{i}$$

$$A_{j} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{j}} B_{j}$$

commutes whenever $i \leq j$. Define $f_i: A_i \to \varinjlim B_i$ by composing α_i with the structure map $B_i \to \varinjlim B_i$. The universal mapping property guarantees a unique R-module homomorphism $\vec{\alpha}: \varinjlim A_i \to \varinjlim B_i$.

THEOREM 6.8.6. Let R be a ring, I a directed index set, and

$$\{A_i, \phi_i^i\} \xrightarrow{\alpha} \{B_i, \psi_i^i\} \xrightarrow{\beta} \{C_i, \rho_i^i\}$$

a sequence of morphisms of directed systems of R-modules such that

$$0 \to A_i \xrightarrow{\alpha_i} B_i \xrightarrow{\beta_i} C_i \to 0$$

is exact for every $i \in I$. Then

$$0 \to \varinjlim A_i \xrightarrow{\vec{\alpha}} \varinjlim B_i \xrightarrow{\vec{\beta}} \varinjlim C_i \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of R-modules.

PROOF. The proof is a series of four small steps. We incorporate the notation of Proposition 6.8.3.

Step 1: $\vec{\beta}$ is onto. Given $[x] \in \varinjlim C_i$, there exists $i \in I$ such that $x \in C_i$. Since $\beta_i : B_i \to C_i$ is onto, there exists $b \in B_i$ such that $x = \beta_i(b)$. Then $[x] = \vec{\beta}[b]$.

Step 2: $\operatorname{im} \vec{\alpha} \subseteq \ker \vec{\beta}$. Given $[x] \in \varinjlim A_i$ there exists $i \in I$ such that $x \in A_i$. Then $\vec{\beta}\vec{\alpha}[x] = [\beta_i\alpha_i(x)] = [0]$.

Step 3: $\ker \vec{\beta} \subseteq \operatorname{im} \vec{\alpha}$. Given $[x] \in \ker \vec{\beta}$ there exists $i \in I$ such that $x \in B_i$. By Lemma 6.8.5 there exists j > i such that $\rho_j^i \beta_i(x) = 0$. Since β is a morphism, $\beta_j \psi_j^i(x) = 0$. Therefore $\psi_j^i(x) \in \ker \beta_j = \operatorname{im} \alpha_j$, so $[x] \in \operatorname{im} \alpha$.

Step 4: $\vec{\alpha}$ is one-to-one. Given $[x] \in \ker \vec{\alpha}$, there exists $i \in I$ such that $x \in A_i$ and $[\alpha_i(x)] = 0$. By Lemma 6.8.5 there exists j > i such that $\psi^i_j \alpha_i(x) = 0$. Since α is a morphism, $\alpha_j \phi^i_j(x) = 0$. Since α_j is one-to-one, it follows that $\phi^i_j(x) = 0$, hence [x] = 0.

COROLLARY 6.8.7. In the context of Theorem 6.8.6,

$$\varinjlim (A_i \oplus B_i) \cong \left(\varinjlim A_i\right) \oplus \left(\varinjlim B_i\right)$$

8.1.1. Tensor Product of Direct Limits. Let $\{R_i, \theta_j^i\}$ be a directed system of rings for a directed index set I. Each R_i can be viewed as a \mathbb{Z} -algebra, hence the direct limit $R = \varinjlim R_i$ exists, by Corollary 6.8.4. For the same index set I, let $\{M_i, \phi_j^i\}$ and $\{N_i, \psi_j^i\}$ be directed systems of \mathbb{Z} -modules such that each M_i is a right R_i -module and each N_i is a left R_i -module. For each $i \leq j$, M_j and N_j are R_i -modules via $\theta_j^i: R_i \to R_j$. In this context, we also assume that the transition homomorphisms ϕ_j^i and ψ_j^i are R_i -linear:

$$\phi_j^i(ax) = \theta_j^i(a)\phi_j^i(x)$$
$$\psi_j^i(ax) = \theta_j^i(a)\phi_j^i(x)$$

for all $a \in R_i$, $x \in M_i$ and $y \in N_i$. By Exercise 6.4.42 there are \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphisms

$$\tau_i^i: M_i \otimes_{R_i} N_i \to M_j \otimes_{R_i} N_j$$

such that $\{M_i \otimes_{R_i} N_i, \tau_i^i\}$ is a directed system for I. Let $M = \varinjlim M_i$, $N = \varinjlim N_i$.

Proposition 6.8.8. In the above context, $\varinjlim M_i \otimes_{R_i} N_i = M \otimes_R N$.

PROOF. By Exercise 6.4.42 there are Z-module homomorphisms

$$\alpha_i: M_i \otimes_{R_i} N_i \to M \otimes_R N$$

such that $\alpha_i = \alpha_j \tau_j^i$. We show that $M \otimes_R N$ satisfies the universal mapping property of Definition 6.8.2. Suppose we are given \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphisms

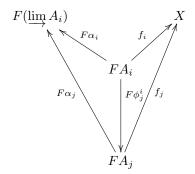
$$f_i: M_i \otimes_{R_i} N_i \to X$$

such that $f_i = f_j \tau_j^i$. Suppose $(x,y) \in M \times N$. Then for some $i \in I$, (x,y) comes from $M_i \times N_i$. The reader should verify that $(x,y) \mapsto f_i(x \otimes y)$ defines an R-balanced map $M \times N \to X$. This induces $\beta : M \otimes_R N \to X$. By Theorem 6.4.3, β is unique and satisfies $\beta \alpha_i = f_i$.

8.1.2. Direct Limits and Adjoint Pairs.

THEOREM 6.8.9. Let $F: \mathfrak{A} \to \mathfrak{C}$ and $G: \mathfrak{C} \to \mathfrak{A}$ be covariant functors and assume (F,G) is an adjoint pair. Let $\{A_i,\phi^i_j\}$ be a directed system in \mathfrak{A} for a directed index set I and assume the direct limit $\varinjlim A_i$ exists. Then $\{FA_i,F\phi^i_j\}$ is a directed system in \mathfrak{C} for the directed index set I and $\varinjlim FA_i \cong F(\varinjlim A_i)$.

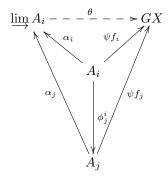
PROOF. Because F is a functor, $\{FA_i, F\phi_j^i\}$ is a directed system in \mathfrak{C} for I. The proof reduces to showing $F(\varinjlim A_i)$ satisfies the universal mapping property of Definition 6.8.2. Assume we are given a commutative diagram



in \mathfrak{C} , where the left half comes from the definition of $\varinjlim A_i$. To finish the proof we must show that there is a unique $\beta: F(\varinjlim A_i) \to X$ which commutes with the rest of the diagram. Since (F,G) is an adjoint pair, there is a natural bijection

$$\psi: \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{C}}(FA, X) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{A}}(A, GX)$$

for any $A\in\mathfrak{A}$. Applying ψ to the right half of the diagram, we get a commutative diagram



in \mathfrak{A} . By definition of $\varinjlim A_i$, the morphism θ exists and is unique. Let $\beta = \psi^{-1}(\theta)$. Then $\beta : F(\varinjlim A_i) \to X$. Because ψ (and ψ^{-1}) is natural in the A variable, β makes the first diagram commutative. Because ψ is a bijection, β is unique. \square

COROLLARY 6.8.10. Let R be a ring and $\{A_i, \phi_j^i\}$ a directed system of left R-modules for a directed index set I. If M is a right R-module, then

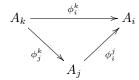
$$M \otimes_R \underline{\lim} A_i \cong \underline{\lim} (M \otimes_R A_i)$$
.

PROOF. This follows from Proposition 6.8.8. We give a second proof based on Theorem 6.8.9. View M as a left $\mathbb Z$ right R bimodule. By Theorem 6.5.10, Tensor-Hom, $(M \otimes_R (\cdot), \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb Z}(M, \cdot))$, is an adjoint pair.

8.2. The Inverse Limit.

DEFINITION 6.8.11. Let $\mathfrak C$ be a category. Usually $\mathfrak C$ will be a category of modules or a category of algebras over a commutative ring. At other times, $\mathfrak C$ will be a category of topological groups. Let I be an index set with a reflexive, transitive binary relation, denoted \leq . (Do not assume I is a directed set.) Suppose that for each $i \in I$ there is an object $A_i \in \mathfrak C$ and for each pair $i, j \in I$ such that $i \leq j$ there is a $\mathfrak C$ -morphism $\phi_i^j : A_i \to A_i$ such that the following are satisfied.

- (1) For each $i \in I$, $\phi_i^i : A_i \to A_i$ is the identity on A_i , and
- (2) for all $i, j, k \in I$ with $i \leq j \leq k$, the diagram

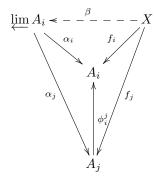


commutes.

Then the collection of objects and morphisms $\{A_i, \phi_i^j\}$ is called an *inverse system* in \mathfrak{C} with index set I.

DEFINITION 6.8.12. Let $\{A_i, \phi_i^j\}$ be an inverse system in $\mathfrak C$ for an index set I. The *inverse limit* of this system, denoted $\varprojlim A_i$, is an object in $\mathfrak C$ together with a set of morphisms $\alpha_i : \varprojlim A_i \to A_i$ indexed by I such that the following are satisfied.

- (1) For all $i \leq j$, $\alpha_i = \phi_i^j \alpha_i$, and
- (2) $\varprojlim A_i$ satisfies the universal mapping property. Namely, if X is an object $\varprojlim \mathfrak{C}$ and $f_i: X \to A_i$ is a set of morphisms indexed by I such that for all $i \leq j$, $f_i = \phi_i^j f_j$, then there exists a unique morphism $\beta: X \to \varprojlim A_i$ making the diagram



commute for all $i \leq j$ in I.

PROPOSITION 6.8.13. Let R be a ring. If $\{A_i, \phi_i^j\}$ is an inverse system of R-modules for an index set I, then the inverse limit $\varprojlim A_i$ exists. The inverse limit is unique up to isomorphism.

PROOF. Let L be the set of all $f \in \prod A_i$ such that $f(i) = \phi_i^j f(j)$ whenever $i \le j$. The reader should verify that L is an R-submodule of $\prod A_i$. Let $\pi_i : \prod A_i \to A_i$ be the projection onto the i-th factor. Let α_i be the restriction of π_i to L. The reader should verify that $\alpha_i = \phi_i^j \alpha_j$.

To see that L satisfies the universal mapping property, let X be an R-module and $f_i: X \to A_i$ a set of morphisms indexed by I such that for all $i \leq j$, $f_i = \phi_i^j f_j$. Define an R-module homomorphism $\beta: X \to \prod A_i$ by the rule $\beta(x)(i) = f_i(x)$ for all $x \in X$. If $i \leq j$, then $\beta(x)(i) = f_i(x) = \phi_i^j f_j(x) = \phi_i^j \beta(x)(j)$, so the image of β is contained in L. The R-module L satisfies Definition 6.8.12, so $L = \lim_{i \to \infty} A_i$.

Mimic the uniqueness part of the proof of Theorem 6.4.3 to prove that the inverse limit is unique.

COROLLARY 6.8.14. Let R be a commutative ring. If $\{A_i, \phi_i^j\}$ is an inverse system of R-algebras for an index set I, then the inverse limit $\lim_{i \to \infty} A_i$ exists.

PROOF. The proof is left to the reader.

THEOREM 6.8.15. Let $F: \mathfrak{A} \to \mathfrak{C}$ and $G: \mathfrak{C} \to \mathfrak{A}$ be covariant functors and assume (F,G) is an adjoint pair. Let $\{C_i, \psi_i^j\}$ be an inverse system in \mathfrak{C} for an index set I and assume the inverse limit $\varprojlim C_i$ exists. Then $\{GC_i, G\psi_i^j\}$ is an inverse system in \mathfrak{A} for the index set I and $\varprojlim GC_i \cong G(\varprojlim C_i)$.

PROOF. The proof is left to the reader. (Hint: Follow the proof of Theorem 6.8.9. Start with the appropriate diagram in \mathfrak{A} . Use the adjoint isomorphism ψ to get the commutative diagram in \mathfrak{C} which can be completed.)

COROLLARY 6.8.16. Let R be a ring and $\{A_i, \phi_i^j\}$ an inverse system of left R-modules for an index set I. If M is a left R-module, then

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, \underline{\lim} A_i) \cong \underline{\lim} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, A_i).$$

PROOF. We view M as a left R right \mathbb{Z} bimodule. By Theorem 6.5.10, Tensor-Hom, $(M \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} (\cdot), \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, \cdot))$, is an adjoint pair.

EXAMPLE 6.8.17. Let A be a ring. Suppose $f_1: M_1 \to M_3$ and $f_2: M_2 \to M_3$ are homomorphisms of left A-modules. Then the pullback (or fiber product) is defined to be $M = \{(x_1, x_2) \in M_1 \oplus M_2 \mid f_1(x_1) = f_2(x_2)\}$. Notice that M is the kernel of the A-module homomorphism $M_1 \oplus M_2 \to M_3$ defined by $(x_1, x_2) \mapsto f_1(x_1) - f_2(x_2)$, hence M is a left A-module. If h_1 and h_2 are induced by the coordinate projections, then

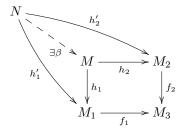
(8.1)
$$M \xrightarrow{h_2} M_2$$

$$\downarrow_{h_1} \qquad \qquad \downarrow_{f_2}$$

$$M_1 \xrightarrow{f_1} M_3$$

is a commutative diagram of A-modules. An important feature of the pullback is that it can be interpreted as an inverse limit. For the index set, take $I = \{1, 2, 3\}$ with the ordering 1 < 3, 2 < 3. The reader should verify that if f_1 , f_2 are the transition homomorphisms, then $\{M_1, M_2, M_3\}$ is an inverse system and the inverse limit $\varprojlim M_i$ is isomorphic to the pullback M of (8.1). In particular, the pullback M satisfies the universal mapping property. That is, if N is an R-module and there exist h'_1 and h'_2 such that $f_1h'_1 = f_2h'_2$, then there exists a unique morphism

 $\beta: N \to M$ such that the diagram



commutes. A commutative square of R-modules such as (8.1) is called a *cartesian* square (or fiber product diagram, or pullback diagram), if M is isomorphic to the pullback $\varprojlim M_i$. Let A_1 , A_2 , A_3 be rings. If $f_1:A_1\to A_3$ and $f_2:A_2\to A_3$ are homomorphisms, then the inverse limit $A=\varprojlim M_i$ with respect to the index set $I=\{1,2,3\}$ is a ring. As above, A can be identified with the pullback $A=\{(x_1,x_2)\in A_1\oplus A_2\mid f_1(x_1)=f_2(x_2)\}.$

8.3. Inverse Systems Indexed by Nonnegative Integers. For the index set $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$, the notation simplifies. Let R be any ring and $\{A_i, \phi_i^j\}$ an inverse system of R-modules for the index set $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$. Simply write ϕ_{i+1} for ϕ_i^{i+1} . Then for any j > i we can multiply to get $\phi_i^j = \phi_{i+1}\phi_{i+2}\cdots\phi_j$. Using this notation, and Proposition 6.8.13, the inverse limit $\varprojlim A_i$ can be identified with the set of all sequences (x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots) in $\prod_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n$ such that $x_n = \phi_{n+1}x_{n+1}$ for all $n \geq 0$. Define

$$d: \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \longrightarrow \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n$$

by $d(x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots) = (x_0 - \phi_1 x_1, x_1 - \phi_2 x_2, x_2 - \phi_3 x_3, \dots, x_n - \phi_{n+1} x_{n+1}, \dots).$

LEMMA 6.8.18. Let R be any ring and $\{A_i, \phi_{i+1}\}$ an inverse system of R-modules for the index set $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$. If $\phi_{n+1} : A_{n+1} \to A_n$ is onto for each $n \geq 0$, then there is an exact sequence

$$0 \to \varprojlim A_n \to \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \stackrel{d}{\to} \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \to 0$$

where d is defined in the previous paragraph.

PROOF. It follows at once that $\ker d = \varprojlim A_n$. Let $(y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots) \in \prod A_n$. To show that d is surjective, it is enough to solve the equations

$$x_0 - \phi_1 x_1 = y_0$$

$$x_1 - \phi_2 x_2 = y_1$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x_n - \phi_{n+1} x_{n+1} = y_n$$

for $(x_0, x_1, x_2, ...)$. This is possible because each ϕ_{n+1} is surjective. Simply take $x_0 = 0, x_1 = (\phi_1)^{-1}(-y_0)$, and recursively, $x_{n+1} = (\phi_{n+1})^{-1}(x_n - y_n)$.

Let R be a ring and suppose $\{A_i, \phi_{i+1}\}$ and $\{B_i, \psi_{i+1}\}$ are two inverse systems of R-modules indexed by $I = \{0, 1, 2, 3, ...\}$. A morphism from $\{A_i, \phi_{i+1}\}$ to

 $\{B_i, \psi_{i+1}\}\$ is a sequence of R-module homomorphisms $\alpha = \{\alpha_i : A_i \to B_j\}_{i>0}$ such that the diagram

$$A_{i+1} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{i+1}} B_{i+1}$$

$$\downarrow^{\phi_{i+1}} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\psi_{i+1}}$$

$$A_{i} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{i}} B_{i}$$

commutes whenever $i \geq 0$. Define $f_i : \underline{\lim} A_i \to B_i$ by composing the structure map $\lim A_i \to A_i$ with α_i . The universal mapping property guarantees a unique R-module homomorphism $\overleftarrow{\alpha}: \lim A_i \to \lim B_i$.

Proposition 6.8.19. Let R be a ring, and

$$\{A_i, \phi_{i+1}\} \xrightarrow{\alpha} \{B_i, \psi_{i+1}\} \xrightarrow{\beta} \{C_i, \rho_{i+1}\}$$

a sequence of morphisms of inverse systems of R-modules indexed by $\{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ such that

- (1) $0 \to A_i \xrightarrow{\alpha_i} B_i \xrightarrow{\beta_i} C_i \to 0$ is exact for every $i \ge 0$, and (2) $\phi_{i+1}: A_{i+1} \to A_i$ is onto for every $i \ge 0$.

Then

$$0 \to \varprojlim A_i \xrightarrow{\overleftarrow{\alpha}} \varprojlim B_i \xrightarrow{\overleftarrow{\beta}} \varprojlim C_i \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of R-modules.

PROOF. The diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow \prod A_n \xrightarrow{\alpha} \prod B_n \xrightarrow{\beta} \prod C_n \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^d \qquad \qquad \downarrow^d \qquad \qquad \downarrow^d$$

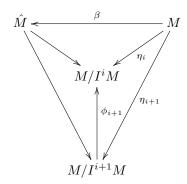
$$0 \longrightarrow \prod A_n \xrightarrow{\alpha} \prod B_n \xrightarrow{\beta} \prod C_n \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes and the rows are exact. By Lemma 6.8.18, the leftmost vertical map is onto. The rest of the proof follows from Theorem 6.6.2 and Lemma 6.8.18.

8.3.1. The I-adic completion of a module.

DEFINITION 6.8.20. Let R be a commutative ring, I an ideal in R and M an Rmodule. Then for all integers $n \geq 1$, I^n denotes the ideal generated by all products of the form $x_1x_2\cdots x_n$ where each x_i is in I. The chain of ideals $R\supseteq I^1\supseteq I^2\supseteq I$ $I^3\supseteq\dots$ gives rise to the chain of submodules $M\supseteq I^1M\supseteq I^2M\supseteq I^3M\supseteq\dots$. Then $I^{i+1}M\subseteq I^iM$ so there is a natural projection $\phi_{i+1}:M/I^{i+1}M\to M/I^iM$. The set of R-modules and homomorphisms $\{M/I^iM, \phi_{i+1}\}$ is an inverse system indexed by $\{1,2,3,4,\ldots\}$. The inverse limit of this system $\hat{M} = \lim M/I^iM$ is called the *I-adic completion* of M. For each i, let $\eta_i: M \to M/I^iM$ be the natural projection. Clearly $\eta_i = \phi_{i+1}\eta_{i+1}$ so by Definition 6.8.12, there is a unique

 $\beta: M \to \hat{M}$ such that the diagram



commutes.

PROPOSITION 6.8.21. Let I be an ideal in the commutative ring R. Let M be an R-module and \hat{M} the I-adic completion of M. The natural map $\beta: M \to \hat{M}$ is one-to-one if and only if $\cap I^n M = 0$.

PROOF. Let $x \in M$. Notice that

$$\ker(\beta) = \{ x \in M \mid x \in I^n M \ (\forall n > 0) \} = \bigcap I^n M.$$

Therefore β is one-to-one if and only if $\cap I^n M = 0$.

PROPOSITION 6.8.22. Let I be an ideal in the commutative ring R and \hat{R} the I-adic completion of R. Let M be an R-module and \hat{M} the I-adic completion of M. Then \hat{M} is an \hat{R} -module.

PROOF. By Corollary 6.8.14, \hat{R} is a commutative ring. For each i, let $\alpha_i : \hat{R} \to R/I^i$ and $\beta_i : \hat{M} \to M/I^iM$ be the natural maps. Then

$$\alpha_i \otimes \beta_i : \hat{R} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \hat{M} \to R/I^i \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} M/I^i M$$

is a well defined R-module homomorphism. Since M/I^iM is a module over R/I^i , let

$$\mu_i: R/I^i \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} M/I^i M \to M/I^i M$$

be the multiplication map defined by $x \otimes y \mapsto xy$. So the maps $f_i = \mu_i \circ (\alpha_i \otimes \beta_i)$ and the universal mapping property give a product map $\hat{R} \otimes \hat{M} \to \hat{M}$ which turns \hat{M} into an \hat{R} -module.

8.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 6.8.23. Let R be an arbitrary ring. Let I be an index set, $X = \{x_i\}_{i\in I}$ a set of indeterminates indexed by I. Let J be the set of all finite subsets of I, ordered by set inclusion. For each $\alpha \in J$, let $X_{\alpha} = \{x_j \mid j \in \alpha\}$. Show how to make the set of polynomial rings $\{R[X_{\alpha}]\}_{\alpha \in J}$ into a directed system of rings. Define $R[X] = \varinjlim R[X_{\alpha}]$ as the direct limit. Let $\sigma : R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings. State a version of Theorem 3.6.3 for R[X].

EXERCISE 6.8.24. Suppose $A_0 \subseteq A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq ...$ is a chain of submodules of the R-module A. Show how to make $\{A_i\}$ into a directed system and prove that $\varinjlim A_i = \bigcup_i A_i$.

EXERCISE 6.8.25. Let A be an R-module. Let S be the set of all subsets of A which are finitely generated R-submodules of A. Let S be ordered by \subseteq . For $\alpha \in S$, let A_{α} denote the R-submodule of A whose underlying set is α . Show how to make $\{A_{\alpha}\}$ into a directed system and prove that $A = \lim_{\alpha \to \infty} A_{\alpha}$.

EXERCISE 6.8.26. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. Show that $A = \varinjlim A_{\alpha}$ where A_{α} runs over the set of all finitely generated R-subalgebras of A.

EXERCISE 6.8.27. Let R be a commutative ring, A an R-algebra and $f \in A$. Show that $A = \varinjlim A_{\alpha}$ where A_{α} runs over all finitely generated R-subalgebras of A such that $R[f] \subseteq A_{\alpha} \subseteq A$.

EXERCISE 6.8.28. Let R be a ring and $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ a family of R-modules where I is an indexing set. Let $S = \bigoplus M_i$ be the direct sum. Let J be the set of all finite subsets of I, ordered by set inclusion. For each $\alpha \in J$, let $S_{\alpha} = \bigoplus_{i \in \alpha} M_i$ be the direct sum over the finite index set α . Show how to make $\{S_{\alpha}\}$ into a directed system and prove that $\varinjlim S_{\alpha} \cong S$.

EXERCISE 6.8.29. Let A be a commutative ring and R = A[x] the polynomial ring in one variable with coefficients in A. Let I = Rx be the ideal in R generated by x. Show that the I-adic completion of R is isomorphic to the power series ring A[[x]] in one variable over A. (Hint: Show that A[[x]] satisfies properties (1) and (2) of Definition 6.8.12.)

EXERCISE 6.8.30. Let R be any ring and $\{A_i, \phi_j^i\}$ a directed system of flat R-modules for a directed index set I. Show that the direct limit $\varinjlim A_i$ is a flat R-module.

EXERCISE 6.8.31. Let $\{R_i, \theta_j^i\}$ be a directed system of rings for a directed index set I. Let $R = \varinjlim R_i$ be the direct limit. As in Proposition 6.8.8, let $\{M_i, \phi_j^i\}$ be a directed system of \mathbb{Z} -modules for the same index set I such that each M_i is a left R_i -module and the transition homomorphisms ϕ_j^i are R_i -module homomorphisms. If each M_i is a flat R_i -module, show that $M = \varinjlim M_i$ is a flat R-module. (Hint: $\{R \otimes_{R_i} M_i, 1 \otimes \phi_j^i\}$ is a directed system of flat R-modules.)

EXERCISE 6.8.32. Let R be any ring and A an R-module. Show that if every finitely generated submodule of A is flat, then A is flat.

EXERCISE 6.8.33. Let R be a ring and $\{M_i, \phi_j^i\}$ a directed system of R-modules for a directed index set I. Let $\Xi = \{(x,y) \in I \times I \mid x \leq y\}$. Let $\iota_i : M_i \to \bigoplus_{k \in I} M_k$ be the injection map into coordinate i. Given $(i,j) \in \Xi$, define $\delta_{ij} : M_i \to \bigoplus_{k \in I} M_k$ by $\delta_{ij}(x) = \iota_j \phi_j^i(x) - \iota_i(x)$. By Exercise 6.3.11, there exists $\delta : \bigoplus_{(i,j) \in \Xi} M_i \to \bigoplus_{k \in I} M_k$. Define L to be the cokernel of δ . There is a natural projection $\eta : \bigoplus_{k \in I} M_k \to L$. Define $\alpha_i = \eta \iota_i : M_i \to L$.

- (1) Prove that $\alpha_i = \alpha_j \phi_i^i$ for all $i \leq j$.
- (2) Prove that L satisfies the universal mapping property of Definition 6.8.2, hence $L \cong \varinjlim M_i$.
- (3) Prove that there is an exact sequence of R-modules

$$\bigoplus_{(i,j)\in\Xi} M_i \xrightarrow{\delta} \bigoplus_{k\in I} M_k \to \varinjlim M_i \to 0$$

EXERCISE 6.8.34. Let R be a ring and $\{M_i, \phi_i^j\}$ an inverse system of R-modules for an index set I. Let $\Xi = \{(x,y) \in I \times I \mid x \leq y\}$. Let $\pi_i : \prod_{k \in I} M_k \to M_i$ be the projection map onto coordinate i. Given $(i,j) \in \Xi$, define $d_{ij} : \prod_{k \in I} M_k \to M_i$ by $d_{ij}(x) = \phi_i^j \pi_j(x) - \pi_i(x)$. By Exercise 6.3.12, there exists $d : \prod_{k \in I} M_k \to \prod_{(i,j) \in \Xi} M_i$. Use Proposition 6.8.13 to prove that there is an exact sequence of R-modules

$$0 \to \varprojlim M_i \to \prod_{k \in I} M_k \xrightarrow{d} \prod_{(i,j) \in \Xi} M_i$$

EXERCISE 6.8.35. Let R be a ring and $\{A_i, \phi_j^i\}$ a directed system of R-modules for a directed index set I. Show that if M is any R-module, then there is an isomorphism

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(\lim A_i, M) \cong \lim \operatorname{Hom}_R(A_i, M)$$

of \mathbb{Z} -modules. (Hint: Start with the exact sequence of Exercise 6.8.33 (3). Apply the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\cdot, M)$. Use Proposition 6.5.8 and Exercise 6.8.34.)

EXERCISE 6.8.36. Let I be any index set ordered by the relation $x \leq y$ if and only if x = y. For any family of R-modules $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ indexed by I, prove the following.

- (1) I is a directed index set and if 1_{M_i} is the identity map on M_i , then $\{M_i, 1_{M_i}\}$ is both a directed system of R-modules, and an inverse system of R-modules.
- (2) The direct limit $\lim M_i$ exists and is equal to the direct sum $\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$.
- (3) The inverse limit $\varprojlim M_i$ exists and is equal to the product $\prod_{i \in I} M_i$.

EXERCISE 6.8.37. Let \mathfrak{C}_1 , \mathfrak{C}_2 be categories of modules and $\mathfrak{F}:\mathfrak{C}_1\to\mathfrak{C}_2$ a left exact functor which commutes with arbitrary products. That is, $\mathfrak{F}\left(\prod_{k\in I}M_k\right)=\prod_{k\in I}\mathfrak{F}\left(M_k\right)$, for any family of objects in \mathfrak{C}_1 . Prove that \mathfrak{F} commutes with inverse limits. That is, $\mathfrak{F}\left(\varprojlim M_k\right)=\varprojlim \mathfrak{F}\left(M_k\right)$ for any inverse system in \mathfrak{C}_1 .

EXERCISE 6.8.38. Let R be a commutative ring and $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. Show how to make $\{R[\alpha^{-1}] \mid \alpha \in R - \mathfrak{p}\}$ into a directed system and prove that the local ring of R at \mathfrak{p} is equal to the direct limit: $R_{\mathfrak{p}} = \varinjlim R_{\alpha}$.

EXERCISE 6.8.39. (Local to Global Property for Idempotents) Let R be a commutative ring and $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. Let A be an R-algebra and e an idempotent in $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Show that there exists $\alpha \in R - \mathfrak{p}$ and an idempotent e_0 in $A_{\alpha} = A \otimes_R R[\alpha^{-1}]$ such that e is equal to the image of e_0 under the natural map $A_{\alpha} \to A_{\mathfrak{p}}$.

EXERCISE 6.8.40. Let R be a ring and $\{A_i, \phi_j^i\}$ a directed system of R-modules for a directed index set I. Let P be a finitely generated projective R-module.

- (1) Show that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(P, \varinjlim A_i) \cong \varinjlim \operatorname{Hom}_R(P, A_i)$. (Hint: As in Theorem 6.5.12, reduce to the case where P is free.)
- (2) Show that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(P, \bigoplus_i A_i) \cong \bigoplus_i \operatorname{Hom}_R(P, A_i)$.

EXERCISE 6.8.41. Let R be a commutative ring and $\{A_i, \phi_j^i\}$ a directed system of R-algebras for a directed index set I. Show that an idempotent in $\varinjlim A_i$ comes from an idempotent in A_i , for some $i \in I$. In other words, if $e \in \varinjlim A_i$ and $e^2 = e$, then for some $i \in I$, there exists $e_i \in A_i$ such that $e_i^2 = e_i$ and if $\alpha_i : A_i \to \varinjlim A_i$ is the natural map, then $\alpha_i(e_i) = e$.

EXERCISE 6.8.42. Let R be a commutative ring. Let I and J be ideals in R and assume there exists m > 0 such that $I^m \subseteq J$. Prove that the natural homomorphisms $R/I^{mi} \to R/J^i$ induce a homomorphism of rings $\varprojlim R/I^k \to \varprojlim R/J^k$. See Exercise 11.1.17 for an application of this result.

EXERCISE 6.8.43. In the context of the pullback diagram (8.1), prove the following:

- (1) $\ker h_1 \cong \ker f_2$ and $\ker h_2 \cong \ker f_1$.
- (2) If f_2 is onto, then h_1 is onto. If f_1 is onto, then h_2 is onto.

EXERCISE 6.8.44. Let A be a ring and let I and J be two-sided ideals in A. Show that

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \frac{A}{I \cap J} & \stackrel{h_2}{\longrightarrow} \frac{A}{J} \\ h_1 \downarrow & & \downarrow f_2 \\ \frac{A}{I} & \stackrel{f_1}{\longrightarrow} \frac{A}{I+J} \end{array}$$

is a cartesian square of rings, where all of the homomorphisms are the natural maps.

EXERCISE 6.8.45. Let B be a ring and I a two-sided ideal of B. Assume $A \subseteq B$ is a subring such that $I \subseteq A$. Show that

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
A \longrightarrow B \\
h_1 \downarrow & & \downarrow f_2 \\
\frac{A}{I} \xrightarrow{f_1} \xrightarrow{B} \frac{B}{I}
\end{array}$$

is a cartesian square of rings, where all of the homomorphisms are the natural maps.

9. The Morita Theorems

9.1. The Functors. We begin by establishing some notation that will be in effect throughout this section. For any ring R and any left R-module M, set

$$M^* = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, R)$$

and

$$S = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M).$$

Since R is a left R right R bimodule, by Lemma 6.5.1 (2), M^* is a right R-module under the operation (fr)(m) = f(m)r. Since S is a ring of R-module endomorphisms of M, M is a left S-module by sm = s(m). This follows from Lemma 4.1.2 (see also Example 4.4.4). Under this operation M is a left R left S bimodule. By Lemma 6.5.1 (3), we make M^* a right S-module by (fs)(m) = f(s(m)), which is just composition of functions. The reader should verify that M^* is in fact a right R right S bimodule. It follows that we can form $M^* \otimes_R M$ and $M^* \otimes_S M$. By Lemma 6.4.10, $M^* \otimes_R M$ is a left S right S bimodule by virtue of S bimodule and S being a right S bimodule. Similarly S bimodule. Similarly S bimodule.

Define

$$M^* \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{\theta_R} S = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)$$

by the rule $\theta_R(f \otimes m)(x) = f(x)m$. The reader should check that θ_R is both a left and a right S-module homomorphism. Define

$$M^* \otimes_S M \xrightarrow{\theta_S} R$$

by the rule $\theta_S(f \otimes m) = f(m)$. The reader should verify that θ_S is a right and left R-module homomorphism whose image is the trace ideal $\mathfrak{T}_R(M)$.

Lemma 6.9.1. In the above context,

- (1) θ_R is onto if and only if M is finitely generated and projective. If θ_R is onto, it is one-to-one.
- (2) θ_S is onto if and only if M is a generator. If θ_S is onto, it is one-to-one.

PROOF. (1): Suppose θ_R is onto. Then there exist $f_i \in M^*$ and $m_i \in M$ such that the identity map $1: M \to M$ is equal to $\theta_R(\sum_{i=1}^n f_i \otimes m_i)$. That is, for every $x \in M$, $x = \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x)m_i$. Then $\{(f_i, m_i)\}$ is a finite dual basis for M. By the Dual Basis Lemma 6.2.9, we are done. Conversely, if a finite dual basis exists, then $1: M \to M$ is in the image of θ_R . Since θ_R is an S-module homomorphism, θ_R is onto.

Now assume θ_R is onto. Then M has a dual basis $f_1,\ldots,f_n\in M^*,\,m_1,\ldots,m_n\in M$. Assume $\alpha=\sum_j h_j\otimes n_j\in M^*\otimes_R M$ and $\theta_R(\alpha)=0$. That is, $\sum_j h_j(x)n_j=0$ for every x in M. Then

$$\alpha = \sum_{j} h_{j} \otimes n_{j}$$

$$= \sum_{j} \left[h_{j} \otimes \left(\sum_{i} f_{i}(n_{j}) m_{i} \right) \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i,j} h_{j} \otimes f_{i}(n_{j}) m_{i}$$

$$= \sum_{i,j} \left(h_{j} \cdot f_{i}(n_{j}) \right) \otimes m_{i}$$

$$= \sum_{i} \left[\left(\sum_{j} h_{j} \cdot f_{i}(n_{j}) \right) \otimes m_{i} \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i} 0 \otimes m_{i}$$

$$= 0,$$

because for each i and for each $x \in M$,

$$\left[\sum_{j} h_{j} \cdot f_{i}(n_{j})\right](x) = \sum_{j} h_{j}(x) f_{i}(n_{j})$$

$$= \sum_{j} f_{i}(h_{j}(x)n_{j})$$

$$= f_{i}(\sum_{j} h_{j}(x)n_{j})$$

$$= f_{i}(0)$$

$$= 0.$$

(2): Because the image of θ_S equals $\mathfrak{T}_R(M)$, the trace ideal of M, it is clear that θ_S is onto if and only if M is an R-generator (Definition 6.2.11).

Suppose θ_S is onto. Assume $\sum_j h_j \otimes n_j \in \ker \theta_S$. That is, $\sum_j h_j(n_j) = 0$. Since θ_S is onto, there exist f_1, \ldots, f_n in M^*, m_1, \ldots, m_n in M with $\sum_i f_i(m_i) = 1 \in R$. Notice that for every i and every $i \in M$,

$$\sum_{j} h_{j} \cdot \theta_{R}(f_{i} \otimes n_{j})(x) = \sum_{j} h_{j}(f_{i}(x)n_{j})$$
$$= f_{i}(x) \sum_{j} h_{j}(n_{j})$$
$$= 0.$$

Hence

$$\sum_{j} h_{j} \otimes n_{j} = \sum_{j} h_{j} \otimes \left(\sum_{i} f_{i}(m_{i})\right) n_{j}$$

$$= \sum_{j} h_{j} \otimes \left(\sum_{i} f_{i}(m_{i})n_{j}\right)$$

$$= \sum_{j} h_{j} \otimes \left(\sum_{i} \theta_{R}(f_{i} \otimes n_{j})(m_{i})\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i,j} h_{j} \otimes \theta_{R}(f_{i} \otimes n_{j})(m_{i})$$

$$= \sum_{i} \left(\sum_{j} h_{j} \cdot \theta_{R}(f_{i} \otimes n_{j})\right) \otimes (m_{i})$$

$$= \sum_{i} 0 \otimes m_{i}$$

$$= 0.$$

Therefore, θ_S is one-to-one.

9.2. The Morita Theorems. Let R be any ring and M a left R-progenerator. Set $S = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)$ and $M^* = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, R)$. As in Section 6.9.1, M is a left R left S bimodule. A slight variation of Lemma 6.4.17 (2) shows that $(\cdot) \otimes_R M$ defines a covariant functor from \mathfrak{M}_R to ${}_S\mathfrak{M}$. Likewise, M^* is a right R right S bimodule, hence $M^* \otimes_S (\cdot)$ defines a covariant functor from ${}_S\mathfrak{M}$ to \mathfrak{M}_R . The following is the crucial theorem.

Theorem 6.9.2. In the above context, the functors

$$(\cdot) \otimes_R M : \mathfrak{M}_R \to {}_S\mathfrak{M}$$

and

$$M^* \otimes_S (\cdot) : {}_S \mathfrak{M} \to \mathfrak{M}_R$$

are inverse equivalences. We say that the categories \mathfrak{M}_R and ${}_S\mathfrak{M}$ are Morita equivalent.

PROOF. Let L be any right R-module. Then, by the basic properties of the tensor product and Lemma 6.9.1 (2), we have

$$M^* \otimes_S (L \otimes_R M) \cong M^* \otimes_S (M \otimes_{R^o} L)$$

$$\cong (M^* \otimes_S M) \otimes_{R^o} L$$

$$\cong R \otimes_{R^o} L$$

$$\cong L \otimes_R R$$

$$\cong L$$

where the composite isomorphism is given by $f \otimes (l \otimes m) \mapsto l \cdot \theta_S(f \otimes m) = l \cdot f(m)$. This isomorphism allows one to verify that $() \otimes_R M$ followed by $M^* \otimes_S ()$ is naturally equivalent to the identity functor on \mathfrak{M}_R . Likewise, for any left S-module N, the isomorphism of Lemma 6.9.1 (1) implies that

$$(M^* \otimes_S N) \otimes_R M \cong (N \otimes_{S^o} M^*) \otimes_R M$$

$$\cong N \otimes_{S^o} (M^* \otimes_R M)$$

$$\cong N \otimes_{S^o} S$$

$$\cong S \otimes_S N$$

$$\cong N$$

under the map $(f \otimes n) \otimes m \mapsto \theta_R(f \otimes m) \cdot n$. Again this gives us that $M^* \otimes_S ()$ followed by $() \otimes_R M$ is naturally equivalent to the identity on ${}_S\mathfrak{M}$.

COROLLARY 6.9.3. In the setting of Theorem 6.9.2, we have

- (1) $R \cong \operatorname{Hom}_S(M, M)$ (as rings) where r in R maps to "left multiplication by r".
- (2) $M^* \cong \operatorname{Hom}_S(M,S)$ (as right S-modules) where f in M^* maps to the homomorphism $\theta_R(f \otimes ())$.
- (3) $M \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M^*, R) = M^{**}$ (as left R-modules) where m in M maps to the element in M^{**} which is "evaluation at m".
- (4) $S^o \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M^*, M^*)$ (as rings) where s in S^o maps to "right multiplication by s".
- (5) M is an S-progenerator.
- (6) M* is an R-progenerator.
- (7) M^* is an S-progenerator.

PROOF. The fully faithful part of Proposition 6.1.6 applied to the functor () \otimes_R M says that for any two right R-modules A and B, the assignment

is a one-to-one correspondence. Under this equivalence, the right R-module R corresponds to the left S-module $R \otimes_R M \cong M$ and the right R-module M^* corresponds to the left S-module $M^* \otimes_R M \cong S$. For (1), use (9.1) with A = B = R. For (2), use (9.1) with A = R and $B = M^*$. In each case, the reader should verify that the composite isomorphisms are the correct maps.

The fully faithful part of Proposition 6.1.6 applied to the functor $M^* \otimes_S ()$: ${}_S\mathfrak{M} \to \mathfrak{M}_R$ says that for any two left S-modules C and D, the assignment

is a one-to-one correspondence. By Lemma 6.5.7, M is isomorphic to $\operatorname{Hom}_S(S,M)$. By (9.2) with C=S and D=M, we get $\operatorname{Hom}_S(S,M)\cong\operatorname{Hom}_R(M^*,R)=M^{**}$, which is (3). For (4), use (9.2) with C=D=S. Since $M^*\otimes_S S\cong M^*$, we get the isomorphism of rings $\operatorname{Hom}_S(S,S)\cong\operatorname{Hom}_R(M^*,M^*)$. By Exercise 4.4.34, $S^o\cong\operatorname{Hom}_S(S,S)$ as rings. In each case, the reader should verify that the composite isomorphisms are the correct maps.

(5): Because M is an R-progenerator, we have $\theta_S: M^* \otimes_S M \cong R$ and $\theta_R: M^* \otimes_R M \cong S$. By (1) and (2) above, this gives rise to isomorphisms

$$\theta_S : \operatorname{Hom}_S(M, S) \otimes_S M \cong \operatorname{Hom}_S(M, M)$$

and

$$\theta_R : \operatorname{Hom}_S(M, S) \otimes_{\operatorname{Hom}_S(M, M)} M \cong S.$$

By Lemma 6.9.1 with R and S interchanged, it follows that M is an S-progenerator.

(6): Again using $M^* \otimes_S M \cong R$ and $M^* \otimes_R M \cong S$ and this time substituting (3) and (4), we obtain

(9.3)
$$R \cong M^* \otimes_S M$$
$$\cong M^* \otimes_S \operatorname{Hom}_R(M^*, R)$$
$$\cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M^*, R) \otimes_{S^o} M^*$$
$$\cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M^*, R) \otimes_{\operatorname{Hom}_R(M^*, M^*)} M^*$$

and

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{R^{o}}(M^{*}, R^{o}) \otimes_{R^{o}} M^{*} \cong M^{*} \otimes_{R} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M^{*}, R)$$

$$\cong M^{*} \otimes_{R} M$$

$$\cong S$$

$$\cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M^{*}, M^{*})$$

$$\cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R^{o}}(M^{*}, M^{*})$$

where the last isomorphism in the second string is set identity and M^* is considered as a left R^o -module since it is a right R-module. By Lemma 6.9.1 with M^* in place of M, we see that M^* is an R-generator by (9.3) and a finitely generated and projective left R^o -module by (9.4). This implies that M^* is a right R-progenerator.

(7): By (5), M is an S-progenerator. Apply (6) to the S-module M to get $\operatorname{Hom}_S(M,S)$ is an S-progenerator. By (2), $\operatorname{Hom}_S(M,S) \cong M^*$.

COROLLARY 6.9.4. Let R, M and S be as in Theorem 6.9.2. For any two-sided ideal \mathfrak{a} of R, $M^* \otimes_R (\mathfrak{a} \otimes_R M)$ is naturally isomorphic to the two-sided ideal of S consisting of all elements of the form

$$\sum_{i} \theta_{R}(f_{i} \otimes \alpha_{i} m_{i}) , f_{i} \in M^{*} , \alpha_{i} \in \mathfrak{a} , m_{i} \in M.$$

For any two-sided ideal \mathfrak{b} of S, $M^* \otimes_S (\mathfrak{b} \otimes_S M)$ is naturally isomorphic to the two-sided ideal of R consisting of all elements of the form

$$\sum_{i} \theta_{S} (f_{i} \otimes \beta_{i}(n_{i})) = \sum_{i} f_{i} (\beta_{i}(n_{i})) , f_{i} \in M^{*}, \beta_{i} \in \mathfrak{b}, n_{i} \in M.$$

These correspondences are inverses of each other and establish a one-to-one, order preserving correspondence between the two-sided ideals of R and the two-sided ideals of S.

PROOF. Since M and M^* are both R-projective, they are flat. The exact sequence $0 \to \mathfrak{a} \to R$ yields the exact sequence

$$0 \to M^* \otimes_R (\mathfrak{a} \otimes_R M) \to M^* \otimes_R (R \otimes_R M) \cong M^* \otimes_R M \cong S.$$

We consider $M^* \otimes_R (\mathfrak{a} \otimes_R M)$ as a subset of $M^* \otimes_R (R \otimes_R M)$. By θ_R , $M^* \otimes_R (R \otimes_R M)$ is isomorphic to S. This maps this submodule $M^* \otimes_R (\mathfrak{a} \otimes_R M)$ onto the ideal of S made up of elements of the form $\sum_i \theta_R(f_i \otimes \alpha_i m_i)$.

Likewise, M and M^* are S-projective. The exact sequence $0 \to \mathfrak{b} \to S$ yields the exact sequence

$$0 \to M^* \otimes_S (\mathfrak{b} \otimes_S M) \to M^* \otimes_S M \cong R .$$

We view $M^* \otimes_S (\mathfrak{b} \otimes_S M)$ as the ideal of R made up of elements looking like $\sum_i f_i(\beta_i(n_i))$. The reader should verify that the correspondences are inverses of each other.

COROLLARY 6.9.5. In the setting of Theorem 6.9.2, let L be a right R-module and $L \otimes_R M$ its corresponding left S-module.

- (1) L is finitely generated over R if and only if $L \otimes_R M$ is finitely generated over S.
- (2) L is R-projective if and only if $L \otimes_R M$ is S-projective.
- (3) L is an R-generator if and only if $L \otimes_R M$ is an S-generator.

Proof. Use Lemma 4.2.12 to write L as the homomorphic image of a free R-module

$$(9.5) R^I \to L \to 0$$

where I is an index set. Tensor (9.5) with $(\cdot) \otimes_R M$ to get the exact sequence

$$(9.6) M^I \to L \otimes_R M \to 0$$

of S-modules. By Corollary 6.9.3(5), M is finitely generated and projective as an S-module. For each biconditional, we prove only one direction. Each converse follows by categorical equivalence.

- (1): If L is finitely generated over R, we may assume I is a finite set. In (9.6), $M^I = \bigoplus_{i \in I} M$ is a finite sum of finitely generated modules and is finitely generated. So $L \otimes_R M$ is finitely generated.
- (2): If L is projective, by Proposition 6.2.3, (9.5) splits. It follows that (9.6) also splits. Use Exercise 6.3.13 to show that the S-modules M^I and $L \otimes_R M$ are projective.
- (3): Let L be an R-generator. Let $\delta: C \to D$ be a nonzero homomorphism of left S-modules. By Exercise 6.5.16 (3), to show that $L \otimes_R M$ is an S-generator it suffices to show that there exists an S-module homomorphism $f: L \otimes_R M \to C$ such that $\delta \circ f$ is nonzero. By Proposition 6.1.6, $1 \otimes \delta: M^* \otimes_S C \to M^* \otimes_S D$ is a nonzero homomorphism of right R-modules. Since L is an R-generator, by Exercise 6.5.16 (4), there exists an R-module homomorphism $\alpha: L \to M^* \otimes_S C$ such that $(1 \otimes \delta) \circ \alpha$ is nonzero. Again by Proposition 6.1.6, $\delta \circ (\alpha \otimes 1)$ is nonzero. \square

9.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 6.9.6. Let R be any ring and let M be a left R-progenerator. Set $S = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)$. Show that

$$() \otimes_R M : \mathfrak{M}_R \to {}_S\mathfrak{M}$$

and

$$\operatorname{Hom}_S(M,\,):{}_S\mathfrak{M}\to\mathfrak{M}_R$$

are inverse equivalences, establishing $\mathfrak{M}_R\sim {}_S\mathfrak{M}.$ (Hint: Use Corollary 6.9.3 (2) and Theorem 6.5.15.)

EXERCISE 6.9.7. Let R be any ring. A left R-module M is said to be faithfully flat if M is flat and M has the property that $N \otimes_R M = 0$ implies N = 0. Show that a left R-progenerator is faithfully flat.

Modules over Commutative Rings

1. Localization of Modules and Rings

Let R be a commutative ring and W a multiplicative subset of R. Recall that in Section 3.5 we defined the quotient ring $W^{-1}R$. We extend this notion to modules and algebras. Let M be an R-module and W a multiplicative set in R. Define a relation on $M \times W$ by $(m_1, w_1) \sim (m_2, w_2)$ if and only if there exists $w \in W$ such that $w(w_2m_1-w_1m_2)=0$. The same argument used in Section 3.5 shows that \sim is an equivalence relation on $R \times W$. The set of equivalence classes is denoted $W^{-1}M$ and the equivalence class containing (m, w) is denoted by the fraction m/w. We call $W^{-1}M$ the localization of M at W.

Lemma 7.1.1. Let R be a commutative ring, W a multiplicative set in R, and M an R-module.

(1) $W^{-1}M$ is a Z-module under the addition rule

$$\frac{m_1}{w_1} + \frac{m_2}{w_2} = \frac{w_2 m_1 + w_1 m_2}{w_1 w_2}.$$

(2) $W^{-1}M$ is an R-module under the multiplication rule

$$r\frac{m}{w} = \frac{rm}{w}.$$

- (3) The assignment $m \mapsto m/1$ defines an R-module homomorphism $\sigma: M \to W^{-1}M$. The kernel of σ is equal to the set of all $m \in M$ such that wm = 0 for some w in W.
- (4) If M is an R-algebra, the multiplication rule

$$\frac{m_1}{w_1} \frac{m_2}{w_2} = \frac{m_1 m_2}{w_1 w_2}$$

 $makes\ W^{-1}M$ into an R-algebra.

(5) $W^{-1}M$ is a $W^{-1}R$ -module under the multiplication rule

$$\frac{r}{w_1}\frac{m}{w_2} = \frac{rm}{w_1w_2}.$$

(6) The assignment $\phi(m/w) = 1/w \otimes m$ defines a W⁻¹R-module isomorphism

$$W^{-1}M \xrightarrow{\phi} W^{-1}R \otimes_R M.$$

PROOF. The proof is left to the reader. Notice that in (6) the inverse of ϕ is given by $a \otimes b \mapsto ab$.

EXAMPLE 7.1.2. Given a prime ideal P in R, let $W = R - P = \{x \in R \mid x \notin P\}$. As remarked in Example 3.5.2(1), R - P is a multiplicative set. The R-algebra $W^{-1}R$ is usually written R_P and if M is an R-module, we write M_P for the localization $W^{-1}M$. The ideal generated by P in R_P is $PR_P = \{x/y \in R_P \mid x \in P\}$

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 $x \in P, y \notin P$. If $x/y \notin PR_P$, then $x \notin P$ so $y/x \in R_P$ is the multiplicative inverse of x/y. Since the complement of PR_P consists of units, the ideal PR_P contains every nonunit. So PR_P is the unique maximal ideal of R_P . As in Exercise 3.2.32, a local ring is a commutative ring that has a unique maximal ideal. Hence R_P is a local ring with maximal ideal PR_P , which is sometimes called the *local ring of* R at P. The factor ring R_P/PR_P is a field, which is sometimes called the *residue* field of R_P . The factor ring R/P is an integral domain and by Exercise 7.1.17, R_P/PR_P is isomorphic to the quotient field of R/P.

REMARK 7.1.3. Lemma 7.1.4 shows that a localization of a commutative ring R is a flat R-module. In general, a localization $W^{-1}R$ is not projective (see Exercise 6.3.15).

LEMMA 7.1.4. $W^{-1}R$ is a flat R-module.

PROOF. Given an R-module monomorphism

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{f} B$$

we need to show that

$$0 \to A \otimes_R W^{-1}R \xrightarrow{f \otimes 1} B \otimes_R W^{-1}R$$

is exact. Equivalently, by Lemma 7.1.1, we show

$$0 \to W^{-1}A \xrightarrow{f_W} W^{-1}B$$

is exact, where $f_W(a/w) = f(a)/w$. If f(a)/w = 0 in $W^{-1}B$, then there exists $y \in W$ such that yf(a) = 0. Then f(ya) = 0. Since f is one-to-one, ya = 0 in A. Then a/w = 0 in $W^{-1}A$.

EXAMPLE 7.1.5. Let k be a field of characteristic different from 2. Let x be an indeterminate and $f(x) = x^2 - 1$. Let R = k[x]/(f(x)). The Chinese Remainder Theorem 3.3.8 says $R \cong k[x]/(x-1) \oplus k[x]/(x+1)$. In R are the two idempotents $e_1 = (1+x)/2$ and $e_2 = (1-x)/2$. Notice that $e_1e_2 = 0$, $e_1 + e_2 = 1$, $e_i^2 = e_i$. Then $\{1, e_1\}$ is a multiplicative set. Consider the localization $R[e_1^{-1}]$ which is an R-algebra, hence comes with a structure homomorphism $\theta: R \to R[e_1^{-1}]$. Note that $\ker \theta = \{a \in R \mid a/1 = 0\} = \{a \in R \mid ae_1 = 0\} = Re_2$. Then the sequence

$$0 \to Re_2 \to R \xrightarrow{\theta} R[e_1^{-1}]$$

is exact. Since $e_1^2 = e_1$, multiplying by e_1/e_1 shows that an arbitrary element of $R[e_1^{-1}]$ can be represented in the form a/e_1 . But an element $a \in R$ can be written $a = ae_1 + ae_2$ so every element of $R[e_1^{-1}]$ can be written $a/e_1 = (ae_1)/e_1 \in \theta(Re_1)$. That is, θ is onto and $R[e_1^{-1}] \cong R/Re_2$.

1.1. Local to Global Lemmas.

PROPOSITION 7.1.6. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. If $M_{\mathfrak{m}} = 0$ for every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of R, then M = (0).

PROOF. Let $x \in M$. We show that x = 0. Assume $x \neq 0$. Look at $\operatorname{annih}_R(x) = \{y \in R \mid yx = 0\}$. Since $1 \notin \operatorname{annih}_R(x)$, there exists a maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} \supseteq \operatorname{annih}_R(x)$. Since x/1 = 0/1 in $M_{\mathfrak{m}}$, there exists $y \notin \mathfrak{m}$ such that yx = 0. This is a contradiction.

LEMMA 7.1.7. Let R be a commutative ring, M a finitely generated R-module, and $W \subseteq R$ a multiplicative subset. Then $W^{-1}M = 0$ if and only if there exists $w \in W$ such that wM = 0.

PROOF. If wM = 0, then clearly $W^{-1}M = 0$. Conversely, assume $W^{-1}M = 0$. Pick a generating set $\{m_1, \ldots, m_n\}$ for M over R. Since each $m_i/1 = 0/1$ in M_W , there exist w_1, \ldots, w_n in W such that $w_i m_i = 0$ for each i. Set $w = w_1 w_2 \cdots w_n$. This w works.

In the following, we write M_{α} instead of $M[\alpha^{-1}]$ for the localization of an R-module at the multiplicative set $\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots\}$.

LEMMA 7.1.8. Let R be a commutative ring and $\varphi: M \to N$ a homomorphism of R-modules. Let $W \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative subset and $\varphi_W: M \otimes_R W^{-1}R \to N \otimes_R W^{-1}R$.

- (1) If φ_W is one-to-one and $\ker \varphi$ is a finitely generated R-module, then there exists $\alpha \in W$ such that $\varphi_\alpha : M_\alpha \to N_\alpha$ is one-to-one.
- (2) If φ_W is onto and coker φ is a finitely generated R-module, then there exists $\beta \in W$ such that $\varphi_\beta : M_\beta \to N_\beta$ is onto.
- (3) If φ_W is an isomorphism and both $\ker \varphi$ and $\operatorname{coker} \varphi$ are finitely generated R-modules, then there exists $w \in W$ such that $\varphi_w : M_w \to N_w$ is an isomorphism.

PROOF. Start with the exact sequence of R-modules

$$(1.1) 0 \to \ker(\varphi) \to M \xrightarrow{\varphi} N \to \operatorname{coker}(\varphi) \to 0.$$

Tensoring (1.1) with $(\cdot) \otimes_R R[W^{-1}]$ we get

$$(1.2) \qquad 0 \to W^{-1} \ker (\varphi) \to W^{-1} M \xrightarrow{\varphi_W} W^{-1} N \to W^{-1} \operatorname{coker} (\varphi) \to 0$$
 which is exact, by Lemma 7.1.4.

- (1): If φ_W is one-to-one, then by Lemma 7.1.7 there is $\alpha \in W$ such that $\alpha(\ker(\varphi)) = 0$. Therefore, $\ker(\varphi) \otimes_R R[\alpha^{-1}] = 0$, and φ_α is one-to-one.
- (2): If φ_W is onto, then by Lemma 7.1.7 there is $\beta \in W$ such that $\beta(\operatorname{coker}(\varphi)) = 0$. Therefore, $\operatorname{coker}(\varphi) \otimes_R R[\beta^{-1}] = 0$, and φ_β is onto.
- (3): Let α be as in (1) and β as in (2). If we set $w = \alpha \beta$, then φ_w is an isomorphism of R_w -modules.

LEMMA 7.1.9. Let R be a commutative ring. Let A and B be commutative R-algebras and $\varphi: A \to B$ an R-algebra homomorphism. Assume $\ker \varphi$ is a finitely generated ideal of A, and B is a finitely generated A-algebra. If $W \subseteq R$ is a multiplicative subset and $\varphi \otimes 1: A \otimes_R W^{-1}R \to B \otimes_R W^{-1}R$ is an isomorphism of $W^{-1}R$ -algebras, then there exists $w \in W$ such that $\varphi_w: A_w \to B_w$ is an isomorphism of R_w -algebras.

PROOF. Suppose $\ker \varphi = Ax_1 + \cdots + Ax_n$. By Lemma 7.1.7 there is $\alpha \in W$ such that $\alpha(Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_n) = 0$. Therefore, $\alpha \ker \varphi = 0$. Suppose the A-algebra B is generated by y_1, \ldots, y_m . By Lemma 7.1.7 there is $\beta \in W$ such that $\beta(Ry_1 + \cdots + Ry_m) \subseteq \varphi(A)$. If we set $w = \alpha\beta$, then $\varphi_w : A_w \to B_w$ is an isomorphism of R_w -algebras.

LEMMA 7.1.10. Let R be any ring and

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \to 0$$

an exact sequence of R-modules.

- (1) If B is finitely generated, then C is finitely generated.
- (2) If A and C are finitely generated, then B is finitely generated.
- (3) If B is finitely generated and C is of finite presentation, then A is finitely generated.

PROOF. (1) and (2): These are Exercise 4.2.19.

(3): Consider the commutative diagram

(1.3)
$$R^{(n)} \xrightarrow{\phi} R^{(n)} \xrightarrow{\psi} C \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow | \exists \rho \qquad | \exists \eta \qquad \downarrow =$$

$$\downarrow 0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\alpha} C \longrightarrow 0$$

where the top row exists because C is of finite presentation. The homomorphism η exists by Proposition 6.2.3 (3) because $R^{(n)}$ is projective. Now $\beta\eta\phi = \psi\phi = 0$ so im $\eta\phi \subseteq \ker\beta = \operatorname{im}\alpha$. Again, since $R^{(n)}$ is projective there exists ρ making the diagram commute. Since B is finitely generated, so is coker η by Part (1). The Snake Lemma 6.6.2 applied to (1.3) says that $\operatorname{coker} \rho \cong \operatorname{coker} \eta$ so $\operatorname{coker} \rho$ is finitely generated. Because $\operatorname{im} \rho$ is finitely generated, the exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{im} \rho \to A \to \operatorname{coker} \rho \to 0$$

and Part (2) show that A is finitely generated.

LEMMA 7.1.11. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module of finite presentation. Let $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ and assume $M_{\mathfrak{p}} = M \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a free $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -module. Then there exists $\alpha \in R - \mathfrak{p}$ such that M_{α} is a free R_{α} -module.

PROOF. Since M is finitely generated, we know that $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is free of finite rank. Pick a basis $\{m_1/\alpha_1,\ldots,m_n/\alpha_n\}$ for $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ over $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Since $\{1/\alpha_1,\ldots,1/\alpha_n\}$ are units in $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$, it follows that $\{m_1/1,\ldots,m_n/1\}$ is a basis for $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ over $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Define $\varphi:R^n\to M$ by $(x_1,\ldots,x_n)\mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n x_im_i$, and consider the exact sequence of R-modules

$$(1.4) 0 \to \ker \varphi \to R^n \xrightarrow{\varphi} M \to \operatorname{coker} \varphi \to 0.$$

Tensoring (1.4) with $(\cdot) \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{p}}$, we get

$$(1.5) 0 \to (\ker \varphi)_{\mathfrak{p}} \to R^{n}_{\mathfrak{p}} \xrightarrow{\varphi_{\mathfrak{p}}} M_{\mathfrak{p}} \to (\operatorname{coker} \varphi)_{\mathfrak{p}} \to 0$$

which is exact, by Lemma 7.1.4. But $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is free over $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ with basis $\{m_1/1,\ldots,m_n/1\}$ and $\varphi_{\mathfrak{p}}$ maps the standard basis to this basis. That is, $\varphi_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is an isomorphism. So $0 = (\ker \varphi)_{\mathfrak{p}} = (\operatorname{coker} \varphi)_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Since M is finitely generated over R so is $\operatorname{coker} \varphi$. By Lemma 7.1.7 there exists $\beta \in R - \mathfrak{p}$ such that $\beta \cdot \operatorname{coker} \varphi = 0$. Then $(\operatorname{coker} \varphi)_{\beta} = 0$. Tensoring (1.4) with () $\otimes_R R_{\beta}$ we get the sequence

$$(1.6) 0 \to (\ker \varphi)_{\beta} \to R_{\beta}^{n} \xrightarrow{\varphi_{\beta}} M_{\beta} \to 0$$

which is exact. Since M is a finitely presented R-module, M_{β} is a finitely presented R_{β} -module. By Lemma 7.1.10, $(\ker \varphi)_{\beta}$ is a finitely generated R_{β} -module. Since $\beta \in R - \mathfrak{p}$, by Theorem 3.5.5 there exists a homomorphism of rings $R_{\beta} \to R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ so we can tensor (1.6) with $(\cdot) \otimes_{R_{\beta}} R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ to get (1.5) again. That is, $(\ker \varphi)_{\beta} \otimes_{R_{\beta}} R_{\mathfrak{p}} \cong (\ker \varphi)_{\mathfrak{p}} = 0$. Lemma 7.1.7 says there exists $\mu/\beta^k \in R_{\beta} - \mathfrak{p}R_{\beta}$ such that μ/β^k $(\ker \varphi)_{\beta} = 0$. But β is a unit in R_{β} so this is equivalent to μ $(\ker \varphi)_{\beta} = 0$. It

is easy to check that $R_{\mu\beta} = R[(\mu\beta)^{-1}] = (R_{\beta})_{\mu}$. This means $0 = ((\ker \phi)_{\beta})_{\mu} =$ $(\ker \phi)_{\beta\mu}$. We also have $(\operatorname{coker} \phi)_{\beta\mu} = 0$. Tensor (1.4) with $R_{\mu\beta}$ to get $R_{\mu\beta}^{(n)} \cong M_{\mu\beta}$. Take $\alpha = \mu \beta$.

1.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 7.1.12. Let R be a commutative ring and W a multiplicative set. Let M be an R-module with submodules A and B. Prove:

- $\begin{array}{ll} (1) \ \ W^{-1}(A+B) = W^{-1}A + W^{-1}B \\ (2) \ \ W^{-1}(A\cap B) = W^{-1}A\cap W^{-1}B \end{array}$

EXERCISE 7.1.13. Let R be a commutative ring and assume $e \in R$ is a nonzero idempotent. Show that there is a natural homomorphism of rings $R[e^{-1}] \cong Re$. (Hint: The localization map $\theta: R \to R[e^{-1}]$ is onto and the kernel of θ is the principal ideal generated by the idempotent 1 - e.)

EXERCISE 7.1.14. Suppose R is a commutative ring, $R = R_1 \oplus R_2$ is a direct sum, and $\pi_i: R \to R_i$ is the projection. Let \mathfrak{p} be a prime ideal in R_1 and $\mathfrak{q} = \pi_1^{-1}(\mathfrak{p})$. Prove that π_1 induces an isomorphism on local rings $R_{\mathfrak{q}} \cong (R_1)_{\mathfrak{p}}$.

EXERCISE 7.1.15. Suppose R is a commutative ring, $R = R_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_n$ is a direct sum, and $\pi_i: R \to R_i$ is the projection. Assume each R_i is a local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{n}_i . Let $\mathfrak{m}_i = \pi_i^{-1}(\mathfrak{n}_i)$. Prove:

- (1) $\mathfrak{m}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{m}_n$ is the complete list of maximal ideals of R.
- (2) π_i induces an isomorphism on local rings $R_{\mathfrak{m}_i} \cong R_i$.
- (3) The natural homomorphism $R \to R_{\mathfrak{m}_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus R_{\mathfrak{m}_n}$ is an isomorphism.

EXERCISE 7.1.16. Let R be a commutative ring, K a field, and $\phi: R \to K$ a homomorphism of rings. If P is the kernel of ϕ , show that P is a prime ideal of R and ϕ induces a homomorphism of fields $R_P/(PR_P) \to K$.

EXERCISE 7.1.17. Let R be a commutative ring and P a prime ideal in R. Show that $R_P/(PR_P)$ is isomorphic to the quotient field of R/P.

Exercise 7.1.18. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings and W a multiplicative subset of R. Prove:

- (1) $f(W) \subseteq S$ is a multiplicative subset of S.
- (2) If Z = f(W) is the image of W, then $Z^{-1}S \cong W^{-1}S = S \otimes_R W^{-1}R$.
- (3) If I is an ideal in R, then $W^{-1}(R/I) \cong (R/I) \otimes_R W^{-1}R \cong (W^{-1}R)/(I(W^{-1}R))$.

EXERCISE 7.1.19. Let R be a commutative ring. Let V and W be two multiplicative subsets of R. Prove:

- (1) If $VW = \{vw \mid v \in V, w \in W\}$, then VW is a multiplicative subset of R.
- (2) Let U be the image of V in $W^{-1}R$. Then $(VW)^{-1}R \cong U^{-1}(W^{-1}R) \cong$ $V^{-1}(W^{-1}R)$.

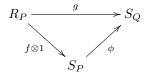
EXERCISE 7.1.20. Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$ be the ring of integers and $S = \mathbb{Z}[2^{-1}]$ the localization of R obtained by inverting 2. Prove:

- (1) If P = (p) is a prime ideal of R and p is different from 2 and 0, then $R_P \cong S_P = S \otimes_R R_P.$
- (2) If P=(2) is the prime ideal of R generated by 2, then $S\otimes_R R_P$ is isomorphic to \mathbb{Q} . Therefore, R_P is not isomorphic to S_P .

EXERCISE 7.1.21. Let R be a commutative ring and P a prime ideal in R. Show that if $\alpha \in R - P$, then $R_P \cong (R_\alpha)_{PR_\alpha} \cong R_\alpha \otimes_R R_P$.

EXERCISE 7.1.22. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. Let Q be a prime ideal in S and $P = f^{-1}(Q)$. Let $Q_P = Q \otimes_R R_P$ and $S_P = S \otimes_R R_P$. Prove:

- (1) f induces a local homomorphism of local rings $g: R_P \to S_Q$.
- (2) Q_P is a prime ideal of S_P .
- (3) S_Q is isomorphic to the local ring of S_P at Q_P .
- (4) The diagram



commutes where ϕ is the localization map.

EXERCISE 7.1.23. Let R be an integral domain with quotient field K. Let $\operatorname{Max} R$ denote the set of all maximal ideals of R (Definition 3.2.11). If $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$, then \mathfrak{m} is a prime ideal and by Example 7.1.2 the local ring of R at \mathfrak{m} is denoted $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$. By Exercise 3.5.8, $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ can be viewed as a subring of K. Show that

$$R = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R} R_{\mathfrak{m}}.$$

EXERCISE 7.1.24. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let M be a torsion free R-module (Definition 4.3.4) such that $K \otimes_R M$ is a finite dimensional K-vector space and $\dim_K(K \otimes_R M) = n$. Show that M contains a free R-submodule F of rank n such that M/F is a torsion R-module and the natural map $K \otimes_R F \to K \otimes_R M$ is an isomorphism.

2. Module Direct Summands of Rings

DEFINITION 7.2.1. Let R be a ring. An idempotent $e \in R$ is said to be *primitive* if e cannot be written as a sum of two nonzero orthogonal idempotents.

DEFINITION 7.2.2. Let R be a ring and $I \subseteq R$ a nonzero left ideal. Then I is a minimal left ideal of R if whenever J is a left ideal of R and $J \subseteq I$, then either J = 0, or J = I.

EXAMPLE 7.2.3. Let F be a field and $R=M_2(F)$ the ring of two-by-two matrices over F. Let

$$e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad e_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The reader should verify the following facts.

- (1) e_1 and e_2 are orthogonal idempotents.
- (2) Re_1 is the set of all matrices with second column consisting of zeros.
- (3) Re_2 is the set of all matrices with first column consisting of zeros.
- (4) $R = Re_1 \oplus Re_2$ as R-modules.
- (5) Re_1 is a minimal left ideal.
- (6) e_1 is a primitive idempotent.

LEMMA 7.2.4. Let R be a ring and I a left ideal of R.

- (1) I is an R-module direct summand of R if and only if I = Re for some idempotent e.
- (2) Suppose $e \in R$ is idempotent. Then e is primitive if and only if Re cannot be written as an R-module direct sum of proper left ideals of R.
- (3) If I is a minimal left ideal, then I is an R-module direct summand of R if and only if $I^2 \neq 0$.
- (4) Suppose $R = I \oplus J$ where I and J are two-sided ideals. Then I = Re for some central idempotent e, I is a ring, and e is the multiplicative identity for I.

PROOF. (1): Assume $R=I\oplus L$. Write 1=e+f where $e\in I$ and $f\in L$. Then $e=e^2+ef$. Now $ef=e-e^2\in I\cap L=0$. Likewise fe=0. Also $e+f=1=1^2=(e+f)^2=e^2+f^2$. In the direct sum the representation of 1 is unique, so $e=e^2$ and $f=f^2$. Let $x\in I$. Then $x=x\cdot 1=xe+xf$. But $xf=x-xe\in I\cap L=0$. So Re=I. Conversely assume $e^2=e$ and prove that Re is a direct summand of R. Then $0=e-e^2=e(1-e)=(1-e)e$. Also $(1-e)^2=1-e-e+e^2=1-e$. This shows e,1-e are orthogonal idempotents. Since 1=e+(1-e) we have R=Re+R(1-e). Let $x\in Re\cap R(1-e)$. Then x=ae=b(1-e) for some $a,b\in R$. Then $x=ae^2=ae=x$ and again xe=b(1-e)e=0. Therefore $R=Re\oplus R(1-e)$.

- (2): Use the same ideas as in (1) to show e is a sum of nonzero orthogonal idempotents if and only if Re decomposes into a direct sum of proper left ideals of R
- (3): Assume I is a minimal left ideal of R. Suppose $R = I \oplus L$ for some left ideal L of R. By (1), I = Re for some idempotent e. Then $e = e^2 \in I^2$ so $I^2 \neq 0$. Conversely assume $I^2 \neq 0$. There is some $x \in I$ such that $Ix \neq 0$. But Ix is a left ideal of R and since I is minimal, we have Ix = I. For some $e \in I$, we have ex = x. Let $L = \operatorname{annih}_R(x) = \{r \in R \mid rx = 0\}$. Then L is a left ideal of R. Since (1 e)x = x ex = x x = 0 it follows that $1 e \in L$. Therefore $1 = e + (1 e) \in I + L$ so R = I + L. Also, $e \in I$ and $ex = x \neq 0$ shows that $e \notin L$. Now $I \cap L$ is a left ideal in R and is contained in the minimal left ideal I. Since $I \cap L \neq I$, it follows that $I \cap L = 0$ which proves that $R = I \oplus L$ as R-modules.

(4): This follows from Theorem 3.3.5 (3).

Theorem 7.2.5. Let R be a commutative ring and assume R decomposes into an internal direct sum $R = Re_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Re_n$, where each e_i is a primitive idempotent. Then this decomposition is unique in the sense that, if $R = Rf_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Rf_p$ is another such decomposition of R, then n = p, and after rearranging, $e_1 = f_1, \ldots, e_n = f_n$.

PROOF. Any idempotent of $R = Re_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Re_n$ is of the form $x_1 + \cdots + x_n$ where x_i is an idempotent in Re_i . By Lemma 7.2.4, the only idempotents of Re_i are 0 and e_i . Hence, R has exactly n primitive idempotents, namely e_1, \ldots, e_n . \square

2.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 7.2.6. Let R be a ring and I a left ideal in R. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) R/I is a projective left R-module.
- (2) The R-module sequence $0 \to I \to R \to R/I \to 0$ is split-exact.
- (3) The left ideal I is finitely generated, and the left R-module R/I is flat.
- (4) I is an R-module direct summand of R.

- (5) There is an element $e \in R$ such that $1 e \in I$ and Ie = (0).
- (6) There is an idempotent $e \in R$ such that I = R(1 e).

EXERCISE 7.2.7. Let A be an R-algebra and e an idempotent in A.

- (1) Show that eAe is an R-algebra.
- (2) Show that there is an R-module direct sum decomposition:

$$A = eAe \oplus eA(1-e) \oplus (1-e)Ae \oplus (1-e)A(1-e).$$

3. The Prime Spectrum of a Commutative Ring

DEFINITION 7.3.1. Let R be a commutative ring. The *prime ideal spectrum* of R is

Spec
$$R = \{P \mid P \text{ is a prime ideal in } R\}.$$

The maximal ideal spectrum of R is

$$\operatorname{Max} R = \{ \mathfrak{m} \mid \mathfrak{m} \text{ is a maximal ideal in } R \}.$$

Given a subset $L \subseteq R$, let

$$V(L) = \{ P \in \operatorname{Spec} R \mid P \supseteq L \}.$$

Given a nonempty subset $Y \subseteq \operatorname{Spec} R$, let

$$I(Y) = \bigcap_{P \in Y} P.$$

Being an intersection of ideals, I(Y) is an ideal. By definition, we take $I(\emptyset)$ to be the unit ideal R.

LEMMA 7.3.2. Let L, L_1, L_2 denote subsets of R and Y_1, Y_2 subsets of Spec R.

- (1) If $L_1 \subseteq L_2$, then $V(L_1) \supseteq V(L_2)$.
- (2) If $Y_1 \subseteq Y_2$, then $I(Y_1) \supseteq I(Y_2)$.
- (3) $I(Y_1 \cup Y_2) = I(Y_1) \cap I(Y_2)$.
- (4) If I is the ideal of R spanned by L, then V(L) = V(I).

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

LEMMA 7.3.3. Given any collection $\{L_i\}$ of subsets of R

- (1) $V(\{1\}) = \emptyset$ and $V(\{0\}) = \operatorname{Spec} R$.
- (2) $\bigcap_i V(L_i) = V(\bigcup L_i)$.
- (3) $V(L_1) \cup V(L_2) = V(\{x_1x_2 \mid x_1 \in L_1, x_2 \in L_2\}).$

PROOF. (1) is left to the reader. (2) follows because $P \in \cap V(L_i)$ if and only if $L_i \subseteq P$ for each i if and only if $\cup L_i \subseteq P$. For (3) suppose $P \supseteq L_1L_2$ and $L_1 \not\subseteq P$. Pick $x_1 \in L_1$ such that $x_1 \not\in P$. Since $x_1L_2 \subseteq P$ and P is prime, $L_2 \subseteq P$. Therefore $P \in V(L_2)$. Conversely, if $P \in V(L_1) \cup V(L_2)$ then $L_1 \subseteq P$ or $L_2 \subseteq P$. Let $L_1 \subseteq P$. Multiplying, we get $L_1L_2 \subseteq P$.

DEFINITION 7.3.4. By Lemma 7.3.3, the collection of sets $\{V(L) \mid L \subseteq R\}$ make up the closed sets for a topology on Spec R, called the *Zariski topology*.

LEMMA 7.3.5. Let R be a commutative ring. If $W \subseteq R$ is a multiplicative set and $0 \notin W$, then there exists a prime ideal $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ such that $P \cap W = \emptyset$.

PROOF. Let $S = \{I \subseteq R \mid I \text{ is an ideal and } I \cap W = \emptyset\}$. Then $(0) \in S$. Apply Zorn's Lemma, Proposition 1.3.3. Then S has a maximal element, say P. To see that P is a prime ideal, assume $x \notin P$ and $y \notin P$. By maximality of P we know $Rx + P \cap W \neq \emptyset$ so there exists $a \in R$ and $u \in W$ such that $ax - u \in P$. Likewise $Ry + P \cap W \neq \emptyset$ so there exists $b \in R$ and $v \in W$ such that $by - v \in P$. Multiply, $abxy \equiv uv \pmod{P}$. Since $uv \in W$ and $P \cap W = \emptyset$ we have proved $xy \notin P$. \square

LEMMA 7.3.6. Let R be a commutative ring. As in Exercise 3.2.27, let $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0) = \{x \in R \mid x^n = 0 \text{ for some } n > 0\}$ be the nil radical of R. Then

$$\operatorname{Rad}_R(0) = \bigcap_{P \in \operatorname{Spec} R} P.$$

In particular, $Rad_R(0)$ is an ideal.

PROOF. Pick $x \in \operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$. Fix $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. If $x^n = 0$, then either x = 0 or $n \geq 2$. If $n \geq 2$ then $x \cdot x^{n-1} \in P$ so $x \in P$ or $x^{n-1} \in P$. Inductively, $x \in P$ so $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0) \subseteq P$. If $x \notin \operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$, let $W = \{1, x, x^2, \dots\}$. Lemma 7.3.5 says there exists $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ such that $x \notin P$.

DEFINITION 7.3.7. Let R be a commutative ring and A an ideal in R. The set

$$\operatorname{Rad}(A) = \{ x \in R \mid x^n \in A \text{ for some } n > 0 \}$$

is called the *nil radical of A*. If $A = \operatorname{Rad} A$, then we say A is a radical ideal. By Lemma 7.3.8, $\operatorname{Rad}(A)$ is an ideal of R containing A.

Lemma 7.3.8. If R is a commutative ring and A is an ideal in R, then $\mathrm{Rad}(A)$ is an ideal in R which contains A and

$$\operatorname{Rad}(A) = I(V(A)) = \bigcap_{P \in V(A)} P.$$

PROOF. Under the natural map $\eta: R \to R/A$ there is a one-to-one correspondence between ideals of R containing A and ideals of R/A (Proposition 3.2.12). Under this correspondence, prime ideals correspond to prime ideals. To finish, apply Lemma 7.3.6.

Lemma 7.3.9. Let A be an ideal in R and Y a subset of Spec R. Then

- (1) V(A) = V(Rad(A)), and
- (2) $V(I(Y)) = \bar{Y}$, the closure of Y in the Zariski topology.

PROOF. (1): Since $A \subseteq \operatorname{Rad}(A)$, it follows that $V(A) \supseteq V(\operatorname{Rad}(A))$. Conversely, if $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ and $P \supseteq A$, then by Lemma 7.3.8, $P \supseteq \operatorname{Rad}(A)$. Then $P \in V(\operatorname{Rad}(A))$.

(2): Since V(I(Y)) is closed we have $V(I(Y)) \supseteq \bar{Y}$. Since \bar{Y} is closed, $\bar{Y} = V(A)$ for some ideal A. Since $Y \subseteq \bar{Y}$, $I(Y) \supseteq I(\bar{Y}) = I(V(A)) = \operatorname{Rad}(A) \supseteq A$. Thus, $V(I(Y)) \subseteq V(A) = \bar{Y}$.

COROLLARY 7.3.10. There is a one-to-one order-reversing correspondence between closed subsets of Spec R and radical ideals in R given by $Y \mapsto I(Y)$ and $A \mapsto V(A)$. Under this correspondence, irreducible closed subsets correspond to prime ideals.

PROOF. The first part follows from Lemmas 7.3.2, 7.3.8, and 7.3.9. The last part is proved in Lemma 7.3.11. $\hfill\Box$

LEMMA 7.3.11. Let R be a commutative ring and Y a subset of Spec R. Then Y is irreducible if and only if P = I(Y) is a prime ideal in R. If Z is an irreducible closed subset of Spec R, then P = I(Z) is the unique minimal element of Z, and is called the generic point of Z.

PROOF. Suppose Y is irreducible. Assume $x,y \in R$ and $xy \in I(Y)$. Notice that $Y \subseteq \bar{Y} = V(I(Y)) \subseteq V(xy) = V(x) \cup V(y)$. Since Y is irreducible, $Y \subseteq V(x)$ or $Y \subseteq V(y)$. Therefore, $x \in I(Y)$, or $y \in I(Y)$. This shows I(Y) is a prime ideal. Conversely, assume P = I(Y) is a prime ideal of R. The singleton set $\{P\}$ is irreducible, and by Lemma 1.4.4 the closure of $\{P\}$ is irreducible. By Lemma 7.3.9, the closure of $\{P\}$ is equal to V(P), which is equal to \bar{Y} . By Lemma 1.4.4, Y is irreducible. The rest is left to the reader.

Let R be a commutative ring. If $\alpha \in R$, the basic open subset of Spec R associated to α is

$$U(\alpha) = \operatorname{Spec} R - V(\alpha) = \{Q \in \operatorname{Spec} R \mid \alpha \notin Q\}.$$

Lemma 7.3.12. Let R be a commutative ring.

- (1) Let $\alpha, \beta \in R$. The following are equivalent.
 - (a) $V(\alpha) = V(\beta)$.
 - (b) $U(\alpha) = U(\beta)$.
 - (c) There exist $a \ge 1$, $b \ge 1$ such that $\alpha^a \in R\beta$ and $\beta^b \in R\alpha$.
- (2) If I is an ideal in R, then

$$\operatorname{Spec} R - V(I) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U(\alpha)$$

Every open set can be written as a union of basic open sets. The collection of all basic open sets $\{U(\alpha) \mid \alpha \in R\}$ is said to be a basis for the Zariski topology on Spec R.

PROOF. (1): By Lemma 7.3.8, $\operatorname{Rad}(R\alpha) = I(V(\alpha))$. By Lemma 7.3.9, $V(\alpha) = V(\operatorname{Rad}(R\alpha))$. So $V(\alpha) = V(\beta)$ if and only if $\operatorname{Rad}(R\alpha) = \operatorname{Rad}(R\beta)$ which is true if and only if there exist $a \geq 1$, $b \geq 1$ such that $\alpha^a \in R\beta$ and $\beta^b \in R\alpha$. The rest is left to the reader.

3.1. Idempotents and Subsets that are Open and Closed. Let R be any ring. The set of idempotents of R is denoted

$$idemp(R) = \{x \in R \mid x^2 - x = 0\}.$$

The homomorphic image of an idempotent is an idempotent, so given a homomorphism of rings $R \to S$, there is a function idemp $(R) \to \text{idemp}(S)$.

LEMMA 7.3.13. Let R be a commutative ring and idemp(R) the set of all idempotents of R.

- (1) If $e \in idemp(R)$, then the closed set V(1-e) is equal to the open set U(e).
- (2) Let $e, f \in idemp(R)$. Then V(e) = V(f) if and only if e = f.
- (3) Let $e, f \in idemp(R)$. Then Re = Rf if and only if e = f.

PROOF. (1): Let $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. Since e(1-e)=0, either $e \in P$, or $1-e \in P$. Since 1=e+(1-e), P does not contain both e and 1-e.

(2): Assume V(e) = V(f). By Lemma 7.3.12, there exist $a \ge 1$, $b \ge 1$ such that $e = e^a \in Rf$ and $f = f^b \in Re$. Write e = xf and f = ye for some $x, y \in R$. Then $e = xf = xf^2 = (xf)f = ef = eye = ye^2 = ye = f$.

(3):
$$Re = Rf$$
 implies $V(e) = V(f)$, which by Part (2) implies $e = f$.

Theorem 7.3.14. Let R be a commutative ring and define

 $\mathcal{C} = \{ Y \subseteq \operatorname{Spec} R \mid Y \text{ is open and closed} \}$

 $\mathcal{D} = \{ A \subseteq R \mid A \text{ is an ideal in } R \text{ which is an } R\text{-module direct summand of } R \}.$

Then there are one-to-one correspondences:

$$\gamma: \mathrm{idemp}(R) \to \mathcal{C},$$

defined by $e \mapsto V(1-e) = U(e)$, and

$$\delta: \mathrm{idemp}(R) \to \mathcal{D},$$

defined by $e \mapsto Re$.

PROOF. Lemma 7.3.13, Parts (1) and (2) show that γ is well defined and one-to-one. By Lemma 7.3.4 (1), δ is well defined and onto. By Lemma 7.3.13 (3), δ is one-to-one. It remains to prove that γ is onto. Assume A_1, A_2 are ideals in $R, X_1 = V(A_1), X_2 = V(A_2), X_1 \cup X_2 = \operatorname{Spec} R, X_1 \cap X_2 = \emptyset$. We prove that $X_i = V(e_i)$ for some $e_i \in \operatorname{idemp}(R)$. Since $\emptyset = X_1 \cap X_2 = V(A_1 + A_2)$, we know A_1 and A_2 are comaximal and $A_1A_2 = A_1 \cap A_2$, by Exercise 3.3.17. Since $\operatorname{Spec} R = X_1 \cup X_2 = V(A_1A_2) = V(A_1 \cap A_2)$, Lemma 7.3.8 implies

$$A_1 \cap A_2 \subseteq \bigcap_{P \in \operatorname{Spec} R} P = \operatorname{Rad}_R(0).$$

That is, $A_1 \cap A_2$ consists of nilpotent elements. Write $1 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$, where $\alpha_i \in A_i$. Then $R = R\alpha_1 + R\alpha_2$ so $R\alpha_1$ and $R\alpha_2$ are comaximal. Also $R\alpha_1 \cap R\alpha_2 = R\alpha_1\alpha_2 \subseteq A_1 \cap A_2 \subseteq \operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$. So there exists m > 0 such that $(\alpha_1\alpha_2)^m = 0$. Then $R\alpha_1^m$ and $R\alpha_2^m$ are comaximal (Exercise 3.3.18) and $R\alpha_1^m \cap R\alpha_2^m = (0)$. By Proposition 3.3.6, R is isomorphic to the internal direct sum $R \cong R\alpha_1^m \oplus R\alpha_2^m$. By Theorem 3.3.5 there are orthogonal idempotents $e_1, e_2 \in R$ such that $1 = e_1 + e_2$ and $Re_i = R\alpha_i^m$. Then $\operatorname{Spec} R = V(e_1) \cup V(e_2)$ and $V(e_1) \cap V(e_2) = \emptyset$. Moreover, $V(e_i) \supseteq V(R\alpha_i^m) \supseteq V(A_i) = X_i$. From this it follows that $X_i = V(e_i)$, hence γ is onto.

COROLLARY 7.3.15. Suppose R is a commutative ring and $\operatorname{Spec} R = X_1 \cup \cdots \cup X_r$, where each X_i is a nonempty closed subset and $X_i \cap X_j = \emptyset$ whenever $i \neq j$. Then there are idempotents e_1, \ldots, e_r in R such that $X_i = U(e_i) = V(1 - e_i)$ is homeomorphic to $\operatorname{Spec} Re_i$, and $R = Re_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Re_r$.

PROOF. By Theorem 7.3.14 there are unique idempotents e_1, \ldots, e_r in R such that $X_i = U(e_i) = V(1-e_i)$. Since $R = Re_i \oplus R(1-e_i)$, the map $\pi_i : R \to Re_i$ defined by $x \mapsto xe_i$ is a homomorphism of rings with kernel $R(1-e_i)$. By Exercise 7.3.22, π_i induces a homeomorphism Spec $Re_i \to X_i$. If $i \neq j$, then $V(1-e_i) \cap V(1-e_j) = X_i \cap X_j = \emptyset$. It follows that the ideals $R(1-e_i)$ are pairwise relatively prime. By Theorem 3.3.8, the direct sum map

$$R \xrightarrow{\phi} Re_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Re_r$$

is onto. By Exercise 3.3.17, the kernel of ϕ is the principal ideal generated by the product $(1 - e_1) \cdots (1 - e_r)$. But $X = X_1 \cup \cdots \cup X_r = V((1 - e_1) \cdots (1 - e_r))$.

Therefore, $(1 - e_1) \cdots (1 - e_r) \in \operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$. Since the only nilpotent idempotent is $0, \phi$ is an isomorphism.

COROLLARY 7.3.16. The topological space $\operatorname{Spec} R$ is connected if and only if 0 and 1 are the only idempotents of R.

COROLLARY 7.3.17. Let e be an idempotent of R. The following are equivalent.

- (1) e is a primitive idempotent.
- (2) V(1-e) = U(e) is a connected component of Spec R.
- (3) 0 and 1 are the only idempotents of the ring Re.

PROOF. (1) is equivalent to (3): This follows from Lemma 7.2.4(2).

(2) is equivalent to (3): Since $R = Re \oplus R(1-e)$, it follows from Exercise 7.3.22 that V(1-e) is homeomorphic to Spec Re. This follows from Corollary 7.3.16. \square

3.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 7.3.18. Let R be a commutative ring and $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. Prove:

- (1) The closure of the singleton set $\{P\}$ is equal to V(P).
- (2) The set $\{P\}$ is closed if and only if P is a maximal ideal in R.
- (3) Let $U \subseteq \operatorname{Spec} R$ be an open set. Then $U = \operatorname{Spec} R$ if and only if $\operatorname{Max} R \subseteq U$.

EXERCISE 7.3.19. Prove that if R is a local ring, then 0 and 1 are the only idempotents in R.

EXERCISE 7.3.20. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. Show that $P \mapsto \theta^{-1}(P)$ induces a function $\theta^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ which is continuous for the Zariski topology. If $\sigma: S \to T$ is another homomorphism, show that $(\sigma\theta)^{\sharp} = \theta^{\sharp}\sigma^{\sharp}$.

EXERCISE 7.3.21. For the following, let I and J be ideals in the commutative ring R. Prove that the nil radical satisfies the following properties.

- (1) $I \subseteq \operatorname{Rad}(I)$
- (2) Rad(Rad(I)) = Rad(I)
- (3) $\operatorname{Rad}(IJ) = \operatorname{Rad}(I \cap J) = \operatorname{Rad}(I) \cap \operatorname{Rad}(J)$
- (4) Rad(I) = R if and only if I = R
- (5) $\operatorname{Rad}(I+J) = \operatorname{Rad}(\operatorname{Rad}(I) + \operatorname{Rad}(J))$
- (6) If $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, then for all n > 0, $P = \operatorname{Rad}(P^n)$.
- (7) I + J = R if and only if Rad(I) + Rad(J) = R.

EXERCISE 7.3.22. Let R be a commutative ring and $I \subsetneq R$ an ideal. Let $\eta: R \to R/I$ be the natural map and $\eta^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec}(R/I) \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ the continuous map of Exercise 7.3.20. Prove:

- (1) η^{\sharp} is a one-to-one order-preserving correspondence between the prime ideals of R/I and V(I).
- (2) There is a one-to-one correspondence between radical ideals in R/I and radical ideals in R containing I.
- (3) Under η^{\sharp} the image of a closed set is a closed set.
- (4) $\eta^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec}(R/I) \to V(I)$ is a homeomorphism.
- (5) If $I \subseteq \operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$, then $\eta^{\sharp} : \operatorname{Spec}(R/I) \to \operatorname{Spec}(R)$ is a homeomorphism.

EXERCISE 7.3.23. Let R be a commutative ring which is a direct sum of ideals $R = A_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus A_n$. As in Theorem 3.3.5, let e_1, \ldots, e_n be the orthogonal idempotents of R such that $A_i = Re_i$. For $1 \leq i \leq n$, let $\pi_i : R \to Re_i$ be the projection homomorphism. Prove:

- (1) Let I be an ideal in R. Then I is prime if and only if there exists a unique $k \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that Ie_k is a prime ideal in Re_k and for all $i \neq k$, $Ie_i = Re_i$.
- (2) Let π_i^{\sharp} : Spec $R_i \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ be the continuous map defined in Exercise 7.3.20. Then im π_i^{\sharp} is equal to $V(1-e_i)=U(e_i)$, hence is both open and closed.
- (3) $\pi_i^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} R_i \to V(1-e_i) = U(e_i)$ is a homeomorphism.
- (4) Spec $R = \operatorname{im} \pi_1^{\sharp} \cup \cdots \cup \operatorname{im} \pi_n^{\sharp}$ and the union is disjoint.

EXERCISE 7.3.24. Let R be a commutative ring. Show that under the usual set inclusion relation, Spec R has at least one maximal element and at least one minimal element. (Hint: To prove that R contains a minimal prime ideal, reverse the set inclusion argument of Proposition 3.2.15.)

EXERCISE 7.3.25. Let R be a commutative ring and $I \subsetneq R$ an ideal. Prove that under the usual set inclusion relation, V(I) contains at least one minimal element and at least one maximal element. A minimal element of V(I) is called a *minimal prime over-ideal* of I.

EXERCISE 7.3.26. Let R be a commutative ring and W a multiplicative set. Let $\theta: R \to W^{-1}R$ be the localization. For any subset $S \subseteq W^{-1}R$, use the intersection notation $S \cap R = \theta^{-1}(S)$ for the preimage. Prove:

- (1) If J is an ideal in $W^{-1}R$, then $J = W^{-1}(J \cap R)$.
- (2) The continuous map $\theta^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec}(W^{-1}R) \to \operatorname{Spec}(R)$ is one-to-one.
- (3) If $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ and $P \cap W = \emptyset$, then $W^{-1}P$ is a prime ideal in $W^{-1}R$.
- (4) The image of θ^{\sharp} : Spec $(W^{-1}R) \to \text{Spec}(R)$ consists of those prime ideals in R that are disjoint from W.
- (5) If $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, there is a one-to-one correspondence between prime ideals in R_P and prime ideals of R contained in P.

EXERCISE 7.3.27. Let R be a commutative ring and α an element of R. Let R_{α} denote the localization $W^{-1}R$ with respect to the multiplicative set $W = \{\alpha^i \mid 0 \leq i\}$ and $\theta: R \to R_{\alpha}$ the localization map. Prove:

- (1) The image of θ^{\sharp} : Spec $R_{\alpha} \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is the basic open set $U(\alpha) = \operatorname{Spec} R V(\alpha)$.
- (2) $\theta^{\sharp} : \operatorname{Spec} R_{\alpha} \to U(\alpha)$ is a homeomorphism.

EXERCISE 7.3.28. Let R be a commutative ring and W a multiplicative set. Prove:

- (1) $\operatorname{Rad}_{W^{-1}R}(0) = W^{-1} \operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$.
- (2) If I is a ideal of R, then $Rad(W^{-1}I) = W^{-1}Rad(I)$.

EXERCISE 7.3.29. Show that if R is a commutative ring, then $\operatorname{Spec} R$ is compact. That is, every open cover of $\operatorname{Spec} R$ has a finite subcover.

EXERCISE 7.3.30. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. Let $\alpha \in R$ and assume $f(\alpha)$ is a unit in S. Prove that if $f^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is onto, then α is a unit in R.

4. Locally Free Modules

4.1. Finitely Generated Projective over a Local Ring is Free. The reader is referred to Exercise 3.2.32 for the definition of local ring.

LEMMA 7.4.1. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal in R. Let M be an R-module. If

- (1) I is nilpotent, or
- (2) I is contained in every maximal ideal of R and M is finitely generated, then a subset $X \subseteq M$ generates M as an R-module if and only if the image of X generates M/IM as an R/I-module.

PROOF. Let $\eta: M \to M/IM$. Suppose $X \subseteq M$ and let T be the R-submodule of M spanned by X. Then $\eta(T) = (T + IM)/IM$ is spanned by $\eta(X)$. If T = M, then $\eta(T) = M/IM$. Conversely, $\eta(T) = M/IM$ implies M = T + IM. By Corollary 6.3.5, this implies M = T.

Another proof of Proposition 7.4.2 is presented in Corollary 7.8.5.

PROPOSITION 7.4.2. Let R be a commutative local ring. If P is a finitely generated projective R-module, then P is free of finite rank. If \mathfrak{m} is the maximal ideal of R and $\{x_i + \mathfrak{m}P \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ is a basis for the vector space $P/\mathfrak{m}P$ over the residue field R/\mathfrak{m} , then $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ is a basis for P over R. It follows that $\operatorname{Rank}_R(P) = \dim_{R/\mathfrak{m}}(P/\mathfrak{m}P)$.

PROOF. Define $\phi: R^{(n)} \to P$ by $\phi(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i$. The goal is to show that ϕ is onto and one-to-one, in that order. Denote by T the image of ϕ . Then $T = Rx_1 + \dots + Rx_n$ which is the submodule of P generated by $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$. It follows from Lemma 7.4.1 that ϕ is onto. To show that ϕ is one-to-one we prove that $\ker \phi = 0$. Since P is R-projective, the sequence

$$0 \to \ker \phi \to R^{(n)} \xrightarrow{\phi} P \to 0$$

is split exact. Therefore, $\ker \phi$ is a finitely generated projective R-module. Upon tensoring with () $\otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m}$, ϕ becomes the isomorphism $(R/\mathfrak{m})^{(n)} \cong P/\mathfrak{m}P$. By Exercise 6.4.31,

$$0 \to \ker \phi \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m} \to (R/\mathfrak{m})^{(n)} \xrightarrow{\phi} P/\mathfrak{m}P \to 0$$

is split exact. Therefore, $\ker \phi \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m} = 0$, or in other words $\mathfrak{m}(\ker \phi) = \ker \phi$. By Nakayama's Lemma (Corollary 6.3.2), $\ker \phi = (0)$.

Corollary 7.4.3 is a special case of Proposition 14.4.14.

COROLLARY 7.4.3. Let R be a commutative local ring with residue field k. Let $\psi: M \to N$ be a homomorphism of R-modules, where M is finitely generated and N is finitely generated and free. Then

$$0 \to M \xrightarrow{\psi} N$$

is split exact if and only if $\psi \otimes 1 : M \otimes_R k \to N \otimes_R k$ is one-to-one.

PROOF. Assume $\psi \otimes 1$ is one-to-one. By Proposition 7.4.2 we can pick a generating set $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ for the R-module M such that $\{x_1 \otimes 1, \ldots, x_n \otimes 1\}$ is a basis

for the k-vector space $M \otimes_R k$. Define $\pi : R^{(n)} \to M$ by mapping the ith standard basis vector to x_i . Then $\pi \otimes 1 : k^{(n)} \to M \otimes_R k$ is an isomorphism. The diagram

$$R^{(n)} \xrightarrow{\pi} M \xrightarrow{\psi} N$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$k^{(n)} \xrightarrow{\pi \otimes 1} M \otimes_R k \xrightarrow{\psi \otimes 1} N \otimes_R k$$

commutes. The composite map $\psi \pi \otimes 1$ is one-to-one. By Exercise 7.4.13, there is an R-module homomorphism $\tau: N \to R^{(n)}$ which is a left inverse for $\psi \pi$. Since π is onto, it follows that $\pi \tau$ is a left inverse for ψ .

Conversely, if ψ has a left inverse, then clearly $\psi \otimes 1$ is one-to-one.

4.2. A Finitely Generated Projective Module is Locally Free.

DEFINITION 7.4.4. Let M be a finitely generated projective module over the commutative ring R. For any prime ideal P of R, the localization M_P is a finitely generated projective R_P -module (Theorem 6.4.23). Therefore, M_P is a finitely generated free R_P -module (Proposition 7.4.2) and M_P has a well defined rank. If there is an integer $n \geq 0$ such that $n = \operatorname{Rank}_{R_P}(M_P)$ for all $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, then we say M has constant rank and write $\operatorname{Rank}_R(M) = n$.

PROPOSITION 7.4.5. Let R be a commutative ring and S a commutative R-algebra. If M is a finitely generated projective R-module of constant rank $\operatorname{Rank}_R(M) = n$, then $M \otimes_R S$ is a finitely generated projective S-module of constant rank and $\operatorname{Rank}_S(M \otimes_R S) = n$.

PROOF. By Theorem 6.4.23, $M \otimes_R S$ is a finitely generated projective S-module. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be the structure map. Let $Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ and $P = \theta^{-1}(Q) \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. Then by Exercise 7.1.22, θ extends to a local homomorphism of local rings $\theta: R_P \to S_Q$. The proof follows from

$$(M \otimes_R S) \otimes_S S_Q \cong M \otimes_R (S \otimes_S S_Q)$$

$$\cong M \otimes_R S_Q$$

$$\cong M \otimes_R (R_P \otimes_{R_P} S_Q)$$

$$\cong (M \otimes_R R_P) \otimes_{R_P} S_Q$$

$$\cong (R_P)^{(n)} \otimes_{R_P} S_Q$$

$$\cong (S_Q)^{(n)}.$$

In the following, for the localization of R at the multiplicative set $\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots\}$ we write R_{α} instead of $R[\alpha^{-1}]$.

Theorem 7.4.6. Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated projective R-module.

- (1) Given $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ there exists $\alpha \in R P$ such that M_{α} is a free R_{α} -module.
- (2) If α is as in (1), then the values $\operatorname{Rank}_{R_Q}(M_Q)$ are constant for all $Q \in U(\alpha)$.

(3) The map

Spec
$$R \xrightarrow{\phi} \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

 $P \mapsto \operatorname{Rank}_{R_P} M_P$

is continuous if $\{0,1,2,\ldots\}$ is given the discrete topology (that is, the topology where every subset is closed, or equivalently, "points are open").

PROOF. (1): By Proposition 7.4.2 we know that M_P is a free module over R_P . By Corollary 6.2.8, M is an R-module of finite presentation. An application of Lemma 7.1.11 completes the proof.

- (2): If $Q \in U(\alpha)$, then $\alpha \in R Q$. By Exercise 7.1.21, $R_Q = (R_\alpha)_{QR_\alpha}$. Since M_α is R_α -free of rank n, it follows from Theorem 6.4.23 (1) that M_Q is R_Q -free of rank n.
- (3): We need to prove that for every $n \geq 0$, the preimage $\phi^{-1}(n)$ is open in Spec R. Let $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ such that $\operatorname{Rank}_{R_P} M_P = n$. It is enough to find an open neighborhood of P in the preimage of n. By Part (1), there exists $\alpha \in R P$ such that M_{α} is free of rank n over R_{α} . Since $U(\alpha)$ is an open neighborhood of P in $\operatorname{Spec} R$, it is enough to show that $\operatorname{Rank}_{R_Q} M_Q = n$ for all $Q \in U(\alpha)$. This shows that (3) follows from Part (2).

COROLLARY 7.4.7. Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated projective R-module. Then there are idempotents e_1, \ldots, e_t in R satisfying the following.

- (1) $R = Re_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Re_t$.
- (2) $M = Me_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Me_t$.
- (3) If $R_i = Re_i$ and $M_i = M \otimes_R R_i$, then M_i is a finitely generated projective R_i -module of constant rank.
- (4) If $\operatorname{Rank}_{R_i}(M_i) = n_i$, then n_1, \ldots, n_t are distinct.
- (5) The integer t and the idempotents e_1, \ldots, e_t are uniquely determined by M.

In [40, Theorem IV.27] the elements e_1, \ldots, e_t are called the structure idempotents of M.

PROOF. The rank function ϕ : Spec $R \to \{0,1,2,\ldots\}$ defined by $\phi(P) = \operatorname{Rank}_{R_P} M_P$ is continuous and locally constant (Theorem 7.4.6). Let $U_n = \phi^{-1}(\{n\})$ for each $n \geq 0$. Then $\{U_n \mid n \geq 0\}$ is a collection of subsets of Spec R each of which is open and closed. Moreover, the sets U_n are pairwise disjoint. Since Spec R is compact (Exercise 7.3.29) the image of ϕ is a finite set, say $\{n_1,\ldots,n_t\}$. Let e_1,\ldots,e_t be the idempotents in R corresponding to the disjoint union Spec $R = U_{n_1} \cup \cdots \cup U_{n_t}$ (Corollary 7.3.15). The rest is left to the reader.

COROLLARY 7.4.8. If R is a commutative ring with no idempotents except 0 and 1, then for any finitely generated projective R-module M, $\operatorname{Rank}_R M$ is defined. That is, there exists $n \geq 0$ such that for every $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, $\operatorname{Rank}_{R_P} M_P = n$.

PROOF. By Proposition 7.3.16 we know Spec R is connected. The continuous image of a connected space is connected. The rest follows from Corollary 7.4.7. \square

4.3. Exercises. For the following, R always denotes a commutative ring.

EXERCISE 7.4.9. Let L and M be finitely generated projective R-modules such that $\operatorname{Rank}_R(L)$ and $\operatorname{Rank}_R(M)$ are both defined. Prove:

- (1) The rank of $L \oplus M$ is defined and is equal to the sum $\operatorname{Rank}_R(L) + \operatorname{Rank}_R(M)$.
- (2) The rank of $L \otimes_R M$ is defined and is equal to the product $\operatorname{Rank}_R(L) \operatorname{Rank}_R(M)$.
- (3) The rank of $\operatorname{Hom}_R(L, M)$ is defined and is equal to the product $\operatorname{Rank}_R(L) \operatorname{Rank}_R(M)$.

EXERCISE 7.4.10. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings and $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. Let $k(P) = R_P/PR_P$ be the residue field and $S_P = S \otimes_R R_P$. Let $Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ such that $P = f^{-1}(Q)$. Prove:

- (1) $S \otimes_R k(P) \cong S_P/PS_P$.
- (2) $Q \otimes_R k(P)$ is a prime ideal of $S \otimes_R k(P)$ and QS_P/PS_P is the corresponding prime ideal of S_P/PS_P .
- (3) The localization of S_P/PS_P at QS_P/PS_P is S_Q/PS_Q .
- (4) The localization of $S \otimes_R k(P)$ at the prime ideal $Q \otimes_R k(P)$ is $S_Q \otimes_R k(P)$.

EXERCISE 7.4.11. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings and $f^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ the continuous map of Exercise 7.3.20.

(1) Let $W \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative set. Denote by $W^{-1}S$ the localization $S \otimes_R W^{-1}R$. Define all of the maps such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \operatorname{Spec} (W^{-1}S) & \stackrel{g^{\sharp}}{\longrightarrow} \operatorname{Spec} (W^{-1}R) \\ & & \downarrow^{\eta^{\sharp}} & & \downarrow^{\eta^{\sharp}} \\ \operatorname{Spec} S & \stackrel{f^{\sharp}}{\longrightarrow} \operatorname{Spec} R \end{array}$$

commutes. Show that ϵ^{\sharp} and η^{\sharp} are one-to-one.

(2) Let $I \subseteq R$ be an ideal. Define all of the maps such that the diagram

$$\operatorname{Spec}(S/IS) \xrightarrow{g^{\sharp}} \operatorname{Spec}(R/I)$$

$$\downarrow^{\xi^{\sharp}} \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\eta^{\sharp}}$$

$$\operatorname{Spec} S \xrightarrow{f^{\sharp}} \operatorname{Spec} R$$

commutes. Show that ϵ^{\sharp} and η^{\sharp} are one-to-one.

(3) Let $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. Let $k(P) = R_P/PR_P$ be the residue field. Prove that there is a commutative diagram

$$\operatorname{Spec}(S \otimes_R k(P)) \xrightarrow{g^{\sharp}} \operatorname{Spec}(k(P))$$

$$\downarrow^{\eta^{\sharp}} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\eta^{\sharp}}$$

$$\operatorname{Spec} S \xrightarrow{f^{\sharp}} \operatorname{Spec} R$$

where ϵ^{\sharp} and η^{\sharp} are one-to-one. Show that the image of ϵ^{\sharp} is $(f^{\sharp})^{-1}(P)$. (Hints: Take W = R - P in (1), then take $I = PR_P$ in (2). We call $\operatorname{Spec}(S \otimes_R k(P))$ the fiber over P of the map f^{\sharp} .

EXERCISE 7.4.12. Let R be a commutative ring. Let M and N be finitely generated projective R-modules, and $\varphi: M \to N$ an R-module homomorphism. Let $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ and assume $\varphi \otimes 1: M \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{p}} \to N \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is an isomorphism. Prove that there exists $\alpha \in R - \mathfrak{p}$ such that $\varphi \otimes 1: M \otimes_R R_{\alpha} \to N \otimes_R R_{\alpha}$ is an isomorphism.

EXERCISE 7.4.13. Let R be a commutative local ring with residue field k. Let M and N be finitely generated free R-modules and $\psi: M \to N$ a homomorphism of R-modules. Show that if $\psi \otimes 1: M \otimes_R k \to N \otimes_R k$ is one-to-one, then ψ has a left inverse. That is, there exists an R-module homomorphism $\sigma: N \to M$ such that $\sigma \psi = 1$ is the identity mapping on M.

EXERCISE 7.4.14. Let R be a commutative ring and S a commutative R-algebra that as an R-module is a progenerator. Show that if Spec R is connected, then the number of connected components of Spec S is bounded by $Rank_R(S)$, hence is finite.

EXERCISE 7.4.15. Let R_1 and R_2 be rings and $S = R_1 \oplus R_2$ the direct sum. Let M be a left S-module. Using the projection maps $\pi_i : S \to R_i$, show that the R_i -modules $M_i = R_i \otimes_S M$ are S-modules. Show that M is isomorphic as an S-module to the direct sum $M_1 \oplus M_2$.

5. Faithfully Flat Modules and Algebras

5.1. Faithfully Flat Modules. Recall that in Definition 6.4.19 we defined a left R-module N to be flat if the functor () $\otimes_R N$ is both left and right exact. In Exercise 6.9.7 we defined N to be faithfully flat if N is flat, and N has the property that for any right R-module M, $M \otimes_R N = 0$ implies M = 0. If R is a commutative ring, then Lemma 7.5.1 below adds more necessary and sufficient conditions for N to be faithfully flat.

Lemma 7.5.1. Let R be a commutative ring and N an R-module. The following are equivalent.

(1) A sequence of R-modules

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

is exact if and only if

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

 $is\ exact.$

(2) A sequence of R-modules

$$A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$$

is exact if and only if

$$A \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{f \otimes 1} B \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{g \otimes 1} C \otimes_R N$$

is exact.

- (3) N is faithfully flat. That is, N is flat and for any R-module M, if $M \otimes_R N = 0$, then M = 0.
- (4) N is flat and for every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of R, $N \neq \mathfrak{m}N$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Start with a sequence of R-modules

$$A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$$

and assume in the sequence

$$A \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{f \otimes 1} B \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{g \otimes 1} C \otimes_R N$$

that im $(f \otimes 1) = \ker (g \otimes 1)$. We must prove that im $f = \ker g$. Factor f through $A/\ker f$ and factor g through im g to get the sequence

(5.1)
$$0 \to A/\ker f \xrightarrow{\bar{f}} B \xrightarrow{\bar{g}} \operatorname{im} g \to 0$$

where \bar{f} is one-to-one and \bar{g} is onto. It is enough to prove im $\bar{f} = \ker \bar{g}$. Tensor (5.1) with N to get the sequence

$$(5.2) 0 \to A/\ker f \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{\bar{f} \otimes 1} B \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{\bar{g} \otimes 1} \operatorname{im} g \otimes_R N \to 0.$$

By (1) we know that $\bar{f} \otimes 1$ is one-to-one and $\bar{g} \otimes 1$ is onto. By (1), it is enough to show (5.2) is exact. To do this, it is enough to show im $(\bar{f} \otimes 1) = \text{im } (f \otimes 1)$ and $\text{ker } (\bar{g} \otimes 1) = \text{ker } (g \otimes 1)$. Consider the commutative diagram

in which the natural map α is onto, and \bar{f} is one-to-one. Tensor with N to get the commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{c|c} A \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{f \otimes 1} B \otimes_R N \\ & & \downarrow = \\ A/\ker f \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{\bar{f} \otimes 1} B \otimes_R N \end{array}$$

in which $\alpha \otimes 1$ is onto. It follows that im $(\bar{f} \otimes 1) = \text{im}\,(f \otimes 1)$. Consider the commutative diagram

$$B \xrightarrow{\bar{g}} \operatorname{im} g$$

$$= \bigvee_{q} \qquad \qquad \downarrow_{\beta}$$

$$B \xrightarrow{g} C$$

in which the inclusion map β is one-to-one and \bar{g} is onto. Tensor with N to get the commutative diagram

$$B \otimes_{R} N \xrightarrow{\bar{g} \otimes 1} \operatorname{im} g \otimes_{R} N$$

$$= \bigvee_{\beta \otimes 1} \beta \otimes 1$$

$$B \otimes_{R} N \xrightarrow{g \otimes 1} C \otimes_{R} N$$

in which $\beta \otimes 1$ is one-to-one because N is flat. It follows that $\ker (\bar{g} \otimes 1) = \ker (g \otimes 1)$.

- (1) implies (3): Clearly N is flat. Assume $N \otimes_R M = 0$. Then $0 \to N \otimes_R M \to 0$ is exact and (1) implies $0 \to M \to 0$ is exact.
- (3) implies (4): Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal of R. Then $M = R/\mathfrak{m}$ is not zero. By (3), $0 \neq N \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m} = N/\mathfrak{m}N$. Therefore $N \neq \mathfrak{m}N$.
- (4) implies (3): Suppose $M \neq 0$ and prove $N \otimes_R M \neq 0$. Let $x \in M$, $x \neq 0$. Then if $I = \operatorname{annih}_R(x)$, we have $I \neq R$. Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal of R containing I. By (4) we get $IN \subseteq \mathfrak{m}N \neq N$. Then $N \otimes_R R/I = N/IN \neq 0$. Tensor the exact

sequence $0 \to R/I \to M$ with $(\cdot) \otimes N$ and by flatness we know $0 \to N \otimes_R R/I \to N \otimes_R M$ is exact. Therefore $N \otimes_R M \neq 0$.

(3) implies (2): Start with a sequence of R-modules

$$A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$$

and assume

$$A \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{f \otimes 1} B \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{g \otimes 1} C \otimes_R N$$

is exact.

Step 1: Show that im $f \subseteq \ker g$. Tensor the exact sequence

$$A \xrightarrow{g \circ f} \operatorname{im} (g \circ f) \to 0.$$

with N to get the exact sequence

$$A \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{g \circ f \otimes 1} \operatorname{im} (g \circ f) \otimes_R N \to 0.$$

By Lemma 6.4.7, $\operatorname{im}(g \circ f) \otimes_R N = \operatorname{im}((g \otimes 1) \circ (f \otimes 1)) = 0$. By (3) we have $\operatorname{im}(g \circ f) = 0$, so $g \circ f = 0$.

Step 2: Show im $f \supseteq \ker g$. Set $H = \ker g / \operatorname{im} f$. To prove H = 0 it is enough to show $H \otimes_R N = 0$. Tensor the exact sequence

$$A \xrightarrow{f} \ker g \to H \to 0.$$

with N to get the exact sequence

$$A \otimes_R N \xrightarrow{f \otimes 1} \ker g \otimes_R N \to H \otimes_R N \to 0.$$

The reader should verify that $\ker g \otimes_R N = \ker(g \otimes 1)$ and $H \otimes_R N = \ker(g \otimes 1)/\operatorname{im}(f \otimes 1) = 0$. The proof follows.

Example 7.5.2. If N is projective, then N is flat (Exercise 6.4.31) but not necessarily faithfully flat. For example, say the ring $R = I \oplus J$ is an internal direct sum of two nonzero ideals I and J. Then IJ = 0, $I^2 = I$, $J^2 = J$ and I + J = R. The sequence $0 \to I \to 0$ is not exact. Tensor with $(\cdot) \otimes_R J$ and get the exact sequence $0 \to 0 \to 0$. So J is not faithfully flat.

Proposition 7.5.3. Let R be a commutative ring. The R-module

$$E = \bigoplus_{\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R} R_{\mathfrak{m}}$$

is faithfully flat.

PROOF. Each $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is flat by Lemma 7.1.4, so E is flat by Exercise 7.5.19. For every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of R, $\mathfrak{m}R_{\mathfrak{m}} \neq R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ so $\mathfrak{m}E \neq E$. To finish the proof, apply Lemma 7.5.1.

5.2. Faithfully Flat Algebras.

Lemma 7.5.4. If $\theta: R \to S$ is a homomorphism of commutative rings such that S is a faithfully flat R-module, then the following are true.

(1) For any R-module M,

$$M \to M \otimes_R S$$
$$x \mapsto x \otimes 1$$

is one-to-one. In particular, θ is one-to-one, so we can view $R = \theta(R)$ as a subring of S.

- (2) For any ideal $I \subseteq R$, $IS \cap R = I$.
- (3) The continuous map $\theta^{\sharp} : \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ of Exercise 7.3.20 is onto.

PROOF. (1): Let $x \neq 0$, $x \in M$. Then Rx is a nonzero submodule of M. If follows from Lemma 7.5.1 (2) that $Rx \otimes_R S \neq 0$. But $Rx \otimes_R S = S(x \otimes 1)$ so $x \otimes 1 \neq 0$.

- (2): Apply Part (1) with M=R/I. Then $\bar{\theta}:R/I\to R/I\otimes_R S=S/IS$ is one-to-one.
- (3): Let $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. By Exercise 7.5.18, $S_P = S \otimes_R R_P$ is faithfully flat over R_P . By Part (2), $PR_P = PS_P \cap R_P$, so PS_P is not the unit ideal. Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal of S_P containing PS_P . Then $\mathfrak{m} \cap R_P \supseteq PR_P$. Since PR_P is a maximal ideal, $\mathfrak{m} \cap R_P = PR_P$. Let $Q = \mathfrak{m} \cap S$. So $Q \cap R = (\mathfrak{m} \cap S) \cap R = \mathfrak{m} \cap R = (\mathfrak{m} \cap R_P) \cap R = PR_P \cap R = P$.

LEMMA 7.5.5. If $\theta: R \to S$ is a homomorphism of commutative rings, then the following are equivalent.

- (1) S is faithfully flat as an R-module.
- (2) S is a flat R-module and the continuous map θ^{\sharp} : Spec $S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is onto.
- (3) S is a flat R-module and for each maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of R, there is a maximal ideal \mathfrak{n} of S such that $\mathfrak{n} \cap R = \mathfrak{m}$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Follows from Lemma 7.5.4(3).

- (2) implies (3): There is a prime P of S and $P \cap R = \mathfrak{m}$. Let \mathfrak{n} be a maximal ideal of S containing P. Then $\mathfrak{n} \cap R \supset P \cap R = \mathfrak{m}$. Since \mathfrak{m} is maximal, $\mathfrak{n} \cap R = \mathfrak{m}$.
- (3) implies (1): For each maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of R, pick a maximal ideal \mathfrak{n} of S lying over \mathfrak{m} . Then $\mathfrak{m}S \subseteq \mathfrak{n} \neq S$. By Lemma 7.5.1(3), S is faithfully flat. \square

PROPOSITION 7.5.6. Let R be a commutative ring and $\epsilon: R \to A$ a homomorphism of rings such that ϵ makes A into a progenerator R-module.

- (1) Under ϵ , R is mapped isomorphically onto an R-module direct summand of A.
- (2) If B is a subring of A containing the image of ϵ , then the image of ϵ is an R-module direct summand of B.
- (3) A is faithfully flat as an R-module.

PROOF. (1): By Corollary 6.3.4, A is R-faithful. The sequence

$$0 \to R \xrightarrow{\epsilon} A$$

is exact, where $\epsilon(r) = r \cdot 1$. By Exercise 6.5.17, there is a splitting map for ϵ if and only if

(5.3)
$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(A,R) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\epsilon}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(R,R) \to 0$$

is exact. Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal in R. By Theorem 6.4.23, $A \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m} = A/\mathfrak{m}A$ is a progenerator over the field R/\mathfrak{m} . In other words, $A/\mathfrak{m}A$ is a nonzero finite dimensional vector space over R/\mathfrak{m} . The diagram

commutes. The bottom row is exact since $0 \to R/\mathfrak{m} \to A/\mathfrak{m}A$ is split exact over R/\mathfrak{m} . The vertical maps are isomorphisms by Corollary 6.5.13. Therefore the top row is exact. Corollary 6.5.3 says that (5.3) is exact. This proves (1).

(2): Assume $R \subseteq B \subseteq A$ is a tower of subrings. If $\sigma : A \to R$ is a left inverse for $\epsilon : R \to A$, then σ restricts to a left inverse for $R \to B$.

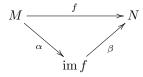
Let S be a faithfully flat R-algebra. In the terminology of Exercise 6.5.16, Proposition 7.5.7 shows that the functor $S \otimes_R()$ from the category of left R-modules to the category of left S-modules is faithful.

Proposition 7.5.7. Let S be a faithfully flat R-algebra. If M and N are R-modules, then the function

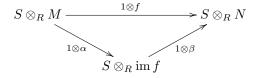
$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N) \xrightarrow{\phi} \operatorname{Hom}_S(S \otimes_R M, S \otimes_R N)$$

defined by $f \mapsto 1 \otimes f$ is a monomorphism of abelian groups.

PROOF. By Lemma 6.4.17 (4), $S \otimes_R$ () is a functor from the category of left R-modules to the category of left S-modules. The reader should verify that the assignment $f \mapsto 1 \otimes f$ defines a homomorphism of abelian groups $\phi : \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}_S(S \otimes_R M, S \otimes_R N)$. Suppose $f : M \to N$ is a homomorphism of left R-modules and $1 \otimes f : S \otimes_R M \to S \otimes_R N$ is the zero homomorphism. In the commutative diagram



 α is onto and β is one-to-one. Since S is flat, in the commutative diagram



 $1 \otimes \alpha$ is onto and $1 \otimes \beta$ is one-to-one. By assumption, the image of $1 \otimes f$ is (0). Therefore, $S \otimes_R \text{ im } f = (0)$. Since S is faithfully flat, this implies im f = (0).

5.3. Another Hom Tensor Relation.

Proposition 7.5.8. Let S be a flat commutative R-algebra. Let M and N be R-modules, and assume M is finitely generated.

(1) The natural map

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

is a monomorphism of S-modules.

(2) If M is a finitely presented R-module, then α is an isomorphism of S-modules.

Proof. If M is finitely generated and projective, then this follows from Corollary 6.5.13.

(1): By Exercise 6.3.10, M has a free resolution. So there are index sets I and J and an exact sequence

$$(5.4) R^J \to R^I \to M \to 0$$

of R-modules. Since M is finitely generated, we assume I is a finite set. Since S is flat, the functor $S \otimes_R (\cdot)$ is exact. By Lemmas 6.4.15 and 6.4.13,

$$(5.5) S^J \to S^I \to S \otimes_R M \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of S-modules. By Proposition 6.5.5, the contravariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}_R(\cdot, N)$ is left exact. Applying it to (5.4), we get the exact sequence

$$(5.6) 0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R^{I}, N) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R^{J}, N).$$

By Lemma 6.5.7 and Proposition 6.5.8, (5.6) can be written as

$$(5.7) 0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N) \to \prod_I N \to \prod_I N.$$

Tensoring (5.7) with the flat module S gives the exact sequence

$$(5.8) 0 \to S \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N) \to S \otimes_R \prod_I N \to S \otimes_R \prod_J N.$$

Apply the left exact functor $\operatorname{Hom}_S(\cdot, S \otimes_R N)$ to (5.5). By Lemma 6.5.7 and Proposition 6.5.8,

$$(5.9) 0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(S \otimes_{R} M, S \otimes_{R} N) \to \prod_{I}(S \otimes_{R} N) \to \prod_{J}(S \otimes_{R} N)$$

is an exact sequence of S-modules. Since I is a finite set, $\prod_I N$ is equal to $\bigoplus_I N$ and $S \otimes_R \bigoplus_I N \cong \bigoplus_I (S \otimes_R N) \cong \prod_I S \otimes_R N$ by Lemma 6.4.15. Combining (5.8) and (5.9) with the natural maps yields a commutative diagram

Since f_1 and β are one-to-one, α is one-to-one.

(2): Because M is of finite presentation, the index sets I and J can both be chosen to be finite. Hence we assume the vertical maps β and γ are both isomorphisms. To see that α is onto, let x be an element of the lower left corner of (5.10). Set $y = \beta^{-1}(g_1(x))$. Then $\gamma(f_2(y)) = g_2(\beta(y)) = g_2(g_1(x)) = 0$. So $y = f_1(z)$ for some z in the upper left corner. Then $x = \alpha(z)$. Note that this also follows from a slight variation of the Snake Lemma 6.6.2.

Proposition 7.5.9. Let S be a flat commutative R-algebra and A an R-algebra. Let M be a finitely presented A-module and N any A-module. The natural map

$$S \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_A(M,N) \xrightarrow{\alpha} \operatorname{Hom}_{S \otimes_R A}(S \otimes_R M, S \otimes_R N)$$

 $is\ an\ isomorphism\ of\ S\text{-}modules.$

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

EXAMPLE 7.5.10. We show by example that Proposition 7.5.8 is false without the finitely generated hypothesis on M. Let $R=\mathbb{Z}$ and $S=\mathbb{Q}$. Let $M=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty}\mathbb{Z}$ be the free abelian group on \mathbb{N} and $N=\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$. By Lemma 7.1.4, S is a flat R-algebra. By Exercise 6.4.45, $S\otimes_R N=\mathbb{Q}\otimes_\mathbb{Z}\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}=(0)$. Therefore,

$$\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} (S \otimes_R N) = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} (\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = (0).$$

Let $\gamma: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$ be defined by $i \mapsto 1/2^i + \mathbb{Z}$. For any n > 1, if i is chosen so that $2^i > n$, then $n/2^i + \mathbb{Z} \neq 0 + \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore, γ is an element of infinite order in $\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$. By Lemma 2.3.26, there is an exact sequence

$$0 \to \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\ell_{\gamma}} \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$$

where ℓ_{γ} is defined by $1 \mapsto \gamma$. Tensoring with $S = \mathbb{Q}$,

$$0 \to \mathbb{Q} \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \ell_{\gamma}} \mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z} \right)$$

is exact, so the group $\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} (\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is non-trivial. However, its image under the natural map

$$\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z} \right) \to \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \left(\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z} \right)$$

is the trivial group (0). In particular, this shows tensoring does not distribute across an infinite direct product. We also have

$$S \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, N) = \mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}} \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \right)$$
$$= \mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}} (\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \right)$$
$$= \mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \right)$$

is a non-trivial group. Since

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{S}(S \otimes_{R} M, S \otimes_{R} N) = \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Q}} \left(\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z} \right) = (0)$$

is the trivial group, this shows the natural map α of Proposition 7.5.8 is not one-to-one.

For another proof of Proposition 7.5.11, see Proposition 7.8.9.

PROPOSITION 7.5.11. Let S be a commutative flat R-algebra and M a finitely generated R-module. Then $\operatorname{annih}_S(S \otimes_R M) = S \operatorname{annih}_R(M)$. In particular, if M is a faithful R-module, then $S \otimes_R M$ is a faithful S-module.

PROOF. By Lemma 4.1.2,

$$(5.11) 0 \to \operatorname{annih}_{R}(M) \to R \xrightarrow{\theta_{R}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, M)$$

is an exact sequence of R-modules. Likewise,

$$(5.12) 0 \to \operatorname{annih}_{S}(S \otimes_{R} M) \to S \xrightarrow{\theta_{S}} \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(S \otimes_{R} M, S \otimes_{R} M)$$

is an exact sequence of S-modules. Since S is a flat R-module,

$$(5.13) 0 \to S \otimes_R \operatorname{annih}_R(M) \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \theta_R} S \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)$$

is an exact sequence of S-modules. Since θ_S factors through $1 \otimes \theta_R$ and the natural monomorphism α of Proposition 7.5.8, the kernel of θ_S is equal to the kernel of $1 \otimes \theta_R$. This follows from Theorem 6.6.3, or by direct observation. Thus $S \operatorname{annih}_R(M) = \operatorname{annih}_S(S \otimes_R M)$.

5.4. Faithfully Flat Base Change.

Lemma 7.5.12. Let S be a commutative faithfully flat R-algebra and M an R-module.

- (1) M is finitely generated over R if and only if $S \otimes_R M$ is finitely generated over S.
- (2) M is of finite presentation over R if and only if $S \otimes_R M$ is of finite presentation over S.
- (3) M is finitely generated projective over R if and only if $S \otimes_R M$ is finitely generated projective over S.
- (4) M is flat over R if and only if $S \otimes_R M$ is flat over S.
- (5) M is faithfully flat over R if and only if $S \otimes_R M$ is faithfully flat over S.
- (6) If M is an R-generator, then $S \otimes_R M$ is an S-generator. If M is a finitely presented R-module and $S \otimes_R M$ is an S-generator, then M is an R-generator.
- (7) If $S \otimes_R M$ is faithful over S, then M is faithful over R.

PROOF. (1): If M is finitely generated, then Theorem 6.4.23 (4) shows $S \otimes_R M$ is finitely generated. Conversely, choose generators $\{t_1, \ldots, t_m\}$ for $S \otimes_R M$. After breaking up summations and factoring out elements of S, we can assume each t_i looks like $1 \otimes x_i$ where $x_i \in M$. Consider the sequence

$$(5.14) R^{(n)} \to M \to 0$$

which is defined by $(r_1, \ldots, r_n) \mapsto \sum r_i x_i$. Tensoring (5.14) with S gives the sequence

$$S^{(n)} \to S \otimes_R M \to 0$$

which is exact. Since S is faithfully flat, (5.14) is exact.

(2): Assume M is finitely presented. Suppose $R^{(n)} \to R^{(n)} \to M \to 0$ is exact. Tensoring is right exact, so $S^{(n)} \to S^{(n)} \to S \otimes_R M \to 0$ is exact. Therefore $S \otimes_R M$ is finitely presented. Conversely assume $S \otimes_R M$ is finitely presented. By Part (1)

M is finitely generated over R. Suppose $\phi: R^{(n)} \to M$ is onto. Let $N = \ker \phi$. It is enough to show that N is finitely generated. Since

$$0 \to N \to R^{(n)} \xrightarrow{\phi} M \to 0$$

is exact and S is faithfully flat,

$$0 \to S \otimes_R N \to S^{(n)} \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \phi} S \otimes_R M \to 0$$

is exact. By Lemma 7.1.10 (3), $S \otimes_R N$ is finitely generated over S. Part (1) says that N is finitely generated over R.

(3): If M is finitely generated and projective over R, then Theorem 6.4.23 says the same holds for $S \otimes_R M$ over S. Conversely, suppose $S \otimes_R M$ is finitely generated and projective over S. By Corollary 6.2.8, $S \otimes_R M$ is of finite presentation over S. By Part (2), M is of finite presentation over S. To show that M is R-projective, by Proposition 6.5.5 (2) it is enough to show $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,\cdot)$ is a right exact functor. Start with an exact sequence

$$(5.15) A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \to 0$$

of R-modules. It is enough to show

(5.16)
$$\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M,A) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M,B) \to 0$$

is exact. Since S is faithfully flat over R, it is enough to show

$$(5.17) S \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, A) \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \operatorname{H}_{\alpha}} S \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, B) \to 0$$

is exact. Tensoring is right exact, so tensoring (5.15) with $S \otimes_R (\cdot)$ gives the exact sequence

$$(5.18) S \otimes_R A \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \alpha} S \otimes_R B \to 0.$$

Since we are assuming $S \otimes_R M$ is S-projective, by Proposition 6.5.5(2) we can apply the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_S(S \otimes_R M, \cdot)$ to (5.18) yielding

(5.19)
$$\operatorname{Hom}_{S}(S \otimes_{R} M, S \otimes_{R} A) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{1 \otimes \alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(S \otimes_{R} M, S \otimes_{R} B) \to 0$$

which is exact. Combine (5.17) and (5.19) to get the commutative diagram

$$S \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,A) \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \operatorname{H}_{\alpha}} S \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,B)$$

$$\downarrow \cong \qquad \qquad \downarrow \cong$$

$$\operatorname{Hom}_S(S \otimes_R M, S \otimes_R A) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{1 \otimes \alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_S(S \otimes_R M, S \otimes_R B) \longrightarrow 0$$

where the vertical maps are the natural maps from Proposition 7.5.8. Since the bottom row is exact and the vertical maps are isomorphisms, it follows that $1 \otimes H_{\alpha}$ is onto.

(4): Assume $M \otimes_R S$ is a flat S-module. By Exercise 7.5.24, $M \otimes_R S$ is flat over R. Let

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

be an exact sequence of R-modules. Then

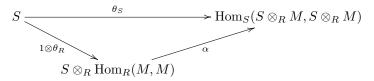
$$0 \to A \otimes_R M \otimes_R S \to B \otimes_R M \otimes_R S \to C \otimes_R M \otimes_R S \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of R-modules. Since S is faithfully flat over R,

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

is an exact sequence of R-modules.

- (6): Assume M is a finitely presented R-module and $S \otimes_R M$ is an S-generator. To show M is an R-generator, we apply Exercise 6.5.16. Suppose $f:A \to B$ is a nonzero homomorphism of R-modules. We show that there exists an R-module homomorphism $\beta:M \to A$ such that $f\beta:M \to B$ is nonzero. Since S is faithfully flat over R, $1 \otimes f: S \otimes_R A \to S \otimes_R B$ is nonzero. Since $S \otimes_R M$ is an S-generator, there exists $h: S \otimes_R M \to S \otimes_R A$ such that $(1 \otimes f)h: S \otimes_R M \to S \otimes_R B$ is nonzero. By Proposition 7.5.8, $\alpha: S \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,A) \to \operatorname{Hom}_S(S \otimes_R M,S \otimes_R A)$ is an isomorphism. So there exist s_1,\ldots,s_m in S and s_1,\ldots,s_m in S and s_2,\ldots,s_m in S and S such that S and S such that S is an isomorphism. So there exist S is an isomorphism. So there exist S is an isomorphism of S is S in S and S in S and S in S and S in S
- (7): Let $\theta_R: R \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ be the homomorphism of Lemma 4.1.2. We also have $\theta_S: S \to \operatorname{Hom}_S(S \otimes_R M, S \otimes_R M)$, and the diagram



commutes, where α is the homomorphism of Proposition 7.5.8. By assumption, θ_S is one-to-one. Therefore, $1 \otimes \theta_R$ is one-to-one. Since S is faithfully flat over R, θ_R is one-to-one.

(5): Is left to the reader.
$$\Box$$

5.5. Faithfully Flat Descent of Central Algebras.

DEFINITION 7.5.13. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. If the structure homomorphism $R \to Z(A)$ from R to the center of A is an isomorphism, then we say A is a *central* R-algebra.

PROPOSITION 7.5.14. Let R be a commutative ring. Let A be an R-algebra and S a commutative faithfully flat R-algebra. If $A \otimes_R S$ is a central S-algebra, then A is a central R-algebra.

PROOF. Assume $A \otimes_R S$ is a central S-algebra. Since S is flat over $R, Z(A) \otimes_R S \to A \otimes_R S$ is one-to-one. By hypothesis, the composite map

$$R \otimes_R S \to Z(A) \otimes_R S \to Z(A \otimes_R S)$$

is an isomorphism. Since S is faithfully flat over $R, R \to Z(A)$ is an isomorphism.

PROPOSITION 7.5.15. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. If $A_{\mathfrak{m}} = A \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a central $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ -algebra for every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of R, then A is a central R-algebra.

PROOF. Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal of R. Since $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a flat R-module, $Z(A) \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}} \to A_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is one-to-one. Clearly, $Z(A) \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}} \subseteq Z(A_{\mathfrak{m}})$. We are given that the composite map

$$R_{\mathfrak{m}} \to Z(A) \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}} \subseteq Z(A_{\mathfrak{m}})$$

is an isomorphism. Therefore, $R_{\mathfrak{m}} \to Z(A) \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is an isomorphism. By Exercise 7.5.16, $R \to Z(A)$ is an isomorphism.

5.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 7.5.16. Let R be a commutative ring, let M and N be R-modules, and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$. For any prime ideal $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ there is the R_P -module homomorphism $f_P: M_P \to N_P$ obtained by "localizing at P".

- (1) Prove that the following are equivalent.
 - (a) f is one-to-one.
 - (b) f_P is one-to-one for all $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$.
 - (c) $f_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is one-to-one for all $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$.
- (2) Prove that the following are equivalent.
 - (a) f is onto.
 - (b) f_P is onto for all $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$.
 - (c) $f_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is onto for all $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$.

EXERCISE 7.5.17. Let R be a commutative ring. Let M and N be finitely generated and projective R-modules of constant rank and assume $\operatorname{Rank}_R(M) = \operatorname{Rank}_R(N)$. Let $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$. Show that if f is onto, then f is one-to-one.

EXERCISE 7.5.18. (Faithfully Flat Is Preserved under a Change of Base) If A is a commutative R-algebra and M is a faithfully flat R-module, show that $A \otimes_R M$ is a faithfully flat R-module.

EXERCISE 7.5.19. Let R be a ring and $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ a set of right R-modules. Prove that the direct sum $\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$ is a flat R-module if and only if each M_i is a flat R-module.

EXERCISE 7.5.20. Let R be a ring. Let M and N be right R-modules. If M is a flat R-module and N is a faithfully flat R-module, show that $M \oplus N$ is a faithfully flat R-module.

EXERCISE 7.5.21. State and prove a version of Lemma 7.5.1 for a ring R which is not necessarily commutative.

EXERCISE 7.5.22. Let R be a ring. Show that R is a faithfully flat R-module. Show that a free R-module is faithfully flat.

EXERCISE 7.5.23. Let R be a ring and S = R[x] the polynomial ring which can be viewed as a left R-module. Prove:

- (1) S is a free R-module.
- (2) S is a faithfully flat R-module.
- (3) The exact sequence $0 \to R \to S$ of R-modules is split. That is, $R \cdot 1$ is an R-module direct summand of S.

EXERCISE 7.5.24. (Flat over Flat Is Flat) Let $\theta: R \to A$ be a homomorphism of rings and M a left A-module. Using θ , view A as a left R-right A-bimodule and M as a left R-module. Show that if A is a flat R-module, and M is a flat R-module, then M is a flat R-module.

EXERCISE 7.5.25. (Faithfully Flat over Faithfully Flat Is Faithfully Flat) If A is a commutative faithfully flat R-algebra and M a faithfully flat A-module, show that M is a faithfully flat R-module.

EXERCISE 7.5.26. Let R be a ring, $M \in {}_{R}\mathfrak{M}_{R}$ and $N \in {}_{R}\mathfrak{M}$. Prove:

(1) If M and N are flat left R-modules, then $M \otimes_R N$ is a flat left R-module.

(2) Assume R is commutative. If M and N are faithfully flat R-modules, then $M \otimes_R N$ is a faithfully flat R-module.

EXERCISE 7.5.27. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a local homomorphism of local rings (see Exercise 3.2.32). If S is a flat R-algebra, show that S is faithfully flat.

EXERCISE 7.5.28. Let R be a commutative ring. Assume f_1, \ldots, f_n are elements of R - (0). Let $S = R_{f_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus R_{f_n}$ be the direct sum. Let $\theta : R \to S$ be defined by $\theta(x) = (x/1, \ldots, x/1)$. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) f_1, \ldots, f_n generate the unit ideal of R. That is, $R = Rf_1 + \cdots + Rf_n$.
- (2) S is a faithfully flat R-algebra.

EXERCISE 7.5.29. Let R be a commutative ring and $\{\alpha_i \mid i \in I\}$ a subset of R-(0). Let $S=\prod_{i\in I}R[\alpha_i^{-1}]$. Then S is an R-algebra, where the structure homomorphism is the unique map $R\to S$ of Exercise 6.3.12 which commutes with each natural map $R\to R[\alpha_i^{-1}]$. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) S is a faithfully flat R-algebra.
- (2) There exists a finite subset $\{i_1, \ldots, i_n\} \subseteq I$ such that $R[\alpha_{i_1}^{-1}] \bigoplus \cdots \bigoplus R[\alpha_{i_n}^{-1}]$ is faithfully flat over R.
- (3) There exists a finite subset $\{i_1, \ldots, i_n\} \subseteq I$ such that $R = R\alpha_{i_1} + \cdots + R\alpha_{i_n}$.

EXERCISE 7.5.30. Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$ be the ring of integers and $S = \mathbb{Z}[2^{-1}]$ the localization of R obtained by inverting 2. Prove:

- (1) S is not a projective R-module. (See Exercise 6.3.14.)
- (2) S is a flat R-module.
- (3) S is not a finitely generated R-module.
- (4) S is not a faithfully flat R-module.
- (5) The exact sequence $0 \to R \to S$ is not split exact. That is, $R \cdot 1$ is not a direct summand of S.

EXERCISE 7.5.31. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal of R which is contained in the nil radical of R. Show that R/I is a flat R-algebra if and only if I=(0).

EXERCISE 7.5.32. Let R be a commutative ring and $W \subseteq R$ a multiplicative set. Show that $W^{-1}R$ is a faithfully flat R-algebra if and only if $W \subseteq \text{Units}(R)$.

EXERCISE 7.5.33. Let $f:R\to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings and $f^\sharp:\operatorname{Spec} S\to\operatorname{Spec} R$ the continuous map of Exercise 7.3.20. Assume

- (a) f^{\sharp} is one-to-one,
- (b) the image of f^{\sharp} is an open subset of Spec R, and
- (c) for every $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Spec} S$, if $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{q} \cap R$, then the natural map $R_{\mathfrak{p}} \to S_{\mathfrak{q}}$ is an isomorphism.

If (a), (b) and (c) are satisfied, then we say f^{\sharp} is an *open immersion*. Under these hypotheses, prove the following.

- (1) For every $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Spec} S$, if $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{q} \cap R$, then $S \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is isomorphic to $S_{\mathfrak{q}}$.
- (2) If $\alpha \in R$ and $U(\alpha)$ is a nonempty basic open subset of the image of f^{\sharp} , then $R[\alpha^{-1}]$ is isomorphic to $S \otimes_R R[\alpha^{-1}]$.

EXERCISE 7.5.34. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. Show that f is an isomorphism of rings if and only if

- (a) $f^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is a homeomorphism and
- (b) for every $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Spec} S$, if $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{q} \cap R$, then the natural map $R_{\mathfrak{p}} \to S_{\mathfrak{q}}$ is an isomorphism.

EXERCISE 7.5.35. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. In each of the following, give a specific example to show that f is not an isomorphism if either condition (a) or (b) of Exercise 7.5.34 is not satisfied.

- (1) Give an example such that condition (a) is satisfied, condition (b) is not satisfied, and f is not an isomorphism.
- (2) Give an example such that f^{\sharp} is one-to-one, condition (b) is satisfied, and f is not an isomorphism.
- (3) Give an example such that f^{\sharp} is onto, condition (b) is satisfied, and f is not an isomorphism.
- 5.7. Locally of Finite Type is Finitely Generated as an Algebra. If S is a commutative R-algebra, then S is said to be *locally of finite type* in case there exist elements f_1, \ldots, f_n in S such that $S = Sf_1 + \cdots + Sf_n$ and for each $i, S[f_i^{-1}]$ is a finitely generated R-algebra. Proposition 7.5.36 is from [44, Proposition 1, p. 87].

Proposition 7.5.36. Let S be a commutative R-algebra. Then S is locally of finite type if and only if S is a finitely generated R-algebra.

PROOF. Assume S is locally of finite type and prove that S is finitely generated as an R-algebra. The converse is trivial. We are given f_1,\ldots,f_n in S such that $S=Sf_1+\cdots+Sf_n$ and for each $i,S[f_i^{-1}]$ is a finitely generated R-algebra. Fix elements u_1,\ldots,u_n in S such that $1=u_1f_1+\cdots+u_nf_n$. Fix elements y_{i1},\ldots,y_{im} in $S[f_i^{-1}]$ such that $S[f_i^{-1}]=R[y_{i1},\ldots,y_{im}]$. There exist elements s_{ij} in S and nonnegative integers e_i such that $y_{ij}=s_{ij}f_i^{-e_i}$ in $S[f_i^{-1}]$. Let S_1 be the finitely generated R-subalgebra of S generated by the finite set of elements $\{s_{ij}\}\cup\{f_1,\ldots,f_n\}\cup\{u_1,\ldots,u_n\}$. To finish, it is enough to show that S_1 is equal to S. Let α be an arbitrary element of S and let $1\leq i\leq n$. Consider $\alpha/1$ as an element of $S[f_i^{-1}]$. Since $S[f_i^{-1}]$ is generated over R by s_{i1},\ldots,s_{im} and f_i^{-1} , there exists an element β_i in S_1 such that $\alpha/1=\beta_if_i^{-k_i}$ for some $k_i\geq 0$. For some $\ell_i\geq 0$, $f_i^{\ell_i}(\beta_i-f_i^{k_i}\alpha)=0$ in S. For some large integer L, $f_i^L\alpha=f_i^{L-k_i}\beta_i$ is an element of S_1 , for each i. For any positive integer N, $\alpha=1\alpha=(u_1f_1+\cdots+u_nf_n)^N\alpha$. By the multinomial expansion, when N is sufficiently large, $(u_1f_1+\cdots+u_nf_n)^N$ is in the ideal $S_1f_1^L+\cdots+S_1f_n^L$. Therefore, α is in S_1 .

COROLLARY 7.5.37. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. If $f^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is an open immersion (see Exercise 7.5.33), then S is a finitely generated R-algebra.

Proof. Is left to the reader.

COROLLARY 7.5.38. Let R be a commutative semilocal ring. If $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$, then $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a finitely generated R-algebra. The map $\operatorname{Spec} R_{\mathfrak{m}} \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is an open immersion.

PROOF. If $\operatorname{Max} R = \{\mathfrak{m}\}$, then $R_{\mathfrak{m}} = R$ and there is nothing to prove. Assume $n \geq 1$ and $\operatorname{Max} R = \{\mathfrak{m}, \mathfrak{m}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{m}_n\}$. For $i = 1, \dots, n$ pick $\alpha_i \in \mathfrak{m}_i - \mathfrak{m}$. Set $\alpha = \alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_n$. Then $\alpha \in \mathfrak{m}_i - \mathfrak{m}$ for each i. Let $R[\alpha^{-1}]$ be the R-algebra

formed by inverting α . Let $\theta: R \to R[\alpha^{-1}]$. By Exercise 7.3.26, the image of $\theta^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} R[\alpha^{-1}] \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ consists of those prime ideals of R that do not contain α . So $\operatorname{Max}(R[\alpha^{-1}]) = \{\mathfrak{m}\}$. By Exercise 7.1.21, $R_{\mathfrak{m}} = R[\alpha^{-1}] \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}}$. By Exercise 7.5.16, the natural map $\phi: R[\alpha^{-1}] \to R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is an isomorphism. By Exercise 4.1.29, $R[\alpha^{-1}]$ is a finitely generated R-algebra. Since $\operatorname{Spec} R[\alpha^{-1}] \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is an open immersion, this also shows $\operatorname{Spec} R_{\mathfrak{m}} \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is an open immersion. \square

6. Chain Conditions

DEFINITION 7.6.1. Let R be any ring and M an R-module. Let \mathcal{S} be the set of all R-submodules of M, partially ordered by \subseteq , the set inclusion relation. The reader is referred to Section 1.1 for the definitions of ACC, DCC, maximum condition, and minimum condition on the partially ordered set \mathcal{S} . We say that M satisfies the ascending chain condition (ACC) on submodules, if \mathcal{S} satisfies the ACC. We say that M satisfies the descending chain condition (DCC) on submodules, if \mathcal{S} satisfies the maximum condition on submodules, if \mathcal{S} satisfies the maximum condition. We say that M satisfies the minimum condition on submodules, if \mathcal{S} satisfies the minimum condition.

DEFINITION 7.6.2. Let R be any ring and M an R-module. We say M is noetherian if M satisfies the ACC on submodules. We say M is artinian if M satisfies the DCC on submodules. The ring R is said to be (left) noetherian if R is noetherian when viewed as a left R-module. In this case we say R satisfies the ACC on left ideals. The ring R is said to be (left) artinian if R is artinian when viewed as a left R-module. In this case we say R satisfies the DCC on left ideals.

Lemma 7.6.3. Let R be a ring and M an R-module. Then M is artinian, that is M satisfies the DCC on submodules, if and only if M satisfies the minimum condition on submodules.

PROOF. This follows from Exercise 1.4.11,

COROLLARY 7.6.4. Let R be a ring. Then R is artinian, that is R satisfies the DCC on left ideals, if and only if R satisfies the minimum condition on left ideals.

Example 7.6.5. We list a few examples of artinian rings. Some of the proofs will come later.

- (1) A division ring has only two left ideals, hence satisfies both ACC and DCC on left ideals.
- (2) If M is a finite dimensional vector space over a division ring D, then $\operatorname{Hom}_D(M,M)$ is artinian, by Exercise 7.6.34. This and Corollary 4.4.12 says the ring of n-by-n matrices over a division ring is artinian.
- (3) By Exercise 7.6.35, any finite dimensional algebra over a field is artinian.

LEMMA 7.6.6. Let R be a ring and M an R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M is noetherian. That is, M satisfies the ACC on submodules.
- (2) M satisfies the maximum condition on submodules.
- (3) Every submodule of M is finitely generated.

PROOF. (1) and (2) are equivalent by Exercise 1.4.11.

(2) implies (3): Let A be a submodule of M and let \mathfrak{S} be the set of all finitely generated submodules of A. Let B be a maximal member of \mathfrak{S} . If B = A, then

we are done. Otherwise, let x be an arbitrary element of A - B. So B + Rx is a finitely generated submodule of A which properly contains B. This contradicts the maximality of B.

(3) implies (1): Suppose $M_0 \subseteq M_1 \subseteq M_2 \subseteq \ldots$ is a chain of submodules in M. The set theoretic union $U = \bigcup_{n \geq 0} M_n$ is also a submodule of M. Then U is finitely generated, so for large enough m, M_m contains each element of a generating set for U. Then $U \subseteq M_m$. Moreover, for each $i \geq m$, $U \subseteq M_m \subseteq M_i \subseteq U$. This proves that the ACC is satisfied by M.

COROLLARY 7.6.7. Let R be a ring. The following are equivalent.

- (1) R is noetherian. That is, R satisfies the ACC on left ideals.
- (2) Every left ideal of R is finitely generated as an R-module.
- (3) Every nonempty set of left ideals of R contains a maximal member.

EXAMPLE 7.6.8. We list a few examples of noetherian rings. Some of the proofs will come later.

- (1) In a principal ideal ring R, left ideals are principal, so Corollary 7.6.7 (3) is satisfied. In particular, a PID is noetherian.
- (2) It follows from the Hilbert Basis Theorem, Theorem 10.2.1, that a polynomial ring $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ in n variables over a field k is noetherian.
- (3) It follows from Theorem 8.4.1 that an artinian ring is noetherian.

LEMMA 7.6.9. Let R be any ring and

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \to 0$$

a short exact sequence of R-modules.

- (1) The following are equivalent.
 - (a) B satisfies the ACC on submodules.
 - (b) A and C satisfy the ACC on submodules.
- (2) The following are equivalent.
 - (a) B satisfies the DCC on submodules.
 - (b) A and C satisfy the DCC on submodules.

PROOF. (2): Is left to the reader.

- (1): (a) implies (b): Assume B satisfies the ACC on submodules. By virtue of α we can identify A with an R-submodule of B. Any ascending chain of submodules of A is also an ascending chain of submodules in B, hence is eventually constant. Therefore A satisfies the ACC on submodules. If $C_0 \subseteq C_1 \subseteq C_2 \subseteq ...$ is a chain of submodules in C, then $\beta^{-1}(C_0) \subseteq \beta^{-1}(C_1) \subseteq \beta^{-1}(C_2) \subseteq ...$ is a chain of submodules of B. There exists d such that for all i > d, $\beta^{-1}(C_d) = \beta^{-1}(C_i)$. But β is onto, so $C_d = C_i$ and we have shown C satisfies the ACC on submodules.
- (b) implies (a): Assume A and C satisfy the ACC on submodules. For simplicity's sake, identify A with the kernel of β . Let $B_0 \subseteq B_1 \subseteq B_2 \subseteq \ldots$ be a chain of submodules in B. For each i set $C_i = \beta(B_i)$ and let A_i be the kernel of $\beta: B_i \to C_i$. The ascending chain $C_0 \subseteq C_1 \subseteq C_2 \subseteq \ldots$ eventually is constant. The reader should verify that the A_i s form an ascending chain $A_0 \subseteq A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq \ldots$ in A which also is eventually constant. Find some d > 0 such that for all i > d we

have $A_d = A_i$ and $C_d = C_i$. The diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow A_d \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} B_d \stackrel{\beta}{\longrightarrow} C_d \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow = \qquad \downarrow \subseteq \qquad \downarrow = \qquad \downarrow$$

$$0 \longrightarrow A_i \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} B_i \stackrel{\beta}{\longrightarrow} C_i \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes. By the Five Lemma, (Theorem 6.6.1), the center vertical arrow is onto so $B_d = B_i$.

COROLLARY 7.6.10. Let R be a ring, M an R-module and A a submodule.

- (1) The following are equivalent.
 - (a) M satisfies the ACC on submodules.
 - (b) A and M/A satisfy the ACC on submodules.
- (2) The following are equivalent.
 - (a) M satisfies the DCC on submodules.
 - (b) A and M/A satisfy the DCC on submodules.

Proof. Apply Lemma 7.6.9 to the exact sequence $0 \to A \to M \to M/A \to 0$.

COROLLARY 7.6.11. Let R be a ring and M_1, \ldots, M_n some R-modules.

- (1) The following are equivalent.
 - (a) For each i, M_i satisfies the ACC on submodules.
 - (b) $M_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_n$ satisfies the ACC on submodules.
- (2) The following are equivalent.
 - (a) For each i, M_i satisfies the DCC on submodules.
 - (b) $M_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_n$ satisfies the DCC on submodules.

PROOF. If n=2, the result follows from Lemma 7.6.9 applied to the exact sequence $0 \to M_1 \to M_1 \oplus M_2 \to M_2 \to 0$. Use induction on n. Apply Lemma 7.6.9 to the exact sequence

$$0 \to M_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_{n-1} \to M_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_n \to M_n \to 0$$

to finish the proof.

Corollary 7.6.12. If R is a noetherian ring and M is a finitely generated R-module, then

- (1) M satisfies the ACC on submodules,
- (2) M is finitely presented,
- (3) M satisfies the maximum condition on submodules, and
- (4) every submodule of M is finitely generated.

PROOF. By Lemma 4.2.12, for some m > 0, M is the homomorphic image of $\mathbb{R}^{(m)}$. There is an exact sequence

$$0 \to K \to R^{(m)} \xrightarrow{\theta} M \to 0$$

where K is defined to be the kernel of θ . To prove (2) it is enough to prove K is finitely generated. If we prove M and K both satisfy the ACC on submodules, then we get (1) and Lemma 7.6.6 implies (2), (3) and (4). By Definition 7.6.2, R as an R-module satisfies the ACC on submodules. By Corollary 7.6.11, $R^{(m)}$ satisfies

the ACC on submodules. By Lemma 7.6.9, M and K both satisfy the ACC on submodules.

Corollary 7.6.13. Let R be a noetherian ring.

- (1) If I is a two-sided ideal of R, then R/I is noetherian.
- (2) If R is commutative and $W \subseteq R$ is a multiplicative set, then R_W is noetherian.

Proof. (1) Lemma 7.6.9 applied to the exact sequence of R-modules

$$0 \to I \to R \to R/I \to 0$$

shows that R/I satisfies the ACC on left ideals, hence is noetherian.

(2) Let J be an ideal in R_W . If $x/w \in J$, then $x/1 \in J$. Let I be the ideal of R consisting of all x such that $x/1 \in J$. Then I is finitely generated, $I_W = J$, and a generating set for I as an ideal in R maps to a generating set for I_W as an ideal of R_W .

Proposition 7.6.14. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring.

- (1) Spec R is a noetherian topological space.
- (2) Spec R has a finite number of irreducible components.
- (3) Spec R has a finite number of connected components.

Proof. Apply Corollary 7.3.10 and Proposition 1.4.7

COROLLARY 7.6.15. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and I an ideal of R which is not the unit ideal. There is a one-to-one correspondence between the irreducible components of V(I) and the minimal prime over-ideals of I given by $Z \mapsto I(Z)$.

PROOF. Let $V(I) = Z_1 \cup \cdots \cup Z_r$ be the decomposition into irreducible components, which exists by Propositions 7.6.14 and 1.4.7. For each i, let $P_i = I(Z_i)$. By Lemma 7.3.11, each of the ideals P_1, \ldots, P_r is prime. First we show that each P_i is minimal. Assume $I \subseteq Q \subseteq P_i$, for some prime Q. Then $V(I) \supseteq V(Q) \supseteq Z_i$. By Lemma 7.3.11, V(Q) is irreducible. By the uniqueness part of Proposition 1.4.7, $V(Q) = Z_i$. Therefore, $Q = I(V(Q)) = P_i$. Now let P be a minimal prime overideal of I. We show that P is equal to one of P_1, \ldots, P_r . By Lemma 7.3.11, V(P) is an irreducible subset of V(I). Since $V(P) \subseteq Z_1 \cup \cdots \cup Z_r$, $V(P) \subseteq Z_i$, for some i. Therefore, $I \subseteq P_i \subseteq P$. Since P is minimal, $P = P_i$.

THEOREM 7.6.16. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring. Then there exist primitive idempotents e_1, \ldots, e_n in R such that R is the internal direct sum $R = Re_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Re_n$. This decomposition is unique in the sense that, if $R = Rf_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Rf_p$ is another such decomposition of R, then n = p, and after rearranging, $e_1 = f_1, \ldots, e_n = f_n$.

PROOF. Let Spec $R=X_1\cup\cdots\cup X_n$ be the decomposition into connected components, which exists by Propositions 7.6.14 and 1.4.7. By Corollary 7.3.15 there are idempotents e_1,\ldots,e_n in R such that $X_i=U(e_i)=V(1-e_i)$ is homeomorphic to Spec Re_i , and $R=Re_1\oplus\cdots\oplus Re_n$. Corollary 7.3.17 implies each e_i is a primitive idempotent. The uniqueness claim comes from Theorem 7.2.5.

EXAMPLE 7.6.17. Consider the localization $\mathbb{Z}[2^{-1}]$ of \mathbb{Z} at the multiplicative set $\{1, 2, 2^2, 2^3, \dots\}$. By Example 7.6.8, the principal ideal domain \mathbb{Z} is noetherian. By Corollary 7.6.13, $\mathbb{Z}[2^{-1}]$ is a noetherian ring. As a \mathbb{Z} -module $\mathbb{Z}[2^{-1}]$ is not noetherian since

$$\mathbb{Z} \cdot 2^{-1} \subsetneq \mathbb{Z} \cdot 2^{-2} \subsetneq \mathbb{Z} \cdot 2^{-3} \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq \mathbb{Z} \cdot 2^{-i} \subsetneq \cdots$$

is a strictly increasing chain of Z-submodules.

6.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 7.6.18. Let R_1, \ldots, R_n be rings. Prove that the direct sum $R_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_n$ is an artinian ring if and only if each R_i is an artinian ring.

EXERCISE 7.6.19. Let R be an artinian ring and M a finitely generated R-module. Show that M satisfies the DCC on submodules.

EXERCISE 7.6.20. Prove that if R is an artinian ring and I is a two-sided ideal in R, then R/I is artinian.

EXERCISE 7.6.21. Let R be a commutative artinian ring and W is a multiplicative set in R. Show that $W^{-1}R$ is artinian.

EXERCISE 7.6.22. Let R be a noetherian ring and M a finitely generated R-module. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) M is flat.
- (2) M is projective.

EXERCISE 7.6.23. Prove that if R is an artinian domain, then R is a division ring.

EXERCISE 7.6.24. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings such that S is a faithfully flat R algebra. Prove:

- (1) If S is artinian, then R is artinian.
- (2) If S is noetherian, then R is noetherian.

EXERCISE 7.6.25. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring. Show that if M and N are finitely generated R-modules, then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is a finitely generated R-module.

EXERCISE 7.6.26. This exercise is based on an example attributed to Lance Small. Let R be the subring of $M_2(\mathbb{Q})$ consisting of all matrices of the form $\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & c \end{pmatrix}$ where $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b, c \in \mathbb{Q}$. Show that every left ideal of R is finitely generated. Show that R does not satisfy the ACC on right ideals. Conclude that R is left noetherian but not right noetherian. Show R is not isomorphic to the opposite ring R^o .

6.2. Composition Series.

DEFINITION 7.6.27. Let R be any ring and M an R-module. We say M is simple if $M \neq 0$ and 0 is a maximal submodule of M. So if M is a simple module, then (0) and M are the only submodules.

DEFINITION 7.6.28. Let R be any ring and M an R-module. Suppose there is a strictly descending finite chain of submodules

$$M = M_0 \supsetneq M_1 \supsetneq M_2 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq M_n = 0$$

starting with $M=M_0$ and ending with $M_n=0$. The length of the chain is n. A composition series for M is a chain such that M_i/M_{i+1} is simple. If M has no composition series, define $\ell(M)=\infty$. Otherwise, let $\ell(M)$ be the minimum of the lengths of all composition series of M. The number $\ell(M)$ is called the length of M. If $\ell(M)<\infty$, then we say M is a module of finite length. We prove in Proposition 7.6.29 below that if M has a composition series, then every composition series has the same length. We show in Proposition 7.6.30 below that a module M of finite length satisfies both the ACC and DCC on submodules. In particular, M is finitely generated.

PROPOSITION 7.6.29. Let R be any ring and M an R module. Suppose that M has a composition series of length n. Then

- (1) If N is a proper submodule of M, then $\ell(N) < \ell(M)$.
- (2) Every chain in M has length less than or equal to $\ell(M)$.
- (3) Every composition series has length n.
- (4) Every chain in M can be extended to a composition series.

Proof. (1): Suppose

$$M = M_0 \supseteq M_1 \supseteq M_2 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq M_n = 0$$

is a composition series for M such that $n=\ell(M)$. For each i, set $N_i=N\cap M_i$. The reader should verify that the kernel of the composite map $N_i\to M_i\to M_i/M_{i+1}$ is N_{i+1} . Therefore, $N_i/N_{i+1}\to M_i/M_{i+1}$ is one-to-one. Either $N_{i+1}=N_i$, or $N_i/N_{i+1}\cong M_i/M_{i+1}$ is simple. If we delete any repetitions from $N=N_0\supseteq N_1\supseteq\cdots N_n=0$, then we are left with a composition series for N. This shows $\ell(N)\le\ell(M)$. For contradiction's sake assume $\ell(N)=\ell(M)$. Then $N_i/N_{i+1}\cong M_i/M_{i+1}$ for each $i=0,\ldots,n-1$. By a finite induction argument we conclude that N=M, a contradiction.

(2): Given any chain of submodules

$$M = M_0 \supseteq M_1 \supseteq M_2 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq M_m = 0$$

starting at M and ending at 0, apply Part (1) to get

$$0 < \ell(M_{m-1}) < \dots < \ell(M_1) < \ell(M)$$

which proves that $m \leq \ell(M)$.

- (3): Follows straight from Part (2) and the definition of $\ell(M)$.
- (4): Consider any chain of submodules

$$M = M_0 \supsetneq M_1 \supsetneq M_2 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq M_m = 0$$

starting at M and ending at 0. If $m = \ell(M)$, then this is a composition series. Otherwise for some $i, M_i/M_{i+1}$ is not simple, so there exists a proper submodule $M_i \subseteq N \subseteq M_{i+1}$. Insert N into the chain, re-label and get a chain of length m+1. Repeat this insertion procedure until the length of the new chain is equal to $\ell(M)$, at which point it must be a composition series.

Proposition 7.6.30. Let R be any ring and M an R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M has a composition series.
- (2) M satisfies both the ACC and the DCC on submodules.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): By Proposition 7.6.29 all chains in M are of bounded length.

(2) implies (1): By Lemma 7.6.6, every submodule of M satisfies the maximum condition on submodules. Set $M_0 = M$. Let M_1 be a maximal submodule of M_0 . Iteratively suppose i > 0 and let M_{i+1} be a maximal submodule of M_i . The strictly descending chain M_0, M_1, M_2, \ldots must converge to 0 since M satisfies the DCC on submodules. The result is a composition series.

Proposition 7.6.31. Let R be any ring and

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \to 0$$

an exact sequence of R-modules of finite length. Then $\ell(B) = \ell(A) + \ell(C)$.

PROOF. Start with a composition series $A=A_0\supsetneq A_1\supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq A_m=0$ for A and a composition series $C=C_0\supsetneq C_1\supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq C_n=0$ for C. Then

$$B = \beta^{-1}(C_0) \supsetneq \beta^{-1}(C_1) \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq \beta^{-1}(C_n) = \alpha(A_0) \supsetneq \alpha(A_1) \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq \alpha(A_m) = 0$$
 is a composition series for B .

6.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 7.6.32. Let D be a division ring and V a finite dimensional vector space over D. Prove:

- (1) V is a simple module if and only if $\dim_D(V) = 1$.
- (2) $\dim_D(V) = \ell(V)$.

EXERCISE 7.6.33. Let D be a division ring and V a vector space over D. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) V is finite dimensional over D.
- (2) V is a D-module of finite length.
- (3) V satisfies the ACC on submodules.
- (4) V satisfies the DCC on submodules.

EXERCISE 7.6.34. Let D be a division ring.

- (1) Prove that the ring $M_n(D)$ of all n-by-n matrices over D is both artinian and noetherian.
- (2) Let M be a finite dimensional D-vector space. Prove that the ring $\operatorname{Hom}_D(M,M)$ is both artinian and noetherian.

EXERCISE 7.6.35. Let k be a field and R a k-algebra which is finite dimensional as a k-vector space. Prove that the ring R is both artinian and noetherian. See Exercise 10.2.23 for the converse of this statement when R is commutative.

EXERCISE 7.6.36. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings. Let M be a left S-module. View M as a left R-module using θ (Example 4.1.4(4)). Show that if M is an R-module of finite length, then M is an S-module of finite length.

7. Locally Free Modules

7.1. Locally Free of Finite Rank Equals Finitely Generated Projective.

DEFINITION 7.7.1. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. Then M is locally free of finite rank if there exist elements f_1, \ldots, f_n in R such that $R = Rf_1 + \cdots + Rf_n$ and for each $i, M_{f_i} = M \otimes_R R_{f_i}$ is free of finite rank over R_{f_i} .

Proposition 7.7.2. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M is finitely generated projective.
- (2) M is locally free of finite rank.
- (3) M is an R-module of finite presentation and for each $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a free $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -module.
- (4) M is an R-module of finite presentation and for each $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$, $M_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a free $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ -module.

PROOF. (1) implies (3): This part follows directly from Corollary 6.2.8 and Proposition 7.4.2. It is trivial that (3) implies (4).

- (4) implies (2): Using Lemma 7.1.11, for each $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$ pick $\alpha_{\mathfrak{m}} \in R \mathfrak{m}$ such that $M_{\alpha_{\mathfrak{m}}} = M \otimes_R R_{\alpha_{\mathfrak{m}}}$ is free of finite rank over $R_{\alpha_{\mathfrak{m}}}$. Let $U(\alpha_{\mathfrak{m}}) = \operatorname{Spec} R V(\alpha_{\mathfrak{m}})$ be the basic open set associated to $\alpha_{\mathfrak{m}}$. Since $U(\alpha_{\mathfrak{m}})$ is an open neighborhood of \mathfrak{m} , we have an open cover $\{U(\alpha_{\mathfrak{m}}) \mid \mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R\}$ of $\operatorname{Spec} R$ (Exercise 7.3.18). By Exercise 7.3.29, there is a finite subset of $\{\alpha_{\mathfrak{m}} \mid \mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R\}$, say $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$ such that $\{U(\alpha_1), \ldots, U(\alpha_n)\}$ is an open cover of $\operatorname{Spec} R$. For each i, M_{α_i} is free of finite rank over R_{α_i} which proves M is locally free of finite rank.
- (2) implies (1): Assume $\{U(f_1), \ldots, U(f_n)\}$ is an open cover of Spec R and that for each i, M_{f_i} is free of rank N_i over R_{f_i} . Let $N = \max\{N_1, \ldots, N_n\}$. Then

$$F_i = M_{f_i} \oplus R_{f_i}^{(N-N_i)}$$

is free of rank N over R_{f_i} . Set $S = \bigoplus_i R_{f_i}$. Then $R \to S$ is faithfully flat (Exercise 7.5.28). Set $F = \bigoplus_i F_i$. Then F is free over S of rank N and $M \otimes_R S = \bigoplus_i M_{f_i}$ is a direct summand of F (Exercise 7.7.11). Now apply Lemma 7.5.12 (3).

Let R be a commutative ring. For any prime ideal $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$, write $k_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for the residue field $R_{\mathfrak{p}}/\mathfrak{p}R_{\mathfrak{p}}$. If M is a finitely generated R-module, then M can be used to define a rank function $\operatorname{Spec} R \to \{0,1,2,\dots\}$, where $\mathfrak{p} \mapsto \dim_{k_{\mathfrak{p}}}(M \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}})$. The next two corollaries to Proposition 7.7.2 utilize this rank function to give us a powerful test for locally free modules and for flatness over an integral domain.

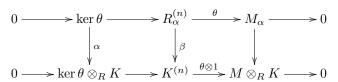
COROLLARY 7.7.3. Let R be an integral domain with quotient field K. For each maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max}(R)$, write $k_{\mathfrak{m}}$ for R/\mathfrak{m} . The following are equivalent for any finitely generated R-module M.

- (1) M is a locally free R-module of constant rank n.
- (2) $\dim_K(M \otimes_R K) = n$ and for every $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max}(R)$, $\dim_{k_{\mathfrak{m}}}(M/\mathfrak{m}M) = n$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): If $M \cong R^{(n)}$, then $M \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{m}} \cong k_{\mathfrak{m}}^{(n)}$ and $M \otimes_R K \cong K^{(n)}$.

(2) implies (1): Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal of R and write $M_{\mathfrak{m}}$ for $M \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}}$. Since $M/\mathfrak{m}M$ is free of dimension n over $k_{\mathfrak{m}}$, there exist x_1,\ldots,x_n in $M_{\mathfrak{m}}$ which restrict to a $k_{\mathfrak{m}}$ -basis under the natural map $M_{\mathfrak{m}} \to M/\mathfrak{m}M$. For some $\alpha \in R - \mathfrak{m}$, the finite set x_1,\ldots,x_n is in the image of the natural map $M_{\alpha} \to M_{\mathfrak{m}}$. Define $\theta: R_{\alpha}^{(n)} \to M_{\alpha}$ by mapping the standard basis vector e_i to x_i . By Lemma 7.4.1,

 $M_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is generated by x_1, \ldots, x_n as an $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ -module. Therefore, upon localizing θ at the maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}R_{\alpha}$, it becomes onto. Because the cokernel of θ is a finitely generated R_{α} -module, by Lemma 7.1.8, there exists $\beta \in R_{\alpha} - \mathfrak{m}R_{\alpha}$ such that if we replace α with $\alpha\beta$, then θ is onto. The diagram



commutes, where the second row is obtained by tensoring the top row with () $\otimes_R K$. Since the top row is exact, by Lemma 7.1.4 so is the second row. Since R is an integral domain, $R \to K$ is one-to-one. Therefore β is one-to-one. Since $M \otimes K$ has dimension n and $\theta \otimes 1$ is onto, it follows that $\ker \theta \otimes_R K = 0$. The Snake Lemma implies that $\ker \theta = 0$. We have shown that every maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max}(R)$ has a basic open neighborhood $U(\alpha)$ such that M_{α} is a free R_{α} -module of rank n. The argument that was used to show (4) implies (2) in Proposition 7.7.2 can now be applied to finish the proof.

COROLLARY 7.7.4. Let R be an integral domain with quotient field K and M a finitely generated R-module. Then the following are equivalent.

- (1) M is of finite presentation and flat.
- (2) M is an R-progenerator.
- (3) There exists n > 0 such that $\dim_K(M \otimes_R K) = n$ and for every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} in $\operatorname{Max}(R)$, $\dim_{k_{\mathfrak{m}}}(M/\mathfrak{m}M) = n$.

PROOF. By Theorem 6.7.27 and Corollary 6.3.4, (1) and (2) are equivalent. Proposition 7.7.2, Corollary 7.7.3, and Corollary 6.3.4 imply that (2) and (3) are equivalent.

7.2. Invertible Modules and the Picard Group.

Lemma 7.7.5. Let M be a finitely generated projective faithful module over the commutative ring R. Then the following are equivalent.

- (1) $\operatorname{Rank}_{R}(M) = 1$.
- (2) $\operatorname{Rank}_{R}(M^{*}) = 1$.
- (3) $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M) \cong R$.
- (4) $M^* \otimes_R M \cong R$.

PROOF. The hypotheses on M imply that M is an R-progenerator module. Fix a prime $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. Then $M_P \cong R_P^{(m)}$ for some positive integer m. By Corollary 6.5.13 and Exercise 7.4.9, $M^* \otimes_R R_P = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,R) \otimes_R R_P \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R_P}(M_P,R_P)$ is isomorphic to $R_P^{(m)}$. Likewise, $R_P \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_{R_P}(M,M) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R_P}(M_P,M_P)$ is isomorphic to $R_P^{(m^2)}$. By properties of tensors and Exercise 7.4.9, $R_P \otimes_R M^* \otimes_R M \cong (R_P \otimes_R M^*) \otimes_{R_P} M_P$ is isomorphic to $R_P^{(m^2)}$. From this it follows that (1) - (4) are equivalent for the prime P. Since P was arbitrary, this proves the lemma. \square

DEFINITION 7.7.6. If M is an R-module that satisfies any of the equivalent properties of Lemma 7.7.5, then we say M is *invertible*. Given a commutative ring R let Pic(R) be the set of isomorphism classes of invertible R-modules. The

isomorphism class containing a module M is denoted by |M|. As stated in Proposition 7.7.8, Pic(R) is an abelian group, which is called the *Picard group* of R.

PROPOSITION 7.7.7. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. Then M is invertible if and only if there exists an R-module N such that $M \otimes_R N \cong R$. In this case, $N \cong M^* = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, R)$.

PROOF. Assume M is an invertible R-module. By Lemma 7.7.5, if we take N to be M^* , then $M \otimes_R N \cong R$. Conversely, assume $M \otimes_R N \cong R$. By Proposition 6.4.25, both M and N are R-progenerators. Fix a prime $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. Then $M_P \cong R_P^{(m)}$ and $N_P \cong R_P^{(n)}$ for some positive integers m, n. Tensor both sides of $M \otimes_R N \cong R$ with R_P to get $R_P \cong R_P \otimes_R (M \otimes_R N) \cong (M \otimes_R R_P) \otimes_{R_P} (N \otimes_R R_P \cong R_P^{(m)} \otimes_{R_P} R_P^{(n)} \cong R_P^{(mn)}$. It follows that m = n = 1. Since P was arbitrary, this shows M has constant rank 1. Tensor both sides of $M \otimes_R N \cong R$ with M^* to get $M^* \cong M^* \otimes_R M \otimes_R N \cong R \otimes_R N \cong N$.

PROPOSITION 7.7.8. Under the binary operation $|P| \cdot |Q| = |P \otimes_R Q|$, $\operatorname{Pic}(R)$ is an abelian group. The identity element is the class |R|. The inverse of $|M| \in \operatorname{Pic}(R)$ is $|M^*|$. The assignment $R \mapsto \operatorname{Pic}(R)$ defines a (covariant) functor from the category of commutative rings to the category of abelian groups.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.
$$\Box$$

EXAMPLE 7.7.9. See Exercise 6.3.7. Let k be any field. Let x and y be indeterminates. Let f be the polynomial $f = y^2 - x(x^2 - 1)$. Let R be the factor ring

$$R = \frac{k[x,y]}{(y^2 - x(x^2 - 1))}.$$

Then R is an integral domain. Let M be the maximal ideal of R generated by x and y. If we invert x^2-1 , then $x=y^2(x^2-1)^{-1}$, so M becomes principal. If we invert x, then M becomes the unit ideal, and is principal. Since $R(x^2-1)$ and R(x) are comaximal, there is an open cover $U(x^2-1) \cup U(x) = \operatorname{Spec} R$ on which M is locally free of rank 1. Proposition 7.7.2 shows that $|M| \in \operatorname{Pic} R$. Note that M^2 is generated by x^2, xy, y^2 . But an ideal that contains x^2 and y^2 also contains x. We see that M^2 is generated by x, hence is free of rank one. The map

$$M \otimes_R M \to M^2$$

 $a \otimes b \mapsto ab$

is R-linear. Since this map is onto and both sides are projective of rank one, it is an isomorphism. This proves that $M^* \cong M$ and $|M|^{-1} = |M|$.

EXAMPLE 7.7.10. If R is a commutative ring with the property that every progenerator module is free, then Pic(R) contains just one element, namely |R|. Using the notation of abelian groups, we usually write Pic(R) = (0) in this case. For example, Pic(R) = (0) in each of the following cases.

- (1) R is a field (Theorem 4.2.34).
- (2) R is a local ring (Proposition 7.4.2).
- (3) R is a principal ideal domain (Proposition 4.3.5).
- (4) R is a semilocal ring (Exercise 8.1.12).

7.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 7.7.11. Let R_1 and R_2 be rings and let $S = R_1 \oplus R_2$ be the direct sum. Let M_1 be an R_1 -module and M_2 an R_2 -module and let $M = M_1 \oplus M_2$. Prove:

- (1) M is an S-module.
- (2) If M_i is free of rank N over R_i for each i, then M is free of rank N over S.
- (3) If M_i is finitely generated and projective over R_i for each i, then M is finitely generated and projective over S.

EXERCISE 7.7.12. Let R_1 and R_2 be commutative rings. Show that $Pic(R_1 \oplus R_2)$ is isomorphic to $Pic(R_1) \oplus Pic(R_2)$.

EXERCISE 7.7.13. Let R be a commutative ring. A quadratic extension of R is an R-algebra S which as an R-module is an R-progenerator of rank two. Prove that a quadratic extension S of R is commutative. (Hint: First prove this when S is free of rank two. For the general case, use the fact that S is locally free of rank two.)

EXERCISE 7.7.14. Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated projective R-module of constant rank n. Show that there exist elements f_1, \ldots, f_m of R satisfying the following:

- (1) $R = Rf_1 + \cdots + Rf_m$.
- (2) If $S = R_{f_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus R_{f_m}$, then $M \otimes_R S$ is a free S-module of rank n.

EXERCISE 7.7.15. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-progenerator. Prove:

- (1) If L is an invertible R-module, then there is an isomorphism of R-algebras $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M \otimes_R L, M \otimes_R L)$.
- (2) If N is an R-progenerator such that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_R(N,N)$ are isomorphic as R-algebras, then there exists an invertible R-module L such that N and $M \otimes_R L$ are isomorphic as R-modules.

EXERCISE 7.7.16. Let k be a field and A = k[x] the polynomial ring over k in one variable. Let $R = k[x^2, x^3]$ be the k-subalgebra of A generated by x^2 and x^3 . In Algebraic Geometry, the ring $k[x^2, x^3]$ corresponds to a cuspidal cubic curve. From Exercise 3.6.21 we know that R and A have the same quotient field, namely K = k(x). Show:

- (1) A is a finitely generated R-module.
- (2) The conductor ideal from A to R is $\mathfrak{m}=(x^2,x^3)$ which is a maximal ideal of R (see Exercise 4.1.25).
- (3) Use Corollary 7.7.4 to show that A is not flat over R. (Hint: Consider R/\mathfrak{m} and $A/\mathfrak{m}A$.)
- (4) The rings $R[x^{-2}]$ and $A[x^{-2}]$ are equal, hence the extension $R \to A$ is flat upon localization to the nonempty basic open set $U(x^2)$.

For a continuation of this example, see Exercise 10.1.21.

EXERCISE 7.7.17. Let k be a field, n>1 an integer, T=k[x,y], $S=k[x^n,xy,y^n]$, and $S\to T$ the set containment map. Using Corollary 7.7.4 and

Exercise 6.4.46, show that T is not flat over S. See [20, Exercise 4.4.19] for more properties of the extension T/S.

EXERCISE 7.7.18. Let k be a field and A = k[x] the polynomial ring over k in one variable. Let $R = k[x^2 - 1, x^3 - x]$ be the k-subalgebra of A generated by the polynomials $x^2 - 1$ and $x^3 - x$. In Algebraic Geometry, the ring $k[x^2 - 1, x^3 - x]$ corresponds to a nodal cubic curve. Show:

- (1) The quotient field of $k[x^2-1, x^3-x]$ is k(x). In other words, $k[x^2-1, x^3-x]$ and k[x] are birational.
- (2) $k[x^2 1, x^3 x]$ is not a UFD.
- (3) A is a finitely generated R-module.
- (4) The conductor ideal from A to R is $\mathfrak{m} = (x^2 1, x^3 x)$ which is a maximal ideal of R (see Exercise 4.1.25).
- (5) A is not flat over R.
- (6) The rings $R[(x^2-1)^{-1}]$ and $A[(x^2-1)^{-1}]$ are equal, hence the extension $R \to A$ is flat upon localization to the nonempty basic open set $U(x^2-1)$.

For a continuation of this example, see Exercise 10.1.23.

8. Flat Modules and Algebras

8.1. Flat if and only if Locally Flat.

Proposition 7.8.1. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) A is a flat R-module.
- (2) A_p is a flat R_p -module, for every $p \in \operatorname{Spec} R$.
- (3) $A_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a flat $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ -module, for every $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): This follows from Theorem 6.4.23.

- (2) implies (3): This is trivially true.
- (3) implies (1): Denote by S the exact sequence

$$0 \to M \xrightarrow{\alpha} N \xrightarrow{\beta} P \to 0$$

of R-modules. Let $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$. Because $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is flat over R and $A_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is flat over $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$,

$$(S) \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}} \otimes_{R_{\mathfrak{m}}} A_{\mathfrak{m}} = (S) \otimes_R A_{\mathfrak{m}}$$

is an exact sequence. Take the direct sum over all m. It follows from Exercise 4.2.24 that

$$(S) \otimes_R \left(\bigoplus_{\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R} A_{\mathfrak{m}} \right) = (S) \otimes_R A \otimes_R \left(\bigoplus_{\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R} R_{\mathfrak{m}} \right)$$

is exact. By Proposition 7.5.3.

$$E = \bigoplus_{\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R} R_{\mathfrak{m}}$$

is a faithfully flat R-module, so $(S) \otimes_R A$ is exact.

PROPOSITION 7.8.2. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. The following are equivalent.

- (1) S is a flat R-algebra.
- (2) S_q is a flat R_p-algebra, for every q ∈ Spec S, if f⁻¹(q) = p.
 (3) S_m is a flat R_p-algebra, for every m ∈ Max S, if f⁻¹(m) = p.

PROOF. Is left to the reader. (Hints: For (1) implies (2), use Exercise 7.8.12. For (3) implies (1), there is an isomorphism $(A \otimes_R S) \otimes_S S_{\mathfrak{m}} \cong (A \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{p}}) \otimes_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}} S_{\mathfrak{m}}$ for any R-module A.)

8.2. A Finiteness Criterion for Flat.

Proposition 7.8.3. Let R be any ring and M a right R-module. Then M is flat if and only if given any exact sequence

$$0 \to A \to B$$

of finitely generated left R-modules, the sequence

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

is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules.

PROOF. If M is flat, the second statement is trivially true. We prove the converse. Start with an exact sequence

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B$$

of left R-modules. We need to show that

$$0 \to M \otimes_R A \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \alpha} M \otimes_R B$$

is exact. We show that if $v = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \otimes y_i$ is an element in the kernel of $1 \otimes \alpha$, then v = 0. Set A_1 equal to $Ry_1 + \cdots + Ry_n$, which is a finitely generated submodule of A. Set B_1 equal to $R\alpha(y_1) + \cdots + R\alpha(y_n)$, which is a finitely generated submodule of B. As in Exercise 6.8.25, $B = \varinjlim B_{\alpha}$ where $\{B_{\alpha}\}$ is the directed system of finitely generated submodules of B. By Corollary 6.8.10, $M \otimes_R B = \varinjlim (M \otimes_R B_{\alpha})$. In $M \otimes_R B_1$ we have the element $u = \sum x_i \otimes \alpha(y_i)$ and the image of u in $\varinjlim (M \otimes_R B_{\alpha})$ is equal to $(1 \otimes \alpha)(v) = 0$. By Lemma 6.8.5, there exists B_2 , a finitely generated submodule of B which contains B_1 , such that under the restriction map $\phi_2^1 : M \otimes_R B_1 \to M \otimes_R B_2$ we have $\phi_2^1(u) = 0$. The sequence

$$0 \to A_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha} B_2$$

is exact and the modules are finitely generated over R. Therefore, tensoring with M gives the exact sequence

$$0 \to M \otimes_R A_1 \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \alpha} M \otimes_R B_2.$$

In $M \otimes_R A_1$ there is the element $v_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \otimes y_i$ which maps onto v in $M \otimes_R A$. Under $1 \otimes \alpha$, the image of v_1 in $M \otimes_R B_2$ is $\phi_2^1(u)$, which is 0. Therefore $v_1 = 0$, hence v = 0.

If R is any ring, M is any left R-module, and I is a right ideal in R, the multiplication map

$$\mu: I \otimes_R M \to M$$

is defined by $r \otimes x \mapsto rx$. The image of μ is

$$IM = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i x_i \mid n \ge 1, r_i \in I, x_i \in M \right\}$$

which is a \mathbb{Z} -submodule of M. If I is a two-sided ideal, then IM is an R-submodule of M.

COROLLARY 7.8.4. Let R be any ring and M a left R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M is a flat R-module.
- (2) For every right ideal I of R, the sequence

$$0 \to I \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{\mu} M \to M/IM \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules.

(3) For every finitely generated right ideal I of R, the sequence

$$0 \to I \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{\mu} M \to M/IM \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules.

(4) If there exist a_1, \ldots, a_r in R and x_1, \ldots, x_r in M such that $\sum_i a_i x_i = 0$, then there exist an integer s, elements $\{b_{ij} \in R \mid 1 \leq i \leq r, 1 \leq j \leq s\}$ in R, and y_1, \ldots, y_s in M satisfying $\sum_i a_i b_{ij} = 0$ for all j and $x_i = \sum_j b_{ij} y_j$ for all i.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): is routine.

- (2) implies (3): is trivial.
- (3) implies (2): Let I be any right ideal in R. According to Exercise 6.8.25, $I = \varinjlim I_{\alpha}$, where each I_{α} is a finitely generated right ideal in R and $I_{\alpha} \subseteq I$. By Corollary 6.8.10, $\varinjlim (I_{\alpha} \otimes_R M) = I \otimes_R M$. By hypothesis the sequence

$$0 \to I_{\alpha} \otimes_{R} M \xrightarrow{\mu_{\alpha}} M$$

is exact for each α . By Theorem 6.8.6, the sequence

$$0 \to \lim I_{\alpha} \otimes_R M \to M$$

is exact, which proves (2).

(2) implies (1): Start with the exact sequence of right \mathbb{Z} -modules

$$0 \to I \otimes_R M \to R \otimes_R M.$$

Since \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is an injective \mathbb{Z} -module, the sequence

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R \otimes_R M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(I \otimes_R M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules. By Theorem 6.5.10, the sequence

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(R, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(I, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules. By Lemma 6.7.4, $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is an injective right R-module. By Theorem 6.7.26, this implies M is a flat left R-module.

(1) implies (4): Assume M is a flat R-module and $\sum_i a_i x_i = 0$ for some elements $a_i \in R$ and $x_i \in M$. Define $\theta : R^{(r)} \to R$ by the assignment $(b_1, \ldots, b_r) \mapsto \sum_i a_i b_i$. Then θ is a homomorphism of right R-modules and the image of θ is the right ideal of R generated by a_1, \ldots, a_r . Let $K = \ker(\theta)$ and apply the tensor functor () $\otimes_R M$ to the exact sequence $0 \to K \to R^{(r)} \to R$. The sequence

$$0 \to K \otimes_R M \to M^{(r)} \xrightarrow{\theta_M} M$$

is an exact sequence of \mathbb{Z} -modules, since M is flat. Moreover, θ_M is defined by the assignment $(m_1,\ldots,m_r)\mapsto \sum_i a_im_i$. We identify $K\otimes_R M$ with $\ker(\theta_M)$. Since $(x_1,\ldots,x_r)\in\ker(\theta_M)$, there exists $\lambda=\sum_j \kappa_j\otimes y_j\in K\otimes_R M$ such that $\lambda=(x_1,\ldots,x_r)$. Since $\kappa_j\in K$, we can write $\kappa_j=(b_{1j},\ldots,b_{rj})$ for each j. This proves (4).

(4) implies (2): Let I be any right ideal of R and let $\theta: I \otimes_R M \to M$. Suppose λ is an arbitrary element of the kernel of θ . Then there exist a_1, \ldots, a_r in I and x_1, \ldots, x_r in M such that $\lambda = \sum_i a_i \otimes x_i$ and $\theta(\lambda) = \sum_i a_i x_i = 0$. By (4) there are elements b_{ij} in R and y_j in M such that $x_i = \sum_j b_{ij} y_j$ and $\sum_i a_i b_{ij} = 0$. In this case,

$$\lambda = \sum_{i} a_{i} \otimes \left(\sum_{j} b_{ij} y_{j}\right) = \sum_{j} \left(\sum_{i} a_{i} b_{ij}\right) \otimes y_{j} = 0$$

so θ is one-to-one.

In Corollary 7.8.5 we show that over a local ring a finitely generated module M is flat if and only if it is free if and only if it is projective. Since we do not assume M is of finite presentation, this statement is stronger than that of Theorem 6.7.27.

Corollary 7.8.5. Let R be a local ring and M a finitely generated R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M is a free R-module.
- (2) M is a projective R-module.
- (3) M is a flat R-module.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Follows straight from the definition of projective.

- (2) implies (3): This is Exercise 6.4.31.
- (3) implies (1): If \mathfrak{m} is the maximal ideal of R and $\{x_i + \mathfrak{m}M \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ is a basis for the vector space $M/\mathfrak{m}M$ over the residue field R/\mathfrak{m} , then $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ generate M over R. This follows from Lemma 7.4.1.

To prove that $\{x_1,\ldots,x_n\}$ is a free basis for M, it is enough to show that any dependence relation $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i = 0$ is trivial. The proof is by induction on n. We prove that if $1 \leq j \leq n$ and ξ_1,\ldots,ξ_j are elements of M such that $\{\xi_i + \mathfrak{m}M \mid 1 \leq i \leq j\}$ is a linearly independent set in $M/\mathfrak{m}M$ over R/\mathfrak{m} , then ξ_1,\ldots,ξ_j are linearly independent over R.

For the basis step, say $x \in M - \mathfrak{m}M$ and that there exists $a \in R$ such that ax = 0. By Corollary 7.8.4 (4), there exist b_1, \ldots, b_s in R and y_1, \ldots, y_s in M such that $ab_j = 0$ for each b_j and $x = \sum_j b_j y_j$. Since $x \notin \mathfrak{m}M$, not all of the b_j are in \mathfrak{m} . Suppose $b_1 \in R - \mathfrak{m}$. Then b_1 is invertible in R, so $ab_1 = 0$ implies a = 0.

Inductively assume n>1 and that the result holds for n-1 elements of M. Assume $\{x_i+\mathfrak{m} M\mid 1\leq i\leq n\}$ are linearly independent over the residue field R/\mathfrak{m} and that there is a dependence relation $\sum_i a_i x_i = 0$. By Corollary 7.8.4 (4), there exist b_{ij} in R and y_1,\ldots,y_s in M such that $\sum_i a_i b_{ij} = 0$ for each j and $x_i = \sum_j b_{ij} y_j$ for each i. Since $x_n \notin \mathfrak{m} M$, not all of the b_{nj} are in \mathfrak{m} . Let $b_{n1} \in R - \mathfrak{m}$. Then b_{n1} is invertible in R, so we can solve $\sum_i a_i b_{i1} = 0$ for a_n to get

$$a_n = -b_{n1}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} a_i b_{i1} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} c_i a_i.$$

Substitute to get

$$0 = \sum_{i} a_{i}x_{i}$$

$$= a_{1}x_{1} + \dots + a_{n-1}x_{n-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} c_{i}a_{i}x_{n}$$

$$= a_{1}(x_{1} + c_{1}x_{n}) + \dots + a_{n-1}(x_{n-1} + c_{n-1}x_{n}).$$

The set $\{x_1 + c_1x_n, \dots, x_{n-1} + c_{n-1}x_n\}$ is linearly independent modulo $\mathfrak{m}M$. By the induction hypothesis we conclude that $a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_{n-1} = 0$. Since $a_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} c_i a_i = 0$, we are done.

8.3. Finitely Presented and Flat is Projective.

LEMMA 7.8.6. Let R be any ring, M a flat left R-module and

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\subseteq} B \xrightarrow{\theta} M \to 0$$

an exact sequence of left R-modules, where $A = \ker(\theta)$.

- (1) For any right ideal I of R, $A \cap IB = IA$.
- (2) Suppose B is a free left R-module, and $\{b_i \mid i \in J\}$ is a basis for B over R. If $x = \sum_i r_i b_i$ is in A, then there exist $a_i \in A$ such that $x = \sum_i r_i a_i$.
- (3) Suppose B is a free left R-module. For any finite set $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ of elements of A, there exists $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(B, A)$ such that $f(a_i) = a_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

PROOF. (1): The multiplication map μ induces a commutative diagram

$$I \otimes_{R} A \xrightarrow{\mu} IA \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \subseteq$$

$$I \otimes_{R} B \xrightarrow{\mu} IB \longrightarrow 0$$

of \mathbb{Z} -modules with exact rows. The image of $I \otimes_R A \to B$ is equal to IA and clearly $IA \subseteq A \cap IB$. Since M is flat, Corollary 7.8.4 implies $\mu: I \otimes_R M \cong IM$ is an isomorphism. The diagram

$$I \otimes_{R} A \longrightarrow I \otimes_{R} B \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \theta} I \otimes_{R} M \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\gamma} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\mu} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\cong}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow A \cap IB \longrightarrow IB \xrightarrow{\theta} IM$$

is commutative and the rows are exact. The Snake Lemma (Theorem 6.6.2) says that γ is onto. This proves that the image of $I \otimes_R A \to B$ is equal to $A \cap IB$.

- (2): Suppose we are given $x = \sum_i r_i b_i \in A$, where only finitely many of the r_i are nonzero. Let I be the right ideal of R generated by the coordinates $\{r_i\}$ of x. Then $x \in A \cap IB = IA$. Since $IA = (\sum_i r_i R) A = \sum_i r_i RA = \sum_i r_i A$, there exist $a_i \in A$ such that $x = \sum_i r_i a_i$.
- (3): Let $\{b_j \mid j \in J\}$ be a basis for the free module B. Let x_1, \ldots, x_n be elements in A. The proof is by induction on n. Assume n=1. Since $x_1 \in B$, we write $x_1 = \sum_j r_j b_j$ where $r_j \in R$ and only finitely many of r_j are nonzero. By Part (2) there exist $a_j \in A$ such that $x = \sum_j r_j a_j$. Define $f: B \to A$ on the basis by setting $f(b_j) = a_j$. Then $f(x_1) = x_1$.

Inductively, assume n > 1 and that the result holds for any set involving n-1 or fewer elements of A. By the n=1 case, there exists $f_1:A\to B$ such that $f_1(x_1)=x_1$. By the n-1 case applied to the set $x_2-f_1(x_2),\ldots,x_n-f_1(x_n)$, there exists $f_2:A\to B$ such that $f_2(x_j-f_1(x_j))=x_j-f_1(x_j)$ for $j=2,\ldots,n$. Set $f=f_1+f_2-f_2f_1$. Note that

$$f(x_1) = f_1(x_1) + f_2(x_1) - f_2(f_1(x_1)) = x_1,$$

and if $2 \le j \le n$, then

$$f(x_j) = f_1(x_j) + f_2(x_j) - f_2(f_1(x_j))$$

$$= f_1(x_j) + f_2(x_j - f_1(x_j))$$

$$= f_1(x_j) + x_j - f_1(x_j)$$

$$= x_j.$$

We give another proof of Theorem 6.7.27.

Corollary 7.8.7. Let R be any ring and M a finitely generated left R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M is projective.
- (2) M is of finite presentation and flat.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): If M is finitely generated and projective, then M is flat by Exercise 6.4.31 and of finite presentation by Corollary 6.2.8.

(2) implies (1): Let

$$0 \to A \to B \xrightarrow{\theta} M \to 0$$

be a finite presentation of M, where B is a finitely generated free left R-module, and A is a finitely generated submodule of B. According to Lemma 7.8.6 (3), this sequence is split exact.

8.4. Flat Algebras.

Lemma 7.8.8. Let S be a commutative flat R-algebra. If I and J are ideals in R, then

- (1) $(I \cap J)S = IS \cap JS$.
- (2) If J is finitely generated, then (I:J)S = (IS:JS).

PROOF. (1): The sequence of R-modules

$$0 \to I \cap J \to R \to R/I \oplus R/J$$

is exact, by Theorem 3.3.8. Tensoring with S,

$$0 \to (I \cap J) \otimes_R S \to S \to S/IS \oplus S/JS$$

is exact. By Corollary 7.8.4, this implies $(I \cap J) \otimes_R S = (I \cap J)S = IS \cap JS$.

(2): Step 1: J = Ra is principal. Let $\ell_a : R \to R$ be "left-multiplication by a" and $\eta : R \to R/I$ the natural map. The kernel of the composite map $\eta \circ \ell_a$ is (I : Ra). Tensor the exact sequence

$$0 \to (I:Ra) \to R \xrightarrow{\eta \circ \ell_a} R/I$$

with S and use Corollary 7.8.4 to get

$$0 \to (I:Ra)S \to S \xrightarrow{\eta \circ \ell_a} S/IS.$$

This shows (I:Ra)S = (IS:aS).

Step 2: $J = Ra_1 + \cdots + Ra_n$. By Exercise 3.2.31, $(I:J) = \bigcap_i (I:Ra_i)$. By Part (1) and Step 1,

$$(I:J)S = \bigcap_{i} (I:Ra_i)S = \bigcap_{i} (IS:Ra_iS) = (IS:\sum_{i} Ra_iS) = (IS:JS).$$

In Proposition 7.8.9 we give another proof of Proposition 7.5.11.

PROPOSITION 7.8.9. Let S be a commutative flat R-algebra and M a finitely generated R-module. Then $\operatorname{annih}_R(M)S = \operatorname{annih}_S(M \otimes_R S)$.

PROOF. The proof is by induction on the number of generators of M. Assume M=Ra is a principal R-module. If $\mathfrak{a}=\mathrm{annih}_R(M)$, then $R/\mathfrak{a}=M$. By Corollary 7.8.4, $\mathfrak{a}\otimes_R S=\mathfrak{a}S$. Tensor the exact sequence $0\to\mathfrak{a}\to R\to M\to 0$ with S to get $\mathfrak{a}S=\mathrm{annih}_R(M)S=\mathrm{annih}_S(M\otimes_R S)$. Inductively, assume I and J are finitely generated submodules of M for which the proposition holds. Since S is flat, we view $I\otimes_R S$, $J\otimes_R S$, and $(I+J)\otimes_R S$ as submodules of $M\otimes_R S$. We have

```
\begin{aligned} \operatorname{annih}_R(I+J)S &= \left(\operatorname{annih}_R(I) \cap \operatorname{annih}_R(J)\right) S \quad \text{(Exercise 4.1.26)} \\ &= \operatorname{annih}_R(I)S \cap \operatorname{annih}_R(J)S \quad \text{(Lemma 7.8.8)} \\ &= \operatorname{annih}_S(I \otimes_R S) \cap \operatorname{annih}_S(J \otimes_R S) \quad \text{(Induction Hypothesis)} \\ &= \operatorname{annih}_S(I \otimes_R S + J \otimes_R S) \quad \text{(Exercise 4.1.26)} \\ &= \operatorname{annih}_S\left((I+J) \otimes_R S\right). \end{aligned}
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Hence the proposition holds for I + J.

COROLLARY 7.8.10. Let R be a commutative ring and W a multiplicative set.

(1) If M is a finitely generated R-module, then W^{-1} annih_R(M) = annih_W⁻¹R(W⁻¹M).

(2) If I and J are finitely generated ideals in R, then $W^{-1}(I:J) = (W^{-1}I:W^{-1}J)$.

Proof. (1): Follows from Proposition 7.8.9.

(2): By Exercise 4.1.27, $(I:J) = \operatorname{annih}_R((I+J)/I)$. To complete the proof, apply Part (1).

8.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 7.8.11. Let A be an R-algebra and M a faithfully flat left A-module which is also faithfully flat as a left R-module. Prove that A is a faithfully flat R-algebra.

EXERCISE 7.8.12. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings such that S is a flat R-algebra. Let $V \subseteq R$ and $W \subseteq S$ be multiplicative sets such that $f(V) \subseteq W$. Prove that $W^{-1}S$ is a flat $V^{-1}R$ -module.

EXERCISE 7.8.13. Let R be a ring, M a left R-module, and $a \in R$. Let $\ell_a: M \to M$ be "left multiplication by a". Prove:

- (1) If M is a flat R-module, and $\ell_a: R \to R$ is one-to-one, then $\ell_a: M \to M$ is also one-to-one.
- (2) If R is commutative, A is a flat R-algebra, and $a \in R$ is not a zero divisor, then a is not a zero divisor in A.
- (3) If R is an integral domain and A is a flat R-algebra, then the structure homomorphism $R \to A$ which maps $x \mapsto x \cdot 1$ is one-to-one, hence A is a faithful R-module.

EXERCISE 7.8.14. Let $R \subseteq S$ be an extension of integral domains. Assume R has the property that for every $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$, $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a principal ideal domain (a Dedekind domain has this property). Show that S is a flat R-algebra. (Hint: Use Proposition 7.8.1 to assume R is a local PID. Use Corollary 7.8.4.)

9. Multilinear Algebra

9.1. Graded Algebras. A graded ring is a commutative ring R which under addition is the internal direct sum $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ of a set of additive subgroups $\{R_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ satisfying the property that $R_iR_j \subseteq R_{i+j}$ for all $i,j\geq 0$. The reader should verify (Exercise 7.9.16) that R_0 is a subring of R and each R_n is an R_0 -module. An element of R_n is said to be homogeneous of degree n. The set $R_+ = \bigoplus_{n=1}^{\infty} R_n$ is an ideal of R (Exercise 7.9.17), and is called the exceptional ideal of R. Let R be a graded ring. A graded R-module is an R-module M which under addition is the internal direct sum $M = \bigoplus_{n\in\mathbb{Z}} M_n$ of a set of additive subgroups $\{M_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{Z}}$ and such that $R_iM_j\subseteq M_{i+j}$ for all pairs i,j. The reader should verify that each M_n is an R_0 -module (Exercise 7.9.18). Any $x\in M_n$ is said to be homogeneous of degree n. Every $y\in M$ can be written uniquely as a finite sum $y=\sum_{n=-d}^d y_n$ where $y_n\in M_n$. We call the elements $y_{-d},\ldots,y_0,\ldots,y_d$ the homogeneous components of y. The set of homogeneous elements of M is

$$M^h = \bigcup_{d \in \mathbb{Z}} M_d.$$

Let M and N be graded R-modules and $\theta: M \to N$ an R-module homomorphism. We say θ is a homomorphism of graded R-modules if for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ we have $\theta(M_n) \subseteq N_n$.

Let R be a commutative ring. A $graded\ R$ -algebra is an R-algebra A which as an R-module is the internal direct sum $A=\bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty}A_n$ of a set of R-submodules $\{A_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ satisfying the property that $A_iA_j\subseteq A_{i+j}$ for all $i,j\geq 0$. It follows that A_0 is a subalgebra of A and $R\cdot 1\subseteq A_0$. An element x in A_n is said to be homogeneous of degree n and we write $\deg(x)=n$. Let B be another graded R-algebra, and $\theta:A\to B$ an R-algebra homomorphism. Then θ is a $graded\ R$ -algebra homomorphism in case $\theta(A_i)\subseteq B_i$ for all $i\geq 0$. A $graded\ R$ -subalgebra of A is a subalgebra B of A such that B is a $graded\ R$ -submodule of A. A $graded\ left$ ideal of A is an ideal I of A which is a $graded\ R$ -submodule of A. The definitions for $graded\ right\ ideal\ and\ graded\ two-sided\ ideal\ of\ A$ are similar. If I is a $graded\ two$ -sided ideal of A, the reader should verify that A/I is a $graded\ R$ -algebra. If $\theta:A\to B$ is a $graded\ homomorphism\ of\ graded\ R$ -algebras, the reader should verify that the kernel of θ is a $graded\ two$ -sided ideal of A and the image of θ is a $graded\ subalgebra\ of\ B$.

PROPOSITION 7.9.1. Let R be a commutative ring and A a graded R-algebra. Let S be a set of homogeneous elements of A. The R-subalgebra of A generated by S is a graded subalgebra. The left ideal of A generated by S is a graded left ideal. The right ideal of A generated by S is a graded right ideal. The two-sided ideal of A generated by S is a graded two-sided ideal.

PROOF. Let B denote the R-subalgebra of A generated by S. Let P be the set of all products of finitely many elements of S. Then B is equal to the R-submodule of A generated by $P \cup \{1\}$, which is graded since P consists of homogeneous elements. The rest is left to the reader.

DEFINITION 7.9.2. Let R be a commutative ring. A graded R-algebra A is said to be *anticommutative* if for all homogeneous elements x, y in A

$$xy = (-1)^{\deg(x)\deg(y)}yx.$$

A graded R-algebra A is said to be alternating if A is anticommutative and $x^2 = 0$ for all homogeneous elements x of odd degree.

DEFINITION 7.9.3. Let R be a commutative ring. Let A and B be graded R-algebras. The graded tensor product of A and B, denoted $A \otimes_R B$, is defined by the following rules.

- (1) As an R-module, $A \otimes_R B$ is the usual tensor product.
- (2) As a graded R-module, the homogeneous component of degree n is

$$(A \otimes_R B)_n = \bigoplus_{i+j=n} (A_i \otimes_R B_j).$$

(3) The multiplication rule on $A \otimes_R B$ is defined to be

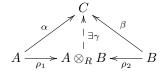
$$(u \otimes x)(v \otimes y) = (-1)^{\deg(x) \deg(v)} uv \otimes xy$$

for homogeneous elements $u, v \in A, x, y \in B$.

The reader should verify that the multiplication rule can be extended to $A \otimes_R B$ and that $A \otimes_R B$ is a graded R-algebra. If A and B are two commutative graded R-algebras, we define the *commutative graded tensor product* of A and B, denoted $A \otimes_R B$, in the same way, except the multiplication rule is induced by $(u \otimes x)(v \otimes y) = uv \otimes xy$.

PROPOSITION 7.9.4. Let R be a commutative ring. Let A and B be graded R-algebras. The graded tensor product $A \otimes_R B$ satisfies the following.

- (1) The assignments $a \mapsto a \otimes 1$, $b \mapsto 1 \otimes b$ are graded R-algebra homomorphisms $\rho_1 : A \to A \otimes_R B$, $\rho_2 : B \to A \otimes_R B$. For any homogeneous elements $x \in A$, $y \in B$, $\rho_1(x)\rho_2(y) = (-1)^{\deg(x)\deg(y)}\rho_2(y)\rho_1(x)$.
- (2) Suppose C is a graded R-algebra and $\alpha: A \to C$, $\beta: B \to C$ are graded R-algebra homomorphisms such that $\alpha(x)\beta(y) = (-1)^{\deg(x)\deg(y)}\beta(y)\alpha(x)$ for any homogeneous $x \in A$, $y \in B$. Then there exists a unique graded R-algebra homomorphism $\gamma: A \otimes_R B \to C$ such that the diagram



commutes.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

- **9.2.** The Tensor Algebra of a Module. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra, and M a left A-module. Then M is a left R-module by the action $rx = (r \cdot 1)x$ for all $r \in R$ and $x \in M$. A two-sided A/R-module is a left A right A bimodule M such that the two induced R-actions are equal. That is, for all $a, b \in A, r \in R, x \in M$:
 - (1) (ax)b = a(xb) and
 - (2) $rx = (r \cdot 1)x = x(r \cdot 1) = xr$.

The enveloping algebra of A is $A^e = A \otimes_R A^o$. If M is a left A^e -module, then we can make M into a two-sided A/R-module by

$$ax = a \otimes 1 \cdot x$$
,

$$xa = 1 \otimes a \cdot x.$$

Conversely, any two-sided A/R-module can be turned into a left A^e -module in the same way.

DEFINITION 7.9.5. Let A be an R-algebra and M a two-sided A/R-module. For $n \geq 0$ we define two-sided A/R-modules $T^n(M)$ as follows. Define $T^0(M)$ to be A, the free two-sided A/R-module of rank one. If n > 0, define $T^n(M)$ to be $M^{\otimes n}$ by which we mean $M \otimes_A \cdots \otimes_A M$, the tensor product of n copies of M. By Lemma 6.4.10, $T^n(M)$ is a two-sided A/R-module. The tensor algebra of M, denoted T(M), is the graded R-algebra defined by the following rules.

- (1) As a graded R-module, T(M) is equal to $\bigoplus_{n>0} T^n(M)$.
- (2) The product rule on T(M) is induced on homogeneous components by

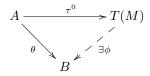
$$T^{i}(M) \otimes_{A} T^{j}(M) \xrightarrow{\eta_{i,j}} T^{i+j}(M)$$

which is a two-sided A/R-module isomorphism.

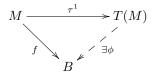
The reader should verify that T(M) is a graded R-algebra, the identity mapping of A onto $T^0(M)$ is a natural R-algebra homomorphism $\tau^0:A\to T(M)$, and the identity mapping of M onto $T^1(M)$ is a two-sided A/R-module homomorphism $\tau^1:M\to T(M)$. In case the rings A and R are ambiguous, we write $T^n_{A/R}(M)$ instead of $T^n(M)$ and $T_{A/R}(M)$ instead of T(M). If A=R, we sometimes write $T^n_R(M)$ instead of $T^n_{A/R}(M)$ and $T_{A/R}(M)$ instead of $T_{A/R}(M)$.

Proposition 7.9.6. Let A be an R-algebra and M a two-sided A/R-module. The tensor algebra satisfies the following.

- (1) The R-algebra T(M) is generated by the set $T^0(M) + T^1(M)$.
- (2) (Universal Mapping Property) For any R-algebra homomorphism $\theta: A \to B$ and two-sided A/R-module homomorphism $f: M \to B$, there exists a unique homomorphism ϕ of both R-algebras and two-sided A/R-modules such that the diagram of R-algebras



commutes and the diagram of two-sided A/R-modules



commutes. Up to an isomorphism of both R-algebras and two-sided A/R-modules, T(M) is uniquely determined by this mapping property.

(3) If $\theta: M \to N$ is a homomorphism of two-sided A/R-modules, then there exists a unique homomorphism $T(\theta)$ of both graded R-algebras and two-sided A/R-modules such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{c|c} M & \xrightarrow{\tau_M} T(M) \\ \theta & & & \downarrow^{T(\theta)} \\ N & \xrightarrow{\tau_N} T(N) \end{array}$$

commutes.

- (4) The assignment $M \mapsto T(M)$ defines a covariant functor from the category of two-sided A/R-modules to the category of graded R-algebras which are also two-sided A/R-modules. The assignment $M \mapsto T^n(M)$ defines a covariant functor from the category of two-sided A/R-modules to the category of two-sided A/R-modules.
- (5) Given an exact sequence of two-sided A/R-modules

$$0 \to K \to M \xrightarrow{\theta} N \to 0$$

the graded R-algebra homomorphism $T(\theta): T(M) \to T(N)$ is onto, and the kernel of $T(\theta)$ is the ideal in T(M) generated by the image of K in $T^1(M)$.

(6) If $R \to S$ is a homomorphism of commutative rings, then for all $n \ge 0$ there is an isomorphism of two-sided $(S \otimes_R A)/S$ -modules

$$S \otimes_R T^n_{A/R}(M) \cong T^n_{S \otimes_R A/S}(S \otimes_R M)$$

and an isomorphism

$$S \otimes_R T_{A/R}(M) \cong T_{S \otimes_R A/S}(S \otimes_R M)$$

of both graded S-algebras and two-sided $(S \otimes_R A)/S$ -modules.

PROOF. (1), (4) and (6): Are left to the reader.

(2): Notice that

$$\phi(x) = \begin{cases} \theta(x) & \text{for all } x \in T^0(M), \\ f(x) & \text{for all } x \in T^1(M) \end{cases}$$

and $T^0(M) + T^1(M)$ contains a generating set for the *R*-algebra T(M). The rest is left to the reader.

- (3): Apply Part (2) to the composite map $M \to N \to T(N)$.
- (5): Use Lemma 7.9.7 below and induction on n to show that $T^n(\theta): T^n(M) \to T^n(N)$ is onto. Since $T(\theta)(K) = 0$, it is clear that the ideal generated by K is in the kernel of $T(\theta)$. Use Lemma 7.9.7 and induction on n to show that the kernel of $T^n(\theta): T^n(M) \to T^n(N)$ is generated by elements of the form $x_1 \otimes x_2 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_n$ where at least one of the x_i is in K. Elements of this form are in the two-sided ideal of T(M) generated by K.

Lemma 7.9.7. Let R be any ring. Let

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \to 0$$

be an exact sequence in \mathfrak{M}_R and

$$0 \to D \xrightarrow{\delta} E \xrightarrow{\epsilon} F \to 0$$

an exact sequence in $_{R}\mathfrak{M}$. Then

$$(A \otimes_R E) \oplus (B \otimes_R D) \xrightarrow{\alpha \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes \delta} B \otimes_R E \xrightarrow{\beta \otimes \epsilon} C \otimes_R F \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of abelian groups.

PROOF. This is a restatement of Exercise 6.4.28.

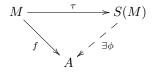
9.3. The Symmetric Algebra of a Module.

DEFINITION 7.9.8. Let R be a commutative ring, M an R-module, and T(M) the tensor algebra of M. Let I be the ideal of T(M) generated by the set $\{x \otimes y - y \otimes x \mid x,y \in T^1(M)\}$. By Proposition 7.9.1, I is a graded ideal of T(M). The symmetric algebra of M, denoted S(M), is the graded R-algebra T(M)/I. The homogeneous component of degree n in S(M) is denoted $S^n(M)$. In case the ring of scalars is ambiguous, we write $S^n_R(M)$ instead of $S^n(M)$ and $S_R(M)$ instead of S(M).

The reader should verify that the sequence $0 \to I \cap T^n(M) \to T^n(M) \to S^n(M) \to 0$ is exact. In particular, $R = S^0(M)$ and $M = S^1(M)$.

PROPOSITION 7.9.9. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. The symmetric algebra of M, S(M), satisfies the following.

- (1) The R-algebra S(M) is generated by the set $M = S^1(M)$.
- (2) S(M) is a commutative graded R-algebra.
- (3) (Universal Mapping Property) Let $\tau: M \to S(M)$ be the identity mapping of M onto $S^1(M)$. For any R-algebra A and R-module homomorphism $f: M \to A$ such that f(x)f(y) = f(y)f(x) for all $x, y \in M$, there exists a unique R-algebra homomorphism ϕ such that the diagram



commutes. Up to an R-algebra isomorphism, S(M) is uniquely determined by this mapping property.

(4) If $\theta: M \to N$ is an R-module homomorphism, then there exists a unique graded R-algebra homomorphism $S(\theta)$ such that the diagram

$$M \xrightarrow{\tau_M} S(M)$$

$$\downarrow S(\theta)$$

$$N \xrightarrow{\tau_N} S(N)$$

commutes.

- (5) S(M) is a covariant functor from the category of R-modules to the category of commutative graded R-algebras. $S^n(M)$ is a covariant functor from the category of R-modules to the category of R-modules.
- (6) Given an exact sequence of R-modules

$$0 \to K \to M \xrightarrow{\theta} N \to 0$$

the graded R-algebra homomorphism $S(\theta): S(M) \to S(N)$ is onto, and the kernel of $S(\theta)$ is the ideal in S(M) generated by the image of K in $S^1(M)$.

- (7) If $R \to T$ is a homomorphism of commutative rings, then for all $n \geq 0$ there is an isomorphism of T-modules $T \otimes_R S_R^n(M) \cong S_T^n(T \otimes_R M)$ and an isomorphism of graded T-algebras $T \otimes_R S_R(M) \cong S_T(T \otimes_R M)$.
- (8) Let M_1 , M_2 be two R-modules. There is a natural isomorphism of graded R-algebras $S(M_1) \otimes_R S(M_2) \cong S(M_1 \oplus M_2)$, where $S(M_1) \otimes_R S(M_2)$ denotes the commutative graded tensor product.

PROOF. (1): Since $T^1(M)$ contains a generating set for the R-algebra T(M), it follows that $S^1(M)$ contains a generating set for the R-algebra S(M).

- (2): For all $x, y \in M = T^1(M)$, $x \otimes y + I = y \otimes x + I$. Use Part (1).
- (3): Apply Proposition 7.9.6 (2) to get $\phi: T(M) \to A$. Check that $I \subseteq \ker(\phi)$, so ϕ factors through S(M).
 - (4), (5) and (7): Are left to the reader.
- (6): Write I(M) for the ideal in T(M) which defines S(M). Similarly, let I(N) denote the ideal in T(N) which defines S(N). By Proposition 7.9.6(5), $T(\theta)$ is onto. Since θ is onto, for any $x,y\in N$, we can write $x=\theta(u)$ and $y=\theta(v)$ for some $u,v\in M$. Therefore, $T(\theta)$ maps $u\otimes v-v\otimes u$ onto $x\otimes y-y\otimes x$. Therefore, the restriction of $T(\theta)$ defines a homomorphism $I(M)\to I(N)$. The diagram of R-modules

commutes and the rows are exact. The three vertical maps are onto. By the Snake Lemma, Theorem 6.6.2, $\ker (T(\theta)) \to \ker (S(\theta))$ is onto. By Proposition 7.9.6 (5), the kernel of $T(\theta)$ is the ideal generated by K. This proves Part (6).

(8): For each j, let $\iota_j: M_j \to M_1 \oplus M_2$ be the natural injection homomorphism. By Part (4), there exists a natural homomorphism of graded rings $S(\iota_j): S(M_j) \to S(M_1 \oplus M_2)$. By Exercise 6.4.35 there exists a unique R-algebra homomorphism

$$S(M_1) \otimes_R S(M_2) \xrightarrow{\gamma} S(M_1 \oplus M_2).$$

The reader should verify that γ is a graded homomorphism of graded R-algebras. To complete the proof, we construct the inverse mapping to γ . By Exercise 6.3.11, there exists a unique R-module homomorphism f such that the diagram

$$M_{j} \xrightarrow{\tau_{j}} S(M_{j}) \xrightarrow{\rho_{j}} S(M_{1}) \otimes_{R} S(M_{2})$$

$$\downarrow_{\iota_{j}} \qquad \qquad \downarrow_{\iota_{j}} \qquad \qquad \downarrow_{I} \qquad$$

commutes. The maps ρ_i are as in Exercise 6.4.35. By Part (3) there exists a unique R-algebra homomorphism ϕ such that the diagram

$$M_1 \oplus M_2 \xrightarrow{f} S(M_1) \otimes_R S(M_2)$$

$$S(M_1 \oplus M_2)$$

commutes. The reader should verify that ϕ is a graded R-algebra homomorphism and that γ and ϕ are inverses of each other.

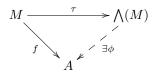
9.4. The Exterior Algebra of a Module.

DEFINITION 7.9.10. Let R be a commutative ring, M an R-module, and T(M)the tensor algebra of M. Let I be the ideal of T(M) generated by the set $\{x \otimes x \mid$ $x \in T^1(M)$. By Proposition 7.9.1, I is a graded ideal of T(M). The exterior algebra of M, denoted $\bigwedge(M)$ (and pronounced "wedge"), is the graded R-algebra T(M)/I. The homogeneous component of degree n in $\Lambda(M)$ is denoted $\Lambda^n(M)$. In case the ring of scalars is ambiguous, we write $\bigwedge_{R}^{n}(M)$ instead of $\bigwedge^{n}(M)$ and $\bigwedge_R(M)$ instead of $\bigwedge(M)$. The coset of $x_1 \otimes x_2 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_n$ in $\bigwedge^n(M)$ is denoted $x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge x_n$.

The reader should verify that the sequence $0 \to I \cap T^n(M) \to T^n(M) \to T^n(M)$ $\bigwedge^n(M) \to 0$ is exact. In particular, $R = \bigwedge^0(M)$ and $M = \bigwedge^1(M)$.

Proposition 7.9.11. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. The exterior algebra of M, $\bigwedge(M)$, satisfies the following.

- (1) The R-algebra Λ(M) is generated by the set M = Λ¹(M).
 (2) (Universal Mapping Property) Let τ : M → Λ(M) be the identity mapping of M onto $\bigwedge^1(M)$. For any R-algebra A and R-module homomorphism $f: M \to A$ such that f(x)f(x) = 0 for all $x \in M$, there exists a unique R-algebra homomorphism ϕ such that the diagram



commutes. Up to an R-algebra isomorphism, $\Lambda(M)$ is uniquely determined by this mapping property.

(3) If $\theta: M \to N$ is an R-module homomorphism, then there exists a unique graded R-algebra homomorphism $\bigwedge(\theta)$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{c|c} M & \stackrel{\tau_M}{\longrightarrow} \bigwedge(M) \\ \theta & & & \bigwedge(\theta) \\ N & \stackrel{\tau_N}{\longrightarrow} \bigwedge(N) \end{array}$$

commutes.

(4) Given an exact sequence of R-modules

$$0 \to K \to M \xrightarrow{\theta} N \to 0$$

the graded R-algebra homomorphism $\bigwedge(\theta): \bigwedge(M) \to \bigwedge(N)$ is onto, and the kernel of $\bigwedge(\theta)$ is the ideal in $\bigwedge(M)$ generated by the image of K in $\bigwedge^1(M)$.

- (5) $\bigwedge(M)$ is an alternating R-algebra.
- (6) If M is a finitely generated R-module which has a generating set consisting of n elements, then $\bigwedge(M)$ is a finitely generated R-module and for all p > n, $\bigwedge^p(M) = 0$.
- (7) $\bigwedge(M)$ is a covariant functor from the category of R-modules to the category of alternating R-algebras. $\bigwedge^n(M)$ is a covariant functor from the category of R-modules to the category of R-modules.
- (8) If $R \to T$ is a homomorphism of commutative rings, then for all $n \geq 0$ there is a natural isomorphism of T-modules $\bigwedge_T^n (T \otimes_R M) \cong T \otimes_R \bigwedge_R^n (M)$ and a natural isomorphism of graded T-algebras $\bigwedge_T (T \otimes_R M) \cong T \otimes_R \bigwedge_R (M)$.
- (9) Let M_1 , M_2 be two R-modules. There is a natural isomorphism of graded R-algebras $\bigwedge(M_1) \otimes_R \bigwedge(M_2) \cong \bigwedge(M_1 \oplus M_2)$, where $\bigwedge(M_1) \otimes_R \bigwedge(M_2)$ denotes the graded tensor product.

PROOF. (1): Is left to the reader.

- (2): Similar to the proof of Proposition 7.9.9 (3).
- (3): Is left to the reader.
- (4): Similar to the proof of Proposition 7.9.9(6).
- (5): Assume m > 0 and n > 0. Let $u \in \bigwedge^m(M)$ and $v \in \bigwedge^n(M)$. Write $u = \sum u_i$ where each u_i is of the form $x_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge x_m$. Likewise, write $v = \sum v_i$ where each v_i is of the form $y_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge y_n$. By Exercise 7.9.27, $u_i \wedge v_j = (-1)^{mn} v_j \wedge u_i$ for each pair i, j. It follows that $u \wedge v = (-1)^{mn} v \wedge u$, so $\bigwedge(M)$ is anticommutative. If m is odd, the reader should verify that $u \wedge u = 0$, hence $\bigwedge(M)$ is alternating.
- (6): Suppose M is generated by x_1, \ldots, x_n . Let $J = \{1, \ldots, n\}$. For all $p \geq 1$, $\bigwedge^p(M)$ is generated by the finite set $\{x_{\sigma_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge x_{\sigma_p} \mid \sigma \in J^p\}$. Suppose $\sigma \in J^p$ and p > n. The pigeon hole principle says that $\sigma_i = \sigma_j$ for some $i \neq j$, and Exercise 7.9.25 says $x_{\sigma_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge x_{\sigma_p} = 0$. That is, $\bigwedge^p(M) = 0$ for all p > n.
 - (7) and (8): Are left to the reader.
- (9): For each j, let $\iota_j: M_j \to M_1 \oplus M_2$ be the natural injection homomorphism. By Part (3), there exists a natural homomorphism of graded rings $\bigwedge(\iota_j): \bigwedge(M_j) \to \bigwedge(M_1 \oplus M_2)$. By Proposition 7.9.4, there exists a unique graded R-algebra homomorphism

$$\bigwedge(M_1) \otimes_R \bigwedge(M_2) \xrightarrow{\gamma} \bigwedge(M_1 \oplus M_2).$$

To complete the proof, we construct the inverse mapping to γ . By Exercise 6.3.11, there exists a unique R-module homomorphism f such that the diagram

$$M_{j} \xrightarrow{\tau_{j}} \bigwedge(M_{j}) \xrightarrow{\rho_{j}} \bigwedge(M_{1}) \otimes_{R} \bigwedge(M_{2})$$

$$\downarrow_{i_{j}} \qquad \qquad \downarrow_{j} \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

commutes. The maps ρ_j are as in Proposition 7.9.4. The reader should verify that the graded tensor product $\bigwedge(M_1) \otimes_R \bigwedge(M_2)$ is alternating. By Part (2) there exists

a unique R-algebra homomorphism ϕ such that the diagram

$$M_1 \oplus M_2 \xrightarrow{f} \bigwedge(M_1) \otimes_R \bigwedge(M_2)$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad$$

commutes. The reader should verify that ϕ is a graded R-algebra homomorphism and that γ and ϕ are inverses of each other.

DEFINITION 7.9.12. Let R be a commutative ring and M and N two R-modules. For $n \geq 1$, let $M^n = M \oplus \cdots \oplus M$ denote the direct sum of n copies of M. As in Definition 4.7.1, an alternating multilinear form is a function $f: M^n \to N$ satisfying the following two properties.

(1) For each coordinate i, f is R-linear. That is,

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, \alpha u + \beta v, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) = \alpha f(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, u, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) + \beta f(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, v, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n).$$

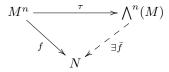
(2) $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = 0$ whenever $x_i = x_j$ for some pair $i \neq j$.

EXAMPLE 7.9.13. Let $\tau: M^n \to \bigwedge^n(M)$ be the composite map

$$M^n \to T^n(M) \to \bigwedge^n(M)$$

defined by $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \mapsto x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_n \mapsto x_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge x_n$. By Definition 6.4.2, Definition 7.9.10, and Exercise 7.9.25 it follows that τ is an alternating multilinear form.

PROPOSITION 7.9.14. (Universal Mapping Property) Let R be a commutative ring and M and N two R-modules. For any alternating multilinear form $f: M^n \to N$ there exists a unique R-module homomorphism $\bar{f}: \bigwedge^n(M) \to N$ such that $\bar{f}\tau = f$.



commutes. Up to an R-module isomorphism, $\bigwedge^n(M)$ is uniquely determined by this mapping property.

PROOF. Since f is multilinear, it factors through the tensor product $T^n(M)$. That is, there exists a unique $f': T^n(M) \to N$ such that the left side of the diagram

$$M^{n} \longrightarrow T^{n}(M) \longrightarrow \bigwedge^{n}(M)$$

$$\downarrow^{f'} \qquad \exists \bar{f}$$

commutes. The reader should verify that $f'(I \cap T^n(M)) = 0$. Therefore, f' factors through $\bigwedge^n(M)$, giving \bar{f} . The map \bar{f} is unique because $\bigwedge^n(M)$ is generated by the image of τ . The last claim is proved as in the proof of Theorem 6.4.3.

Proposition 7.9.15. Let R be a commutative ring, L an invertible R-module, and M a finitely generated projective R-module of constant rank n. Then

$$\bigwedge^{n}(L\otimes_{R}M)=L^{\otimes n}\otimes_{R}\bigwedge^{n}(M).$$

PROOF. Let $\sigma: T^n(L \otimes_R M) \to T^n(L) \otimes_R T^n(M)$ be the R-module isomorphism induced by $(l_1 \otimes x_1, \ldots, l_n \otimes x_n) \mapsto (l_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes l_n) \otimes (x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_n)$. The reader should verify that the composite map

$$(L \otimes_R M)^n \to T^n(L \otimes_R M) \xrightarrow{\sigma} T^n(L) \otimes_R T^n(M) \to T^n(L) \otimes_R \bigwedge^n(M)$$

is alternating multilinear. By Proposition 7.9.14 this map factors through an R-module homomorphism $\bar{f}: \bigwedge^n(L\otimes M)\to T^n(L)\otimes_R\bigwedge^n(M)$. In the special case that M is a free R-module, it follows from Exercise 7.9.28 and Exercise 7.9.30 that \bar{f} is an isomorphism. By Proposition 7.9.11 (8), the exterior power commutes with change of base. Localizing at a prime ideal P of R, the modules M and L are free. Therefore, \bar{f} is locally an isomorphism.

9.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 7.9.16. Let $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ be a graded ring. Show that R_0 is a subring of R and each R_n is an R_0 -module.

EXERCISE 7.9.17. Let $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ be a graded ring. Show that the set $R_+ = \bigoplus_{n=1}^{\infty} R_n$ is an ideal of R.

EXERCISE 7.9.18. Let $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ be a graded ring and $M = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} M_n$ a graded R-module. Show that each M_n is an R_0 -module.

EXERCISE 7.9.19. Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated projective R module with $\operatorname{Rank}_R(M) = n$. Show that $T^r(M)$ is a finitely generated projective R-module and $\operatorname{Rank}_R(T^r(M)) = n^r$.

EXERCISE 7.9.20. Let R be a commutative ring. Let M=Ra be a free R-module of rank 1 with generator a. Show that there is an isomorphism of R-algebras $T(M) \to R[x]$ defined by the assignment $a \mapsto x$.

EXERCISE 7.9.21. Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be a rank one R-progenerator. Use Proposition 7.7.2, Exercise 7.5.28, and Exercise 7.9.20 to prove that the tensor algebra T(M) is commutative.

EXERCISE 7.9.22. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let M be a finitely generated torsion-free R-module. If $K \otimes_R M$ has dimension one over K, prove that the tensor algebra T(M) is commutative.

EXERCISE 7.9.23. Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be a finitely generated free R-module of rank n with basis m_1, \ldots, m_n . Show that there is an isomorphism of R-algebras $S(M) \to k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ defined by the assignments $m_i \mapsto x_i$.

EXERCISE 7.9.24. Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated projective R module with $\operatorname{Rank}_R(M) = n$. Show that $S^r(M)$ is a finitely generated projective R-module and $\operatorname{Rank}_R(S^r(M)) = \binom{n+r-1}{n-1}$.

EXERCISE 7.9.25. Prove that $x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge x_n = 0$, if there exist distinct subscripts i and j such that $x_i = x_j$.

EXERCISE 7.9.26. For any permutation σ of the set $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, show that

$$x_{s_1} \wedge x_{s_2} \wedge \cdots \wedge x_{s_n} = \operatorname{sign}(\sigma) x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge x_n.$$

EXERCISE 7.9.27. For any elements $x_1, \ldots, x_m, y_1, \ldots, y_n \in M$, show that $x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge x_m \wedge y_1 \wedge y_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge y_n = (-1)^{mn} y_1 \wedge y_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge y_n \wedge x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge x_m.$

EXERCISE 7.9.28. Let R be a commutative ring and M a free R-module with basis $\{x_1,\ldots,x_n\}$. Use Proposition 7.9.11 to prove that if $0 \le m \le n$, then $\bigwedge^m(M)$ is a free *R*-module of rank $\binom{n}{m}$ with basis $\{x_{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge x_{i_m} \mid 1 \leq i_1 < \cdots < i_m \leq n\}$.

Exercise 7.9.29. Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated projective R-module. Prove:

- (1) $\bigwedge^m(M)$ is a finitely generated projective R-module.
- (2) $\Lambda(M)$ is a finitely generated projective R-module.
- (3) If M has constant rank n, then $\bigwedge^m(M)$ has constant rank $\binom{n}{m}$ and $\bigwedge(M)$ has constant rank 2^n .

EXERCISE 7.9.30. Let R be a commutative ring and $M = P_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus P_m$, where each P_i is an invertible R-module (see Definition 7.7.6). Prove:

- (1) $\bigwedge^m(M) \cong P_1 \otimes_R P_2 \otimes_R \cdots \otimes_R P_m$. (2) Suppose $N = Q_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Q_n$, where each Q_i is an invertible R-module. If $M \cong N$, then m = n and $P_1 \otimes_R P_2 \otimes_R \cdots \otimes_R P_m \cong Q_1 \otimes_R Q_2 \otimes_R \cdots \otimes_R Q_n$.

Exercise 7.9.31. Let R be a commutative ring, S a commutative R-algebra, and M an S-module. Show that $T_R^n(M)$ is a left $T_R^n(S)$ -module where the multiplication rule is $(s_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes s_n)(x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_n) = (s_1 x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes s_n x_n)$. Prove the following.

- (1) If M is a finitely generated S-module, then $T_R^n(M)$ is a finitely generated $T_R^n(S)$ -module.
- (2) If M is a projective S-module, then $T_R^n(M)$ is a projective $T_R^n(S)$ -module.
- (3) If M is an S-module generator, then $T_R^n(M)$ is a $T_R^n(S)$ -module generator.
- (4) If A is an S-algebra, then $T_R^n(A)$ is a $T_R^n(S)$ -algebra.

EXERCISE 7.9.32. Let R be a commutative ring and $M = R^n$ the free R-module of rank n. Let $\theta: M \to M$ be an R-module homomorphism, and $\bigwedge^n(\theta): \bigwedge^n(M) \to M$ $\bigwedge^n(M)$ the R-module homomorphism guaranteed by Proposition 7.9.11 (3). By Exercise 7.9.28, $\bigwedge^n(M) \cong R$. Show that $\bigwedge^n(\theta): R \to R$ is left multiplication by $det(\theta)$, the determinant of θ (Section 4.7.1).

CHAPTER 8

Artinian and Noetherian Rings and Modules

1. The Jacobson Radical and Nakayama's Lemma

DEFINITION 8.1.1. Let R be any ring and M a left R-module. If N is a submodule of M, then N is called maximal in case $N \neq M$ and whenever there is a submodule P such that $N \subseteq P \subseteq M$, then N = P or P = M. If $N \subseteq M$ is a maximal submodule of M, then N/M is simple. The $Jacobson\ radical$ of M is

$$J(M) = \bigcap \{N \mid N \text{ is a maximal submodule of } M\}$$
$$= \bigcap \{\ker f \mid f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, S) \text{ and } S \text{ is simple} \}.$$

By J(R) we denote the Jacobson radical of R viewed as a left R-module. Then J(R) is equal to the intersection of all maximal left ideals of R.

Lemma 8.1.2. J(R) is a two-sided ideal of R.

PROOF. For any R-module M, let $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$, let S be any simple R-module and let $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,S)$. Then $f \circ g \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,S)$ so $\operatorname{J}(M) \subseteq \ker(f \circ g)$. Then $f(g(\operatorname{J}(M))) = 0$ for all f. That is, $g(\operatorname{J}(M)) \subseteq \operatorname{J}(M)$. Given $r \in R$, let $\rho_r \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(R,R)$ be "right multiplication by r" (Lemma 6.5.7). Then $\rho_r(\operatorname{J}(R)) = \operatorname{J}(R) \cdot r \subseteq \operatorname{J}(R)$.

Theorem 8.1.3. (Nakayama's Lemma) Let R be any ring and I a left ideal of R. The following are equivalent.

- (1) $I \subseteq J(R)$.
- (2) $1 + I = \{1 + x \mid x \in I\} \subseteq \text{Units}(R)$.
- (3) If M is a finitely generated left R-module and IM = M, then M = 0.
- (4) If M is a finitely generated left R-module and N is a submodule of M and IM + N = M, then N = M.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Let $x \in I$. Assume 1+x has no left inverse. Then $R(1+x) \neq R$. By Zorn's Lemma, Proposition 1.3.3, R(1+x) is contained in some maximal left ideal L of R. Then $1+x=y\in L$. But $I\subseteq J(R)\subseteq L$. So $x\in L$. Therefore $1=y-x\in L$. This contradiction means there exists $u\in R$ such that u(1+x)=1. We show u has a left inverse. Since 1=u+ux, $u=1-ux=1+(-u)x\in 1+I$ and by the previous argument, u has a left inverse. Then $u\in \mathrm{Units}(R)$ and $1+x=u^{-1}$.

- (2) implies (1): Assume L is a maximal left ideal and L does not contain I. Then I + L = R, so 1 = x + y for some $x \in I$ and $y \in L$. Hence $y = 1 x = 1 + (-x) \in 1 + I \subseteq \text{Units}(R)$, a contradiction.
- (1) plus (2) implies (3): Assume IM = M and prove that M = 0. Now $I \subseteq J(R)$ and IM = M implies $J(R)M \subseteq M = IM \subseteq J(R)M$. Therefore J(R)M = M. Assume $M \neq 0$. Pick a generating set $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ for M with $n \geq 1$ minimal. A

typical element of M looks like $\sum_{i=1}^n r_i x_i$, $r_i \in R$. A typical element of J(R)M looks like $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i r_i x_i$, $a_i \in J(R)$. By Lemma 8.1.2, $b_i = a_i r_i \in J(R)$, so each element of J(R)M can be written in the form $\sum_{i=1}^n b_i x_i$, $b_i \in J(R)$. In particular, $x_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i x_i$, some $b_i \in J(R)$. Then $x_1(1-b_1) = \sum_{i=2}^n b_i x_i$. Now $1-b_1 \in 1+I$, so $1-b_1$ is a unit. This shows that M is generated by x_2, \ldots, x_n . This contradiction implies M=0.

(3) implies (4): Since M is finitely generated so is M/N. Then

$$I(M/N) = \frac{IM + N}{N} = M/N$$

and by (3) we conclude that M/N = 0, or N = M.

(4) implies (1): Assume L is a maximal left ideal of R and that L does not contain I. Then I + L = R. Apply (4) with L = N, R = M. Since $IR \supseteq I$ we have IR + L = R so L = R, a contradiction.

Corollary 8.1.4. Let

$$J_r(R) = \bigcap \{I \mid I \text{ is a maximal right ideal of } R\}.$$

Then $J_r(R) = J(R)$.

PROOF. By Lemma 8.1.2 both $J_r(R)$ and J(R) are two-sided ideals of R. It follows from Theorem 8.1.3(2) that 1 + J(R) consists of units of R. Apply a right-sided version of Theorem 8.1.3 to the right ideal J(R) and conclude that $J(R) \subseteq J_r(R)$. The converse follows by symmetry.

COROLLARY 8.1.5. If I is a left ideal of R which consists of nilpotent elements, then $I \subseteq J(R)$.

PROOF. Let $a \in I$ and assume $a^n = 0$ for some $n \ge 1$. Then $(1-a)(1+a+a^2+\cdots+a^{n-1})=1$. So $1+I \subseteq \mathrm{Units}(R)$.

COROLLARY 8.1.6. If R is artinian, then J(R) is nilpotent.

PROOF. Consider the chain of left ideals

$$J(R) \supset J(R)^2 \supset J(R)^3 \supset \dots$$

There is some $n \geq 1$ such that $J(R)^n = J(R)^{n+1}$. Assume $J(R)^n \neq 0$. Since R is artinian, by Lemma 7.6.3, the minimum condition is satisfied on left ideals. Consider the set \mathcal{L} of all finitely generated left ideals L such that $J(R)^n L \neq 0$. Since $J(R)^n = J(R)^n J(R) \neq 0$, there exists $a \in J(R)$ such that $J(R)^n Ra \neq 0$. Since $Ra \in \mathcal{L}$, the set is nonempty. Pick a minimal element L of \mathcal{L} . Now $J(R)^n L \subseteq L$. Since $L \neq 0$, Theorem 8.1.3 (3) says $J(R)^n L$ is a proper subset of L. But $J(R)^n (J(R)^n L) = J(R)^{2n} L = J(R)^n L \neq 0$. There exists $a \in J(R)^n L$ such that $J(R)^n Ra \neq 0$. So $Ra \in \mathcal{L}$. But $Ra \subseteq J(R)^n L \subsetneq L$. This is a contradiction, because L is minimal. We conclude $J(R)^n = 0$.

COROLLARY 8.1.7. Let R be a ring.

- (1) If M is a maximal two-sided ideal of R, then $J(R) \subseteq M$.
- (2) If $f: R \to S$ is an epimorphism of rings, then $f(J(R)) \subseteq J(S)$.
- (3) If R is commutative and A is an R-algebra which is finitely generated as an R-module, then $J(R)A \subseteq J(A)$.

PROOF. (1): Assume the contrary. The ideal J(R) + M is a two-sided ideal of R. Since M is maximal, J(R) + M = R. By Theorem 8.1.3(4), M = R, a contradiction.

- (2): Let $x \in J(R)$ and $a \in R$. By Theorem 8.1.3, $1 + ax \in Units(R)$, so $f(1 + ax) = 1 + f(a)f(x) \in Units(S)$. Therefore the left ideal Sf(x) is contained in J(S).
- (3): Let M be a finitely generated left A-module. Then M is finitely generated as an R-module. If (J(R)A)M = M, then J(R)(AM) = J(R)M = M. By (1) implies (3) of Theorem 8.1.3, M = 0. By (3) implies (1) of Theorem 8.1.3, $J(R)A \subseteq J(A)$.
- **1.1.** Idempotents and the Jacobson Radical. As in Section 7.3.1, if R is a ring, then $\mathrm{idemp}(R) = \{x \in R \mid x^2 x = 0\}$ denotes the set of idempotents of R. The homomorphic image of an idempotent is an idempotent, so given a homomorphism of rings $A \to B$, there is a function $\mathrm{idemp}(A) \to \mathrm{idemp}(B)$. If this function is onto, then we say idempotents of B lift to idempotents of A. Corollary 8.1.8 is a corollary to Theorem 8.1.3, Nakayama's Lemma. It provides useful sufficient conditions for lifting idempotents modulo an ideal.

COROLLARY 8.1.8. Let R be a ring and I a two-sided ideal of R.

- (1) If R is commutative and $I \subseteq J(R)$, then $idemp(R) \to idemp(R/I)$ is one-to-one.
- (2) If I consists of nilpotent elements, then $idemp(R) \rightarrow idemp(R/I)$ is onto.

PROOF. (1): Let $e_0, e_1 \in \text{idemp}(R)$ and assume $x = e_0 - e_1 \in I$. We show that x = 0. Look at

$$x^{3} = e_{0}^{3} - 3e_{0}^{2}e_{1} + 3e_{0}e_{1}^{2} - e_{1}^{3}$$

$$= e_{0} - 3e_{0}e_{1} + 3e_{0}e_{1} - e_{1}$$

$$= e_{0} - e_{1}$$

$$= r$$

Then $x(x^2-1)=0$. By Theorem 8.1.3, x^2-1 is a unit, which implies that x=0. (2): Assume I consists of nilpotent elements. By Corollary 8.1.5, $I\subseteq J(R)$. If $x\in R$, denote by $\bar x$ the image of x in R/I. Assume $\bar x^2=\bar x$. It follows that $(1-\bar x)^2=1-\bar x$. Since $x-x^2\in I$, for some n>0 we have $(x-x^2)^n=x^n(1-x)^n=0$. Set $e_0=x^n$ and $e_1=(1-x)^n$. Then $e_0e_1=e_1e_0=0$, $\bar e_0=\bar x^n=\bar x$, and $\bar e_1=(1-\bar x)^n=1-\bar x$. This says that $e_0+e_1-1\in I$, so by Theorem 8.1.3, $u=e_0+e_1$ is a unit in R. We have $1=e_0u^{-1}+e_1u^{-1}=u^{-1}e_0+u^{-1}e_1$, hence $e_0=e_0^2u^{-1}=u^{-1}e_0^2$, and $e_0u=e_0^2=ue_0$. We have shown that e_0 commutes with u. From this it follows that e_0u^{-1} is an idempotent of R. Since $\bar u=1$, $\bar e_0\bar u^{-1}=\bar x$. \square

1.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 8.1.9. Let R be a ring, I an ideal contained in J(R), and $\eta: R \to R/I$ the natural map. Prove the following generalization of Exercise 3.2.29:

- (1) If $\eta(r)$ is a unit in R/I, then r is a unit in R.
- (2) The natural map $\eta: \mathrm{Units}(R) \to \mathrm{Units}(R/I)$ is onto and the kernel is

EXERCISE 8.1.10. Let R be a ring and $J(R) \supseteq B \supseteq A$ a chain of ideals. Prove this generalization of Exercise 4.3.10: Units $(R) \supseteq 1+B \supseteq 1+A$ is a series of normal

subgroups and the quotient group (1+B)/(1+A) is isomorphic to 1+(B/A). (Hint: Show that the image of the natural map $1+B \to \text{Units}(R/A)$ is 1+(B/A).)

EXERCISE 8.1.11. Let $R = R_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_n$ be a direct sum, where each R_i is a commutative local ring. Prove that a finitely generated projective R-module M of constant rank r is a free R-module of rank r.

Exercise 8.1.12. Let R be a commutative semilocal ring. Prove:

- (1) R/J(R) is isomorphic to a finite direct sum of fields.
- (2) If M is a finitely generated projective R-module of constant rank r, then M is a free R-module of rank r. (Hint: Mimic the proof of Proposition 7.4.2.)

EXERCISE 8.1.13. Let R be a ring. Prove that $J(M_n(R)) = M_n(J(R))$. (Hint: First show that if S is a simple left R-module, then S^n is a simple left $M_n(R)$ -module.)

EXERCISE 8.1.14. Let R be a ring and I a two-sided ideal of R such that $I \subseteq \mathcal{J}(R)$. Let $M, N \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}$ and $\theta: N \to M$ a homomorphism of left R-modules. Let $1 \otimes \theta: R/I \otimes_R N \to R/I \otimes_R M$ be the homomorphism of R/I-modules induced by tensoring with $R/I \otimes_R ($).

- (1) Assuming M is finitely generated as an R-module, prove that θ is onto if and only if $1 \otimes \theta$ is onto.
- (2) Assuming M and N are finitely generated projective R-modules, prove that θ is an isomorphism if and only if $1 \otimes \theta$ is an isomorphism.

2. Semisimple Modules and Semisimple Rings

Theorem 8.2.1. Let R be a ring and M a nonzero R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) $M = \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$ is the internal direct sum of a family of simple submodules $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$.
- (2) $M = \sum_{i \in I} M_i$ is the sum of a family of simple submodules $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$.
- (3) Every submodule of M is a direct summand of M.

PROOF. (2) clearly follows from (1).

(2) implies (1): Assume $M = \sum_{i \in I} M_i$ and each M_i is a simple submodule of M. By Zorn's Lemma, Proposition 1.3.3, choose a maximal subset $J \subseteq I$ such that the sum $\sum_{i \in J} M_i$ is a direct sum. Assume $\sum_{i \in J} M_i \neq M$. Then there is some $k \in I$ such that M_k is not contained in $\sum_{i \in J} M_i$. Since M_k is simple,

$$\left(\sum_{i\in I} M_i\right)\bigcap M_k = 0.$$

In this case, the sum $(\sum_{i \in J} M_i) + M_k$ is a direct sum which contradicts the choice of J.

(1) plus (2) implies (3): Then M is an internal direct sum of simple submodules $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$. Let N be a submodule of M. If N = M, then we are done. Assume $N \neq M$. For each $i \in I$, $M_i \cap N$ is a submodule of M_i hence $M_i \cap N = 0$ or $M_i \cap N = M_i$. Then for some $k \in I$ we have $M_k \cap N = 0$. Choose a maximal subset $J \subseteq I$ such that

$$(2.1) \qquad (\sum_{i \in J} M_i) \bigcap N = 0.$$

Let

$$N' = \left(\sum_{i \in J} M_i\right) + N.$$

If N' = M, then $M = (\sum_{i \in J} M_i) \oplus N$ and we are done. Otherwise for some index $k \in I$, $M_k \cap N' = 0$. Consider

$$x \in \left(\sum_{i \in J} M_i + M_k\right) \cap N.$$

Write $x = x_0 + x_k$ where $x_0 \in \sum_{i \in J} M_i$ and $x_k \in M_k$. So $x_k = x - x_0 \in N' \cap M_k = 0$. By (2.1) we see that x = 0. Then $J \cup \{k\}$ satisfies (2.1) which contradicts the choice of J.

(3) implies (2): Let $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ be the family of all simple submodules of M. Set $N = \sum_i M_i$. Assume $N \neq M$. By (3), $M = N \oplus N'$ for some nonzero submodule N'. To finish the proof, it is enough to show the existence of a simple submodule of N'. Let $x \in N' - (0)$. Being a direct summand of M, N' satisfies (3) (the reader should verify this). Therefore $N' = Rx \oplus N''$. Let L be a maximal left ideal of R such that L contains annihR(x). Then R/L is simple. The diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow L \longrightarrow R \longrightarrow R/L \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad$$

commutes. The rows are exact. The vertical maps α and β are onto, therefore η is onto. Since $x \notin Lx$, we know Rx/Lx is not zero. Then η is not the zero map. Since R/L is simple, η is an isomorphism. Applying (3) to Rx gives $Rx = Lx \oplus S$ where $S \cong Rx/Lx$ is a simple R-submodule of Rx. But then N' contains S, so we are done.

DEFINITION 8.2.2. Let R be a ring and M an R-module. If M satisfies any of the properties of Theorem 8.2.1, then M is called *semisimple*.

Theorem 8.2.3. Let R be a ring. The following conditions are equivalent.

- (1) Every left R-module is projective.
- (2) Every short exact sequence of left R-modules splits.
- (3) Every left R-module is semisimple.
- (4) R is semisimple when viewed as a left R-module.
- (5) R is artinian and J(R) = 0.

PROOF. The reader should verify that (3) implies (4) and that the first three statements are equivalent.

- (4) implies (1): Let M be a left R-module. Let I=M and $F=R^I$. As in the proof of Proposition 6.2.3, there is an R-module homomorphism $\pi: F \to M$ which is surjective. Because R is semisimple, R is the internal direct sum of simple R-submodules. So F is an internal direct sum of simple R-modules. So F is semisimple and $\ker \pi$ is a direct summand of F. Then $F \cong \ker \pi \oplus M$, hence M is projective.
- (4) implies (5): Since J(R) is a submodule of R, it is an internal direct summand of R. For some left ideal L we have $R = J(R) \oplus L$. By Lemma 7.2.4, $J(R) = Re_1$ and $L = Re_2$ and $e_1e_2 = 0$ and $1 = e_1 + e_2$. By Nakayama's Lemma (Theorem 8.1.3), e_2 is a unit in R. Therefore $e_1 = 0$ and J(R) = 0. To show that R is artinian,

assume $I_1 \supseteq I_2 \supseteq I_3 \dots$ is a descending chain of ideals. Since R is semisimple as an R-module, I_1 is a direct summand of R, and we can write $R = L_0 \oplus I_1$. Also, I_2 is a direct summand of I_1 , so $R = L_0 \oplus L_1 \oplus I_2$. For each index i, I_{i+1} is a direct summand of I_i and we can write $I_i = L_i \oplus I_{i+1}$. Each $L_i = Re_i$ for some idempotent e_i and $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} L_i$ is a direct summand of R. That is,

$$R = \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} L_i\right) \oplus L$$

for some L. The representation of 1 in the direct sum involves only a finite number of the e_i , and the rest are 0.

(5) implies (4): We show that R is the direct sum of a finite collection of minimal left ideals and apply Theorem 8.2.1 (1). Let L_1 be a minimal left ideal of R. This exists since R is artinian. Since J(R)=0 it follows from Corollary 8.1.5 that $L_1^2 \neq 0$. By Lemma 7.2.4 (3), there is a left ideal I_1 and $R=L_1 \oplus I_1$. If $I_1=0$, then we are done. Otherwise, by the minimum condition, there is a minimal left ideal L_2 of R contained in I_1 . Again from Lemma 7.2.4 we have $R=L_2 \oplus J$ for some J. There exists an R-module homomorphism $\pi:R\to L_2$ which splits $L_2\subseteq R$. The restriction of π to I_1 is therefore a splitting of $L_2\subseteq I_1$. Therefore, $I_1=L_2\oplus I_2$, where $I_2=\{x\in I_1\mid \pi(x)=0\}=I_1\cap\ker\pi$. Hence $R=L_1\oplus L_2\oplus I_2$ where L_1,L_2 are minimal ideals in R. If $I_2=0$, then we are done. Otherwise we continue inductively to get $R=L_1\oplus\cdots\oplus L_n\oplus I_n$ where each L_i is a minimal left ideal. After a finite number of iterations, the process terminates with $I_n=0$ because R is artinian and $I_1\supseteq I_2\supseteq\cdots\supseteq I_n$ is a descending chain of ideals. \square

DEFINITION 8.2.4. The ring R is called *semisimple* if R satisfies any of the equivalent conditions of Theorem 8.2.3.

EXAMPLE 8.2.5. Let R be an artinian ring. Then R/J(R) satisfies Theorem 8.2.3 (5), hence is semisimple.

3. Simple Rings and the Wedderburn-Artin Theorem

DEFINITION 8.3.1. A ring R is called *simple* if R is artinian and the only two-sided ideals of R are 0 and R. Since J(R) is a two-sided ideal, a simple ring satisfies Theorem 8.2.3 (5) hence is semisimple.

EXAMPLE 8.3.2. Let D be a division ring and M a finite dimensional D-vector space. Let $S = \operatorname{Hom}_D(M, M)$. By Exercise 7.6.34, S is artinian. By Corollary 6.9.4 it follows that there is a one-to-one correspondence between two-sided ideals of D and two-sided ideals of S. Since D is a simple ring, it follows that S is a simple ring. We prove the converse of this fact in Theorem 8.3.5.

Theorem 8.3.3. Let A be an artinian ring and let R be a semisimple ring.

- (1) Every simple left R-module is isomorphic to a minimal left ideal of R.
- (2) R is a finite direct sum of simple rings.
- (3) R is simple if and only if all simple left R-modules are isomorphic.
- (4) If A is simple, then every nonzero A-module is faithful.
- (5) If there exists a simple faithful A-module, then A is simple.

PROOF. (1): Let R be a semisimple ring. By the proof of Theorem 8.2.3 there are idempotents e_1, \ldots, e_n such that each Re_i is a minimal left ideal of R and $R = Re_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Re_n$. Let S be any simple left R-module. Let x be a nonzero

element of S. Then for some e_i we have $e_i x \neq 0$. The R-module homomorphism $Re_i \to S$ defined by $re_i \mapsto re_i x$ is an isomorphism because both modules are simple. This proves (1).

(2): Let S_1, \ldots, S_m be representatives for the distinct isomorphism classes of simple left R-modules. By (1) there are only finitely many such isomorphism classes. For each i, define

$$R_i = \sum_{j} \{L_{ij} \mid L_{ij} \text{ is a left ideal of } R \text{ and } L_{ij} \cong S_i \}.$$

We proceed in four steps to show that $R = R_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_m$ and each R_i is a simple ring.

Step 1: R_i is a two-sided ideal. By definition, R_i is a left ideal of R. Pick any L_{ij} . Let $r \in R$ and consider the R-module homomorphism $\rho_r : L_{ij} \to R$ which is "right multiplication by r". Since L_{ij} is simple, either $\ker \rho_r = L_{ij}$ and $L_{ij}r \subseteq L_{ij}$, or $\ker \rho_r = 0$ and $L_{ij} \cong L_{ij}r$. In the latter case, the left ideal L_{ij} is isomorphic to some L_{ik} . In both cases, $L_{ij}r \subseteq R_i$ which shows $R_ir \subseteq R_i$ and R_i is a two-sided ideal of R.

Step 2: Let L be a minimal left ideal of R contained in R_i . We show that $L \cong S_i$. Since L is idempotent generated, there is some $e \in L$ such that $e^2 = e \neq 0$. Since $e \in L \subseteq R_i$, the R-module homomorphism $\rho_e : R_i \to L$ is nonzero. Since R_i is generated by the ideals L_{ij} , there is some j such that $L_{ij}e \neq 0$. The map $\rho_e : L_{ij} \to L$ is an isomorphism. Therefore $L \cong S_i$.

Step 3: $R = R_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_m$. Clearly $R = R_1 + \cdots + R_m$. For contradiction's sake, assume $R_1 \cap (R_2 + \cdots + R_m) \neq 0$. Let L be a minimal left ideal of R contained in $R_1 \cap (R_2 + \cdots + R_m)$. By Step 2, $L \cong S_1$. There is an idempotent e such that L = Re. As in Step 2, the map $\rho_e : R_2 + \cdots + R_m \to L$ is nonzero. Hence there exists L_{ik} such that $2 \leq i \leq m$ and $\rho_e : L_{ik} \to L$ is an isomorphism. This is a contradiction, since S_1 and S_i are not isomorphic. Therefore $R_1 \cap (R_2 + \cdots + R_m) = 0$. By induction on m, this step is done.

Step 4: Fix i and show that R_i is simple. By Theorem 8.2.3, R is artinian. Let I be a nonzero two-sided ideal in R_i . To show $I = R_i$, the plan is to show I contains each of the ideals L_{ij} . By Step 3 and Theorem 3.3.5, ideals of R_i are also ideals in R. In particular, I is a two-sided ideal in R. Let L be any minimal left ideal of R contained in I. By Step 2, $L = L_{ik}$ for some k. There exists an idempotent e such that $L_{ik} = Re$. Let L_{ij} be another minimal left ideal in R_i . There is an R-module isomorphism $\phi: I_{ik} \cong I_{ij}$. We have

$$L_{ij} = \operatorname{im} \phi$$

$$= \{ \phi(re) \mid r \in R \}$$

$$= \{ \phi(ree) \mid r \in R \}$$

$$= \{ re\phi(e) \mid r \in R \}.$$

Since e belongs to the two-sided ideal I, $L_{ij} \subseteq I$. Thus $I = R_i$.

- (4): Assume A is simple. Let M be any nonzero left A-module. Let $I = \operatorname{annih}_A(M)$, a two-sided ideal of A. Since $1 \notin I$, it follows that $I \neq A$. Therefore I = 0 and M is faithful.
- (3): By (2) we can write $R = R_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_m$ as a direct sum of simple rings. If all simple left R-modules are isomorphic, then m = 1 and R is simple. Now say R is simple and L is a simple left R-module. We know that m = 1, otherwise R_1 is a

proper two-sided ideal. Then $L \cong L_{1j}$ for some j and all simple left R-modules are isomorphic.

(5): Assume A is artinian and S is a simple faithful left A-module. Since S is simple, J(A)S is either 0 or S. Since S is simple and faithful, S is nonzero and generated by one element. By Theorem 8.1.3 (3) we know $J(A)S \neq S$. So J(A)S = 0. Since S is faithful, J(A) = 0. This proves A is semisimple. By (2) $A = A_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus A_n$ where each A_i is a two-sided ideal of A. Assume $n \geq 2$. By (1), we assume without loss of generality that $S \cong S_1$. Then $A_1S = S$. Since the ideals are two-sided, $A_2A_1 \subseteq A_1 \cap A_2 = 0$. Therefore $O = (A_2A_1)S = A_2(A_1S) = A_2S$. So $A_2 \subseteq \operatorname{annih}_A(S)$. This contradiction implies n = 1, and A is simple.

LEMMA 8.3.4. (Schur's Lemma) Let R be any ring and M a simple left R-module. Then $S = \text{Hom}_R(M, M)$ is a division ring.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

THEOREM 8.3.5. (Wedderburn-Artin) Let R be a simple ring. Then $R \cong \operatorname{Hom}_D(M,M)$ for a finite dimensional vector space M over a division ring D. The division ring D and the dimension $\dim_D(M)$ are uniquely determined by R.

PROOF. Since R is semisimple, by the proof of Theorem 8.2.3 there are idempotents e_1, \ldots, e_n such that each $L_i = Re_i$ is a minimal left ideal of R and $R = Re_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Re_n$ is an R-module direct sum. But R is simple, so $L_1 \cong \ldots \cong L_n$ by Theorem 8.3.3. Set $M = L_1$ and $D = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)$. By Lemma 8.3.4, D is a division ring. Since $L_1 = Re_1$ for some idempotent e_1 , M is finitely generated. By Theorem 8.2.3, M is projective. By Lemma 6.2.10, the trace ideal of M is a two-sided ideal of R. Since R is simple, M is a generator over R. By Morita Theory, Corollary 6.9.3 (1), $R \cong \operatorname{Hom}_D(M, M)$. By Corollary 6.9.3 (5), M is a finitely generated D-vector space.

To prove the uniqueness claims, assume D' is another division ring and M' is a finite dimensional D'-vector space and $\operatorname{Hom}_D(M,M) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{D'}(M',M')$. By Morita Theory, $D' \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M',M')$ and M' is an R-progenerator. We know M' is a simple R-module, otherwise M' would have a nontrivial direct summand and $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M',M')$ would contain noninvertible elements. Since R is simple, by Theorem 8.3.3, $M \cong M'$ as R-modules.

3.1. Central Simple Algebras.

DEFINITION 8.3.6. Let k be a field and A a k-algebra. We say A is a *central simple k-algebra* if these three conditions are met:

- (1) A is a simple ring.
- (2) A is a central k-algebra.
- (3) $\dim_k(A) < \infty$.

Example 8.3.7. It follows from Example 8.3.2 that the ring of matrices $M_n(k)$ over a field k is a central simple k-algebra. If A is a central simple k-algebra, then by Theorem 8.3.5 we know $A \cong \operatorname{Hom}_D(E, E)$ where D is a division ring and E is a finite dimensional D-vector space. The reader should verify that $\dim_k(D) < \infty$ and Z(D) = k.

PROPOSITION 8.3.8. Let k be an algebraically closed field and A a central simple k-algebra. Then $A \cong M_n(k)$ for some n.

PROOF. Let D be the division algebra component of A. Let $\alpha \in D$. Because D is a finite dimensional division algebra over k, $k[\alpha]$ is an algebraic field extension of k. Because k is algebraically closed, $\alpha \in k$. Therefore, k = D.

Theorem 8.3.9. Let k be a field and let A and B be simple k-algebras. If A is a central simple k-algebra, then

- (1) $A \otimes_k B$ is a simple ring.
- (2) $Z(A \otimes_k B) = Z(B)$.

PROOF. (1): Let I be a nonzero two-sided ideal in $A \otimes_k B$. Let x be a nonzero element of I. Then there are a_1, \ldots, a_n in A and there are k-linearly independent b_1, \ldots, b_n in B such that $x = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \otimes b_i$. Choose x such that n is minimal. Since A is simple, the principal ideal Aa_1A is the unit ideal. Pick $r_1, \ldots, r_m, s_1, \ldots, s_m$ in A such that $\sum_j r_j a_1 s_j = 1$. Since $(r_j \otimes 1)x(s_j \otimes 1) \in I$ for each j,

$$y = \sum_{j} (r_{j} \otimes 1) x (s_{j} \otimes 1)$$

$$= \sum_{j} ((r_{j} \otimes 1) (\sum_{i} a_{i} \otimes b_{i}) (s_{j} \otimes 1))$$

$$= \sum_{j} \sum_{i} (r_{j} a_{i} s_{j} \otimes b_{i})$$

$$= \sum_{i} ((\sum_{j} r_{j} a_{i} s_{j}) \otimes b_{i})$$

$$= 1 \otimes b_{1} + a'_{2} \otimes b_{2} + \dots + a'_{n} \otimes b_{n}$$

is an element of I for some a'_2, \ldots, a'_n in A. For all $a \in A$ we have

$$(a \otimes 1)y - y(a \otimes 1) = a \otimes b_1 + aa'_2 \otimes b_2 + \dots + aa'_n \otimes b_n$$
$$- (a \otimes b_1 + a'_2 a \otimes b_2 + \dots + a'_n a \otimes b_n)$$
$$= (aa'_2 - a'_2 a) \otimes b_2 + \dots + (aa'_n - a'_n a) \otimes b_n$$

is in *I*. Because the length *n* of *x* was minimal, $(a \otimes 1)y - y(a \otimes 1) = 0$. Because b_1, \ldots, b_n are *k*-linearly independent in *B*, it follows that $1 \otimes b_1, \ldots, 1 \otimes b_n$ are *A*-linearly independent in $A \otimes_k B$. It follows that $aa'_i = a'_i a$ for all $a \in A$ and all $2 \leq i \leq n$. That is to say, each a'_i is in Z(A) = k. In that case we can write

$$y = 1 \otimes b_1 + 1 \otimes a'_2 b_2 + \dots + 1 \otimes a'_n b_n$$
$$= 1 \otimes (b_1 + a'_2 b_2 + \dots + a'_n b_n)$$
$$= 1 \otimes b$$

where b is nonzero because $b_1 \neq 0$ and the set $\{b_i\}$ is k-linearly independent. Since B is simple, there exist $u_1, \ldots, u_p, v_1, \ldots, v_p \in B$ such that $\sum_j u_j b v_j = 1$. Now $y = 1 \otimes b$ is in the ideal I, so

$$\sum_{j} ((1 \otimes u_j)(1 \otimes b)(1 \otimes v_j)) = 1 \otimes \sum_{j} u_j b v_j = 1 \otimes 1$$

is in *I*. This shows $I = A \otimes_k B$.

(2): It is easy to see that $1 \otimes_k Z(B) \subseteq Z(A \otimes_k B)$. Let $x \in Z(A \otimes_k B)$. Assume $x \neq 0$ and write $x = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \otimes b_i$ where we assume b_1, \ldots, b_n are linearly

independent over k. For each $a \in A$ we have

$$0 = (a \otimes 1)x - x(a \otimes 1)$$

$$= aa_1 \otimes b_1 + \dots + aa_n \otimes b_n - (a_1 a \otimes b_1 + \dots + a_n a \otimes b_n)$$

$$= (aa_1 - a_1 a) \otimes b_1 + \dots + (aa_n - a_n a) \otimes b_n$$

Since $1 \otimes b_i$ are A-linearly independent in $A \otimes_k B$, we conclude that $aa_i = a_i a$ for each i. That is, each a_i is in Z(A) = k. Therefore, $x = 1 \otimes b$. It is now easy to verify that $b \in Z(B)$.

COROLLARY 8.3.10. Let k be a field and A a central simple k-algebra. Then $\dim_k(A) = n^2$ for some $n \ge 1$.

PROOF. Let K be an algebraic closure of k. By Theorem 8.3.9, $A \otimes_k K$ is a central simple K-algebra. By Proposition 8.3.8, $A \otimes_k K$ is isomorphic to $M_n(K)$, for some $n \geq 1$. By Theorem 6.4.23, $\dim_k(A) = \dim_K(A \otimes_k K) = n^2$.

3.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 8.3.11. Let k be a field and A a finite dimensional k-algebra. Let N be a nilpotent left ideal of A such that $\dim_k(N) \leq 2$. Prove that N is commutative. That is, xy = yx for all x and y in N.

EXERCISE 8.3.12. Let k be a field and let A be the subset of $M_2(k)$ consisting of all matrices of the form $\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & c \end{pmatrix}$ where a, b, c are in k.

- (1) Show that A is a k-subalgebra of $M_2(k)$, and $\dim_k(A) = 3$.
- (2) Show that A is noncommutative.
- (3) Let I_1 be the set of all matrices of the form $\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Show that I_1 is a maximal left ideal of A and $I = Ae_1$ for an idempotent e_1 .
- (4) Let I_2 be the set of all matrices of the form $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ b & c \end{pmatrix}$. Show that I_2 is a maximal left ideal of A. Show that I_2 is not an A-module direct summand of A.
- (5) Determine the Jacobson radical J(A) and show that A is not semisimple.
- (6) Classify A/J(A) in the manner of Exercise 4.5.12.

EXERCISE 8.3.13. Let k be a field. Let A be the k-subspace of $M_3(k)$ spanned by $1, \alpha, \beta$, where

$$\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- (1) Show that A is a k-subalgebra of $M_3(k)$, and $\dim_k(A) = 3$.
- (2) Show that A is commutative if and only if char k = 2.
- (3) Determine the Jacobson radical J(A) and show that A is not semisimple.
- (4) Classify A/J(A) in the manner of Exercise 4.5.12.

EXERCISE 8.3.14. Let k be a field. Let A be the k-subspace of $M_3(k)$ spanned by $1, \alpha, \beta$, where

$$\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- (1) Show that A is a k-subalgebra of $M_3(k)$, and $\dim_k(A) = 3$.
- (2) Show that A is noncommutative.

- (3) Determine the Jacobson radical J(A) and show that A is not semisimple.
- (4) Classify A/J(A) in the manner of Exercise 4.5.12.

EXERCISE 8.3.15. Let k be a field and $n \ge 1$. Prove:

- (1) Every finitely generated left $M_n(k)$ -module is free.
- (2) If m does not divide n, then $M_n(k)$ has no k-subalgebra isomorphic to $M_m(k)$.
- (3) If $m \mid n$, then $M_n(k)$ contains a k-subalgebra which is isomorphic to $M_m(k)$.

EXERCISE 8.3.16. Let R be a ring, M an R-module and suppose $M = \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$ is the internal direct sum of a family of simple R-submodules, for some index set I. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) M is artinian.
- (2) M is noetherian.
- (3) I is finite.

EXERCISE 8.3.17. Let R be a semisimple ring and M an R-module. Prove that M is artinian if and only if M is noetherian.

EXERCISE 8.3.18. Prove the converse of Theorem 8.3.3(2). That is, a finite direct sum of simple rings is a semisimple ring.

EXERCISE 8.3.19. Let k be a field and $A = M_2(k)$ the ring of all 2-by-2 matrices over k. Let I be the set of all matrices of the form $\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Show that I is a left ideal of A. Let $\lambda : A \to \operatorname{Hom}_k(A/I, A/I)$ be the left regular representation of A (see Exercise 4.4.4). Show that λ is an isomorphism of rings. (Hint: Exercise 4.1.28.)

EXERCISE 8.3.20. Let k be an algebraically closed field and A a finite dimensional k-algebra. Show that if A is a simple ring, then A is isomorphic to $M_n(k)$, for some n. In particular, $\dim_k(A) = n^2$.

4. Commutative Artinian Rings

Theorem 8.4.1. Let R be an artinian ring and M an R-module. If M is artinian, then M is noetherian. In particular, R is a noetherian ring.

PROOF. Let J=J(R) denote the Jacobson radical of R. Then R/J is a semisimple ring, by Example 8.2.5. By Lemma 7.6.9, since M is artinian, so are the submodules J^nM and the quotient modules $J^nM/J^{n+1}M$, for all $n\geq 0$. By Exercise 4.1.20, the quotient module $J^nM/J^{n+1}M$ is artinian over R/J. By Exercise 8.3.17, $J^nM/J^{n+1}M$ is noetherian as a R/J-module. Again by Exercise 4.1.20, $J^nM/J^{n+1}M$ is noetherian as an R-module. For each $n\geq 0$, the sequence

$$0 \to J^{n+1}M \to J^nM \to \frac{J^nM}{J^{n+1}M} \to 0$$

is exact. By Corollary 8.1.6, for some r, we have $J^{r+1} = (0)$. Taking n = r in the exact sequence, Lemma 7.6.9 implies J^rM is noetherian. A finite induction argument using Lemma 7.6.9 and the exact sequence proves J^nM is noetherian for $n = r, \ldots, 1, 0$.

Lemma 8.4.2. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . If \mathfrak{m} is the only prime ideal of R, then R is artinian.

PROOF. By Lemma 7.3.8, $I(V(0)) = \operatorname{Rad}_R(0) = \mathfrak{m}$. Therefore, $\mathfrak{m}^n = (0)$, for some $n \geq 1$. Look at the filtration

$$R \supseteq \mathfrak{m} \supseteq \mathfrak{m}^2 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq \mathfrak{m}^{n-1} \supseteq (0).$$

Each factor $\mathfrak{m}^i/\mathfrak{m}^{i+1}$ is finitely generated as an R-module, hence is finitely generated as a vector space over the field R/\mathfrak{m} . By Exercise 4.1.20, the R-submodules of $\mathfrak{m}^i/\mathfrak{m}^{i+1}$ correspond to R/\mathfrak{m} -subspaces. By Exercise 7.6.33, $\mathfrak{m}^i/\mathfrak{m}^{i+1}$ satisfies DCC as an R/\mathfrak{m} -vector space, hence as an R-module. In particular, \mathfrak{m}^{n-1} satisfies DCC as an R-module. A finite induction argument using Lemma 7.6.9 and the exact sequences

$$0 \to \mathfrak{m}^{i+1} \to \mathfrak{m}^i \to \mathfrak{m}^i/\mathfrak{m}^{i+1} \to 0$$

shows that each R-module \mathfrak{m}^i has the DCC on submodules. In particular, R is artinian.

Proposition 8.4.3. Let R be a commutative artinian ring.

- (1) Every prime ideal of R is maximal.
- (2) The nil radical $Rad_R(0)$ is equal to the Jacobson radical J(R).
- (3) There are only finitely many maximal ideals in R.
- (4) The nil radical $Rad_R(0)$ is nilpotent.

PROOF. (1): Let P be a prime ideal in R. Then R/P is an artinian integral domain. By Exercise 7.6.23, R/P is a field.

- (2): This is Exercise 8.4.9.
- (3): Theorem 8.4.1 implies R is noetherian, and Proposition 7.6.14 implies $\operatorname{Spec} R$ has only a finite number of irreducible components. By Corollary 7.6.15, the irreducible components of $\operatorname{Spec} R$ correspond to the minimal primes of R. It follows from Part (1) that every prime ideal in R is minimal. Therefore, $\operatorname{Spec} R$ is finite.
- (4): In an artinian ring the Jacobson radical is always nilpotent, by Corollary 8.1.6. $\hfill\Box$

Proposition 8.4.4. Let R be a commutative ring. The following are equivalent.

- (1) R is artinian.
- (2) R is noetherian and every prime ideal is maximal (dim(R) = 0, in the notation of Section 13.6.1).
- (3) R is an R-module of finite length.

PROOF. By Proposition 7.6.30, it is enough to show (1) and (2) are equivalent.

- (1) implies (2): By Theorem 8.4.1, R is noetherian. By Proposition 8.4.3, every prime ideal of R is maximal.
- (2) implies (1): By Theorem 7.6.16, R has a decomposition $R = R_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_n$ where each R_i has only two idempotents. By Exercise 7.6.18 it suffices to show each R_i is artinian. Therefore, assume Spec R is connected. By Proposition 1.4.7, Spec R decomposes into a union of a finite number of irreducible closed subsets. Each prime ideal of R is maximal, so the irreducible components of Spec R are closed points. Since we are assuming Spec R is connected, this proves R is a local ring. By Lemma 8.4.2, R is artinian.

Proposition 8.4.5. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring and let \mathfrak{m} be the maximal ideal of R.

(1) If $\mathfrak{m}^n \neq \mathfrak{m}^{n+1}$ for all n > 1, then R is not artinian.

(2) If there exists $n \ge 1$ such that $\mathfrak{m}^n = \mathfrak{m}^{n+1}$, then $\mathfrak{m}^n = 0$ and R is artinian.

PROOF. (1): If R is artinian, then by Proposition 8.4.3(4) there exists n > 0 such that $\mathfrak{m}^n = 0$.

(2) If $\mathfrak{m}^n = \mathfrak{m}^{n+1}$, then by Nakayama's Lemma (Theorem 8.1.3), $\mathfrak{m}^n = 0$. If P is a prime ideal of R, then $\mathfrak{m}^n \subseteq P$. By Exercise 7.3.21, $\mathfrak{m} = \operatorname{Rad}(\mathfrak{m}^n) \subseteq \operatorname{Rad}(P) = P$. This proves that $P = \mathfrak{m}$, so by Proposition 8.4.4, R is artinian.

Theorem 8.4.6. Let R be a commutative artinian ring.

- (1) $R = R_1 \oplus R_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_n$ where each R_i is a local artinian ring.
- (2) The rings R_i in Part (1) are uniquely determined up to isomorphism.
- (3) If $\mathfrak{m}_1, \ldots \mathfrak{m}_n$ is the complete list of prime ideals in Spec R, then the natural homomorphism $R \to R_{\mathfrak{m}_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus R_{\mathfrak{m}_n}$ is an isomorphism.

PROOF. (1): By Proposition 8.4.3, Max $R = \operatorname{Spec} R = \{\mathfrak{m}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{m}_n\}$ is a finite set. So the topological space $\operatorname{Spec} R$ has the discrete topology. By Theorem 7.6.16, R can be written as a direct sum $R = R_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_r$ where $\operatorname{Spec} R_i$ is connected. Since the topology is discrete, this implies $\operatorname{Spec} R_i$ is a singleton set, hence R_i is a local ring. This also proves n = r.

- (2): A local ring has only two idempotents, so this follows from Theorem 7.2.5.
- (3): Start with the decomposition $R \cong R_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_n$ of Part (1) and apply Exercise 7.1.15.

4.1. Finitely Generated Projective of Constant Rank is Free.

COROLLARY 8.4.7. Let R be a commutative artinian ring. If M is a finitely generated projective R module of constant rank r, then M is a free R-module of rank r.

PROOF. By Theorem 8.4.6, R is the finite direct sum of local rings. By Exercise 8.1.11, M is a free module of rank r.

COROLLARY 8.4.8. Let R be a commutative ring and S a commutative R-algebra which is finitely generated and projective as an R-module. Let M be a finitely generated projective S-module. Let $\mathfrak p$ be a prime ideal in Spec R such that $\operatorname{Rank}_{S_{\mathfrak p}}(M_{\mathfrak p})=s$ is defined. Then

$$\operatorname{Rank}_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}}(M_{\mathfrak{p}}) = \operatorname{Rank}_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}}(S_{\mathfrak{p}}) \operatorname{Rank}_{S_{\mathfrak{p}}}(M_{\mathfrak{p}})$$

PROOF. Let $k = R_{\mathfrak{p}}/\mathfrak{p}R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ be the residue field of $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Then $S \otimes_R k$ is a finite dimensional k-algebra, hence is artinian. By Corollary 8.4.7, $M \otimes_R k = M \otimes_S (S \otimes_R k)$ is a free $S \otimes_R k$ -module of constant rank s. Proposition 4.2.39 applies to the trio k, $S \otimes_R k$, $M \otimes_R k$. Applying Proposition 7.4.2 we get the rank formula over the local ring $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$.

4.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 8.4.9. Let R be a commutative artinian ring. Prove that the Jacobson radical J(R) is equal to the nil radical $Rad_R(0)$.

EXERCISE 8.4.10. Let R be a commutative artinian ring and M a finitely generated free R-module of rank n. Prove that the length of M is equal to $\ell(M) = n\ell(R)$.

EXERCISE 8.4.11. Let R be a commutative ring with the property that for every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} in R, $V(\mathfrak{m})$ is both open and closed in Spec R. Prove that every prime ideal of R is maximal.

EXERCISE 8.4.12. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring. Recall that a topological space has the discrete topology if "points are open". Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) R is artinian.
- (2) Spec R is discrete and finite.
- (3) Spec R is discrete.
- (4) For each maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} in Max R, the singleton set $\{\mathfrak{m}\}$ is both open and closed in Spec R.

EXERCISE 8.4.13. Let k_1, \ldots, k_m be fields and $R = k_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus k_m$. Show that R has exactly m maximal ideals. Prove that if $\sigma_i : R \to k_i$ is the ring homomorphism onto k_i and \mathfrak{m}_i the kernel of σ_i , then the maximal ideals of R are $\mathfrak{m}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{m}_m$.

EXERCISE 8.4.14. Let R be a commutative noetherian semilocal ring. Let I be an ideal which is contained in the Jacobson radical, $I \subseteq J(R)$. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) There exists $\nu > 0$ such that $J(R)^{\nu} \subseteq I \subseteq J(R)$.
- (2) R/I is artinian.

EXERCISE 8.4.15. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring, \mathfrak{m} a maximal ideal in R, and $n \geq 1$.

- (1) Prove that R/\mathfrak{m}^n is a local artinian ring.
- (2) Prove that the natural map $R/\mathfrak{m}^n \to R_{\mathfrak{m}}/\mathfrak{m}^n R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is an isomorphism.

EXERCISE 8.4.16. Let k be a field and $R = k[x_1, ..., x_n]$. Let $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n$ be elements of k and m the ideal in R generated by $x_1 - \alpha_1, ..., x_n - \alpha_n$.

- (1) Show that \mathfrak{m} is a maximal ideal, and the natural map $k \to R/\mathfrak{m}$ is an isomorphism.
- (2) Show that $\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$ is a k-vector space of dimension n.
- (3) Show that $\mathfrak{m}R_{\mathfrak{m}}/\mathfrak{m}^2R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a k-vector space of dimension n.

EXERCISE 8.4.17. Let k be an algebraically closed field. Show that if A and B are local artinian k-algebras, then $A \otimes_k B$ is a local artinian k-algebra.

EXERCISE 8.4.18. Let k be a field and $R = k[x,y]/(x^n,y^m)$, where $m,n \in \mathbb{N}$. Show that R is a local k-algebra with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} = (x,y)$. Show that $\dim_k(R) = nm$.

EXERCISE 8.4.19. Let $R = (\mathbb{Z}/4)[x]/(x^4 + 1)$.

- (1) Show that R is a local ring.
- (2) Show that the maximal ideal of R is the principal ideal $\mathfrak{m} = (x+1)$.

EXERCISE 8.4.20. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings and assume S is finitely generated as an R-module. Let $f^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ be the continuous map of Exercise 7.3.20. For each $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, show that the set $(f^{\sharp})^{-1}(P)$ is finite. In other words, show that there are only finitely many $Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ such that $f^{-1}(Q) = P$. (Hint: Exercise 7.4.11.)

5. Examples

This section is devoted to applications and examples. First we apply the results from the previous sections to study algebras which are three dimensional over a field. Let k be a field and A a k-algebra such that $\dim_k(A) = 3$. We show that if A is semisimple, then either A is a field extension of k, or the direct sum of field extensions of k. If A is noncommutative, then we show that A is isomorphic to the subring of $M_2(k)$ consisting of lower triangular matrices. If A is a commutative local ring, then there are two possibilities for A, depending on whether the Jacobson radical J(A) contains an element with index of nilpotency greater than 2. The last case is when A is the direct sum of a local ring of dimension two and a copy of k. Our second application is a classification of all finite rings of order p^3 , where p is a prime number. Most of the cases that arise in this context fall under the hypotheses of an algebra of dimension three over the finite field \mathbb{F}_p . In particular, there is exactly one case where the ring A is noncommutative. In the computation of this example, most of the work is spent on the case where A is a finite ring of order p^3 and characteristic p^2 . We show that such a ring A is a commutative \mathbb{Z}/p^2 -algebra. If p=2, then up to isomorphism there are three distinct possibilities for A, but if p is odd, there are four.

5.1. Three Dimensional Algebras. Let k be a field. We apply the results of the previous sections to classify up to isomorphism all three dimensional k-algebras. First we review in Example 8.5.1 below the classification of k-algebras A such that $\dim_k(A) = 2$.

EXAMPLE 8.5.1. Let k be a field and A a finite dimensional k-algebra. Assume $\dim_k(A)=2$. By Exercise 4.5.13, A is commutative. In fact A is a simple extension of k, hence the classification of Exercise 4.5.12 applies to A. We outline the computation here. Let u be an element of A that is not in k. As in Theorem 4.5.2, let $\tau: k[x] \to A$ be the evaluation homomorphism. Since $\{1,u\}$ is a k-basis for A, $A \cong k[x]/(f)$, where $f=\min.\operatorname{poly}_k(u)$. So $\deg f=2$. If f is irreducible over k, then A is a quadratic extension field of k. Otherwise f=(x-a)(x-b) splits in k. If $a\neq b$, then A is isomorphic to a direct sum $k\oplus k$ of two copies of k. If a=b, then A is isomorphic to the local ring $k[x]/(x^2)$.

Theorem 8.5.2. Let k be a field and A a finite dimensional k-algebra. If $\dim_k(A) = 3$, then exactly one of the following is true.

- (1) A is a field extension of k of degree 3. A is a simple ring.
- (2) A is isomorphic to $k \oplus F$, a direct sum of k and a field extension F/k of degree 2. A is semisimple but not simple.
- (3) A is isomorphic to $k \oplus k \oplus k$, a direct sum of three copies of k. In this case, A is semisimple.
- (4) A is isomorphic to $\begin{cases} \begin{bmatrix} x & 0 & 0 \\ y & x & 0 \\ z & 0 & x \end{bmatrix} \mid x, y, z \in k \end{cases}$, a subring of the ring of matrices $M_3(k)$, a commutative local ring. If J = J(A), then $\dim_k(J) = 2$ and $J^2 = (0)$.
- By Exercise 8.5.13, this ring is isomorphic to the ring $R = k[x,y]/(x^2,xy,y^2)$.

 (5) A is isomorphic to $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x & 0 & 0 \\ y & x & 0 \\ z & y & x \end{bmatrix} \mid x,y,z \in k \right\}, \text{ a subring of the ring of } matrices M_3(\mathbb{F}_2), \text{ a commutative local ring. If } J = J(A), \text{ then } \dim_k(J) = 2 \text{ and } J^2 = (0).$

- $\dim_k(J^2) = 1$. There is an element $u \in J$ such that $u^2 \neq 0$, $u^3 = 0$. By Exercise 8.5.14, this ring is isomorphic to the ring $R = k[x, y]/(x^2 y, xy, y^2)$.
- (6) A is isomorphic to $k \oplus k[x]/(x^2)$, a commutative ring, the Jacobson radical is the principal ideal generated by the ordered pair (0,x).
- (7) A is isomorphic to $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x & 0 \\ y & z \end{bmatrix} \mid x, y, z \in k \right\}$, which is a subring of the ring of matrices $M_2(k)$, a noncommutative ring. The Jacobson radical is the principal ideal generated by $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. This is the ring of Exercise 8.3.12.

A finite dimensional k-algebra A is artinian (Exercise 7.6.35). By Corollary 8.1.6, J(A) is a nilpotent ideal. It follows that every element of J(A) is nilpotent (Exercise 3.2.33).

For the remainder of this section, we will use the notation Ring $(1), \ldots, Ring (7)$ to refer to the seven rings of Theorem 8.5.2. The proof is divided into a series of lemmas.

LEMMA 8.5.3. Let k be a field and A a finite dimensional k-algebra such that $\dim_k(A) = 3$.

- (1) If J(A) = (0), then A is either a field, or a direct sum of fields. Hence A is either a direct sum k ⊕ k ⊕ k of three copies of k, or a direct sum k ⊕ F, where F is a quadratic extension field of k, or A is an extension field of k with degree 3. In this case A is isomorphic to exactly one of the rings (1), (2) or (3) of Theorem 8.5.2.
- (2) If $\dim_k J(A) = 1$, then $A/J(A) \cong k \oplus k$. In this case, A contains exactly two maximal ideals \mathfrak{m}_1 and \mathfrak{m}_2 , where $\dim_k \mathfrak{m}_i = 2$ and $J(A) = \mathfrak{m}_1 \cap \mathfrak{m}_2$.
- (3) If $\dim_k J(A) = 2$, then $A/J(A) \cong k$.
- PROOF. (1): Since A is semisimple, A is a direct sum of simple rings. By Theorem 8.3.5, a simple ring is a ring of matrices over a division ring. Since $\dim_k(A) = 3$, a simple k-algebra is necessarily a division ring D such that $\dim_k(D) = 3$. By Corollary 8.3.10, the dimension of D over the center Z(D) is a square. If D is a simple ring that is a direct summand of A, then D = Z(D), hence D is a field.
- (2): By Exercise 4.4.37, if J(A) has dimension one, then A contains a maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} such that $A/\mathfrak{m} \cong k$. By Corollary 8.1.7(1), J(A) is contained in \mathfrak{m} . By Proposition 3.2.12, A/J(A) is not simple. By Example 8.5.1, A/J(A) is isomorphic to the ring $k \oplus k$. By Exercise 8.4.13, A/J(A) has exactly two maximal ideals, hence, so does A.
 - (3): In this case, A/J(A) is a k-algebra of dimension 1.

The classification of algebras A such that J(A) has dimension 2 over k will utilize the following result on two-by-two nilpotent matrices.

Lemma 8.5.4. Let k be a field and $M_2(k)$ the ring of two-by-two matrices over k. Let U and V be nonzero nilpotent matrices in $M_2(k)$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) $\ker U = \ker V$.
- (2) $\operatorname{im} U = \operatorname{im} V$.
- (3) U = sV for some $s \in k^*$.
- (4) For every pair $(s,t) \in k^2$, the matrix sU + tV is singular.

PROOF. (1) and (2) are equivalent: Since U and V are nonzero nilpotent matrices in $M_2(k)$, ker $U=\operatorname{im} U$ and ker $V=\operatorname{im} V$.

(1) and (2) imply (3): Let u be an eigenvector for U. If $u_1 \in k^2 - \ker U$, then $B = \{u, u_1\}$ is a basis for k^2 . We have $Uu_1 = su$ for some $s \in k^*$. Likewise, since $\ker U = \ker V$, $Vu_1 = tu$ for some $t \in k^*$. On the basis B, we have tU = sV. This proves $U = t^{-1}sV$.

(3) implies (4): Say $s \in k^*$ and U = sV. For contradiction's sake, assume aU + bV is nonsingular, where $(a,b) \in k^2$. Substituting, aU + bV = asV + bV = (as + b)V is nonsingular. But (as + b)V has rank less than or equal to one, hence is singular.

(4) implies (1): Suppose $\ker U \neq \ker V$. Let u be an eigenvector for U and v an eigenvector for V. Then $B = \{u, v\}$ is a basis for k^2 . By the proof of (1) and (2) implies (3), there exist a, b in k^* such that Uv = au and Vu = bv. On the basis B, we have (U+V)(U+V)u = (U+V)bv = abu and (U+V)(U+V)v = (U+V)au = abv. This proves U+V is invertible and $(U+V)^{-1} = (ab)^{-1}(U+V)$.

LEMMA 8.5.5. Let k be a field and A a finite dimensional k-algebra such that $\dim_k(A) = 3$. If J = J(A) and $\dim_k(J) = 2$, then A is isomorphic to exactly one of the two rings (4) or (5) of Theorem 8.5.2.

PROOF. Let $\{u,v\}$ be a k-basis for J. Then u and v are nilpotent. Let $\lambda:A\to \operatorname{Hom}_k(J,J)$ be the left regular representation of A (Example 4.4.4). The image of A under λ is a k-subalgebra $S=\operatorname{im}\lambda$ of $\operatorname{Hom}_k(J,J)$. By Proposition 4.4.13, $\operatorname{Hom}_k(J,J)$ is isomorphic to $M_2(k)$ as k-algebras. The image of J under λ consists of nilpotent matrices. By Lemma 8.5.4, $\dim_k \lambda(J) \leq 1$. Therefore, the kernel of $\lambda:J\to \operatorname{Hom}_k(J,J)$ is not equal to (0). In other words, there exists $w\in J-(0)$ such that $0=wu=uw=wv=vw=w^2$. We split the rest of the proof into two cases.

Case 1: $\lambda(J) \neq (0)$. Since $\dim_k(J) = 2$ and $\lambda(J) \cong J/(\ker(\lambda) \cap J)$, this means $\ker(\lambda) \cap J = kw$ has dimension one. Then there exists some $u \in J$ such that $u \notin \operatorname{annih}_R(J)$. Thus, $u \notin kw$. Since $\lambda(u)^2 = 0$, we have $u^2 \in kw$. Hence $u^2 = aw$, for some $a \in k$. A basis for J over k is $\{u, w\}$. With respect to this basis, the matrix for $\lambda(u)$ is $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ a & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Since $\lambda(u) \neq 0$, this implies $a \neq 0$. Define a k-linear transformation $f: A \to M_3(k)$ on the basis $\{1, u, aw\}$ by

$$f(1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad f(u) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad f(aw) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is routine to check that f maps the ring A isomorphically onto Ring (5).

Case 2: $\lambda(J) = (0)$. We have $J \subseteq \operatorname{annih}_R(J)$, thus $J^2 = (0)$. As above, a basis for A over k is $\{1, u, v\}$, where J = ku + kv. On this basis we define a k-linear transformation $f: A \to M_3(k)$ by

$$f(1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad f(u) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad f(v) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is routine to check that f maps the ring A isomorphically onto Ring (4).

LEMMA 8.5.6. Let k be a field and A a finite dimensional k-algebra such that $\dim_k(A) = 3$. If J = J(A) and $\dim_k(J) = 1$, then A is isomorphic to exactly one of the two rings (6) or (7) of Theorem 8.5.2.

PROOF. Let $v \in J-(0)$. Then J=kv. By Lemma 8.5.3, A/J is isomorphic to $k \oplus k$. By Corollary 8.1.8 (2), lift one of the nontrivial idempotents of A/J to an idempotent $e \in A$. Then $\{1, e, v\}$ is a basis for A as a k-vector space. Let $\lambda: A \to \operatorname{Hom}_k(J,J)$ be the left regular representation. The ring $\operatorname{Hom}_k(J,J)$ is isomorphic to the field k, hence has only two idempotents. Therefore, either $\lambda(e)=0$, or $\lambda(e)=1$. Thus ev is either 0 or v. Likewise, ve is either 0 or v. There are four mutually exclusive cases.

Case 1: ev = ve = 0. Then A = k1 + ke + kv is clearly a commutative ring and A is the internal direct sum $A = Ae \oplus A(1-e)$. So Ae = ke is isomorphic as a ring to k by the assignment $e \mapsto 1$. Moreover, v(1-e) = v, (1-e)v = v. The assignment $1-e \mapsto 1$ and $v \mapsto x$ induces an isomorphism of rings from A(1-e) = k(1-e) + kv to $k[x]/(x^2)$. Hence, A is isomorphic to Ring (6).

Case 2: ev = ve = v. Then (1 - e)v = 0, v(1 - e) = 0. It follows at once that this is Case 1, with the roles of e and 1 - e reversed. Hence, A is isomorphic to Ring (6).

Case 3: ev = 0 and ve = v. Then (1 - e)v = v and v(1 - e) = 0. On the basis $\{1, e, v\}$ define a k-linear transformation $\phi: A \to M_2(k)$:

$$\phi(1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \phi(v) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \phi(e) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is routine to check that $\phi(e)\phi(v)=0, \ \phi(v)\phi(e)=\phi(v)$ and that ϕ maps A isomorphically onto Ring (7).

Case 4: ev = v, ve = 0. With the roles of e and 1 - e reversed, this is Case 3. The ring A is isomorphic to Ring (7).

5.2. Finite Rings of Order p^3 . Throughout this section p is a fixed prime number. The goal of this section is to classify in a systematic way all finite rings of order p^3 . In Theorem 8.5.8 we show that if p is odd, then up to isomorphism there are twelve different rings of order p^3 . If p = 2, we show that there are eleven different rings of order eight.

Example 8.5.7. We know from Exercise 5.5.8 that up to isomorphism there are exactly four different rings of order p^2 .

- (1) \mathbb{Z}/p^2 . This ring has order p^2 and characteristic p^2 .
- (2) $(\mathbb{Z}/p)[x]/(x^2)$. This ring has order p^2 , characteristic p, is a local ring, and has nontrivial Jacobson radical.
- (3) $\mathbb{Z}/p \oplus \mathbb{Z}/p$. This ring has order p^2 , characteristic p, trivial Jacobson radical, and is not a field.
- (4) \mathbb{F}_{p^2} , the unique field of order p^2 , which exists by Lemma 5.5.2 and Theorem 5.5.3.

Theorem 8.5.8. Let R be a finite ring of order p^3 . Then R is isomorphic to exactly one of the following rings.

- (1) \mathbb{Z}/p^3 , the ring of integers modulo p^3 , a local ring with characteristic p^3 . The Jacobson radical is $\{0, p, 2p, \ldots, (p-1)p\}$, which has order p^2 .
- (2) \mathbb{F}_{p^3} , the field of order p^3 and characteristic p, a simple ring.
- (3) $\mathbb{F}_{p^2} \oplus \mathbb{F}_p$, the direct sum of the field of order p^2 and the field of order p. The characteristic is p. This is a semisimple ring which is not simple.

- (4) $\mathbb{F}_p \oplus \mathbb{F}_p \oplus \mathbb{F}_p$, the direct sum of three copies of the field of order p. The characteristic is p. This is a semisimple ring which is not simple.
- (5) $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x & 0 & 0 \\ y & x & 0 \\ z & 0 & x \end{bmatrix} \mid x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}_p \right\}, \text{ a subring of the ring of matrices } M_3(\mathbb{F}_p), \text{ a commutative local ring with characteristic p. The Jacobson radical, } J, \text{ has order } p^2, \text{ and } J^2 = (0). \text{ By Exercise 8.5.13, this ring is isomorphic to the ring } R = \mathbb{F}_p[x, y]/(x^2, xy, y^2).$
- (6) $\begin{cases} \begin{bmatrix} x & 0 & 0 \\ y & x & 0 \\ z & y & x \end{bmatrix} \mid x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}_p \end{cases}, \text{ a subring of the ring of matrices } M_3(\mathbb{F}_p), \text{ a commutative local ring with characteristic p. The Jacobson radical, } J, \text{ has order four, and } J^2 \text{ has order two. There is an element } b \in J \text{ such that } b^2 \neq 0, b^3 = 0. \\ By \text{ Exercise 8.5.14, this ring is isomorphic to the ring } R = \mathbb{F}_p[x, y]/(x^2 y, xy, y^2). \end{cases}$
- (7) $\mathbb{F}_p \oplus \mathbb{F}_p[x]/(x^2)$, a commutative ring with characteristic p. The Jacobson radical is the principal ideal generated by the ordered pair (0,x).
- (8) $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x & 0 \\ y & z \end{bmatrix} \mid x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}_p \right\}$, which is a subring of the ring of matrices $M_2(\mathbb{F}_p)$, a noncommutative ring with characteristic p. The Jacobson radical is the principal ideal generated by $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.
- (9) $\mathbb{Z}/p^2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}/p$, the direct sum of the local ring \mathbb{Z}/p^2 and the field \mathbb{Z}/p , the Jacobson radical is $\{0, p, 2p, \ldots, (p-1)p\}$, the characteristic is p^2 .
- (10) $\mathbb{Z}/p^2[x]/(px,x^2)$, the polynomial ring $\mathbb{Z}/p^2[x]$ modulo the ideal (px,x^2) , a local ring with characteristic p^2 . The maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} is generated by $\{p,x\}$, where $pv=0, x^2=0$, and $\mathfrak{m}^2=(0)$. The additive group $(\mathfrak{m},+)$ is an elementary p-group of order p^2 .
- (11) $\mathbb{Z}/p^2[x]/(px, x^2 p)$, the polynomial ring $\mathbb{Z}/p^2[x]$ modulo the ideal $(px, x^2 p)$, a local ring with characteristic p^2 . The maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} is principal, generated by $\{x\}$, where pv = 0, $x^2 = p$, and $\mathfrak{m}^2 = \{0, p, 2p, \ldots, (p-1)p\}$. The additive group $(\mathfrak{m}, +)$ is an elementary p-group of order p^2 .
- (12) This case does not occur if p = 2. $\mathbb{Z}/p^2[x]/(px, x^2 ap)$, the polynomial ring $\mathbb{Z}/p^2[x]$ modulo the ideal $(px, x^2 ap)$, a is any quadratic nonresidue modulo p. A local ring with characteristic p^2 , the maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} is principal, generated by $\{x\}$, where pv = 0, $x^2 = ap$, and $\mathfrak{m}^2 = \{0, p, 2p, \ldots, (p-1)p\}$. The additive group $(\mathfrak{m}, +)$ is an elementary p-group of order p^2 . In this ring p is not a square.

For the remainder of this section, we will use the notation Ring $(1), \ldots$, Ring (12) to refer to the twelve rings of Theorem 8.5.8. Rings (2) – (8) all have characteristic p and these seven fall under the hypotheses of Theorem 8.5.2. The only ring of order p^3 that has characteristic p^3 is \mathbb{Z}/p^3 , which is Ring (1). To complete the proof of Theorem 8.5.8, it suffices to classify all rings of order p^3 that have characteristic p^2 . The rings of characteristic p^2 in Theorem 8.5.8 are Rings (9) – (12). We show in Lemma 8.5.12 below that if p is odd, then a ring A of order p^3 and characteristic p^2 is isomorphic to exactly one of the Rings (9) – (12). If p=2, then we show A is isomorphic to one of the Rings (9) – (11).

For the rest of this section, A denotes a finite ring of order p^3 , characteristic p^2 , and C denotes the image of the natural map $\mathbb{Z} \to A$. So C is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}/p^2 . In Lemma 8.5.9 we use notation from Section 2.8.1 for the image and kernel of the "multiplication by p" map on an abelian group.

LEMMA 8.5.9. Let A be a finite ring of order p^3 and characteristic p^2 . Let C be the canonical subring of order p^2 , the image of the natural map $\mathbb{Z} \to A$.

- (1) A is a commutative ring and generated as a C-algebra by any element $v \in A-C$.
- (2) The abelian group (A, +) is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/p^2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}/p$.
- (3) Denote by A(p) the subgroup of (A, +) annihilated by p. Then A(p) is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/p \oplus \mathbb{Z}/p$.
- (4) Denote by pA the ideal generated by p. Then pA is equal to the ideal pC and has order p.

PROOF. (1): Since C is central, given any $v \in A - C$, the assignment $x \mapsto v$ defines an evaluation homomorphism $C[x] \to A$. The image is the commutative subring C[v]. By Corollary 2.2.12, the order of C[v] is necessarily p^3 .

- (2): This follows from Theorem 2.8.7, since (A, +) has order p^3 and exponent p^2 .
- (3) and (4): Apply Lemmas 2.8.3 and 2.8.4. Notice that the ideal pC is actually an A-module contained in C and is equal to C:A, the conductor from A to C (see Exercise 4.1.25).

LEMMA 8.5.10. If A is a finite ring of order p^3 and characteristic p^2 , then exactly one of the following is true.

- (1) A is a local ring.
- (2) A is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/p^2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}/p$.

PROOF. By Lemma 8.5.9, A is commutative. Since A is finite, A is artinian. By Theorem 8.4.6, A is a direct sum of local artinian rings. If A is not a local ring, then $A = A_1 \oplus A_2$. Since A has characteristic p^2 , either A_1 or A_2 has characteristic p^2 and the other has order p. By Example 8.5.7, one of the direct summands is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}/p^2 and the other is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}/p .

In Lemma 8.5.11 (4), we denote by U_p the group of units modulo p. As in Section 2.8.1 we use the notation U_p^2 to denote the image of the map $\pi^2: U_p \to U_p$. Since U_p is a cyclic group of order p-1 (Theorem 5.5.3), it follows from Lemma 2.8.3 that $[U_p:U_p^2]=2$, if p is odd.

LEMMA 8.5.11. Let p be an odd prime number and i an integer such that gcd(i, p) = 1. Consider the quotient ring

$$A_i = \mathbb{Z}/p^2[x]/(px, x^2 - ip).$$

In the following, cosets in the ring A_i are written without brackets or any extra adornment.

- (1) A_i is a local ring of order p^3 and characteristic p^2 . The Jacobson radical $J = J(A_i)$ is equal to the principal ideal (x) and (J, +) is an elementary p-group of order p^2 .
- (2) J^2 is equal to the principal ideal (p), which has order p.
- (3) The set $\{\alpha^2 \mid \alpha \in J\}$ is equal to the subset $\{u^2ip \mid u \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ of (p) and has order (p+1)/2.

(4) If j is an integer such that gcd(j,p) = 1, then the rings A_i and A_j are isomorphic if and only if the cosets of i and j in the factor group U_p/U_p^2 are equal.

PROOF. (1) and (2): This is Exercise 8.5.15.

- (3): Since $J^2=(p)$, the set $\{\alpha^2\mid \alpha\in J\}$ is a subset of (p). The additive group (J,+) is an elementary p-group of rank 2, and $\{p,x\}$ is a basis. A typical element $\alpha\in J$ is of the form $\alpha=ux+vp$, where u and v are integers. Since px=0, $p^2=0$, and $x^2=ip$, we have $\alpha^2=u^2ip$. If $p\mid u$, then $\alpha^2=0$. If $\gcd(u,p)=1$, then u^2i is in the coset of i in U_p/U_p^2 . Since $[U_p:U_p^2]=2$, this implies there are (p-1)/2+1=(p+1)/2 squares α^2 in J.
- (4): If i and j are not congruent modulo U_p^2 , then by (3), the rings A_i and A_j are not isomorphic. Conversely, assume $i = ju^2 + kp$ for some integers u and k such that gcd(u, p) = 1. Define $\phi : A_i \to A_j$ by $\phi(x) = ux$. Note that $\phi(x^2 ip) = (ux)^2 ip = u^2jp ip = (i kp)p ip = 0$. From this it is routine to check that ϕ is well defined, and ϕ is an isomorphism.

LEMMA 8.5.12. Let A be a finite ring of order p^3 and characteristic p^2 . If p=2, then A is isomorphic to exactly one of the Rings (9), (10), or (11) of Theorem 8.5.8. If p is odd, then A is isomorphic to exactly one of the Rings (9), (10), (11), or (12).

PROOF. By Lemma 8.5.10, if A is not a local ring, then A is isomorphic to Ring (9). Assume from now on that A is a local ring with maximal ideal J = J(A). By Lemma 8.5.9, A(p) is a maximal ideal. Therefore, J = A(p). Then (J, +) is an elementary p-group of order p^2 . Let $v \in J - (p)$. By Lemma 8.5.9, a basis for (J, +) is the set $\{p, v\}$, and A is generated as a C-algebra by v. By Corollary 8.1.6, either $J^2 = (0)$, or $J^2 = (p)$. We now consider these two mutually exclusive cases.

Case 1: Assume $J^2=(0)$. Then $v^2=0$. Define a homomorphism from Ring (10) to A by the assignment $x\mapsto v$. It is immediate that this is an isomorphism.

Case 2: Assume $J^2 = (p)$. Then $v^2 = ip$ for some integer i such that gcd(i, p) = 1. As in Lemma 8.5.11, let $A_i = \mathbb{Z}/p^2[x]/(px, x^2 - ip)$. Define a homomorphism from A_i to A by the assignment $x \mapsto v$. It is immediate that this is an isomorphism. If p = 2, then $(p) = \{0, p\}$. In this case there is only one choice for i, and A is isomorphic to Ring (11). If p is odd, then by Lemma 8.5.11, A is isomorphic to exactly one of Ring (11) or (12).

5.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 8.5.13. Let k be a field and k[x,y] the polynomial ring over k in two variables. Consider the quotient ring $R = k[x,y]/(x^2,xy,y^2)$. In the following, cosets in the ring R are written without brackets or any extra adornment. Prove:

- (1) R is a local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} = Rx + Ry$.
- (2) R has Krull dimension 0.
- (3) $\dim_k(R) = 3$. (Hint: a basis for R over k is 1, x, y.)

(4)
$$R$$
 is isomorphic to the subring $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 & 0 \\ \beta & \alpha & 0 \\ \gamma & 0 & \alpha \end{bmatrix} \mid \alpha, \beta, \gamma \in k \right\}$ of $M_3(k)$.

(Hints: map x to $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, and y to $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.)

EXERCISE 8.5.14. Let k be a field and k[x,y] the polynomial ring over k in two variables. Consider the quotient ring $R = k[x,y]/(x^2 - y, xy, y^2)$. In the following, cosets in the ring R are written without brackets or any extra adornment. Prove:

- (1) R is a local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} = Rx + Ry$.
- (2) R has Krull dimension 0.
- (3) $\dim_k(R) = 3$. (Hint: a basis for R over k is 1, x, y.)
- (4) R is isomorphic to the subring $\left\{\begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 & 0 \\ \beta & \alpha & 0 \\ \gamma & \beta & \alpha \end{bmatrix} \mid \alpha, \beta, \gamma \in k \right\}$ of $M_3(k)$. (Hints: map x to $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, and y to $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.)

EXERCISE 8.5.15. Let p be a prime number and i an integer such that gcd(i, p) =1. Consider the quotient ring $R = \mathbb{Z}/p^2[x]/(px, x^2 - ip)$. In the following, cosets in the ring R are written without brackets or any extra adornment. Prove:

- (1) R has order p^3 and characteristic p^2 .
- (2) Denote by (x) the principal ideal generated by x. Then (x) has order p^2 and (x) is equal to $\operatorname{Rad}_{R}(0)$, the nil radical of R.
- (3) R is a local ring, the maximal ideal is (x).
- (4) The ideals (x^2) and (p) are equal and they both have order p.
- (5) Find the invariants (Theorem 2.8.7) of the abelian groups (R, +) and (Rx,+).

CHAPTER 9

Separable Algebras, Definition and First Properties

1. Separable Algebra, the Definition

In this section the notion of a separable algebra over a commutative ring is defined. The basic properties of separable algebras are studied.

DEFINITION 9.1.1. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. The enveloping algebra of A is $A^e = A \otimes_R A^o$. We make A into a left A^e -module by the action

$$\left[\sum_{i} (a_i \otimes b_i)\right] \cdot c = \sum_{i} (a_i c b_i).$$

The reader should verify that this is a left module action on A by the ring A^e . There is an A^e -module homomorphism

$$A^e \xrightarrow{\mu} A$$
$$a \otimes b \mapsto ab.$$

The reader should verify that this is a well defined map and that μ is A^e -linear. Denote by $J_{A/R}$ the kernel of μ . Then $J_{A/R}$ is an A^e -submodule of A^e , hence is a left ideal. Since $\mu(1 \otimes 1) = 1$, the sequence

$$0 \to J_{A/R} \to A^e \xrightarrow{\mu} A \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of A^e -modules. When A is commutative, μ is a homomorphism of R-algebras (see Exercise 6.4.36). See Example 9.5.2 for an example of a noncommutative algebra A over a field k such that μ is not a homomorphism of rings and $J_{A/k}$ is not a two-sided ideal. Notice that $\mu(a \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes a) = 0$ so $a \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes a \in J_{A/R}$ (see Exercise 9.1.13).

Proposition 9.1.2. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. The following are equivalent.

- (1) A is projective as a left A^e -module.
- (2) The sequence

$$0 \to J_{A/R} \to A^e \xrightarrow{\mu} A \to 0$$

of left A^e -modules is split exact.

- (3) There is an element $e \in A^e$ such that $\mu(e) = 1$ and $J_{A/R}e = 0$.
- (4) There is an idempotent $e \in A^e$ such that $J_{A/R}$ is equal to the principal left ideal in A^e generated by 1 e.

PROOF. Follows from Exercise 7.2.6.

DEFINITION 9.1.3. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. If A satisfies any of the equivalent properties of Proposition 9.1.2, then we say A is a separable R-algebra. Notice that the same element e works for both (3) and (4). The element $e \in A^e$ is called a separability idempotent for A. If A is commutative, then a separability idempotent is unique, if it exists (Exercise 9.1.11).

DEFINITION 9.1.4. Let R be a commutative ring, A an R-algebra, and A^e the enveloping algebra. By Definition 9.1.1, A is a left A^e -module. By Example 4.4.4, the left regular representation of A^e as a ring of R-module endomorphisms of A induces an R-algebra homomorphism

$$\varphi \colon A^e \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,A)$$

where an element α of A^e is mapped to the element $\varphi(\alpha)$ of $\operatorname{Hom}_R(A,A)$ which is "left multiplication by α ". Specifically, if $\alpha = \sum a_i \otimes b_i$, then for any $x \in A$,

$$\varphi(\alpha)(x) = \alpha \cdot x$$
$$= \sum_{i} a_{i} x b_{i}.$$

The map φ will be called the *enveloping homomorphism* of A.

DEFINITION 9.1.5. A two-sided A/R-module is a left A right A bimodule M such that the two induced R-actions are equal. That is, for all $a, b \in A$, $r \in R$, $x \in M$:

- (1) (ax)b = a(xb) and
- (2) $rx = (r \cdot 1)x = x(r \cdot 1) = xr$.

DEFINITION 9.1.6. Let R be a commutative ring, A an R-algebra. If M is a left A^e -module, then we can make M into a two-sided A/R-module by

$$ax = a \otimes 1 \cdot x,$$
$$xa = 1 \otimes a \cdot x.$$

Conversely, any two-sided A/R-module can be turned into a left A^e -module in the same way. If M is a two-sided A/R-module, define

$$M^A = \{x \in M | ax = xa, \forall a \in A\}.$$

This is an R-submodule of M.

Lemma 9.1.7. Let R be a commutative ring, A an R-algebra, and M an A^e -module. Then

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A, M) \xrightarrow{\cong} M^A$$
 $f \mapsto f(1)$

is an isomorphism of R-modules. If $g \colon M \to N$ is an A^e -module homomorphism, then the diagram

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{A^{e}}(A, M) \xrightarrow{g \circ (\cdot)} \operatorname{Hom}_{A^{e}}(A, N)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$M^{A} \xrightarrow{g} N^{A}$$

commutes. The functors $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A,\cdot)$ and $(\cdot)^A$ are naturally isomorphic and both are left exact.

PROOF. Let $f \in \text{Hom}_{A^e}(A, M)$. Then for $a \in A$,

$$a \cdot f(1) = a \otimes 1 \cdot f(1)$$

$$= f(a \otimes 1 \cdot 1)$$

$$= f(a)$$

$$= f(1 \otimes a \cdot 1)$$

$$= 1 \otimes a \cdot f(1)$$

$$= f(1) \cdot a.$$

So $f(1) \in M^A$. Conversely, say $x \in M^A$. Define $\rho_x : A \to M$ to be "right multiplication by x", $\rho_x(a) = ax$. See that ρ_x is A^e -linear:

$$\rho_x(b \otimes c \cdot a) = \rho_x(bac)$$

$$= (bac)x$$

$$= (b \otimes c \cdot a)x$$

$$= b \otimes c \cdot (a \otimes 1 \cdot x)$$

$$= b \otimes c \cdot (ax)$$

$$= b \otimes c \cdot \rho_x(a).$$

Since $\rho_x(1) = x$ and $\rho_{f(1)}(x) = xf(1) = f(x)$, these are inverses of each other. The rest of the proof is left to the reader.

COROLLARY 9.1.8. $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A,A) \cong Z(A)$ under the correspondence $f \mapsto f(1)$.

PROOF. Take
$$M=A$$
 in Lemma 9.1.7 and note that $A^A=Z(A)$.

COROLLARY 9.1.9. Let $(0:J_{A/R})=\{x\in A^e|\ yx=0,\ \forall y\in J_{A/R}\}$ be the right annihilator of $J_{A/R}$ in A^e . Then $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A,A^e)\cong (0:J_{A/R})$. If A is R-separable, then $\mu(0:J_{A/R})=Z(A)$.

PROOF. Take $M=A^e$ in Lemma 9.1.7. Then

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A, A^e) \cong (A^e)^A$$

$$= \{ x \in A^e \mid (a \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes a)x = 0, \ \forall a \in A \}$$

$$= (0: J_{A/R}).$$

If A is R-separable, then A is A^e -projective. Since

$$A^e \xrightarrow{\mu} A \to 0$$

is exact, it follows from Proposition 6.5.5 that

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A, A^e) \xrightarrow{\mu \circ ()} \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A, A) \to 0$$

is exact. By Lemma 9.1.7, $\mu(0:J_{A/R})=Z(A)$.

Corollary 9.1.10. An R-algebra A is separable if and only if $(\cdot)^A$ is a right exact functor.

PROOF. By Proposition 6.5.5, the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A,\cdot)$ is right exact if and only if A is a projective A^e -module.

1.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 9.1.11. If S is a commutative separable R-algebra, then the separability idempotent is unique. (Hint: Lemma 7.3.13.)

EXERCISE 9.1.12. Let R be a commutative ring.

- (1) R is a separable R-algebra.
- (2) If $W \subseteq R$ is a multiplicative set, then the localization R_W is a separable R-algebra.
- (3) If $I \subseteq R$ is a nonunit ideal, then R/I is a separable R-algebra.

EXERCISE 9.1.13. Let $\mu: A \otimes_R A^o \to A$ be as in Definition 9.1.1 Prove that $J_{A/R}$, the kernel of μ , is the left ideal in $A \otimes_R A^o$ generated by the set $\{a \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes a \mid a \in A\}$.

Exercise 9.1.14. Let R be a commutative ring.

- (1) Let $R \oplus R$ be the ring direct sum of two copies of R. Let $e_1 = (1,0)$ and $e_2 = (0,1)$ be the orthogonal idempotents in $R \oplus R$. Use Exercise 9.1.13 to show that $e = e_1 \otimes e_1 + e_2 \otimes e_2$ is a separability idempotent. Hence, $R \oplus R$ is separable over R.
- (2) Let $R^n = R \oplus \cdots \oplus R$ be the ring direct sum of n copies of R. Show that R^n is separable over R. (Hint: $e = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i \otimes e_i$ is a separability idempotent, where e_1, \ldots, e_n are the orthogonal idempotents in R^n .)

EXERCISE 9.1.15. Show that \mathbb{C} is separable over \mathbb{R} . (Hint: Use Exercise 9.1.13 to show that $\frac{1}{2}(1 \otimes 1 - i \otimes i)$ is a separability idempotent.)

EXERCISE 9.1.16. Let $\mathbb{H} = \mathbb{R}1 + \mathbb{R}i + \mathbb{R}j + \mathbb{R}ij$ be the ring of real quaternions. As an \mathbb{R} -vector space \mathbb{H} is spanned by the four linearly independent elements 1, i, j, ij. Multiplication in \mathbb{H} is determined by the rules:

$$i^2 = j^2 = (ij)^2 = -1, \quad ij = -ji.$$

Show that $\mathbb H$ is a separable $\mathbb R$ -algebra. (Hint: $e=\frac{1}{4}(1\otimes 1-i\otimes i-j\otimes j-ij\otimes ij)$ is a separability idempotent.)

EXERCISE 9.1.17. If A is a separable R-algebra and e is a separability idempotent, then $(A \otimes_R A^o)e = (A \otimes_R 1)e = (1 \otimes_R A^o)e$.

EXERCISE 9.1.18. Prove the following generalization of Lemma 9.1.7. Let R be a commutative ring, A an R-algebra, and S a commutative R-subalgebra of A. If M is a left $S \otimes_R A^o$ -module, then the assignment $f \mapsto f(1)$ induces an isomorphism of R-modules $\operatorname{Hom}_{S \otimes_R A^o}(A, M) \cong M^S$. If $g \colon M \to N$ is a homomorphism of left $S \otimes_R A^o$ -modules, then the diagram

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{S \otimes_R A^o}(A, M) \xrightarrow{g \circ (\cdot)} \operatorname{Hom}_{S \otimes_R A^o}(A, N)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$M^S \xrightarrow{g} N^S$$

commutes. The functors $\mathrm{Hom}_{S\otimes_R A^o}(A,\cdot)$ and $(\cdot)^S$ are naturally isomorphic and both are left exact.

2. Examples of Separable Algebras

In this section three standard examples of separable algebras are presented. More examples appear in the exercises (Sections 9.1.1 and 9.4.1).

EXAMPLE 9.2.1. Let R be a commutative ring and let $M_n(R)$ be the ring of n-by-n matrices over R. Let e_{ij} be the elementary matrix having a single 1 in position (i,j) and 0 elsewhere. Notice that

$$e_{k\ell}e_{ij} = \begin{cases} e_{kj} & \text{if } \ell = i\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Fix j and define

$$e = \sum_{i=1}^{n} e_{ij} \otimes e_{ji}$$

in the enveloping algebra of $M_n(R)$. Then

$$\mu(e) = \sum_{i} e_{ij}e_{ji}$$
$$= \sum_{i} e_{ii}$$
$$= 1.$$

For any k and l,

$$(e_{kl} \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes e_{kl})e = \sum_{i} (e_{kl}e_{ij} \otimes e_{ji} - e_{ij} \otimes e_{ji}e_{kl})$$
$$= e_{kj} \otimes e_{jl} - e_{kj} \otimes e_{jl}$$
$$= 0$$

Since the e_{kl} generate $M_n(R)$ as an R-module, Exercise 9.1.13 shows that $J_{A/R}e = 0$. By Proposition 9.1.2 we see that $M_n(R)$ is a separable R-algebra and e is a separability idempotent.

EXAMPLE 9.2.2. Let G be a finite multiplicative group and R a commutative ring. Suppose G has order n and assume $n=n\cdot 1$ is a unit in R. Starting with the identity element, let $G=\{1=\sigma_1,\sigma_2,\ldots,\sigma_n\}$ be an enumeration of the elements of G. Let $R(G)=R\cdot 1\oplus R\cdot \sigma_2\oplus\cdots\oplus R\cdot \sigma_n$ be the group algebra (Example 3.1.6). Let

$$e = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma \otimes \sigma^{-1}$$

which is an element in the enveloping algebra $[R(G)]^e$. Then

$$\mu(e) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma \sigma^{-1} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\sigma \in G} 1 = 1.$$

If we fix any $\tau \in G$, then as sets we have $G = {\sigma \tau | \sigma \in G}$, hence

$$(\tau \otimes 1)e = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\sigma \in G} \tau \sigma \otimes \sigma^{-1}$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\rho} \rho \otimes \rho^{-1} \tau$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\rho} \rho \otimes \tau * \rho^{-1}$$
$$= (1 \otimes \tau)e.$$

(We write x * y = yx as the product in the opposite algebra.) The group algebra R(G) is generated over R by the basis elements $\tau \in G$. This together with Exercise 9.1.13 and Proposition 9.1.2 shows that e is a separability idempotent for R(G) and the group algebra R(G) is a separable R-algebra. For the converse of this result see Exercise 9.5.15.

Example 9.2.3. Let R be an integral domain and assume 2=1+1 is a unit in R. In this example, we see that an element of order two in the Picard group gives rise to a quadratic Galois extension of R. Let $I \subseteq R$ an ideal which is an invertible R-module (I is projective and has rank one). Suppose $I^2 = R\alpha$ is principal. In this case, there is an isomorphism of R-modules $\phi \colon I^2 \to R$ defined by $\phi(x) = \alpha^{-1}x$. The multiplication map $R \otimes_R R \to R$ of Exercise 6.4.36 induces an R-module homomorphism $\psi \colon I \otimes_R I \to I^2$. Since ψ is onto and $I^2 \cong R$, ψ splits. But I^2 is free of rank one, so by counting ranks it follows that ψ is is an isomorphism of R-modules. By Lemma 7.7.5, $I \cong I^*$. It follows that in the Picard group, |I| has order 1 or 2. Let $S = R \oplus I$ as R-modules. We turn S into a commutative R-algebra using ϕ to define a multiplication operation:

$$(a \oplus b)(c \oplus d) = (ac + \phi(bd)) \oplus (ad + cb).$$

The reader should verify that this multiplication rule is associative, commutative, distributes over addition, and that $1 \oplus 0$ is the identity element.

We show S is separable by constructing a separability idempotent in S^e . By assumption, there exist elements $a_1, \ldots, a_n, b_1, \ldots, b_n$ in I and $\sum_i a_i b_i = \alpha$. In S define two sequences

$$x_1 = 0 \oplus a_1, \dots, x_n = 0 \oplus a_n, x_{n+1} = 1 \oplus 0$$

and

$$y_1 = 0 \oplus b_1, \dots, y_n = 0 \oplus b_n, y_{n+1} = 1 \oplus 0.$$

Notice that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} x_i y_i = x_1 y_1 + \dots + x_n y_n + x_{n+1} y_{n+1}$$

$$= (\phi(a_1 b_1) + \dots + \phi(a_n b_n) + 1) \oplus 0$$

$$= (\phi(a_1 b_1 + \dots + a_n b_n) + 1) \oplus 0$$

$$= (1+1) \oplus 0$$

$$= 2 \oplus 0$$

In the enveloping algebra S^e , define

$$e = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} x_i \otimes y_i.$$

By the above,

$$\mu(e) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} x_i y_i = 1 \oplus 0 = 1.$$

By Exercise 9.1.13, $J_{S/R}$ is generated by elements of the form $x \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes x$, where $x \in S = R \oplus I$. Since $a \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes a = 0$, if $a \in R$, it follows that $J_{S/R}$ is generated by elements of the form $x \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes x$, where $x \in 0 \oplus I$. Notice that $(0 \oplus I)^2 \subseteq R \oplus 0$. Therefore, if $x \in 0 \oplus I$, then

$$x \otimes 1 \cdot e = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} x x_j \otimes y_j + x \otimes 1 \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} 1 \otimes x x_j y_j + x \otimes 1 \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(1 \otimes \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j y_j \right) \cdot 1 \otimes x + x \otimes 1 \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(1 \otimes x + x \otimes 1 \right)$$

which by a similar argument is equal to $1 \otimes x \cdot e$. Then $J_{S/R}e = (0)$. By Proposition 9.1.2, e is a separability idempotent for S and S is separable over R.

3. Separable Algebras Under Change of Base Ring

In this section we prove that the property of an algebra being separable is preserved under a change of base ring. The first results on descent (Proposition 9.3.3 and its corollaries) are also proved.

PROPOSITION 9.3.1. Let R be a commutative ring and S_1 and S_2 commutative R-algebras. Let A_1 be a separable S_1 -algebra and A_2 a separable S_2 -algebra. Then $A_1 \otimes_R A_2$ is separable over $S_1 \otimes_R S_2$ provided $A_1 \otimes_R A_2 \neq 0$ and $S_1 \otimes_R S_2 \neq 0$.

PROOF. We show that $(\cdot)^{A_1 \otimes_R A_2}$ is an exact functor on two-sided $A_1 \otimes_R A_2/S_1 \otimes_R S_2$ -modules and then apply Corollary 9.1.10. Start with an exact sequence

$$M \xrightarrow{f} N \to 0$$

of two-sided $A_1 \otimes_R A_2/S_1 \otimes_R S_2$ -modules. The diagram of ring homomorphisms

$$A_1 \longrightarrow A_1 \otimes_R A_2$$

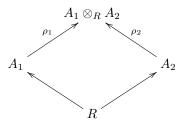
$$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow$$

$$S_1 \longrightarrow S_1 \otimes_R S_2$$

commutes so M and N can be turned into two-sided A_1/S_1 -modules. Since A_1 is separable over S_1 , the sequence

$$(M)^{A_1} \xrightarrow{f} (N)^{A_1} \to 0$$

is exact. From Exercise 6.4.35 the diagram



commutes and $\operatorname{im}(\rho_1)$ commutes with $\operatorname{im}(\rho_2)$. So we turn M^{A_1} and N^{A_1} into two-sided A_2/S_2 -modules. Since A_2 is separable over S_2 , the sequence

$$(M^{A_1})^{A_2} \xrightarrow{f} (N^{A_1})^{A_2} \to 0$$

is exact. As a ring $A_1 \otimes_R A_2$ is generated by the images of ρ_1 and ρ_2 . So $(M^{A_1})^{A_2} \subseteq M^{A_1 \otimes_R A_2}$. Conversely, $M^{A_1 \otimes_R A_2} \subseteq M^{A_1 \otimes_R A_1} \cap M^{1 \otimes_R A_2} = (M^{A_1})^{A_2}$.

Corollary 9.3.2. Let A be a separable R-algebra and S a commutative R-algebra. Then $A \otimes_R S$ is a separable S-algebra.

PROOF. Take
$$A = A_1$$
, $R = S_1$, $S = S_2 = A_2$ in Proposition 9.3.1.

PROPOSITION 9.3.3. (Descent of Separable Algebras) Let R be a commutative ring and S_1 and S_2 commutative R-algebras. Let A_1 be any S_1 -algebra and A_2 any S_2 -algebra such that $A_1 \otimes_R A_2$ is separable over $S_1 \otimes_R S_2$. If A_2 is faithful as an R-module and $R \cdot 1$ is an R-module direct summand of A_2 , then A_1 is separable over S_1 .

PROOF. We show that $(\cdot)^{A_1}$ is right exact and apply Corollary 9.1.10. Let M be a two-sided A_1/S_1 -module. The reader should verify that $M \otimes_R A_2$ is then a two-sided $A_1 \otimes_R A_2/S_1 \otimes_R S_2$ -module. By our hypothesis, the sequence of natural maps $0 \to R \to A_2$ splits. That is, $A_2 = L \oplus R \cdot 1$ as R-modules and there is an isomorphism

$$M \otimes_R A_2 = M \otimes_R (L \oplus R \cdot 1) \cong (M \otimes_R L) \oplus (M \otimes_R R \cdot 1).$$

The reader should verify that in fact $M \otimes_R R \cdot 1$ is a two-sided A_1/S_1 -module direct summand of $M \otimes_R A_2$, hence there is a projection

$$(3.1) M \otimes_R A_2 \xrightarrow{\pi} M \otimes_R R \cdot 1$$

of two-sided A_1/S_1 -modules. Apply the functor $(\cdot)^{A_1}$ to (3.1) to get the R-module homomorphism

$$(M \otimes_R A_2)^{A_1} \xrightarrow{\pi} (M \otimes_R R \cdot 1)^{A_1}.$$

Since $(M \otimes_R A_2)^{A_1 \otimes_R A_2} \subseteq (M \otimes_R A_2)^{A_1}$, the map π restricted to $(M \otimes_R A_2)^{A_1 \otimes_R A_2}$ takes values in $(M \otimes_R R \cdot 1)^{A_1}$. Using the fact that A_2 is R-faithful, the reader should verify that $M^{A_1} \otimes_R R \cdot 1 = (M \otimes_R R \cdot 1)^{A_1}$ and the sequence

$$(3.2) \qquad (M \otimes_R A_2)^{A_1 \otimes_R A_2} \xrightarrow{\pi} M^{A_1} \otimes_R R \cdot 1 \to 0$$

is exact. Consider an arbitrary exact sequence

$$(3.3) M \xrightarrow{f} N \to 0$$

of two-sided A_1/S_1 -modules. Combine (3.2) with (3.3) to get the diagram

$$(3.4) \qquad \begin{array}{c} \left(M \otimes_R A_2\right)^{A_1 \otimes_R A_2} \xrightarrow{f \otimes 1} \left(N \otimes_R A_2\right)^{A_1 \otimes_R A_2} \longrightarrow 0 \\ \downarrow^{\pi} & \downarrow^{\pi} \\ M^{A_1} \otimes_R R \cdot 1 \xrightarrow{f \otimes 1} N^{A_1} \otimes_R R \cdot 1 \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

which commutes. The functor $(\cdot) \otimes_R A_2$ is always right exact, and by assumption the functor $(\cdot)^{A_1 \otimes_R A_2}$ is right exact. Therefore the top row of (3.4) is exact. By (3.2), π is onto, which implies the bottom row of (3.4) is exact. Since $R \to R \cdot 1$ is an isomorphism, $f: M^{A_1} \to N^{A_1}$ is onto.

COROLLARY 9.3.4. Let A_1 and A_2 be R-algebras such that A_2 is faithful over R, and $R \cdot 1$ is an R-module direct summand of A_2 . If $A_1 \otimes_R A_2$ is separable over R, then A_1 is separable over R.

PROOF. Take
$$S_1 = S_2 = R$$
 in Proposition 9.3.3.

COROLLARY 9.3.5. Let S be a commutative faithful R-algebra such that $R \cdot 1$ is an R-module direct summand of S. Let A be an R-algebra such that $A \otimes_R S$ is S-separable.

- (1) A is R-separable.
- (2) If the image of $R \otimes_R S \to A \otimes_R S$ is equal to the center of $A \otimes_R S$, then $R \cdot 1$ is equal to the center of A.

PROOF. For the first part, take $A_1 = A$, $A_2 = S_2 = S$ and $S_1 = R$ in Proposition 9.3.3. For the second part, notice that

$$1 \otimes_R S = Z(A \otimes_R S) = (A \otimes_R S)^{A \otimes_R S}$$

maps onto $A^A = Z(A)$ by the proof of Proposition 9.3.3. But the projection map π is the splitting map to $R \to S$ which has image $R \cdot 1$. Hence $1 \otimes S$ projects onto $1 \otimes R \cong R \cdot 1$.

Remark 9.3.6. Say A is an R-algebra with structure homomorphism $\theta \colon R \to Z(A)$. If I is an ideal in R and $I \subseteq \ker \theta$, then θ factors through R/I so A is an R/I-algebra and $A \otimes_R A^o = A \otimes_{R/I} A^o$ so A is R-separable if and only if A is R/I-separable.

Proposition 9.3.7. Say A is a separable R-algebra and I is a two-sided ideal of A. Then A/I is a separable R-algebra. Moreover,

$$Z(A/I) = \frac{Z(A) + I}{I}$$

PROOF. Let M be a two-sided (A/I)/R-module. Then M can be viewed as a two-sided A/R-module using the natural homomorphism $\eta\colon A\to A/I$. Then $M^A=M^{A/I}$. Then A/I is R-separable by Corollary 9.1.10. Now

$$A \to A/I \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of two-sided A/R-modules. Since A is R-separable,

$$A^A \to (A/I)^A \to 0$$

is exact. So Z(A/I) is the image under η of Z(A).

COROLLARY 9.3.8. Let A_1 be an R_1 -algebra and A_2 an R_2 -algebra, where R_1 and R_2 are commutative rings. Then $A_1 \oplus A_2$ is a separable $R_1 \oplus R_2$ -algebra if and only if both A_1 and A_2 are separable over R_1 and R_2 respectively.

PROOF. Follows from Corollary 9.1.10 and Proposition 9.3.7. \Box

4. Homomorphisms of Separable Algebras

Let R be a commutative ring and $\theta:A\to B$ an R-algebra homomorphism. Consider the commutative diagram

$$A \otimes_R B^0 \xrightarrow{\gamma} B$$

$$A \otimes_R B^0 \xrightarrow{\mu} B \otimes_R B^0$$

where γ is defined to be the R-algebra homomorphism $\theta \otimes 1$, followed by the left $B \otimes_R B^o$ -module homomorphism μ . Therefore, all of the terms in (4.1) can be viewed as left $A \otimes_R B^o$ -modules. Notice that $\gamma(x \otimes y) = \theta(x)y$, hence the left $A \otimes_R B^o$ -module action on B is given by $(a \otimes b) \cdot x = \theta(a)xb$. We emphasize that γ is not a homomorphism of rings unless the image of θ is a subring of the center of B.

PROPOSITION 9.4.1. Let R be a commutative ring and $\theta: A \to B$ an R-algebra homomorphism. If A/R is separable, then the following are true.

(1) The sequence of left $A \otimes_R B^o$ -modules

$$A \otimes_R B^o \xrightarrow{\gamma} B \to 0$$

is split-exact. The kernel of γ is idempotent generated, and B is projective as a left $A \otimes_B B^o$ -module.

- (2) If B is a flat left R-module, then B is a flat left A-module.
- (3) If B is a projective left R-module, then B is a projective left A-module.
- (4) If A is commutative, $im(\theta) \subseteq Z(B)$, and B/R is separable, then B/A is separable.

PROOF. (1): Since A/R is separable, there is a split-exact sequence

$$(4.2) 0 \to J_{A/R} \to A^e \xrightarrow{\mu} A \to 0$$

of left A^e -modules. The R-algebra homomorphism $1 \otimes \theta : A^e \to A \otimes_R B^o$ allows us to view $A \otimes_R B^o$ as a left $A \otimes_R B^o$ right A^e -bimodule. Applying the functor $(A \otimes_R B^o)_{A^e}()$ to sequence (4.2) yields the split-exact sequence

(4.3)
$$0 \to (A \otimes_R B^o) \otimes_{A^e} J_{A/R} \to (A \otimes_R B^o) \otimes_{A^e} A^e \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \mu} (A \otimes_R B^o)_{A^e} A \to 0$$
 of left $A \otimes_R B^o$ -modules. By Lemma 6.4.13, the middle term in (4.3) is isomorphic to $A \otimes_R B^o$. Define $\phi : B \to (A \otimes_R B^o) \otimes_{A^e} A$ by $x \mapsto 1 \otimes x \otimes 1$. The reader should verify that ϕ is onto. Notice $a \otimes b \cdot \phi(x) = a \otimes b \cdot 1 \otimes x \otimes 1 = a \otimes xb \otimes 1 = 1 \otimes xb \otimes a = 1 \otimes \theta(a)xb \otimes 1 = \phi(a \otimes b \cdot x)$, so ϕ is a well defined $A \otimes_R B^o$ -module epimorphism. To see that ϕ is one-to-one, look at the \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphisms

(4.4)
$$B \xrightarrow{\phi} (A \otimes_R B^o)_{A^e} A \xrightarrow{\theta \otimes 1 \otimes \theta} (B \otimes_R B^o)_{A^e} B \xrightarrow{\xi} (B \otimes_R B^o)_{B^e} B \xrightarrow{\cong} B$$
 where ξ is from Exercise 6.4.41, and the last isomorphism is Lemma 6.4.13. In (4.4), the composite map is the identity on B . This shows ϕ is an isomorphism,

hence the last term in (4.3) is isomorphic to B. The reader should verify that γ is the map induced by $1 \otimes \mu$, and that

$$0 \to \ker(\gamma) \to A \otimes_R B^o \xrightarrow{\gamma} B \to 0$$

is a split-exact sequence of left $A \otimes_R B^o$ -modules. The kernel of γ is idempotent generated, by Lemma 7.2.4. This proves (1).

- (2): Since B is a flat left R-module, $A \otimes_R B^o$ is a flat left A-module (Theorem 6.4.23). By Exercise 6.4.31, a projective module is flat. Part (1) and Exercise 7.5.24 imply that B is a flat left A-module.
- (3): This can be proved using the method of Part (2). Alternatively, this follows from Theorem 9.4.2.

(4): This is Theorem
$$9.4.3(2)$$
.

Theorem 9.4.2. Let R be a commutative ring and A a separable R-algebra. By the structure homomorphism $\theta: R \to A$, any left A-module M inherits the structure of a left R-module.

(1) Let

$$0 \to L \to N \xrightarrow{\eta} M \to 0$$

be any exact sequence of left A-modules. If the sequence is split exact in ${}_{R}\mathfrak{M}$, then it is split-exact in ${}_{A}\mathfrak{M}$.

(2) Let M be a left A-module. If M is R-projective, then M is A-projective.

PROOF. By Proposition 6.2.3, (2) follows from (1). Suppose there exists an R-module homomorphism $\psi \colon M \to N$ with $\eta \psi = 1_M$. Since both N and M are left A-modules, Lemma 6.5.1 shows that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ can be given the structure of a left A^e -module under the operation induced by

$$[(x \otimes y) \cdot f](m) = x \cdot f(y \cdot m),$$

where $x \otimes y \in A \otimes_R A^o$, $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, N)$, and $m \in M$. Since A is R-separable, let $e \in A^e$ be a separability idempotent for A. Define $\psi' = e \cdot \psi$. That is, if $e = \sum_i x_i \otimes y_i$, and $m \in M$ then

$$\psi'(m) = \sum_{i} x_i \psi(y_i m).$$

Since η is an A-module homomorphism and $\mu(e) = 1$, we have

$$\eta \psi'(m) = \eta \left(\sum_{i} x_{i} \psi(y_{i}m) \right)$$
$$= \sum_{i} x_{i} \eta \cdot \psi(y_{i}m)$$
$$= \sum_{i} x_{i} y_{i}m$$
$$= m$$

for all $m \in M$. Since $J_{A/R}e = 0$, we have

$$(a \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes a)\psi' = (a \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes a)e \cdot \psi$$

= 0,

for all $a \in A$. It follows that

$$a\psi'(m) = a \otimes 1 \cdot \psi'(m)$$
$$= 1 \otimes a \cdot \psi'(m)$$
$$= \psi'(am),$$

for all $a \in A$, $m \in M$.

Theorem 9.4.3. Let S be a commutative R-algebra and let A be an S-algebra. Then A is also an R-algebra.

(1) (Separable over Separable is Separable) If S is separable over R and A is separable over S, then A is separable over R.

- (2) If A is separable over R, then A is separable over S.
- (3) If A is separable over R and A is an S-progenerator, then S is separable over R.

PROOF. (1): Any two-sided A/R-module M is also a two-sided S/R-module. Given any $x \in M^S$, $a \in A$ and $s \in S$, the equations

$$s \cdot (a \cdot x) = a \cdot (s \cdot x)$$
$$= a \cdot (x \cdot s)$$
$$= (a \cdot x) \cdot s$$

show that $ax \in M^S$. It follows that M^S is a two-sided A/S-module, with $(M^S)^A = M^A$. For any two-sided A/R-modules M and N, if

$$M \xrightarrow{f} N \to 0$$

is exact then, by Corollary 9.1.10 applied to the separable R-algebra S, it follows that

$$M^S \xrightarrow{f} N^S \to 0$$

is exact. But $(M^S)^A = M^A$ and $(N^S)^A = N^A$. By Corollary 9.1.10 applied to the separable S-algebra A, it follows that

$$M^A \xrightarrow{f} N^A \to 0$$

exact. Hence A is R-separable, which proves (1).

(2): In the commutative diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow J_{A/R} \longrightarrow A \otimes_R A^o \xrightarrow{\mu} A \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow =$$

$$0 \longrightarrow J_{A/S} \longrightarrow A \otimes_S A^o \xrightarrow{\mu} A \longrightarrow 0$$

all of the vertical maps are onto (Exercise 6.4.41). A separability idempotent for A/R maps to a separability idempotent for A/S.

(3): By part (2), A is separable over S. Since A is S-projective, so is A^o . The reader should verify (for example, by an argument involving dual bases) that $A \otimes_R A^o$ is projective over $S \otimes_R S$. Because A is separable over R, A is projective as a left $A \otimes_R A^o$ -module under the μ -action. By Proposition 6.2.12, it follows that A is projective as a left $S \otimes_R S$ -module. By Proposition 7.5.6, $S \cdot 1$ is an S-module direct summand of A, so we can write $A = S \oplus L$ for some L. It follows that S

is also an $S \otimes_R S$ -module direct summand of A under the μ -action. Hence S is $S \otimes_R S$ -projective and S is R-separable. \square

Let A be a ring and Z(A) the center of A. The next three results are concerned with the tower of subrings of A:

$$(4.5) R \subseteq S \subseteq Z(A) \subseteq A.$$

COROLLARY 9.4.4. As in Eq. (4.5), let R and S be subrings of the center of A. Then any two of the following statements imply the third.

- (1) S is a separable R-algebra and a finitely generated projective R-module.
- (2) A is a separable S-algebra and a finitely generated projective S-module.
- (3) A is a separable R-algebra and a finitely generated projective R-module.

PROOF. (1) and (2) implies (3): Apply Proposition 6.2.12 and Theorem 9.4.3(1).

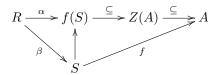
- (1) and (3) implies (2): Since A is a finitely generated R-module, A is a finitely generated S-module. Since A is projective over R and S is separable over R, by Theorem 9.4.2, A is projective over S. Since A is separable over R, by Theorem 9.4.3(2), A is separable over S.
- (2) and (3) implies (1): By Theorem 9.4.3(3), S is separable over R. By Proposition 7.5.6, $S \cdot 1$ is a S-module direct summand of A. Therefore, the R-module S is isomorphic to a direct summand of the R-progenerator A. This shows that S is a finitely generated projective R-module.

COROLLARY 9.4.5. As in Eq. (4.5), let R and S be subrings of the center of A. Assume A is a separable R-algebra and an R-module progenerator. If S is a separable R-algebra, then S is an R-module progenerator.

PROOF. By Theorem 9.4.2, A is a finitely generated projective S-module. By Theorem 9.4.3 (2), A is separable over S. By Corollary 9.4.4 and Corollary 6.3.4, S is an R-progenerator.

COROLLARY 9.4.6. Let S and A be separable R-algebras and $f: S \to A$ an R-algebra homomorphism. Assume the image of f is contained in the center of A, and A is an R-module progenerator. The following are true:

(1) The diagram of R-algebra homomorphisms



commutes.

- (2) α and β are one-to-one.
- (3) The kernel of f is idempotent generated.
- (4) If S is commutative and connected, then f is a monomorphism.

PROOF. By Proposition 7.5.6, α is one-to-one. By Proposition 9.3.7, the image of f is a separable R-subalgebra of A. By Corollary 9.4.5, f(S) is an R-progenerator. By Theorem 9.4.2, f(S) is projective over S. By Exercise 7.2.6, the kernel of f is idempotent generated. The rest is left to the reader.

Corollary 9.4.7. Let R be a commutative ring and A a separable R-algebra. Then

(1) There is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of all R-algebra homomorphisms $\sigma: A \to R$, and the set of all central idempotents e in A such that the composite mapping

$$R \to Re \to Ae$$

is one-to-one and onto. In this case $\sigma(e)=1$ and $\sigma(x)e=xe$ for all $x\in A$.

(2) Suppose R is connected, $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n$ are distinct R-algebra homomorphisms from A to R, and e_1, \ldots, e_n are the corresponding idempotents. Then

(a) $\sigma_j(e_i) = 0$ if $i \neq j$, and

(b) $e_i e_j = 0$, if $i \neq j$.

PROOF. (1): Let $\theta: R \to A$ be the structure homomorphism. Let e be a central idempotent in A and $\pi: A \to Ae$ the canonical projection map. The diagram

$$R \xrightarrow{\alpha} Re$$

$$\theta \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \subseteq$$

$$A \xrightarrow{\pi} Ae$$

of R-algebra homomorphisms commutes, where $\alpha(x) = xe$. If Re = Ae and α is one-to-one, then $\alpha^{-1}\pi$ is an R-algebra homomorphism.

Conversely, assume $\sigma:A\to R$ is an R-algebra homomorphism. By Theorem 9.4.2, σ makes R into a projective A-module. By Exercise 7.2.6 ker σ is an A-module direct summand of A, hence ker $\sigma=Ae_0$ for some idempotent $e_0\in A$. Since ker σ is a two-sided ideal of A, $e=1-e_0$ is a central idempotent by Theorem 3.3.5. The rest is left to the reader.

(2): Since R is connected, $\sigma_j(e_i)$ is equal to either 0 or 1. Suppose $\sigma_j(e_i) = 1$. Then for every $x \in A$, $\sigma_j(x) = \sigma_j(x)\sigma_j(e_i) = \sigma_j(xe_i) = \sigma_j(\sigma_i(x)e_i) = \sigma_i(x)\sigma_j(e_i) = \sigma_i(x)$ which implies i = j. This proves (a). Lastly, $\sigma_j(x)e_j = xe_j$ for all $x \in A$ implies $\sigma_j(e_i)e_j = e_ie_j$. This proves (b).

4.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 9.4.8. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. Let $q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ and $p = f^{-1}(q)$. If S is a separable R-algebra, then S_q is a separable R_p -algebra.

EXERCISE 9.4.9. Let R be a commutative ring. Let A_1 and A_2 be R-algebras. Prove that $A_1 \oplus A_2$ is separable over R if and only if A_1 and A_2 are separable over R.

EXERCISE 9.4.10. Let k be any field and x an indeterminate.

- (1) Show that $A = k[x]/(x^2)$ is not separable over k. (Hint: Show that A^e is a local ring. What are the candidates for e?)
- (2) Show that $k[x]/(x^n)$ is k-separable if and only if n=1.
- (3) Suppose $f \in k[x]$ is a nonconstant polynomial such that each irreducible factor of f has degree one. Show that k[x]/(f) is separable over k if and only if f has no repeated roots.
- (4) Suppose $f \in k[x]$ is a nonconstant polynomial and F is a splitting field for f over k. Show that k[x]/(f) is separable over k if and only if f has no repeated roots in F.

EXERCISE 9.4.11. Let k be a field and k[x] the polynomial ring over k in one variable. Show that A = k[x] is not separable over k. (Hint: Show that A^e is an integral domain.)

EXERCISE 9.4.12. Let R be a commutative ring. Show that A = R[x] is not separable over R.

EXERCISE 9.4.13. Let $A = \mathbb{Z}[i]$ be the ring of gaussian integers. Then up to isomorphism A is equal to $\mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^2+1)$. Show that A is not separable over \mathbb{Z} . (Hints: Use Corollary 9.3.2. Take $S = \mathbb{Z}/2$ and apply the argument of Exercise 9.4.10 to show $A \otimes \mathbb{Z}/2$ is not separable over the field $\mathbb{Z}/2$. We say that A ramifies at the prime 2.)

EXERCISE 9.4.14. Let R be an integral domain in which 2 = 1 + 1 is a unit. Let a be a unit of R and define $S = R[\sqrt{a}]$ to be R with the square root of a adjoined. That is, $S = R[x]/(x^2 - a)$.

- (1) Show that S is a faithfully flat R-algebra. (Hint: Exercise 4.2.26.)
- (2) Show that the $\sqrt{a} \mapsto -\sqrt{a}$ induces an R-algebra automorphism $\sigma \colon S \to S$. (Hint: Exercise 3.6.34.)
- (3) The trace map $T: S \to R$ is defined by $T(z) = z + \sigma(z)$. Show that T is an R-module homomorphism and the image of T is R. Show that the kernel of T is the R-submodule generated by \sqrt{a} . Conclude that $S \cong R \cdot 1 \oplus R \sqrt{a}$ as R-modules.
- (4) If \mathfrak{m} is any maximal ideal in S, then \mathfrak{m} does not contain the R-submodule $R\sqrt{a}$.
- (5) Show that S is a separable R-algebra. (Hint: $e = \frac{1}{2}(1 \otimes 1 + \sqrt{a} \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}})$ is a separability idempotent.)

EXERCISE 9.4.15. Let R be an integral domain in which 2 is a unit. Let $a \in R$ and $S = R[\sqrt{a}] = R[x]/(x^2 - a)$.

- (1) If $a = b^2$ and b is a unit in R, then $S \cong R \oplus R$ as R-algebras.
- (2) If a is not a unit in R, then S is not separable over R.

EXERCISE 9.4.16. Let the Cartesian plane \mathbb{R}^2 have the usual metric space topology. Let X be the x-axis and $\pi \colon \mathbb{R}^2 \to X$ the standard projection map defined by $\pi(x,y) = x$.

(1) Let $S = \mathbb{R}[x,y]/(x^2 - y^2)$ and $R = \mathbb{R}[x]$. Show that S is faithfully flat over R, but is not separable.

Geometrically, S corresponds to two intersecting lines and R corresponds to the x-axis. In \mathbb{R}^2 let Y denote the two lines $x=\pm y$. The projection $\pi\colon Y\to X$ of Y onto the x-axis is two-to-one everywhere except at the origin, hence is not a local homeomorphism.

(2) Let $S = \mathbb{R}[x, y]/(x^2 + y^2 - 1)$. Show that S is faithfully flat over $R = \mathbb{R}[x]$, but is not separable.

Geometrically, S corresponds to a circle of radius 1 and R corresponds to the x-axis. In \mathbb{R}^2 let Y denote the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. The projection $\pi \colon Y \to X$ of Y onto the x-axis is two-to-one everywhere except at the points where $x = \pm 1$, hence is not a local homeomorphism.

EXERCISE 9.4.17. Let R be an integral domain in which 2 is a unit. Assume $i \in R$ such that $i^2 = -1$. Let α and β be units of R. Define an R algebra A by the

following rules. As an R-module, A is the free R-module on the basis 1, u, v, uv:

$$A = R \cdot 1 + R \cdot u + R \cdot v + R \cdot uv.$$

Multiplication in A is determined by the relations

$$u^2 = \alpha$$
, $v^2 = \beta$, $uv = -vu$.

- (1) Show that A is a separable R-algebra. (Hint: $e=\frac{1}{4}(1\otimes 1+u\otimes u^{-1}+v\otimes v^{-1}+uv\otimes (uv)^{-1})$ is a separability idempotent.)
- (2) Assume $\alpha = a^2$ and $\beta = b^2$ for some a, b in R. Show that A is isomorphic to the ring $M_2(R)$ of two-by-two matrices over R. (Hint: Define the map $A \to M_2(R)$ on generators by

$$u\mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -ia\\ ia & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad v\mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 0 & b\\ b & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Show that this definition extends to A.)

(3) If $R = \mathbb{C}$, then $A \cong M_2(\mathbb{C})$ for every choice of α and β .

EXERCISE 9.4.18. Let S be a commutative separable R-algebra. For $n \geq 1$, let $T_R^n(S) = S \otimes_R S \otimes_R \cdots \otimes_R S$ be the tensor product of n copies of S. View $T_R^n(S)$ as an S-algebra by the homomorphism $\rho: S \to T_R^n(S)$, where $\rho(s) = s \otimes 1 \otimes \cdots \otimes 1$. Let $\mu: T_R^n(S) \to S$ be the product map, where $\mu(x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_n) = x_1 \cdots x_n$.

- (1) Show that μ is an S-algebra homomorphism and the kernel of μ is idempotent generated.
- (2) Show that there is an idempotent $e \in T_R^n(S)$ such that $Se = (S \otimes_R 1 \otimes_R \cdots \otimes_R 1)e = T_R^n(S)e$.

5. Separable Algebras over a Field

5.1. Central Simple Equals Central Separable. Let k be a field. As in Definition 8.3.6, a k-algebra A is central simple in case k = Z(A), $\dim_k(A)$ is finite, and A is a simple ring.

PROPOSITION 9.5.1. Let k be a field and A a finite dimensional k-algebra. Then A is a central simple k-algebra if and only if the enveloping homomorphism $\varphi \colon A^e \to \operatorname{Hom}_k(A,A)$ of Definition 9.1.4 is an isomorphism.

PROOF. If A is a central simple k-algebra, then so is A^o . By Proposition 8.3.9 it follows that A^e is a central simple k-algebra. Therefore φ is one-to-one and counting dimensions over k proves that φ is onto. Conversely, suppose that φ is an isomorphism. Since $\operatorname{Hom}_k(A,A)$ is isomorphic to a ring of matrices $M_n(k)$, it is a central simple k-algebra by Example 8.3.2. If I is a two-sided ideal of A, then $I \otimes_k A^o$ is an ideal in A^e . So I is either (0) or A. If $\alpha \in Z(A)$, then $\alpha \otimes 1 \in Z(A^e)$ so $\varphi(\alpha \otimes 1) \in k$. Since φ is a k-algebra isomorphism, $\alpha \otimes 1 \in k \cdot 1 \otimes 1$. It follows that $\alpha \in k$.

EXAMPLE 9.5.2. Let k be a field and A a finite dimensional central simple k-algebra. Assume $\dim_k(A) = n \geq 2$. Consider the exact sequence

$$0 \to J_{A/k} \to A \otimes_k A^o \xrightarrow{\mu} A \to 0$$

of Definition 9.1.1, where μ is the multiplication map defined by $a \otimes b \mapsto ab$. In this example we show that μ is not a ring homomorphism and $J_{A/k}$ is not a two-sided ideal. By Proposition 9.5.1, the enveloping algebra $A^e = A \otimes_k A^o$

is isomorphic to the endomorphism ring $\operatorname{Hom}_k(A,A)$. By Proposition 4.4.13, A^e is isomorphic to the ring of matrices $M_n(k)$. This implies A^e is a simple ring (see Exercise 3.2.22). Since the multiplication map μ is always onto, we have $\dim_k J_{A/k} = \dim_k (A^e) - \dim_k (A) = n^2 - n > 0$. Since A^e is a simple ring, this implies $J_{A/k}$ is not a two-sided ideal. It follows that μ is not a homomorphism of rings.

PROPOSITION 9.5.3. Let R be a commutative ring and A a separable R-algebra which is projective as an R-module. Then A is finitely generated as an R-module.

PROOF. Since A and A^o are identical as R-modules, it is enough to show A^o is finitely generated. Let $\{f_i, a_i\}$ be a dual basis for A^o over R with $a_i \in A^o$ and $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(A^o, R)$. For every $a \in A^o$, $f_i(a) = 0$ for almost all i and

$$a = \sum_{i} f_i(a) a_i.$$

Identify $A \otimes_R R$ with A, and consider $1_A \otimes f_i$ as an element of $\operatorname{Hom}_A(A^e, A)$. The set $\{1_A \otimes f_i, 1 \otimes a_i\}$ forms a dual basis for A^e as a projective left A-module. That is,

$$u = \sum_{i} (1_A \otimes f_i)(u) \cdot (1 \otimes a_i)$$

for all $u \in A^e$. Applying the multiplication map μ and setting $u = (1 \otimes a)e$ where e is a separability idempotent for A over R, we obtain

(5.1)
$$a = \mu((1 \otimes a)e)$$
$$= \sum_{i} \left[(1_A \otimes f_i) ((1 \otimes a)e) \right] \cdot a_i$$

for each $a \in A^o$. Since

$$(1_A \otimes f_i) ((1 \otimes a)e) = (1_A \otimes f_i) ((a \otimes 1)e)$$
$$= (a \otimes 1) ((1_A \otimes f_i)(e))$$

the set of subscripts i for which $(1_A \otimes f_i)((1 \otimes a)e)$ is not equal to zero is contained in the finite set of subscripts for which $(1_A \otimes f_i)(e)$ is not equal to zero. This latter set is independent of a. Therefore the summation (5.1) may be taken over a fixed finite set. Writing

$$e = \sum_{j} x_j \otimes y_j ,$$

we have from (5.1) that

$$a = \sum_{i,j} x_j f_i(y_j a) a_i$$
$$= \sum_{i,j} f_i(y_j a) x_j a_i$$

for each $a \in A^o$. This shows that the finite set $\{x_i a_i\}$ generates A^o over R.

Corollary 9.5.4. Let A be a separable k-algebra where k is a field. Then A is a finite dimensional k-vector space.

Corollary 9.5.5. Let k be a field and A a k-algebra. Then A is a central simple k-algebra if and only if A is a central separable k-algebra.

PROOF. Assume A is a central simple k-algebra. Let K be an algebraic closure of k. Then by Theorem 8.3.9, $A \otimes_k K$ is a central simple K-algebra. By Proposition 8.3.8, $A \otimes_k K \cong M_n(K)$ for some n. By Example 9.2.1, $A \otimes_k K$ is a central separable K-algebra. By Corollary 9.3.5, A is a separable k-algebra. Conversely assume A is a central separable k-algebra. Then Z(A) = k and by Corollary 9.5.4, A is finite dimensional over k. Any left A-module is a k-vector space, hence is projective as a k-module. By Theorem 9.4.2, every left A-module is projective. By Theorem 8.2.3, A is semisimple. By Theorem 8.3.3, A is a finite direct sum of simple rings. Since the center of A is the field k, it follows that A is simple. \Box

5.2. A Separable Field Extension is a Separable Algebra.

Theorem 9.5.6. Let k be a field and A a k-algebra. The following are equivalent.

- (1) A is a separable k-algebra.
- (2) A is finite dimensional over k and if K/k is any field extension of k, then $A \otimes_k K$ is semisimple.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): By Proposition 9.5.3, A is finite dimensional over k. By Corollary 9.3.2, $A \otimes_k K$ is a separable K-algebra. Every $A \otimes_k K$ -module is free over K. By Theorem 9.4.2, every $A \otimes_k K$ -module is projective. By Theorem 8.2.3, $A \otimes_k K$ is semisimple.

(2) implies (1): Let \bar{k} be the algebraic closure of k. By Theorem 8.3.3(2), $A \otimes_k \bar{k} = R_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_n$ is a direct sum of a finite number of simple rings R_i . Each R_i is finite dimensional over \bar{k} . Since \bar{k} is algebraically closed, the center of R_i is \bar{k} . By Corollary 9.5.5, each R_i is central separable over \bar{k} . Therefore $A \otimes_k \bar{k}$ is separable over $\bar{k} \oplus \cdots \oplus \bar{k}$. By Exercise 9.1.14, $\bar{k} \oplus \cdots \oplus \bar{k}$ is separable over \bar{k} . By Theorem 9.4.3 (1), $A \otimes_k \bar{k}$ is separable over \bar{k} . By Corollary 9.3.5, A is separable over k.

PROPOSITION 9.5.7. Let k be a field and F a finite dimensional extension field of k. Then F is a separable k-algebra if and only if F/k is a separable field extension.

PROOF. Assume F is a separable field extension of k. Then $F = k(u_1, \ldots, u_m)$ where each u_i is separable over k. By Theorem 9.4.3(1), it is enough to assume F = k[x]/(f(x)) is a simple extension and prove that F is a separable k-algebra. Let K/k be a splitting field for f(x). In K[x] we have the factorization $f(x) = (x - \alpha_1) \ldots (x - \alpha_n)$ where the roots α_i are distinct. The Chinese Remainder Theorem shows that $F \otimes_k K \cong K[x]/(f(x))$ is isomorphic to a direct sum of n copies of K. By Exercise 9.1.14, $F \otimes_k K$ is separable over K. By Corollary 9.3.5, F is a separable k-algebra.

Conversely assume F/k is not a separable extension of fields and let S be the separable closure of k in F (Theorem 5.6.2). Let p be the characteristic of k. Since F/S is purely inseparable, there exists $u \in F$, $n \ge 1$, and $\alpha \in S$ such that the irreducible polynomial of u over S is $Irr. poly_S(u) = x^{p^n} - \alpha$. Consider the element $t = u \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes u$ in $F \otimes_S F$. It is easy to see that t is nonzero and that $t^{p^n} = 0$. Therefore the ring $F \otimes_S F$ is not semisimple. By Theorem 9.5.6, F is not a separable S-algebra. By Theorem 9.4.3 (2), F is not a separable k-algebra.

Theorem 9.5.8. Let k be a field and A a k-algebra. Then A is a separable k-algebra if and only if A is isomorphic to a finite direct sum of matrix rings $M_{n_i}(D_i)$

where each D_i is a finite dimensional k-division algebra such that the center $Z(D_i)$ is a finite separable extension field of k.

PROOF. If A is separable over k, then by Theorem 9.5.6, A is semisimple. It follows from Theorem 8.3.3(2) that $A = A_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus A_m$ is a direct sum of a finite number of simple rings A_i . By Exercise 9.4.9, A_i is separable over k, for each i. By Theorem 8.3.5, $A_i \cong M_{n_i}(D_i)$ where D_i is a finite dimensional k-division algebra. The center of A_i is $Z(D_i)$ and by Theorem 9.4.3(3), $Z(D_i)$ is separable over k. By Proposition 9.5.7, $Z(D_i)/k$ is a finite separable field extension.

For the converse, suppose K/k is a finite separable field extension and D is a finite dimensional K-central division algebra. Then by Example 8.3.2 and Theorem 8.3.9, $M_n(D) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_K(K^{(n)}, K^{(n)}) \otimes_K D$ is K-central simple. By Corollary 9.5.5, $M_n(D)$ is K-central separable. By Proposition 9.5.7 and Theorem 9.4.3 (1), $M_n(D)$ is separable over K. The part about direct sums follows from Exercise 9.4.9.

COROLLARY 9.5.9. Let k be a field and A a commutative k-algebra. Then the following are true.

- (1) A is separable over k if and only if A is isomorphic to a finite direct sum of fields $K_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus K_n$ where each K_i is a finite separable extension field of k.
- (2) If k is infinite and A is separable over k, then there is a monic polynomial $f(x) \in k[x]$ such that gcd(f, f') = 1 and A is isomorphic to k[x]/(f(x)) as a k-algebra. There is a primitive element $\alpha \in A$ such that A is generated as a k-algebra by α .

PROOF. (1): Follows from Theorem 9.5.8.

(2): By Part (1), there is a k-algebra isomorphism $A \cong K_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus K_n$, where each K_i is a separable extension field of k. By the Primitive Element Theorem (Theorem 5.4.7), $K_i \cong k[x]/(p_i(x))$, for some irreducible monic separable polynomial $p_i(x) \in k[x]$. By induction, assume $n \geq 2$ and there is a monic polynomial f(x) such that $\gcd(f, f') = 1$ and $K_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus K_n$ is isomorphic to k[x]/(f(x)) as a k-algebra. Let F be a splitting field for $f(x)p_1(x)$. Let $\{u_1, \ldots, u_r\}$ be all the roots of $f(x)p_1(x)$ in F. Assume $p_1(u_1) = 0$. Since k is infinite, pick $a \in k$ such that a is not in the set $\{0, u_2 - u_1, \ldots, u_r - u_1\}$. So $p_1(x-1)$ is a monic irreducible separable polynomial in k[x] and k[x] and k[x] and k[x]. Hence k[x] but not a root of k[x]. Therefore, k[x] does not divide k[x]. Hence k[x] but not a separable polynomial. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem (Theorem 3.3.8),

$$\frac{k[x]}{(p_1(x-a)f(x))} \to \frac{k[x]}{(p_1(x-a))} \bigoplus \frac{k[x]}{(f(x))}$$

is an isomorphism. But the k-algebra on the right is isomorphic to A.

Corollary 9.5.10 is a kind of "Primitive Element Theorem" for commutative separable algebras over a finite field which is due to T. McKenzie ([42]).

COROLLARY 9.5.10. If k is a finite field and A is a commutative separable k-algebra, then there is a monic polynomial $f(x) \in k[x]$ such that gcd(f, f') = 1 and A is isomorphic to a k-subalgebra of k[x]/(f(x)).

PROOF. By Corollary 9.5.9 (1), there is a k-algebra isomorphism $A \cong K_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus K_n$, where each K_i is a separable extension field of k. Let $d_i = \dim_k(K_i)$, and

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 $d = \operatorname{lcm}(d_1, \ldots, d_n)$. By Exercise 5.5.7 there exists a polynomial $f(x) \in k[x]$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(f, f') = 1$ and k[x]/(f(x)) is isomorphic to the direct sum $F \oplus \cdots \oplus F$ of n copies of the field F, where $\dim_k(F) = dm$, for some $m \geq 1$. By Theorem 5.5.3, F contains a subfield isomorphic to K_i , and we can embed A into k[x]/(f(x)). \square

5.3. The Skolem-Noether Theorem.

Theorem 9.5.11. (Skolem-Noether) Let A be a central simple k-algebra. Let B and \tilde{B} be two simple k-subalgebras of A and $\varphi: B \to \tilde{B}$ a k-algebra isomorphism. Then φ extends to an inner automorphism of A. That is, there exists an invertible $u \in A$ such that $\varphi(x) = uxu^{-1}$, for all $x \in B$.

PROOF. By Theorem 8.3.5, if M is a minimal left ideal of A, then $D = \operatorname{Hom}_A(M,M)$ is a division ring, and $A \cong \operatorname{Hom}_D(M,M)$. For $a \in A$, let $\lambda_a : M \to M$ be "left multiplication by a". For all $x \in M$, $d \in D$, $b \in B$, we have $\lambda_d \lambda_b x = \lambda_b \lambda_d x$. Therefore, we can make M into a left $D \otimes_k B$ -module by $d \otimes b \cdot x = dbx$. Using φ , define a second left $D \otimes_k B$ -module structure on M by $d \otimes b \cdot x = d\varphi(b)x$. Denote this module by φM . By Theorem 8.3.9, $D \otimes_k B$ is a simple ring. It follows from Theorem 8.2.1 and Theorem 8.3.3 that V and φM are isomorphic $D \otimes_k B$ -modules. Therefore, there exists an isomorphism $\theta \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(M,M)$ satisfying:

$$\theta(d \otimes b \cdot x) = d \otimes b \cdot \theta(x) = d\varphi(b)\theta(x).$$

For b=1, this implies $\theta(dx)=d\theta(x)$, so $\theta\in \operatorname{Hom}_D(M,M)=A$. That is, $\theta=\lambda_u$, for some invertible $u\in A$. The equation above becomes

$$u(db)x = d\varphi(b)ux.$$

If d=1, this becomes: $ubx=\varphi(b)ux$. Since M is a faithful module (Theorem 8.3.3), this proves $\varphi(b)=ubu^{-1}$.

Corollary 9.5.12. Let k be a field and A a central simple k-algebra. If $\theta: A \to A$ is a k-algebra homomorphism, then θ is an inner automorphism of A.

PROOF. Since A is simple, the kernel of θ is the zero ideal, hence θ is one-to-one. The image of θ has dimension $\dim_k(A)$, hence θ is onto.

5.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 9.5.13. Let k be a field and $f \in k[x]$ a monic polynomial. Let S = k[x]/(f). Show that S/k is separable if and only if gcd(f, f') = 1. For a generalization of this result, see Proposition 9.6.2.

EXERCISE 9.5.14. Let k be a field and G a finite group of order [G:1].

- (1) (Maschke's Theorem) If [G:1] is invertible in k, then the group algebra k(G) is semisimple.
- (2) This exercise contains an outline of a proof of the converse to Maschke's Theorem. In the group algebra k(G), let $t = \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma$ and I = k(G)t be the left ideal generated by t.
 - (a) Show that I is equal to kt.
 - (b) Show that if the characteristic of k divides [G:1], then $I^2=0$. Conclude that I is not a k(G)-module direct summand of k(G).
 - (c) Show that if the group algebra k(G) is semisimple, then [G:1] is invertible in k.

EXERCISE 9.5.15. The purpose of this exercise is to prove the converse of Example 9.2.2. Let R be a commutative ring and G a finite group of order [G:1]. Show that if the group algebra R(G) is separable over R, then [G:1] is invertible in R. (Hint: If \mathfrak{m} is a maximal ideal in R which contains [G:1], then by Exercise 9.5.14, the group algebra $(R/\mathfrak{m})(G)$ is not semisimple.)

EXERCISE 9.5.16. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a local homomorphism of local rings and assume θ makes S into a separable R-algebra. Let \mathfrak{m} be the maximal ideal of R, \mathfrak{n} the maximal ideal of S, and $R/\mathfrak{m} \to S/\mathfrak{n}$ the corresponding extension of residue fields. Then $\mathfrak{m}S = \mathfrak{n}$, $S \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m} = S/\mathfrak{n}$, and $R/\mathfrak{m} \to S/\mathfrak{n}$ is a finite separable extension of fields.

EXERCISE 9.5.17. This exercise generalizes Exercises 9.4.14 (5) and 9.4.15 (2). Let $n \geq 2$ be an integer and R a commutative ring. Prove the following for S = $R[x]/(x^n-a)$.

- (1) S is free of rank n as an R-module with basis $1, x, \ldots, x^{n-1}$.
- (2) If na is a unit of R, then x is a unit of S and S is a separable R-algebra. (Hint: $e = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} x^i \otimes x^{-i}$ is a separability idempotent.) (3) If n is not a unit of R, then S is not separable over R.
- (4) If a is not a unit of R, then S is not separable over R.

6. Commutative Separable Algebras

References for the material in this section are [52] and [31]. If S is a commutative ring and R is a subring of S, then we say S/R is an extension of commutative rings.

Definition 9.6.1. Let R be a commutative ring. A monic polynomial f(x)in R[x] is called *separable* in case R[x]/(f(x)) is separable over R. If S/R is an extension of commutative rings, and $b \in S$, then we say b is a separable element in S in case there is a separable polynomial $f(x) \in R[x]$ and f(b) = 0.

Proposition 9.6.2, a generalization of Exercise 9.5.13, provides a useful Jacobian Criterion for a polynomial to be separable. See Proposition 14.2.7 for a more general version that applies when the extension S/R is not necessarily a simple extension.

Proposition 9.6.2. Let R be a commutative ring and f(x) a monic polynomial in R[x]. Let I = (f(x), f'(x)) be the ideal of R[x] generated by f(x) and the formal derivative, f'(x). Let S = R[x]/(f(x)). Then the following are true.

- (1) S is a free R-module. Rank_R(S) = deg(f(x)).
- (2) S is separable over R if and only if the ideal I is the unit ideal.

Proof. (1): This is Exercise 4.2.26.

(2): Assume I is not the unit ideal of R[x]. By (1), R[x]/I is a finitely generated R-module. By Nakayama's Lemma (Corollary 6.3.2), there is a maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} in R such that

$$(R[x]/I) \otimes_R (R/\mathfrak{m}) = \frac{(R/\mathfrak{m})[x]}{(f,f')}$$

is nonzero. Let $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$. Then in k[x], (f, f') is not the unit ideal. By Exercise 9.5.13, $S \otimes_R k$ is not separable over k. By Corollary 9.3.2, S is not separable over R.

Now we prove the converse of (2). In R[x,y], y-x is monic in y and linear, so The Division Algorithm (Theorem 3.6.4) applies. Upon dividing f(y) - f(x) by y-x one finds the remainder is 0. We can write f(y) = f(x) + (y-x)q(x,y). Compute the derivative with respect to y: $f'(y) = q(x,y) + (y-x)q_y(x,y)$. By assumption, there are $u(y), v(y) \in R[y]$ such that

(6.1)
$$1 = f(y)u(y) + f'(y)v(y)$$
$$= (f(x) + (y - x)q(x, y))u(y) + (q(x, y) + (y - x)q_y(x, y))v(y)$$
$$= (y - x)(q(x, y)u(y) + q_y(x, y)v(y)) + f(x)u(y) + q(x, y)v(y)$$

Under the mapping $R[x,y] \to S[y]$, all of the polynomials above represent elements in S[y]. Consider the principal ideals $A=(y-x),\ B=(q(x,y))$ in S[y]. By (6.1), A and B are comaximal in S[y]. By Exercise 3.3.18 $A\cap B=AB$. But in S[y] the equation f(y)=(y-x)q(x,y) holds. The Chinese Remainder Theorem (Theorem 3.3.8) implies

(6.2)
$$\frac{S[y]}{(f(y))} \xrightarrow{\phi_1 \oplus \phi_2} \frac{S[y]}{(y-x)} \bigoplus \frac{S[y]}{(q(x,y))}$$

is an isomorphism. To interpret the map $\mu: S \otimes_R S \to S$ of Definition 9.1.1, it is convenient to write the generators of the three copies of S as x, y, and z. Then $\mu(x \otimes 1) = \mu(1 \otimes y) = z$. The diagram

$$S \otimes_R S \xrightarrow{\mu} S$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\frac{R[x]}{(f(x))} \otimes_R \frac{R[y]}{(f(y))} \xrightarrow{\mu} \frac{R[z]}{(f(z))}$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$S \otimes_R \frac{R[y]}{(f(y))} \xrightarrow{\phi_1} \frac{S[y]}{(y-x)}$$

commutes, the vertical maps are isomorphisms. As we have already seen in (6.2), the kernel of ϕ_1 is idempotent generated.

6.1. Algebras over Local Rings. Given a local ring R with residue field k, Corollary 9.6.3 shows that a separable finite simple field extension k(u)/k lifts to an extension of local rings S/R where S is a commutative separable R-algebra that is generated by a primitive element and as an R-module is finitely generated and faithfully flat. See Section 15.5.2 for similar existence theorems in the larger category of all faithfully flat local R-algebras S.

COROLLARY 9.6.3. Let R be a local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field k. Let F be a finite dimensional commutative k-algebra such that $\dim_k(F) = n$. Assume F is generated as a k-algebra by a primitive element u. Then there is a commutative faithful R-algebra S satisfying the following.

- (1) S is a free R-module of rank n.
- (2) S is generated as an R-algebra by a primitive element a.
- (3) $S \otimes_R k$ is isomorphic to F.
- (4) If F is a field, then S is a local ring and $\mathfrak{m}S$ is the maximal ideal of S.
- (5) If F/k is a separable extension, then S/R is separable.

PROOF. Let $\theta: k[x] \to F$ be defined by $x \mapsto u$. Let $f \in k[x]$ be the monic polynomial that generates the kernel of θ . Since θ is onto, f has degree n. Lift f to a monic polynomial $g \in R[x]$. Set S = R[x]/(g).

- (1): This is Exercise 4.2.26.
- (2): Take a to be the image of x.
- (3): This follows from $S \otimes_R k = k[x]/(f) = F$.
- (4): If F is a field, then by (3), it follows that $\mathfrak{m}S$ is a maximal ideal of S. By Exercise 6.3.21, S is a local ring.
- (5): Under the map $R[x] \to k[x]$, the ideal (g, g') in R[x] restricts to the ideal (f, f') in k[x]. Since F/k is separable, Proposition 9.6.2 implies (f, f') = k[x]. Since R[x]/(g, g') is a finitely generated R-module, Nakayama's Lemma (Corollary 6.3.2) implies (g, g') = R[x]. Proposition 9.6.2 implies S/R is separable.

COROLLARY 9.6.4. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a local homomorphism of local rings such that S is a separable R-algebra and finitely generated as an R-module. Then S is a homomorphic image of R[x]. That is, S is generated as an R-algebra by a primitive element a.

PROOF. Let \mathfrak{m} be the maximal ideal of R, and k the residue field. By Exercise 9.5.16, $\mathfrak{m}S$ is equal to the maximal ideal of S, and $S/\mathfrak{m}S$ is a finite separable extension field of k. By the Primitive Element Theorem (Theorem 5.4.7), $S/\mathfrak{m}S = k(u)$ is a simple extension. Define $\phi: R[x] \to S$ by $x \mapsto a$, where $a \in S$ is a preimage of u. Then $R[x] \otimes_R k \to S \otimes_R k$ is onto, S is generated as an R-module by $\mathrm{im}(\phi)$ and $\mathfrak{m}S$, and Nakayama's Lemma (Corollary 6.3.5) implies ϕ is onto. \square

If the residue field of R is infinite, then Corollary 9.6.5 shows that it is not necessary to assume S is local.

COROLLARY 9.6.5. Let R be a local ring with infinite residue field k. If S is a separable R-algebra which is finitely generated as an R-module, then S is a homomorphic image of R[x]. That is, S is generated as an R-algebra by a primitive element a.

PROOF. By Corollary 9.5.9, there is a monic separable polynomial $f \in k[x]$ such that $\gcd(f, f') = 1$ and $k[x]/(f) \cong S \otimes_R k$. The rest of the proof is as in Corollary 9.6.4.

6.2. Separability and the Trace.

DEFINITION 9.6.6. Let A be any R-algebra. Let M be a left A-module which as an R-module is finitely generated and projective. Let $x_1, \ldots, x_m \in M$ and $f_1, \ldots, f_m \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,R)$ be a dual basis for the R-module M. Define $T_R^{A,M}: A \to R$ by the rule

$$T_R^{A,M}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m f_i(xx_i).$$

The reader should verify that $T_R^{A,M} \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,R)$. We call $T_R^{A,M}$ the trace from A to R afforded by M. By Exercise 9.6.14, $T_R^{A,M}$ is independent of the choice of a dual basis for M. When M=A, we simplify the notation and write T_R^A . The reader should verify that $T_R^R(x) = x$ for all $x \in R$.

EXAMPLE 9.6.7. Let F/k be a Galois extension of fields with finite group G. By Exercise 5.7.8, the trace map is given by

$$T_k^F(x) = \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(x)$$

for all $x \in F$.

THEOREM 9.6.8. Let S/R be an extension of commutative rings. Then S is finitely generated as an R-module, projective, and separable over R if and only if there exists an element $T \in \text{Hom}_R(S,R)$ and elements $x_1, \ldots, x_n, y_1, \ldots, y_n$ in S satisfying

(1)
$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j y_j = 1$$
, and
(2) $\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j T(y_j x) = x$ for all $x \in S$.

Moreover, the map T is always equal to T_R^S , the trace map from S to R.

PROOF. Assume S is a finitely generated R-module, projective, and separable over R. Pick a dual basis $\{a_1, \ldots, a_m\}, \{f_1, \ldots, f_m\}$ for the R-module S. The trace map from S to R is given by

$$T_R^S(x) = \sum_{j=1}^m f_j(xa_j)$$

for all $x \in S$. Since S is a finitely generated, projective extension of R, by Theorem 6.4.23, $S \otimes S$ is a finitely generated projective extension of $S \otimes 1$. A dual basis for $S \otimes S$ over $S \otimes 1$ is $\{1 \otimes a_1, \ldots, 1 \otimes a_m\}$, $\{1 \otimes f_1, \ldots, 1 \otimes f_m\}$ and the trace map from $S \otimes S$ to $S \otimes 1$ is equal to $T_{S \otimes 1}^{S \otimes S} = 1 \otimes T_R^S$. Since S is a separable extension of $S \otimes S$ is a separable extension of $S \otimes S$, by Corollary 9.3.2. Let $S \otimes S$ be a separability idempotent for $S \otimes S$ over $S \otimes S$. Under the homomorphism $S \otimes S \otimes S$ of Proposition 9.1.2, $S \otimes S \otimes S$ over $S \otimes S \otimes S$ over $S \otimes S \otimes S$. By Proposition 9.1.2, as $S \otimes S$ -modules, we have $S \otimes S \cong J_{A/R} \oplus (S \otimes 1)e \cong J_{A/R} \oplus (S \otimes 1)$. Exercise 9.6.15 allows us to write the trace from $S \otimes S$ to $S \otimes S$ as the sum

$$T_{S\otimes 1}^{S\otimes S} = T_{S\otimes 1}^{J_{A/R}} + T_{S\otimes 1}^{S\otimes 1},$$

where $T_{S\otimes 1}^{J_{A/R}}$ is the restriction of the trace map to $J_{A/R}$ and $T_{S\otimes 1}^{S\otimes 1}$ is the restriction to $(S\otimes 1)e$. To compute $T_{S\otimes 1}^{S\otimes 1}$, use the dual basis $\{e,\sigma\}$ where $\sigma:(S\otimes 1)e\to S\otimes 1$ is the isomorphism defined by $\sigma(e)=1$. For any $x\in S$,

$$\begin{split} T_{S\otimes 1}^{S\otimes S}\left((x\otimes 1)e\right) &= T_{S\otimes 1}^{J_{A/R}}\left((x\otimes 1)e\right) + T_{S\otimes 1}^{S\otimes 1}\left((x\otimes 1)e\right) \\ &= T_{S\otimes 1}^{S\otimes 1}\left((x\otimes 1)e\right) \\ &= x\otimes 1. \end{split}$$

Now let $x \in S$ and let $e = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j \otimes y_j$. Then (1) follows from $\mu(e) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j y_j = 1$ and (2) follows from applying μ to both sides of

$$x \otimes 1 = T_{S \otimes 1}^{S \otimes S} ((x \otimes 1) \cdot e)$$

$$= T_{S \otimes 1}^{S \otimes S} ((1 \otimes x) \cdot e)$$

$$= (1 \otimes T_R^S) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n x_j \otimes y_j x \right)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \otimes T_R^S (y_j x).$$

Conversely, suppose we are given $T \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(S,R)$ and elements $x_1,\ldots,x_n, y_1,\ldots,y_n$ in S satisfying (1) and (2). The reader should verify that the assignment $s\mapsto T(y_js)$ defines an element $T(y_j\cdot)$ in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(S,R)$. The set $\{x_1,\ldots,x_n\},\{T(y_1\cdot),\ldots,T(y_n\cdot)\}$ forms a dual basis for S over R. Therefore S is a finitely generated, projective R-module. Define an element in $S\otimes_R S$ by $e=\sum_{j=1}^n x_j\otimes y_j$. If μ is as in Proposition 9.1.2, $\mu(e)=\sum_{j=1}^n x_jy_j=1$. For any $x\in S$,

$$(1 \otimes x)e = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j \otimes y_j x$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_j \otimes x_i T(y_i y_j x)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j T(y_j y_i x) \otimes x_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} x y_i \otimes x_i.$$

If x = 1, then we see $e = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j \otimes y_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \otimes x_i$. It follows that $(1 \otimes x)e = (x \otimes 1)e$ and by Proposition 9.1.2, S is separable over R.

Lastly, the set $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$, $\{T(y_1), \ldots, T(y_n)\}$ is a dual basis for S over R, so by Exercise 9.6.14,

$$T_R^S(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n T(y_j x x_j) = T(x \sum_{j=1}^n x_j y_j) = T(x).$$

Assume S/R is an extension of commutative rings. As we saw in Example 4.4.3, there is an R-algebra embedding $\theta \colon S \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(S,S)$ given by $\alpha \mapsto \ell_\alpha$ where ℓ_α is "left multiplication by α ". Using Lemma 6.5.1, we turn $\operatorname{Hom}_R(S,R)$ into a right S-module. In fact, for every $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(S,R)$ and $\alpha \in S$, $f\alpha$ is defined to be $f \circ \ell_\alpha$.

COROLLARY 9.6.9. Let S/R be an extension of commutative rings such that S is a finitely generated projective R-module. Then S is separable over R if and only if the trace map T_R^S from S to R is a free right S-module generator of $\text{Hom}_R(S,R)$.

PROOF. Assume S/R is a separable extension of R which is a finitely generated projective R-module. Let $x_1, \ldots, x_n, y_1, \ldots, y_n$ be elements in R guaranteed by

Theorem 9.6.8. For any $f \in \text{Hom}_R(S, R)$ and any $x \in S$

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(x_j T_R^S(y_j x))$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} T_R^S(y_j x) f(x_j)$$
$$= T_R^S(\sum_{j=1}^{n} y_j x f(x_j)).$$

Let $\alpha = \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_j)y_j$. Then $f(x) = T_R^S(\alpha x)$, for all $x \in S$, which shows that $f = T_R^S \circ \ell_\alpha$. If $T_R^S \alpha = 0$ in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(S, R)$, then by Theorem 9.6.8(2),

$$0 = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j T_R^S(y_j \alpha) = \alpha.$$

This shows that the assignment $\alpha \mapsto T_R^S \alpha$ defines an S-module isomorphism $S \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(S,R)$.

Conversely suppose $x_1, \ldots, x_m, f_1, \ldots, f_m$ is a dual basis for S over R. Assuming T_R^S generates $\operatorname{Hom}_R(S,R)$ as an S-module, there exist y_1, \ldots, y_m in S such that $f_j = T_R^S \circ \ell_{y_j}$. We prove that (1) and (2) of Theorem 9.6.8 are satisfied. For any $x \in S$,

$$x = \sum_{j=1}^{m} f_j(x)x_j = \sum_{j=1}^{m} x_j T_R^S(y_j x)$$

which is (2). For any $z \in S$

$$T_{R}^{S}\left(\left(1 - \sum_{j=1}^{m} x_{j} y_{j}\right) z\right) = T_{R}^{S}(z) - T_{R}^{S}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} x_{j} y_{j} z\right)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{m} f_{j}(z x_{j}) - T_{R}^{S}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} x_{j} y_{j} z\right)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{m} T_{R}^{S}(y_{j} z x_{j}) - T_{R}^{S}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} x_{j} y_{j} z\right)$$

$$= T_{R}^{S}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} y_{j} x_{j} z\right) - T_{R}^{S}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} x_{j} y_{j} z\right)$$

$$= 0$$

Since T_R^S is a free generator of $\operatorname{Hom}_R(S,R)$, we conclude that $\sum_{j=1}^m x_j y_j = 1$ which is (1).

COROLLARY 9.6.10. If S is a separable extension of R which is a finitely generated projective R-module, and T_R^S is the trace map from S to R, then there is an element $c \in S$ with $T_R^S(c) = 1$. Moreover $R \cdot c$ is an R-module direct summand of S.

PROOF. By hypothesis, S is finitely generated projective and faithful as an R-module. By Corollary 6.3.4, S is an R-progenerator module. There exist elements f_1, \ldots, f_n in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(S,R)$ and x_1, \ldots, x_n in S with $1 = \sum_{j=1}^n f_j(x_j)$. By Corollary 9.6.9, for each j there is a unique element $a_j \in S$ such that $f_j(x) = T_R^S(a_j x)$ for all $x \in S$. Set $c = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j x_j$. Then $T_R^S(c) = 1$. The R-module homomorphism $R \to S$ which is defined by $1 \mapsto c$ is split by the trace map $T_R^S : S \to R$.

6.3. Twisted Form of the trivial extension. Let R be a commutative ring and $n \ge 1$. We write R^n for the direct sum $R \oplus \cdots \oplus R$. By Exercise 9.1.14, R^n is separable over R. We call R^n the *trivial* commutative separable extension of R of rank n.

Proposition 9.6.11. Let S be a commutative R-algebra. The following are equivalent.

- (1) S is a separable R-algebra and an R-module progenerator of constant rank n.
- (2) There is a commutative separable R-algebra T which is an R-module progenerator of constant rank n! and $S \otimes_R T \cong T^n$ as T-algebras.
- (3) There is a faithfully flat R-algebra T such that $S \otimes_R T \cong T^n$ as T-algebras.

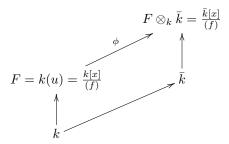
PROOF. (1) implies (2): Let $e \in S \otimes_R S$ be a separability idempotent. Then $S \otimes_R S = (S \otimes_R S)e \oplus (S \otimes_R S)(1-e)$ and $(S \otimes_R S)e \cong S$. Using Exercise 9.4.9 one can check that $(S \otimes_R S)(1-e)$ is separable over S and is an S-module progenerator of constant rank n-1. By Proposition 7.4.5, $S \otimes_R S$ is an S-module progenerator of rank n-1. If n=1, then we take T=S. Otherwise, inductively, there is a commutative separable S-algebra T which is an S-module progenerator of rank (n-1)! such that $(S \otimes_R S)(1-e) \otimes_S T \cong T^{n-1}$. The reader should verify that T is a separable S-algebra, an S-module progenerator of rank S-module S-algebra, an S-module progenerator of rank S-module S-algebra.

- (2) implies (3): By Proposition 7.5.6, T is faithfully flat.
- (3) implies (1): We are given that T is faithfully flat over R and $S \otimes_R T \cong T^n$. Using this and Lemma 7.5.12, the reader should verify that S is an R-module which is a progenerator of constant rank n. A projective dual basis for S over R gives rise to a dual basis for $S \otimes_R T$, so the trace $T_T^{S \otimes_R T}$ is $T_R^S \otimes 1$. By Proposition 7.5.9, we see that $T_R^S \otimes 1$ is a free right $S \otimes_R T$ -module generator of $\operatorname{Hom}_R(S,R) \otimes_R T$. Using the fact that T is faithfully flat over R, the reader should verify that T_R^S is a free right S-module generator for $\operatorname{Hom}_R(S,R)$. Corollary 9.6.9 implies S is separable over S.
- **6.4.** The Trivial Galois Extension of a Field. In this section we derive some results on separable field extensions that will be used in the proof of Dirichlet's Unit Theorem, Section 16.8.2.

EXAMPLE 9.6.12. Let R be a commutative ring and G a finite group of order n = [G:1]. As in Section 9.6.3, let $S = \bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} Re_{\sigma}$ be the trivial commutative separable extension of R of rank n. For $\tau \in G$, let $\lambda_{\tau} : G \to G$ be "left multiplication by τ ". Using λ we make S into a left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module. The G-action is defined on the basis $\{e_{\sigma} \mid \sigma \in G\}$ by $\lambda_{\tau}(e_{\sigma}) = e_{\tau\sigma}$. Denote by S_{λ} the R-algebra S with the left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module defined using λ . Following [20, Example 12.2.5], we call S_{λ} the trivial, or split, G-Galois extension of R. Now let $\rho_{\tau} : G \to G$ be "right multiplication by τ^{-1} ". Using ρ we define another $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module structure on S. This G-action is defined on the basis $\{e_{\sigma} \mid \sigma \in G\}$ by the rule $\rho_{\tau}(e_{\sigma}) = e_{\sigma\tau^{-1}}$.

Denote by S_{ρ} the R-algebra S with the left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module defined using ρ . The two $\mathbb{Z}G$ -actions we have just defined on the R-algebra S are isomorphic. To see this, define $h: S_{\lambda} \to S_{\rho}$ on the basis $\{e_{\sigma} \mid \sigma \in G\}$ by $h(e_{\sigma}) = e_{\sigma^{-1}}$. For $\tau \in G$ we have $h(\lambda_{\tau}e_{\sigma}) = h(e_{\tau\sigma}) = e_{\sigma^{-1}\tau^{-1}}$ which is equal to $\rho_{\tau}h(e_{\sigma}) = \rho_{\tau}e_{\sigma^{-1}} = e_{\sigma^{-1}\tau^{-1}}$. Although it is not required for our purposes here, the interested reader is referred to Chapter 12 of [20] for an introduction to Galois Theory of commutative rings.

Now we establish some notation that will be in effect for the remainder of this section. Let F/k be a Galois extension of fields with finite group $G=\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$ of order n=[G:1]. By The Primitive Element Theorem, Theorem 5.4.7, there exists a separable element $u\in F$ such that F=k(u). Let $f=\operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(u)$ be the irreducible polynomial for u over k. Let \bar{k} be any splitting field for f containing k. In Proposition 9.6.13 we show that $F\otimes_k \bar{k}$ is a trivial G-Galois extension of \bar{k} . The rings defined so far make up the following commutative diagram. Each arrow is a one-to-one homomorphism of rings.



PROPOSITION 9.6.13. Let F/k be a Galois extension of fields with finite group $G = \operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$. Suppose F = k(u), $f = \operatorname{Irr.poly}_k(u)$ and \bar{k} is a splitting field for f containing k. Then $F \otimes_k \bar{k}$ is a trivial G-Galois extension of \bar{k} .

PROOF. We know from Exercise 5.7.9 that in the polynomial ring $\bar{k}[x]$, the polynomial f has the splitting $f = \prod_{\sigma \in G} (x - \sigma(u))$. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, Theorem 3.3.8,

(6.3)
$$F \otimes_k \bar{k} = \frac{\bar{k}[x]}{(f)} = \bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} \frac{\bar{k}[x]}{(x - \sigma(u))} = \bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} \bar{k}e_{\sigma}$$

where $\{e_{\sigma} \mid \sigma \in G\}$ are the idempotents in $F \otimes_k \bar{k}$ corresponding to the direct sum decomposition. For each $\sigma \in G$, the projection map $\pi_{\sigma} : \bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} \bar{k}e_{\sigma} \to \bar{k}e_{\sigma}$ is a ring homomorphism. The ring homomorphism

$$\phi: F \to F \otimes_k \bar{k} = \bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} \bar{k} e_{\sigma}$$

is one-to-one. By Theorem 5.1.4 we see that

(6.4)
$$\phi(u) = \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(u) e_{\sigma}.$$

Let $\alpha \in F$ be an arbitrary element of F. If n = [G:1], there are unique a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1} in k such that $\alpha = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i u^i$. Hence

$$\phi(\alpha) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i (\phi(u))^i$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i \left(\sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(u) e_\sigma \right)^i$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left(\sum_{\sigma \in G} a_i (\sigma(u))^i e_\sigma \right)$$

$$= \sum_{\sigma \in G} \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i (\sigma(u))^i \right) e_\sigma$$

$$= \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(\alpha) e_\sigma.$$

For each $\tau \in G$, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{c|c} F & \xrightarrow{\tau} & F \\ \downarrow^{\phi} & & \downarrow^{\phi} \\ F \otimes_k \bar{k} & \xrightarrow{\tau \otimes 1} & F \otimes_k \bar{k} \end{array}$$

commutes and $\tau \otimes 1$ is a \bar{k} -algebra automorphism. Therefore the G-action on F extends to a G-action on $F \otimes_k \bar{k}$. Notice that

(6.6)
$$\phi(\tau(u)) = \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(\tau(u)) e_{\sigma}$$
$$= \sum_{\gamma \in G} \gamma(u) e_{\gamma \tau^{-1}}.$$

Let $\rho_{\tau}: F \otimes_k \bar{k} \to F \otimes_k \bar{k}$ be the "left multiplication by $\tau \otimes 1$ " homomorphism. Comparing (6.4) and (6.6) we see that the G-action on the ring $\bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} \bar{k} e_{\sigma}$ is defined on the basis $\{e_{\sigma} \mid \sigma \in G\}$ by the rule $\rho_{\tau}(e_{\sigma}) = e_{\sigma\tau^{-1}}$. By Example 9.6.12, this shows that $F \otimes_k \bar{k}$ together with the G-action inherited from F is isomorphic to the trivial G-Galois extension of \bar{k} .

From (6.5) we see that the composite map $\phi_{\sigma} = \pi_{\sigma} \phi$ is one-to-one and factors through $\sigma : F \to F$. The diagram

$$F \xrightarrow{\phi_{\sigma}} \bar{k}e_{\sigma}$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow \cong$$

$$F \xrightarrow{\subseteq} \bar{k}$$

commutes.

6.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 9.6.14. In Definition 9.6.6 the trace map from A to R afforded by $M, T_R^{A,M}$, was defined using a dual basis for M. Prove that the function $T_R^{A,M}$ is independent of the choice of dual basis for M.

EXERCISE 9.6.15. Let A be an R-algebra and M a left A-module which is a finitely generated projective R-module. If $M=M_1\oplus M_2$ as A-modules, prove that

$$T_R^{A,M} = T_R^{A,M_1} + T_R^{A,M_2}.$$

EXERCISE 9.6.16. Let A be an R-algebra which is finitely generated and free as an R-module. Show that the trace mapping T_R^S defined in Exercise 4.7.26 is equal to the trace mapping defined in Definition 9.6.6.

EXERCISE 9.6.17. Let k be a field and A a finite dimensional k-algebra. Suppose $\alpha \in A$ and min. $\operatorname{poly}_k(\alpha) = x^m + a_{m-1}x^{m-1} + \cdots + a_1 + a_0$ is irreducible in k[x]. Prove that $T_k^A(\alpha) = ra_{m-1}$ for some integer r.

EXERCISE 9.6.18. Let S be a commutative faithful R-algebra which is a finitely generated free R-module of rank n. Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ be a free basis for S over R. For each i, let $\pi_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(S, R)$ be the projection onto the coefficient of λ_i .

- (1) The trace map is given by $T_R^S(z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \pi_i(z\lambda_i)$.
- (2) The following are equivalent.
 - (a) S is separable over R.
 - (b) There exist μ_1, \ldots, μ_n in S such that $T_R^S \cdot \mu_i = \pi_i$.
- (3) If S/R is separable, then the elements μ_1, \ldots, μ_n appearing in (2) make up a free R-basis for S and $T_R^S(\mu_i \lambda_j) = \delta_{ij}$ (Kronecker's delta).

EXERCISE 9.6.19. Let R be a commutative ring and P a finitely generated projective R-module. By Lemma 6.9.1, $\theta_R: P^* \otimes_R P \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(P,P)$ is an isomorphism of R-modules, where $\theta_R(f \otimes p)(x) = f(x)p$.

- (1) Define $T: P^* \otimes_R P \to R$ by $T(f \otimes p) = f(p)$. Show that T is an R-module homomorphism.
- (2) Assume P is free and finitely generated. Show that the map T induces a map T: $\operatorname{Hom}_R(P,P) \to R$ which is equal to the trace map of Exercise 4.7.26 and the trace map of Definition 9.6.6.

EXERCISE 9.6.20. Let S be a commutative faithful R-algebra which is finitely generated and projective as an R-module. Let A be a faithful S-algebra which is finitely generated and projective as an S-module. Prove the following generalization of Exercise 4.7.41 (1): For every $a \in A$, $T_R^A(a) = T_R^S\left(T_S^A(a)\right)$.

EXERCISE 9.6.21. Let R be a connected commutative ring and S a commutative separable R-algebra that as an R-module is a progenerator of rank n. Then there exists a commutative R-algebra T that satisfies:

- (1) T is connected.
- (2) T is separable over R.
- (3) T is an R-module progenerator.
- (4) $S \otimes_R T \cong T^n$.

(Hints: Start with the algebra T constructed in Proposition 9.6.11. By Exercise 7.4.14, Spec T has only finitely many connected components. Show that T can be replaced with one of its connected components.)

CHAPTER 10

The Integral Closure of a Commutative Ring

1. Integral Extensions

1.1. Integral elements. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. An element $a \in A$ is said to be integral over R in case there exists a monic polynomial $p \in R[x]$ such that p(a) = 0. If every element of A is integral over R, then we say A is integral over R. The reader should verify that any homomorphic image of R is integral over R. The R-algebra A comes with a structure homomorphism $\theta: R \to Z(A)$. Assume θ is one-to-one, or equivalently, A is a faithful R-module. Then we identify R with $\theta(R)$ which is a subring of A. In this case, if every element of A is integral over R, we say A/R is an integral extension. If no element of A - R is integral over R, then we say R is integrally closed in A.

If A is an R-algebra which is R-faithful, and $a \in A$, then the R-subalgebra of A generated by a is denoted R[a]. Since $R \subseteq Z(A)$, R[a] is commutative, and the substitution homomorphism $R[x] \to A$ defined by $x \mapsto a$ is an R-algebra homomorphism with image R[a].

EXAMPLE 10.1.1. Let R be a commutative ring. Let $A=M_n(R)$, the ring of n-by-n matrices over R. Let $M\in M_n(R)$ and let $p(x)=\operatorname{char.poly}_M(x)$ be the characteristic polynomial of M. Then p(x) is a monic polynomial of degree n in R[x]. By Cayley-Hamilton (Theorem 4.7.12) we know p(M)=0. This shows A is integral over R.

Proposition 10.1.2. Let A be a faithful R-algebra, and $a \in A$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) a is integral over R.
- (2) R[a] is a finitely generated R-module.
- (3) There is an R-subalgebra B of A such that $R[a] \subseteq B \subseteq A$ and B is a finitely generated R-module.
- (4) There exists a faithful R[a]-module which is finitely generated as an R-module.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Since a is integral over R, there exist elements $r_0, r_1, \ldots, r_{n-1}$ in R such that $a^n = r_0 + r_1 a + \cdots + r_{n-1} a^{n-1}$. Let B be the R-submodule of R[a] generated by $1, a, a^2, \ldots, a^{n-1}$. Then we have shown that $a^n \in B$. Inductively assume k > 0 and that $a^i \in B$ for all i such that $0 \le i \le n + k - 1$. It follows that $a^{n+k} = r_0 a^k + r_1 a^{k+1} + \cdots + r_{n-1} a^{n+k-1}$ is also in B, hence B = R[a].

- (2) implies (3): For B take R[a].
- (3) implies (4): Since B contains R[a] as a subring, B is a faithful R[a]-module.
- (4) implies (1): Let M be a faithful R[a]-module. There are ring homomorphisms

$$R[a] \xrightarrow{\alpha} \operatorname{Hom}_{R[a]}(M, M) \xrightarrow{\beta} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, M)$$

where α is the left regular representation of Example 4.4.2. Since M is faithful, α is one-to-one. Since R[a] is an R-algebra, β is one-to-one. If $u \in R[a]$, then by Exercise 4.7.36, $\beta\alpha(u)$ satisfies a monic polynomial $p \in R[x]$. Therefore, every $u \in R[a]$ is integral over R.

Theorem 10.1.3. Let A be a commutative faithful R-algebra.

- (1) If $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in A$ are integral over R, then $R[a_1, \ldots, a_n]$ is a finitely generated R-module.
- (2) Let S be the set of all $a \in A$ such that a is integral over R. Then S is an R-subalgebra of A. We say that S is the integral closure of R in A.
- (3) (Integral over Integral is Integral) Let $R \subseteq S \subseteq A$ be three rings such that A is integral over S and S is integral over R. Then A is integral over R.
- (4) Let S be the integral closure of R in A. Then S is integrally closed in A.

PROOF. (1): By Proposition 10.1.2 (2), $R[a_1]$ is a finitely generated R-module. Set $S = R[a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}]$. Then a_n is integral over S, so $S[a_n]$ is a finitely generated S-module. Inductively assume S is a finitely generated R-module. By Exercise 4.1.23, $S[a_n] = R[a_1, \ldots, a_n]$ is a finitely generated R-module.

- (2): Given $x, y \in S$, by Part (1) it follows that R[x, y] is a finitely generated R-module of A. By Proposition 10.1.2, S contains x + y, x y, xy. Since $R \subseteq S$, S is an R-algebra.
- (3): Let $a \in A$ and $p \in S[x]$ a monic polynomial such that p(a) = 0. Suppose $p = s_0 + s_1 x + \dots + s_{n-1} x^{n-1} + x^n$. Set $T = R[s_0, \dots, s_{n-1}]$. Then T is a finitely generated R-module and $p \in T[x]$, so a is integral over T. It follows that T[a] is finitely generated over T. By Exercise 4.1.23, $T[a] = R[s_0, \dots, s_{n-1}, a]$ is a finitely generated R-module. Therefore a is integral over R.
- (4): By the proof of Part (3), if $a \in A$ is integral over S, then a is integral over R.

Lemma 10.1.4. Let A be a faithful integral R-algebra.

- (1) If $x \in R (0)$, then x is invertible in A if and only if x is invertible in R.
- (2) If A is a division ring, then R is a field.
- (3) If R is a field and A has no zero divisors, then A is a division ring.

PROOF. (1): Assume $x \in R - (0)$ and $x^{-1} \in A$. Then x^{-1} is integral over R. There exist $n \ge 1$ and $r_i \in R$ such that

$$x^{-n} + r_{n-1}x^{1-n} + \dots + r_1x^{-1} + r_0 = 0.$$

Multiply by x^{n-1} and get

$$x^{-1} + r_{n-1} + r_{n-2}x + \dots + r_1x^{n-2} + r_0x^{n-1} = 0$$

which shows $x^{-1} \in R$. We identify R with a subring of A, so the converse is obvious.

- (2): This follows straight from (1).
- (3): Assume R is a field and A has no zero divisors. If $y \in A (0)$, then y is algebraic over R and Corollary 4.5.3 (4) implies y is invertible.
- 1.2. Integrally Closed Domains. If R is an integral domain with quotient field K, then we say R is integrally closed if R is integrally closed in K.

Proposition 10.1.5. If R is a unique factorization domain (UFD) with quotient field K, then R is integrally closed in K.

PROOF. Let $n/d \in K$ where $n, d \in R$ and we assume $\gcd(n, d) = 1$. Suppose $p(x) = x^m + r_{m-1}x^{m-1} + \cdots + r_1x + r_0$ is a monic polynomial in R[x] and p(n/d) = 0. It follows from the Rational Root Theorem (Proposition 3.7.1) that d is a unit of R. That is, $n/d \in R$.

Example 10.1.6. Applying Proposition 10.1.5, we list some examples.

- (1) The ring of integers \mathbb{Z} is integrally closed in \mathbb{Q} .
- (2) If k is a field, then the ring of polynomials k[x] is integrally closed.
- (3) If R is a UFD, then the polynomial ring $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is integrally closed.
- (4) If D is a square free integer and $D \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then by Example 3.7.10, the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}]$ is an integral domain that is not integrally closed.

LEMMA 10.1.7. Suppose $R \subseteq T$ is an extension of commutative rings and S is the integral closure of R in T. If W is a multiplicative set in R, then S_W is the integral closure of R_W in T_W .

PROOF. By Exercise 10.1.15, $S_W = R_W \otimes_R S$ is integral over R_W . Suppose $t/w \in T_W$ is integral over R_W . Let

$$\left(\frac{t}{w}\right)^n + \frac{r_{n-1}}{w_{n-1}} \left(\frac{t}{w}\right)^{n-1} + \dots + \frac{r_1}{w_1} \frac{t}{w} + \frac{r_0}{w_0}$$

be an integral dependence relation where each $r_i \in R$ and $w_i \in W$. Let $d = w_0 \dots w_{n-1}$ and multiply through by $(dw)^n$ to get an integral dependence relation for dt over R. Then $dt \in S$, so $t/w = (dt)/(dw) \in S_W$.

COROLLARY 10.1.8. Let R be an integral domain with quotient field K.

- (1) If Λ is a commutative K-algebra, and S is the integral closure of R in Λ , then the image of the natural map $K \otimes_R S \to \Lambda$ is equal to the integral closure of K in Λ .
- (2) If L/K is a finite dimensional extension of fields and S is the integral closure of R in L, then L is equal to the quotient field of S.

PROOF. (1): Apply Lemma 10.1.7 with $T=\Lambda$ and multiplicative set W=R-(0). By Lemma 7.1.1 (6), S_W is isomorphic to $K\otimes_R S$. Part (2) is a special case of Part (1).

Proposition 10.1.9. Let R be an integral domain with quotient field K. The following are equivalent.

- (1) R is integrally closed in K.
- (2) For each $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, R_P is integrally closed in K.
- (3) For each $P \in \text{Max } R$, R_P is integrally closed in K.

PROOF. Let S be the integral closure of R in K. Then R is integrally closed if and only if $R \to S$ is onto. By Lemma 10.1.7, S_P is the integral closure of R_P in K for each $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. The rest follows from Exercise 7.5.16.

LEMMA 10.1.10. (Gauss' Lemma) Let R be an integrally closed integral domain with quotient field K. Let $f \in R[x]$ be a monic polynomial, and suppose there is a factorization f = gh, where g, h are monic polynomials in K[x]. Then both g and h are in R[x].

PROOF. By Proposition 5.3.7, let L/K be an extension of fields such that L is a splitting field for f over K. By Theorem 10.1.3(2), let S be the integral closure of R in L. Since f splits in L[x], so does g. Write $g = \prod (x - \alpha_i)$. Each α_i is a root of f, hence is integral over R, hence lies in S. This shows that every coefficient of g is in S. So each coefficient of g is in $S \cap K$ which is equal to R since R is integrally closed in K. So $g \in R[x]$. The same argument applies to h.

Theorem 10.1.11. Let R be an integrally closed integral domain with quotient field K. Let A be a finite dimensional K-algebra. An element $\alpha \in A$ is integral over R if and only if \min poly $_K(\alpha) \in R[x]$.

PROOF. Let $f = \min$, $\operatorname{poly}_K(\alpha) \in K[x]$. Assume α is integral over R. Then there exists a monic polynomial $g \in R[x]$ such that $g(\alpha) = 0$. In this case, f divides g in K[x]. There is a factorization g = fh for some monic polynomial $h \in K[x]$. By Gauss' Lemma 10.1.10, both f and h lie in R[x].

COROLLARY 10.1.12. Let R be an integral domain which is integrally closed in its quotient field K. Let L/K be a finite separable field extension and let S be the integral closure of R in L. Then the trace and norm functions from L to K restrict to trace and norm functions from S to R. That is, $T_L^L: S \to R$, and $N_L^L: S \to R$.

PROOF. Let $\alpha \in S$ and $f = \min$ poly_K(α). By Theorem 10.1.11, $f \in R[x]$. By Lemma 5.7.1 (3), the characteristic polynomial of $\ell_{\alpha} : L \to L$ is a power of f. Since $T_K^L(\alpha)$ and $N_K^L(\alpha)$ are coefficients of char. poly_K(ℓ_{α}), they are elements of R.

THEOREM 10.1.13. Let R be an integral domain which is integrally closed in its quotient field K. Let L/K be a finite separable field extension and let S be the integral closure of R in L. There exist bases $\{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n\}$ and $\{\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_n\}$ for L/K such that $R\lambda_1 + \cdots + R\lambda_n \subseteq S \subseteq R\mu_1 + \cdots + R\mu_n$. If R is noetherian, then S is a finitely generated R-module.

PROOF. Our proof is based on [5, Theorem 5.17]. Every $\lambda \in L$ is algebraic over K. There is an equation $r_m \lambda^m + \dots + r_1 \lambda + r_0 = 0$, where each r_i is in R. Multiply by r_m^{m-1} to get $(r_m \lambda)^m + \dots + r_1 r_m^{m-2} (r_m \lambda) + r_0 r_m^{m-1} = 0$. This shows that $r_m \lambda$ is integral over R, hence is in S. There exists a basis $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ for L/K such that each λ_i is in S. By Lemma 5.7.3 (3), there is a K-basis μ_1, \dots, μ_n for L such that $T_K^L(\mu_i \lambda_j) = \delta_{ij}$ (the Kronecker delta function). Let s be an arbitrary element of S. View s as an element of L and write $s = \alpha_1 \mu_1 + \dots + \alpha_n \mu_n$, where each $\alpha_i \in K$. Since $\lambda_i \in S$, we have $s\lambda_i \in S$. By Corollary 10.1.12, $T_K^L(s\lambda_i) \in R$. Then

$$T_K^L(s\lambda_i) = T_K^L\left(\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \lambda_i \mu_j\right) = \sum_{j=1}^n T_K^L\left(\alpha_j \lambda_i \mu_j\right) = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j T_K^L\left(\lambda_i \mu_j\right) = \alpha_i$$

shows that each α_i is in R. It follows that $S \subseteq R\mu_1 + \cdots + R\mu_n$. If R is noetherian, then by Corollary 7.6.12, S is a finitely generated R-module.

Remark 10.1.14. In the terminology of Definition 16.1.2, Theorem 10.1.13 says that S is an R-lattice in L. When R is a finitely generated algebra over a field, see Theorem 14.3.11 for a stronger version of Theorem 10.1.13.

1.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 10.1.15. Let A be an integral R-algebra and S a commutative R-algebra. Show that $S \otimes_R A$ is an integral S-algebra.

EXERCISE 10.1.16. Let A be an integral faithful R-algebra and I a two-sided ideal in A. Show that A/I is an integral $R/(I \cap R)$ -algebra.

EXERCISE 10.1.17. Let R be a commutative ring and A = R[x] the polynomial ring in one variable over R. Show that R is integrally closed in A if and only if $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0) = (0)$.

EXERCISE 10.1.18. Let S be a commutative faithfully flat R-algebra. Prove:

- (1) If S is an integral domain, then R is an integral domain.
- (2) If S is an integrally closed integral domain, then R is an integrally closed integral domain. (Hint: If K is the quotient field of R, show that S is integrally closed in $S \otimes_R K$.)
- (3) If S has the property that S_Q is an integrally closed integral domain for each $Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$, then R has the property that R_P is an integrally closed integral domain for each $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. In the terminology of Definition 15.1.4, this says if S is a normal ring, then R is a normal ring.

EXERCISE 10.1.19. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra which is integral over R. Show that $A = \varinjlim_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}$ where A_{α} runs over the set of all R-subalgebras of A such that A_{α} is finitely generated as an R-module.

EXERCISE 10.1.20. Let S be a commutative faithful integral R-algebra. Assume R is an integral domain with quotient field K and S is an integral domain with quotient field L. By Exercise 7.1.22, L can be viewed as a field extension of K. Prove that L is algebraic over K.

EXERCISE 10.1.21. Let k be a field and A = k[x] the polynomial ring over k in one variable. Let $R = k[x^2, x^3]$ be the k-subalgebra of A generated by x^2 and x^3 . We know from Exercises 7.7.16 and 3.6.21 that A is a finitely generated R-module and R and A have the same quotient field, namely K = k(x). Show that A is equal to the integral closure of R in K.

EXERCISE 10.1.22. This exercise is a generalization of Exercise 10.1.21. Let k be a field, x an indeterminate, and n > 1 an integer. Let T = k[x], $S = k[x^n, x^{n+1}]$, and $R = k[x^n]$. We know from Exercise 5.1.30 that T is a finitely generated R-module and T and S have the same quotient field, namely K = k(x). For the tower of rings: $R \subseteq S \subseteq T$, prove the following.

- (1) T is equal to the integral closure of S in K.
- (2) T is not a separable R-algebra.
- (3) S is not a separable R-algebra.
- (4) T is not a separable S-algebra.

EXERCISE 10.1.23. Let k be a field and A = k[x] the polynomial ring over k in one variable. Let $R = k[x^2 - 1, x^3 - x]$ be the k-subalgebra of A generated by $x^2 - 1$ and $x^3 - x$. We know from Exercise 7.7.18 that R and A have the same quotient field, namely K = k(x). Show that A is equal to the integral closure of R in K. For a continuation of this example, see Section 16.4.2.

2. Some Theorems of Hilbert

In this section we prove the Hilbert Basis Theorem, Theorem 10.2.1 as well as the two classical versions of Hilbert's Nullstellensatz. Corollary 10.2.4 is commonly called the Weak Form of the Nullstellensatz while Theorem 10.2.9 is essentially the theorem that was originally proved by Hilbert. The Basis Theorem states sufficient conditions for a commutative ring to be noetherian. The two forms of the Nullstellensatz are logically equivalent and state that if k is an algebraically closed field, $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ the polynomial ring in n variables, and f_1, \ldots, f_m a set of polynomials in A, then the system of m polynomial equations $f_1 = 0, \ldots, f_m = 0$ in n variables has a solution if and only if the ideal generated by f_1, \ldots, f_m in A is not the unit ideal.

2.1. The Hilbert Basis Theorem. To show that a commutative ring S is noetherian, by Theorem 10.2.1, it is sufficient to show that S is a finitely generated algebra over a noetherian ring R.

Theorem 10.2.1. (Hilbert Basis Theorem) Let R be a commutative noetherian ring.

- (1) The polynomial ring R[x] in the variable x over R is a noetherian ring.
- (2) The polynomial ring $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ over R in n variables is a noetherian ring.
- (3) If R is a commutative noetherian ring and S is a finitely generated commutative R-algebra, then S is noetherian.

PROOF. (1): By Corollary 7.6.7, it is enough to show every ideal of R[x] is finitely generated. Let J be an ideal in R[x]. Let I be the set of all $r \in R$ such that r is the leading coefficient for some polynomial $f \in J$. Then I is an ideal in R, hence is finitely generated, so we can write $I = Ra_1 + \cdots + Ra_m$. For each a_i there is some $f_i \in J$ such that a_i is the leading coefficient of f_i . Let $d_i = \deg f_i$ and let d be the maximum of $\{d_1, \ldots, d_m\}$. If J' denotes the ideal of R[x] generated by f_1, \ldots, f_m , then $J' \subseteq J$. By Corollary 7.6.12 and Corollary 7.6.10 it is enough to prove J/J' is finitely generated. We prove that J/J' is finitely generated over R, which is a stronger statement.

Consider a typical polynomial p in J. Assume p has degree $\nu \geq d$ and leading coefficient r. Since $r \in I$, write $r = u_1 a_1 + \dots + u_m a_m$. Then $q = u_1 f_1 x^{\nu - d_1} + \dots + u_m f_m x^{\nu - d_m}$ is in J', has degree ν , and leading coefficient r. The polynomial p - q is in J and has degree less than ν . By iterating this argument a finite number of steps, we can show that p is congruent modulo J' to a polynomial of degree less than d. If L is the R-submodule of R[x] generated by $1, x, \dots, x^{d-1}$, then we have shown that J/J' is generated over R by images from the set $J \cap L$. But $J \cap L$ is an R-submodule of L, hence is finitely generated over R, by Corollary 7.6.12.

- (2): This follows from (1), by induction on n.
- (3): For some n, S is the homomorphic image of the polynomial ring $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ in n variables over R. It follows from (2) and Corollary 7.6.13 (1) that S is noetherian.

Proposition 10.2.2 is due to Emil Artin and John Tate, [3].

Proposition 10.2.2. Let $A \subseteq B \subseteq C$ be a tower of commutative rings and assume A and B are subrings of C. Suppose

- (1) A is noetherian,
- (2) C is finitely generated as an A-algebra,
- (3) and either
 - (a) C is finitely generated as a B-module, or
 - (b) C is integral over B.

Then B is finitely generated as an A-algebra.

PROOF. Assume (1), (2) and (3) (b) are all satisfied. Suppose $C = A[x_1, \ldots, x_m]$. In this case, we also have $C = B[x_1, \ldots, x_m]$ and x_1, \ldots, x_m are integral over B. By Theorem 10.1.3 (1), C is finitely generated as a B-module, so (3)(a) is also satisfied. Let $C = By_1 + by_2 + \cdots + By_n$. Each x_i and each product y_iy_j is in C, so we can write

(2.1)
$$x_i = \sum_{j=1}^n b_{ij} y_j$$
$$y_i y_j = \sum_{k=1}^n b_{ijk} y_k$$

for certain $b_{ij} \in B$ and $b_{ijk} \in B$. Let B_0 be the A-subalgebra of B generated by all of the b_{ij} and b_{ijk} . By Theorem 10.2.1 (3), we know that B_0 is noetherian. Let $c = p(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$ be an arbitrary element in $A[x_1, \ldots, x_m] = C$. Using (2.1), the reader should verify that

$$c = p(\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{1j}y_j, \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{2j}y_j, \dots)$$

is in $B_0y_1 + B_0y_2 + \cdots + B_0y_n$. Therefore C is finitely generated as a B_0 -module. By Corollary 7.6.12, B is finitely generated as a B_0 -module. Since B_0 is finitely generated as an A-algebra, it follows that B is finitely generated as an A-algebra.

Proposition 10.2.3. Let F/k be an extension of fields. The following are equivalent.

- (1) F is finitely generated as a k-algebra.
- (2) F is finitely generated and algebraic as an extension field of k.
- (3) $\dim_k(F) < \infty$.

PROOF. By Proposition 5.1.10, (2) is equivalent to (3). It follows from Theorem 5.1.3 that (2) implies (1). To prove that (1) implies (2) we use a proof by contradiction. By (1) we can write $F = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Since F is an extension field of k, this implies $F = k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$. For contradiction's sake, assume not all of x_1, \ldots, x_n are algebraic over k. By Lemma 5.10.4 we can re-order and assume for some $1 \le r \le n$ that $\{x_1, \ldots, x_r\}$ is a transcendence base for F over k. Then $F = k(x_1, \ldots, x_r)[x_{r+1}, \ldots, x_n]$ is algebraic over the field $K = k(x_1, \ldots, x_r)$. By Proposition 5.1.2, K is isomorphic to the field of rational functions over k in r variables. That is, K is the quotient field of the polynomial ring $k[x_1, \ldots, x_r]$. Applying Proposition 10.2.2 to the tower of rings $k \subseteq K \subseteq F$, we conclude that K is finitely generated as a k-algebra. Write $K = k[y_1, \ldots, y_s]$. Viewing each y_i as a rational function in $k(x_1, \ldots, x_r)$, there exist polynomials f_i, g_i in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_r]$ such that $y_i = f_i/g_i$. Set $g = g_1g_2\cdots g_s$. Without loss of generality assume deg $g \ge 1$ and

let h be any irreducible factor of g+1. Therefore, $\gcd(h,g)=1$. Consider the element h^{-1} as an element of the field $K=k[y_1,\ldots,y_s]=k[f_1/g_1,\ldots,f_s/g_s]$. Then $h^{-1}=p(f_1/g_1,\ldots,f_s/g_s)$ where p is a polynomial in s variables with coefficients in k. The denominators involve only the polynomials g_1,\ldots,g_s . For some positive integer N, we get an equation of polynomials $g^N=hf$ where $f\in k[x_1,\ldots,x_r]$. This is a contradiction.

Historically, Hilbert's Nullstellensatz, Theorem 10.2.9, was proved first and used to prove Corollary 10.2.4. For this reason Corollary 10.2.4 is called the Weak Form of the Nullstellensatz. This name is a misnomer because the two are logically equivalent. The line of proof we use here is due to O. Zariski who in the article [64] proved a version of Proposition 10.2.3 and applied it to prove Corollary 10.2.4. The Weak Nullstellensatz will be applied below in the proof of the Nullstellensatz. In Exercise 10.2.28 the reader is asked to prove that the Weak Form of the Nullstellensatz follows from the Nullstellensatz.

COROLLARY 10.2.4. (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz, Weak Form) If k is a field, A is a commutative finitely generated k-algebra, and \mathfrak{m} is a maximal ideal in A, then A/\mathfrak{m} is a finitely generated algebraic extension field of k.

PROOF. Apply Proposition 10.2.3 to the field $F = A/\mathfrak{m}$.

2.2. Algebraic Varieties.

DEFINITION 10.2.5. Let k be any field. Let $n \ge 0$. Define affine n-space over k to be

$$\mathbb{A}_{k}^{n} = \{(a_{1}, \dots, a_{n}) \mid a_{i} \in k\}.$$

We write simply \mathbb{A}^n if k is apparent. Let

$$A = k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$$

and $f \in A$. The zero set of f is the set $Z(f) = \{P \in \mathbb{A}^n \mid f(P) = 0\}$. If $T \subseteq A$, then

$$Z(T) = \{ P \in \mathbb{A}^n \mid f(P) = 0 \ \forall \ f \in T \}.$$

If I is the ideal generated by T in A, then Z(I)=Z(T). This is because any $g\in I$ is a linear combination of elements of T. Since A is noetherian, I is finitely generated, hence Z(T) can be expressed as the zero set of a finite set of polynomials. A subset $Y\subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ is an algebraic set if there exists $T\subseteq A$ such that Y=Z(T).

THEOREM 10.2.6. Let k be an algebraically closed field and $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$.

- (1) If M is a maximal ideal in A, then there exist elements a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n in k such that $M = (x_1 a_1, \ldots, x_n a_n)$.
- (2) If I is a proper ideal in A, then Z(I) is nonempty.

PROOF. (1): Since k is algebraically closed, Corollary 10.2.4 says the natural map $k \to A/M$ is onto. There exist $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in k$ such that $a_i + M = x_i + M$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. That is, $x_i - a_i \in M$ for each i. The reader should verify that the ideal $J = (x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n)$ is maximal. Because J is a subset of M, we see that J = M.

(2): Take any maximal ideal M which contains I. By Part (1), $M = (x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n)$ for elements a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n in k. The reader should verify that $Z(I) \supseteq Z(M)$ and that Z(M) is the singleton set $\{(a_1, \ldots, a_n)\}$.

Proposition 10.2.7. Let \mathbb{A}^n be affine n-space over the field k.

- (1) The sets \emptyset and \mathbb{A}^n are algebraic sets.
- (2) The union of two algebraic sets is an algebraic set.
- (3) The intersection of any family of algebraic sets is an algebraic set.
- (4) The algebraic sets can be taken as the closed sets for a topology on \mathbb{A}^n which is called the Zariski topology.

PROOF. (1): Note that $\emptyset = Z(1)$ and $\mathbb{A}^n = Z(0)$.

(2): If $Y_1 = Z(T_1)$ and $Y_2 = Z(T_2)$, then

$$Y_1 \cup Y_2 = Z(T_1 T_2),$$

where $T_1T_2 = \{f_1f_2 \mid f_1 \in T_1, f_2 \in T_2\}$. Prove this in two steps:

Step 1: Let $P \in Y_1$. Then $f_1(P) = 0$ for all $f_1 \in T_1$. Then $(f_1 f_2)(P) = 0$. Similarly for $P \in Y_2$.

Step 2: Let $P \in Z(T_1T_2)$ and assume $P \notin Y_1$. Then there exists $f_1 \in T_1$ such that $f_1(P) \neq 0$. But for every $f_2 \in T_2$ we have $(f_1f_2)(P) = 0$ which implies $f_2(P) = 0$. Thus $P \in Y_2$.

(3): Let $\{Y_{\alpha} = Z(T_{\alpha})\}$ be a family of algebraic sets. Then

$$\bigcap Y_{\alpha} = Z(\bigcup T_{\alpha}).$$

To see this, proceed in two steps:

Step 1: If $P \in \bigcap Y_{\alpha}$, the P is a zero of all of the T_{α} , hence is in $Z(\bigcup T_{\alpha})$.

Step 2: If P is a zero of all of the T_{α} , then P is in all of the Y_{α} .

(4): Follows from the first three parts.

DEFINITION 10.2.8. Let k be any field. For any $Y\subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$, we define the ideal of Y in $A=k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ by

$$I(Y) = \{ f \in A \mid f(P) = 0 \ \forall \ P \in Y \}.$$

This is an ideal, as is easily checked. The reader should verify that I(Y) = Rad(I(Y)). Recall that any ideal that is equal to its radical is called a radical ideal. By default, $I(\emptyset) = A$.

Theorem 10.2.9. (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz) Let k be an algebraically closed field and J an ideal in $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Then Rad(J) = I(Z(J)).

PROOF. By Exercise 10.2.19, $\operatorname{Rad}(J) \subseteq I(Z(J))$. Let $f \in A - \operatorname{Rad}(J)$. We prove that there exists $x \in Z(J)$ such that $f(x) \neq 0$. By Lemma 7.3.8, there exists a prime ideal $P \in \operatorname{Spec} A$ such that $J \subseteq P$ and $f \notin P$. If \bar{f} denotes the image of f in the integral domain R = A/P, then $\bar{f} \neq 0$. As a k-algebra, R is finitely generated. The localization $R_{\bar{f}}$ is generated as an R-algebra by the element \bar{f}^{-1} , hence $R_{\bar{f}}$ is finitely generated as a k-algebra. Let \mathfrak{m} be any maximal ideal in $R_{\bar{f}}$. Since k is algebraically closed, Corollary 10.2.4 says the natural map $k \to R_{\bar{f}}/\mathfrak{m}$ is onto. Let M be the kernel of the composition of natural maps

$$A \to R \to R_{\bar{f}} \to R_{\bar{f}}/\mathfrak{m}$$
.

Then M is a maximal ideal in A such that $f \notin M$ and $J \subseteq P \subseteq M$. By Theorem 10.2.6, Z(M) is a singleton set $\{x\}$. This shows $x \in Z(J)$ and $f(x) \neq 0$. \square

PROPOSITION 10.2.10. Let k be an algebraically closed field and $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$.

- (1) If $T_1 \subseteq T_2$ are subsets of A, then $Z(T_1) \supseteq Z(T_2)$.
- (2) If $Y_1 \subseteq Y_2$ are subsets of \mathbb{A}^n , then $I(Y_1) \supseteq I(Y_2)$.

- (3) For $Y_1, Y_2 \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ we have $I(Y_1 \cup Y_2) = I(Y_1) \cap I(Y_2)$.
- (4) For any ideal $J \subseteq A$, I(Z(J)) = Rad(J).
- (5) For any subset $Y \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$, $Z(I(Y)) = \overline{Y}$, the closure of Y.

PROOF. (1), (2), (3): are obvious.

- (4): is a restatement of Theorem 10.2.9.
- (5) The proof of Lemma 7.3.9 applies.

COROLLARY 10.2.11. Let k be an algebraically closed field. There is a one-to-one order-reversing correspondence between algebraic subsets of \mathbb{A}^n and radical ideals in A given by $Y \mapsto I(Y)$ and $J \mapsto Z(J)$. Under this correspondence, an algebraic set Y is irreducible if and only if I(Y) is a prime ideal.

PROOF. The first part follows from Proposition 10.2.10. The last part can be proved as in Lemma 7.3.11. \Box

EXAMPLE 10.2.12. Let k be an algebraically closed field and $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. The zero ideal (0) is a prime ideal of A. By Corollary 10.2.11 this implies \mathbb{A}^n_k is irreducible. By Lemma 1.4.4, if U is a nonempty open subset of \mathbb{A}^n_k , then U is irreducible and dense.

EXAMPLE 10.2.13. Let k be a field and A a k-algebra. Assume $\dim_k(A) = n$ is finite. Using the left regular representation, we can embed A as a k-subalgebra of $\operatorname{Hom}_k(A,A)$ (see Example 4.4.3). As in Example 4.8.3, the norm $N_k^A:A\to k$ is a homogeneous polynomial function on A of degree n and the trace $T_k^A:A\to k$ is a homogeneous linear polynomial function on A. Fix a k-basis $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ for A. With respect to this basis, we identify A with affine n-space over k (Definition 10.2.5). That is, an element $a_1\alpha_1 + \cdots + a_n\alpha_n \in A$ corresponds to the point $(a_1,\ldots,a_n) \in$ \mathbb{A}^n_k . With this identification, the norm $N^A_k:A\to k$ corresponds to a homogeneous polynomial in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ of degree n. Using Exercise 4.7.26 we see that an element α in A is invertible if and only if $N_k^A(\alpha) \neq 0$. The set A^* of invertible elements of A is therefore a proper open subset of \mathbb{A}^n_k . If k is algebraically closed, Example 10.2.12 implies A^* is a dense open subset of \mathbb{A}^n_k . If A is a division algebra over k, then the norm defines a homogeneous polynomial in $k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ of degree n with no nontrivial zeros. We should advise the reader that the norm used in this example is not the norm defined specifically for an Azumaya algebra (or central simple algebra) in [20, Section 11.1.1].

EXAMPLE 10.2.14. Let k be a field and $n \ge 1$. Given any point $P = (a_1, \ldots, x_n)$ in \mathbb{A}^n_k , let M be the ideal in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ generated by $x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n$. Then $Z(M) = \{P\}$, so singleton sets are closed in the Zariski topology. In the terminology of Section 1.4, this shows \mathbb{A}^n_k is a T_1 -space.

EXAMPLE 10.2.15. Let k be an algebraically closed field and $n \geq 1$. If M is a maximal ideal in $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, then by Theorem 10.2.6, there is a point $P = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ in \mathbb{A}^n_k such that $M = (x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n)$ and Z(M) is the singleton set $\{P\}$. Conversely, if $P = (a_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is an arbitrary point in \mathbb{A}^n_k , then I(P) is the maximal ideal in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ generated by $x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n$. Under the one-to-one correspondence of Corollary 10.2.11, maximal ideals in A correspond to closed points in \mathbb{A}^n_k .

COROLLARY 10.2.16. If k is an algebraically closed field and I is an ideal in $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, then the radical of I is equal to the intersection of those maximal ideals of A that contain I. That is,

$$\operatorname{Rad}(I) = \bigcap \{ \mathfrak{m} \mid \mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} A \text{ and } I \subseteq \mathfrak{m} \}.$$

PROOF. By Lemma 7.3.8, $\operatorname{Rad}(I) = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in V(I)} \mathfrak{p}$. Hence $\operatorname{Rad}(I)$ is always a subset of $\bigcap \{\mathfrak{m} \mid \mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} A \text{ and } I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}\}$. Let $\alpha \in A$ and assume α belongs to every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of A such that $I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$. There is a one-to-one correspondence between points $P \in Z(I)$ and maximal ideals \mathfrak{m} in A such that $I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$. Therefore, $\alpha(P) = 0$ for every $P \in Z(I)$. By Theorem 10.2.9, $\alpha \in \operatorname{Rad}(I)$.

See Exercise 10.3.10 for a generalization of Corollary 10.2.16 to the case where the ground field k is not algebraically closed.

2.3. A Nonsingular Affine Elliptic Curve. This section is devoted to an example of an algebraic curve that is nonsingular and nonrational. Assume that the characteristic of k, the base field, is not 2. Let A=k[x] be the polynomial ring in one variable over k. Then A is a UFD (Corollary 3.6.6) and x is a prime in A. Let K=k(x) be the quotient field of A. Consider the polynomial $y^2-x(x^2-1)$ in A[y]. By Eisenstein's Criterion (Corollary 3.7.7) with prime $p=x, y^2-x(x^2-1)$ is irreducible in A[y]. By Gauss' Lemma (Theorem 3.7.3), $y^2-x(x^2-1)$ is irreducible in K[y] and $F=K[y]/(y^2-x(x^2-1))$ is a field. By Exercise 5.9.11, F/K is a Galois extension, $\operatorname{Aut}_K(F)=\langle \sigma \rangle$ has order 2, and σ is defined by $y\mapsto -y$.

In the following, cosets in the factor ring F are written without brackets or any extra adornment. By Theorem 3.7.4, the polynomial ring A[y] = k[x,y] is a UFD. Therefore, $R = k[x,y]/(y^2 - x(x^2 - 1))$ is an integral domain, by Corollary 3.4.14. The diagram of ring homomorphisms

$$(2.2) \hspace{1cm} A = k[x] \xrightarrow{\alpha} K = k(x)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad$$

commutes by Exercise 3.7.20. The vertical maps are the natural maps. The horizontal map α exists by Theorem 3.6.3 applied to $A \to K$. The map ϕ is induced by α and is one-to-one.

Proposition 10.2.17. In the above context, the following are true.

- (1) The quotient field of R is F.
- (2) As an A-module, R is free of rank 2. The set $\{1, y\}$ is a free basis. The image of ϕ is $\{p(x) + q(x)y \mid where p(x) \text{ and } q(x) \text{ are in } A = k[x]\}.$
- (3) The homomorphism $A \to R$ defined by sending x to its image in R is one-to-one.
- (4) The automorphism $\sigma \in \operatorname{Aut}_K(F)$ defined by $y \mapsto -y$ restricts to an automorphism $\sigma : R \to R$.
- (5) For any $a \in R$, define the norm of a to be $N(a) = a\sigma(a)$. Then N(1) = 1, $N: R \to A$, and N is multiplicative.

- (6) The map on groups of units $k^* \to R^*$ is an isomorphism. That is, the units of R are precisely the units of k.
- (7) x and y are irreducible elements of R.
- (8) R is not a unique factorization domain.
- (9) R is not a principal ideal domain.

PROOF. (1): Exercise 3.7.20.

- (2): Exercise 4.2.26.
- (3): The composite map $A \to K \to F$ is one-to-one and factors through R.
- (4): Using Theorem 3.6.3, we see that the map $\sigma: A[y] \to A[y]$ defined by $y \mapsto -y$ is an automorphism and maps the principal ideal $(y^2 x(x^2 1))$ onto itself.

$$(2.3) A[y] \xrightarrow{\sigma} A[y]$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \eta$$

$$R \xrightarrow{} R$$

The kernel of $\eta \sigma$ is the principal ideal $(y^2 - x(x^2 - 1))$. Hence $\sigma : R \to R$ is an automorphism.

- (5): Let $a \in R$. By (2), a has a unique representation in the form a = f + gy, for polynomials f and g in A = k[x]. Then $N(a) = a\sigma(a) = f^2 g^2y^2 = f^2 g^2x(x^2 1)$ is in the image of $A \to R$. Since σ is an automorphism, $N(1) = \sigma(1) = 1$ and $N(ab) = ab\sigma(a)\sigma(b) = N(a)N(b)$.
- (6): The map $k \to R$ is one-to-one because k is a field. We show that $k^* \to R^*$ is onto. Let $a,b \in R$ and assume ab=1. Then N(a)N(b)=1 in A. But $A^*=k^*$. This proves $N(a) \in k$. By (2), a has a unique representation in the form a=f+gy, for polynomials f and g in A=k[x]. Then $N(a)=f^2-g^2x(x^2-1)=u$ for some $u \in k^*$. Then $(f(0))^2=u$. If $g \neq 0$, then the leading term of f^2 which is even is equal to the leading term of $g^2x(x^2-1)$, which is odd, a contradiction. Therefore, g=0 and a=f=f(0) is in k.
- (7): If x is not irreducible, then there is a nontrivial factorization x=ab. By (5), we have the factorization $N(x)=x^2=N(a)N(b)$ in A=k[x]. Therefore, N(a)=x up to associates. By (2), a has a representation in the form a=f+gy, for polynomials f and g in A=k[x]. Then up to associates, $N(a)=f^2-g^2x(x^2-1)=x$. Then $f^2=g^2x(x^2-1)+x$ which is impossible because the degree of the left hand is even and that of the right hand side is odd. This proves x is not in the image of the norm map $N:R\to A$, hence x is irreducible in R.

If y is not irreducible in R, then there is a nontrivial factorization y=ab. By (5), we have the factorization $N(y)=x(x^2-1)=N(a)N(b)$ in A=k[x]. Therefore, up to associates, one of N(a) or N(b) is in $\{x,x+1,x-1\}$. The same proof from above shows that x+1 and x-1 are not in the image of $N:R\to A$. Therefore, y is irreducible in R.

- (8): In R we have the identity $y^2 = x(x^2 1)$. By the proof of (7), $N(x) = x^2$ and $N(y) = x(x^2 1)$. Therefore, x and y are not associates of each other. So unique factorization does not exist.
- (9): Consider the ideal $\mathfrak{m} = (x,y)$. Then $R/\mathfrak{m} = k[x,y]/(x,y) = k$ is a field, hence \mathfrak{m} is a maximal ideal. If $\mathfrak{m} = (a)$ is principal, then $a \mid x$ and $a \mid y$. Since x and y are irreducible, by Lemma 3.4.5, this implies x and y are associates of each other, a contradiction to (8).

2.4. An Application to Characteristic Polynomials. We apply results from Section 10.2.2 to show that the characteristic polynomial of AB is equal to the characteristic polynomial of BA when A and B are two n-by-n matrices with entries in an integral domain R.

THEOREM 10.2.18. Let R be an integral domain. If A and B are n-by-n matrices in $M_n(R)$, then char. poly_R(AB) = char. poly_R(BA).

PROOF. Let k be an algebraically closed field containing R as a subring. Let $\theta: R \to k$ be the set containment map. By Exercise 4.7.33 applied to θ , it suffices to prove the theorem for matrices in $M_n(k)$. By Lemma 4.4.8, $M_n(k)$ is a k-vector space of dimension n^2 and the set $\{e_{ij} \mid 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$ of elementary matrices is a basis. We identify $M_n(k)$ with the point set $\mathbb{A}_k^{n^2}$. As in Lemma 4.8.2, if C is a matrix in $M_n(k)$ and the characteristic polynomial of C is char. poly_k(C) = $x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_{n-1} x + a_n$, then for each $i = 1, \ldots, n$, the assignment $C \mapsto$ $(-1)^i a_i$ defines a polynomial function $N_i: M_n(k) \to k$ which is homogeneous of degree i in n^2 variables. Fix A in $M_n(k)$ and define $f_i: M_n(k) \to k$ by $f_i(B) =$ $N_i(AB) - N_i(BA)$. Using the definition of multiplication of matrices we see that f is a polynomial function which is homogeneous of degree i in n^2 variables. The set of zeros of f_i is a closed subset of $M_n(k)$. If B is an invertible matrix in $M_n(k)$, then $BA = B(AB)B^{-1}$. In this case, Exercise 4.7.22 implies char. poly_k(AB) =char. poly_k(BA). For each $1 \leq i \leq n$, this implies $f_i(B) = 0$ for all invertible matrices B in $M_n(k)$. By Example 10.2.13, the set of invertible matrices in $M_n(k)$ is a dense open set. Since f_i is zero on a dense set, f_i is the zero function. By Exercise 3.6.31, this implies f_i is the zero polynomial. Since this is true for each i, we conclude that char. $poly_R(AB) = char. poly_R(BA)$ for all A and for all B.

2.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 10.2.19. Let k be any field and I an ideal in $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Prove:

- (1) $Z(I) = Z(\operatorname{Rad}(I)).$
- (2) $\operatorname{Rad}(I) \subseteq I(Z(I))$.

EXERCISE 10.2.20. Let k be a field, I an ideal in $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, and S = A/I. A point $P = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ in Z(I) is called a k-rational point on the algebraic set. Show that the k-rational points on Z(I) correspond to k-algebra homomorphisms $\sigma: S \to k$.

EXERCISE 10.2.21. Let R be a commutative ring, $I=(f_1,\ldots,f_m)$ an ideal in $A=R[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ generated by m polynomials, and S=A/I. A point $P=(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$ in \mathbb{A}^n_R is called an R-rational point of S if $f_i(P)=0$ for $1\leq i\leq m$. Show that the R-rational points of S correspond to R-algebra homomorphisms $\sigma:S\to R$.

EXERCISE 10.2.22. Let R be a commutative ring and $\phi: R[x_1, \ldots, x_m] \to R[y_1, \ldots, y_n]$ an R-algebra homomorphism between two polynomial rings with coefficients in R.

(1) Let $S \subseteq R$ be a finite subset which contains all of the coefficients of the polynomials $\phi(x_1), \ldots, \phi(x_m)$. View R as a \mathbb{Z} -algebra. Let N be the \mathbb{Z} -subalgebra of R generated by S. Show that there is an N-algebra

homomorphism ϕ_N such that the diagram

$$N[x_1, \dots, x_m] \xrightarrow{\phi_N} N[y_1, \dots, y_n]$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$R[x_1, \dots, x_m] \xrightarrow{\phi} R[y_1, \dots, y_n]$$

commutes, where the vertical maps are induced by $N \subseteq R$. Moreover, show that the bottom row is obtained from the top by applying the functor () $\otimes_N R$.

- (2) Show that $\operatorname{im}(\phi) = \operatorname{im}(\phi_N) \otimes_N R$.
- (3) Show that $\ker(\phi_N)$ is a finitely generated ideal.
- (4) Show that $ker(\phi)$ is a finitely generated ideal.

EXERCISE 10.2.23. The purpose of this exercise is to prove the converse of Exercise 7.6.35 when R is commutative. Let k be a field and R a commutative artinian finitely generated k-algebra. Prove that R is finite dimensional as a k-vector space. (Hints: Use Theorem 8.4.6 to reduce to the case where R is local artinian. Consider the chain $R \supseteq \mathfrak{m} \supseteq \mathfrak{m}^2 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq \mathfrak{m}^k \supseteq 0$. Show that each factor $\mathfrak{m}^i/\mathfrak{m}^{i+1}$ is a finitely generated vector space over k. For the first factor R/\mathfrak{m} , apply Corollary 10.2.4.)

EXERCISE 10.2.24. Let k be an algebraically closed field, I an ideal in $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, and R = A/I. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) R is artinian.
- (2) $\dim_k(R) < \infty$.
- (3) Z(I) is a finite set.

Moreover, prove that $\dim_k(R)$ is an upper bound on the number of points in Z(I).

EXERCISE 10.2.25. Let R be a commutative ring. Viewing R as a \mathbb{Z} -algebra, show that $R = \varinjlim R_{\alpha}$, where $\{R_{\alpha}\}$ is a directed system of noetherian subrings of R.

EXERCISE 10.2.26. Let R be a commutative local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . Show that there is a directed system $\{R_{\alpha}\}$ of noetherian local subrings of R satisfying the following:

- (1) The maximal ideal of R_{α} is $\mathfrak{m}_{\alpha} = \mathfrak{m} \cap R_{\alpha}$.
- (2) $R = \lim_{\alpha \to \infty} R_{\alpha}$.
- (3) $\mathfrak{m} = \overrightarrow{\lim} \mathfrak{m}_{\alpha}$.
- (4) $R/\mathfrak{m} = \lim_{\alpha \to \infty} (R_{\alpha}/\mathfrak{m}_{\alpha}).$

EXERCISE 10.2.27. In the context of Proposition 10.2.17, consider the maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} = (x, y)$. Show that \mathfrak{m}^2 is principal.

EXERCISE 10.2.28. Let k be a field and $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ the polynomial ring over k in n variables. Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal in A. The following is an outline of a proof that Hilbert's Nullstellensatz (Theorem 10.2.9) implies the Weak Form of the Nullstellensatz (Corollary 10.2.4).

(1) Let Ω be an algebraic closure of k. View A as a subring of $\Omega[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$. Using Theorem 10.2.9, show that there exists a point $P=(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$ in \mathbb{A}^n_Ω such that P is in $Z(\mathfrak{m})$, the zero set of \mathfrak{m} .

- (2) Let $P=(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$ be the point in \mathbb{A}^n_{Ω} from (1). Show that $F=k(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$ is a finitely generated algebraic extension field of A/\mathfrak{m} .
- (3) Use the above to prove Corollary 10.2.4.

EXERCISE 10.2.29. Let k be a field. Let A and B be finitely generated k-algebras and assume A and B are integral domains. Suppose there exist $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} A$, $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ and a k-algebra isomorphism $\phi: A_{\mathfrak{p}} \to B_{\mathfrak{q}}$. Show that there exists $\alpha \in A - \mathfrak{p}, \ \beta \in B - \mathfrak{q}$ such that ϕ restricts to a k-algebra isomorphism $\phi: A_{\alpha} \to B_{\beta}$. (Hint: Lemma 7.1.9.)

3. Integral Extensions and Prime Ideals

In this section we prove the Going Up and Going Down Theorems, which are also known as the Cohen-Seidenberg Theorems. These are combined in Theorem 10.3.7. For an integral extension of commutative rings $A \to B$ these theorems relate the correspondence between prime ideals in A and B.

3.1. Prime Ideals.

DEFINITION 10.3.1. If P is a two-sided ideal in a ring R, then we say P is prime in case $P \neq R$ and for any two-sided ideals I and J, if $IJ \subseteq P$, then $I \subseteq P$ or $J \subseteq P$. If R is a commutative ring, Proposition 3.2.14 shows that this definition agrees with Definition 3.2.11.

LEMMA 10.3.2. Let R be a ring and assume I, P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n are two-sided ideals. If $n \geq 3$, then assume P_3, \ldots, P_n are prime. If $I \subseteq P_1 \cup P_2 \cup \cdots \cup P_n$, then $I \subseteq P_k$ for some k.

PROOF. By removing any P_i which is contained in another P_j , we can assume that no containment relation $P_i \subseteq P_j$ occurs unless i = j. The proof is by induction on n. Assume $I \subseteq P_1 \cup P_2$. For contradiction's sake assume I is not contained in P_1 or P_2 . Pick $x_2 \in I - P_1$ and $x_1 \in I - P_2$. Then $x_1 \in P_1$ and $x_2 \in P_2$. Since $x_1 + x_2 \in I \subseteq P_1 \cup P_2$, there are two cases. If $x_1 + x_2 \in P_1$, then we get $x_2 \in P_1$ which is a contradiction. Otherwise, $x_1 + x_2 \in P_2$, which says $x_1 \in P_2$ which is also a contradiction.

Inductively assume n > 2 and that the result holds for n - 1. Assume P_n is prime and that no containment relation $P_i \subseteq P_n$ occurs unless i = n. Assume $I \subseteq P_1 \cup \cdots \cup P_n$ and for contradiction's sake, assume $I \not\subseteq P_i$ for all i. Then $IP_1\cdots P_{n-1}\not\subseteq P_n$. Pick an element x in $IP_1\cdots P_{n-1}$ which is not in P_n . If $I \subseteq P_1 \cup \cdots \cup P_{n-1}$, then by induction $I \subseteq P_i$ for some i. Therefore we assume $S = I - (P_1 \cup \cdots \cup P_{n-1})$ is not empty. So $S \subseteq P_n$. Pick $s \in S$ and consider s + xwhich is in I because both s and x are. Then by assumption, s + x is in one of the ideals P_i . Suppose $s + x \in P_i$ and $1 \le i \le n - 1$. Because $x \in P_i$, this implies $s \in P_i$ which is a contradiction. Therefore $s + x \in P_n$. But $s \in P_n$ implies $x \in P_n$ which is again a contradiction.

LEMMA 10.3.3. Let P, I_1, \ldots, I_n be ideals in the commutative ring R and assume P is prime.

- (1) If $P \supseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} I_i$, then $P \supseteq I_i$ for some i. (2) If $P = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} I_i$, then $P = I_i$ for some i.

PROOF. (1): For contradiction's sake, assume for each i that there exists $x_i \in$ $I_i - P$. Let $x = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n$. So $x \notin P$ but $x \in \bigcap I_i$, a contradiction.

(2): Is left to the reader.

3.2. Going Up and Going Down Theorems.

Proposition 10.3.4. Let $\phi: A \to B$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. The following are equivalent.

(1) For any p_1, p_2 in Spec A such that $p_1 \subsetneq p_2$, and for any $q_2 \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ lying over p_2 , there exists $q_1 \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ lying over p_1 such that $q_1 \subsetneq q_2$.

(2) For any p in Spec A, if q is a minimal prime over-ideal in Spec B for pB, then $q \cap A = p$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Let $p \in \operatorname{Spec} A$ and assume $q \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ is minimal such that $q \supseteq pB$. Then $q \cap A \supseteq p$. Assume $q \cap A \neq p$. According to (1) there exists $q_1 \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ such that $q_1 \cap A = p$ and $q_1 \subsetneq q$. In this case $pB \subseteq q_1 \subsetneq q$ which is a contradiction to the minimal property of q.

(2) implies (1): Assume $p_1 \subsetneq p_2$ are in Spec A and $q_2 \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ such that $q_2 \cap A = p_2$. By Exercise 7.3.25, pick any minimal prime over-ideal q_1 for p_1B such that $p_1B \subseteq q_1 \subseteq q_2$. By (2), we have $q_1 \cap A = p_1$.

DEFINITION 10.3.5. If $\phi:A\to B$ is a homomorphism of commutative rings which satisfies one of the equivalent properties of Proposition 10.3.4, then we say going down holds for ϕ .

THEOREM 10.3.6. If $\phi: A \to B$ is a homomorphism of commutative rings such that B is a flat A-algebra, then going down holds for ϕ .

PROOF. Let $p_1 \subsetneq p_2$ in Spec A and $q_2 \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ such that $q_2 \cap A = p_2$. Then $\phi_2: A_{p_2} \to B_{q_2}$ is a local homomorphism of local rings. By Proposition 7.8.2, B_{q_2} is a flat A_{p_2} -algebra. By Exercise 7.5.27, B_{q_2} is a faithfully flat A_{p_2} -algebra. By Lemma 7.5.5, $\phi_2^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} B_{q_2} \to \operatorname{Spec} A_{p_2}$ is onto. Let $Q_1 \in \operatorname{Spec} B_{q_2}$ be a prime ideal lying over $p_1 A_{p_2}$ and set $q_1 = Q_1 \cap B$. Then $q_1 \subseteq q_2$. The commutative diagram

$$\operatorname{Spec} B_{q_2} \xrightarrow{\phi_2^{\sharp}} \operatorname{Spec} A_{p_2}$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\operatorname{Spec} B \xrightarrow{\phi^{\sharp}} \operatorname{Spec} A$$

shows that q_1 is a prime ideal of B lying over p_1 .

Theorem 10.3.7. Assume B is a commutative faithful integral A-algebra.

- (1) The natural map $\theta^{\sharp} : \operatorname{Spec} B \to \operatorname{Spec} A$ is onto.
- (2) If $p \in \operatorname{Spec} A$ and $q_1, q_2 \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ are two primes in B lying over p, then q_1 is not a subset of q_2 .
- (3) (Going Up Holds) For any p_1, p_2 in Spec A such that $p_1 \subsetneq p_2$, and for any $q_1 \in \text{Spec } B$ lying over p_1 , there exists $q_2 \in \text{Spec } B$ lying over p_2 such that $q_1 \subsetneq q_2$.
- (4) If $q \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ and $p = q \cap A$, then q is a maximal ideal of B if and only if p is a maximal ideal of A.

For (5) and (6) assume A and B are integral domains, that K is the quotient field of A and that A is integrally closed in K.

- (5) (Going down holds) For any p_1, p_2 in Spec A such that $p_1 \subsetneq p_2$, and for any $q_2 \in \text{Spec } B$ lying over p_2 , there exists $q_1 \in \text{Spec } B$ lying over p_1 such that $q_1 \subsetneq q_2$.
- (6) If L is a normal extension field of K, and B is equal to the integral closure of A in L, then any two prime ideals of B lying over the same prime $p \in \operatorname{Spec} A$ are conjugate to each other by some automorphism $\sigma \in \operatorname{Aut}_K(L)$.

PROOF. (4): We have B/q is a faithful integral A/p-algebra (Exercise 10.1.16). If follows from Lemma 10.1.4 that A/p is a field if and only if B/q is a field. Or in other words, q is a maximal ideal if and only if p is a maximal ideal.

- (1) and (2): Let $p \in \operatorname{Spec} A$. Tensoring the integral extension $A \to B$ with () $\otimes_A A_p$ we get the integral extension $A_p \to B \otimes_A A_p$. The prime ideals of B lying over p correspond to the prime ideals of B_p lying over pA_p . By (4), these are the maximal ideals of B_p . The ring B_p contains at least one maximal ideal, by Proposition 3.2.15. This proves (1). Because there is no inclusion relation between two maximal ideals, this proves (2).
- (3): Suppose p_1, p_2 are in Spec A and $p_1 \subsetneq p_2$. Assume q_1 is in Spec B such that $p_1 \cap A = p_1$. Then $A/p_1 \to B/q_1$ is an integral extension of rings. By (1) there exists a prime ideal q_2/q_1 in Spec (B/q_1) lying over p_2/p_1 . Then $q_2 \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ lies over p_2 and $q_1 \subsetneq q_2$.
- (6): Let $G = \operatorname{Aut}_K(L)$ be the group of K-automorphisms of L. If $\sigma \in G$, then σ restricts to an A-automorphism of B. In particular, if $q \in \operatorname{Spec} B$, then $\sigma(q)$ is also in $\operatorname{Spec} B$. Let $q, q' \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ and assume $q \cap A = q' \cap A$. We show that $q' = \sigma(q)$ for some $\sigma \in G$.

First we prove this under the assumption that (L:K) is finite. Then $G = \{\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n\}$ is finite as well. Let $\sigma_i(q) = q_i$, for $1 \le i \le n$. For contradiction's sake, assume $q' \ne q_i$ for any i. By (2), q' is not contained in any q_i . By Lemma 10.3.2, there exists $x \in q'$ such that x is not in any q_i . Suppose ℓ is the characteristic of K. Set

$$y = \begin{cases} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_i(x) & \text{if } \ell = 0\\ \left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_i(x)\right)^{\ell^{\nu}} & \text{if } \ell > 0 \end{cases}$$

where ν is chosen to be a sufficiently large positive integer such that y is separable over K. It follows that $y \in K$. Since $\sigma_i(x) \notin q$ for each i and q is a prime ideal, it follows that $y \notin q$. Notice that $y \in B \cap K$, so y is integral over A. Since A is integrally closed in K we see that $y \in A$. Since $x \in q'$, it follows that $y \in q' \cap A = q \cap A$. This is a contradiction.

Now assume L is infinite over K. Let $F = L^G$ be the subfield fixed by G. Then L is Galois over F and F is purely inseparable over K.

If $F \neq K$, let ℓ be the characteristic of K and let C be the integral closure of A in F. Let $p \in \operatorname{Spec} A$ and let S be the set of all x in C such that $x^{\ell^{\nu}} \in p$ for some $\nu \geq 0$. Let $q \in \operatorname{Spec} C$ such that $p = q \cap A$. Then clearly $S \subseteq q$. Conversely, if $x \in q$, then $x \in F$, so x is algebraic and purely inseparable over K. So $x^{\ell^{\nu}} \in K$ for some $\nu \geq 0$. Since x is integral over A, there is a monic polynomial $f(t) \in A[t]$ such that f(x) = 0. Then $0 = (f(x))^{\ell^{\nu}} = f(x^{\ell^{\nu}})$ so $x^{\ell^{\nu}}$ is integral over A. Because A is integrally closed in K, $x^{\ell^{\nu}} \in A \cap q = p$. This shows that S is the unique prime ideal of C lying over p. Replace K with F, A with C and p with S. It is enough to prove (6) under the assumption that L is Galois over K.

Assume L over K is a Galois extension and that B is the integral closure of A in L. Let $q, q' \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ and assume $q \cap A = q' \cap A = p$. Let \mathcal{S} be the set of all finite Galois extensions T of K contained in L. If $T \in \mathcal{S}$, let

$$F_0(T) = \{ \sigma \in \operatorname{Aut}_K(T) \mid \sigma(q \cap T) = q' \cap T \}.$$

By the finite version of (6) we know that $F_0(T)$ is a nonempty closed subset of G. Let F(T) be the preimage of $F_0(T)$ under the continuous mapping $G \to \operatorname{Aut}_K(T)$. Then F(T) is a nonempty closed subset of G. If $T \subseteq T'$ are two such intermediate fields in S, then $F(T) \supseteq F(T')$. For any finite collection $\{T_1, \ldots, T_n\}$ of objects in S, there is another object T in S such that $T_i \subseteq T$ for all i. Therefore, $\bigcap_{i=1}^n F(T_i) \supseteq F(T) \neq \emptyset$.

Because G is compact, this means

$$F = \bigcap_{T \in \mathcal{S}} F(T) \neq \emptyset.$$

Let $\sigma \in F$. For every $x \in q$, there is some intermediate field T in S such that $x \in q \cap T$. Hence $\sigma(x) \in q' \cap T$. Therefore $\sigma(q) = q'$.

(5): Let L_1 be the quotient field of B and K the quotient field of A. Let L be a normal extension of K containing L_1 . Let C be the integral closure of A in L. Then C is also the integral closure of B in L. We are given $p_1, p_2 \in \operatorname{Spec} A$ such that $p_1 \subsetneq p_2$ and $q_2 \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ such that $p_2 = q_2 \cap A$. Let Q_1 be a prime ideal in $\operatorname{Spec} C$ lying over p_1 . By Part (3) applied to $A \subseteq C$, there is $Q_2 \in \operatorname{Spec} C$ lying over $q_3 \in \operatorname{Spec} C$ lying over $q_4 \in \operatorname$

COROLLARY 10.3.8. Let R be a local ring and S a commutative R-algebra which is faithful and finitely generated as an R-module. Then S is semilocal.

PROOF. Let \mathfrak{m} be the maximal ideal of R. By Theorem 10.3.7 (4), the maximal ideals of S correspond to the maximal ideals of $S/\mathfrak{m}S$. Because $S/\mathfrak{m}S$ is finite dimensional over R/\mathfrak{m} , it is artinian (Exercise 7.6.35). By Proposition 8.4.3, $S/\mathfrak{m}S$ is semilocal.

3.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 10.3.9. Let S be a commutative faithful integral R-algebra. Let J(R) be the Jacobson radical of R, and J(S) the Jacobson radical of S. Prove that $J(R) = J(S) \cap R$.

EXERCISE 10.3.10. Prove the following generalization of Corollary 10.2.16. Let k be a field and R a finitely generated k-algebra. Prove:

- (1) The Jacobson radical of R, J(R), is equal to the nil radical of R, $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$. (Hints: If \bar{k} is an algebraic closure of k, then $\bar{R} = R \otimes_R \bar{k}$ is a faithfully flat integral R-algebra. Exercise 10.3.9.)
- (2) If $\alpha \in R$ and α is not a nilpotent element of R, then the basic open set $U(\alpha)$ contains a closed point of Spec R. If U is a nonempty open subset of Spec R, then U contains a closed point of Spec R.

CHAPTER 11

The Topological Completion of Rings and Modules

1. I-adic Topology and Completion

1.1. Completion of a Linear Topological Module. Let R be a ring and M an R-module. A filtration of M is a nonincreasing chain of submodules

$$M = M_0 \supseteq M_1 \supseteq M_2 \supseteq M_3 \dots$$

Using the set of submodules $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ in a filtration, we define a topology on M. Given any $x\in M$, a base for the neighborhoods of x is the set $\{x+M_n\mid n\geq 0\}$. The linear topology on M defined by the filtration $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ is the smallest topology on M containing all of the open sets $\{x+M_n\mid x\in M, n\geq 0\}$. If L is a submodule of M and $\eta:M\to M/L$ is the natural map, then the chain $\{\eta(M_n)\}_{n\geq 0}=\{(M_n+L)/L\}_{n\geq 0}$ is a filtration of M/L that induces a linear topology on M/L. The chain of submodules $\{M_n\cap L\}_{n\geq 0}$ is a filtration of L which induces a linear topology on L. As in Section 1.4, we say that L is separated (that is, L is the such that L is a two-sided ideal in L is a two-sided ideal in L is a chain of ideals L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a submodules L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a submodules L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a submodules L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a submodules L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a submodules L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a submodules L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines the L is a filtration of L which defines topology on L is a filtration of L which defines topology on L is a filtration of L which defines topology on L is a filtration of L in L is a filtration of L is a filtration of L in L is a f

LEMMA 11.1.1. Let R be a ring, M an R-module with a filtration $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$, and L a submodule. With respect to the linear topology defined by this filtration, the following are true.

- (1) Each set M_n is open and closed.
- (2) Addition on M is continuous.
- (3) The natural maps $0 \to L \xrightarrow{\subseteq} M \xrightarrow{\eta} M/L \to 0$ are continuous.
- (4) For each n, M/M_n has the discrete topology, which is to say "points are open".

PROOF. (1): By definition, each left coset $(x+M_n)$ is open. The decomposition of M into left cosets gives $M-M_n=\bigcup_{x\notin M_n}(x+M_n)$, which is open.

- (2): Follows from the formula for addition of left cosets $(x + y) + M_n = (x + M_n) + (y + M_n)$.
 - (3): Is left to the reader.
- (4): M/M_n has the finite filtration $M/M_n \supseteq M_1/M_n \supseteq \cdots \supseteq M_{n-1}/M_n \supseteq M_n/M_n = 0$ which terminates with (0).

LEMMA 11.1.2. Let $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ be a filtration of the R-module M. Let $N=\bigcap_{n\geq 0}M_n$. Then

(1) N is the closure of $\{0\}$.

- (2) M is separated if and only if N=0.
- (3) If L is a submodule of M, then M/L is separated if and only if L is closed.
- PROOF. (1): An element x is in the closure of $\{0\}$ if and only if every neighborhood of x contains 0. Since $\{x + M_n\}_{n \ge 0}$ is a base for the neighborhoods of x, it follows that x is in the closure of $\{0\}$ if and only if $x \in N$.
- (2): If $x \in N$ and $x \neq 0$, then every neighborhood of x contains 0 so M is not separated. If $x, y \in M$ and $x y \notin N$, then for some $n \geq 0$, $x y \notin M_n$. Then $(x + M_n) \cap (y + M_n) = \emptyset$. This says that M/N is separated, so if N = 0, then M is separated.
 - (3): Is left to the reader.

DEFINITION 11.1.3. Let $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ be a filtration of the R-module M. A sequence (x_{ν}) of elements of M is a Cauchy sequence if for every open submodule U there exists $n_0\geq 0$ such that $x_{\mu}-x_{\nu}\in U$ for all $\mu\geq n_0$ and all $\nu\geq n_0$. Since U is a submodule, this is equivalent to $x_{\nu+1}-x_{\nu}\in U$ for all $\nu\geq n_0$. A point x is a limit of a sequence (x_{ν}) if for every open submodule U there exists $n_0\geq 0$ such that $x-x_{\nu}\in U$ for all $\nu\geq n_0$. We say M is complete if every Cauchy sequence has a limit. We say that two Cauchy sequences (x_{ν}) and (y_{ν}) are equivalent and write $(x_{\nu})\sim (y_{\nu})$ if 0 is a limit of $(x_{\nu}-y_{\nu})$.

Lemma 11.1.4. In the setting of Definition 11.1.3, let C denote the set of all Cauchy sequences in M.

- (1) The relation \sim is an equivalence relation on C.
- (2) If $(x_{\nu}) \in C$ and $(y_{\nu}) \in C$, then $(x_{\nu} + y_{\nu}) \in C$.
- (3) If $(x_{\nu}) \sim (x'_{\nu}) \in C$ and $(y_{\nu}) \sim y'_{\nu} \in C$, then $(x_{\nu} + y_{\nu}) \sim (x'_{\nu} + y'_{\nu}) \in C$.
- (4) If $(x_{\nu}) \in C$ and $r \in R$, then $(rx_{\nu}) \in C$.
- (5) If $(x_{\nu}) \sim (x'_{\nu}) \in C$ and $r \in R$, then $(rx_{\nu}) \sim (rx'_{\nu}) \in C$.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

DEFINITION 11.1.5. Let $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ be a filtration of the R-module M. Let M^* denote the set of all equivalence classes of Cauchy sequences in M. We call M^* the topological completion of M. Then Lemma 11.1.4 says that M^* is an R-module. For any $x\in M$, the constant sequence (x) is a Cauchy sequence, so $x\mapsto (x)$ defines an R-module homomorphism $\eta:M\to M^*$. The reader should verify that the kernel of η is the subgroup N of Lemma 11.1.2. Therefore η is one-to-one if and only if M is separated. A Cauchy sequence is in the image of η if it has a limit in M, hence M is complete if the natural map $\eta:M\to M^*$ is onto. For M to be separated and complete it is necessary and sufficient that η be an isomorphism, which is true if and only if every Cauchy sequence has a unique limit in M.

Lemma 11.1.6. In the setting of Definition 11.1.3, assume L is a submodule of M. If M is complete, then M/L is complete.

PROOF. Let $(x_{\nu} + L)$ be a Cauchy sequence in M/L. For each ν there is a positive integer $i(\nu)$ such that $x_{\nu+1} - x_{\nu} \in M_{i(\nu)} + L$ for all $\nu \geq i(\nu)$. For each ν pick $y_{\nu} \in M_{i(\nu)}$ and $z_{\nu} \in L$ such that $x_{\nu+1} - x_{\nu} = y_{\nu} + z_{\nu}$. Define a sequence $s = (x_1, x_1 + y_1, x_1 + y_1 + y_2, x_1 + y_1 + y_2 + y_3, \dots)$ in M. Since 0 is a limit for (y_{ν}) , it follows that s is a Cauchy sequence in M. Since M is complete, s has a limit, say s_0 . Notice that $s_{\nu+1} - x_{\nu+1} \in L$. Therefore, $s_0 + L$ is a limit for $(x_{\nu} + L)$ in M/L.

1.2. Functorial Properties of Completion.

PROPOSITION 11.1.7. Let $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ be a filtration of the R-module M and M^* the topological completion. Then M^* is isomorphic to $\varprojlim M/M_n$ as R-modules.

PROOF. For any n the natural map $\eta_n: M \to M/M_n$ is continuous and maps a Cauchy sequence (x_{ν}) in M to a Cauchy sequence $(\eta_n(x_{\nu}))$ in M/M_n . As M/M_n has the discrete topology, $(\eta_n(x_{\nu}))$ is eventually constant, hence has a limit. Two equivalent Cauchy sequences will have the same limit in M/M_n , so there is a well defined continuous R-module homomorphism $f_n: M^* \to M/M_n$ defined by $(x_{\nu}) \mapsto \varinjlim (\eta_n(x_{\nu}))$. According to Definition 6.8.12, there is a unique R-module homomorphism $\beta: M^* \to \varprojlim M/M_n$. A Cauchy sequence is in the kernel of β if and only if it is equivalent to 0. Therefore, β is one-to-one. By Proposition 6.8.13, we can view the inverse limit as a submodule of the direct product. If the inverse limit is given the topology it inherits from the direct product of the discrete spaces $\prod M/M_n$, then β is continuous. An element of the inverse limit can be viewed as $(x_n) \in \prod M/M_n$ such that $x_n = \phi_{n+1}(x_{n+1})$ for all n, where $\phi_{n+1}: M/M_{n+1} \to M/M_n$ is the natural map. In this case, $x_{n+1} - x_n \in M_n$ so (x_n) is the image under η of a Cauchy sequence in M. This shows β is onto, and therefore β is an isomorphism.

Suppose that $\{A_n\}$ is a filtration for the R-module A, and that $\{B_n\}$ is a filtration for B. A morphism from $\{A_n\}$ to $\{B_n\}$ is an R-module homomorphism $\alpha: A \to B$ such that for each $n \geq 0$, $\alpha(A_n) \subseteq B_n$. In this case α induces a commutative square

$$A/A_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\alpha} B/B_{n+1}$$

$$\downarrow^{\phi_{n+1}} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\psi_{n+1}}$$

$$A/A_n \xrightarrow{\alpha} B/B_n$$

for each $n \geq 0$. Hence there is a morphism of inverse systems $\alpha : \{A/A_n\} \rightarrow \{B/B_n\}$. As in Section 5.7, α induces a homomorphism $\varprojlim A/A_n \rightarrow \varprojlim B/B_n$.

Proposition 11.1.8. If

$$\{A_n\} \xrightarrow{\alpha} \{B_n\} \xrightarrow{\beta} \{C_n\}$$

is a sequence of morphisms of R-modules equipped with filtrations, such that for every $n \geq 0$ the sequence

$$0 \to A_n \xrightarrow{\alpha} B_n \xrightarrow{\beta} C_n \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of R-modules. Then

$$0 \to \varprojlim A/A_n \xrightarrow{\overleftarrow{a}} \varprojlim B/B_n \xrightarrow{\overleftarrow{\beta}} \varprojlim C/C_n \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of R-modules.

PROOF. It follows from Theorem 6.6.2 that the sequence

$$0 \to A/A_n \xrightarrow{\alpha} B/B_n \xrightarrow{\beta} C/C_n \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of R-modules for each $n \ge 0$. Apply Proposition 6.8.19 to the exact sequence of morphisms of inverse systems $\{A/A_n\} \xrightarrow{\alpha} \{A/B_n\} \xrightarrow{\beta} \{C/C_n\}$.

COROLLARY 11.1.9. Let $\{B_n\}$ be a filtration for the R-module B. Suppose

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of R-modules. Give A the filtration $\{A_n\} = \{\alpha^{-1}(B_n)\}$ and C the filtration $\{C_n\} = \{\beta(B_n)\}$. Then the sequence of completions

$$0 \to A^* \xrightarrow{\alpha^*} B^* \xrightarrow{\beta^*} C^* \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of R-modules.

PROOF. By construction,

$$0 \to A/A_n \xrightarrow{\alpha} B/B_n \xrightarrow{\beta} C/C_n \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of R-modules. Now apply Proposition 11.1.8 and Proposition 11.1.7. \Box

COROLLARY 11.1.10. Let $\{M_n\}$ be a filtration for the R-module M and M^* the topological completion.

- (1) For each $n \geq 0$ we have $M^*/M_n^* \cong M/M_n$.
- (2) With respect to the filtration $\{M_n^*\}$, the R-module M^* is complete and separated. That is, $M^* \cong (M^*)^*$.

PROOF. (1): Apply Corollary 11.1.9 to the sequence $0 \to M_n \to M \to M/M_n \to 0$. Since M/M_n has the discrete topology, $M/M_n \cong (M/M_n)^*$.

(2): Take inverse limits in Part (1).

PROPOSITION 11.1.11. Let R be a ring and I a two-sided ideal in R such that R is separated and complete with respect to the I-adic topology. Then

- (1) 1+x is a unit of R for every $x \in I$, and
- (2) I is contained in J(R), the Jacobson radical of R.

PROOF. By Nakayama's Lemma (Theorem 8.1.3), it is enough to prove that 1-x is invertible for every $x\in I$. Since the I-adic topology on R is separated, $\cap I^n=0$. The sequence $s=(1,1+x,1+x+x^2,1+x+x^2+x^3,\dots)$ is a Cauchy sequence in R. Since R is complete, s converges in R. Now $(1-x)s=s(1-x)=1-(x,x^2,x^3,\dots)$ is equal to 1 since the Cauchy sequence (x,x^2,x^3,\dots) converges to 0.

COROLLARY 11.1.12. Let R be a commutative ring and \mathfrak{m} a maximal ideal in R. If $\hat{R} = \varprojlim R/\mathfrak{m}^i$ is the \mathfrak{m} -adic completion, then \hat{R} is a local ring with maximal ideal $\hat{\mathfrak{m}} = \varprojlim \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^i$.

PROOF. By Corollary 11.1.10 (1), $\hat{R}/\hat{\mathfrak{m}} \cong R/\mathfrak{m}$, so $\hat{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a maximal ideal of \hat{R} . By Corollary 11.1.10 (2), \hat{R} is separated and complete with respect to the topology associated to the filtration $(\mathfrak{m}^i)^{\hat{}}$. By Lemma 6.8.18, we can view $\hat{\mathfrak{m}}$ as the set of all sequences $(x_1, x_2, \dots) \in \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} R/\mathfrak{m}^i$ such that $x_1 \in \mathfrak{m}$ and $x_i - x_{i+1} \in \mathfrak{m}^i$ for all $i \geq 1$. From this we see that $\hat{\mathfrak{m}}^i \subseteq (\mathfrak{m}^i)^{\hat{}}$. The proof of Proposition 11.1.11 shows that $\hat{\mathfrak{m}}$ is contained in the Jacobson radical of \hat{R} . Hence, \hat{R} has a unique maximal ideal and is a local ring.

1.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 11.1.13. Let R be a commutative ring, I an ideal in R, and

$$A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \to 0$$

an exact sequence of R-modules. Prove that the I-adic filtration $\{I^n B\}_{n\geq 0}$ of B is equal to the filtration $\{\alpha(I^n A)\}_{n\geq 0}$ of B inherited from A by the surjection α .

EXERCISE 11.1.14. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal in R. Prove:

- (1) The *I*-adic completion of $M=R\oplus R$ is isomorphic to $\hat{R}\oplus \hat{R}$. (Hint: Corollary 11.1.9.)
- (2) If M is a finitely generated free R-module, then the I-adic completion of M is a finitely generated free \hat{R} -module.

EXERCISE 11.1.15. Let R be a commutative ring and I a nilpotent ideal in R $(I^N = (0), \text{ for some } N \ge 1).$

- (1) Show that $\lim R/I^i = R$.
- (2) If R is a commutative local artinian ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , show that R is separated and complete with respect to the \mathfrak{m} -adic topology.

EXERCISE 11.1.16. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal in R. Let J be another ideal of R such that $I \subseteq J$. Prove:

- (1) In the I-adic topology on R, J is both open and closed.
- (2) If $\hat{J} = \varprojlim J/I^n$ and $\hat{R} = \varprojlim R/I^n$, then $\hat{R}/\hat{J} = R/J$.
- (3) J is a prime ideal if and only if \hat{J} is a prime ideal.

EXERCISE 11.1.17. Let R be a commutative ring. Let I and J be ideals of R. Prove:

- (1) The *I*-adic topology on *R* is equal to the *J*-adic topology on *R* if and only if there exists m > 0 such that $I^m \subseteq J$ and $J^m \subseteq I$.
- (2) If the I-adic topology on R is equal to the J-adic topology on R, then there is an isomorphism of rings $\varprojlim R/I^k \to \varprojlim R/J^k$. (Hint: Exercise 6.8.42.) For a continuation of this exercise, see Exercise 13.1.11.

2. Graded Rings and Graded Modules

In this section all rings are commutative.

2.1. Definitions and First Principles. A graded ring is a commutative ring R which under addition is the internal direct sum $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ of a set of additive subgroups $\{R_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ satisfying the property that $R_iR_j \subseteq R_{i+j}$ for all $i, j \geq 0$. The reader should verify (Exercise 7.9.16) that R_0 is a subring of R and each R_n is an R_0 -module. An element of R_n is said to be homogeneous of degree n. The set $R_+ = \bigoplus_{n=1}^{\infty} R_n$ is an ideal of R (Exercise 7.9.17), and is called the exceptional ideal of R.

EXAMPLE 11.2.1. Let R be any commutative ring and $S = R[x_1, \ldots, x_m]$ the polynomial ring over R in m variables x_1, \ldots, x_m (see Section 3.6.1). A monomial over R is any polynomial that looks like $rx_1^{e_1} \cdots x_m^{e_m}$, where $r \in R$ and each exponent e_i is a nonnegative integer. The degree of a monomial is $-\infty$ if r = 0, otherwise it is the sum of the exponents $e_1 + \cdots + e_m$. A polynomial in S is said to be homogeneous if it is a sum of monomials all of the same degree. Let $S_0 = R$ be the

set of all polynomials in S of degree less than or equal to 0. For all $n \ge 1$, let S_n be the set of all homogeneous polynomials in S of degree n. The reader should verify that S is a graded ring.

Let R be a graded ring. A graded R-module is an R-module M which under addition is the internal direct sum $M = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} M_n$ of a set of additive subgroups $\{M_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ and such that $R_iM_j \subseteq M_{i+j}$ for all pairs i,j. The reader should verify that each M_n is an R_0 -module (Exercise 7.9.18). Any $x \in M_n$ is said to be homogeneous of degree n. Every $y \in M$ can be written uniquely as a finite sum $y = \sum_{n=-d}^d y_n$ where $y_n \in M_n$. We call the elements $y_{-d}, \ldots, y_0, \ldots, y_d$ the homogeneous components of y. The set of homogeneous elements of M is

$$M^h = \bigcup_{d \in \mathbb{Z}} M_d.$$

Let M and N be graded R-modules and $\theta: M \to N$ an R-module homomorphism. We say θ is a homomorphism of graded R-modules if for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ we have $\theta(M_n) \subseteq N_n$.

Proposition 11.2.2. Let R be a graded ring. The following are equivalent.

- (1) R is a noetherian ring.
- (2) R_0 is a noetherian ring and R is a finitely generated R_0 -algebra.

PROOF. (2) implies (1): This follows straight from Theorem 10.2.1 (3).

(1) implies (2): By Corollary 7.6.13 (1), $R_0 = R/R_+$ is noetherian. By Corollary 7.6.7, the ideal R_+ is finitely generated. Write $R_+ = Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_m$. Assume without loss of generality that each x_i is homogeneous of degree $d_i > 0$. Let S be the R_0 -subalgebra of R generated by x_1, \ldots, x_m . Inductively assume n > 0 and that S contains $R_0 + R_1 + \cdots + R_{n-1}$. We show that S contains R_n , which will finish the proof. Let $y \in R_n$. Write $y = r_1x_1 + \cdots + r_mx_m$. Each r_i can be written as a sum of its homogeneous components. Because y is homogeneous and each x_i is homogeneous, after rearranging and re-labeling, we can assume each r_i is either zero or homogeneous of degree e_i where $e_i + d_i = n$. Because $d_i > 0$, we have $0 \le e_i < n$, which says each r_i is in $R_0 + R_1 + \cdots + R_{n-1}$. By the inductive hypothesis, each r_i is in S which says $y \in S$.

2.2. The Grading Associated to a Filtration.

EXAMPLE 11.2.3. Let R be a commutative ring. Suppose we have a filtration $J=\{J_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ of R by ideals

$$R = J_0 \supseteq J_1 \supseteq J_2 \supseteq \dots$$

such that for all $m, n \geq 0$ we have $J_m J_n \subseteq J_{m+n}$. Multiplication in R defines an R-module homomorphism

$$\mu_0: J_m \otimes_R J_n \to \frac{J_{m+n}}{J_{m+n+1}}$$

where $\mu_0(x \otimes y) = xy \pmod{J_{m+n+1}}$. The kernel of μ_0 contains the image of $J_{m+1} \otimes_R J_n$, so μ_0 factors through

$$\mu_1: \frac{J_m}{J_{m+1}} \otimes_R J_n \to \frac{J_{m+n}}{J_{m+n+1}}.$$

The kernel of μ_1 contains the image of $\frac{J_m}{J_{m+1}} \otimes_R J_{n+1}$, so μ_1 factors through

$$\mu_{mn}: \frac{J_m}{J_{m+1}} \otimes_R \frac{J_n}{J_{n+1}} \to \frac{J_{m+n}}{J_{m+n+1}}.$$

The graded ring associated to this filtration is

$$\operatorname{gr}_{J}(R) = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{J_{n}}{J_{n+1}} = \frac{R}{J_{1}} \oplus \frac{J_{1}}{J_{2}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \frac{J_{n}}{J_{n+1}} \oplus \cdots$$

where multiplication of two homogeneous elements x_m, x_n is defined to be $\mu_{mn}(x_m \otimes x_n)$. The reader should verify that $\operatorname{gr}_J(R)$ is a graded ring. When I is an ideal of R, the I-adic filtration

$$R = I^0 \supset I^1 \supset I^2 \supset \dots$$

has the associated graded ring $\operatorname{gr}_I(R) = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} I^n/I^{n+1}$. The reader should verify that $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ is an R/I-algebra which is generated by the set of homogeneous elements of degree one, $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)_1 = I/I^2$.

EXAMPLE 11.2.4. Let R be an integral domain. Let g be an element of R such that g is nonzero and g is not invertible. Then there is a commutative diagram

of R-modules where the vertical maps are "multiply by g^i ". If we set I=Rg, then I^i/I^{i+1} is a free R/I-module of rank 1 and is generated by the coset g^i+I^{i+1} . The R/I-algebra homomorphism $\delta:(R/I)[x]\to\operatorname{gr}_I(R)=\bigoplus_{i\geq 0}I^i/I^{i+1}$ defined by $x\mapsto g+I/I^2$ is an isomorphism of graded rings.

EXAMPLE 11.2.5. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal of R. Let M be an R module and $F = \{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ an I-filtration of M. Set $\operatorname{gr}_F(M) = \bigoplus_{n=0}^\infty M_n/M_{n+1}$. Using the method of Example 11.2.3, the reader should verify that $\operatorname{gr}_F(M)$ is a graded $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ -module. We call this the associated graded module for the I-filtration F of M. The graded $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ -module associated to the I-adic filtration $\{I^nM\}_{n\geq 0}$ is denoted $\operatorname{gr}_I(M)$.

DEFINITION 11.2.6. Let R be a commutative ring and $J = \{J_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ a filtration of R by ideals. Let M be an R-module which also has a filtration $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$. We say that M is a filtered R-module, or that the filtrations of R and M are compatible, if $J_iM_j \subseteq M_{i+j}$, for all $i \geq 0$ and $j \geq 0$. If the filtration of R is defined by an ideal I, then M is a filtered R-module if $IM_n \subseteq M_{n+1}$ for all $n \geq 0$. In this case, we also say the filtration $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ is an I-filtration. If $IM_n = M_{n+1}$ for all sufficiently large n, then we say the filtration is a stable I-filtration.

EXAMPLE 11.2.7. Let R be a commutative ring and $J = \{J_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ a filtration of R by ideals. Let M be an R-module. The filtration of M inherited from R is defined by $M_n = J_n M$. The filtration $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ makes M into a filtered R-module.

EXAMPLE 11.2.8. Let R be a commutative ring, and I an ideal in R. The I-adic filtration of R and the I-adic filtration $\{I^nM\}$ of M are compatible. Moreover, $\{I^nM\}$ is a stable I-filtration of M.

According to Proposition 11.1.7, the completion depends only on the topology, not necessarily the filtration. In other words, different filtrations may give rise to the same topology, and therefore the same completions.

PROPOSITION 11.2.9. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring and I an ideal of R. The following are true.

- (1) The associated graded ring $gr_I(R) = \bigoplus_{n>0} I^n/I^{n+1}$ is noetherian.
- (2) Let M be a finitely generated R module and $F = \{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ a stable I-filtration of M. Then $\operatorname{gr}_F(M) = \bigoplus_{n\geq 0} M_n/M_{n+1}$ is a finitely generated graded $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ -module.

PROOF. (1): Since R is noetherian, by Corollary 7.6.13, R/I is noetherian. By Corollary 7.6.7, I is finitely generated. Therefore $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ is a finitely generated R/I-algebra and by Proposition 11.2.2, $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ is noetherian.

(2): Since M is a finitely generated R-module and R is noetherian, Corollary 7.6.12 implies each M_n is finitely generated over R. Each M_n/M_{n+1} is finitely generated over R and annihilated by I, so M_n/M_{n+1} is finitely generated over R/I. For any d > 0, $M_0/M_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_d/M_{d+1}$ is finitely generated over R/I.

For some d>0 we have $IM_{d+r}=M_{d+r+1}$, for all $r\geq 0$. By induction, $I^rM_d=M_{d+r}$, for all $r\geq 1$. It follows that

$$(I^r/I^{r+1})(M_d/M_{d+1}) = M_{d+r}/M_{d+r+1}$$

which shows that $\operatorname{gr}_F(M)$ is generated as a graded $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ -module by the set $M_0/M_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_d/M_{d+1}$. A finite set of generators for $M_0/M_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_d/M_{d+1}$ over R/I will also generate $\operatorname{gr}_F(M)$ as a graded $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ -module.

2.3. The Artin-Rees Theorem.

LEMMA 11.2.10. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal of R. If $\{M_n\}$ and $\{M'_n\}$ are stable I-filtrations of the R-module M, then there exists an integer n_0 such that $M_{n+n_0} \subseteq M'_n$ and $M'_{n+n_0} \subseteq M_n$ for all $n \ge 0$. All stable I-filtrations of M give rise to the same topology on M, namely the I-adic topology.

PROOF. It is enough to show this for $\{M'_n\} = \{I^nM\}$. For some n_0 we have $IM_n = M_{n+1}$ for all $n \geq n_0$. Then $IM_{n_0} = M_{n_0+1}$, $I^2M_{n_0} = IM_{n_0+1} = M_{n_0+2}$, and iterating n times, $I^nM_{n_0} = IM_{n_0+n-1} = M_{n_0+n}$. Therefore $I^nM \supseteq I^nM_{n_0} = M_{n+n_0}$. For the reverse direction, start with $IM = IM_0 \subseteq M_1$. We get $I^2M \subseteq M_2$, and iterating n times we get $I^nM \subseteq M_n$. Therefore $I^{n+n_0} \subseteq I^nM \subseteq M_n$ for all $n \geq 0$.

Example 11.2.11. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal of R. Then $S=R\oplus I\oplus I^2\oplus I^3\oplus\ldots$ is a graded ring. If R is noetherian, then I is finitely generated so S is a finitely generated R-algebra and is noetherian by Proposition 11.2.2. Let M be an R module and $M=M_0\supseteq M_1\supseteq M_2\supseteq\ldots$ an I-filtration of M (Definition 11.2.6). For each $i\ge 0$ we have $IM_i\subseteq M_{i+1}$, hence $I^jM_i\subseteq M_{i+j}$. Therefore $T=M_0\oplus M_1\oplus M_2\oplus M_3\oplus\ldots$ is a graded S-module.

Lemma 11.2.12. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal of R. Let M be an R module and

$$M = M_0 \supseteq M_1 \supseteq M_2 \supseteq \dots$$

an I-filtration of M such that for each i, M_i is a finitely generated R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) The I-filtration $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ is stable. That is, there exists d>0 such that $IM_n=M_{n+1}$ for all $n\geq d$.
- (2) If $S = R \oplus I \oplus I^2 \oplus I^3 \oplus \cdots$ and $T = M_0 \oplus M_1 \oplus M_2 \oplus M_3 \oplus \cdots$, then T is a finitely generated S-module.

PROOF. (2) implies (1): Assume T is finitely generated over S. Suppose U is a finite subset of T which generates T over S. By making U larger (but still finite), we may assume U consists of a finite set of homogeneous elements $U = \{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$ where x_i has degree d_i . Let d be the maximum of $\{d_1, \ldots, d_m\}$. Assume $n \geq d$ and $y \in M_n$. Write $y = r_1x_1 + \cdots + r_mx_m$. Each r_i can be written as a sum of its homogeneous components. Because y is homogeneous and each x_i is homogeneous, after rearranging and re-labeling, we may assume each r_i is either zero or homogeneous of degree e_i where $e_i + d_i = n$. For each $i, r_i \in I^{n-d_i}$. This shows that

$$M_n = \sum_{i=1}^m I^{n-d_i} M_{d_i}$$

for all $n \geq d$. It follows that

$$M_{n+1} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} I^{n-d_i+1} M_{d_i} = I\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} I^{n-d_i} M_{d_i}\right) = I M_n.$$

(1) implies (2): If $M_{n+1}=IM_n$ for all $n\geq d$, then T is generated over S by the set

$$C = M_0 \oplus M_1 \oplus M_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_d$$
.

A finite set of generators for C over R will also generate T over S.

THEOREM 11.2.13. (Artin-Rees) Let R be a noetherian commutative ring, I an ideal in R, M a finitely generated R-module, $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ a stable I-filtration of M, and N a submodule of M. Then

- (1) $\{N \cap M_n\}_{n>0}$ is a stable I-filtration of N.
- (2) There exists an integer d > 0 such that

$$I^n M \cap N = I^{n-d}(I^d M \cap N)$$

for all n > d.

PROOF. (1): Let $S = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} I^n$. Since R is noetherian, by Corollary 7.6.7, I is finitely generated. But S is generated as an R-algebra by I, so Proposition 11.2.2 implies S is noetherian. By Corollary 7.6.12, each M_n is finitely generated as an R-module. By Lemma 11.2.12, $T = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} M_n$ is finitely generated as an S-module. For each $n \geq 0$ we have $I(N \cap M_n) \subseteq IN \cap IM_n \subseteq N \cap M_{n+1}$. Therefore $\{N \cap M_n\}_{n \geq 0}$ is an I-filtration of N and $U = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} N \cap M_n$ is an S-submodule of T. By Corollary 7.6.12, U is finitely generated over S. We are done by Lemma 11.2.12.

Part (2) follows from Part (1) because the filtration $\{I^nM\}_{n\geq 0}$ is a stable filtration of M.

COROLLARY 11.2.14. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring, I an ideal in R, M a finitely generated R-module, and N a submodule of M. Then there exists an integer n_0 such that $I^{n+n_0}N \subseteq (I^nM) \cap N$ and $(I^{n+n_0}M) \cap N \subseteq I^nN$ for all $n \geq 0$. The I-adic topology of N coincides with the topology induced on N by the I-adic topology of M.

PROOF. The filtration $\{I^nN\}_{n\geq 0}$ is a stable filtration of N and by Theorem 11.2.13, $\{(I^nM)\cap N_{n\geq 0}\}$ is a stable I-filtration of N. The rest comes from Lemma 11.2.10.

Corollary 11.2.15. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring, I an ideal in R, and

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \to 0$$

an exact sequence of finitely generated R-modules. The sequence

$$0 \to \hat{A} \to \hat{B} \to \hat{C} \to 0$$

of I-adic completions is an exact sequence of \hat{R} -modules.

PROOF. First give B the I-adic filtration $\{I^n B\}_{n\geq 0}$. Give C the filtration $\{\beta(I^n B)\}_{n\geq 0}$, which is the same as the I-adic filtration on C, by Exercise 11.1.13. Give A the filtration $\{\alpha^{-1}(I^n B)\}_{n\geq 0}$. By Corollary 11.1.9, the sequence of completions

$$0 \to A^* \xrightarrow{\alpha^*} B^* \xrightarrow{\beta^*} C^* \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of R-modules. Because we started with I-filtrations, the homomorphisms are \hat{R} -linear. We already know that $B^* = \hat{B}$ and $C^* = \hat{C}$. By Corollary 11.2.14, $A^* = \hat{A}$, so we are done.

3. The Completion of a Noetherian Ring

3.1. The Completion of a Noetherian Ring is Flat. Let R be a commutative ring, I an ideal in R, and M an R-module. Let \hat{R} be the I-adic completion of R and \hat{M} the I-adic completion of M. Then \hat{R} is an R-algebra and \hat{M} is a module over both \hat{R} and R. The natural maps $R \to \hat{R}$, $M \to \hat{M}$ and the multiplication map induce the \hat{R} -module homomorphisms

$$\hat{R} \otimes_R M \to \hat{R} \otimes_R \hat{M} \to \hat{R} \otimes_{\hat{R}} \hat{M} \xrightarrow{\cong} \hat{M}.$$

Taking the composition gives the natural \hat{R} -module homomorphism $\hat{R} \otimes_R M \to \hat{M}$.

PROPOSITION 11.3.1. Let R be a commutative ring, I an ideal in R, and M a finitely generated R-module. Let \hat{R} be the I-adic completion of R and \hat{M} the I-adic completion of M.

- (1) $\hat{R} \otimes_R M \to \hat{M}$ is onto.
- (2) If M is finitely presented, then $\hat{R} \otimes_R M \cong \hat{M}$.
- (3) If R is noetherian, then $\hat{R} \otimes_R M \cong \hat{M}$.

PROOF. (1): By hypothesis, M is finitely generated. By Lemma 4.2.12, M is the homomorphic image of a finitely generated free R-module F. There is an exact sequence

$$0 \to K \to F \to M \to 0$$

where K is the kernel. Apply the tensor functor $\hat{R} \otimes_R (\cdot)$ and the I-adic completion functor to this sequence to get the commutative diagram

The top row is exact because tensoring is right exact. By Corollary 11.2.15, the bottom row is exact. By Exercise 11.1.14, $\hat{R} \otimes_R F \cong \hat{F}$, so β is an isomorphism. It follows from Theorem 6.6.2 that γ is onto. This proves (1).

- (2): If M is finitely presented, then K is finitely generated and applying (1) to K we see that α is onto. It follows from Theorem 6.6.2 that γ is an isomorphism.
 - (3): Follows from (2) and Corollary 7.6.12.

Corollary 11.3.2. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring, I an ideal in R, and \hat{R} the I-adic completion of R. The following are true.

- (1) $\hat{R} \otimes_R I \cong \hat{I} = \hat{R}I$.
- (2) $\widehat{I}^n = (\hat{I})^n$.
- (3) \hat{R} is separated and complete for the \hat{I} -adic topology. \hat{I} is contained in the Jacobson radical of \hat{R} .
- (4) $I^n/I^{n+1} \cong \hat{I}^n/\hat{I}^{n+1}$ and the associated graded rings $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ and $\operatorname{gr}_{\hat{I}}(\hat{R})$ are isomorphic as graded rings.

PROOF. (1): Since R is noetherian, I is finitely generated. The diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow \hat{R} \otimes_{R} I \xrightarrow{a} \hat{R} \otimes_{R} R$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad$$

commutes and by Proposition 11.3.1, α and β are isomorphisms. The image of $\beta \circ a$ is $\hat{R}I$.

(2): The diagram

commutes and by Proposition 11.3.1, α and β are isomorphisms. The image of $\beta \circ a$ is $\hat{R}I^n = (\hat{R}I)^n$, which by Part (1) is $(\hat{I})^n$.

- (3): The first claim follows from Corollary 11.1.10 and Part (2). The second statement follows from Proposition 11.1.11.
- (4): By Corollary 11.1.10, for each $n \geq 0$, $R/I^n \cong \hat{R}/\widehat{I^n}$. Now use the exact sequence $0 \to I^n/I^{n+1} \to R/I^{n+1} \to R/I^n \to 0$ and Part (2).

COROLLARY 11.3.3. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and \hat{R} the \mathfrak{m} -adic completion of R. Then \hat{R} is a local ring with maximal ideal $\hat{\mathfrak{m}}$.

PROOF. This follows from Corollary 11.1.12.

COROLLARY 11.3.4. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and I an ideal in R. Then the I-adic completion \hat{R} is a flat R-module.

PROOF. Let $0 \to A \to B$ be an exact sequence of finitely generated R-modules. By Corollary 11.2.15, the sequence of completions $0 \to \hat{A} \to \hat{B}$ is exact. By Proposition 11.3.1, the sequence $0 \to \hat{R} \otimes_R A \to \hat{R} \otimes_R B$ is exact. It follows from Proposition 7.8.3 that \hat{R} is flat as an R-module.

3.2. The Krull Intersection Theorem.

Theorem 11.3.5. (Krull Intersection Theorem) Let A be a commutative noetherian ring, I an ideal in A, and M a finitely generated A-module. If $N = \bigcap_{n \geq 0} I^n M$, then IN = N.

PROOF. By Theorem 11.2.13, there exists d such that for all n > d, $I^n M \cap N = I^{n-d}(I^d M \cap N)$. Fix n > d. Then $I^{n-d}(I^d M \cap N) \subseteq IN$ and $N \subseteq I^n M$. Putting all of this together,

$$N \subseteq I^n M \cap N \subseteq I^{n-d}(I^d M \cap N) \subseteq IN \subseteq N,$$

so we are done. \Box

Corollary 11.3.6. The following are true for any commutative noetherian ring R with ideal I.

- (1) If I is contained in the Jacobson radical of R and M is a finitely generated R-module, then $\bigcap_{n>0} I^n M = 0$. The I-adic topology of M is separated.
- (2) If I is contained in the Jacobson radical of R, then $\bigcap_{n\geq 0} I^n = 0$. The I-adic topology of R is separated.
- (3) If R is a noetherian integral domain and I is a proper ideal of R, then $\bigcap_{n>0} I^n = 0$. The I-adic topology of R is separated.

PROOF. (1): By Theorem 11.3.5, if $N = \bigcap_{n \geq 0} I^n M$, then IN = N. By Nakayama's Lemma, Theorem 8.1.3, N = 0.

- (2): Follows from (1) with M = R.
- (3): By Theorem 11.3.5, if $N = \bigcap_{n \geq 0} I^n$, then IN = N. By Nakayama's Lemma, Lemma 6.3.1, $I + \operatorname{annih}_R(N) = R$. Since $I \neq R$ and $N \subseteq R$ and R is a domain we conclude that $\operatorname{annih}_R(N) = R$. That is, N = 0.

Theorem 11.3.7. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and I an ideal in R. The following are equivalent.

- (1) Every ideal J in R is closed in the I-adic topology.
- (2) I is contained in J(R), the Jacobson radical of R.
- (3) The I-adic completion of R, \hat{R} , is a faithfully flat R-algebra.
- (4) If N is a finitely generated R-module, then the I-adic topology on N is separated.
- (5) If N is a finitely generated R-module, then every submodule of N is closed in the I-adic topology on N.

If R and I satisfy any of the equivalent conditions in Theorem 11.3.7, then we say R, I is a $Zariski\ pair$.

- PROOF. (1) implies (2): Assume I is not contained in J(R). Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal of R such that I is not a subset of \mathfrak{m} . Since \mathfrak{m} is prime, $I^n \not\subseteq \mathfrak{m}$ for all $n \geq 1$ (Proposition 3.2.14). Then $I^n + \mathfrak{m} = R$ for all $n \geq 1$. By Lemma 11.1.2, \mathfrak{m} is not closed.
- (2) implies (3): By Corollary 11.3.4, \hat{R} is flat. Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal in R. By Exercise 11.1.16, $\hat{\mathfrak{m}} = \varprojlim \mathfrak{m}/I^i$ is a maximal ideal in \hat{R} . Since $\mathfrak{m}\hat{R} \subseteq \hat{\mathfrak{m}}$, it follows from Lemma 7.5.1 (4) that \hat{R} is a faithfully flat R-algebra.
- (3) implies (2): Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal of R. By Lemma 7.5.5, there is a maximal ideal M in \hat{R} such that $M \cap R = \mathfrak{m}$. By Corollary 11.3.2 (3), $I\hat{R} \subseteq M$. It follows that $I \subseteq I\hat{R} \cap R \subseteq M \cap R = \mathfrak{m}$. Therefore, $I \subseteq J(R)$.

- (2) implies (4): This is Corollary 11.3.6.
- (4) implies (5): Apply Lemma 11.1.2.
- (5) implies (1): Is trivial.

3.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 11.3.8. Let R be a commutative ring and $S = R[x_1, \ldots, x_m]$ the polynomial ring over R in m variables x_1, \ldots, x_m . Prove:

- (1) If S_n is the set of homogeneous polynomials in S of degree n, then $S = S_0 \oplus S_1 \oplus S_2 \oplus \cdots$ is a graded ring and $S_0 = R$.
- (2) As an R-algebra, S is generated by S_1 .
- (3) Let $I = S_+ = S_1 \oplus S_2 \oplus \cdots$ be the exceptional ideal of S. Then $I^n = S_n \oplus S_{n+1} \oplus S_{n+2} \oplus \cdots$

EXERCISE 11.3.9. Let k be a field and $A=k[x_1,\ldots,x_m]$ the polynomial ring in m variables over k. As in Exercise 11.3.8, $A=A_0\oplus A_1\oplus A_2\oplus \cdots$ is a graded k-algebra and $A_0=k$. Also, if $I=A_+=A_1\oplus A_2\oplus \cdots$ is the exceptional ideal of A, then $I^n=A_n\oplus A_{n+1}\oplus A_{n+2}\oplus \cdots$. Let $R=A_0\oplus A_n\oplus A_{n+1}\oplus A_{n+2}\oplus \cdots$. Prove:

- (1) R is a graded k-subalgebra of A.
- (2) I^n is an ideal in A, and an ideal in R.
- (3) Prove that I^n is equal to $R: A = \{\alpha \in A \mid \alpha A \subseteq R\}$, the conductor ideal from A to R (see Exercise 4.1.25).

EXERCISE 11.3.10. Let $R = \bigoplus_{i=0}^{\infty} R_i$ be a graded ring.

- (1) Show that $J_n = \bigoplus_{i=n}^{\infty} R_i$ is an ideal in R and $J = \{J_n\}_{n \geq 0}$ is a filtration of R by ideals.
- (2) Give R the filtration $J = \{J_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ defined in (1). Show that the natural map from R to the associated graded ring $\operatorname{gr}_J(R)$ is an isomorphism.
- (3) If $R^* = \varprojlim R/J_n$ is the completion of R and $P = \{\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i \mid x_i \in R_i\}$, show that there is an R-module isomorphism $R^* \cong P$. (Hint: Use Proposition 11.1.7. An element of the inverse limit can be viewed as a sequence (s_n) such that $s_{n+1} s_n$ is in R_n .)

EXERCISE 11.3.11. Let R be a commutative ring and $S = R[x_1, \ldots, x_m]$ the polynomial ring over R in m variables x_1, \ldots, x_m . Show that if $I = Sx_1 + \cdots + Sx_m$, then the I-adic completion of S is isomorphic to the power series ring $R[[x_1, \ldots, x_m]]$

EXERCISE 11.3.12. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal in R. Show that if M is a finitely generated projective R-module, then the I-adic completion of M is a finitely generated projective \hat{R} -module.

EXERCISE 11.3.13. Let R be a noetherian ring, I an ideal in R, and $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ a set of generators of I. Show that the I-adic completion of R is isomorphic to $R[[x_1, \ldots, x_n]]/(x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n)$.

3.4. The Completion of a Noetherian Ring is Noetherian. Let R be any ring. Let A and B be two R-modules, let $\{A_n\}$ be a filtration for A, and let $\{B_n\}$ be a filtration for B. As in Section 11.1.2, a morphism from $\{A_n\}$ to $\{B_n\}$ is an R-module homomorphism $\alpha: A \to B$ such that for each $n \ge 0$, $\alpha(A_n) \subseteq B_n$.

For each $n \geq 0$ the diagram of R-modules

$$0 \longrightarrow A_n/A_{n+1} \longrightarrow A/A_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\phi_{n+1}} A/A_n \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\gamma_n} \qquad \downarrow^{\beta_{n+1}} \qquad \downarrow^{\beta_n}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow B_n/B_{n+1} \longrightarrow B/B_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\psi_{n+1}} B/B_n \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes and the rows are exact. The three vertical arrows are induced by α . By the universal mapping property of the inverse limit, α induces a homomorphism $\varprojlim A/A_n \to \varprojlim B/B_n$. By the isomorphism of Proposition 11.1.7, α induces a homomorphism on the completions, $\alpha^*: A^* \to B^*$. The maps $\{\gamma_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ define a graded homomorphism

$$gr(\alpha): gr(A) \to gr(B)$$

of graded R-modules. (Here the grading of R is trivial. Every element is homogeneous of degree zero.)

LEMMA 11.3.14. In the above context, let $\alpha: \{A_n\} \to \{B_n\}$ be a morphism of R-modules equipped with filtrations. Let $\alpha^*: A^* \to B^*$ be the homomorphism of completions and $gr(\alpha): gr(A) \to gr(B)$ the graded homomorphism of graded R-modules. Then

- (1) if $gr(\alpha)$ is one-to-one, then α^* is one-to-one, and
- (2) if $gr(\alpha)$ is onto, then α^* is onto.

Proof. The Snake Lemma (Theorem 6.6.2) applied to the previous diagram gives an exact sequence

$$0 \to \ker \gamma_n \to \ker \beta_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\theta_{n+1}} \ker \beta_n \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{coker} \gamma_n \to \operatorname{coker} \beta_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\rho_{n+1}} \operatorname{coker} \beta_n \to 0.$$

- (1): Assume $\ker \gamma_n = 0$ for all $n \ge 0$. Since $\beta_0 = 0$, an inductive argument shows that $\ker \beta_n = 0$ for all $n \ge 0$. By Proposition 11.1.8, the homomorphism on the inverse limits is one-to-one.
- (2): Assume $\operatorname{coker} \gamma_n = 0$ for all $n \geq 0$. It is immediate that $\theta_{n+1} : \ker \beta_{n+1} \to \ker \beta_n$ is onto for all $n \geq 0$. Since $\beta_0 = 0$, an inductive argument shows that $\operatorname{coker} \beta_n = 0$ for all $n \geq 0$. Applying Proposition 6.8.19 to the sequence of morphisms of inverse systems of R-modules

$$\{\ker \beta_n, \theta_{n+1}\} \to \{A/A_n, \phi_{n+1}\} \to \{B/B_n, \psi_{n+1}\}$$

it follows that $\lim A/A_n \to \lim B/B_n$ is onto. Hence $\alpha^*: A^* \to B^*$ is onto. \square

DEFINITION 11.3.15. Suppose $R = \bigoplus_{i \geq 0} R_i$ is a commutative graded ring and $M = \bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} M_i$ is a graded R-module. Given any $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}$, define the *twisted* module $M(-\ell)$ to be equal to M as a \mathbb{Z} -module, but with the grading shifted by ℓ . That is, $M(-\ell) = \bigoplus_{d \in \mathbb{Z}} M(-\ell)_d$, where $M(-\ell)_d = M_{d-\ell}$. The reader should verify that $M(-\ell)$ is a graded R-module.

DEFINITION 11.3.16. Let R be a commutative ring that has a filtration by ideals, $J = \{J_n\}_{n>0}$. Given any $\ell \geq 0$, define a filtration shifted by ℓ by:

$$J(-\ell)_n = \begin{cases} R & \text{if } n < \ell \\ J_{n-\ell} & \text{if } n \ge \ell. \end{cases}$$

Denote this new filtration by $J(-\ell)$. The reader should verify that $\operatorname{gr}_{J(-\ell)}(R)$ and the twisted module $\operatorname{gr}_J(R)(-\ell)$ defined in Definition 11.3.15 are isomorphic as graded $\operatorname{gr}_J(R)$ -modules.

PROPOSITION 11.3.17. Let R be a commutative ring with a filtration $J = \{J_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ by ideals under which R is complete. Let M be a filtered R-module with filtration $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ under which M is separated.

- (1) If the graded $\operatorname{gr}_J(R)$ -module $\operatorname{gr}(M)$ is finitely generated, then the R-module M is finitely generated.
- (2) If every graded $\operatorname{gr}_J(R)$ -submodule of $\operatorname{gr}(M)$ is finitely generated, then the R-module M satisfies the ACC on submodules (in other words, M is noetherian).

PROOF. (1): Pick a finite generating set u_1,\ldots,u_m for $\operatorname{gr}(M)$ as a graded $\operatorname{gr}_J(R)$ -module. After splitting each u_i into its homogeneous components we assume each u_i is homogeneous of degree d_i . For each i pick $v_i \in M_{d_i}$ such that u_i is the image of v_i under the map $M_{d_i} \to M_{d_i}/M_{1+d_i}$. By $R(-d_i)$ we denote the R-module R with the twisted filtration $J(-d_i)$. The R-module homomorphism $\phi_i: R \to M$ defined by $1 \mapsto v_i$ defines a morphism of filtrations $\{R(-d_i)_n\} \to \{M_n\}$. Let $F = R(-d_1) \oplus \cdots \oplus R(-d_m)$ be the free R-module with the filtration $\{F_n = \bigoplus_{i=1}^m R(-d_i)_n\}$. Let $\phi: F \to M$ be the sum $\phi_1 + \cdots + \phi_m$ where each ϕ_i is applied to component i of the direct sum. So ϕ is a morphism of filtered R-modules. There is a homomorphism $\operatorname{gr}(\phi): \operatorname{gr}(F) \to \operatorname{gr}(M)$ of graded $\operatorname{gr}_J(R)$ -modules. By construction, the image of $\operatorname{gr}(\phi)$ contains a generating set so it is onto. By Lemma 11.3.14, the map on completions $\hat{\phi}: \hat{F} \to \hat{M}$ is onto. The square

$$F \xrightarrow{\phi} M$$

$$\alpha \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \beta$$

$$\hat{F} \xrightarrow{\hat{\phi}} \hat{M}$$

commutes and $\hat{\phi}$ is onto. Because M is separated, β is one-to-one. Because R is complete, so is each $R(-d_i)$. Therefore, α is onto. The reader should verify that ϕ is onto. This shows that M is generated as an R-module by v_1, \ldots, v_m .

(2): By Lemma 7.6.6 it is enough to show that every submodule L of M is finitely generated. Give L the filtration $L_n = M_n \cap L$. Then this makes L into a filtered R-module and $\bigcap_{n\geq 0} L_n = 0$. Since $L_{n+1} = L_n \cap M_{n+1}$, the induced map $L_n/L_{n+1} \to M_n/M_{n+1}$ is one-to-one. The graded homomorphism $\operatorname{gr}(L) \to \operatorname{gr}(M)$ of graded $\operatorname{gr}_J(R)$ -modules is also one-to-one. By hypothesis, $\operatorname{gr}(L)$ is finitely generated. By Part (1), L is finitely generated.

COROLLARY 11.3.18. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring.

- (1) If I is an ideal of R, then the I-adic completion of R is noetherian.
- (2) If $S = R[[x_1, ..., x_m]]$ is the power series ring over R in m variables, then S is noetherian.

PROOF. (1): By Corollary 11.3.2 and Proposition 11.2.9, the associated graded rings $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ and $\operatorname{gr}_{\hat{I}}(\hat{R})$ are isomorphic to each other and are noetherian. So every ideal of $\operatorname{gr}_{\hat{I}}(\hat{R})$ is finitely generated. By Proposition 11.3.17, every ideal of \hat{R} is finitely generated and by Corollary 7.6.7, \hat{R} is noetherian.

(2): By The Hilbert Basis Theorem (Theorem 10.2.1) $A = R[x_1, \ldots, x_m]$ is noetherian. By Exercise 11.3.11, S is the completion of A for the I-adic topology, where $I = Ax_1 + \cdots + Ax_m$.

COROLLARY 11.3.19. Let R be a commutative ring with a filtration by ideals $\{J_n\}_{n\geq 0}$. Let M be a filtered R-module with filtration $\{M_n\}_{n\geq 0}$. Assume that R is complete and that M is separated. Let F be a finitely generated submodule of M. If $M_k = M_{k+1} + J_k F$ for all $k \geq 0$, then F = M.

PROOF. Let $\{x_1,\ldots,x_m\}$ be a generating set for the R-module F, which we view as a subset of $M=M_0$. Let ξ_i be the image of x_i in M/M_1 . Let F_1 be the kernel of $F\to M/M_1$. For all $k\geq 0$, $J_kF\subseteq M_k$. By hypothesis, the natural map $\eta_k:J_kF\to M_k/M_{k+1}$ is onto. Since $J_kF_1+J_{k+1}F\subseteq M_{k+1}$, $(J_k/J_{k+1})(F/F_1)\to M_k/M_{k+1}$ is onto. Therefore, the graded $\operatorname{gr}_J(R)$ -module $\operatorname{gr}(M)$ is generated by the finite set $\{\xi_1,\ldots,\xi_m\}$. By Proposition 11.3.17, M is generated by $\{x_1,\ldots,x_m\}$. \square

COROLLARY 11.3.20. Let R, I be a Zariski pair (Theorem 11.3.7). Let \mathfrak{a} be an ideal in R. If $\mathfrak{a}\hat{R}$ is a principal ideal, then \mathfrak{a} is a principal ideal.

PROOF. Assume $\mathfrak{a}\hat{R} = \alpha\hat{R}$, for some $\alpha \in \hat{R}$. By Corollary 11.3.18, \hat{R} is noetherian. By Corollary 11.2.14 there exists $n_0 \geq 1$ such that $\alpha\hat{R} \cap \hat{I}^{n_0} \subseteq \hat{I}\alpha\hat{R}$. Write $\alpha = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i\beta_i$, for some $a_i \in \mathfrak{a}$ and $\beta_i \in \hat{R}$. By Corollary 11.1.10 there exist elements b_i in R such that $b_i - \beta_i \in \hat{I}^{n_0}$ for each i. Set $a = \sum_i a_i b_i$. Then $a \in \mathfrak{a} \subseteq \alpha\hat{R}$. Also, $a - \alpha = \sum_i a_i (b_i - \beta_i) \in \hat{I}^{n_0}$ is in $\hat{I}^{n_0} \cap \alpha\hat{R} \subseteq \hat{I}\alpha\hat{R}$. Therefore, $\alpha\hat{R} \subseteq a\hat{R} + \hat{I}\alpha\hat{R}$. By Corollary 11.3.2, $\hat{I} \subseteq J(\hat{R})$. By Nakayama's Lemma (Corollary 6.3.5), $\alpha\hat{R} = a\hat{R}$. Using Lemma 7.5.4, we get $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{a}\hat{R} \cap R = \alpha\hat{R} \cap R = a\hat{R}$.

3.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 11.3.21. Let $R = \bigoplus_{i \geq 0} R_0$ be a commutative graded ring and $M = \bigoplus_{i \geq 0} M_0$ a graded R-module. Prove that $M(-\ell)$ is a graded R-module, for any $\ell \geq 0$.

EXERCISE 11.3.22. Let R be a commutative ring with ideal I. Given any $\ell \geq 0$ prove that the twisted filtration $\{R(-\ell)_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ is a stable I-filtration of the R-module $R(-\ell)$.

EXERCISE 11.3.23. In Exercise 11.3.22, show that the graded $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ -module associated to the twisted filtration $\{R(-\ell)_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ is the twisted module $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)(-\ell)$. In other words, show that the graded $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ -modules $\operatorname{gr}(R(-\ell))$ and $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)(-\ell)$ are isomorphic.

EXERCISE 11.3.24. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal in R.

- (1) Prove that if R/I is noetherian, and I/I^2 is a finitely generated R/I-module, then the associated graded ring $\operatorname{gr}_I(R) = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} I^n/I^{n+1}$ is noetherian.
- (2) Assume moreover that R is separated and complete for the I-adic topology. Prove that R is noetherian.

4. Lifting of Idempotents and Hensel's Lemma

As in Section 7.3.1, if R is a ring, then $idemp(R) = \{x \in R \mid x^2 - x = 0\}$ denotes the set of idempotents of R. The homomorphic image of an idempotent

is an idempotent, so given a homomorphism of rings $A \to B$, there is a function $idemp(A) \rightarrow idemp(B)$. If this function is onto, then we say idempotents of B lift to idempotents of A. In this section we prove that when R is a ring and I is an ideal of R such that $I \subseteq J(R)$ and R is separated and complete with respect to the I-adic topology, then idempotents of R/I lift to idempotents in R. This is proved in the main result, Corollary 11.4.1, which is a corollary to Nakayama's Lemma (Theorem 8.1.3). We then proceed to give two important applications of Corollary 11.4.1. In Proposition 11.4.3 we show that the change of base functor from the category of finitely generated projective R-modules to the category of finitely generated projective R/I-modules is essentially surjective. We end this section with a second application of the main result to prove Corollary 11.4.4 which is a general form of Hensel's Lemma. In the classical Hensel's Lemma, R is usually assumed to be a complete local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field k. Then if $f \in R[x]$ is a monic polynomial such that f has a factorization $\bar{f} = \bar{g}_0 \bar{h}_0$ in k[x], where g_0 and h_0 are monic and $gcd(\bar{g}_0, \bar{h}_0) = 1$ in k[x], then the factorization lifts to a factorization over R. That is, there exist monic polynomials g, h in R[x] such that f = gh, $\bar{g} = \bar{g}_0$, $\bar{h} = \bar{h}_0$, and g and h generate the unit ideal in R[x].

COROLLARY 11.4.1. Let R be a ring and I a two-sided ideal of R such that $I \subseteq J(R)$. If R is separated and complete with respect to the I-adic topology (that is, $R \to \varprojlim R/I^n$ is an isomorphism), then $\operatorname{idemp}(R) \to \operatorname{idemp}(R/I)$ is onto.

PROOF. Let $\bar{x} \in R/I$ be an idempotent. For $n \geq 1$, I/I^n is nilpotent. By Corollary 8.1.8 (2), idemp $(R/I^n) \to \operatorname{idemp}(R/I)$ is onto for n > 1. Set $e_1 = x$. By induction, there is a sequence (\bar{e}_i) in $\prod_i R/I^i$ such that $e_n^2 - e_n \in I^n$ and $e_{n+1} - e_n \in I^n$. So (\bar{e}_i) is an idempotent in $R = \varprojlim R/I^n$ which maps to \bar{x} in R/I.

COROLLARY 11.4.2. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal in R such that R is separated and complete with respect to the I-adic topology (that is, $R \to \lim R/I^n$ is an isomorphism). Let A be an R-algebra which is integral over R.

- (1) If A is an R-module of finite presentation, then A is separated and complete in the IA-adic topology, $IA \subseteq J(A)$, and $idemp(A) \rightarrow idemp(A \otimes_R (R/I))$ is onto. That is, an idempotent \bar{e} in A/IA lifts to an idempotent e in A.
- (2) If A is commutative, then $idemp(A) \to idemp(A \otimes_R (R/I))$ is onto.

PROOF. (1): Assume that A is an R-module of finite presentation. We are given that $R \to \varprojlim R/I^n$ is an isomorphism. By Proposition 11.3.1, $A \to \varprojlim A/(I^nA)$ is an isomorphism, so A is separated and complete in the IA-adic topology. By Proposition 11.1.11, IA is contained in the Jacobson radical of A. The conclusion follows from Corollary 11.4.1 (3).

(2): First we reduce to the case where A is generated as an R-algebra by a single element. Let $a \in A$ be a preimage of \bar{e} . Let C be the R-subalgebra of A generated by a. Then A is a faithful C-algebra which is integral over C. By Theorem 10.3.7, Spec $A \to \operatorname{Spec} C$ is onto. The reader should verify that $\operatorname{Spec} \bar{A} \to \operatorname{Spec} \bar{C}$ is onto as well, where $\bar{C} = C/IC$. Write \bar{a} for the image of a in \bar{C} . Under the natural map $\bar{C} \to \bar{A}$, we have $\bar{a} \mapsto \bar{e}$. The reader should verify that $\operatorname{Spec} \bar{C} = V(\bar{a}) \cup V(1 - \bar{a})$, so by Corollary 7.3.15 there is a unique idempotent \bar{f} in \bar{C} such that $V(\bar{a}) = V(\bar{f})$. From this it follows that $\bar{f} \mapsto \bar{e}$. If there exists an idempotent f in C that lifts \bar{f} , then using $C \to A$, we get a lifting of \bar{e} .

Now assume A is generated as an R-algebra by a single element a. Then a is integral over R. Let $p \in R[x]$ be a monic polynomial such that p(a) = 0. Let C = R[x]/(p). Then C is a finitely generated free R-module. Let J be the kernel of the natural projection $C \to A$. Let $\{J_{\alpha}\}$ be the directed system of all finitely generated ideals in C such that $J_{\alpha} \subseteq J$. Then $C_{\alpha} = C/J_{\alpha}$ is an R-module of finite presentation, for each α , and $A = \varinjlim C_{\alpha}$. Therefore, $\bar{A} = A/IA = \varinjlim C_{\alpha}/IC_{\alpha} = \varinjlim \bar{C}_{\alpha}$. By Exercise 6.8.41, an idempotent \bar{e} in \bar{A} comes from an idempotent \bar{e}_{α} in \bar{C}_{α} , for some α . By (1) we can lift \bar{e}_{α} to an idempotent $e_{\alpha} \in C_{\alpha}$. Using $C_{\alpha} \to A$, we get a lifting of \bar{e} to an idempotent in A.

As an application of Corollary 11.4.1, we give sufficient conditions on a ring R and an ideal I in R such that every finitely generated projective R/I-module lifts to a finitely generated projective R-module. If $\mathfrak C$ is the category of finitely generated projective R-modules and $\mathfrak D$ is the category of finitely generated projective R/I-modules, then Proposition 11.4.3 shows that the functor () $\otimes_R (R/I) : \mathfrak C \to \mathfrak D$ is essentially surjective.

PROPOSITION 11.4.3. Let R be a ring and I a two-sided ideal of R such that $I \subseteq J(R)$ and R is separated and complete with respect to the I-adic topology (that is, $R \to \varprojlim R/I^n$ is an isomorphism).

- (1) If Q is a finitely generated projective R/I-module, then there is a finitely generated projective R-module P such that $Q \cong P \otimes_R (R/I)$.
- (2) If $g: Q_1 \to Q_2$ is a homomorphism of finitely generated projective R/Imodules, then g lifts to a homomorphism $f: P_1 \to P_2$ of finitely generated
 projective R-modules.
- (3) If Q is an R/I-progenerator module, then there is an R-progenerator module P such that $Q \cong P \otimes_R (R/I)$.

PROOF. (1): For some m > 0, there is an isomorphism $(R/I)^m \cong Q \oplus Q_0$. Let \bar{e} be the idempotent matrix in $M_m(R/I)$ such that $Q \cong \operatorname{im}(\bar{e})$ and $Q_0 \cong \ker(\bar{e})$. Since $\varprojlim M_n(R/I^n) = M_n(\varprojlim R/I^n) = M_n(R)$, by Corollary 11.4.1, we can lift \bar{e} to an idempotent $e \in M_n(R)$. If we set $P = \operatorname{im}(e)$, then $Q \cong P \otimes_R (R/I)$.

(2): Using (1), there are projective R-modules P_i such that $Q_i \cong P_i \otimes_R (R/I)$. Combined with g, there is a diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P_1 & \longrightarrow & Q_1 & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ \exists f \mid & & & \downarrow g \\ & & & \downarrow & \\ & & & \downarrow & \\ P_2 & \longrightarrow & Q_2 & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

where the rows are exact. Since P_1 is a projective R-module, there exists a map f which makes the diagram commutative (Proposition 6.2.3).

(3): Is left to the reader.
$$\Box$$

As an application of Corollary 11.4.2, we prove the following form of Hensel's Lemma.

COROLLARY 11.4.4. (Hensel's Lemma) Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal of R such that R is separated and complete with respect to the I-adic topology (that is, $R \to \varprojlim R/I^n$ is an isomorphism). If there exist polynomials $f, g_0, h_0 \in R[x]$ such that

- (1) f, g_0 and h_0 are monic,
- (2) $f g_0 h_0 \in IR[x]$, and
- (3) $R[x] = g_0 R[x] + h_0 R[x] + IR[x],$

then there exist polynomials $g, h \in R[x]$ such that

- (4) g and h are monic,
- (5) R[x] = gR[x] + hR[x],
- (6) $g g_0 \in IR[x]$,
- (7) $h h_0 \in IR[x]$, and
- (8) $f = gh \in R[x]$.

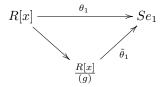
PROOF. Write \bar{R} for R/I and let \bar{f} , \bar{g}_0 , \bar{h}_0 denote the images of the polynomials in $\bar{R}[x]$. By (2) we have $\bar{f} = \bar{g}_0\bar{h}_0$ and by (3), (\bar{g}_0,\bar{h}_0) is the unit ideal of $\bar{R}[x]$. If we set S = R[x]/(f), then S is a finitely generated free R-module and the rank of S is equal to deg $f = \deg g_0 + \deg h_0$ (Exercise 4.2.26). Write \bar{S} for $S/IS = S \otimes_R \bar{R}$. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem (Corollary 3.3.10),

$$\bar{S} = \frac{\bar{R}[x]}{(\bar{f})} = \frac{\bar{R}[x]}{(\bar{g}_0\bar{h}_0)} = \frac{\bar{R}[x]}{(\bar{g}_0)} \oplus \frac{\bar{R}[x]}{(\bar{h}_0)}.$$

By Lemma 7.2.4, corresponding to the direct summands of \bar{S} are orthogonal idempotents \bar{e}_1, \bar{e}_2 and $1 = \bar{e}_1 + \bar{e}_2$. By Corollaries 11.4.2 and 11.4.1, the map idemp $S \to \operatorname{idemp} \bar{S}$ is a one-to-one correspondence. The idempotents \bar{e}_1, \bar{e}_2 lift to idempotents e_1, e_2 of S such that $e_1e_2 = 0$ and $e_1 + e_2 = 1$. The decomposition of \bar{S} lifts to a decomposition $S = R[x]/(f) = Se_1 \oplus Se_2$. Let $\theta_1 : R[x] \to Se_1$ be the composite map $R[x] \to R[x]/(f) \cong S \to Se_1$. Denote by n_0 the degree of g_0 . In R[x] consider the R-submodule $T = R \cdot 1 + Rx + \cdots + Rx^{n_0-1}$. Consider the composite map

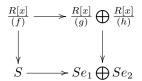
$$R[x] \xrightarrow{\theta_1} Se_1 \to \frac{Se_1}{ISe_1} \cong \frac{\bar{R}[x]}{(\bar{g}_0)}.$$

If \bar{x} denotes the coset $x+(\bar{g}_0)$ in $\bar{R}[x]/(\bar{g}_0)$, then the image of T in $\bar{R}[x]/(\bar{g}_0)$ is the \bar{R} -submodule $\bar{R}\cdot 1+\bar{R}\bar{x}+\cdots+\bar{R}\bar{x}^{n_0-1}$, which is equal to $\bar{R}[x]/(\bar{g}_0)$. Therefore, Se_1 is generated as an R-module by $\theta_1(T)$ and ISe_1 . Nakayama's Lemma (Corollary 6.3.5 (2)) says that $\theta_1(T)=Se_1$. If we write $y_1=\theta_1(x)=xe_1$, then $y_1^{n_0}\in\theta_1(T)$. Hence there is a monic polynomial $g\in R[x]$ of degree n_0 such that $\theta_1(g)=g(y_1)=0$. There is a map $\tilde{\theta}_1$ such that



is a commutative diagram. Tensoring $\tilde{\theta}_1$ with () $\otimes_R \bar{R}$, the diagram

commutes. Therefore, in the ring $\bar{R}[x]$, \bar{g} is in the ideal (\bar{g}_0) . That is, \bar{g}_0 divides \bar{g} . Since both polynomials are monic of degree n_0 , Theorem 3.6.4 implies that $\bar{g}_0 = \bar{g}$. This shows $\tilde{\theta}_1 \otimes 1$ is an isomorphism of \bar{R} -modules. Since Se_1 is a direct summand of S, Se_1 is R-projective. By Exercise 4.2.26, R[x]/(g) is a free R-module of rank n_0 . By Exercise 8.1.14, it follows that $\tilde{\theta}_1$ is an isomorphism. Likewise there is a monic polynomial $h \in R[x]$ such that the degree of h is equal to the degree of h_0 , $\bar{h} = \bar{h}_0$, $h(xe_2) = 0$, and $R[x]/(h) \cong Se_2$. So the image of h under $\theta_2 : R[x] \to Se_2$ is 0. Since gh is in the kernel of the map $R[x] \to R[x]/(f) = S = Se_1 \oplus Se_2$, it follows that f divides gh. Since gh and f are both monic of the same degree, it follows that f = gh. In the commutative diagram



all of the maps are isomorphisms. By Theorem 3.3.8, the ideal (g,h) is equal to R[x].

When R is a complete local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , Lemma 11.4.5, which is due to Azumaya [9], shows that simple roots have unique liftings modulo \mathfrak{m} .

LEMMA 11.4.5. Let R be a local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field k such that R is separated and complete with respect to the \mathfrak{m} -adic topology. Let $f \in R[x]$ be a monic polynomial and $a \in R$. If $\bar{a} \in k$ is a simple root of \bar{f} , then there exists a unique $b \in R$ such that f(b) = 0 and $b - a \in \mathfrak{m}$.

PROOF. Assume \bar{a} is a simple root of \bar{f} . Then there exists a monic polynomial $g_0 \in R[x]$ such that $\bar{f} = (x - \bar{a})\bar{g}_0$ in k[x] and $\bar{g}_0(\bar{a}) \neq 0$. Therefore, $x - \bar{a}$ and \bar{g}_0 generate the unit ideal in k[x]. By Corollary 11.4.4, there are $b \in R$, $g \in R[x]$ such that f = (x - b)g, $b - a \in \mathfrak{m}$ and $\bar{g} = \bar{g}_0$. This shows f(b) = 0. Now suppose $c - a \in \mathfrak{m}$ and f(c) = 0. Then (c - b)g(c) = 0. But $g(c) \notin \mathfrak{m}$ because $\bar{c} = \bar{a}$ is not a root of \bar{g} . Since R is a local ring, this implies g(c) is an invertible element of R. Hence c - b = 0 and b is unique.

CHAPTER 12

Homological Algebra

Throughout this chapter, R denotes an arbitrary ring. Unless otherwise specified, a module will be a left R-module, a homomorphism will be a homomorphism of R-modules, and a functor will be an additive functor from the category of R-modules to the category of abelian groups. (See Example 12.1.2 for the definition of additive functor.)

1. Homology Group Functors

1.1. Chain Complexes. A chain complex in $_R\mathfrak{M}$ is a sequence of R-modules $\{A_i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ and homomorphisms $d_i : A_i \to A_{i-1}$ such that $d_{i-1}d_i = 0$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. The maps d_i are called the boundary maps. The notation A_{\bullet} denotes a chain complex. If it is important to reference the boundary maps, we will write $(A_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet})$. If the modules A_i are specified for some range $n_0 \leq i \leq n_1$, then it is understood that $A_i = 0$ for $i < n_0$ or $i > n_1$. Let A_{\bullet} and B_{\bullet} be chain complexes. A morphism of chain complexes is a sequence of homomorphisms $f = \{f_i : A_i \to B_i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ such that for each i the diagram

$$A_{i+1} \xrightarrow{d_{i+1}} A_i \xrightarrow{d_i} A_{i-1}$$

$$\downarrow^{f_{i+1}} \qquad \downarrow^{f_i} \qquad \downarrow^{f_{i-1}}$$

$$B_{i+1} \xrightarrow{d_{i+1}} B_i \xrightarrow{d_i} B_{i-1}$$

commutes. In this case we write $f: A_{\bullet} \to B_{\bullet}$. The reader should verify that the collection of all chain complexes over R together with morphisms is a category. In some of the exercises listed below the reader is asked to verify many of the important features of this category.

Suppose A_{\bullet} is a chain complex and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Elements of A_n are called *n*-chains. The module A_n contains the two submodules

$$B_n(A_{\bullet}) = \operatorname{im} d_{n+1}$$
, and $Z_n(A_{\bullet}) = \ker d_n$.

Elements of $B_n(A_{\bullet})$ are called *n-boundaries* and elements of $Z_n(A_{\bullet})$ are called *n-cycles*. The condition $d_id_{i+1} = 0$ translates into $B_n(A_{\bullet}) \subseteq Z_n(A_{\bullet})$. The *nth homology module* of A_{\bullet} is defined to be the quotient

$$H_n(A_{\bullet}) = Z_n(A_{\bullet})/B_n(A_{\bullet}) = \ker d_n/\operatorname{im} d_{n+1}.$$

EXAMPLE 12.1.1. (1) A short exact sequence $0 \to A \to B \to C \to 0$ is a chain complex. It is understood that the sequence is extended with 0 terms.

(2) If M is an R-module, then a projective resolution

$$\cdots \to P_1 \to P_0 \to M \to 0$$

of M is a chain complex (see Exercise 6.3.10). It is understood that the sequence is extended with 0 terms.

- (3) If A_{\bullet} is a chain complex, the reader should verify that the following are equivalent
 - (a) $H_n(A_{\bullet}) = 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
 - (b) A_{\bullet} is an exact sequence.

Example 12.1.2. A covariant functor $\mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is said to be additive in case for every pair of R-modules A, B, the map $\mathfrak{F}(\cdot)$: $\operatorname{Hom}_R(A, B) \to$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathfrak{F}(A),\mathfrak{F}(B))$ is a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism. In particular, under a covariant additive functor, the zero homomorphism is mapped to the zero homomorphism. It follows that if A_{\bullet} is a chain complex, then $\mathfrak{F}(A_{\bullet})$ is a chain complex. It is for this reason that additive functors play an important role in homological algebra. A contravariant functor $\mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is said to be additive in case for every pair of R-modules A, B, the map $\mathfrak{F}(\cdot) : \operatorname{Hom}_R(A, B) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathfrak{F}(B), \mathfrak{F}(A))$ is a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism.

Lemma 12.1.3. Let n be an arbitrary integer.

(1) If $f: A_{\bullet} \to B_{\bullet}$ is a morphism of chain complexes, then the assignment

$$z_n + B_n(A_{\bullet}) \mapsto f_n(z_n) + B_n(B_{\bullet})$$

defines an R-module homomorphism

$$H_n(f): H_n(A_{\bullet}) \to H_n(B_{\bullet}).$$

(2) The assignment $A_{\bullet} \mapsto H_n(A_{\bullet})$ defines a functor from the category of chain complexes to the category of R-modules.

PROOF. (1): Given $z_n \in \mathbb{Z}_n(A_{\bullet})$, we have $d_n f_n(z_n) = f_{n-1} d_n(z_n) = f_{n-1}(0) =$ 0. This says that the composite map

$$f_n: \mathbf{Z}_n(A_{\bullet}) \to \mathbf{Z}_n(B_{\bullet}) \to \mathbf{H}_n(B_{\bullet})$$

is well defined. Given $a_{n+1} \in A_{n+1}$, $f_n d_{n+1}(a_{n+1}) = d_{n+1} f_{n+1}(a_{n+1})$. This implies that $f_n(B_n(A_{\bullet})) \subseteq B_n(B_{\bullet})$, so $H_n(f) : H_n(A_{\bullet}) \to H_n(B_{\bullet})$ is well defined.

1.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 12.1.4. For the category of chain complexes, the reader should give appropriate definitions for the following terminology.

- (1) The kernel of a morphism.
- (2) The cokernel of a morphism.
- (3) The *image* of a morphism.
- (4) A subchain complex of a chain complex and the quotient of a chain complex modulo a subchain complex.
- (5) monomorphism, epimorphism, and isomorphism.
- (6) short exact sequence.

EXERCISE 12.1.5. Let A_{\bullet} be a chain complex. For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ there are short exact sequences of R-modules.

(1)
$$0 \to B_n(A_{\bullet}) \to Z_n(A_{\bullet}) \to H_n(A_{\bullet}) \to 0$$

$$(2) \ 0 \to \mathbf{Z}_n(A_{\bullet}) \to A_n \to \mathbf{B}_{n-1}(A_{\bullet}) \to 0$$

(3)
$$0 \to \operatorname{H}_n(A_{\bullet}) \to A_n / \operatorname{B}_n(A_{\bullet}) \to \operatorname{B}_{n-1}(A_{\bullet}) \to 0$$

EXERCISE 12.1.6. Let A_{\bullet} be a chain complex. For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ there is an exact sequence of R-modules.

$$0 \to \operatorname{H}_n(A_{\bullet}) \to A_n/\operatorname{B}_n(A_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{d_n} \operatorname{Z}_{n-1}(A_{\bullet}) \to \operatorname{H}_{n-1}(A_{\bullet}) \to 0$$

EXERCISE 12.1.7. Let \mathfrak{F} be an exact covariant additive functor from ${}_R\mathfrak{M}$ to ${}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$. If A_{\bullet} is a chain complex, then $\mathfrak{F}(\mathrm{H}_n(A_{\bullet})) \cong \mathrm{H}_n(\mathfrak{F}(A_{\bullet}))$. (Hint: Start with the exact sequences

$$0 \to B_n(A_{\bullet}) \to Z_n(A_{\bullet}) \to H_n(A_{\bullet}) \to 0$$
$$0 \to Z_n(A_{\bullet}) \to A_n \to B_{n-1}(A_{\bullet}) \to 0$$

and apply \mathfrak{F} .)

EXERCISE 12.1.8. Let J be an index set and $\{(A^j)_{\bullet} \mid j \in J\}$ a collection of chain complexes.

(1) Show that

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\oplus d_{n+1}} \bigoplus_{j \in J} (A^j)_n \xrightarrow{\oplus d_n} \bigoplus_{j \in J} (A^j)_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\oplus d_{n-1}} \cdots$$

is a chain complex, which is called the direct sum chain complex.

(2) Show that homology commutes with a direct sum. That is

$$H_n\left(\bigoplus_{j\in J} (A^j)_{\bullet}\right) \cong \bigoplus_{j\in J} H_n\left((A^j)_{\bullet}\right).$$

(Hint: Start with the exact sequences

$$0 \to B_n((A^j)_{\bullet}) \to Z_n((A^j)_{\bullet}) \to H_n((A^j)_{\bullet}) \to 0$$
$$0 \to Z_n((A^j)_{\bullet}) \to (A^j)_n \to B_{n-1}((A^j)_{\bullet}) \to 0$$

and take direct sums.)

EXERCISE 12.1.9. Let $\{(A^j)_{\bullet}, \phi^i_j\}$ be a directed system of chain complexes for a directed index set I.

(1) Show that

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\vec{d}_{n+1}} \varinjlim (A^j)_n \xrightarrow{\vec{d}_n} \varinjlim (A^j)_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\vec{d}_{n-1}} \cdots$$

is a chain complex, which is called the direct limit chain complex.

(2) Show that homology commutes with a direct limit. That is

$$H_n\left(\varinjlim(A^j)_{\bullet}\right) \cong \varinjlim H_n\left((A^j)_{\bullet}\right).$$

(Hint: Start with the exact sequences

$$0 \to B_n((A^j)_{\bullet}) \to Z_n((A^j)_{\bullet}) \to H_n((A^j)_{\bullet}) \to 0$$
$$0 \to Z_n((A^j)_{\bullet}) \to (A^j)_n \to B_{n-1}((A^j)_{\bullet}) \to 0$$

and take direct limits.)

1.3. The long exact sequence of homology.

Theorem 12.1.10. Let

$$0 \to A_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f} B_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{g} C_{\bullet} \to 0$$

be an exact sequence of chain complexes. Then there is a long exact sequence of homology modules

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{H}_n(A_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}(f)} \operatorname{H}_n(B_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}(g)} \operatorname{H}_n(C_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{H}_{n-1}(A_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}(f)} \operatorname{H}_{n-1}(B_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}(g)} \cdots$$

PROOF. The idea for the proof is to reduce the problem into two applications of the Snake Lemma (Theorem 6.6.2).

Step 1: For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ the sequences

$$0 \to \operatorname{Z}_n(A_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{f_n} \operatorname{Z}_n(B_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{g_n} \operatorname{Z}_n(C_{\bullet})$$
$$A_n/\operatorname{B}_n(A_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{f_n} B_n/\operatorname{B}_n(B_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{g_n} C_n/\operatorname{B}_n(C_{\bullet}) \to 0$$

are exact. To see this, start with the commutative diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow A_n \xrightarrow{f_n} B_n \xrightarrow{g_n} C_n \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{d_n} \qquad \downarrow^{d_n} \qquad \downarrow^{d_n}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow A_{n-1} \longrightarrow B_{n-1} \longrightarrow C_{n-1} \longrightarrow 0$$

and apply the Snake Lemma. For the first sequence, use the fact that $Z_n(X_{\bullet})$ is the the kernel of d_n for X=A,B,C. For the second sequence, use the fact that $B_{n-1}(X_{\bullet})$ is the image of d_n for X=A,B,C and increment n by one.

Step 2: For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ there is an exact sequence

$$\mathrm{H}_n(A_\bullet) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{H}(f)} \mathrm{H}_n(B_\bullet) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{H}(g)} \mathrm{H}_n(C_\bullet) \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathrm{H}_{n-1}(A_\bullet) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{H}(f)} \mathrm{H}_{n-1}(B_\bullet) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{H}(g)} \mathrm{H}_{n-1}(C_\bullet)$$

of R-modules. To see this, start with the commutative diagram

$$A_n/\operatorname{B}_n(A_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{f_n} B_n/\operatorname{B}_n(B_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{g_n} C_n/\operatorname{B}_n(C_{\bullet}) \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{d_n} \qquad \downarrow^{d_n} \qquad \downarrow^{d_n}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Z}_{n-1}(A_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{f_{n-1}} \operatorname{Z}_{n-1}(B_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{g_{n-1}} \operatorname{Z}_{n-1}(C_{\bullet})$$

the rows of which are exact by Step 1. The exact sequence of Exercise 12.1.6 says that the kernel of d_n is $H_n()$ and the cokernel is $H_{n-1}()$. Apply the Snake Lemma.

THEOREM 12.1.11. In the context of Theorem 12.1.10, the connecting homomorphism $\partial: H_n(C_{\bullet}) \to H_{n-1}(A_{\bullet})$ is natural. More specifically, if

$$0 \longrightarrow A_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f} B_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{g} C_{\bullet} \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\chi} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\rho} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\sigma}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow A'_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f'} B'_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{g'} C'_{\bullet} \longrightarrow 0$$

is a commutative diagram of chain complexes with exact rows, then there is a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathbf{H}_{n}(A_{\bullet}) & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{H}(f)} \mathbf{H}_{n}(B_{\bullet}) & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{H}(g)} \mathbf{H}_{n}(C_{\bullet}) & \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathbf{H}_{n-1}(A_{\bullet}) \\
\downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\
\mathbf{H}(\chi) & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\
\mathbf{H}_{n}(A'_{\bullet}) & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{H}(f')} \mathbf{H}_{n}(B'_{\bullet}) & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{H}(g')} \mathbf{H}_{n}(C'_{\bullet}) & \xrightarrow{\partial'} \mathbf{H}_{n-1}(A'_{\bullet})
\end{array}$$

with exact rows for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

PROOF. Most of this follows straight from Lemma 12.1.3 and Theorem 12.1.10. It is only necessary to check that the third square is commutative. For this, use the definition of ∂ given in the proof of Theorem 6.6.2. The gist of the proof is $H(\chi)\partial = \chi_{n-1}f_{n-1}^{-1}d_ng_n^{-1} = f'_{n-1}^{-1}d'_ng'_n^{-1}\sigma_n = \partial' H(\sigma)$. The details are left to the reader.

1.4. Homotopy Equivalence. Let A_{\bullet} and B_{\bullet} be chain complexes. By $\operatorname{Hom}(A_{\bullet}, B_{\bullet})$ we denote the set of all morphisms $f: A_{\bullet} \to B_{\bullet}$. For each $i \in \mathbb{Z}$, $f_i: A_i \to B_i$ is an R-module homomorphism. As in Example 4.4.1, we can turn $\operatorname{Hom}(A_{\bullet}, B_{\bullet})$ into a \mathbb{Z} -module. Two morphisms $f, g \in \operatorname{Hom}(A_{\bullet}, B_{\bullet})$ are said to be homotopic if there exists a sequence of R-module homomorphisms $\{k_i: A_i \to B_{i+1} \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ such that $f_n - g_n = d_{n+1}k_n + k_{n-1}d_n$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If f and g are homotopic, then we write $f \sim g$ and the sequence $\{k_i\}$ is called a homotopy operator. The reader should verify that homotopy equivalence is an equivalence relation on $\operatorname{Hom}(A_{\bullet}, B_{\bullet})$.

THEOREM 12.1.12. Let A_{\bullet} and B_{\bullet} be chain complexes. For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the functor $H_n()$ is constant on homotopy equivalence classes. In other words, if f and g are homotopic in $\text{Hom}(A_{\bullet}, B_{\bullet})$, then H(f) is equal to H(g) in $\text{Hom}_R(H_n(A_{\bullet}), H_n(B_{\bullet}))$.

PROOF. We are given a homotopy operator $\{k_i: A_i \to B_{i+1} \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ such that for any $z \in Z_n(A_{\bullet})$

$$(f_n - g_n)(z) = d_{n+1}k_n(z) + k_{n-1}d_n(z)$$

for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. But $d_n(z) = 0$, which implies $f_n(z) - g_n(z) = d_{n+1}k_n(z) \in B_n(B_{\bullet})$.

Theorem 12.1.13. Let X_{\bullet} and Y_{\bullet} be chain complexes such that each X_i is a projective R-module and $X_i = Y_i = 0$ for all i < 0. Suppose M and N are R-modules and that there exist R-module homomorphisms ϵ and π such that

$$\cdots \to X_2 \to X_1 \to X_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} M \to 0$$

is a chain complex and

$$\cdots \rightarrow Y_2 \rightarrow Y_1 \rightarrow Y_0 \xrightarrow{\pi} N \rightarrow 0$$

is a long exact sequence.

- (1) Given any $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, N)$, there exists a morphism $f: X_{\bullet} \to Y_{\bullet}$ which commutes with f on the augmented chain complexes. That is, $f \in \pi f_0$.
- (2) The morphism f is unique up to homotopy equivalence.

PROOF. (1): The morphism f is constructed recursively. To construct f_0 , consider the diagram

$$X_{0}$$

$$\exists f_{0} \mid \qquad f \epsilon$$

$$Y_{0} \xrightarrow{\pi} N \longrightarrow 0$$

with bottom row exact. Since X_0 is projective, there exists $f_0: X_0 \to Y_0$ such that $\pi f_0 = f \epsilon$.

To construct f_1 , start with the commutative diagram

$$X_{1} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} X_{0} \xrightarrow{\epsilon} M$$

$$\exists f_{1} \mid \qquad \qquad \downarrow f_{0} \qquad \qquad \downarrow f$$

$$Y_{1} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} Y_{0} \xrightarrow{\pi} N$$

The top row is a chain complex, the bottom row is exact. Because $\pi f_0 d_1 = f \epsilon d_1 = 0$, it follows that $\operatorname{im}(f_0 d_1) \subseteq \ker(\pi) = \operatorname{im}(d_1)$. Consider the diagram

$$X_1$$

$$\exists f_1 \mid \qquad f_0 d_1$$

$$Y_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} \text{ im } d_1 \longrightarrow 0$$

in which the bottom row is exact. Since X_1 is projective, there exists $f_1: X_1 \to Y_1$ such that $d_1f_1 = f_0d_1$.

Recursively construct f_{n+1} using f_n and f_{n-1} . Start with the commutative diagram

$$X_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} X_n \xrightarrow{d_n} X_{n-1}$$

$$\exists f_{n+1} \mid \qquad \qquad \downarrow f_n \qquad \qquad \downarrow f_{n-1}$$

$$Y_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} Y_n \xrightarrow{d_n} Y_{n-1}$$

The top row is a chain complex, the bottom row is exact. Since $d_n f_n d_{n+1} = f_{n-1} d_n d_{n+1} = 0$, it follows that $\operatorname{im}(f_n d_{n+1}) \subseteq \ker(d_n) = \operatorname{im}(d_{n+1})$. Consider the diagram

$$X_{n+1}$$

$$\exists f_{n+1} \mid \qquad f_n d_{n+1}$$

$$Y \qquad d_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} \text{im } d_{n+1} \longrightarrow 0$$

in which the bottom row is exact. Since X_{n+1} is projective, there exists $f_{n+1}: X_{n+1} \to Y_{n+1}$ such that $d_{n+1}f_{n+1} = f_nd_{n+1}$. This proves Part (1).

(2): Assume that $g: X_{\bullet} \to Y_{\bullet}$ is another morphism such that $g\epsilon = g_0\pi$. We construct a homotopy operator $\{k_i: X_i \to Y_{i+1}\}$ recursively. Start by setting $k_i = 0$ for all i < 0.

To construct k_0 , start with the commutative diagram

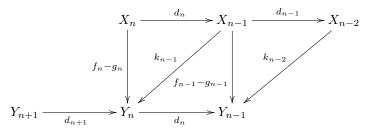
$$\begin{array}{c|c} X_0 & \xrightarrow{\epsilon} & M \\ & \downarrow^{f_0 - g_0} & \downarrow^f \\ Y_1 & \xrightarrow{d_1} & Y_0 & \xrightarrow{\pi} & N \end{array}$$

in which the bottom row is exact. Because $\pi f_0 = \pi g_0 = f \epsilon$, it follows that $\operatorname{im}(f_0 - g_0) \subseteq \ker(\pi) = \operatorname{im}(d_1)$. Consider the diagram

$$Y_1 \xrightarrow{\exists k_0} X_0 \\ \downarrow^{f_0 - g_0} \\ V_1 \xrightarrow{\swarrow^{d_1}} \operatorname{im} d_1 \longrightarrow 0$$

in which the bottom row is exact. Since X_0 is projective, there exists $k_0: X_0 \to Y_1$ such that $d_1k_0 = f_0 - g_0$.

Recursively construct k_n using k_{n-1} and k_{n-2} . Start with the commutative diagram



The top row is a chain complex, the bottom row is exact. Since

$$d_n(f_n - g_n) = (f_{n-1} - g_{n-1})d_n = (d_n k_{n-1} + k_{n-2} d_{n-1})d_n = d_n k_{n-1} d_n$$

it follows that $\operatorname{im}(f_n - g_n - k_{n-1}d_n) \subseteq \ker(d_n) = \operatorname{im}(d_{n+1})$. Consider the diagram

$$Y_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\exists k_n} X_n \\ \downarrow^{f_n - g_n - k_{n-1} d_n} \\ \downarrow^{f_n - g_$$

in which the bottom row is exact. Since X_n is projective, there exists $k_n: X_n \to Y_{n+1}$ such that $d_{n+1}k_n = f_n - g_n - k_{n-1}d_n$. This proves Part (2).

1.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 12.1.14. Suppose f and g are homotopic morphisms from A_{\bullet} to B_{\bullet} and \mathfrak{F} is an covariant additive functor on R-modules. Prove that $\mathfrak{F}(f)$ and $\mathfrak{F}(g)$ are homotopic morphisms from $\mathfrak{F}(A_{\bullet})$ to $\mathfrak{F}(B_{\bullet})$.

EXERCISE 12.1.15. Let A_{\bullet} be a chain complex. A contracting homotopy is a homotopy operator $\{k_i: A_i \to A_{i+1} \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ such that $d_{n+1}k_n + k_{n-1}d_n$ is equal to the identity function on A_n for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Show that if a contracting homotopy exists, then $H_n(A_{\bullet}) = 0$ for all n.

EXERCISE 12.1.16. (Tensor defines an additive functor) Let M be a right R-module. Show that $M \otimes_R (\cdot)$ is an additive functor ${}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$.

EXERCISE 12.1.17. (Hom defines an additive functor) Let M be an R-module. Prove that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,\cdot)$ is a covariant additive functor and $\operatorname{Hom}_R(\cdot,M)$ is a contravariant additive functor.

Exercise 12.1.18. Assume we are given a commutative diagram

where the rows are chain complexes. If the rows are exact sequences and γ_n is an isomorphism for every n, then there is an exact sequence

$$\cdots \to A_n \xrightarrow{\delta_n} X_n \oplus B_n \xrightarrow{\epsilon_n} Y_n \xrightarrow{\delta_n} A_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\delta_{n-1}} X_{n-1} \oplus B_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\epsilon_{n-1}} Y_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}} \cdots$$

where the maps are defined as follows: $\delta_n = (\alpha_n, f_n)$, $\epsilon_n = r_n - \beta_n$, and $\partial_n = h_n \gamma_n^{-1} s_n$. The maps γ_n are called *excision isomorphisms* and the resulting long exact sequence is called a *Mayer-Vietoris sequence*. (Hint: This can be proved directly by showing exactness at each term.)

1.6. Left Derived Functors. Let $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ be a covariant additive functor. To \mathfrak{F} we associate a sequence of functors $L_n \mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$, one for each $n \geq 0$, called the *left derived functors* of \mathfrak{F} . For any left R-module M, if $P_{\bullet} \to M \to 0$ is a projective resolution of M, define $L_n \mathfrak{F}(M)$ to be the nth homology group of the complex $\mathfrak{F}(P_{\bullet})$. In Theorem 12.1.19, we show that this definition does not depend on the choice of P_{\bullet} . Given any R-module homomorphism $\phi: M \to N$, let $P_{\bullet} \to M$ be a projective resolution of M and $Q_{\bullet} \to N$ a projective resolution of N. According to Theorem 12.1.13 there is an induced morphism of chain complexes $\phi: P_{\bullet} \to Q_{\bullet}$ which is unique up to homotopy equivalence. Applying the functor, we get a morphism of chain complexes $\mathfrak{F}(\phi): \mathfrak{F}(P_{\bullet}) \to \mathfrak{F}(Q_{\bullet})$. According to Exercise 12.1.14, this morphism depends only on the homotopy class of $\phi: P_{\bullet} \to Q_{\bullet}$. This morphism induces a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism $L_n \mathfrak{F}(\phi): L_n \mathfrak{F}(M) \to L_n \mathfrak{F}(N)$ for each n. In Theorem 12.1.19, we show that this definition does not depend on the choice of P_{\bullet} and Q_{\bullet} .

THEOREM 12.1.19. Let $\mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ be an additive covariant functor. For each $n \geq 0$ there is an additive covariant functor $L_n \mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$.

PROOF. First we show that the definition of left derived functors does not depend on the choice of projective resolution. Let M be an R-module and suppose we are given two projective resolutions $P_{\bullet} \to M$ and $Q_{\bullet} \to M$. Starting with the identity map $1: M \to M$, apply Theorem 12.1.13 (1) from both directions to get morphisms $f: P_{\bullet} \to Q_{\bullet}$ and $g: Q_{\bullet} \to P_{\bullet}$. Theorem 12.1.13 (2) (from both directions) says $fg \sim 1$ and $gf \sim 1$. By Exercise 12.1.14, $\mathfrak{F}(fg) \sim 1$ and $\mathfrak{F}(gf) \sim 1$. In conclusion, there is an isomorphism

$$\psi(P_{\bullet}, Q_{\bullet}) : \mathrm{H}_n(\mathfrak{F}(P_{\bullet})) \cong \mathrm{H}_n(\mathfrak{F}(Q_{\bullet}))$$

which is uniquely determined by the module M and the two resolutions P_{\bullet} and Q_{\bullet} . The inverse function is $\psi(Q_{\bullet}, P_{\bullet})$.

Secondly, suppose $\phi: M \to N$ is any R-module homomorphism. We show that

$$L_n \mathfrak{F}(\phi) : L_n \mathfrak{F}(M) \to L_n \mathfrak{F}(N)$$

is well defined. Start with a projective resolution $P_{\bullet} \to M$ of M and a projective resolution $R_{\bullet} \to N$ of N. In the paragraph preceding this theorem it was shown that ϕ , P_{\bullet} and R_{\bullet} uniquely determine a homomorphism

$$\phi(P_{\bullet}, R_{\bullet}) : H_n(\mathfrak{F}(P_{\bullet})) \to H_n(\mathfrak{F}(R_{\bullet})).$$

Suppose $Q_{\bullet} \to M$ is another projective resolution of M, and $S_{\bullet} \to N$ is another projective resolution of N, and

$$\phi(Q_{\bullet}, S_{\bullet}) : \mathrm{H}_n(\mathfrak{F}(Q_{\bullet})) \to \mathrm{H}_n(\mathfrak{F}(S_{\bullet}))$$

is the associated homomorphism. By the first paragraph of this proof, there are isomorphisms $\psi(P_{\bullet}, Q_{\bullet}) : H_n(\mathfrak{F}(P_{\bullet})) \cong H_n(\mathfrak{F}(Q_{\bullet}))$ and $\psi(R_{\bullet}, S_{\bullet}) : H_n(\mathfrak{F}(R_{\bullet})) \cong H_n(\mathfrak{F}(S_{\bullet}))$. To show that $L_n \mathfrak{F}(\phi)$ is well defined, it suffices to show that the square

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
H_n(\mathfrak{F}(P_{\bullet})) & \xrightarrow{\psi(P_{\bullet}, Q_{\bullet})} & H_n(\mathfrak{F}(Q_{\bullet})) \\
\phi(P_{\bullet}, R_{\bullet}) \downarrow & & \downarrow \phi(Q_{\bullet}, S_{\bullet}) \\
H_n(\mathfrak{F}(R_{\bullet})) & \xrightarrow{\psi(R_{\bullet}, S_{\bullet})} & H_n(\mathfrak{F}(S_{\bullet}))
\end{array}$$

commutes. The \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphisms in this square are uniquely determined by morphisms in the category of chain complexes which make up a square

$$P_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\alpha} Q_{\bullet}$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \delta$$

$$R_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\beta} S_{\bullet}$$

which is not necessarily commutative. Nevertheless, up to homotopy equivalence, this square is commutative. That is, by Theorem 12.1.13, $\delta \alpha \sim \beta \gamma$.

The rest of the details are left to the reader.

Theorem 12.1.20. Let

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{d_3} P_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} P_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} M \to 0$$

be a projective resolution of the R-module M. Define $K_0 = \ker \epsilon$, and for each n > 0, define $K_n = \ker d_n$. If $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is an additive covariant functor, then

$$L_{n+1} \mathfrak{F}(M) = L_{n-i} \mathfrak{F}(K_i)$$

for i = 0, ..., n - 1.

PROOF. Notice that for each $\ell > 1$

$$(1.1) \cdots \to P_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} P_n \to \cdots \xrightarrow{d_{\ell+1}} P_{\ell} \xrightarrow{d_{\ell}} K_{\ell-1} \to 0$$

is a projective resolution for $K_{\ell-1}$. Define a chain complex $P(-\ell)_{\bullet}$ by truncating P_{\bullet} and shifting the indices. That is, $P(-\ell)_i = P_{\ell+i}$ and $d(-\ell)_i = d_{\ell+i}$, for each $i \geq 0$. Using this notation, (1.1) becomes (1.2)

$$\cdots \to P(-\ell)_{n-\ell+1} \xrightarrow{d(-\ell)_{n-\ell+1}} P(-\ell)_{n-\ell} \to \cdots \xrightarrow{d(-\ell)_1} P(-\ell)_0 \xrightarrow{d(-\ell)_0} K_{\ell-1} \to 0$$

By Theorem 12.1.19 we may compute the $(n-\ell+1)$ th left derived of $K_{\ell-1}$ using the projective resolution (1.2). For $\ell \geq 1$ the sequences (1.1) and (1.2) agree, hence applying \mathfrak{F} and taking homology yields

$$L_{n-\ell+1} \mathfrak{F}(K_{\ell-1}) = L_{n+1} \mathfrak{F}(M)$$

as required.

1.7. The Long Exact Sequence.

Lemma 12.1.21. Suppose

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\sigma} B \xrightarrow{\tau} C \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence of R-modules, $P_{\bullet} \to A$ is a projective resolution of A, and $R_{\bullet} \to C$ is a projective resolution of C. Then there exists a projective resolution $Q_{\bullet} \to B$ for B and morphisms σ and τ such that

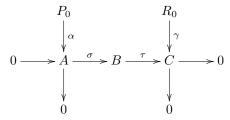
$$0 \to P_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\sigma} Q_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\tau} R_{\bullet} \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence of chain complexes. Moreover, for each $n \geq 0$ the short exact sequence

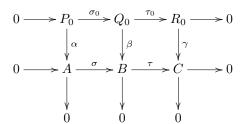
$$0 \to P_n \xrightarrow{\sigma_n} Q_n \xrightarrow{\tau_n} R_n \to 0$$

is split exact.

PROOF. Start with the diagram



where the horizontal row is exact, and P_0 and R_0 are projectives. Because R_0 is projective, there exists $\beta_2: R_0 \to B$ such that $\tau\beta_2 = \gamma$. Let $\beta_1 = \sigma\alpha$. Let $\beta: P_0 \oplus R_0 \to B$ be defined by $(x,y) \mapsto \beta_1(x) + \beta_2(y)$. Let $Q_0 = P_0 \oplus R_0$ and let σ_0 and σ_0 be the injection and projection maps. The diagram



commutes and the rows and columns are exact. The Snake Lemma (Theorem 6.6.2) says that

$$0 \to \ker \alpha \xrightarrow{\sigma} \ker \beta \xrightarrow{\tau} \ker \gamma \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence. The proof follows by induction.

Theorem 12.1.22. Suppose

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\sigma} B \xrightarrow{\tau} C \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence of R-modules and $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is an additive covariant functor.

(1) There exists a long exact sequence of left derived groups

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\tau} L_{n+1} \mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\partial} L_n \mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\sigma} L_n \mathfrak{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\tau} L_n \mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\partial} L_{n-1} \mathfrak{F}(A) \to \cdots$$
$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\partial} L_1 \mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\sigma} L_1 \mathfrak{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\tau} L_1 \mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\partial} L_0 \mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\sigma} L_0 \mathfrak{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\tau} L_0 \mathfrak{F}(C) \to 0.$$

(2) The functor $L_0 \mathfrak{F}$ is right exact.

PROOF. (1): Start with projective resolutions $P_{\bullet} \to A$ for A and $R_{\bullet} \to C$ for C. Use Lemma 12.1.21 to construct a projective resolution $Q_{\bullet} \to B$ for B and morphisms σ and τ such that

$$0 \to P_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\sigma} Q_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\tau} R_{\bullet} \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence of chain complexes. Applying the functor,

$$(1.3) 0 \to \mathfrak{F}(P_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\sigma} \mathfrak{F}(Q_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathfrak{F}(R_{\bullet}) \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence of chain complexes because for each n

$$0 \to P_n \xrightarrow{\sigma_n} Q_n \xrightarrow{\tau_n} R_n \to 0$$

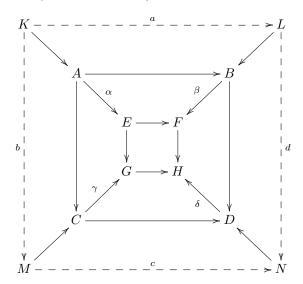
is split exact. The result follows from Theorem 12.1.10 applied to (1.3).

(2): Because the chain complex A_{\bullet} is zero in degrees i < 0, the sequence

$$L_0 \, \mathfrak{F}(A) \to L_0 \, \mathfrak{F}(B) \to L_0 \, \mathfrak{F}(C) \to 0$$

is exact. \Box

Lemma 12.1.23. (The Cube Lemma) Let



be a diagram of R-module homomorphisms. The subdiagram made up of the 8 inner vertices and 12 edges is called a cube. Let K, L, M, N be the kernels of $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ respectively. If the cube is commutative, then there exist unique homomorphisms a, b, c, d such that the overall diagram commutes.

PROOF. There is a unique $a: K \to L$ such that the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow K \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} E$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

commutes. Likewise for $b: K \to M$, $c: M \to N$, and $d: L \to N$. To finish the proof, we show that the square

$$K \xrightarrow{a} L$$

$$\downarrow b \qquad \qquad \downarrow d$$

$$M \xrightarrow{c} N$$

commutes. Look at the composite homomorphism

$$K \xrightarrow{a} L \xrightarrow{d} N \to D$$

which factors into

$$K \to A \to B \to D$$

which factors into

$$K \to A \to C \to D$$

which factors into

$$K \xrightarrow{b} M \to C \to D$$

which factors into

$$K \xrightarrow{b} M \xrightarrow{c} N \to D$$
.

Since $N \to D$ is one-to-one, this proves da = cb.

Lemma 12.1.24. Suppose

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\sigma} B \xrightarrow{\tau} C \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow a \qquad \downarrow b \qquad \downarrow c$$

$$0 \longrightarrow A' \xrightarrow{\sigma'} B' \xrightarrow{\tau'} C' \longrightarrow 0$$

is a commutative diagram of R-modules, with exact rows. Suppose we are given projective resolutions for the four corners $P_{\bullet} \to A$, $R_{\bullet} \to C$, $P'_{\bullet} \to A'$, and $R'_{\bullet} \to C'$. Then there exist projective resolutions $Q_{\bullet} \to B$ and $Q'_{\bullet} \to B'$ and morphisms such that the diagram of chain complexes

$$0 \longrightarrow P_{\bullet} \stackrel{\sigma}{\longrightarrow} Q_{\bullet} \stackrel{\tau}{\longrightarrow} R_{\bullet} \longrightarrow 0$$

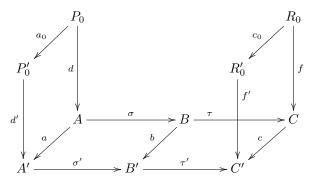
$$\downarrow^{a} \qquad \downarrow^{b} \qquad \downarrow^{c}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow P'_{\bullet} \stackrel{\sigma'}{\longrightarrow} Q'_{\bullet} \stackrel{\tau'}{\longrightarrow} R'_{\bullet} \longrightarrow 0$$

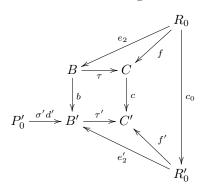
is commutative with exact rows.

PROOF. The morphisms $a: P_{\bullet} \to P'_{\bullet}$ and $c: R_{\bullet} \to R'_{\bullet}$ exist by Theorem 12.1.13. The projective resolutions $Q_{\bullet} \to B$, $Q'_{\bullet} \to B'$ and the remaining morphisms are constructed iteratively. The reader should verify the inductive step, which is similar to the basis step given below.

Start with the commutative diagram



The maps $d, d', f, f', \tau, \tau'$ are onto and σ, σ' are one-to-one. The R-modules P_0, R_0, P'_0, R'_0 are projective. Because R_0 is projective, there exists $e_2 : R_0 \to B$ such that $\tau e_2 = f$. Let $e_1 = \sigma d$. Because R'_0 is projective, there exists $e'_2 : R'_0 \to B'$ such that $\tau' e'_2 = f'$. Let $e_1 = \sigma' d'$. Consider the diagram



which is not necessarily commutative. The row $P'_0 \to B' \to C'$ is exact. By construction of e_2 and e'_2 , it follows that $\tau'(be_2 - e'_2c_0) = 0$. Since R_0 is projective, there exists $e_3: R_0 \to P'_0$ such that $\sigma'd'e_3 = be_2 - e'_2c_0$. Set $Q_0 = P_0 \oplus R_0$ and define $e: Q_0 \to B$ by $(x,y) \mapsto e_1(x) + e_2(y)$. Set $Q'_0 = P'_0 \oplus R'_0$ and define $e': Q'_0 \to B'$ by $(x,y) \mapsto e'_1(x) + e'_2(y)$. Let σ_0, σ'_0 be the injection maps and let τ_0, τ'_0 be the projection maps. The diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow P_0 \xrightarrow{\sigma_0} Q_0 \xrightarrow{\tau_0} R_0 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^d \qquad \downarrow^e \qquad \downarrow^f$$

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\sigma} B \xrightarrow{\tau} C \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes, the top row is split exact and e is onto. The diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow P'_0 \xrightarrow{\sigma'_0} Q'_0 \xrightarrow{\tau'_0} R'_0 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{d'} \qquad \downarrow^{e'} \qquad \downarrow^{f'}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow A' \xrightarrow{\sigma'} B' \xrightarrow{\tau'} C' \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes, the top row is split exact, and e' is onto. Define $b_0: Q_0 \to Q'_0$ by the assignment $(x,y) \mapsto (a_0(x) + e_3(y), c_0(y))$. The reader should verify that the

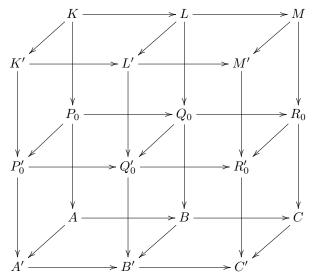
diagram

$$Q_0 \xrightarrow{b_0} Q'_0$$

$$\downarrow e \qquad \qquad \downarrow e'$$

$$R \xrightarrow{b} R'$$

commutes. Let K, L, M be the kernels of d, e, f respectively. Let K', L', M' be the kernels of d', e', f' respectively. According to Lemma 12.1.23 there are unique homomorphisms connecting the kernels to the rest of the diagram. The overall diagram



commutes, which completes the basis step. The reader should verify the inductive step and complete the proof. $\hfill\Box$

Theorem 12.1.25. In the long exact sequence of Theorem 12.1.22, the connecting homomorphisms ∂ are natural. That is, given a commutative diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\sigma} B \xrightarrow{\tau} C \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow a \qquad \downarrow b \qquad \downarrow c$$

$$0 \longrightarrow A' \xrightarrow{\sigma'} B' \xrightarrow{\tau'} C' \longrightarrow 0$$

of R-modules, with exact rows, the diagram

$$L_{n} \mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\partial} L_{n-1} \mathfrak{F}(A)$$

$$\downarrow a$$

$$L_{n} \mathfrak{F}(C') \xrightarrow{\partial} L_{n-1} \mathfrak{F}(A')$$

commutes for all $n \geq 1$.

PROOF. Use Lemma 12.1.24 to get the two short exact sequences of projective resolutions. The split exact rows remain exact after applying \mathfrak{F} . Use Theorem 12.1.11.

1.8. Exercises.

EXERCISE 12.1.26. If $\mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is an exact additive functor, then for any left R-module A, $L_{i}\mathfrak{F}(A) = 0$ for all $i \geq 1$.

EXERCISE 12.1.27. Let $\mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ be a right exact additive functor.

- (1) For any left R-module A, $L_0 \mathfrak{F}(A) = \mathfrak{F}(A)$.
- (2) For any short exact sequence of R-modules $0 \to A \to B \to C \to 0$, there is a long exact sequence of left derived groups

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\partial} L_1 \mathfrak{F}(A) \to L_1 \mathfrak{F}(B) \to L_1 \mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathfrak{F}(A) \to \mathfrak{F}(B) \to \mathfrak{F}(C) \to 0$$

EXERCISE 12.1.28. If P is a projective R-module, and $\mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is a covariant additive functor, then $L_{i}\mathfrak{F}(P) = 0$ for all $i \geq 1$.

1.9. Left Derived Groups of an Acyclic Resolution. Let $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ be a right exact covariant additive functor. We say that the left R-module C is \mathfrak{F} -acyclic in case $L_n\mathfrak{F}(C)=0$ for all $n\geq 1$. The next result says that the left derived groups $L_n\mathfrak{F}(M)$ may be computed using a resolution of M by \mathfrak{F} -acyclic modules.

THEOREM 12.1.29. Let $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ be a right exact covariant additive functor. Let M be a left R-module and $C_{\bullet} \to M \to 0$ a resolution of M by \mathfrak{F} -acyclic modules. Then

$$L_n \mathfrak{F}(M) \cong H_n(\mathfrak{F}(C_{\bullet}))$$

for all $n \geq 0$.

PROOF. If we take C_{-1} to be M and take K_j to be $\ker\{d_j: C_j \to C_{j-1}\}$, then there is a short exact sequence

$$(1.4) 0 \to K_i \to C_i \to K_{i-1} \to 0$$

for each $j \geq 0$.

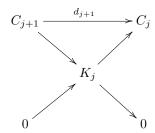
Step 1: Prove that there is an exact sequence

$$0 \to \mathrm{H}_{i+1}(\mathfrak{F}(C_{\bullet})) \to \mathfrak{F}K_i \to \mathfrak{F}C_i \to \mathfrak{F}K_{i-1} \to 0$$

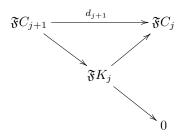
for each $j \geq 0$. Since \mathfrak{F} is right exact, (1.4) gives rise to the exact sequence

$$(1.5) 0 \to X_i \to \mathfrak{F}K_i \to \mathfrak{F}C_i \to \mathfrak{F}K_{i-1} \to 0$$

where we take X_j to be the group that makes the sequence exact. The goal is to prove $X_j \cong H_{j+1}(\mathfrak{F}(C_{\bullet}))$. The commutative diagram



gives rise to the commutative diagram



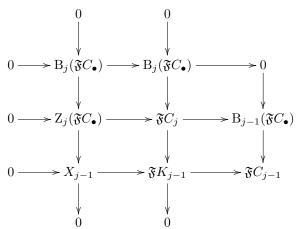
Using this and (1.5) we see that

$$B_j(\mathfrak{F}C_{\bullet}) = \operatorname{im}\{\mathfrak{F}K_j \to \mathfrak{F}C_j\} = \ker\{\mathfrak{F}C_j \to \mathfrak{F}K_{j-1}\}.$$

By Exercise 12.1.5 there is an exact sequence

$$(1.6) 0 \to \mathbf{Z}_j(\mathfrak{F}C_{\bullet}) \to \mathfrak{F}C_j \to \mathbf{B}_{j-1}(\mathfrak{F}C_{\bullet}) \to 0.$$

Combine (1.5) and (1.6) to get the commutative diagram with exact rows and columns



the first column of which shows $H_j(\mathfrak{F}C_{\bullet}) \cong X_{j-1}$ for each $j \geq 0$. The reader should verify that Step 1 did not use the fact that the modules C_j are acyclic.

Step 2: By Theorem 12.1.22, the short exact sequence (1.4) gives rise to the long exact sequence

$$(1.7) \cdots \to L_{n+1} \mathfrak{F}(C_j) \to L_{n+1} \mathfrak{F}(K_{j-1}) \xrightarrow{\partial} L_n \mathfrak{F}(K_j) \to L_n \mathfrak{F}(C_j) \to \cdots.$$

Because the modules C_i are acyclic, the boundary maps in (1.7) are isomorphisms

(1.8)
$$L_{n+1} \mathfrak{F}(K_{j-1}) \cong L_n \mathfrak{F}(K_j)$$

for all $n \ge 1$ and $j \ge 0$. Iterate (1.8) to get

$$(1.9) \ L_{n+1} \mathfrak{F}(M) = L_{n+1} \mathfrak{F}(K_{-1}) \cong L_n \mathfrak{F}(K_0) \cong L_{n-1} \mathfrak{F}(K_1) \cong \cdots \cong L_1 \mathfrak{F}(K_{n-1}).$$

When n = 0, (1.7) looks like

$$(1.10) 0 \to L_1 \mathfrak{F}(K_{j-1}) \to \mathfrak{F}K_j \to \mathfrak{F}C_j \to \mathfrak{F}K_{j-1} \to 0.$$

Comparing (1.10) and (1.9) with Step 1 we get

$$L_{j+1} \mathfrak{F}(M) \cong H_{j+1} (\mathfrak{F}C_{\bullet})$$

which finishes the proof.

1.10. Bifunctors.

DEFINITION 12.1.30. Suppose \mathfrak{A} , \mathfrak{B} , and \mathfrak{C} are categories, and $\mathfrak{F}: \mathfrak{A} \times \mathfrak{B} \to \mathfrak{C}$ is a correspondence which maps a pair of objects (A,B) to the object $\mathfrak{F}(A,B)$. Let A be an object of \mathfrak{A} and B an object of \mathfrak{B} . Denote by $\mathfrak{F}_2(A,\cdot)$ the assignment $B \mapsto \mathfrak{F}(A,B)$ which keeps the first variable fixed. Denote by $\mathfrak{F}_1(\cdot,B)$ the assignment $A \mapsto \mathfrak{F}(A,B)$ which keeps the second variable fixed. We call \mathfrak{F} a bifunctor if the following three properties are satisfied.

- (1) $\mathfrak{F}_1(\cdot, B)$ is a covariant functor from \mathfrak{A} to \mathfrak{C} , and
- (2) $\mathfrak{F}_2(A,\cdot)$ is a covariant functor from \mathfrak{B} to \mathfrak{C} .
- (3) For any pair of morphisms $\phi: A_1 \to A_2$ in $\mathfrak{A}, \psi: B_1 \to B_2$ in \mathfrak{B} , the diagram

$$\mathfrak{F}(A_1, B_1) \xrightarrow{\phi} \mathfrak{F}(A_2, B_1)$$

$$\downarrow^{\psi} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\psi}$$

$$\mathfrak{F}(A_1, B_2) \xrightarrow{\phi} \mathfrak{F}(A_2, B_2)$$

commutes in \mathfrak{C} ,

A bifunctor may also be contravariant in one or both variables, in which case the reader should make the necessary changes to the commutative square in number (3).

EXAMPLE 12.1.31. Let R be a ring. The assignment $(A, B) \mapsto A \otimes_R B$ is a bifunctor from $\mathfrak{M}_R \times_R \mathfrak{M}$ to the category of \mathbb{Z} -modules. This bifunctor is right exact covariant in each variable (Lemma 6.4.18).

EXAMPLE 12.1.32. Let R be a ring. The assignment $(A, B) \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}_R(A, B)$ is a bifunctor from ${}_R\mathfrak{M} \times {}_R\mathfrak{M}$ to the category of \mathbb{Z} -modules. If the second variable is fixed, the functor is left exact contravariant in the first variable (Proposition 6.5.5). If the first variable is fixed, the functor is left exact covariant in the second variable (Proposition 6.5.5).

Lemma 12.1.33. Let $\mathfrak{F}:\mathfrak{M}_R\times\mathfrak{M}_R\to\mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{M}$ be a bifunctor which in each variable is covariant right exact and additive. Let M be a fixed R-module. For any short exact sequence of R-modules $0\to A\to B\to C\to 0$, there is a long exact sequence of groups

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{L}_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(A,M) \to \operatorname{L}_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(B,M) \to \operatorname{L}_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(C,M) \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathfrak{F}(A,M) \to \mathfrak{F}(B,M) \to \mathfrak{F}(C,M) \to 0$$

The counterpart of this sequence is exact for the groups $L_i \mathfrak{F}_2(M,\cdot)$.

Proof. Follows straight from Exercise 12.1.27.

THEOREM 12.1.34. Let $\mathfrak{F}: \mathfrak{M}_R \times \mathfrak{M}_R \to_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathfrak{M}$ be a bifunctor which in each variable is covariant right exact and additive. Assume $L_1 \mathfrak{F}_2(P,B) = 0$ and $L_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(A,P) = 0$ for any projective module P and any modules A and B. Then the two left derived groups $L_n \mathfrak{F}_1(A,B)$ and $L_n \mathfrak{F}_2(A,B)$ are naturally isomorphic for all R-modules A and B and all $n \geq 0$.

PROOF. By Exercise 12.1.27 we know $L_0 \mathfrak{F}_1(A,B) = \mathfrak{F}(A,B) = L_0 \mathfrak{F}_2(A,B)$. Let $P_{\bullet} \to A \to 0$ be a projective resolution for A and $Q_{\bullet} \to B \to 0$ a projective resolution for B. Define P_{-1} to be A and K_j to be $\ker\{d_j: P_j \to P_{j-1}\}$. Define Q_{-1} to be B and L_j to be $\ker\{d_j: Q_j \to Q_{j-1}\}$.

For each pair (i, j), consider the two short exact sequences

$$(1.11) 0 \to K_i \to P_i \to K_{i-1} \to 0$$

$$(1.12) 0 \to L_j \to Q_j \to L_{j-1} \to 0$$

To sequence (1.11) apply Lemma 12.1.33 three times to to get three exact sequences

$$\begin{split} & \operatorname{L}_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(P_i, L_j) \to \operatorname{L}_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{i-1}, L_j) \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathfrak{F}(K_i, L_j) \xrightarrow{\alpha} \mathfrak{F}(P_i, L_j) \to \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1}, L_j) \to 0 \\ & \operatorname{L}_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(P_i, Q_j) \to \operatorname{L}_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{i-1}, Q_j) \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathfrak{F}(K_i, Q_j) \xrightarrow{\beta} \mathfrak{F}(P_i, Q_j) \to \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1}, Q_j) \to 0 \\ & \operatorname{L}_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(P_i, L_{j-1}) \to \operatorname{L}_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{i-1}, L_{j-1}) \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathfrak{F}(K_i, L_{j-1}) \xrightarrow{\gamma} \mathfrak{F}(P_i, L_{j-1}) \to \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1}, L_{j-1}) \to 0 \\ & \operatorname{By} \text{ assumption } \operatorname{L}_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{i-1}, Q_j) = 0 \text{ because } Q_j \text{ is projective, hence } \beta \text{ is one-to-one. By Exercise } 12.1.28, \operatorname{L}_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(P_i, L_j) = 0 \text{ and } \operatorname{L}_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(P_i, L_{j-1}) = 0 \text{ because } P_i \text{ is projective.} \end{split}$$

To sequence (1.12) apply Lemma 12.1.33 three times to to get three exact sequences

$$\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{L}_1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(K_i,Q_j) \to \operatorname{L}_1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(K_i,L_{j-1}) \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathfrak{F}(K_i,L_j) \xrightarrow{\sigma} \mathfrak{F}(K_i,Q_j) \to \mathfrak{F}(K_i,L_{j-1}) \to 0 \\ \operatorname{L}_1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(P_i,Q_j) \to \operatorname{L}_1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(P_i,L_{j-1}) \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathfrak{F}(P_i,L_j) \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathfrak{F}(P_i,Q_j) \to \mathfrak{F}(P_i,L_{j-1}) \to 0 \\ \operatorname{L}_1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(K_{i-1},Q_j) \to \operatorname{L}_1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(K_{i-1},L_{j-1}) \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1},L_j) \xrightarrow{\rho} \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1},Q_j) \to \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1},L_{j-1}) \to 0 \\ \operatorname{By} \, \operatorname{assumption} \, \operatorname{L}_1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(P_i,L_{j-1}) = 0 \, \operatorname{because} \, P_i \, \operatorname{is} \, \operatorname{projective, \, hence} \, \tau \, \operatorname{is} \, \operatorname{one-to-one.} \\ \operatorname{By} \, \operatorname{Exercise} \, 12.1.28, \, \operatorname{L}_1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(K_i,Q_j) = 0 \, \operatorname{and} \, \operatorname{L}_1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(K_{i-1},Q_j) = 0 \, \operatorname{because} \, Q_j \, \operatorname{is} \end{array}$$

commutes, where the three rows and three columns are the exact sequences from above. Apply the Snake Lemma (Theorem 6.6.2) to see that

(1.13)
$$L_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{i-1}, L_{j-1}) \cong L_1 \mathfrak{F}_2(K_{i-1}, L_{j-1})$$

Since β and τ are one-to-one it follows that

(1.14)
$$L_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{i-1}, L_j) = L_1 \mathfrak{F}_2(K_i, L_{j-1})$$

Combine (1.14) and (1.13) to get

projective. The diagram

$$L_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{i-1}, L_j) \cong L_1 \mathfrak{F}_2(K_i, L_{j-1}) \cong L_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(K_i, L_{j-1})$$

Iterate this n times to get (1.15)

$$L_1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(A, L_{n-1}) \cong L_1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{-1}, L_{n-1}) \cong L_1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{n-1}, L_{-1}) \cong L_1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{n-1}, B)$$

Combine (1.15) with (1.13) and Theorem 12.1.20 to get

$$L_{n+1} \mathfrak{F}_1(A,B) \cong L_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{n-1},B)$$
 (by Theorem 12.1.20)

$$\cong L_1 \mathfrak{F}_1(A, L_{n-1})$$
 (1.15)

$$\cong L_1 \mathfrak{F}_2(A, L_{n-1}) \qquad (1.13)$$

$$\cong L_{n+1} \mathfrak{F}_2(A, B)$$
 (by Theorem 12.1.20)

2. Cohomology Group Functors

2.1. Cochain Complexes. A cochain complex in ${}_R\mathfrak{M}$ is a sequence of R-modules $\{A^i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ and homomorphisms $d^i : A^i \to A^{i+1}$ such that $d^{i+1}d^i = 0$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. The maps d^i are called the coboundary maps. The notation A^{\bullet} denotes a cochain complex. If it is important to reference the coboundary maps, we will write $(A^{\bullet}, d^{\bullet})$. If the modules A^i are specified for some range $n_0 \leq i \leq n_1$, then it is understood that $A_i = 0$ for $i < n_0$ or $i > n_1$. Let A^{\bullet} and B^{\bullet} be cochain complexes. A morphism of cochain complexes is a sequence of homomorphisms $f = \{f^i : A^i \to B^i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ such that for each i the diagram

$$A^{i-1} \xrightarrow{d^{i-1}} A^{i} \xrightarrow{d^{i}} A^{i+1}$$

$$\downarrow^{f^{i-1}} \qquad \downarrow^{f^{i}} \qquad \downarrow^{f^{i-1}}$$

$$B^{i-1} \xrightarrow{d^{i-1}} B^{i} \xrightarrow{d^{i}} B^{i+1}$$

commutes. In this case we write $f: A^{\bullet} \to B^{\bullet}$. The reader should verify that the collection of all cochain complexes over R together with morphisms is a category. In some of the exercises listed below the reader is asked to verify many of the important features of this category.

Suppose A^{\bullet} is a cochain complex and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Elements of A^n are called *n*-cochains. The module A^n contains the two submodules

$$B^n(A^{\bullet}) = \operatorname{im} d^{n-1}$$
, and $Z^n(A^{\bullet}) = \ker d^n$.

Elements of $B^n(A^{\bullet})$ are called *n*-coboundaries. Elements of $Z^n(A^{\bullet})$ are called *n*-cocycles. The condition $d^{i-1}d^i=0$ translates into $B^n(A^{\bullet})\subseteq Z^n(A^{\bullet})$. The *n*th cohomology module of A^{\bullet} is defined to be the quotient

$$\operatorname{H}^{n}(A^{\bullet}) = \operatorname{Z}^{n}(A^{\bullet}) / \operatorname{B}^{n}(A^{\bullet}) = \ker d^{n} / \operatorname{im} d^{n-1}.$$

Example 12.2.1. (1) A short exact sequence $0 \to A^0 \to A^1 \to A^2 \to 0$ is a cochain complex. It is understood that the sequence is extended with 0 terms.

(2) If M is an R-module, then an injective resolution

$$0 \to M \to E^0 \to E^1 \to E^2 \to \cdots$$

of M is a cochain complex (see Exercise 6.7.16). It is understood that the sequence is extended with 0 terms.

- (3) If A^{\bullet} is a cochain complex, the reader should verify that the following are equivalent
 - (a) $H^n(A^{\bullet}) = 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
 - (b) A^{\bullet} is an exact sequence.

EXAMPLE 12.2.2. As in Example 12.1.2, if A^{\bullet} is a cochain complex, and $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is a covariant additive functor, then $\mathfrak{F}(A^{\bullet})$ is a cochain complex. If A_{\bullet} is a chain complex, and $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is a contravariant additive functor, then $\mathfrak{F}(A_{\bullet})$ is a cochain complex.

Lemma 12.2.3. Let n be an arbitrary integer.

(1) If $f: A^{\bullet} \to B^{\bullet}$ is a morphism of cochain complexes, then the assignment

$$z + B^n(A^{\bullet}) \mapsto f^n(z) + B^n(B^{\bullet})$$

defines an R-module homomorphism

$$H^n(f): H^n(A^{\bullet}) \to H^n(B^{\bullet}).$$

(2) The assignment $A^{\bullet} \mapsto H^{n}(A^{\bullet})$ defines a functor from the category of cochain complexes to the category of R-modules.

PROOF. Use Lemma 12.1.3. The details are left to the reader.

2.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 12.2.4. For the category of cochain complexes, the reader should give appropriate definitions for the following terminology.

- (1) The kernel of a morphism.
- (2) The cokernel of a morphism.
- (3) The *image* of a morphism.
- (4) A *subcochain complex* of a cochain complex and the *quotient* of a cochain complex modulo a subcochain complex.
- (5) monomorphism, epimorphism, and isomorphism.
- (6) short exact sequence.

EXERCISE 12.2.5. Let A^{\bullet} be a cochain complex. For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ there are short exact sequences of R-modules.

- (1) $0 \to B^n(A^{\bullet}) \to Z^n(A^{\bullet}) \to H^n(A^{\bullet}) \to 0$
- $(2) \ 0 \to \mathbf{Z}^n(A^{\bullet}) \to A^n \to \mathbf{B}^{n+1}(A^{\bullet}) \to 0$
- $(3) \ 0 \to \operatorname{H}^{n}(A^{\bullet}) \to A^{n}/\operatorname{B}^{n}(A^{\bullet}) \to \operatorname{B}^{n+1}(A^{\bullet}) \to 0$

EXERCISE 12.2.6. Let A^{\bullet} be a cochain complex. For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ there is an exact sequence of R-modules.

$$0 \to \operatorname{H}^n(A^{\bullet}) \to A^n/\operatorname{B}^n(A^{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{d^n} \operatorname{Z}^{n+1}(A^{\bullet}) \to \operatorname{H}^{n+1}(A^{\bullet}) \to 0$$

EXERCISE 12.2.7. Let \mathfrak{F} be an exact covariant functor from ${}_R\mathfrak{M}$ to ${}_\mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{M}$. If A^{\bullet} is a cochain complex, then $\mathfrak{F}(\mathrm{H}^n(A^{\bullet})) \cong \mathrm{H}^n(\mathfrak{F}(A^{\bullet}))$.

EXERCISE 12.2.8. Let J be an index set and $\{(A_j)^{\bullet} \mid j \in J\}$ a collection of cochain complexes.

(1) Show that

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\oplus d^{n-1}} \bigoplus_{j \in J} (A_j)^n \xrightarrow{\oplus d^n} \bigoplus_{j \in J} (A_j)^{n+1} \xrightarrow{\oplus d^{n+1}} \cdots$$

is a cochain complex, which is called the *direct sum cochain complex*.

(2) Show that cohomology commutes with a direct sum. That is

$$\mathrm{H}^n \left(\bigoplus_{j \in J} (A_j)^{\bullet} \right) \cong \bigoplus_{j \in J} \mathrm{H}^n \left((A_j)^{\bullet} \right).$$

EXERCISE 12.2.9. Let $\{(A_j)^{\bullet}, \phi_j^i\}$ be a directed system of cochain complexes for a directed index set I.

(1) Show that

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\vec{d}^{n-1}} \varinjlim (A_j)^n \xrightarrow{\vec{d}^n} \varinjlim (A_j)^{n+1} \xrightarrow{\vec{d}^{n+1}} \cdots$$

is a cochain complex, which is called the direct limit cochain complex.

(2) Show that cohomology commutes with a direct limit. That is

$$\operatorname{H}^n\left(\varinjlim(A_j)^{\bullet}\right) \cong \varinjlim \operatorname{H}^n\left((A_j)^{\bullet}\right).$$

2.3. The long exact sequence of cohomology.

Theorem 12.2.10. Let

$$0 \to A^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f} B^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{g} C^{\bullet} \to 0$$

be an exact sequence of cochain complexes. Then there is a long exact sequence of cohomology modules

$$\cdots \to \mathrm{H}^n(A^\bullet) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{H}(f)} \mathrm{H}^n(B^\bullet) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{H}(g)} \mathrm{H}^n(C^\bullet) \xrightarrow{\delta^n} \mathrm{H}^{n+1}(A^\bullet) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{H}(f)} \mathrm{H}^{n+1}(B^\bullet) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{H}(g)} \cdots$$

PROOF. Use Theorem 12.1.10. The details are left to the reader.

THEOREM 12.2.11. In the context of Theorem 12.2.10, the connecting homomorphism $\delta^n: H^n(C^{\bullet}) \to H^{n+1}(A^{\bullet})$ is natural. More specifically, if

$$0 \longrightarrow A^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f} B^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{g} C^{\bullet} \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\chi} \qquad \downarrow^{\rho} \qquad \downarrow^{\sigma}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow D^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\phi} E^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\psi} F^{\bullet} \longrightarrow 0$$

is a commutative diagram of cochain complexes with exact rows, then there is a commutative diagram

$$H^{n}(A^{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{H(f)} H^{n}(B^{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{H(g)} H^{n}(C^{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\delta^{n}} H^{n+1}(A^{\bullet})$$

$$\downarrow^{H(\chi)} \qquad \downarrow^{H(\rho)} \qquad \downarrow^{H(\sigma)} \qquad \downarrow^{H(\chi)}$$

$$H^{n}(D^{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{H(\phi)} H^{n}(E^{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{H(\psi)} H^{n}(F^{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\delta^{n}} H^{n+1}(D^{\bullet})$$

with exact rows for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

PROOF. Use Theorem 12.1.11. The details are left to the reader. \Box

2.4. Homotopy Equivalence. Let A^{\bullet} and B^{\bullet} be cochain complexes. By $\operatorname{Hom}(A^{\bullet}, B^{\bullet})$ we denote the set of all morphisms $f: A^{\bullet} \to B^{\bullet}$. For each $i \in \mathbb{Z}$, $f^i: A^i \to B^i$ is an R-module homomorphism. We can turn $\operatorname{Hom}(A^{\bullet}, B^{\bullet})$ into a \mathbb{Z} -module. Two morphisms $f, g \in \operatorname{Hom}(A^{\bullet}, B^{\bullet})$ are said to be homotopic if there exists a sequence of R-module homomorphisms $\{k^i: A^i \to B^{i-1} \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ such that $f^n - g^n = d^{n-1}k^n + k^{n+1}d^n$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If f and g are homotopic, then we write $f \sim g$ and the sequence $\{k^i\}$ is called a homotopy operator. The reader should verify that homotopy equivalence is an equivalence relation on $\operatorname{Hom}(A^{\bullet}, B^{\bullet})$.

THEOREM 12.2.12. Let A^{\bullet} and B^{\bullet} be cochain complexes. For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the functor $H^n()$ is constant on homotopy equivalence classes. In other words, if f and g are homotopic in $\text{Hom}(A^{\bullet}, B^{\bullet})$, then H(f) is equal to H(g) in $\text{Hom}_R(H^n(A^{\bullet}), H^n(B^{\bullet}))$.

PROOF. Use Theorem 12.1.12. The details are left to the reader. \Box

Theorem 12.2.13. Consider the diagram of R-modules

$$0 \longrightarrow M \xrightarrow{\epsilon} X^0 \xrightarrow{d^0} X^1 \xrightarrow{d^1} X^2 \xrightarrow{d^2} \cdots$$

$$\downarrow^f \qquad |\exists f^0 \qquad |\exists f^1 \qquad |\exists f^2 \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad$$

in which the following are satisfied.

- (A) The top row is an exact sequence.
- (B) The second row is a cochain complex and each Y_i is an injective R-module. Then the following are true.
 - (1) There exists a morphism $f: X^{\bullet} \to Y^{\bullet}$ which commutes with f on the augmented cochain complexes. That is, $f^{0}\epsilon = \varphi f$.
 - (2) The morphism f is unique up to homotopy equivalence.

PROOF. (1): The morphism f is constructed recursively. To construct f^0 , consider the diagram

with top row exact. Since Y^0 is injective, there exists $f^0: X^0 \to Y^0$ such that $\varphi f = f^0 \epsilon$.

To construct f^1 , start with the commutative diagram

$$M \xrightarrow{\epsilon} X^0 \xrightarrow{d^0} X^1$$

$$\downarrow f \qquad \downarrow f^0 \qquad \mid \exists f^1$$

$$V \xrightarrow{\varphi} V^0 \xrightarrow{d^0} Y^1$$

The top row is exact, the bottom row is a cochain complex. Because $d^0f^0\epsilon = d^0\varphi f = 0$, it follows that $\ker(d^0) = \operatorname{im}(\epsilon) \subseteq \ker(d^0f^0)$. Consider the diagram

with top row exact. Since Y^1 is injective, there exists $f^1:X^1\to Y^1$ such that $d^0f^0=f^1d^0$.

Recursively construct f^{n+1} using f^n and f^{n-1} . Start with the commutative diagram

$$X^{n-1} \xrightarrow{d^{n-1}} X^n \xrightarrow{d^n} X^{n+1}$$

$$\downarrow f^{n-1} \qquad \downarrow f^n \qquad \qquad |\exists f^{n+1}$$

$$Y^{n-1} \xrightarrow{d^{n-1}} Y^n \xrightarrow{d^n} Y^{n+1}$$

The top row is exact, the bottom row is a cochain complex. Since the diagram commutes, $d^n f^n d^{n-1} = d^n d^{n-1} f^{n-1} = 0$. It follows that $\ker(d^n) = \operatorname{im}(d^{n-1}) \subseteq$

 $\ker(d^n f^n)$. Consider the diagram

with top row exact. Since Y^{n+1} is injective, there exists $f^{n+1}: X^{n+1} \to Y^{n+1}$ such that $d^n f^n = f^{n+1} d^n$. This proves Part (1).

(2): Assume that $g: X^{\bullet} \to Y^{\bullet}$ is another morphism such that $g^{0} \epsilon = \varphi f$. We construct a homotopy operator $\{k^{i}: X^{i} \to Y^{i-1}\}$ recursively. Start by setting $k^{i} = 0$ for all $i \leq 0$.

To construct k^1 , start with the commutative diagram

$$M \xrightarrow{\epsilon} X^{0} \xrightarrow{d^{0}} X^{1}$$

$$f \downarrow \qquad f^{0} - g^{0} \downarrow \qquad \exists k^{1}$$

$$N \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y^{0}$$

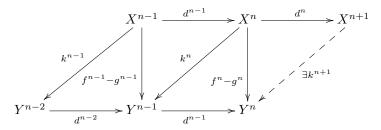
in which the top row is exact. Because $f^0 \epsilon = g^0 \epsilon = \varphi f$, it follows that $\operatorname{im}(\epsilon) = \ker(d^0) \subseteq \ker(f^0 - g^0)$. Consider the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow X^0 / \ker (d^0) \xrightarrow{d^0} X^1$$

$$f^0 - g^0 \bigvee_{Y^0} \bigvee_{\exists k^1}$$

in which the top row is exact. Since Y^0 is injective, there exists $k^1:X^1\to Y^0$ such that $k^1d^0=f_0-g_0$.

Recursively construct k^{n+1} using k^{n-1} and k^n . Start with the commutative diagram



The top row is exact, the bottom row is a cochain complex. Since

$$(f^n - g^n)d^{n-1} = d^{n-1}(f^{n-1} - g^{n-1}) = d^{n-1}(k^nd^{n-1} + d^{n-2}k^{n-1}) = d^{n-1}k^nd^{n-1}$$

it follows that $\ker(d^n) = \operatorname{im}(d^{n-1}) \subseteq \ker(f^n - g^n - d^{n-1}k^n)$. Consider the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow X^{n}/\ker\left(d^{n}\right) \xrightarrow{d^{n}} X^{n+1}$$

$$f^{n}-g^{n}-d^{n-1}k^{n} \bigvee_{Y^{n}} A^{n+1}$$

in which the top row is exact. Since Y^n is injective, there exists $k^{n+1}: X^{n+1} \to Y^n$ such that $k^{n+1}d^n = f^n - q^n - d^{n-1}k^n$. This proves Part (2).

2.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 12.2.14. Suppose f and g are homotopic morphisms from A^{\bullet} to B^{\bullet} and \mathfrak{F} is an additive covariant functor on R-modules. Prove that $\mathfrak{F}(f)$ and $\mathfrak{F}(g)$ are homotopic morphisms from $\mathfrak{F}(A^{\bullet})$ to $\mathfrak{F}(B^{\bullet})$.

EXERCISE 12.2.15. Suppose f and g are homotopic morphisms from A_{\bullet} to B_{\bullet} and \mathfrak{F} is an additive contravariant functor on R-modules. Prove that $\mathfrak{F}(f)$ and $\mathfrak{F}(g)$ are homotopic morphisms from $\mathfrak{F}(B_{\bullet})$ to $\mathfrak{F}(A_{\bullet})$.

2.6. Right Derived Functors. The right derived functors are defined by taking cohomology groups of cochain complexes. The situation for right derived functors is different than that for left derived functors. For right derived functors we consider both covariant and contravariant functors.

2.6.1. Covariant Functors. Let $\mathfrak{F}:_R\mathfrak{M}\to_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ be an additive covariant functor. To \mathfrak{F} we associate a sequence of functors $R^n\mathfrak{F}:_R\mathfrak{M}\to_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$, one for each $n\geq 0$, called the right derived functors of \mathfrak{F} . For any left R-module M, if $0\to M\to I^\bullet$ is an injective resolution of M, define $R^n\mathfrak{F}(M)$ to be the nth cohomology group of the cochain complex $\mathfrak{F}(I^\bullet)$. In Theorem 12.2.16, we show that this definition does not depend on the choice of I^\bullet . Given any R-module homomorphism $\phi:M\to N$, let $M\to I^\bullet$ be an injective resolution of M and $N\to J^\bullet$ an injective resolution of N. According to Theorem 12.2.13 there is an induced morphism of cochain complexes $\phi:I^\bullet\to J^\bullet$ which is unique up to homotopy equivalence. Applying the functor \mathfrak{F} , we get a morphism of cochain complexes $\mathfrak{F}(\phi):\mathfrak{F}(I^\bullet)\to\mathfrak{F}(J^\bullet)$. According to Exercise 12.2.14, this morphism preserves the homotopy class of $\phi:I^\bullet\to J^\bullet$. This morphism induces a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism $R^n\mathfrak{F}(\phi):R^n\mathfrak{F}(M)\to R^n\mathfrak{F}(N)$ for each n. In Theorem 12.2.16, we show that this definition does not depend on the choice of I^\bullet and J^\bullet .

THEOREM 12.2.16. Let $\mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ be an additive covariant functor. For each $n \geq 0$ there is an additive covariant functor $R^n \mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$.

PROOF. First we show that the definition of right derived functors does not depend on the choice of injective resolution. Let M be an R-module and suppose we are given two injective resolutions $M \to I^{\bullet}$ and $M \to J^{\bullet}$. Starting with the identity map $1: M \to M$, apply Theorem 12.2.13 (1) from both directions to get morphisms $f: I^{\bullet} \to J^{\bullet}$ and $g: J^{\bullet} \to I^{\bullet}$. Theorem 12.2.13 (2) (from both directions) says $fg \sim 1$ and $gf \sim 1$. By Exercise 12.2.14, $\mathfrak{F}(fg) \sim 1$ and $\mathfrak{F}(gf) \sim 1$. In conclusion, there is an isomorphism

$$\psi(I^{\bullet}, J^{\bullet}) : \mathrm{H}^{n}(\mathfrak{F}(I^{\bullet})) \cong \mathrm{H}^{n}(\mathfrak{F}(J^{\bullet}))$$

which is uniquely determined by the module M and the two resolutions I^{\bullet} and J^{\bullet} . The inverse function is $\psi(J^{\bullet}, I^{\bullet})$.

Secondly, suppose $\phi: M \to N$ is any R-module homomorphism. We show that

$$R^n \mathfrak{F}(\phi) : R^n \mathfrak{F}(M) \to R^n \mathfrak{F}(N)$$

is well defined. Start with an injective resolution $M \to I^{\bullet}$ of M and an injective resolution $N \to K^{\bullet}$ of N. In the paragraph preceding this theorem it was shown

that ϕ , I^{\bullet} and K^{\bullet} uniquely determine a homomorphism

$$\phi(I^{\bullet}, K^{\bullet}) : \mathrm{H}^n(\mathfrak{F}(I^{\bullet})) \to \mathrm{H}^n(\mathfrak{F}(K^{\bullet})).$$

Suppose $M \to J^{\bullet}$ is another injective resolution of M, and $N \to L^{\bullet}$ is another injective resolution of N, and

$$\phi(J^{\bullet}, L^{\bullet}) : \mathrm{H}^{n}(\mathfrak{F}(J^{\bullet})) \to \mathrm{H}^{n}(\mathfrak{F}(L^{\bullet}))$$

is the associated homomorphism. By the first paragraph of this proof, there are isomorphisms $\psi(I^{\bullet}, J^{\bullet}) : H^{n}(\mathfrak{F}(I^{\bullet})) \cong H^{n}(\mathfrak{F}(J^{\bullet}))$ and $\psi(K^{\bullet}, L^{\bullet}) : H^{n}(\mathfrak{F}(K^{\bullet})) \cong H^{n}(\mathfrak{F}(L^{\bullet}))$. To show that $R^{n}\mathfrak{F}(\phi)$ is well defined, it suffices to show that the square

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
H^{n}(\mathfrak{F}(I^{\bullet})) & \xrightarrow{\psi(I^{\bullet},J^{\bullet})} & H^{n}(\mathfrak{F}(J^{\bullet})) \\
\downarrow^{\phi(I^{\bullet},K^{\bullet})} & & \downarrow^{\phi(J^{\bullet},L^{\bullet})} \\
H^{n}(\mathfrak{F}(K^{\bullet})) & \xrightarrow{\psi(K^{\bullet},L^{\bullet})} & H^{n}(\mathfrak{F}(L^{\bullet}))
\end{array}$$

commutes. The \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphisms in this square are uniquely determined by morphisms in the category of cochain complexes which make up a square

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
I^{\bullet} & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & J^{\bullet} \\
\uparrow & & \downarrow \delta \\
K^{\bullet} & \xrightarrow{\beta} & L^{\bullet}
\end{array}$$

which is not necessarily commutative. Nevertheless, up to homotopy equivalence, this square is commutative. That is, by Theorem 12.2.13, $\delta \alpha \sim \beta \gamma$.

The rest of the details are left to the reader.

THEOREM 12.2.17. Let

$$0 \to M \xrightarrow{\epsilon} I^0 \xrightarrow{d^0} I^1 \xrightarrow{d^1} I^2 \xrightarrow{d^2} \cdots$$

be an injective resolution of the R-module M. Define $K^n = \ker d^n$, for each $n \geq 0$. If $\mathfrak{F}: {}_{\mathbb{R}}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is an additive covariant functor, then

$$R^n \mathfrak{F}(M) = R^{n-i} \mathfrak{F}(K^i)$$

for 0 < i < n.

PROOF. Suppose $0 \le \ell < n$. Notice that

$$(2.1) 0 \to K^{\ell} \to I^{\ell} \xrightarrow{d^{\ell}} I^{\ell+1} \xrightarrow{d^{\ell+1}} \cdots \to I^{n} \xrightarrow{d^{n}} I^{n+1} \to \cdots$$

is an injective resolution for K^{ℓ} . Define a cochain complex $I(-\ell)^{\bullet}$ by truncating I^{\bullet} and shifting the indices. That is, $I(-\ell)^i = I^{\ell+i}$ and $d(-\ell)^i = d^{\ell+i}$, for each $i \geq 0$. Using this notation, (2.1) becomes

$$0 \to K^{\ell} \to I(-\ell)^0 \xrightarrow{d(-\ell)^0} I(-\ell)^1 \xrightarrow{d(-\ell)^1} \cdots \to I(-\ell)^{n-\ell} \xrightarrow{d(-\ell)^{n-\ell}} I(-\ell)^{n-\ell+1} \to \cdots$$

By Theorem 12.2.16 we may compute the $(n-\ell)$ th right derived of K^{ℓ} using the injective resolution (2.2). The sequences (2.1) and (2.2) agree if we ignore the indexes. Applying \mathfrak{F} and taking cohomology yields

$$R^{n-\ell} \mathfrak{F}(K^{\ell}) = R^n \mathfrak{F}(M)$$

as required. \Box

2.6.2. Contravariant Functors. Let $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ be an additive contravariant functor. To \mathfrak{F} we associate a sequence of contravariant functors $\mathrm{R}^n \mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$, one for each $n \geq 0$, called the *right derived functors* of \mathfrak{F} . For any left R-module M, if

$$\cdots \rightarrow P_3 \xrightarrow{d_3} P_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} P_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} M \rightarrow 0$$

is a projective resolution of M, define $\mathbb{R}^n \, \mathfrak{F}(M)$ to be the nth cohomology group of the cochain complex

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}P_0 \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}d_1} \mathfrak{F}P_1 \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}d_2} \mathfrak{F}P_2 \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}d_3} \mathfrak{F}P_3 \to \cdots.$$

That is,

$$R^n \mathfrak{F}(M) = \ker(\mathfrak{F}d_{n+1})/\operatorname{im}(\mathfrak{F}d_n)$$

where the indices are shifted because the contravariant functor reversed the arrows. As in the proof of Theorem 12.1.19, this definition does not depend on the choice of P_{\bullet} . Given any R-module homomorphism $\phi: M \to N$, let $P_{\bullet} \to M$ be a projective resolution of M and $Q_{\bullet} \to N$ a projective resolution of N. According to Theorem 12.1.13 there is an induced morphism of chain complexes $\phi: P_{\bullet} \to Q_{\bullet}$ which is unique up to homotopy equivalence. Applying the functor \mathfrak{F} , we get a morphism of cochain complexes $\mathfrak{F}(\phi): \mathfrak{F}(Q_{\bullet}) \to \mathfrak{F}(P_{\bullet})$. According to Exercise 12.2.15, this morphism preserves the homotopy class of $\phi: P_{\bullet} \to Q_{\bullet}$. This morphism induces a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism $\mathbb{R}^n \, \mathfrak{F}(\phi): \mathbb{R}^n \, \mathfrak{F}(N) \to \mathbb{R}^n \, \mathfrak{F}(M)$ for each n. As in the proof of Theorem 12.1.19, this definition does not depend on the choice of P_{\bullet} and Q_{\bullet} .

THEOREM 12.2.18. Let $\mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ be an additive contravariant functor. For each $n \geq 0$ there is an additive contravariant functor $R^n \mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$.

PROOF. Use Theorem 12.1.19. The details are left to the reader. \Box

THEOREM 12.2.19. Let

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{d_3} P_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} P_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} M \to 0$$

be a projective resolution of the R-module M. Define $K_0 = \ker \epsilon$, and for each n > 0, define $K_n = \ker d_n$. If $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is an additive contravariant functor, then

$$R^n \mathfrak{F}(M) = R^{n-i} \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1})$$

for $0 \le i < n$.

PROOF. Suppose $0 < \ell \le n$. Notice that

$$(2.3) \cdots \to P_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} P_n \to \cdots \xrightarrow{d_{\ell+1}} P_\ell \xrightarrow{d_\ell} K_{\ell-1} \to 0$$

is a projective resolution for $K_{\ell-1}$. Define a chain complex $P(-\ell)_{\bullet}$ by truncating P_{\bullet} and shifting the indices. That is, $P(-\ell)_i = P_{\ell+i}$ and $d(-\ell)_i = d_{\ell+i}$, for each $i \geq 0$. Using this notation, (2.3) becomes (2.4)

$$\cdots \to P(-\ell)_{n-\ell+1} \xrightarrow{d(-\ell)_{n-\ell+1}} P(-\ell)_{n-\ell} \to \cdots \xrightarrow{d(-\ell)_1} P(-\ell)_0 \xrightarrow{d(-\ell)_0} K_{\ell-1} \to 0$$

By Theorem 12.2.18, we may compute the $(n - \ell)$ th right derived group of $K_{\ell-1}$ using the projective resolution (2.4). The sequences (2.3) and (2.4) agree if we ignore the indexes. Applying \mathfrak{F} and taking cohomology yields

$$R^{n-\ell} \mathfrak{F}(K_{\ell-1}) = R^n \mathfrak{F}(M)$$

as required.

2.7. The Long Exact Sequence.

Lemma 12.2.20. Suppose

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\sigma} B \xrightarrow{\tau} C \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence of R-modules, $A \to I^{\bullet}$ is an injective resolution of A, and $C \to K^{\bullet}$ is an injective resolution of C. Then there exists an injective resolution $B \to J^{\bullet}$ for B and morphisms σ and τ such that

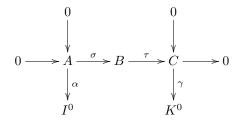
$$0 \to I^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\sigma} J^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\tau} K^{\bullet} \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence of cochain complexes. Moreover, for each $n \ge 0$ the short exact sequence

$$0 \to I^n \xrightarrow{\sigma_n} J^n \xrightarrow{\tau_n} K^n \to 0$$

is split exact.

PROOF. Start with the diagram



where the horizontal row is exact, and I^0 and K^0 are injectives. Because I^0 is injective, there exists $\beta^1: B \to I^0$ such that $\beta^1 \sigma = \alpha$. Let $\beta^2 = \gamma \tau$. Let $\beta: B \to I^0 \oplus K^0$ be defined by $x \mapsto (\beta^1(x), \beta^2(x))$. Let $J^0 = I^0 \oplus K^0$ and let σ^0 and τ^0 be the injection and projection maps. The diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\sigma} B \xrightarrow{\tau} C \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha} \qquad \downarrow^{\beta} \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow I^{0} \xrightarrow{\sigma^{0}} J^{0} \xrightarrow{\tau^{0}} K^{0} \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes and the rows are exact. Since α and γ are one-to-one and the diagram commutes, β is one-to-one. The Snake Lemma (Theorem 6.6.2) says that

$$0 \to \operatorname{coker} \alpha \xrightarrow{\sigma} \operatorname{coker} \beta \xrightarrow{\tau} \operatorname{coker} \gamma \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence. The proof follows by induction.

THEOREM 12.2.21. Suppose

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\sigma} B \xrightarrow{\tau} C \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence of R-modules and $\mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is an additive functor.

(1) If \mathfrak{F} is covariant, then there exists a long exact sequence of right derived groups

$$0 \to \mathbf{R}^{0} \,\mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\sigma} \mathbf{R}^{0} \,\mathfrak{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathbf{R}^{0} \,\mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\delta^{0}} \mathbf{R}^{1} \,\mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\sigma} \mathbf{R}^{1} \,\mathfrak{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathbf{R}^{1} \,\mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\delta^{1}} \cdots$$
$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathbf{R}^{n-1} \,\mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\delta^{n-1}} \mathbf{R}^{n} \,\mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\sigma} \mathbf{R}^{n} \,\mathfrak{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathbf{R}^{n} \,\mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\delta^{n}} \mathbf{R}^{n+1} \,\mathfrak{F}(A) \to \cdots$$

(2) If \mathfrak{F} is contravariant, then there exists a long exact sequence of right derived groups

$$0 \to \mathbf{R}^{0} \, \mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathbf{R}^{0} \, \mathfrak{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\sigma} \mathbf{R}^{0} \, \mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\delta^{0}} \mathbf{R}^{1} \, \mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathbf{R}^{1} \, \mathfrak{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\sigma} \mathbf{R}^{1} \, \mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\delta^{1}} \cdots$$
$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\sigma} \mathbf{R}^{n-1} \, \mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\delta^{n-1}} \mathbf{R}^{n} \, \mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathbf{R}^{n} \, \mathfrak{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\sigma} \mathbf{R}^{n} \, \mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\delta^{n}} \mathbf{R}^{n+1} \, \mathfrak{F}(C) \to \cdots$$

(3) The either case, the functor $R^0 \mathfrak{F}$ is left exact.

PROOF. (1): Start with injective resolutions $A \to I^{\bullet}$ for A and $C \to K^{\bullet}$ for C. Use Lemma 12.2.20 to construct an injective resolution $B \to J^{\bullet}$ for B and morphisms σ and τ such that

$$0 \to I^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\sigma} J^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\tau} K^{\bullet} \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence of cochain complexes. Applying the functor,

$$(2.5) 0 \to \mathfrak{F}(I^{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\sigma} \mathfrak{F}(J^{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathfrak{F}(K^{\bullet}) \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence of cochain complexes because for each n

$$0 \to I^n \xrightarrow{\sigma_n} J^n \xrightarrow{\tau_n} K^n \to 0$$

is split exact. The result follows from Theorem 12.2.10 applied to (2.5).

(2): Start with projective resolutions $P_{\bullet} \to A$ for A and $R_{\bullet} \to C$ for C. Use Lemma 12.1.21 to construct a projective resolution $Q_{\bullet} \to B$ for B and morphisms σ and τ such that

$$0 \to P_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\sigma} Q_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\tau} R_{\bullet} \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence of chain complexes. Applying the functor,

$$(2.6) 0 \to \mathfrak{F}(R_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\sigma} \mathfrak{F}(Q_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathfrak{F}(P_{\bullet}) \to 0$$

is a short exact sequence of cochain complexes because for each n

$$0 \to P_n \xrightarrow{\sigma_n} Q_n \xrightarrow{\tau_n} R_n \to 0$$

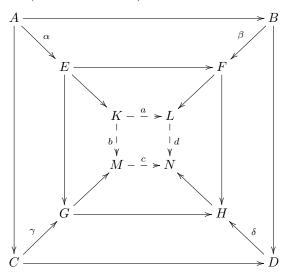
is split exact. The result follows from Theorem 12.2.10 applied to (2.6).

(3): This follows from Theorem 12.2.10. The cochain complex A^{\bullet} is zero in degrees i < 0, hence the sequence

$$0 \to \mathbb{R}^0 \, \mathfrak{F}(A) \to \mathbb{R}^0 \, \mathfrak{F}(B) \to \mathbb{R}^0 \, \mathfrak{F}(C)$$

is exact. \Box

Lemma 12.2.22. (The Cube Lemma) Let



be a diagram of R-module homomorphisms. Let K, L, M, N be the cokernels of $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ respectively. If the outer cube is commutative, then there exist unique homomorphisms a, b, c, d such that the overall diagram commutes.

PROOF. There is a unique $a: K \to L$ such that the diagram

$$A \xrightarrow{\alpha} E \longrightarrow K \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$B \xrightarrow{\beta} F \longrightarrow L \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes. Likewise for $b:K\to M,\ c:M\to N,$ and $d:L\to N.$ To finish the proof, we show that the square

$$K \xrightarrow{a} L$$

$$\downarrow b \qquad \qquad \downarrow d$$

$$M \xrightarrow{c} N$$

commutes. Look at the composite homomorphism

$$E \to K \xrightarrow{a} L \xrightarrow{d} N$$

which factors into

$$E \to F \to L \xrightarrow{d} N$$

which factors into

$$E \to F \to H \to N$$

which factors into

$$E \to G \to H \to N$$

which factors into

$$E \to G \to M \xrightarrow{c} N$$

which factors into

$$E \to K \xrightarrow{b} M \xrightarrow{c} N.$$

Since $E \to K$ is onto, this proves da = cb.

Lemma 12.2.23. Suppose

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\sigma} B \xrightarrow{\tau} C \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow a \qquad \qquad \downarrow b \qquad \qquad \downarrow c$$

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\sigma_{\tau}} B \xrightarrow{\tau_{\tau}} C \xrightarrow{\tau_{\tau}} C \longrightarrow 0$$

is a commutative diagram of R-modules, with exact rows. Suppose we are given injective resolutions for the four corners $A \to I^{\bullet}$, $C \to K^{\bullet}$, $A_{\iota} \to I_{\iota}^{\bullet}$, and $C_{\iota} \to K_{\iota}^{\bullet}$. Then there exist injective resolutions $B \to J^{\bullet}$ and $B' \to J_{\iota}^{\bullet}$ and morphisms such that the diagram of cochain complexes

$$0 \longrightarrow I^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\sigma} J^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\tau} K^{\bullet} \longrightarrow 0$$

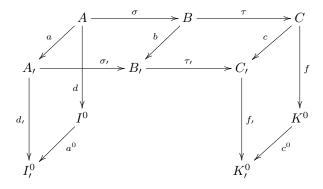
$$\downarrow a \qquad \qquad \downarrow b \qquad \qquad \downarrow c$$

$$0 \longrightarrow I_{\bullet}^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\sigma_{i}} J_{\bullet}^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\tau_{i}} K_{\bullet}^{\bullet} \longrightarrow 0$$

is commutative with exact rows.

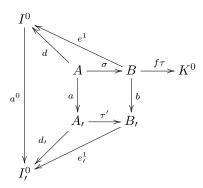
PROOF. The morphisms $a:I^{\bullet}\to I_{l}^{\bullet}$ and $c:K^{\bullet}\to K_{l}^{\bullet}$ exist by Theorem 12.2.13. The injective resolutions $B\to J^{\bullet}$, $B_{l}\to J_{l}^{\bullet}$ and the remaining morphisms are constructed iteratively. The reader should verify the inductive step, which is similar to the basis step given below.

Start with the commutative diagram



The maps $d, d_{\prime}, f, f_{\prime}, \sigma, \sigma_{\prime}$ are one-to-one and τ, τ_{\prime} are onto. The R-modules $I^{0}, K^{0}, I^{0}_{\prime}, K^{0}_{\prime}$ are injective. Because I^{0} is injective, there exists $e^{1}: B \to I^{0}$ such that $e^{1}\sigma = d$. Let $e^{2} = f\tau$. Because I^{0}_{\prime} is injective, there exists $e^{1}_{\prime}: B_{\prime} \to I^{0}_{\prime}$ such that $e^{1}\sigma_{\prime} = d_{\prime}$.

Let $e_{\prime}^2 = f_{\prime} \tau_{\prime}$. The diagram



is not necessarily commutative. The row $A \to B \to K^0$ is exact. Notice that

$$(a^0e^1 - e_t^1b)\sigma = a^0d - e_t^1\tau_t a$$
$$= a^0d - d_t a$$
$$= 0$$

so $(a^0e^1-e^1_rb):B/A\to I^0_r$ is well defined. Since I^0_r is injective, there exists $e^3:K^0\to I^0_r$ such that $e^3f\tau=a^0e^1-e^1_rb$. Set $J^0=I^0\oplus K^0$ and define $e:B\to J^0$ by $x\mapsto (e^1(x),e^2(x))$. Set $J^0=I^0_r\oplus K^0_r$ and define $e_r:B_r\to J^0_r$ by $x\mapsto (e^1_r(x),e^2_r(y))$. Let σ^0,σ^0_r be the injection maps and let τ^0,τ^0_r be the projection maps. The diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\sigma} B \xrightarrow{\tau} C \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{d} \qquad \downarrow^{e} \qquad \downarrow^{f}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow I^{0} \xrightarrow{\sigma^{0}} J^{0} \xrightarrow{\tau^{0}} K^{0} \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes, the top row is split exact and e is one-to-one. The diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow A_{\prime} \xrightarrow{\sigma_{\prime}} B_{\prime} \xrightarrow{\tau_{\prime}} C_{\prime} \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{d_{\prime}} \qquad \downarrow^{e_{\prime}} \qquad \downarrow^{f_{\prime}}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow I_{\prime}^{0} \xrightarrow{\sigma_{\prime}^{0}} J_{\prime}^{0} \xrightarrow{\tau_{\prime}^{0}} K_{\prime}^{0} \longrightarrow 0$$

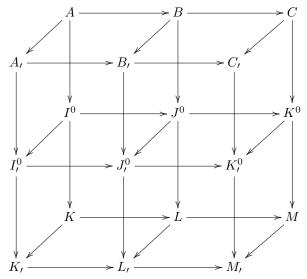
commutes, the top row is split exact, and e_i is one-to-one. Define $b^0: J^0 \to J_i^0$ by the assignment $(x,y) \mapsto (a^0(x) - e^3(y), c^0(y))$. The reader should verify that the diagram

$$B \xrightarrow{b} B_{t}$$

$$\downarrow e_{t}$$

commutes. Let K, L, M be the cokernels of d, e, f respectively. Let K_l, L_l, M_l be the cokernels of d_l, e_l, f_l respectively. According to Lemma 12.2.22 there are unique homomorphisms connecting the cokernels to the rest of the diagram. The overall

diagram



commutes, which completes the basis step. The reader should verify the inductive step and complete the proof. $\hfill\Box$

Theorem 12.2.24. In the long exact sequence of Theorem 12.2.21, the connecting homomorphisms δ are natural. That is, given a commutative diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\sigma} B \xrightarrow{\tau} C \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow a \qquad \qquad \downarrow b \qquad \qquad \downarrow c$$

$$0 \longrightarrow A_{I} \xrightarrow{\sigma_{I}} B_{I} \xrightarrow{\tau_{I}} C_{I} \longrightarrow 0$$

of R-modules, with exact rows the following are true.

(1) If \mathfrak{F} is covariant, the diagram

$$R^{n}\mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\delta^{n}} R^{n+1}\mathfrak{F}(A)$$

$$\downarrow c \qquad \qquad \downarrow a$$

$$R^{n}\mathfrak{F}(C_{\prime}) \xrightarrow{\delta^{n}} R^{n+1}\mathfrak{F}(A_{\prime})$$

commutes for all $n \geq 0$.

(2) If \mathfrak{F} is contravariant, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
R^{n} \mathfrak{F}(A) & \xrightarrow{\delta^{n}} & R^{n+1} \mathfrak{F}(C) \\
\downarrow c & & \downarrow a \\
R^{n} \mathfrak{F}(A_{\ell}) & \xrightarrow{\delta^{n}} & R^{n+1} \mathfrak{F}(C_{\ell})
\end{array}$$

commutes for all $n \geq 0$.

PROOF. (1): Use Lemma 12.2.23 to get the two short exact sequences of injective resolutions. The split exact rows remain exact after applying \mathfrak{F} . Use Theorem 12.2.11.

(2) Use Lemma 12.1.24 to get the two short exact sequences of projective resolutions. The split exact rows remain exact after applying \mathfrak{F} . Use Theorem 12.2.11. \square

2.8. Exercises.

EXERCISE 12.2.25. If $\mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is an exact covariant functor, then for any left R-module A, $\mathrm{R}^{i}\mathfrak{F}(A) = 0$ for all $i \geq 1$.

EXERCISE 12.2.26. If $\mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is an exact contravariant functor, then for any left R-module A, $R^{i}\mathfrak{F}(A) = 0$ for all $i \geq 1$.

EXERCISE 12.2.27. Let $\mathfrak{F}: {}_{R}\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ be a left exact covariant functor.

- (1) For any left R-module A, $R^0 \mathfrak{F}(A) = \mathfrak{F}(A)$.
- (2) For any short exact sequence of R-modules $0 \to A \to B \to C \to 0$, there is a long exact sequence of cohomology groups

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}(A) \to \mathfrak{F}(B) \to \mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\delta^0} \mathrm{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}(A) \to \mathrm{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}(B) \to \mathrm{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\delta^1} \cdots$$

EXERCISE 12.2.28. Let $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ be a left exact contravariant functor.

- (1) For any left R-module A, $R^0 \mathfrak{F}(A) = \mathfrak{F}(A)$.
- (2) For any short exact sequence of R-modules $0 \to A \to B \to C \to 0$, there is a long exact sequence of cohomology groups

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}(C) \to \mathfrak{F}(B) \to \mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\delta^0} R^1 \mathfrak{F}(C) \to R^1 \mathfrak{F}(B) \to R^1 \mathfrak{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\delta^1} \cdots$$

EXERCISE 12.2.29. If E is an injective R-module, and $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is a covariant functor, then $\mathrm{R}^i\mathfrak{F}(E)=0$ for all $i\geq 1$.

EXERCISE 12.2.30. If P is a projective R-module, and $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is a contravariant functor, then $\mathrm{R}^i\mathfrak{F}(P)=0$ for all $i\geq 1$.

2.9. Right Derived Groups of an Acyclic Resolution. Let $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to \mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{M}$ be a left exact additive functor. We say that the left R-module C is \mathfrak{F} -acyclic in case $R^n\mathfrak{F}(C) = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$. Theorem 12.2.31 says that the right derived groups $R^n\mathfrak{F}(M)$ may be computed using a resolution of M by \mathfrak{F} -acyclic modules.

Theorem 12.2.31. Let M be a left R-module and $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ a left exact functor.

(1) If $\mathfrak F$ is covariant and $0\to M\to C^\bullet$ is a resolution of M by $\mathfrak F$ -acyclic modules, then

$$R^n \mathfrak{F}(M) \cong H^n(\mathfrak{F}(C^{\bullet}))$$

for all $n \geq 0$.

(2) If \mathfrak{F} is contravariant and $C_{\bullet} \to M \to 0$ is a resolution of M by \mathfrak{F} -acyclic modules, then

$$R^n \mathfrak{F}(M) \cong H^n(\mathfrak{F}(C_{\bullet}))$$

for all $n \geq 0$.

PROOF. (1): Define K^j to be $\ker\{d^j:C^j\to C^{j+1}\}$, then $K^0=M$ and there is a short exact sequence

$$(2.7) 0 \to K^j \to C^j \to K^{j+1} \to 0$$

for each $j \geq 0$.

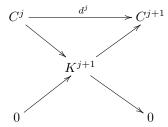
Step 1: There is an exact sequence

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}K^j \to \mathfrak{F}C^j \to \mathfrak{F}K^{j+1} \to \mathrm{H}^{j+1}(\mathfrak{F}(C_{\bullet})) \to 0$$

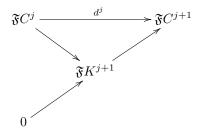
for each $j \geq 0$. Since \mathfrak{F} is left exact, (2.7) gives rise to the exact sequence

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}K^j \to \mathfrak{F}C^j \to \mathfrak{F}K^{j+1} \to X^j \to 0$$

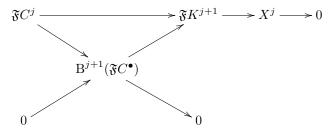
where we take X^j to be the group that makes the sequence exact. The goal is to prove $X^j \cong H^{j+1}(\mathfrak{F}(C^{\bullet}))$. Apply the left exact functor \mathfrak{F} to the exact sequence $0 \to K^j \to C^j \to C^{j+1}$ to get the exact sequence $0 \to \mathfrak{F}K^j \to \mathfrak{F}C^j \to \mathfrak{F}C^{j+1}$. This shows $\mathfrak{F}K^j = Z^j(\mathfrak{F}C^{\bullet})$ for all $j \geq 0$. The commutative diagram



gives rise to the commutative diagram



Using this we see that $B^j(\mathfrak{F}C^{\bullet}) \subseteq \operatorname{im}\{\mathfrak{F}K^{j+1} \to \mathfrak{F}C^{j+1}\}$. Therefore the diagram



commutes. But $\mathfrak{F}K^{j+1} = \mathbf{Z}^{j+1}(\mathfrak{F}C^{\bullet})$, which shows $X^{j} \cong \mathbf{H}^{j+1}(\mathfrak{F}C^{\bullet})$ for each $j \geq 0$. The reader should verify that Step 1 did not use the fact that the modules C^{j} are acyclic.

Step 2: By Theorem 12.2.21, the short exact sequence (2.7) gives rise to the long exact sequence

$$(2.8) \qquad \cdots \to \mathbf{R}^n \, \mathfrak{F}(C^j) \to \mathbf{R}^n \, \mathfrak{F}(K^{j+1}) \xrightarrow{\delta^n} \mathbf{R}^{n+1} \, \mathfrak{F}(K^j) \to \mathbf{R}^{n+1} \, \mathfrak{F}(C^j) \to \cdots.$$

Because the modules C^j are acyclic, the connecting homomorphisms in (2.8) are isomorphisms

(2.9)
$$R^{n} \mathfrak{F}(K^{j+1}) \cong R^{n+1} \mathfrak{F}(K^{j})$$

for all $n \ge 1$ and $j \ge 0$. Iterate (2.9) to get

$$(2.10) \quad \mathbf{R}^{n+1} \, \mathfrak{F}(M) = \mathbf{R}^{n+1} \, \mathfrak{F}(K^0) \cong \mathbf{R}^n \, \mathfrak{F}(K^1) \cong \mathbf{R}^{n-1} \, \mathfrak{F}(K^2) \cong \cdots \cong \mathbf{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}(K^n).$$

When n = 0, (2.8) looks like

$$(2.11) 0 \to \mathfrak{F}K^j \to \mathfrak{F}C^j \to \mathfrak{F}K^{j+1} \xrightarrow{\delta^0} \mathbf{R}^1 \mathfrak{F}K^j \to 0.$$

Comparing (2.11) and (2.10) with Step 1 we get

$$R^{j+1} \mathfrak{F}(M) \cong H^{j+1} (\mathfrak{F}C^{\bullet})$$

which finishes the proof of Part (1).

(2): Assume \mathfrak{F} is contravariant and

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{d_3} C_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} C_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} C_0 \to M \to 0$$

is a long exact sequence of R-modules. Define C_{-1} to be M and take K_j to be $\ker\{d_j:C_j\to C_{j-1}\}$. There are short exact sequences

$$(2.12) 0 \to K_i \to C_i \to K_{i-1} \to 0,$$

one for each $j \geq 0$.

Step 1: There is an exact sequence

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}K_{i-1} \to \mathfrak{F}C_i \to \mathfrak{F}K_i \to \mathrm{H}^{j+1}(\mathfrak{F}(C_{\bullet})) \to 0$$

for each $j \geq 0$. Since \mathfrak{F} is left exact, (2.12) gives rise to the exact sequence

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}K_{i-1} \to \mathfrak{F}C_i \to \mathfrak{F}K_i \to X^j \to 0$$

where we take X_j to be the group that makes the sequence exact. The goal is to prove $X^j \cong H^{j+1}(\mathfrak{F}(C_{\bullet}))$. Apply the left exact contravariant functor \mathfrak{F} to the exact sequence

$$C_{j+1} \xrightarrow{d_{j+1}} C_j \xrightarrow{d_j} K_{j-1} \to 0$$

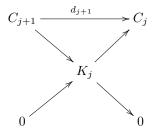
to get the exact sequence

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}K_{j-1} \to \mathfrak{F}C_j \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}d_{j+1}} \mathfrak{F}C_{j+1}.$$

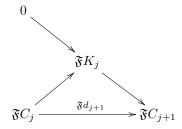
This shows

$$\mathfrak{F}K_{i-1} = \ker(\mathfrak{F}d_{i+1}) = \mathbf{Z}^j(\mathfrak{F}C_{\bullet})$$

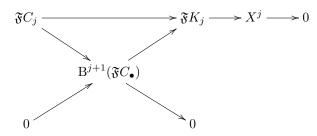
for all $j \geq 0$. The commutative diagram



gives rise to the commutative diagram



Using this we see that $\operatorname{im}(\mathfrak{F}d_{j+1}) = B^{j+1}(\mathfrak{F}C_{\bullet}) \subseteq \operatorname{im}\{\mathfrak{F}K_j \to \mathfrak{F}C_{j+1}\} = Z^{j+1}(\mathfrak{F}C_{\bullet}).$ Therefore the diagram



commutes. But $\mathfrak{F}K^j = \mathbf{Z}^{j+1}(\mathfrak{F}C_{\bullet})$, which shows $X^j \cong \mathbf{H}^{j+1}(\mathfrak{F}C_{\bullet})$ for each $j \geq 0$. The reader should verify that Step 1 did not use the fact that the modules C_j are acyclic.

Step 2: By Theorem 12.2.21, the short exact sequence (2.12) gives rise to the long exact sequence

$$(2.13) \qquad \cdots \to \mathbf{R}^n \, \mathfrak{F}(C_j) \to \mathbf{R}^n \, \mathfrak{F}(K_j) \xrightarrow{\delta^n} \mathbf{R}^{n+1} \, \mathfrak{F}(K_{j-1}) \to \mathbf{R}^{n+1} \, \mathfrak{F}(C_j) \to \cdots.$$

Because the modules C^j are acyclic, the connecting homomorphisms δ^n are isomorphisms

(2.14)
$$R^{n} \mathfrak{F}(K_{i}) \cong R^{n+1} \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1})$$

for all $n \ge 1$ and $j \ge 0$. Iterate (2.14) to get (2.15)

$$R^{n+1}\mathfrak{F}(M) = R^{n+1}\mathfrak{F}(K_{-1}) \cong R^n\mathfrak{F}(K_0) \cong R^{n-1}\mathfrak{F}(K_1) \cong \cdots \cong R^1\mathfrak{F}(K_{n-1}).$$

When n = 0, (2.13) looks like

$$(2.16) 0 \to \mathfrak{F}K_{j-1} \to \mathfrak{F}C_j \to \mathfrak{F}K_j \xrightarrow{\delta^0} \mathbf{R}^1 \mathfrak{F}K_{j-1} \to 0.$$

Comparing (2.16) and (2.15) with the exact sequence of Step 1 we get

$$R^{j+1}\mathfrak{F}(M) \cong H^{j+1}(\mathfrak{F}C_{\bullet})$$

which finishes the proof of Part (2).

2.10. Bifunctors. The reader is referred to Definition 12.1.30 for the definition of a bifunctor. In this section we restrict our attention to a bifunctor $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \times {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ which is left exact contravariant in the first variable and left exact covariant in the second variable.

LEMMA 12.2.32. Let M be a fixed R-module. Suppose $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \times {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is a bifunctor such that $\mathfrak{F}_1(\cdot,M)$ is left exact contravariant and $\mathfrak{F}_2(M,\cdot)$ is left exact covariant. For any short exact sequence of R-modules $0 \to A \to B \to C \to 0$, there are long exact sequences of groups

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}(C,M) \to \mathfrak{F}(B,M) \to \mathfrak{F}(A,M) \xrightarrow{\delta^0}$$

$$R^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(C,M) \to R^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(B,M) \to R^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(A,M) \xrightarrow{\delta^1} \cdots$$

and

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}(M,A) \to \mathfrak{F}(M,B) \to \mathfrak{F}(M,C) \xrightarrow{\delta^0}$$

$$\mathrm{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(M,A) \to \mathrm{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(M,B) \to \mathrm{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(M,C) \xrightarrow{\delta^1} \cdots.$$

PROOF. Follows straight from Exercises 12.2.27 and Exercises 12.2.28. \Box

THEOREM 12.2.33. Suppose $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \times {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ is a bifunctor which satisfies the following.

- (1) For any R-module M, $\mathfrak{F}_1(\cdot, M)$ is left exact contravariant and $R^1 \mathfrak{F}_1(M, I) = 0$ for any injective R-module I.
- (2) For any R-module M, $\mathfrak{F}_2(M,\cdot)$ is left exact covariant and $R^1 \mathfrak{F}_2(P,M) = 0$ for any projective R-module P.

Then the two right derived groups $R^n \mathfrak{F}_1(A, B)$ and $R^n \mathfrak{F}_2(A, B)$ are naturally isomorphic for all R-modules A and B and all $n \geq 0$.

PROOF. By Exercises 12.2.27 and Exercises 12.2.28, we know $\mathbb{R}^0 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(A,B) = \mathfrak{F}(A,B) = \mathbb{R}^0 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(A,B)$. Let $P_{\bullet} \to A \to 0$ be a projective resolution for A and $0 \to B \to Q^{\bullet}$ an injective resolution for B. Define P_{-1} to be A and K_j to be $\operatorname{ker}\{d_j: P_j \to P_{j-1}\}$. Define L^j to be $\operatorname{ker}\{d^j: Q^j \to Q^{j+1}\}$. For each pair (i,j), consider the two short exact sequences

$$(2.17) 0 \to K_i \to P_i \to K_{i-1} \to 0$$

$$(2.18) 0 \to L^j \to Q^j \to L^{j+1} \to 0$$

To sequence (2.17) apply Lemma 12.2.32 three times to get three exact sequences

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1}, L^j) \to \mathfrak{F}(P_i, L^j) \xrightarrow{\alpha} \mathfrak{F}(K_i, L^j) \xrightarrow{\delta} \mathbf{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{i-1}, L^j) \to \mathbf{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(P_i, L^j)$$

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1}, Q^j) \to \mathfrak{F}(P_i, Q^j) \xrightarrow{\beta} \mathfrak{F}(K_i, Q^j) \xrightarrow{\delta} \mathbf{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{i-1}, Q^j) \to \mathbf{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(P_i, Q^j)$$

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1}, L^{j+1}) \to \mathfrak{F}(P_i, L^{j+1}) \xrightarrow{\gamma} \mathfrak{F}(K_i, L^{j+1}) \xrightarrow{\delta} \mathbf{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{i-1}, L^{j+1}) \to \mathbf{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(P_i, L^{j+1})$$

By assumption, $\mathrm{R}^1\mathfrak{F}_1(K_{i-1},Q^j)=0$ because Q^j is injective, hence β is onto. By Exercise 12.2.30, $\mathrm{R}^1\mathfrak{F}_1(P_i,L^j)=\mathrm{R}^1\mathfrak{F}_1(P_i,L^{j+1})=0$ because P_i is projective. To sequence (2.18) apply Lemma 12.2.32 three times to get three exact sequences

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1}, L^j) \to \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1}, Q^j) \xrightarrow{\rho} \mathfrak{F}(K_{i-1}, L^{j+1}) \xrightarrow{\delta} R^1 \mathfrak{F}_2(K_{i-1}, L^j) \to R^1 \mathfrak{F}_2(K_{i-1}, Q^j)$$

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}(P_i, L^j) \to \mathfrak{F}(P_i, Q^j) \xrightarrow{\sigma} \mathfrak{F}(P_i, L^{j+1}) \xrightarrow{\delta} R^1 \mathfrak{F}_2(P_i, L^j) \to R^1 \mathfrak{F}_2(P_i, Q^j)$$

$$0 \to \mathfrak{F}(K_i, L^j) \to \mathfrak{F}(K_i, Q^j) \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathfrak{F}(K_i, L^{j+1}) \xrightarrow{\delta} R^1 \mathfrak{F}_2(K_i, L^j) \to R^1 \mathfrak{F}_2(K_i, Q^j)$$

By assumption $R^1 \mathfrak{F}_2(P_i, L^j) = 0$ because P_i is projective, hence σ is onto. By Exercise 12.2.29, $R^1 \mathfrak{F}_2(K_i, Q^j) = R^1 \mathfrak{F}_2(K_{i-1}, Q^j) = 0$ because Q^j is injective.

The diagram

commutes, where the three rows and three columns are the exact sequences from above. Apply the Snake Lemma (Theorem 6.6.2) to see that

(2.19)
$$R^{1}\mathfrak{F}_{2}(K_{i-1},L^{j}) \cong R^{1}\mathfrak{F}_{1}(K_{i-1},L^{j}).$$

Since β and σ are onto, it follows that

(2.20)
$$R^{1} \mathfrak{F}_{2}(K_{i}, L^{j}) = R^{1} \mathfrak{F}_{1}(K_{i-1}, L^{j+1}).$$

Combine (2.20) and (2.19) to get

$$R^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{i-1}, L^{j+1}) \cong R^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(K_i, L^j) \cong R^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(K_i, L^j).$$

Iterate this n times to get

(2.21)

$$\hat{\mathbf{g}}_{1}(A, L^{n-1}) \cong \mathbf{R}^{1} \, \mathfrak{F}_{1}(K_{-1}, L^{n-1}) \cong \mathbf{R}^{1} \, \mathfrak{F}_{1}(K_{n-2}, L^{0}) \cong \mathbf{R}^{1} \, \mathfrak{F}_{1}(K_{n-2}, B).$$

Combine (2.21), (2.19), Theorem 12.2.17, and Theorem 12.2.19 to get

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{R}^n \, \mathfrak{F}_2(A,B) &\cong \mathbf{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_2(A,L^{n-1}) \quad \text{(Theorem 12.2.17)} \\ &\cong \mathbf{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(A,L^{n-1}) \quad \text{(2.19)} \\ &\cong \mathbf{R}^1 \, \mathfrak{F}_1(K_{n-2},B) \quad \text{(2.21)} \\ &\cong \mathbf{R}^n \, \mathfrak{F}_1(A,B) \quad \text{(Theorem 12.2.19)}. \end{split}$$

3. Introduction to Tor and Ext Groups

3.1. Introduction to Tor groups. Throughout this section, R is an arbitrary ring. Let A be a right R-module and B a left R-module. The assignment $(A,B)\mapsto A\otimes_R B$ is a bifunctor $\mathfrak{T}:\mathfrak{M}_R\times_R\mathfrak{M}\to_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ which is covariant, additive (Exercise 12.1.16), and right exact (Lemma 6.4.18) in both variables. If P is a projective right R-module, then $\mathfrak{T}_2(P,\cdot)$ is an exact functor (Exercise 6.4.31). By Exercise 12.1.26, $L_n \mathfrak{T}_2(P,B) = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$ and all B. Likewise, if Q is a projective left R-module, then $L_n \mathfrak{T}_1(A,Q) = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$ and all A.

Definition 12.3.1. For $n \ge 0$ define

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(A,B) = \operatorname{L}_n \mathfrak{T}_1(A,B) \cong \operatorname{L}_n \mathfrak{T}_2(A,B)$$

where the last isomorphism is due to Theorem 12.1.34. More specifically, if $P_{\bullet} \to A$ is a projective resolution for A and $Q_{\bullet} \to B$ is a projective resolution for B, then

$$\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(A, B) = \operatorname{H}_{n}(P_{\bullet} \otimes_{R} B)$$
$$= \operatorname{H}_{n}(A \otimes_{R} Q_{\bullet}).$$

Lemma 12.3.2. Let M be a right R-module and N a left R-module.

- (1) If M is flat or N is flat, then $\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,N) = 0$ for all $n \ge 1$.
- (2) If $0 \to A \to B \to C \to 0$ is a short exact sequence of left R-modules, then

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,A) \to \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,B) \to \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,C) \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{Tor}_{n-1}^R(M,A) \to \cdots$$
$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M,C) \xrightarrow{\partial} M \otimes_R A \to M \otimes_R B \to M \otimes_R C \to 0$$

is a long exact sequence of abelian groups.

(3) If $0 \to A \to B \to C \to 0$ is a short exact sequence of right R-modules,

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(A,N) \to \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(B,N) \to \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(C,N) \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{Tor}_{n-1}^R(A,N) \to \cdots$$
$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(C,N) \xrightarrow{\partial} A \otimes_R N \to B \otimes_R N \to C \otimes_R N \to 0$$

is a long exact sequence of abelian groups.

(4) If $C_{\bullet} \to M \to 0$ is a resolution of M by flat R-modules C_i and if $D_{\bullet} \to M$ $N \to 0$ is a resolution of N by flat R-modules D_i , then

$$\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N) = \operatorname{H}_{n}(C_{\bullet} \otimes_{R} N)$$
$$= \operatorname{H}_{n}(M \otimes_{R} D_{\bullet}).$$

- (5) For all $n \geq 0$, $\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,N) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_n^{R^o}(N,M)$. (6) For a fixed M, if $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M,N) = 0$ for all N, then M is flat.
- (7) If I is an index set and $\{M_i\}$ is a collection of right R-modules, then

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n^R \left(\bigoplus_i M_i, N \right) \cong \bigoplus_i \operatorname{Tor}_n^R (M_i, N)$$

for all $n \geq 0$.

(8) If I is a directed index set and $\{M_i\}$ is a directed system of right Rmodules, then

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(\underline{\lim} M_i, N) \cong \underline{\lim} \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M_i, N)$$

for all n > 0.

PROOF. (1): Tensoring with a flat R-module defines an exact functor. This follows from Exercise 12.1.26.

- (2) and (3): Follow straight from Exercise 12.1.27.
- (4): By Part (1) flat modules are acyclic for the tensor functor. This follows from Theorem 12.1.29.
 - (5): Start with a projective resolution $P_{\bullet} \to M$ and use Lemma 6.4.16 to show

$$H_n(P_{\bullet} \otimes_R N) \cong H_n(N \otimes_{R^o} P_{\bullet}).$$

- (6): Follows from Part (2).
- (7): Let $0 \to K \to P \to N \to 0$ be a short exact sequence, where P is projective. By Part (1) $\operatorname{Tor}_n(X,P) = 0$ for all X and for all $n \geq 1$. By Part (2), for each $i \in I$ there is a long exact sequence

$$(3.1) \quad 0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^{R}(M_{i}, N) \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M_{i}, K) \to 0 \to \cdots$$

$$\cdots \to 0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M_{i}, N) \xrightarrow{\partial} M_{i} \otimes_{R} K \to M_{i} \otimes_{R} P \to M \otimes_{R} N \to 0$$

Another long exact sequence is

$$(3.2) \quad 0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^{R} \left(\bigoplus_{i} M_{i}, N \right) \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R} \left(\bigoplus_{i} M_{i}, K \right) \to 0 \to \cdots$$

$$\cdots \to 0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R} \left(\bigoplus_{i} M_{i}, N \right) \xrightarrow{\partial} \bigoplus_{i} M_{i} \otimes_{R} K \to \bigoplus_{i} M_{i} \otimes_{R} P \to \bigoplus_{i} M_{i} \otimes_{R} N \to 0.$$

Take direct sums of (3.1) and combine with (3.2). In degrees one and zero, we get the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{i} \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M_{i}, N) \stackrel{\partial}{\longrightarrow} \bigoplus_{i} \left(M_{i} \otimes_{R} K \right) \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{i} \left(M_{i} \otimes_{R} P \right)$$

$$\downarrow^{\gamma} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\beta}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R} \left(\bigoplus_{i} M_{i}, N \right) \stackrel{\partial}{\longrightarrow} \bigoplus_{i} M_{i} \otimes_{R} K \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{i} M_{i} \otimes_{R} P$$

which is commutative and has exact rows. By Lemma 6.4.15, α and β are isomorphisms. Therefore γ is an isomorphism. In degrees n+1 and n, we get the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{i} \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^{R}(M_{i}, N) \xrightarrow{\partial} \bigoplus_{i} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M_{i}, K) \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\gamma} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^{R} \left(\bigoplus_{i} M_{i}, N\right) \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R} \left(\bigoplus_{i} M_{i}, K\right) \longrightarrow 0$$

which is commutative and has exact rows. By induction on n we assume α is an isomorphism. Therefore γ is an isomorphism.

(8): Use the same notation as in the proof of Part (7). Another long exact sequence is

$$(3.3) \quad 0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^{R} \left(\varinjlim M_{i}, N \right) \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R} \left(\varinjlim M_{i}, K \right) \to 0 \to \cdots$$

$$\cdots \to 0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R} \left(\varinjlim M_{i}, N \right) \xrightarrow{\partial} \lim_{n \to \infty} M_{i} \otimes_{R} K \to \lim_{n \to \infty} M_{i} \otimes_{R} P \to \lim_{n \to \infty} M_{i} \otimes_{R} N \to 0.$$

Take direct limits of (3.1) and combine with (3.3). By Theorem 6.8.6, in degrees one and zero, we get the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow \varinjlim \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M_{i}, N) \xrightarrow{\partial} \varinjlim \left(M_{i} \otimes_{R} K\right) \longrightarrow \varinjlim \left(M_{i} \otimes_{R} P\right)$$

$$\downarrow^{\gamma} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\beta}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}\left(\varinjlim M_{i}, N\right) \xrightarrow{\partial} \varinjlim M_{i} \otimes_{R} K \longrightarrow \varinjlim M_{i} \otimes_{R} P$$

which is commutative and has exact rows. By Corollary 6.8.10, α and β are isomorphisms. Therefore γ is an isomorphism. In degrees n+1 and n, we get the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow \varinjlim \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^{R}(M_{i}, N) \xrightarrow{\partial} \varinjlim \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M_{i}, K) \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\gamma} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^{R}(\varinjlim M_{i}, N) \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(\varinjlim M_{i}, K) \longrightarrow 0$$

which is commutative and has exact rows. By induction on n we assume α is an isomorphism. Therefore γ is an isomorphism.

Lemma 12.3.3. Let R be any ring and M a left R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M is a flat R-module.
- (2) For every right ideal I of R, $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(R/I, M) = 0$.
- (3) For every finitely generated right ideal I of R, $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(R/I, M) = 0$.
- (4) For every right R-module N, $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(N, M) = 0$.
- (5) For every finitely generated right R-module N, $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(N, M) = 0$.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

Lemma 12.3.4. Let R be a commutative ring and M and N two R-modules.

- (1) $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N)$ is an R-module.
- (2) $\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,N) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(N,M)$.
- (3) If $R \to S$ is a homomorphism of commutative rings such that S is a flat R-algebra, then

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,N) \otimes_R S = \operatorname{Tor}_n^S(M \otimes_R S, N \otimes_R S)$$

for all n > 0.

(4) If $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, then

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,N)_P = \operatorname{Tor}_n^{R_P}(M_P,N_P)$$

for all n > 0.

PROOF. (1), (2) and (4): are left to the reader.

(3): Let $P_{\bullet} \to M \to 0$ be a projective resolution of M. Since S is a flat R-algebra, () $\otimes_R S$ is an exact functor. Therefore $P_{\bullet} \otimes_R S \to M \otimes_R S \to 0$ is a projective resolution of the S-module $M \otimes_R S$. It follows that

$$\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N) \otimes_{R} S = \operatorname{H}_{n}(P_{\bullet} \otimes_{R} N) \otimes_{R} S$$

and

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n^S(M \otimes_R S, N \otimes_R S) = \operatorname{H}_n((P_{\bullet} \otimes_R S) \otimes_S (N \otimes_R S)) = \operatorname{H}_n((P_{\bullet} \otimes_R N) \otimes_R S).$$

By Exercise 12.1.7,
$$H_n(P_{\bullet} \otimes_R N) \otimes_R S = H_n((P_{\bullet} \otimes_R N) \otimes_R S)$$
.

LEMMA 12.3.5. Let $R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. Let M be an S-module and N an R-module.

- (1) For all $n \geq 0$, $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N)$ is an S-module.
- (2) If R and S are noetherian, N is finitely generated over R, and M is finitely generated over S, then $\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,N)$ is finitely generated over S.
- (3) If $P \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ and $Q = P \cap R$, then

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,N) \otimes_S S_P = \operatorname{Tor}_n^{R_Q}(M_P,N_Q) = \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M_P,N).$$

PROOF. (1): Let $A_{\bullet} \to N$ be a projective resolution of N. The functor $(\cdot) \otimes_R M$ maps the category \mathfrak{M}_R to the category \mathfrak{M}_S , so for each n, $H_n(A_{\bullet} \otimes_R M)$ is an S-module.

- (2): By Exercise 12.3.10, let $A_{\bullet} \to N$ be a resolution of N where each A_i is a finitely generated free R-module. Then $A_i \otimes_R M$ is finitely generated over S. It follows from Corollary 7.6.12 that $H_n(A_{\bullet} \otimes_R M)$ is a finitely generated S-module for each n
 - (3): Let $A_{\bullet} \to N$ be a projective resolution of N. Then

$$\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N) \otimes_{S} S_{P} = \operatorname{H}_{n}(A_{\bullet} \otimes_{R} M) \otimes_{S} S_{P}$$

$$= \operatorname{H}_{n}(A_{\bullet} \otimes_{R} M \otimes_{S} S_{P}) \quad \text{(by Exercise 12.1.7)}$$

$$= \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M_{P}, N).$$

Continue from the same starting point,

$$\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N) \otimes_{S} S_{P} = \operatorname{H}_{n}(A_{\bullet} \otimes_{R} M) \otimes_{S} S_{P}$$

$$= \operatorname{H}_{n}(A_{\bullet} \otimes_{R} M \otimes_{S} S_{P}) \quad \text{(by Exercise 12.1.7)}$$

$$= \operatorname{H}_{n}((A_{\bullet} \otimes_{R} R_{Q}) \otimes_{R_{Q}} (M \otimes_{S} S_{P}))$$

$$= \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R_{Q}}(M_{P}, N_{Q})$$

where the last equality holds because $A_{\bullet} \otimes_R R_Q$ is a projective resolution of the R_Q -module $N \otimes_R R_Q$.

COROLLARY 12.3.6. Let $R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. Let M be an S-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M is flat when viewed as an R-module.
- (2) M_P is a flat R_Q -module for all $P \in \operatorname{Spec} S$, if $Q = P \cap R$.
- (3) $M_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a flat $R_{\mathfrak{n}}$ -module for all $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} S$, if $\mathfrak{n} = \mathfrak{m} \cap R$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Let N be any R_Q -module. Then $N_Q = N \otimes_R R_Q = N$. By Lemma 12.3.5, $\operatorname{Tor}_1^{R_Q}(M_P, N_Q) = \left(\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M, N)\right)_P = 0$.

- (2) implies (3): is trivially true.
- (3) implies (1): Let N be any R-module, $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} S$, and set $\mathfrak{n} = \mathfrak{m} \cap R$. It follows from Lemma 12.3.5 that $\left(\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M,N)\right)_{\mathfrak{m}} = \operatorname{Tor}_1^{R_{\mathfrak{n}}}\left(M_{\mathfrak{m}},N_{\mathfrak{n}}\right) = 0$.
- **3.2.** Tor and Torsion. In this section R is an integral domain and K is the field of fractions of R. The reader is referred to Definition 4.3.4 for the definition of torsion module.

Lemma 12.3.7. Let R be an integral domain, K the field of fractions of R, and M an R-module.

- (1) $\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(K/R, M) = 0$ for all $n \ge 2$.
- (2) If M is torsion free, then $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(K/R, M) = 0$.
- (3) If M is a torsion R-module, then the connecting homomorphism induces a natural isomorphism $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(K/R,M) \cong M$ of R-modules.

PROOF. (1): The exact sequence of R-modules $0\to R\to K\to K/R\to 0$ gives rise to the long exact sequence

$$(3.4) \quad \cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(K,M) \to \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(K/R,M) \xrightarrow{\partial_n} \operatorname{Tor}_{n-1}^R(K/R,M) \to \dots$$

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(K,M) \to \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(K/R,M) \xrightarrow{\partial_1} R \otimes_R M \to K \otimes_R M \to K/R \otimes_R M \to 0$$

of R-modules (Lemma 12.3.2). Clearly R is flat, and by Lemma 7.1.4, K is flat. It follows from Lemma 12.3.3 that $\operatorname{Tor}_i^R(R,M)=\operatorname{Tor}_i^R(K,M)=0$ for $i\geq 1$.

- (2): Since $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(K,M)=0,\ \partial_1$ is one-to-one. By Lemma 7.1.1, $M\to K\otimes_R M$ is one-to-one, so $\partial_1=0.$
- (3): By Exercise 6.4.45, $K \otimes_R M = 0$. The connecting homomorphism ∂_1 , which is natural by Theorem 12.1.25, is an isomorphism.

3.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 12.3.8. Let $0 \to A \to B \to C \to 0$ be a short exact sequence of R-modules. If A and C are flat, then B is flat.

EXERCISE 12.3.9. Use Lemma 12.3.5 to give another proof of Proposition 7.8.2.

EXERCISE 12.3.10. If R is noetherian and M is a finitely generated R-module, then there exists a resolution $P_{\bullet} \to M \to 0$ of M such that each P_i is a finitely generated free R-module.

3.4. Introduction to Ext Groups. Throughout this section, R is an arbitrary ring. The assignment $(A, B) \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}_R(A, B)$ is a bifunctor $\mathfrak{E}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \times_R \mathfrak{M} \to \mathbb{Z}$ -modules. Let A and B be left R-modules. By Proposition 6.5.5, the functor $\mathfrak{E}_1(\cdot, B)$ is left exact contravariant whereas the functor $\mathfrak{E}_2(A, \cdot)$ is left exact covariant. By Proposition 6.5.5, if P is a projective R-module, the functor $\mathfrak{E}_2(P, \cdot)$ is exact. By Exercise 12.2.25, $R^n \mathfrak{E}_2(P, B) = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$ and all B. By Theorem 6.7.2, if Q is an injective R-module, the functor $\mathfrak{E}_1(\cdot, Q)$ is exact. By Exercise 12.2.26, $R^n \mathfrak{E}_1(A, Q) = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$ and all A.

DEFINITION 12.3.11. Let A and B be left R-modules. For $n \geq 0$ define

$$\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(A,B) = \operatorname{R}^{n} \mathfrak{E}_{1}(A,B) \cong \operatorname{R}^{n} \mathfrak{E}_{2}(A,B)$$

where the last isomorphism is due to Theorem 12.2.33. More specifically, if $P_{\bullet} \to A$ is a projective resolution for A and $B \to Q^{\bullet}$ is an injective resolution for B, then

$$\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(A, B) = \operatorname{H}^{n}(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P_{\bullet}, B))$$
$$= \operatorname{H}^{n}(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(A, Q^{\bullet})).$$

Proposition 12.3.12. Let M and N be left R-modules.

- (1) $\operatorname{Ext}_R^0(M,\cdot) = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,\cdot)$ and $\operatorname{Ext}_R^0(\cdot,N) = \operatorname{Hom}_R(\cdot,N)$.
- (2) If $0 \to A \to B \to C \to 0$ is a short exact sequence of left R-modules, then there are long exact sequences

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,A) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,B) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,C) \xrightarrow{\delta^0} \operatorname{Ext}_R^1(M,A) \to \cdots$$
$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^n(M,A) \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^n(M,B) \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^n(M,C) \xrightarrow{\delta^n} \operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(M,A) \to \cdots$$
and

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(C,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(B,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,N) \xrightarrow{\delta^0} \operatorname{Ext}_R^1(C,N) \to \cdots$$
$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^n(C,N) \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^n(B,N) \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^n(A,N) \xrightarrow{\delta^n} \operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(C,N) \to \cdots$$
of abelian groups.

- (3) If M is projective, then $\operatorname{Ext}_R^n(M,N)=0$ for all $n\geq 1$. Conversely, if $\operatorname{Ext}_R^1(M,N)=0$ for all N, then M is projective.
- (4) If N is injective, then $\operatorname{Ext}_R^n(M,N)=0$ for all $n\geq 1$. Conversely, if $\operatorname{Ext}_R^1(M,N)=0$ for all M, then N is injective.
- (5) If $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a collection of R-modules, then

$$\operatorname{Ext}_R^n\left(\bigoplus_{i\in I} M_i, N\right) \cong \prod_{i\in I} \operatorname{Ext}_R^n(M_i, N)$$

for all $n \geq 0$.

(6) If $\{N_j \mid j \in J\}$ is a collection of R-modules, then

$$\operatorname{Ext}_R^n\Big(M,\prod_{j\in J}N_j\Big)\cong\prod_{j\in J}\operatorname{Ext}_R^n(M,N_j)$$

for all $n \geq 0$.

PROOF. (1): Follows straight from Exercise 12.2.27 (1) and Exercise 12.2.28 (1).

- (2): Follows straight from Exercise 12.2.27(2) and Exercise 12.2.28(2).
- (3): Follows straight from Exercise 12.2.30, Proposition 6.5.5(2), and the exact sequence of Part (2).
- (4): Follows straight from Exercise 12.2.29, Theorem 6.7.2, and the exact sequence of Part (2).
- (5): Let $0 \to N \to Q \to C \to 0$ be a short exact sequence, where Q is injective. By Part (4) $\operatorname{Ext}_R^n(X,Q) = 0$ for all X and for all $n \ge 1$. By Part (2), for each $i \in I$ there is a long exact sequence

(3.5)

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M_{i}, N) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M_{i}, Q) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M_{i}, C) \xrightarrow{\delta^{0}} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M_{i}, N) \to 0 \to \cdots \to 0 \to \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M_{i}, C) \xrightarrow{\delta^{n}} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n+1}(M_{i}, N) \to 0 \to \cdots$$

Another long exact sequence is

$$(3.6) \quad 0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}, N\right) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}, Q\right) \to$$

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}, C\right) \xrightarrow{\delta^{0}} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}, N\right) \to 0 \to$$

$$\cdots \to 0 \to \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}, C\right) \xrightarrow{\delta^{n}} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n+1}\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}, N\right) \to 0 \to \cdots$$

Take direct products of (3.5) and combine with (3.6). In degrees zero and one we get the diagram

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\bigoplus_{i\in I} M_{i}, Q\right) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\bigoplus_{i\in I} M_{i}, C\right) \xrightarrow{\delta^{0}} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}\left(\bigoplus_{i\in I} M_{i}, N\right) \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\beta} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma}$$

$$\prod_{i\in I} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M_{i}, Q) \longrightarrow \prod_{i\in I} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M_{i}, C) \xrightarrow{\delta^{0}} \prod_{i\in I} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M_{i}, N) \longrightarrow 0$$

which commutes and has exact rows. By Proposition 6.5.8, α and β are isomorphisms. Therefore γ is an isomorphism. In degrees n and n+1 we get the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n} \left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}, C \right) \xrightarrow{\delta^{n}} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n+1} \left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}, N \right) \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\beta} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \prod_{i \in I} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n} (M_{j}, C) \xrightarrow{\delta^{n}} \prod_{i \in I} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n+1} (M_{j}, N) \longrightarrow 0$$

which commutes and has exact rows. By induction on n we assume β is an isomorphism. Therefore γ is an isomorphism.

(6): Start with a short exact sequence $0 \to K \to P \to M \to 0$ where P is projective. Proceed as in Part (5).

Lemma 12.3.13. Let R be a commutative ring and M and N two R-modules.

- (1) For all $n \geq 0$ $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M, N)$ is an R-module.
- (2) If R is noetherian, and M and N are finitely generated R-modules, then for all $n \geq 0$, $\operatorname{Ext}_R^n(M,N)$ is a finitely generated R-module.
- (3) If R is noetherian, M is a finitely generated R-module, and $R \to S$ is a homomorphism of commutative rings such that S is a flat R-algebra, then

$$\operatorname{Ext}_R^n(M,N) \otimes_R S = \operatorname{Ext}_S^n(M \otimes_R S, N \otimes_R S)$$

for all $n \geq 0$. In particular, if $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, then

$$\operatorname{Ext}_R^n(M,N)_P = \operatorname{Ext}_{R_P}^n(M_P,N_P)$$

for all n > 0.

PROOF. (1) and (2): Are left to the reader.

(3): By Exercise 12.3.10 there exists a projective resolution $P_{\bullet} \to M \to 0$ of M such that each P_i is a finitely generated free R-module. Since $(\cdot) \otimes_R S$ is an

exact functor, $P_{\bullet} \otimes_R S \to M \otimes_R S \to 0$ is a projective resolution of the S-module $M \otimes_R S$.

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Ext}_S^n(M \otimes_R S, N \otimes_R S) &= \operatorname{H}^n(\operatorname{Hom}_S(P_\bullet \otimes_R S, N \otimes_R S)) \\ &= \operatorname{H}^n(\operatorname{Hom}_R(P_\bullet, N) \otimes_R S) \quad (\operatorname{Proposition} \ 7.5.8) \\ &= \operatorname{H}^n(\operatorname{Hom}_R(P_\bullet, N)) \otimes_R S \quad (\operatorname{Exercise} \ 12.2.7) \\ &= \operatorname{Ext}_R^n(M, N) \otimes_R S \end{aligned}$$

LEMMA 12.3.14. Let $A \in {}_{R}\mathfrak{M}, B \in {}_{S}\mathfrak{M}_{R}$ and $C \in {}_{S}\mathfrak{M}$.

(1) If A is a projective left R-module, then there are isomorphisms of \mathbb{Z} -modules

$$\operatorname{Ext}_S^n(B \otimes_R A, C) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(A, \operatorname{Ext}_S^n(B, C))$$

for all $n \geq 0$.

(2) If the functor $B \otimes_R (\cdot) : {}_R \mathfrak{M} \to {}_S \mathfrak{M}$ maps projective R-modules to projective S-modules, then there are isomorphisms of \mathbb{Z} -modules

$$\operatorname{Ext}_S^n(B\otimes_R A,C) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_R^n(A,\operatorname{Hom}_S(B,C))$$

for all $n \geq 0$.

In both instances, the isomorphisms are induced by the adjoint isomorphisms of Theorem 6.5.10.

PROOF. (1): Let $C \to I_{\bullet}$ be an injective resolution of C. By the adjoint isomorphism,

is an isomorphism of complexes. Then $\operatorname{Ext}_S^n(B \otimes_R A, C)$ is the *n*th homology group of the complex on the left hand side of (3.7). Since *A* is projective, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(A, \cdot)$ is an exact covariant functor. Using Exercise 12.1.7, the *n*th homology group of the complex on the right hand side of (3.7) is isomorphic to $\operatorname{Hom}_R(A, \operatorname{Ext}_S^n(B, C))$.

(2): Let $P_{\bullet} \to A$ be a projective resolution of the left R-module A. Then $B \otimes_R P_{\bullet} \to B \otimes_R A$ is a projective resolution of the left S-module $B \otimes_R A$. By the adjoint isomorphism,

$$(3.8) \qquad \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(B \otimes_{R} P_{\bullet}, C) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P_{\bullet}, \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(B, C))$$

is an isomorphism of complexes. Then $\operatorname{Ext}_S^n(B \otimes_R A, C)$, which is the *n*th homology group of the complex on the left hand side of (3.8), is isomorphic to $\operatorname{Ext}_R^n(A, \operatorname{Hom}_S(B, C))$, which is the *n*th homology group of the complex on the right hand side of (3.8).

4. Cohomological Dimension of a Ring

Let R be a ring and M a left R-module. The projective dimension of M, written $\operatorname{proj.dim}_R M$, is the length of a shortest projective resolution for M. If $0 \to P_n \to \cdots \to P_1 \to P_0 \to M \to 0$ is a projective resolution of M, then $\operatorname{proj.dim}_R(M) \le n$. It follows that M is projective if and only if $\operatorname{proj.dim}_R(M) = 0$. The injective dimension of M, written inj. $\operatorname{dim}_R M$, is the length of a shortest injective resolution for M.

Lemma 12.4.1. (Schanuel's Lemma) Let R be any ring and M a left R-module. Suppose P and Q are projective R-modules such that the sequences

$$0 \to K \to P \to M \to 0$$
$$0 \to L \to Q \to M \to 0$$

are exact. The R-modules $K \oplus Q$ and $L \oplus P$ are isomorphic.

PROOF. Consider the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow K \xrightarrow{\phi} P \xrightarrow{\psi} M \longrightarrow 0$$

$$|\exists \rho \qquad |\exists \eta \qquad |=$$

$$0 \longrightarrow L \xrightarrow{\alpha} Q \xrightarrow{\beta} M \longrightarrow 0$$

with rows given. By Proposition 6.2.3 (3), there exists a homomorphism η such that $\beta \eta = \psi$ because P is projective. Now $\beta \eta \phi = \psi \phi = 0$ so im $\eta \phi \subseteq \ker \beta = \operatorname{im} \alpha$. Since α is one-to-one, there exists ρ making the diagram commute. Define $\delta: K \to P \oplus L$ by $\delta(x) = (\phi(x), \rho(x))$. Since ϕ is one-to-one, so is δ . Define $\pi: P \oplus L \to Q$ by $\pi(u, v) = \eta(u) - \alpha(v)$. Since the diagram commutes, $\pi \delta = 0$. The reader should verify that the sequence

$$(4.1) 0 \to K \xrightarrow{\delta} P \oplus L \xrightarrow{\pi} Q \to 0$$

is exact. Since Q is projective, sequence (4.1) splits.

DEFINITION 12.4.2. Let R be any ring and M a left R-module. Let $P_{\bullet} \to M$ be a projective resolution of M. Define K_{n-1} to be the kernel of d_{n-1} . Then

$$0 \to K_{n-1} \to P_{n-1} \to \cdots \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} M \to 0$$

is exact. Let K_0 be the kernel of ϵ . We say K_n is the nth syzygy of M with respect to the projective resolution P_{\bullet} .

DEFINITION 12.4.3. If R is a ring and M and N are two left R-modules, then we say M and N are projectively equivalent in case there exist projective R-modules P and Q such that $M \oplus P \cong N \oplus Q$.

THEOREM 12.4.4. Let R be any ring and M a left R-module. Given a projective resolution $P_{\bullet} \to M$ with syzygies $\{K_n\}$ and another projective resolution $Q_{\bullet} \to M$ with syzygies $\{L_n\}$, for each $n \geq 0$, K_n and L_n are projectively equivalent.

PROOF. Use induction on n. For n=0, this is Lemma 12.4.1. The rest is left to the reader. \Box

Theorem 12.4.5. Let R be any ring and M a left R-module. For any $n \geq 0$, the following are equivalent.

- (1) $\operatorname{proj.dim}_{R}(M) \leq n$.
- (2) For all R-modules N, $\operatorname{Ext}_R^k(M,N) = 0$ for all $k \ge n+1$.
- (3) For all R-modules N, $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n+1}(M,N) = 0$.
- (4) There exists a projective resolution $P_{\bullet} \to M$ with syzygies $\{K_n\}$ such that K_{n-1} is projective.
- (5) For any projective resolution $P_{\bullet} \to M$ with syzygies $\{K_n\}$, K_{n-1} is projective.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Use a projective resolution for M of length n to compute $\operatorname{Ext}_R^k(M,N)=0$ for all $k\geq n+1$.

- (2) implies (3): Is trivial.
- (3) implies (4): Let $P_{\bullet} \to M$ be a projective resolution of M with syzygies $\{K_n\}$. Then

$$(4.2) 0 \to K_{n-1} \to P_{n-1} \to \cdots \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} M \to 0$$

is exact. By Theorem 12.2.19, the groups $\operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(M,N)$ and $\operatorname{Ext}_R^1(K_{n-1},N)$ are naturally isomorphic. By (3), both groups are zero and by Proposition 12.3.12 (3), K_{n-1} is a projective R-module.

- (4) implies (5): Suppose we are given a projective resolution $P_{\bullet} \to M$ with syzygies $\{K_n\}$ such that K_{n-1} is projective. Let $Q_{\bullet} \to M$ be another projective resolution with syzygies $\{L_n\}$. By Theorem 12.4.4, there exist projectives P and Q such that $K_{n-1} \oplus P \cong L_{n-1} \oplus Q$. Being a direct summand of a projective, L_{n-1} is projective by Proposition 6.2.3 (1).
- (5) implies (1): Let $P_{\bullet} \to M$ be a projective resolution with syzygies $\{K_n\}$. Then K_{n-1} is projective. It follows that (4.2) is a projective resolution of M of length less than or equal to n.

LEMMA 12.4.6. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. For any $n \geq 0$, the following are equivalent.

- (1) inj. $\dim_R(M) \leq n$.
- (2) For every ideal I of R, $\operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(R/I, M) = 0$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Follows from Exercise 12.4.17.

(2) implies (1): Let $M \to E^{\bullet}$ be an injective resolution of the R-module M. Define K^n to be the kernel of d^n . The sequence

$$0 \to M \xrightarrow{\epsilon} E^0 \xrightarrow{d^0} E^1 \xrightarrow{d^1} \cdots \to E^{n-1} \to K^n \to 0$$

is exact. Let I be an ideal of R. By Theorem 12.2.17, $\operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(R/I,M)$ is naturally isomorphic to $\operatorname{Ext}_R^1(R/I,K^n)$. By (2), $\operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(R/I,M)=0$. By Exercise 12.4.18, K^n is an injective R-module. There exists an injective resolution of M of length less than or equal to n.

LEMMA 12.4.7. Let R be a noetherian ring and M a finitely generated left R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M is a projective R-module.
- (2) $\operatorname{Ext}_R^1(M,N) = 0$ for all finitely generated left R-modules N.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Follows from Proposition 12.3.12(3).

(2) implies (1): By Corollary 7.6.12, M is finitely presented, so there exists an exact sequence

$$(4.3) 0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \to M \to 0$$

such that B is a finitely generated free R-module and A is a finitely generated R-module. By (2), $\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,A)=0$. The long exact sequence of Proposition 12.3.12 (2) degenerates into the short exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,A) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(B,A) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(A,A) \to 0.$$

There exists $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(B,A)$ such that $\phi \alpha$ is the identity map on A. The sequence (4.3) splits, so M is projective by Proposition 6.2.3(1).

LEMMA 12.4.8. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and M a finitely generated R-module. For any $n \geq 0$, the following are equivalent.

- (1) proj. $\dim_R(M) \leq n$.
- (2) For every ideal I of R, $\operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(M, R/I) = 0$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Follows from Exercise 12.4.17.

(2) implies (1): Let N be an arbitrary finitely generated R-module. By Exercise 12.4.22, it suffices to show $\operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(M,N)=0$. Proceed by induction on the number of generators of N. Suppose $N=Rx_1+\cdots+Rx_m$. Let $N_0=Rx_1$. By (2), $\operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(M,N_0)=0$ and by induction on m, $\operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(M,N/N_0)=0$. The long exact sequence of Proposition 12.3.12 (2) becomes

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(M,N_0) \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(M,N) \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(M,N/N_0) \to \dots$$
 which proves $\operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(M,N) = 0$.

COROLLARY 12.4.9. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring.

(1) For any R-module M,

$$\begin{split} & \text{inj.} \dim_R(M) = \sup \{ \text{inj.} \dim_{R_P}(M \otimes_R R_P) \mid P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \} \\ & = \sup \{ \text{inj.} \dim_{R_{\mathfrak{m}}}(M \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}}) \mid \mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max}(R) \}. \end{split}$$

(2) For any finitely generated R-module M,

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{proj.dim}_{R}\left(M\right) &= \sup \{\operatorname{proj.dim}_{R_{P}}\left(M \otimes_{R} R_{P}\right) \mid P \in \operatorname{Spec} R\} \\ &= \sup \{\operatorname{proj.dim}_{R_{\mathfrak{m}}}\left(M \otimes_{R} R_{\mathfrak{m}}\right) \mid \mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R\}. \end{aligned}$$

PROOF. (1): Suppose inj. $\dim_R(M) \leq n$. Let P be a prime ideal of R. Every ideal of R_P is of the form IR_P for some ideal I of R. By Lemma 12.4.6 and Lemma 12.3.13, $0 = \operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(R/I, M)_P = \operatorname{Ext}_{R_P}^{n+1}(R_P/IR_P, M_P)$. Lemma 12.4.6 implies inj. $\dim_{R_P}(M_P) \leq n$.

Suppose n= inj. $\dim_R(M)$ is finite. By Lemma 12.4.6, there exists an ideal I in R such that $\operatorname{Ext}^n_R(R/I,M) \neq 0$. By Proposition 7.1.6 there exists a maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$ such that $\operatorname{Ext}^n_R(R/I,M)_{\mathfrak{m}} = \operatorname{Ext}^n_{R_{\mathfrak{m}}}(R_{\mathfrak{m}}/IR_{\mathfrak{m}},M_{\mathfrak{m}}) \neq 0$. In follows from Lemma 12.4.6, inj. $\dim_{R_{\mathfrak{m}}}(M_{\mathfrak{m}}) \geq n$.

(2): Is left to the reader.
$$\Box$$

PROPOSITION 12.4.10. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$. Let M be a finitely generated R-module.

- (1) If $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M,k) = 0$, then M is a free R-module.
- (2) For all $n \ge 0$, proj. $\dim(M) \le n$ if and only if $\operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^R(M,k) = 0$.

(3) If M is of finite projective dimension, then

$$\operatorname{proj.dim}_R(M/aM) = \operatorname{proj.dim}_R(M) + 1$$

for any M-regular element $a \in \mathfrak{m}$.

PROOF. (1): By Exercise 12.4.20, there exists a free R-module R^{ν} and an exact sequence

$$0 \to K \to R^{\nu} \xrightarrow{f} M \to 0$$

such that $f \otimes 1$ is an isomorphism. The long exact sequence of Theorem 12.3.2 (3) is

$$\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M,k) \to K \otimes_{R} k \to k^{\nu} \xrightarrow{f} M \otimes_{R} k \to 0.$$

Therefore, $K \otimes_R k = 0$. By Corollary 6.3.2, K = 0, hence M is free.

- (2): Assume $n \geq 0$ and $\operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^R(M,k) = 0$. If n = 0, this is Part (1). Assume n > 0. By Exercise 12.3.10, let $P_{\bullet} \to M$ be a projective resolution of M such that each P_i is finitely generated. Let $K_{n-1} = \ker d_{n-1}$. By Theorem 12.1.20, $0 = \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^R(M,k) = \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(K_{n-1},k)$. Since R is noetherian, by Part (1) applied to the finitely generated R-module K_{n-1} , it follows that K_{n-1} is free. Therefore, proj. $\dim(M) \leq n$. The converse is Exercise 12.4.17.
 - (3): By definition, left multiplication by a is one-to-one, so the sequence

$$0 \to M \xrightarrow{\ell_a} M \to M/aM \to 0$$

is exact. By Lemma 12.3.2(3) and Lemma 12.3.4(1), there is a long-exact sequence

$$\dots \xrightarrow{\ell_a} \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^R(M,k) \to \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^R(M/aM,k) \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,k) \xrightarrow{\ell_a} \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,k) \to \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M/aM,k) \xrightarrow{\partial}$$

of R-modules. Left multiplication by a annihilates k, hence the long-exact sequence breaks down into short exact sequences

$$(4.4) 0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^R(M,k) \to \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^R(M/aM,k) \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,k) \xrightarrow{\ell_a} 0.$$

Let $d = \text{proj.dim}_R(M)$. By Part (2) and Exercise 12.4.17,

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,k) \begin{cases} = 0 & \text{if } n > d \\ \neq 0 & \text{if } n = d. \end{cases}$$

By (4.4),

$$\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M/aM,k) \begin{cases} = 0 & \text{if } n > d+1 \\ \neq 0 & \text{if } n = d+1. \end{cases}$$

By Part (2), proj. $\dim_R(M/aM) = d + 1$.

LEMMA 12.4.11. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring. The following are equivalent, for any finitely generated R-module M.

- (1) $\operatorname{proj.dim}_{R}(M) \leq n$.
- (2) $\operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^{R}(M, R/\mathfrak{m}) = 0$ for all $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$.

PROOF. By Corollary 12.4.9, (1) is equivalent to proj. $\dim_{R_{\mathfrak{m}}}(M_{\mathfrak{m}}) \leq n$ for all $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$. By Proposition 12.4.10, this is equivalent to $\operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^{R_{\mathfrak{m}}}(M_{\mathfrak{m}}, R_{\mathfrak{m}}/\mathfrak{m}R_{\mathfrak{m}}) = 0$ for all $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$. By Lemma 12.3.4 this is equivalent to (2).

PROPOSITION 12.4.12. (M. Auslander) Let R be a commutative ring and $n \geq 0$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) proj. $\dim_R(M) \leq n$ for all R-modules M.
- (2) $\operatorname{proj.dim}_{R}(M) \leq n$ for all finitely generated R-modules M.
- (3) inj. $\dim_R(M) \leq n$ for all R-modules M.
- (4) $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n+1}(M,N) = 0$ for all R-modules M and N.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Is trivial.

- (2) implies (3): Let M be an R-module. As in the proof of Lemma 12.4.6, let $M \to E^{\bullet}$ be an injective resolution of the R-module M. Define K^n to be the kernel of d^n . Let I be an ideal of R. By Theorem 12.2.17, $\operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(R/I,M) =$ $\operatorname{Ext}_R^1(R/I,K^n)$. Since R/I is finitely generated, by (2) and Exercise 12.4.17, $\operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(R/I,M)=0$. By Exercise 12.4.18, K^n is an injective R-module. This proves (3).
 - (3) implies (4): Follows from Exercise 12.4.17.
 - (4) implies (1): Follows from Theorem 12.4.5.

DEFINITION 12.4.13. Let R be a commutative ring. The global cohomological dimension of R (or cohomological dimension of R, or global dimension of R) is defined to be

$$\begin{aligned} \cosh.\dim(R) &= \sup\{\operatorname{proj.dim}_R(M) \mid M \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}\} \\ &= \sup\{\operatorname{inj.dim}_R(M) \mid M \in {}_R\mathfrak{M}\} \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality follows from Proposition 12.4.12.

LEMMA 12.4.14. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring.

- (1) The following are equivalent.
 - (a) $coh. dim(R) \leq n.$
 - (b) proj. $\dim_R(M) \leq n$ for all finitely generated R-modules M.
 - (c) inj. $\dim_R(M) \leq n$ for all finitely generated R-modules M.
 - (d) $\operatorname{Ext}_R^{n+1}(M,N) = 0$ for all finitely generated R-modules M and N. (e) $\operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^R(M,N) = 0$ for all finitely generated R-modules M and N.
- (2) $\operatorname{coh.dim}(R) = \sup\{\operatorname{coh.dim}(R_P) \mid P \in \operatorname{Spec} R\} = \sup\{\operatorname{coh.dim}(R_{\mathfrak{m}}) \mid P \in \operatorname{Spec} R\}$ $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$.

PROOF. (1): (a) is equivalent to (b), by Proposition 12.4.12.

- (b) implies (c), by Proposition 12.4.12.
- (c) implies (d): Follows from Exercise 12.4.17.
- (b) implies (e): Follows from Exercise 12.4.17.
- (e) implies (b): Follows from Lemma 12.4.11.
- (d) implies (b): Follows from Exercise 12.4.22.
- (2): Follows from Part (1) and Corollary 12.4.9.

THEOREM 12.4.15. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$.

- (1) For a nonnegative integer n, the following are equivalent.
 - (a) $\cosh \dim R \leq n$.
 - (b) $\operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^{R}(k,k) = 0.$
- (2) $\operatorname{coh.dim} R = \operatorname{proj.dim}_{R}(k)$.

PROOF. (1): (a) implies (b): Follows directly from Definition 12.4.13.

(b) implies (a): Assume $\operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^R(k,k)=0$. By Proposition 12.4.10 (2), $\operatorname{proj.dim}_R(k)\leq n$. By Exercise 12.4.17, $\operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^R(M,k)=0$. By Proposition 12.4.10 (2), $\operatorname{proj.dim}_R(M)\leq n$. By Lemma 12.4.14, $\operatorname{coh.dim} R\leq n$.

(2): Is left to the reader.
$$\Box$$

PROPOSITION 12.4.16. Let $\phi: R \to S$ be a local homomorphism of commutative noetherian local rings. If S is a flat R-module, then coh. dim(R) < coh. dim(S).

PROOF. Let M and N be arbitrary finitely generated R-modules. By Lemma 12.3.4,

(4.5)
$$\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N) \otimes_{R} S = \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{S}(M \otimes_{R} S, N \otimes_{R} S)$$

for all $n \geq 0$. If $\operatorname{coh.dim}(S) = d$ is finite, then by Lemma 12.4.14, the groups in (4.5) are zero for n > d. By Exercise 7.5.27, S is a faithfully flat R-module, hence $\operatorname{Tor}_{d+1}^R(M,N) = 0$. By Lemma 12.4.14, $\operatorname{coh.dim}(R) \leq d$.

4.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 12.4.17. Let R be a commutative ring, $\mathfrak{F}: {}_R\mathfrak{M} \to {}_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathfrak{M}$ a covariant additive functor, and M an R-module.

- (1) If $\operatorname{proj.dim}_{R}(M) \leq n$, then $L_{i} \mathfrak{F}(M) = 0$ for all i > n.
- (2) If inj. $\dim_R(M) \leq n$, then $R^i \mathfrak{F}(M) = 0$ for all i > n.

EXERCISE 12.4.18. Let R be a commutative ring and E an R-module. Then E is injective if and only if $\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(R/I,E)=(0)$ for all ideals I in R.

EXERCISE 12.4.19. Let R be a commutative local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$. Let M and N be finitely generated R-modules and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) $f \otimes 1 : M \otimes_R k \to N \otimes_R k$ is an isomorphism.
- (2) $\ker f \subseteq \mathfrak{m}M$ and f is onto.

EXERCISE 12.4.20. Let R be a commutative local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field $k=R/\mathfrak{m}$. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Show that there exists an exact sequence

$$0 \to K \to \mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{f} M \to 0$$

such that $f \otimes 1 : k^n \to M \otimes_R k$ is an isomorphism.

EXERCISE 12.4.21. Let R be a noetherian commutative local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Show that there exists a resolution

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{d_3} F_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} F_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} F_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} M \to 0$$

such that for all $i \geq 0$, F_i is a finitely generated free R-module and im $d_{i+1} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}F_i$.

EXERCISE 12.4.22. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring, n a nonnegative integer, and M a finitely generated R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) $\operatorname{proj.dim}_{R}(M) \leq n$.
- (2) $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n+1}(M,N) = 0$ for all finitely generated R-modules N.

EXERCISE 12.4.23. Let k be a field. Prove that coh. $\dim(k) = 0$.

EXERCISE 12.4.24. Let R be a PID. Prove that $\mathrm{coh.dim}(R) \leq 1$. Prove that R is a field if and only if $\mathrm{coh.dim}(R) = 0$.

EXERCISE 12.4.25. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. If S is a submodule of M which is a direct summand of M, then $\operatorname{proj.dim}_R(S) \leq \operatorname{proj.dim}_R(M)$.

5. Group Cohomology

Let G be a group, written multiplicatively, with identity element denoted 1. Let $\mathbb{Z}G$ denote the group ring, as defined in Example 3.1.6. A left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module is also called a G-module. The augmentation map $\epsilon: \mathbb{Z}G \to \mathbb{Z}$ is the homomorphism of rings induced by $G \to \langle 1 \rangle$ (Example 3.2.53)). $Via\epsilon$, any \mathbb{Z} -module A can be made into a trivial G-module. In this case, for every $x \in A$ and $\sigma \in G$ we have $\sigma x = x$. That is, every $\sigma \in G$ acts as the trivial automorphism of A. In particular, ϵ induces the trivial left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module structure on \mathbb{Z} .

DEFINITION 12.5.1. Let G be a group and A a left G-module. For $n \geq 0$, the nth cohomology group of G with coefficients in A is defined to be $\operatorname{H}^n(G,A) = \operatorname{Ext}^n_{\mathbb{Z}G}(\mathbb{Z},A)$, where \mathbb{Z} has the trivial left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module structure. By Definition 12.3.11, the groups $\operatorname{H}^n(G,A)$ are isomorphic to the right derived groups of the left exact contravariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}(\cdot,A)$, as well as the right derived groups of the left exact covariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}(\mathbb{Z},\cdot)$. Exercise 12.5.10 shows that the groups $\operatorname{H}^n(G,A)$ are also isomorphic to the right derived groups of the left exact covariant functor $A \mapsto A^G$.

EXAMPLE 12.5.2. Suppose $G = \langle 1 \rangle$ is the trivial group. Then $\mathrm{H}^n(G,A) = \mathrm{Ext}^n_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z},A)$. From Proposition 12.3.12 we find

$$H^{n}(G, A) = \begin{cases} A & \text{if } n = 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } n > 0. \end{cases}$$

The goal of this section is to describe $H^n(G,A)$ for n=0,1,2,3. We do this by presenting formulas for generators and relations for the groups. First we derive the so-called homogeneous cochain complex. This is based on the unnormalized resolution of \mathbb{Z} and is the classical approach, because it was inspired by the homology of a simplicial complex. After that, we derive the so-called in-homogeneous cochain complex. This comes from the bar resolution (or normalized resolution) of \mathbb{Z} . It is the second cochain complex that leads us to the familiar normalized factor sets that are useful for the crossed product construction.

5.1. The Resolutions of \mathbb{Z} by Free G-Modules. Throughout this section, G denotes a group. The group ring $\mathbb{Z}G$ is a free \mathbb{Z} -module on the index set G (see Definition 4.2.9). For any $r \geq 1$, let $G^r = \prod_{i=1}^r G$ be the product of r copies of G. Elements of G^r are written as $(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n)$, or sometimes as $(\sigma_0, \ldots, \sigma_{n-1})$.

DEFINITION 12.5.3. By P_n we denote the free \mathbb{Z} -module on the index set G^{n+1} . The diagonal map $\delta: G \to G^{n+1}$, which is defined by $\sigma \mapsto (\sigma, \dots, \sigma)$ is a homomorphism of groups. By virtue of δ , G acts as a group of permutations of G^{n+1} by $\sigma(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) = (\sigma\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma\sigma_n)$. By this action, P_n is a left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module. For $0 \le i \le n$, the projection homomorphism $\pi_{n,i}: G^{n+1} \to G^n$ is defined by reducing modulo the ith factor. We signify this projection map on n+1-tuples by the "hat" notation: $\pi_{n,i}(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) = (\sigma_0, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_i, \dots, \sigma_n)$. For $n \ge 1$ define a boundary map $\partial_n: P_n \to P_{n-1}$ by specifying its value on a \mathbb{Z} -basis element to be

$$\partial_n(\sigma_0,\ldots,\sigma_n) = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \pi_{n,i}(\sigma_0,\ldots,\sigma_n).$$

Theorem 12.5.4 shows that when augmented by ϵ , we have a resolution

$$\cdots \to P_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} P_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}} \cdots \to P_1 \xrightarrow{\partial_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} \mathbb{Z} \to 0$$

of \mathbb{Z} by free $\mathbb{Z}G$ -modules. This complex will be denoted P_{\bullet} .

THEOREM 12.5.4. In the above context,

- (1) $\pi_{n,i}$ induces a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module epimorphism $\pi_{n,i}: P_n \to P_{n-1}$.
- (2) P_n is a free $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module with basis $\{(1, \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n) \mid \sigma_i \in G\}$.
- (3) ∂_n is a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module homomorphism.
- (4) $\partial_{n-1}\partial_n = 0$.
- (5) The sequence P_{\bullet} of Definition 12.5.3 is a free resolution of the $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module \mathbb{Z} .

PROOF. (1), (2), (3): Are left to the reader.

(4): The reader should verify that

$$\pi_{n-1,j}\pi_{n,i}(\sigma_0,\ldots,\sigma_n) = \begin{cases} (\sigma_0,\ldots,\hat{\sigma}_i,\ldots,\hat{\sigma}_{j+1},\ldots,\sigma_n) & \text{if } 0 \le i \le j < n \\ (\sigma_0,\ldots,\hat{\sigma}_j,\ldots,\hat{\sigma}_i,\ldots,\sigma_n) & \text{if } 0 \le j < i \le n. \end{cases}$$

We have

$$\partial_{n-1}\partial_{n}(\sigma_{0},\ldots,\sigma_{n}) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} (-1)^{i} \partial_{n-1}(\pi_{n,i}(\sigma_{0},\ldots,\sigma_{n}))$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n} (-1)^{i} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{j} \pi_{n-1,j} \pi_{n,i}(\sigma_{0},\ldots,\sigma_{n})$$

$$= \sum_{i \leq i} (-1)^{i+j} \pi_{n-1,j} \pi_{n,i}(\sigma_{0},\ldots,\sigma_{n}) + \sum_{i \geq i} (-1)^{i+j} \pi_{n-1,j} \pi_{n,i}(\sigma_{0},\ldots,\sigma_{n})$$

and

$$\sum_{i \leq j} (-1)^{i+j} \pi_{n-1,j} \pi_{n,i} (\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) = \sum_{i \leq j} (-1)^{i+j} (\sigma_0, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_i, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_{j+1}, \dots, \sigma_n)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sum_{k-i+1}^{n} (-1)^{i+k+1} (\sigma_0, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_i, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_k, \dots, \sigma_n)$$

and

$$\sum_{i>j} (-1)^{i+j} \pi_{n-1,j} \pi_{n,i}(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) = \sum_{i>j} (-1)^{i+j} (\sigma_0, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_j, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_i, \dots, \sigma_n)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sum_{\ell=j+1}^{n} (-1)^{j+\ell} (\sigma_0, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_j, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_\ell, \dots, \sigma_n)$$

from which (4) follows.

(5): It follows from (4) and the fact that $\epsilon(\sigma) = 1$, that P_{\bullet} is a complex. To show that P_{\bullet} is exact, we construct a contracting homotopy and apply Exercise 12.1.15. If $n \geq 0$, define $k_n : P_n \to P_{n+1}$ by specifying its value on a \mathbb{Z} -basis element: $k_n(\sigma_0, \ldots, \sigma_n) = (1, \sigma_0, \ldots, \sigma_n)$. Define $k_{-1} : \mathbb{Z} \to P_0$ by $k_{-1}(n) = (n \cdot 1)$. Notice that k_n is a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism, not a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module homomorphism. Nevertheless, to prove (5), this is sufficient. Extending the complex with 0 and taking $\partial_0 = \epsilon$, we must verify that $\partial_{n+1}k_n + k_{n-1}\partial_n$ is the identity map on P_n , for all n. The first non-trivial case is n = -1. Since

$$\epsilon k_{-1}(n) = \epsilon(n \cdot 1) = n$$

the identity holds. For $n \geq 0$ we check the identity on a typical basis element. Then

$$(\partial_{n+1}k_n + k_{n-1}\partial_n)(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) = \partial_{n+1}(1, \sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) + k_{n-1} \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i (\sigma_0, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_i, \dots, \sigma_n)$$

$$= (\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) + \sum_{j=0}^n (-1)^{j+1} (1, \sigma_0, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_i, \dots, \sigma_n)$$

$$+ \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i (1, \sigma_0, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_i, \dots, \sigma_n)$$

$$= (\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n)$$

which completes the proof.

DEFINITION 12.5.5. For $n \geq 1$, we define Q_n to be the free $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module on the index set G^n . To distinguish the basis elements of Q_n from those of P_n (see Definition 12.5.3), we use brackets instead of parentheses. The basis for Q_n is the set $\{[\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_n]\mid \sigma_i\in G\}$. For consistency, define Q_0 to be the free $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module on the singleton set $\{[]\}$. For $n\geq 1$ define a boundary map $d_n:Q_n\to Q_{n-1}$ by specifying its value on a typical basis element:

$$d_n[\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n] = \sigma_1[\sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n] + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (-1)^i [\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_{i-1}, \sigma_i \sigma_{i+1}, \sigma_{i+2}, \dots, \sigma_n] + (-1)^n [\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_{n-1}].$$

Theorem 12.5.6 shows that when augmented by ϵ , we have a resolution of \mathbb{Z} by free $\mathbb{Z}G$ -modules. This complex will be denoted Q_{\bullet} and is called the *unnormalized*, or homogeneous, standard resolution.

Theorem 12.5.6. The sequence

$$\cdots \to Q_n \xrightarrow{d_n} Q_{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}} \cdots \to Q_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} Q_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} \mathbb{Z} \to 0$$

is a free resolution of the $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module \mathbb{Z} .

PROOF. The proof consists in showing that Q_{\bullet} is isomorphic to the free resolution P_{\bullet} . Define $f_n: P_n \to Q_n$ by the formula

$$f_n(\sigma_0,\ldots,\sigma_n) = \sigma_0[\sigma_0^{-1}\sigma_1,\sigma_1^{-1}\sigma_2,\ldots,\sigma_{n-1}^{-1}\sigma_n].$$

Define $g_n: Q_n \to P_n$ by the formula

$$g_n[\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_n]=(1,\sigma_1,\sigma_1\sigma_2,\sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_3,\ldots,\sigma_1\sigma_2\cdots\sigma_n).$$

The reader should verify that f_n and g_n are $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module homomorphisms and that they are inverses to each other. The square

$$P_{n} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n}} P_{n-1}$$

$$\downarrow f_{n} \qquad \qquad \downarrow f_{n-1}$$

$$Q_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} Q_{n-1}$$

commutes for all n > 1 since

$$f_{n-1}\partial_n g_n[\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n] = f_{n-1}\partial_n (1, \sigma_1, \sigma_1 \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_n)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i f_{n-1} (1, \sigma_1, \sigma_1 \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_n)$$

$$= \sigma_1[\sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n] + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (-1)^i [\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_{i-1}, \sigma_i \sigma_{i+1}, \sigma_{i+2}, \dots, \sigma_n]$$

$$+ (-1)^n [\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_{n-1}]$$

$$= d_n[\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n].$$

Therefore, Q_{\bullet} is a complex, and $f: P_{\bullet} \to Q_{\bullet}$ is an isomorphism of complexes. The rest follows from Lemma 12.2.3.

DEFINITION 12.5.7. Let $G_1 = G - \langle 1 \rangle = \{ \sigma \in G \mid \sigma \neq 1 \}$. For $n \geq 1$ define B_n to be the $\mathbb{Z}G$ -submodule of Q_n (see Definition 12.5.5) generated by those basis elements $[\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_n]$ which belong to G_1^n . We take $B_0 = Q_0$, the free module on $[\cdot]$. The set inclusion map $G_1^n \subseteq G^n$ induces an idempotent $\eta_n \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}(Q_n,Q_n)$ which projects Q_n onto B_n . The boundary map $d_n: B_n \to B_{n-1}$ is defined to be the inclusion map $B_n \subseteq Q_n$ followed by the boundary map $d_n: Q_n \to Q_{n-1}$ of Definition 12.5.5 followed by η_{n-1} . By construction, the diagram

$$B_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} B_{n-1}$$

$$\downarrow \subseteq \qquad \qquad \downarrow \subseteq$$

$$Q_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} Q_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\eta_{n-1}} Q_{n-1}$$

commutes. Theorem 12.5.8 shows that when augmented with $\epsilon: B_0 \to \mathbb{Z}$, this is a free $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module resolution of \mathbb{Z} . This complex is denoted B_{\bullet} , and is called the *bar resolution*, or *normalized standard resolution*.

THEOREM 12.5.8. In the context of Definition 12.5.7,

$$\cdots \to B_n \xrightarrow{d_n} B_{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}} \cdots \to B_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} B_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} \mathbb{Z} \to 0$$

is a free resolution of the $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module \mathbb{Z} .

PROOF. We must show that $d_{n-1}d_n=0$, and that the homology of the complex is (0). Take B_{-1} to be \mathbb{Z} and d_0 to be ϵ . Define \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphisms $h_n: B_n \to B_{n+1}$ for each $n \geq -1$. The map $h_{-1}: \mathbb{Z} \to B_0$ is induced by the natural homomorphism of rings $\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}G$. For $n \geq 0$, B_n is generated as a free \mathbb{Z} -module by elements of the form $\sigma[\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n]$, where $\sigma \in G$, and $[\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n] \in G_1^n$. The map h_n is defined by

$$h_n(\sigma[\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_n]) = \eta_{n+1}[\sigma,\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_n].$$

First we check that the contracting homotopy relations

$$d_{n+1}h_n + h_{n-1}d_n = 1_{B_n}$$

are satisfied. For n=0 we get

$$d_0h_{-1}(1) = d_0[] = \epsilon(1) = 1$$

For n=1,

$$(d_1 h_0 + h_{-1} d_0)(\sigma[]) = d_0 \eta_1[\sigma] + \epsilon(\sigma) = \begin{cases} \epsilon(1) = [] & \text{if } \sigma = 1\\ d_1[\sigma] = \sigma[] & \text{if } \sigma \neq 1 \end{cases}$$

Now suppose n > 1. First assume $\sigma = 1$. The reader should verify that

$$d_{n+1}h_n[\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_n]=0$$

and

$$h_{n-1}d_n[\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_n]=[\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_n]$$

so the formula holds. Now assume $\sigma \neq 1$. Then

$$d_{n+1}h_n(\sigma[\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n]) = d_{n+1}[\sigma, \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n]$$

$$= \sigma[\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n] - [\sigma\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n]$$

$$+ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (-1)^{i+1}[\sigma, \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_i\sigma_{i+1}, \dots, \sigma_n]$$

$$+ (-1)^{n+1}[\sigma, \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_{n-1}]$$

and

$$h_{n-1}d_n(\sigma[\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_n]) = h_{n-1}\left(\sigma\sigma_1[\sigma_2,\ldots,\sigma_n] + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (-1)^i \sigma[\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_i\sigma_{i+1},\ldots,\sigma_n]\right)$$

$$+ (-1)^n \sigma[\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_{n-1}]$$

$$= [\sigma\sigma_1,\sigma_2,\ldots,\sigma_n] + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (-1)^i [\sigma,\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_i\sigma_{i+1},\ldots,\sigma_n]$$

$$+ (-1)^n [\sigma,\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_{n-1}]$$

From this we get $d_{n+1}h_n + h_{n-1}d_n = 1_{B_n}$. To finish, we must show $d_nd_{n+1} = 0$. The proof is by induction on n. The basis step follows from $d_0d_1[\sigma] = \epsilon\sigma[] = 0$, since $\sigma \neq 1$. Notice that the image of h_n contains a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -basis for B_{n+1} . Inductively assume n > 0 and $d_{n-1}d_n = 0$. Using the identity $d_{n+1}h_n + h_{n-1}d_n = 1_{B_n}$, we get

$$d_n d_{n+1} h_n = d_n (1_{B_n} - h_{n-1} d_n)$$

$$= d_n 1_{B_n} - d_n h_{n-1} d_n)$$

$$= d_n - (1_{B_n} - h_{n-2} d_{n-1}) d_n$$

$$= d_n - d_n + h_{n-2} d_{n-1} d_n$$

$$= 0$$

Applying Exercise 12.1.15 completes the proof.

5.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 12.5.9. Let $F_n = (\mathbb{Z}G)^{\otimes (n+1)}$ be the tensor product of n+1 copies of the \mathbb{Z} -module $\mathbb{Z}G$. In the notation of Definition 7.9.5, $F_n = T^{n+1}(\mathbb{Z}G)$. Make F_n into a left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module by acting on the left factor: $\sigma(\sigma_0 \otimes \sigma_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes \sigma_n) = \sigma\sigma_0 \otimes \sigma_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes \sigma_n$. Prove that F_n is isomorphic as a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module to P_n .

Exercise 12.5.10. Let G be a group.

(1) Show that the assignment $\mathfrak{F}^G(A) = A^G$ defines a left exact covariant functor from $\mathbb{Z}_G\mathfrak{M}$ to $\mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{M}$.

- (2) For every $A \in \mathbb{Z}_G \mathfrak{M}$, the assignment $f \mapsto f(1)$ induces an isomorphism of abelian groups $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}_G}(\mathbb{Z}, A) \cong A^G$.
- (3) Show that the functors \mathfrak{F}^G and $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}(\mathbb{Z},\cdot)$ are naturally equivalent.
- (4) The cohomology groups $H^n(G, A)$ are isomorphic to the right derived groups $R^n\mathfrak{F}^G(A)$.
- **5.3.** Cocycle and Coboundary Groups in Low Degree. Let A be a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module. So A is an abelian group with binary operation written additively, and G acts as a group on A. The cohomology groups $\operatorname{H}^n(G,A)$ are defined to be $\operatorname{Ext}^n_{\mathbb{Z}G}(\mathbb{Z},A)$. If $Q_{\bullet} \to \mathbb{Z}$ is the standard (homogeneous) resolution from Definition 12.5.5, and $B_{\bullet} \to \mathbb{Z}$ is the bar resolution from Definition 12.5.7, then by Definition 12.3.11, we have

$$H^{n}(G, A) = \operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}G}^{n}(\mathbb{Z}, A)$$

$$= H^{n}(\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}(Q_{\bullet}, A))$$

$$= H^{n}(\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}(B_{\bullet}, A)).$$

Notice that $\operatorname{H}^n(\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}(Q_{\bullet},A))$ is an abelian group, where functions are added point-wise: (f+g)(x)=f(x)+g(x). Since $Q_0=\mathbb{Z}G$, we have $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}(Q_0,A)=A$ (Lemma 6.5.7). For $n\geq 1$, because Q_n is the free $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module on G^n , we can identify $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}(Q_n,A)$ with $\operatorname{Map}(G^n,A)$, the set of all functions mapping G^n to A. The cochain map

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z} G}(Q_{n-1}, A) \xrightarrow{d^{n-1}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z} G}(Q_n, A)$$

is defined by $d^{n-1}(f) = fd_n$. Using the formula for the boundary d_n in Definition 12.5.5, on a typical basis element of Q_n we have

$$(5.1) d^{n-1}(f)[\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n] = f d_n[\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n]$$

$$= \sigma_1 f[\sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n] + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (-1)^i f[\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_i \sigma_{i+1}, \dots, \sigma_n] + (-1)^n f[\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_{n-1}].$$

In the first summand, we have used the fact that f is $\mathbb{Z}G$ -linear. For all $n \geq 0$,

$$H^n(G, A) = Z^n(G, A)/B^n(G, A)$$

where $Z^n(G, A) = \ker d^n$, and $B^n(G, A) = \operatorname{im} d^{n-1}$. By convention, $d^{-1} = 0$ and $B^0(G, A) = 0$.

Proposition 12.5.11. In the above context,

- (1) $H^0(G,A) = Z^0(G,A) = A^G$ is the subset of A fixed by G.
- (2) $Z^1(G, A)$ is the set of all functions $f: G \to A$ such that

$$f(\sigma\tau) = f(\sigma) + \sigma f(\tau),$$

for all $(\sigma, \tau) \in G^2$.

- (3) $B^1(G, A)$ is the set of all functions $f: G \to A$ such that there exists $x \in A$ and $f(\sigma) = \sigma(x) x$, for all $\sigma \in G$.
- (4) $Z^2(G, A)$ is the set of all functions $f: G \times G \to A$ such that

$$f(\rho, \sigma) + f(\rho\sigma, \tau) = \rho f(\sigma, \tau) + f(\rho, \sigma\tau),$$

for all $(\rho, \sigma, \tau) \in G^3$.

(5) $B^2(G, A)$ is the set of all functions $f: G \times G \to A$ such that there exists $g: G \to A$ and $f(\sigma, \tau) = \sigma g(\tau) - g(\sigma \tau) + g(\sigma)$, for all $(\sigma, \tau) \in G^2$.

PROOF. Follows straight from (5.1) and the definitions.

COROLLARY 12.5.12. In the above context, the normalized cocycles and coboundaries in degrees 1 and 2 are:

(1) $Z^1(G,A)$ is the set of all functions $f:G\to A$ such that f(1)=0, and

$$f(\sigma\tau) = f(\sigma) + \sigma f(\tau),$$

for all $(\sigma, \tau) \in G^2$.

(2) $Z^2(G, A)$ is the set of all functions $f: G \times G \to A$ such that

$$f(\rho, \sigma) + f(\rho\sigma, \tau) = \rho f(\sigma, \tau) + f(\rho, \sigma\tau),$$

and $f(1,\tau) = f(\sigma,1) = 0$, for all $(\rho,\sigma,\tau) \in G^3$.

(3) $B^2(G, A)$ is the set of all functions $f: G \times G \to A$ such that there exists $g: G \to A$ where g(1) = 0 and $f(\sigma, \tau) = \sigma g(\tau) - g(\sigma \tau) + g(\sigma)$, for all $(\sigma, \tau) \in G^2$.

PROOF. Use the bar resolution $B_{\bullet} \to \mathbb{Z}$. In (5.1), d_n is zero whenever 1 appears in the *n*-tuple. Notice that elements of $B^1(G, A)$ are always normalized.

REMARK 12.5.13. For the record, we mention that the group $Z^3(G, A)$ is the set of all $f: G^3 \to A$ such that the 3-cocycle identity

$$f(\sigma_1\sigma_2,\sigma_3,\sigma_4) + f(\sigma_1,\sigma_2,\sigma_3\sigma_4) = f(\sigma_1,\sigma_2,\sigma_3) + \sigma_1 f(\sigma_2,\sigma_3,\sigma_4) + f(\sigma_1,\sigma_2\sigma_3,\sigma_4)$$

is satisfied for all $(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3, \sigma_4) \in G^4$. Moreover, to compute $H^3(G, A)$, normalized cocycles can be used. That is, $f(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, 1) = f(\sigma_1, 1, \sigma_3) = f(1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3) = 0$. The set of 3-coboundaries, $B^3(G, A)$, consists of all $f: G^3 \to A$ for which there exists $g: G \times G \to A$ and

$$f(\rho, \sigma, \tau) = \rho g(\sigma, \tau) - g(\rho \sigma, \tau) + g(\rho, \sigma \tau) - g(\sigma, \tau)$$

for all $(\rho, \sigma, \tau) \in G^3$.

5.4. Applications and Computations.

Definition 12.5.14. Let G be a group.

- (1) If $\theta: G \to K$ is a homomorphism of groups, and A is a $\mathbb{Z}K$ -module, then the ring homomorphism $\theta: \mathbb{Z}G \to \mathbb{Z}K$ makes A into a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module.
- (2) If H is a subgroup of G and A is a $\mathbb{Z}H$ -module, then $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(\mathbb{Z}G, A)$ is a left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module (see Lemma 6.5.1(1)) which is called the *induced* G-module.

Theorem 12.5.15. (Shapiro's Lemma) Let G be a group, H a subgroup of G, and A a $\mathbb{Z}H$ -module. There are isomorphisms

$$H^n(H, A) \cong H^n(G, Hom_{\mathbb{Z}H}(\mathbb{Z}G, A))$$

which are induced by the adjoint isomorphism of Theorem 6.5.10.

Proof. Since $\mathbb{Z}G$ is a free left $\mathbb{Z}H$ -module, this follows directly from the isomorphism

$$\operatorname{Ext}^n_{\mathbb{Z}H}(\mathbb{Z}G \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}G} \mathbb{Z}, A) \cong \operatorname{Ext}^n_{\mathbb{Z}G}(\mathbb{Z}, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(\mathbb{Z}G, A))$$

of Lemma 12.3.14 (2). It is also of interest to know how this map is defined on cochains. Let $Q_{\bullet} \to Z$ be the standard resolution of \mathbb{Z} as a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module. By

Proposition 4.2.39, $Q_{\bullet} \to Z$ is also a free resolution of \mathbb{Z} as a $\mathbb{Z}H$ -module. The adjoint isomorphism

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(Q_n, A) \xrightarrow{\phi} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}(Q_n, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(\mathbb{Z}G, A))$$

maps an *n*-cochain f to ϕf . If $y \in Q_n$, then $(\phi f)(y)$ is the element of $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(\mathbb{Z}G, A)$ defined by $(\phi f)(y)(x) = f(xy)$. The details are left to the reader.

Lemma 12.5.16. Let G be a group and A a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module.

(1) If $\psi: A \to B$ is a homomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}G$ -modules, then ψ induces a homomorphism

$$H^n(G,A) \to H^n(G,B)$$

of abelian groups, for each $n \geq 0$.

(2) If $\theta: H \to G$ is a homomorphism of groups, then θ induces a homomorphism

$$H^n(G,A) \to H^n(H,A)$$

of abelian groups, for each $n \geq 0$.

PROOF. (1): Follows from the fact that $\operatorname{Ext}^n_{\mathbb{Z}G}(\mathbb{Z},\cdot)$ is a covariant functor (see Section 12.3.4).

(2): Let $(Q_G)_{\bullet} \to \mathbb{Z}$ be the standard resolution for the $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module \mathbb{Z} , and $(Q_H)_{\bullet} \to \mathbb{Z}$ the counterpart for the $\mathbb{Z}H$ -module. The homomorphism $\theta: H \to G$ induces a homomorphism $H^n \to G^n$, for each n. For each n, $(Q_H)_n$ is free on H^n and $(Q_H)_n$ is free on G^n . Hence there is an induced morphism

$$(5.2) \theta: (Q_G)_{\bullet} \to (Q_H)_{\bullet}$$

of complexes. Now suppose A is a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module, which is made into a $\mathbb{Z}H$ -module by virtue of $\theta : \mathbb{Z}H \to \mathbb{Z}G$. There are morphisms of complexes

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}((Q_G)_{\bullet}, A) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}((Q_H)_{\bullet}, A) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}((Q_H)_{\bullet}, A)$$

where the first morphism is induced by the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}(\cdot, A)$ applied to the morphism (5.2) and the second is induced by the map defined in Exercise 4.4.33. The rest follows from Lemma 12.1.3.

Definition 12.5.17. Let G be a group and A a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module.

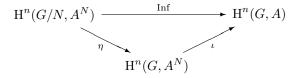
(1) If H is a subgroup of G, then the homomorphism of abelian groups

$$\operatorname{Res}: \operatorname{H}^n(G,A) \to \operatorname{H}^n(H,A)$$

defined in Lemma 12.5.16 (2) is called the restriction homomorphism. Suppose $f: G^n \to A$ is an n-cocycle in $\mathbb{Z}^n(G,A)$. Viewing H^n as a subset of G^n , the restriction of f defines $g: H^n \to A$ which is an n-cocycle in $\mathbb{Z}^n(H,A)$. The restriction homomorphism maps the cohomology class \bar{f} to \bar{g} .

(2) If N is a normal subgroup of G, then A^N can be made into a $\mathbb{Z}(G/N)$ module. The multiplication rule is induced by (gN)x = gx. The natural

map $\eta:G\to G/N$ and the set inclusion $\iota:A^N\to A$ induce homomorphisms



and the composite map, Inf, is called the *inflation homomorphism*. Suppose $f: (G/H)^n \to A^H$ is an n-cocycle in $Z^n(G/H, A^H)$. Define $g: G^n \to A$ by the rule $g(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n) = f(\bar{\sigma_1}, \ldots, \bar{\sigma_n})$, where $\bar{\sigma_i}$ is the coset represented by σ_i in G/H. Then g is an n-cocycle in $Z^n(G, A)$, and the inflation homomorphism maps the cohomology class \bar{f} to \bar{g} .

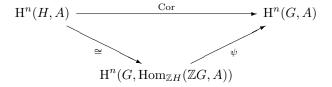
(3) Suppose H is a subgroup of G of finite index [G:H]=m and x_1,\ldots,x_m is a full set of left coset representatives for H. Let A be a left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module. The reader should verify that the map

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(\mathbb{Z}G,A) \xrightarrow{\psi} A$$

defined by $\psi(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i f(x_i^{-1})$ is a homomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}G$ -modules and does not depend on the choices of x_1, \ldots, x_m . This defines a homomorphism on cohomology groups

$$\mathrm{H}^n(G,\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(\mathbb{Z}G,A)) \xrightarrow{\psi} \mathrm{H}^n(G,A).$$

The corestriction homomorphism, denoted Cor, is defined by composing ψ with the isomorphism from Shapiro's Lemma (Theorem 12.5.15). By definition, the diagram



commutes. Using the description of the isomorphism in the proof of Theorem 12.5.15, we can describe the corestriction map on n-cocycles. Say f is a cocycle in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(Q_n,A)$ defining a cohomology class c in $\operatorname{H}^n(H,A)$. Then $\operatorname{Cor}(f)$ is a cocycle in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}(Q_n,A)$ which represents a cohomology class $\operatorname{Cor}(c)$ in $\operatorname{H}^n(G,A)$. If $g \in Q_n$, then

$$Cor(f)(y) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i \phi(f)(y)(x_i^{-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i f(x_i^{-1}y).$$

For example, consider the n=0 case. From Proposition 12.5.11, $Z^0(H,A)=A^H$. Then f is a constant valued function, say f(x)=a. In this case, Cor(f) is the constant valued function $\sum_{i=1}^m x_i a$. For a Galois extension of fields K/k with group G, the corestriction homomorphism in degree zero is the trace of Definition 5.7.2, when $A=K^+$, and it is the norm map when $A=K^*$. See Example 12.5.27.

THEOREM 12.5.18. Let H be a subgroup of G of finite index [G:H]=m. If A is a left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module, then

$$\operatorname{Cor}\operatorname{Res} \operatorname{H}^n(G,A) = m\operatorname{H}^n(G,A).$$

PROOF. Use the description of the corestriction given in Definition 12.5.17. Let f be a cocycle in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(Q_n, A)$ defining a cohomology class c in $\operatorname{H}^n(H, A)$. If f is in the image of Res: $\operatorname{H}^n(G, A)$, then f is $\mathbb{Z}G$ -linear. For any $y \in Q_n$,

$$Cor(f)(y) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i f(x_i^{-1} y) \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i x_i^{-1} f(y) = m f(y)$$

which proves the claim.

COROLLARY 12.5.19. If G is a finite group of order m and A is any $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module, then $m \operatorname{H}^n(G, A) = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$.

PROOF. If $H = \langle 1 \rangle$, then [G:H] = m. By Theorem 12.5.18, the diagram

$$H^{n}(G,A) \xrightarrow{m} H^{n}(G,A)$$
Res
$$H^{n}(H,A)$$

commutes, where the horizontal map is "multiplication by m". By Proposition 12.3.12(3), the group $\operatorname{Ext}^n_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z},A)=\operatorname{H}^n(\langle 1\rangle,A)$ is trivial for $n\geq 1$.

LEMMA 12.5.20. Let H be a subgroup of G of finite index [G:H]=m and x_1, \ldots, x_m a full set of left coset representatives for H. If A is a left $\mathbb{Z}H$ -module, then there is an isomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}G$ -modules

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(\mathbb{Z}G,A) \xrightarrow{\psi} \mathbb{Z}G \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}H} A$$

defined by $\psi(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i \otimes f(x_i^{-1}).$

PROOF. The reader should verify that the map ψ does not depend on the choices for x_1, \ldots, x_m . Notice that $\mathbb{Z}G \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^m x_i \mathbb{Z}H$ as right $\mathbb{Z}H$ -modules. By Lemma 6.4.15,

$$\mathbb{Z}G \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}H} A \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^m x_i \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}H} A$$

as left \mathbb{Z} -modules. Also, $\mathbb{Z}G\cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^m \mathbb{Z}Hx_i^{-1}$ as left $\mathbb{Z}H$ -modules. By Proposition 6.5.8,

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(\mathbb{Z}G, A) \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^m \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(\mathbb{Z}Hx_i^{-1}, A)$$

as left \mathbb{Z} -modules. The reader should verify that f in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(\mathbb{Z}Hx_i^{-1},A)$ is mapped by ψ to $x_i \otimes f(x_i^{-1})$ and hence ψ is bijective. We check that ψ is $\mathbb{Z}G$ -linear. Let $g \in G$. Right multiplication by g is a permutation of the right cosets of H. For each i, there is a unique i' and $h_i \in H$ such that $x_i^{-1}g = h_ix_{i'}^{-1}$, or equivalently $x_ih_i = gx_{i'}$. Let $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}H}(\mathbb{Z}G,A)$. For $x \in \mathbb{Z}G$, (gf)(x) = f(xg). Therefore, $\psi(gf) = \sum x_i \otimes f(x_i^{-1}g) = \sum x_i \otimes f(h_ix_{i'}^{-1}) = \sum x_ih_i \otimes f(x_{i'}^{-1}) = \sum gx_{i'} \otimes f(x_{i'}^{-1}) = g\psi(f)$.

5.4.1. Cohomology of a Finite Cyclic Group.

LEMMA 12.5.21. Let $G = \langle \sigma \rangle$ be a finite cyclic group of order m. In $\mathbb{Z}G$, let $D = \sigma - 1$, and $N = 1 + \sigma + \cdots + \sigma^{m-1}$. Then multiplication by D and N, together with the augmentation map ϵ define an exact sequence

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{N} \mathbb{Z}G \xrightarrow{D} \mathbb{Z}G \xrightarrow{N} \mathbb{Z}G \xrightarrow{D} \mathbb{Z}G \xrightarrow{\rho} \mathbb{Z} \to 0$$

which is a free resolution of the trivial $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module \mathbb{Z} .

PROOF. The maps are $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module homomorphisms because G is abelian. The kernel of ϵ is equal to the image of D, by Example 3.2.53). These quence is a complex, since DN = ND = $0.Letx = \sum a_i \sigma^i$ be a typical element of $\mathbb{Z}G$. Then

$$x = a_0 + a_1\sigma + a_2\sigma^2 + \dots + a_{m-1}\sigma^{m-1}$$

$$\sigma x = a_{m-1} + a_0\sigma + a_1\sigma^2 + \dots + a_{m-2}\sigma^{m-1}$$

$$\sigma^2 x = a_{m-2} + a_{m-1}\sigma + a_0\sigma^2 + \dots + a_{m-3}\sigma^{m-1}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\sigma^{m-1} x = a_1 + a_2\sigma + a_3\sigma^2 + \dots + a_0\sigma^{m-1}$$

If $x = \sigma x$, then (5.3) shows that $a_0 = a_1 = \cdots = a_{m-1}$, hence $x = Na_0$. Thus $\ker D = \operatorname{im} N$. It follows from (5.3) that $Nx = (\sum_i a_i)N$. If Nx = 0, then $\sum_i a_i = 0$. Hence, the kernel of N is equal to the kernel of N. Thus $\ker N = \operatorname{im} D$.

Let $G = \langle \sigma \rangle$ be a finite cyclic group of order m. In $\mathbb{Z}G$, let $D = \sigma - 1$, and $N = 1 + \sigma + \cdots + \sigma^{m-1}$. For any $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module A, left multiplication by D and N define $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module endomorphisms $D: A \to A, \ N: A \to A$. The images are denoted DA and NA, respectively. The kernel of D is A^G , and the kernel of N is denoted A^G and A^G are A^G and A^G are the groups A^G and A^G do not depend on the choice of A^G .

THEOREM 12.5.22. Let G be a finite cyclic group. For any $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module A,

$$\mathbf{H}^n(G,A) = \begin{cases} A^G & \text{if } n = 0, \\ {}_N A/DA & \text{if } n \text{ is odd,} \\ A^G/NA & \text{if } n > 0 \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

PROOF. Apply the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G}(\cdot,A)$ to the resolution of \mathbb{Z} in Lemma 12.5.21.

Corollary 12.5.23. If G is a finite cyclic group of order m and A is a trivial $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module, then

$$H^{n}(G,A) = \begin{cases} A & \text{if } n = 0, \\ {}_{m}A & \text{if } n \text{ is odd,} \\ A/mA & \text{if } n > 0 \text{ is even,} \end{cases}$$

where $_{m}A = \{x \in A \mid mx = 0\}, \text{ and } mA = \{mx \mid x \in A\}.$

PROOF. The map D is the zero operator on A, and N is the multiplication by m operator. \Box

COROLLARY 12.5.24. Let $G = \langle \sigma \rangle$ be a finite cyclic group of order n and A a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module (written multiplicatively). If $m \mid n, \tau = \sigma^{n/m}$, and $H = \langle \tau \rangle$ is the subgroup of order m, then the image of the inflation homomorphism (Definition 12.5.17 (2))

Inf:
$$H^2(G/H, A^H) \to H^2(G, A)$$

is divisible by m. That is, for any $z \in H^2(G/H, A^H)$, there exists $y \in H^2(G, A)$ such that $Inf(z) = y^m$.

PROOF. Let $\bar{z} \in H^2(G/H, A^H)$. Write $\bar{\sigma}$ for the coset represented by σ in G/H. By Exercise 12.5.34, there is $a \in A^G$ such that \bar{z} is represented by a 2-cocycle $z: (G/H) \times (G/H) \to A^H$ of the form

$$z(\bar{\sigma}^i, \bar{\sigma}^j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i+j < n/m \\ a & \text{if } i+j \ge n/m \end{cases}$$

for $0 \le i, j < n/m$. The image of \bar{z} under the inflation homomorphism is represented by the 2-cocycle $\xi: G \times G \to A$ defined by $\xi(\sigma^i, \sigma^j) = z(\bar{\sigma}^i, \bar{\sigma}^j)$. By Exercise 12.5.34, there is an isomorphism $H^2(G, A) \to A^G/NA$ which is induced by $\xi \mapsto a_{\xi}$, where

$$a_{\xi} = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1} \xi(\sigma^j, \sigma)$$

$$= \prod_{k=0}^{m-1} \prod_{i=0}^{n/m-1} \xi\left((\sigma^{n/m})^k \sigma^i, \sigma\right)$$

$$= a^m.$$

By Exercise 12.5.34, ξ is cohomologous to χ_a^m , where

$$\chi_a(\sigma^i, \sigma^j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i + j < n \\ a & \text{if } i + j \ge n \end{cases}$$

for $0 \le i, j < n$.

5.4.2. Application to Galois Cohomology of Fields. Let F be a field and G a finite group of automorphisms of F. Write F^+ for the additive group of F, and F^* for the group of units. Theorem 12.5.25 is a generalization of Theorem 5.7.5.

Theorem 12.5.25. Let F be a field and G a finite group of automorphisms of F.

- (1) (Hilbert's Theorem 90) $H^1(G, F^*) = \langle 1 \rangle$.
- (2) For all $n \ge 1$, $H^n(G, F^+) = \langle 0 \rangle$.

PROOF. (1): Let $f \in \mathbf{Z}^1(G, F^*)$ be a 1-cocycle. By Proposition 12.5.11, we can assume $f: G \to F^*$ and $f(\sigma \tau) = f(\sigma) \sigma f(\tau)$. By Lemma 5.2.5, there exists $x \in F$ such that

$$\alpha = \sum_{\tau \in G} f(\tau)\tau(x) \neq 0.$$

In other words, α is a unit in F. For any $\sigma \in G$ we have $\sigma(\alpha) = \sum_{\tau \in G} \sigma f(\tau) \sigma \tau(x)$. By the 1-cocycle identity, $\sigma(\alpha) = \left(\sum_{\tau \in G} \sigma f(\sigma \tau) \sigma \tau(x)\right) f(\sigma)^{-1} = \alpha f(\sigma)^{-1}$. Therefore, $f(\sigma) = \alpha/\sigma(\alpha)$, for all $\sigma \in G$, which proves f is the 1-coboundary defined by α .

(2): By Exercise 12.5.28, $F^+ \cong \mathbb{Z}G \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} k^+$. This follows from Exercise 12.5.30 (1).

COROLLARY 12.5.26. Let F be a finite field, G a group of automorphisms of F, and $k = F^G$. Then

$$\mathrm{H}^n(G, F^*) = \begin{cases} k^* & \text{if } n = 0, \\ \langle 1 \rangle & \text{if } n > 0. \end{cases}$$

PROOF. By Theorem 5.5.3, G is a finite cyclic group. If n=0 or n is odd, this follows from Theorem 12.5.25 and Theorem 12.5.22. If n is even, then by Exercise 5.7.7, $NF^* = k^*$, and this follows from Theorem 12.5.22.

EXAMPLE 12.5.27. Let K/k be a Galois extension of fields with finite group G. Let H be a subgroup of G and let $F = K^H$. In degree zero the corestriction homomorphism $\operatorname{Cor}: \operatorname{H}^n(H,K^+) \to \operatorname{H}^n(G,K^+)$ is $\operatorname{Cor}: F^+ \to k^+$. If τ_1,\ldots,τ_m is a complete set of left coset representatives for H in G, then for $\alpha \in F$, $\operatorname{Cor}(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^m \tau_i(\alpha)$. This agrees with the trace map of Definition 5.7.2. That is, $\operatorname{Cor}(\alpha) = T_k^F(\alpha)$. In degree zero the corestriction homomorphism $\operatorname{Cor}: \operatorname{H}^n(H,K^*) \to \operatorname{H}^n(G,K^*)$ is $\operatorname{Cor}: F^* \to k^*$. This corestriction homomorphism is the norm function N_k^F of Definition 5.7.2.

5.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 12.5.28. Let F/k be a Galois extension of fields with finite group G.

- (1) Show that the additive group F^+ is a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module.
- (2) Show that there is an isomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}G$ -modules $\phi: \mathbb{Z}G \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} k^+ \to F^+$. (Hint: By the Primitive Element Theorem (Theorem 5.4.7) $F = k(\alpha)$ for some element α . Define $\phi(\sigma \otimes a) = \sigma(\alpha)a$.)

EXERCISE 12.5.29. Let $G = \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{C})$ be the Galois group of \mathbb{C}/\mathbb{R} . Prove that

$$\mathrm{H}^n(G,\mathbb{C}^*) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{R}^* & \text{if } n = 0, \\ \langle 1 \rangle & \text{if } n \text{ is odd,} \\ \langle -1 \rangle & \text{if } n \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

EXERCISE 12.5.30. Let G be a finite group.

- (1) Prove that the induced $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module $\mathbb{Z}G \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} A$ has trivial cohomology, for any abelian group A. That is, $\operatorname{H}^n(G, \mathbb{Z}G \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} A) = (0)$, for all n > 0. (Hint: Use Lemma 12.5.20, Theorem 12.5.15, and Example 12.5.2.)
- (2) In [54], a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module M is said to be relatively projective if M is a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module direct summand of an induced G-module $\mathbb{Z}G \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} A$ for some \mathbb{Z} -module A. Prove that $H^n(G,M)=(0)$, for all n>0, if M is relatively projective. The reader is also referred to [14] where such modules are called weakly projective. (Hint: Proposition 12.3.12 (6).)

EXERCISE 12.5.31. Let G be a finite group and $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$ a collection of $\mathbb{Z}G$ -modules. If $H^1(G, A_i) = 0$ for each $i \in I$, then $H^1(G, \bigoplus_i A_i) = 0$.

EXERCISE 12.5.32. Let G be a finite group and $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$ a collection of $\mathbb{Z}G$ -modules. Then for all $r \geq 0$, $H^r(G, \bigoplus_i A_i) = \bigoplus_i H^r(G, A_i)$. (Hint: Apply Exercise 6.8.40 to the bar resolution of \mathbb{Z} .)

EXERCISE 12.5.33. Let $G = \langle \sigma \rangle$ be a finite cyclic group of order n. Let A be a left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module (written multiplicatively). In this exercise we outline a proof that $H^1(G,A) \cong {}_NA/DA$ (Theorem 12.5.22) by exhibiting the isomorphism on normalized 1-cocycles. Let $Z^1(G,A)$ be the normalized 1-cocycles and $B^1(G,A)$ the normalized 1-coboundaries, as defined in Corollary 12.5.12. Define a function $\theta: \mathrm{Z}^1(G,A) \to A$ by the rule $\theta(\xi) = \xi(\sigma)$. Define another function $\chi: {}_NA \to A$ $\operatorname{Map}(G,A)$ by the rule $b \mapsto \chi_b$, where $\chi_b(\sigma^i) = b\sigma(b) \cdots \sigma^{i-1}(b)$, for all 0 < i. Prove the following.

- (1) θ induces a homomorphism of groups $H^1(G,A) \to {}_N A/DA$.
- (2) χ induces a homomorphism of groups $_{N}A/DA \to H^{1}(G,A)$.
- (3) The homomorphisms of (1) and (2) are inverses of each other.

EXERCISE 12.5.34. Let $G = \langle \sigma \rangle$ be a finite cyclic group of order n. Let A be a left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module (written multiplicatively). In this exercise we outline a proof that $H^2(G,A) \cong A^G/NA$ (Theorem 12.5.22) by exhibiting the isomorphism on normalized 2-cocycles. Let $Z^2(G,A)$ be the normalized 2-cocycles and $B^2(G,A)$ the 2-coboundaries, as defined in Corollary 12.5.12. Define a function $\theta: \mathbb{Z}^2(G,A) \to A$ by the rule

$$\theta(\xi) = a_{\xi} = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1} \xi(\sigma^j, \sigma).$$

Define another function $\phi: A^G \to \operatorname{Map}(G \times G, A)$ by the rule $\phi(a) = \phi_a$, where

$$\phi_a(\sigma^i, \sigma^j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i + j < n \\ a & \text{if } i + j \ge n \end{cases}$$

for all $0 \le i, j \le n - 1$. Prove the following.

- (1) θ and ϕ are homomorphisms of groups.
- (2) The image of θ is contained in A^G .
- (3) If $\xi \in B^2(G, A)$, then a_{ξ} is in NA.
- (4) θ induces a homomorphism of groups $H^2(G, A) \to A^G/NA$. (5) If $a \in A^G$, then $\phi_a(\sigma^i, \sigma^j)\phi_a(\sigma^{i+j}, \sigma^k) = \phi_a(\sigma^j, \sigma^k)\phi_a(\sigma^i, \sigma^{j+k})$. Therefore, the image of ϕ is contained in $Z^2(G, A)$.
- (6) Let $b \in A$, and assume $a = b\sigma(b) \cdots \sigma^{n-1}(b) = N(b)$. Define $\chi: G \to A$

$$\chi(\sigma^i) = \begin{cases} 1 & i = 0\\ b\sigma(b) \cdots \sigma^{i-1}(b) & 0 < i < n. \end{cases}$$

Then ϕ_a is the 2-coboundary defined by χ .

- (7) ϕ induces a homomorphism of groups $A^G/NA \to H^2(G,A)$.
- (8) The homomorphisms of (4) and (7) are inverses of each other, hence $\mathrm{H}^2(G,A) \cong A^G/NA$.

EXERCISE 12.5.35. Let G be a group, H a normal subgroup of G, and A a left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module.

(1) If $n \ge 1$, show that Res \circ Inf: $H^n(G/H, A^H) \to H^n(H, A)$ is the zero map. (Hint: Use normalized cocycles and the descriptions of the maps given in Definition 12.5.14.)

(2) Show that the sequence

$$0 \to \mathrm{H}^1(G/H, A^H) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{Inf}} \mathrm{H}^1(G, A) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{Res}} \mathrm{H}^1(H, A)$$

is exact.

EXERCISE 12.5.36. In this exercise we construct an example of a \mathbb{Z}/n -module which is not free. Let $G = \langle \sigma \rangle$ be a finite cyclic group of order n and $M = \mathbb{Z}^{(n-1)}$ the free \mathbb{Z} -module of rank n-1 with standard basis e_1,\ldots,e_{n-1} . Let C be the (n-1)-by-(n-1) companion matrix of the cyclotomic polynomial $x^{n-1}+x^{n-2}+\cdots+x+1$. Let $\sigma:M\to M$ be the homomorphism defined by C with respect to the standard basis. Show that this makes M into a left $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module and

$$\mathrm{H}^r(G,M) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } r \text{ is even,} \\ \mathbb{Z}/n & \text{if } r \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

6. Theory of Faithfully Flat Descent

6.1. The Amitsur Complex. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. Let $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a family of R-modules. For any n+1-tuple (i_0,\ldots,i_n) in $I^{(n+1)}$, and for any j such that $0 \le j \le n+1$, there is an R-module homomorphism

$$M_{i_0} \otimes_R \cdots \otimes_R M_{i_n} \xrightarrow{e_j} M_{i_0} \otimes_R \cdots \otimes_R M_{i_{j-1}} \otimes_R S \otimes_R M_{i_j} \otimes_R \cdots \otimes_R M_{i_n}$$
$$(x_0 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_n) \mapsto x_0 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{j-1} \otimes 1 \otimes x_j \otimes \cdots \otimes x_n.$$

By $S^{\otimes r}$ we denote $S \otimes_R \cdots \otimes_R S$, the tensor product of r copies of S. The Amitsur complex for S/R is

$$0 \to R \xrightarrow{\theta} S \xrightarrow{d^0} S^{\otimes 2} \xrightarrow{d^1} S^{\otimes 3} \xrightarrow{d^2} \cdots$$

where the coboundary map $d^r: S^{\otimes (r+1)} \to S^{\otimes (r+2)}$ is defined to be $d^r = \sum_{i=0}^{r+1} (-1)^i e_i$. Denote this complex by $C^{\bullet}(S/R)$. The reader should verify that $e_j e_i = e_{i+1} e_j$ for all j < i, and that this is a complex of R-modules.

Proposition 12.6.1. Let S be a commutative faithfully flat R algebra.

- (1) The Amitsur complex $C^{\bullet}(S/R)$ is an exact sequence.
- (2) If M is any R-module, then the complex $M \otimes_R C^{\bullet}(S/R)$

$$0 \to M \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \theta} M \otimes_R S \xrightarrow{1 \otimes d^0} M \otimes S^{\otimes 2} \xrightarrow{1 \otimes d^1} M \otimes S^{\otimes 3} \xrightarrow{1 \otimes d^2} \cdots$$

is an exact sequence.

PROOF. (1): Step 1: Show that $C^{\bullet}(S/R)$ is exact if there exists an R-module homomorphism $\sigma: S \to R$ which is a splitting map for the structure homomorphism $\theta: R \to S$. This is true for example, if S is faithful and $R \cdot 1$ is an R-direct summand of S. Define a homotopy operator $k^r: S^{\otimes (r+2)} \to S^{\otimes (r+1)}$ by $k^r(x_0 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{r+1}) = \sigma(x_0)x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{r+1}$. It follows from

$$k^{r}d^{r}(x_{0} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{r}) = k^{r} \sum_{i=0}^{r} (-1)^{r}e_{i}(x_{0} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{r})$$
$$= x_{0} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{r} - \sigma(x_{0}) \otimes x_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{r} + \sigma(x_{0})x_{1} \otimes 1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{r} + \cdots$$

and

$$d^{r-1}k^{r-1}(x_0 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_r) = d^{r-1}(\sigma(x_0)x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_r)$$

= $1 \otimes \sigma(x_0)x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_r - \sigma(x_0)x_1 \otimes 1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_r + \cdots$

that $k^r d^r + d^{r-1} k^{r-1}$ is the identity map on $S^{\otimes (r+1)}$. By Exercise 12.1.15, the complex is an exact sequence.

Step 2: If T is another commutative R-algebra, then $C^{\bullet}(S \otimes_R T/T)$, the Amitsur complex for $S \otimes_R T$ over T, is obtained by applying the functor $(\cdot) \otimes_R T$ to the complex $C^{\bullet}(S/R)$. This is because $S^{\otimes r} \otimes_R T \cong (S \otimes_R T)^{\otimes r}$.

Step 3: Let $\rho: S \to S \otimes_R S$ by $a \mapsto a \otimes 1$. Define $\mu: S \otimes_R S \to S$ by $\mu(a \otimes b) = ab$. Then μ is a splitting map for ρ and by Step 1 the Amitsur complex $C^{\bullet}(S \otimes_R S/S)$ for $\rho: S \to S \otimes_R S$ is exact. Since $C^{\bullet}(S \otimes_R S/S)$ is exact and S is faithfully flat, by Step 2 applied to S, it follows that $C^{\bullet}(S/R)$ is exact.

(2): As in (1), assume there is a section and construct a contracting homotopy. The rest is left to the reader. \Box

6.2. The Descent of Elements.

EXAMPLE 12.6.2. Let R be a commutative ring and $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ a set of n elements of R such that $R = R\alpha_1 + \cdots + R\alpha_n$. For the localization of R with respect to the multiplicative set $\{\alpha^n \mid n \geq 0\}$, write R_{α} instead of $R[\alpha^{-1}]$. By Lemma 7.3.3, $U(\alpha_1), \ldots, U(\alpha_n)$ is an open cover for the Zariski topology on Spec R. By Exercise 7.5.28, $S = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n R_{\alpha_i}$ is faithfully flat over R. Using Lemma 7.1.1, we identify $R_{\alpha_i} \otimes_R R_{\alpha_j}$ with $R_{\alpha_i \alpha_j}$. Then the Amitsur complex $C^{\bullet}(S/R)$ looks like

$$0 \to R \xrightarrow{\theta} \bigoplus_{i \in I_n} R_{\alpha_i} \xrightarrow{d^0} \bigoplus_{(i,j) \in I_n^2} R_{\alpha_i \alpha_j} \xrightarrow{d^1} \bigoplus_{(i,j,k) \in I_n^3} R_{\alpha_i \alpha_j \alpha_k} \xrightarrow{d^2} \cdots$$

where $I_n = \{1, ..., n\}$. By Proposition 12.6.1, this sequence is exact, so we know that an element $y \in R$ is completely determined by a set of local data $x = (x_1, ..., x_n) \in S$ such that $x_i = x_j$ in $R_{\alpha_i \alpha_j}$.

The element y can be constructed from the local data x and the elements α_i . For some $p \geq 0$ there exist y_1, \ldots, y_n in R such that $x_i = y_i \alpha_i^{-p}$. Assuming $d^0(x) = 0$, there exists $q \geq 0$ such that for all i, j pairs

$$(\alpha_i \alpha_j)^q (\alpha_j^p y_i - \alpha_i^p y_j) = 0.$$

Since $R = R\alpha_1^{q+p} + \cdots + R\alpha_n^{q+p}$, there exist $g_i \in R$ such that $1 = g_1\alpha_1^{q+p} + \cdots + g_n\alpha_n^{q+p}$. Set $y = g_1\alpha_1^q y_1 + \cdots + g_n\alpha_n^q y_n$. The reader should verify that $y = y_j\alpha_j^{-p} = x_j$ in R_{α_j} , hence $\theta(y) = x$.

EXAMPLE 12.6.3. Let R be a commutative ring, P a finitely generated projective R-module, and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(P,P)$. In this example, we show how to construct the characteristic polynomial of ϕ . Let α_1,\ldots,α_n be a set of n elements of R such that $R=R\alpha_1+\cdots+R\alpha_n$ and $P_{\alpha_i}=P\otimes_R R_{\alpha_i}$ is free of finite rank over R_{α_i} . Let $S=\bigoplus_{i=1}^n R_{\alpha_i}$ and as in Example 12.6.2 identify $S^{\otimes 2}=\bigoplus_{(i,j)} R_{\alpha_i\alpha_j}$. Then $S[x]=S\otimes_R R[x]=\bigoplus_{i=1}^n R_{\alpha_i}[x]$ and $S^{\otimes 2}[x]=\bigoplus_{(i,j)} R_{\alpha_i\alpha_j}[x]$. The Amitsur complex $C^{\bullet}(S[x]/R[x])$ becomes

$$0 \to R[x] \xrightarrow{\theta} \bigoplus_{i \in I_n} R_{\alpha_i}[x] \xrightarrow{d^0} \bigoplus_{(i,j) \in I_n^2} R_{\alpha_i \alpha_j}[x] \xrightarrow{d^1} \cdots$$

which is an exact sequence, because S[x] is faithfully flat over R[x].

For each i, let $\phi_i = \phi \otimes 1 \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R_{\alpha_i}}(P_{\alpha_i}, P_{\alpha_i})$. By Definition 4.7.11, the characteristic polynomial $p_i(x) = \operatorname{char.poly}_{R_{\alpha_i}}(\phi_i)$ can be computed as a determinant of $x - \phi_i$ and does not depend on the choice of a basis of P_{α_i} . The polynomial $p_i(x)$ is an element of $R_{\alpha_i}[x]$. We remark that the determinant operator commutes with change of base ring. In other words, if $\theta: A \to B$ is a homomorphism of commutative rings and M is a matrix in $M_n(A)$, then $\det(\theta(M)) = \theta(\det(M))$. This follows straight from Definition 4.7.4. Therefore, if $\phi_{ij} = \phi \otimes 1 \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R_{\alpha_i\alpha_j}}(P_{\alpha_i\alpha_j}, P_{\alpha_i\alpha_j})$, then in $R_{\alpha_i\alpha_j}[x]$ we have the equalities char. $\operatorname{poly}_{R_{\alpha_i}}(\phi_i) = \operatorname{char.poly}_{R_{\alpha_i\alpha_j}}(\phi_j)$. This says $d^0(p_1(x), \ldots, p_n(x)) = 0$. Therefore, the local data $(p_1(x), \ldots, p_n(x))$ descend to a polynomial p(x) in R[x]. The polynomial p(x) is usually denoted by char. $\operatorname{poly}_{R}(\phi)$ and is called the characteristic polynomial of ϕ .

Now we show that the polynomial char. $\operatorname{poly}_R(\phi)$ just constructed does not depend on the open cover of $\operatorname{Spec} R$. Let β_1, \ldots, β_m be another set of elements in R that generated the unit ideal and such that P_{β_j} is free over R_{β_j} for each j. Let

 $T = \bigoplus_{j=1}^m R_{\beta_j}$ and by the above method, let q(x) be the characteristic polynomial of ϕ constructed using the faithfully flat R-algebra T. We show that q(x) is equal to the polynomial p(x) which was constructed initially. Notice that $S \otimes_R T$ is a faithfully flat R-algebra and we can identify $S \otimes_R T = \bigoplus_{(i,j)} R_{\alpha_i\beta_j}$. The image of p(x) in $R_{\alpha_i\beta_j}[x]$ is equal to the image of q(x) in $R_{\alpha_i\beta_j}[x]$. Since the Amitsur complex $C^{\bullet}(S \otimes_R T[x]/R[x])$ is exact, this proves p(x) = q(x).

Now we prove the Cayley-Hamilton theorem applies to $p(x) = \text{char.poly}_R(\phi)$. Since S is faithfully flat over R, by Proposition 12.6.1, the sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(P, P) \xrightarrow{\theta} \operatorname{Hom}_R(P, P) \otimes_R S$$

is exact. We identify $\operatorname{Hom}_R(P,P) \otimes_R S$ with $\bigoplus_{i=1}^n \operatorname{Hom}_{R_{\alpha_i}}(P_{\alpha_i}, P_{\alpha_i})$. The image of $p(\phi)$ under θ is $(p_1(\phi_1), \dots, p_n(\phi_n))$. By Theorem 4.7.12, this image is $(0, \dots, 0)$, which means $p(\phi) = 0$.

If $\operatorname{Rank}_R(P) = n$ is defined, then the characteristic polynomial will have constant degree n. Let char. $\operatorname{poly}_R(\phi) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$. Following Exercise 4.7.28, we define the *determinant* of ϕ to be $\det(\phi) = (-1)^n a_0$ and the *trace* of ϕ to be $\operatorname{trace}(\phi) = -a_{n-1}$. The reader should verify that $\det(\phi\psi) = \det(\phi) \det(\psi)$.

6.3. Descent of Homomorphisms. Let S be a commutative R-algebra and M and N a pair of R-modules. The goal is to find sufficient conditions on a homomorphism $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_S(M \otimes_R S, N \otimes_R S)$ such that $g = f \otimes 1$ for some $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$. The maps $e_i : S \to S \otimes_R S$ defined by $e_0(s) = 1 \otimes s$ and $e_1(s) = s \otimes 1$ are both R-algebra homomorphisms. Therefore, $S \otimes_R S$ is an S-algebra in two different ways. Tensoring e_i with $(M \otimes_R S) \otimes_S ()$ we get the maps of Paragraph 12.6.1

$$e_i: M \otimes_R S \to (M \otimes_R S) \otimes_S (S \otimes_R S) \cong M \otimes_R S \otimes_R S$$

where $e_0(x \otimes s) = x \otimes 1 \otimes s$ and $e_1(x \otimes s) = x \otimes s \otimes 1$. Assign the appellation \mathfrak{F}_i to the functor "tensoring with the S-algebra $e_i : S \to S \otimes_R S$ ". There is a commutative square

$$\begin{array}{ccc} M \otimes_R S & \stackrel{e_i}{\longrightarrow} & M \otimes_R S \otimes_R S \\ \downarrow g & & \downarrow \mathfrak{F}_i(g) \\ N \otimes_R S & \stackrel{e_i}{\longrightarrow} & N \otimes_R S \otimes_R S \end{array}$$

for i = 0, 1 and $\mathfrak{F}_i(g)$ is an $S \otimes_R S$ -module homomorphism.

Proposition 12.6.4. Let R be a commutative ring, S a faithfully flat commutative R-algebra, and M and N a pair of R-modules. The sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}} \operatorname{Hom}_S(M \otimes_R S, N \otimes_R S)$$
$$\xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}_0 - \mathfrak{F}_1} \operatorname{Hom}_{S \otimes_R S}(M \otimes_R S \otimes_R S, N \otimes_R S \otimes_R S)$$

is exact, where $\mathfrak{F}(f) = f \otimes 1$ and \mathfrak{F}_0 , \mathfrak{F}_1 are defined in the previous paragraph.

PROOF. Since each \mathfrak{F}_i is an additive functor, $\mathfrak{F}_0 - \mathfrak{F}_1$ is a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism. If $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$, then the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow M \otimes_R S \xrightarrow{d^0} M \otimes_R S \otimes_R S$$

$$\downarrow f \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow f \otimes 1 \qquad \qquad \downarrow f \otimes 1 \otimes 1$$

$$0 \longrightarrow N \otimes_R S \xrightarrow{d^0} N \otimes_R S \otimes_R S$$

commutes and the rows are exact. Therefore, \mathfrak{F} is one-to-one and $f \otimes 1 \otimes 1 = 0$. To complete the proof, we show $\ker(\mathfrak{F}_0 - \mathfrak{F}_1) \subseteq \operatorname{im}(\mathfrak{F})$. Let $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_S(M \otimes_R S, N \otimes_R S)$ and assume $\mathfrak{F}_0(g) = \mathfrak{F}_1(g)$. Given $m \in M$ we have $e_0(m \otimes 1) = e_1(m \otimes 1)$, so

$$e_0g(m\otimes 1)=\mathfrak{F}_0(g)e_0(m\otimes 1)=\mathfrak{F}_0(g)e_1(m\otimes 1)=\mathfrak{F}_1(g)e_1(m\otimes 1)=e_1g(m\otimes 1).$$

By Proposition 12.6.1, this proves that $g(m\otimes 1)\in N\otimes_R 1$. Define $f:M\to N$ by $f(m)=g(m\otimes 1)$. Then $g=\mathfrak{F}(f)$.

EXAMPLE 12.6.5. Let R be a commutative ring and P a finitely generated projective R-module. By Lemma 6.9.1, $\theta_R: P^* \otimes_R P \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(P,P)$ is an isomorphism of R-modules, where $\theta_R(f \otimes p)(x) = f(x)p$. Define $T: P^* \otimes_R P \to R$ by $T(f \otimes p) = f(p)$. By Exercise 9.6.19, this induces an R-module homomorphism $T: \operatorname{Hom}_R(P,P) \to R$ which is equal to the trace map of Exercise 4.7.26 and the trace map of Definition 9.6.6, when P is free. As in Example 12.6.2, let $R \to S$ be a faithfully flat R-algebra such that $P \otimes_R S$ is free. Upon change of base, $T \otimes 1: \operatorname{Hom}_S(P \otimes_R S, P \otimes_R S) \to S$ is the trace map of Exercise 4.7.26. By Proposition 12.6.4, the map T is equal to the trace map of Definition 9.6.6. Assuming $\operatorname{Rank}_R(P)$ is defined, we also see that T is equal to the trace defined in Example 12.6.3 using the characteristic polynomial.

6.4. Descent of Modules. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. Given S-modules A, B, C and D and an $S \otimes_R S$ -module homomorphism $f: A \otimes_R B \to C \otimes_R D$, there are three $S \otimes_R S \otimes_R S$ -module homomorphisms

$$f_1: S \otimes_R A \otimes_R B \to S \otimes_R C \otimes_R D$$
$$f_2: A \otimes_R S \otimes_R B \to C \otimes_R S \otimes_R D$$
$$f_3: A \otimes_R B \otimes_R S \to C \otimes_R D \otimes_R S$$

where f_i is obtained by tensoring f with the identity map on S in position i. We employ this construction in the following setting. Start with any S-module M. Then $S \otimes_R M$ and $M \otimes_R S$ are two $S \otimes_R S$ -modules. Then an $S \otimes_R S$ -module homomorphism $g: S \otimes_R M \to M \otimes_R S$ gives rise to three $S \otimes_R S \otimes_R S$ -module homomorphisms

$$g_1: S \otimes_R S \otimes_R M \to S \otimes_R M \otimes_R S$$

$$g_2: S \otimes_R S \otimes_R M \to M \otimes_R S \otimes_R S$$

$$g_3: S \otimes_R M \otimes_R S \to M \otimes_R S \otimes_R S.$$

The ring homomorphism θ induces $\theta: M \to S \otimes_R M$, where $x \mapsto 1 \otimes x$. Let $\mu: M \otimes_R S \to M$ be the multiplication map, where $x \otimes s \mapsto sx$. The composition

$$S \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{g} M \otimes_R S \xrightarrow{\mu} M \xrightarrow{\theta} S \otimes_R M$$

upon restriction to im θ induces an S-module homomorphism which will be denoted by $\bar{g}: 1 \otimes_R M \to 1 \otimes_R M$. Then $\bar{g}(1 \otimes m) = 1 \otimes \mu g(1 \otimes m)$.

Proposition 12.6.6. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings, M an S-module and $g: S \otimes_R M \to M \otimes_R S$ an $S \otimes_R S$ -module homomorphism. The following are equivalent.

- (1) \bar{g} is the identity map on $1 \otimes_R M$ and $g_2 = g_3 g_1$.
- (2) g is an isomorphism of $S \otimes_R S$ -modules and $g_2 = g_3 g_1$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Let $\tau: M \otimes_R S \to S \otimes_R M$ be the twist map defined by $x \otimes s \mapsto s \otimes x$. The reader should verify that $\tilde{g} = t^{-1}g\tau$ is an $S \otimes_R S$ -module homomorphism. We show that \tilde{g} is the inverse of g. Let $m \in M$. Then $1 \otimes m$ is a typical generator for the $S \otimes_R S$ -module $S \otimes_R M$. If we write $g(1 \otimes m) = \sum_i m_i \otimes s_i$, then since \bar{g} is the identity map,

$$1 \otimes m = \bar{g}(1 \otimes m) = 1 \otimes \sum_{i} m_i s_i.$$

Next write $g(1 \otimes m_i) = \sum_j m_{ij} \otimes t_{ij}$. We have

$$\tilde{g}(g(1 \otimes m)) = \tilde{g}\left(\sum_{i} m_{i} \otimes s_{i}\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i} \tilde{g}(m_{i} \otimes s_{i})$$

$$= \sum_{i} (1 \otimes s_{i}) \tilde{g}(m_{i} \otimes 1)$$

$$= \sum_{i} (1 \otimes s_{i}) \sum_{j} t_{ij} \otimes m_{ij}$$

$$= \sum_{i} \sum_{i} t_{ij} \otimes s_{i} m_{ij}.$$

Let $\omega: M \otimes_R S \otimes_R S \to S \otimes_R M$ be the function $x \otimes a \otimes b \mapsto a \otimes xb$ which multiplies the two extreme factors. Since $g_2 = g_3 g_1$,

$$\omega\left(g_2(1\otimes 1\otimes m)\right) = \omega\left(\sum_i m_i\otimes 1\otimes s_i\right) = 1\otimes \sum_i m_i s_i = 1\otimes m$$

is equal to

$$\omega g_3g_1(1\otimes 1\otimes m) = \sum_i \omega g_3(1\otimes m_i\otimes s_i) = \sum_i \sum_j \omega(m_{ij}\otimes t_{ij}\otimes s_i) = \sum_i \sum_j t_{ij}\otimes m_{ij}s_i$$

which is equal to $\tilde{g}g(1 \otimes m)$. This proves that $\tilde{g}g$ is the identity map on $S \otimes_R M$. The reader should verify that $g\tilde{g}$ is the identity map on $M \otimes_R S$.

(2) implies (1): We are given an isomorphism $g: S \otimes_R M \to M \otimes_R S$. Let $m \in M$ and write $g(1 \otimes m) = \sum_i m_i \otimes s_i$. Then

$$\bar{g}(1 \otimes m) = 1 \otimes \mu g(1 \otimes m) = 1 \otimes \sum_{i} m_{i} s_{i}.$$

Since g is one-to-one, it is enough to show $g(1 \otimes m) = g(1 \otimes \sum_i m_i s_i)$. Write $g(1 \otimes m_i) = \sum_i m_{ij} \otimes t_{ij}$. We have

$$g(1 \otimes \sum_{i} m_{i} s_{i}) = \sum_{i} g(1 \otimes m_{i})(1 \otimes s_{i}) = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} m_{ij} \otimes t_{ij} s_{i}.$$

Let $\omega: M \otimes_R S \otimes_R S \to M \otimes_R S$ be the function $x \otimes a \otimes b \mapsto x \otimes ab$ which multiplies the last two factors. Since $g_2 = g_3 g_1$,

$$\omega g_2(1 \otimes 1 \otimes m) = \omega \left(\sum_i m_i \otimes 1 \otimes s_i\right) = \sum_i m_i \otimes s_i$$

is equal to

$$\omega g_3 g_1(1 \otimes 1 \otimes m) = \sum_i \omega g_3(1 \otimes m_i \otimes s_i) = \sum_i \sum_j \omega(m_{ij} \otimes t_{ij} \otimes s_i) = \sum_i \sum_j m_{ij} \otimes t_{ij} s_i.$$

It follows from these computations that $g(1 \otimes m) = g(1 \otimes \sum_i m_i s_i)$.

If one of the equivalent properties of Proposition 12.6.6 is satisfied, then we say g is a descent datum for M over S.

Theorem 12.6.7. (The Theorem of Faithfully Flat Descent) Let S be a commutative faithfully flat R-algebra. Let M be an S-module and $g: S \otimes_R M \to M \otimes_R S$ a descent datum for M over S. Then there exists an R-module N and an isomorphism $\nu: N \otimes_R S \to M$ of S-modules such that the diagram of $S \otimes_R S$ -modules

$$(6.1) S \otimes_R N \otimes_R S \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \nu} S \otimes_R M$$

$$\downarrow g \qquad \qquad \downarrow g$$

$$N \otimes_R S \otimes_R S \xrightarrow{\nu \otimes 1} M \otimes_R S$$

commutes, where $\tau(a \otimes b \otimes c) = b \otimes a \otimes c$. Up to isomorphism, these properties uniquely determine the module N and the isomorphism ν .

PROOF. (Existence.) Set $N=\{x\in M\mid x\otimes 1=g(1\otimes x)\}$ and let $\nu:N\otimes_R S\to M$ be the multiplication map $\nu(x\otimes s)=xs$. We show that N and ν have the desired properties. Notice that N is the kernel of the R-module homomorphism $ge_0-e_1:M\to M\otimes_R S$, hence the sequence

$$(6.2) 0 \to N \to M \xrightarrow{ge_0 - e_1} M \otimes_R S$$

is exact and N is an R-module. Over $S \otimes_R S$, the module $S \otimes_R N \otimes_R S$ is generated by elements of the form $1 \otimes x \otimes 1$, for $x \in N$. Diagram (6.1) commutes since

$$g((1 \otimes \nu)(1 \otimes x \otimes 1)) = g(1 \otimes x) = x \otimes 1 = (\nu \otimes 1)(x \otimes 1 \otimes 1) = (\nu \otimes 1)(\tau(1 \otimes x \otimes 1)).$$

The diagram of S-module homomorphisms

$$(6.3) S \otimes_{R} M \xrightarrow{1 \otimes e_{1}} S \otimes_{R} M \otimes_{R} S$$

$$\downarrow g \qquad \qquad \downarrow g_{3} = g \otimes 1$$

$$M \otimes_{R} S \xrightarrow{1 \otimes e_{1} = e_{2}} M \otimes_{R} S \otimes_{R} S$$

commutes, since

$$g_3((1 \otimes e_1)(a \otimes x)) = g_3(a \otimes x \otimes 1) = g(a \otimes x) \otimes 1 = e_2(g(a \otimes x)).$$

Since $g_2 = g_3 g_1$, it follows that

$$g_3((1 \otimes ge_0)(a \otimes x)) = g_3(a \otimes g(1 \otimes x)) = g_3g_1(a \otimes 1 \otimes x) = g_2(a \otimes 1 \otimes x) = e_1g(a \otimes x).$$

Therefore, the diagram of S-module homomorphisms

$$(6.4) S \otimes_{R} M \xrightarrow{1 \otimes ge_{0}} S \otimes_{R} M \otimes_{R} S$$

$$\downarrow g \qquad \qquad \downarrow g_{3} = g \otimes 1$$

$$M \otimes_{R} S \xrightarrow{1 \otimes e_{0} = e_{1}} M \otimes_{R} S \otimes_{R} S$$

commutes. Consider the diagram of S-module homomorphisms

$$(6.5) \qquad \begin{array}{c} S \otimes_{R} N & \longrightarrow & S \otimes_{R} M \xrightarrow{1 \otimes (ge_{0} - e_{1})} S \otimes_{R} M \otimes_{R} S \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ g \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow g_{3} \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & M & \longrightarrow & M \otimes_{R} S_{1 \otimes (e_{0} - e_{1})} M \otimes_{R} S \otimes_{R} S \end{array}$$

The top row of (6.5) is exact, because it is obtained by applying the exact functor $S \otimes_R ()$ to the exact sequence (6.2). The bottom row of (6.5) is exact by Proposition 12.6.1. The diagram (6.5) commutes because it is constructed from the commutative diagrams (6.3) and (6.4). Since g and g_3 are isomorphisms, the S-module homomorphism ϕ exists and is an isomorphism, by Theorem 6.6.2. For $x \in N$, $\phi(1 \otimes x) = x$, hence ϕ agrees with ν . This proves ν is an isomorphism.

(Uniqueness.) Suppose K is another R-module and $\kappa: K \otimes_R S \to M$ the corresponding S-module isomorphism. Consider the commutative diagram

$$S \otimes_R K \otimes_R S \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \kappa} S \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \nu} S \otimes_R N \otimes_R S$$

$$\downarrow^g \qquad \qquad \downarrow^\tau \qquad \qquad \downarrow^\tau$$

In the notation of Proposition 12.6.4, this says

$$\mathfrak{F}_0(\nu^{-1}\kappa) = \tau \Big((1 \otimes \nu^{-1}\kappa) \big(\tau^{-1}(x \otimes a \otimes b) \big) \Big)$$

is equal to

$$\mathfrak{F}_1(\nu^{-1}\kappa) = ((\nu^{-1}\kappa)(x \otimes a)) \otimes b.$$

By Proposition 12.6.4, there exists $\lambda \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(K, N)$ such that $\nu^{-1}\kappa = \lambda \otimes 1$. Since S is faithfully flat over R and $\nu^{-1}\kappa$ is an isomorphism, $\lambda : K \to N$ is an R-module isomorphism. Lastly, $\kappa = \nu(\lambda \otimes 1)$.

REMARK 12.6.8. Theorem 12.6.7 is sometimes stated from the opposite point of view. That is, the role of the descent datum is played by the function $h = g^{-1}$. Then $h: M \otimes_R S \to S \otimes_R M$ is an $S \otimes_R S$ -module isomorphism which satisfies the 1-cocycle identity $h_1 h_3 = h_2$. Then $N = \{x \in M \mid h(x \otimes 1) = 1 \otimes x\}, \nu: N \otimes_R S \to M$ is the multiplication map $\nu(x \otimes s) = xs$, and $h = (1 \otimes \nu)(\nu \otimes 1)^{-1}$.

EXAMPLE 12.6.9. Let R be a commutative ring and $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ a set of n elements of R such that $R = R\alpha_1 + \cdots + R\alpha_n$. For the localization of R with respect to the multiplicative set $\{\alpha^n \mid n \geq 0\}$, write R_{α} instead of $R[\alpha^{-1}]$. By Exercise 7.5.28, $S = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n R_{\alpha_i}$ is faithfully flat over R. Using Lemma 7.1.1, we identify $R_{\alpha_i} \otimes_R R_{\alpha_j}$ with $R_{\alpha_i \alpha_j}$. Then $S \otimes_R S = \bigoplus_{(i,j) \in I_n^2} R_{\alpha_i \alpha_j}$, where $I_n = R_{\alpha_i \alpha_j}$

 $\{1,\ldots,n\}$. Suppose for each i that M_i is an R_{α_i} -module. Then $M=\bigoplus_{i=1}^n M_i$ is an S-module. We have

$$S \otimes_R M = \bigoplus_{(i,j) \in I_n^2} R_{\alpha_i} \otimes_R M_j$$

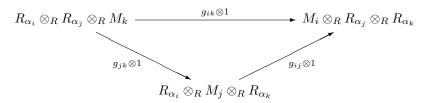
and

$$M \otimes_R S = \bigoplus_{(i,j) \in I_n^2} M_i \otimes_R R_{\alpha_j}.$$

A descent datum $g:S\otimes_R M\to M\otimes_R S$ consists of a collection of $R_{\alpha_i\alpha_j}$ -module isomorphisms

$$R_{\alpha_i} \otimes_R M_j \xrightarrow{g_{ij}} M_i \otimes_R R_{\alpha_j}$$

where $(i,j) \in I_n^2$. The identity $g_2 = g_3 g_1$ is equivalent to the statement that the diagram of $R_{\alpha_i \alpha_j \alpha_k}$ -module homomorphisms



commutes for all triples $(i, j, k) \in I_n^3$. If a descent datum exists, then by Theorem 12.6.7, there is an R-module N and for each i an isomorphism $M_i \cong N \otimes_R R_{\alpha_i}$ of R_{α_i} -modules.

6.5. Descent of Algebras. Let R be a commutative ring and S a faithfully flat commutative R-algebra. Let N be an R-module such that the S-module $N_S = N \otimes_R S$ has a multiplication operation which is defined by an S-module homomorphism $\mu: N_S \otimes_S N_S \to N_S$. If we identify $N_S \otimes_S N_S$ with $N \otimes_R N \otimes_R S$, then μ belongs to $\operatorname{Hom}_S(N \otimes_R N \otimes_R S, N \otimes_R S)$. By Proposition 12.6.4, the homomorphism μ descends to a unique R-module homomorphism $N \otimes_R N \to N$ if and only if $\mathfrak{F}_0(\mu)$ and $\mathfrak{F}_1(\mu)$ induce equal multiplication operations on $N \otimes_R S \otimes_R S$.

Theorem 12.6.10. Let S be a commutative faithfully flat R-algebra. Let B be an S-algebra and $g: S \otimes_R B \to B \otimes_R S$ a descent datum for B over S such that g is an isomorphism of $S \otimes_R S$ -algebras. Then there exists an R-algebra A and an isomorphism $\nu: A \otimes_R S \to B$ of S-algebras.

PROOF. The existence and uniqueness of the R-module A and the S-module isomorphism $\nu: A \otimes_R S \to B$ are guaranteed by Theorem 12.6.7. The diagram

$$(6.6) S \otimes_R A \otimes_R S \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \nu} S \otimes_R B$$

$$\downarrow^g \qquad \qquad \downarrow^g$$

$$A \otimes_R S \otimes_R S \xrightarrow{\nu \otimes 1} B \otimes_R S$$

commutes, where $\tau(a \otimes b \otimes c) = b \otimes a \otimes c$. The counterpart of (6.6) for $A \otimes_R A \otimes_R S \cong B \otimes_S B$ is the commutative square

$$(6.7) S \otimes_{R} (A \otimes_{R} A) \otimes_{R} S \xrightarrow{1 \otimes (\nu \otimes_{S} \nu)} S \otimes_{R} (B \otimes_{R} B)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad$$

Because g is an $S \otimes_R S$ -algebra isomorphism, the diagram

$$(6.8) S \otimes_R B \otimes_R B = (S \otimes_R B) \otimes_S (S \otimes_R B) \longrightarrow S \otimes_R B$$

$$\downarrow^g$$

$$B \otimes_R B \otimes_R S = (B \otimes_R S) \otimes_S (B \otimes_R S) \longrightarrow B \otimes_R S$$

commutes, where the horizontal arrows are the multiplication maps. The multiplication μ on $A_S = A \otimes_R S$ is defined by the multiplication operation on B and the S-algebra isomorphism ν . By definition of μ , the diagram

$$(6.9) A \otimes_R A \otimes_R S = A_S \otimes_S A_S \xrightarrow{\mu} A_S$$

$$\downarrow^{\nu}$$

$$B \otimes_S B \xrightarrow{\mu} B$$

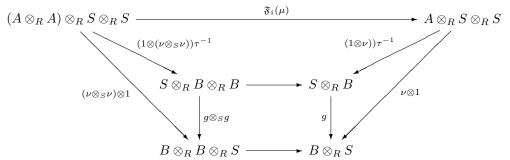
commutes, where the bottom arrow is multiplication in B. As was mentioned in the paragraph preceding the theorem, it suffices to show that $\mathfrak{F}_0(\mu)$ and $\mathfrak{F}_1(\mu)$ induce equal multiplication operations on $A \otimes_R S \otimes_R S$. Apply either functor \mathfrak{F}_i to the commutative square (6.9) to get the commutative square

$$(A \otimes_R A) \otimes_R S \otimes_R S \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}_i(\mu)} A \otimes_R S \otimes_R S$$

$$\downarrow^{\nu \otimes_S \nu) \otimes 1} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\nu \otimes 1}$$

$$B \otimes_S B \otimes_R S \xrightarrow{} B \otimes_R S$$

Combine diagrams (6.6), (6.7), (6.8), and (6.10) to get the commutative diagram



This diagram commutes with either $\mathfrak{F}_0(\mu)$ or $\mathfrak{F}_1(\mu)$ in the top row. Therefore the multiplication on A_S descends to a multiplication on A. The associative, commutative and distributive laws hold in A because they hold in A_S .

- **6.6. Applications.** The results of Section 6 are applied to prove two important theorems. The first result gives a complete classification for involutions of quadratic extensions of a commutative ring. The second application is a criterion due to H. Bass for a module over a commutative ring to be a progenerator.
- 6.6.1. Quadratic Extensions. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. An R-algebra involution of A is a function $\sigma: A \to A$ satisfying

$$\sigma(x+y) = \sigma(x) + \sigma(y), \text{ if } x, y \in A$$

$$\sigma(xy) = \sigma(y)\sigma(x), \text{ if } x, y \in A$$

$$\sigma(\sigma(x)) = x, \text{ if } x \in A$$

$$\sigma(x) = x, \text{ if } x \in R$$

Associated to an involution σ are the trace $T_R^A:A\to A$ and the norm $N_R^A:A\to A$, defined by

$$T_R^A(x) = x + \sigma(x)$$

 $N_R^A(x) = x\sigma(x)$

Notice that

(6.11)
$$x^2 - xT_R^A(x) + N_R^A(x) = 0$$

for all $x \in A$. We call σ a standard involution in case $T_R^S(x) \in R$ and $N_R^S(x) \in R$ for all $x \in S$. If σ is a standard involution, the reader should verify

$$N_R^S(x) = x\sigma(x) = \sigma(x)x$$

and

$$N_R^A(xy) = N_R^A(x) N_R^A(y)$$

for all $x, y \in A$.

Proposition 12.6.11. If S is an R-algebra which as an R-module is a progenerator, then there exists at most one standard involution on S.

PROOF. Suppose σ_1 and σ_2 are standard involutions of S. By Proposition 7.7.2, there exist f_1, \ldots, f_n in R such that S_{f_i} is a free R_{f_i} module of of finite rank and $\bigoplus_{i=1}^n S_{f_i}$ is a faithfully flat S-algebra. It suffices to show that $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$ upon restriction to S_{f_i} , for each i. Therefore we assume from now on that S is free. By

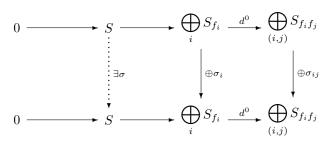
Proposition 7.5.6, $R \cdot 1$ is an R-module direct summand of S. Let b_1, \ldots, b_n be a free R-basis for S and assume $b_1 = 1$. Write T_i and N_i for the trace and norm associated to σ_i . Then $T_1(b_1) = T_2(b_1)$. By (6.11), $b_j^2 = b_j T_1(b_j) - N_1(b_j) = b_j T_2(b_j) - N_2(b_j)$, from which it follows that $T_1(b_j) = T_2(b_j)$ for $2 \le j \le n$.

A quadratic extension of R is an R-algebra S which is an R-progenerator of rank two. By Exercise 7.7.13, a quadratic extension is commutative.

Proposition 12.6.12. A quadratic extension S/R has a unique standard involution.

PROOF. Case 1: Assume S is a free R-module of rank two. As in the proof of Proposition 12.6.11, assume $S = R \cdot 1 + R \cdot \beta$. There exist $a, b \in R$ such that $\beta^2 = a + b\beta$. Define $\sigma: S \to S$ by $1 \mapsto 1$ and $\beta \mapsto b - \beta$. Then $\sigma(x + y\beta) = x + yb - y\beta$. The reader should verify that σ is a standard involution.

Case 2: S is locally free of rank two. As in the proof of Proposition 12.6.11, there exist f_1, \ldots, f_n in R such that S_{f_i} is a free R_{f_i} module of of finite rank, $\mathcal{R} = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n R_{f_i}$ is a faithfully flat R-algebra, and $S = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n S_{f_i}$ is a faithfully flat S-algebra. By Case 1 there exist R_{f_i} -algebra involutions σ_i on S_{f_i} and $\sigma = \bigoplus \sigma_i$ is an R-involution on S. Let σ_{ij} denote the restriction of σ_i to $S_{f_if_j}$. By Proposition 12.6.11, $\sigma_{ij} = \sigma_{ji}$. By Example 12.6.2, the right-most square of the diagram



commutes. The rows are exact, so σ defines an involution on S. The reader should verify that σ is a standard involution.

6.6.2. A Theorem of Bass. In this short section we prove a theorem of Bass (Theorem 12.6.14) which was stated without proof in [20, Theorem 14.2.1]. The proof given in [10, Proposition (4.6), p. 476] is K-theoretic, whereas the proof given below is based on the method suggested in the paragraph immediately preceding [40, Theorem III.17] and utilizes only theorems proven in this book. The main idea for the proof is the following lemma.

Lemma 12.6.13. Let R be a ring and M a left R-module. For any n > 0, the assignment

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M) \xrightarrow{\Delta} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M^{(n)},M^{(n)})$$

that maps a homomorphism φ in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ to the corresponding diagonal homomorphism $\Delta(\varphi) = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \varphi$ in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M^{(n)},M^{(n)})$ defines a monomorphism of rings. If R is commutative, Δ is an R-algebra homomorphism.

PROOF. The proof is left to the reader.

Theorem 12.6.14. (H. Bass) Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. Then M is an R-progenerator if and only if there exists an R-module P such that $P \otimes_R M \cong R^{(s)}$ for some s > 0.

PROOF. If there exists an R-module P such that $P \otimes_R M \cong R^{(s)}$, then by Proposition 6.4.25, both M and P are R-progenerators.

Assume M is an R-progenerator. First we show how to reduce to the case where M has constant rank. Assume M does not have constant rank. As in Corollary 7.4.7, let e_1, \ldots, e_t be the structure idempotents of M in R. Write R_i for Re_i and M_i for Me_i . Then $R = R_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_t$, $M = M_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_t$, and M_i is an R_i -progenerator of constant rank. For each i, assume there exists an integer $s_i > 0$ and an R_i -module P_i such that $M_i \otimes_{R_i} P_i \cong R_i^{(s_i)}$. Let s be the least common multiple of $\{s_1, \ldots, s_t\}$. Then $M \otimes_R (P_1^{(s/s_1)} \oplus \cdots \oplus P_t^{(s/s_t)}) \cong R^{(s)}$.

Assume from now on that M has constant rank r. If M is free, then there is nothing to prove. Assume N is an R-progenerator such that $M \oplus N$ is free of rank rn and $n \geq 2$. By Exercises 7.7.14 and 7.5.28, there exists a commutative faithfully flat R-algebra S such that $M \otimes_R S$ and $N \otimes_R S$ are isomorphic to the free S-modules $S^{(r)}$ and $S^{(rn-r)}$, respectively. Then $(M \oplus N) \otimes_R S$ can be written as a direct sum $\bigoplus_{i=1}^n S^{(r)}$, which is isomorphic to the direct sum $(M \otimes_R S)^{(n)}$. Applying Lemma 12.6.13 to this direct sum decomposition defines the homomorphism $\Delta : \operatorname{Hom}_S(M \otimes_R S, M \otimes_R S) \to \operatorname{Hom}_S((M \oplus N) \otimes_R S, (M \oplus N) \otimes_R S)$. By Lemma 6.9.1 (1),

$$M^* \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{\theta_R} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)$$

is an isomorphism of $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ -modules, hence is an isomorphism of R-modules. By Corollary 6.9.3 (6), M^* is an R-progenerator. By Proposition 6.4.24, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ is an R-progenerator module. By Proposition 7.5.6, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ is a faithfully flat R-algebra. Therefore, the natural map $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M) \otimes_R S$ is one-to-one. By Proposition 7.5.8, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M) \otimes_R S$ is isomorphic to $\operatorname{Hom}_S((M \oplus N) \otimes_R S, (M \oplus N) \otimes_R S)$. Similarly, the natural map $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M \oplus N, M \oplus N) \to \operatorname{Hom}_S((M \oplus N) \otimes_R S, (M \oplus N) \otimes_R S)$ is one-to-one. Consider the diagram

$$(6.12) \quad \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(M \otimes_{R} S, M \otimes_{R} S) \xrightarrow{\Delta} \operatorname{Hom}_{S}((M \oplus N) \otimes_{R} S, (M \oplus N) \otimes_{R} S)$$

$$\cong \bigcap_{\cong} \bigcap_{\cong$$

of homomorphisms of R-algebras. Next we show that Δ restricts to a homomorphism $\delta: \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M \oplus N, M \oplus N)$. The proof is by faithfully flat descent. Start with a basis $\{b_1,\ldots,b_r\}$ for the S-module $M \otimes_R S$ and extend it to a basis for $(M \oplus N) \otimes_R S$. With respect to these bases, interpret $\operatorname{Hom}_S(M \otimes_R S, M \otimes_R S)$ as r-by-r matrices over S (denoted $M_r(S)$) and $\operatorname{Hom}_S((M \oplus N) \otimes_R S, (M \oplus N) \otimes_R S)$ as rn-by-rn matrices over S (denoted $M_{rn}(S)$). We see that $\Delta: M_r(S) \to M_{rn}(S)$ sends a matrix A to the block diagonal matrix $A \oplus \cdots \oplus A$. Let $e_0: S \to S \otimes_R S$ be defined by $s \mapsto 1 \otimes s$. Likewise, let $e_1: S \to S \otimes_R S$ be defined by $s \mapsto s \otimes 1$. Then each e_i is an R-algebra homomorphism. Let \mathfrak{F}_i be the functor from S-modules to

 $S \otimes_R S$ -modules induced by tensoring with e_i . From the description of Δ above we see that $\mathfrak{F}_0(\Delta)$ is equal to $\mathfrak{F}_1(\Delta)$. By Proposition 12.6.4, there exists an R-algebra homomorphism δ such that diagram (6.12) commutes. By the homomorphism δ , we can view $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ as a ring of endomorphism of the R-module $M \oplus N$. By the Morita Theorem 6.9.2, there is an R-module P and a left $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ -module isomorphism $\sigma: P \otimes_R M \to M \oplus N$. Since $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ is an R-algebra, σ is an R-module isomorphism. Since $M \oplus N$ is a free R-module of rank s = rn, we are finished.

7. Hochschild Cohomology

DEFINITION 12.7.1. Let R be a commutative ring, A an R-algebra, and $A^e = A \otimes_R A^o$ the enveloping algebra (Definition 9.1.1). If M is a two-sided A/R-module, then (Definition 9.1.6). the *nth Hochschild cohomology group of* A with coefficients in M is defined to be

$$H^n(A, M) = \operatorname{Ext}_{A^e}^n(A, M)$$

where we make M into a left A^e -module by $a \otimes b \cdot x = axb$

7.1. The Standard Complex. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. We construct a chain complex $S_{\bullet}(A) \to A$ of A^e -modules. When A is a projective R-module, $S_{\bullet}(A)$ is a projective resolution of A as a left A^e -module, and is called the standard resolution. The standard resolution is applied to compute the Hochschild cohomology groups (Definition 12.7.1).

For n > 0, define left A^e -modules by

(7.1)
$$S_n(A) = \begin{cases} A^e = A \otimes_R A^o & \text{if } n = 0, \\ A \otimes_R (A^{\otimes n}) \otimes_R A & \text{if } n > 0. \end{cases}$$

As in Definition 7.9.5, $A^{\otimes n}$ is the tensor product of n copies of A, and $S_n(A)$ is a left A^e -module by $a \otimes b \cdot x = axb$. For notational convenience, we define $S_{-1}(A)$ to be A. For $n \geq 0$ and for $0 \leq i \leq n$, let $\mu_{n,i} : S_n \to S_{n-1}$ be define by

$$\mu_{n,i}(x_0 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_i \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{n+1}) = x_0 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_i x_{i+1} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{n+1}.$$

Then $\mu_{n,i}$ is defined by tensoring the multiplication map $\mu:A^e\to A$ in the *i*th factor with the identity map elsewhere. Define boundary maps $d_n:S_n\to S_{n-1}$ by

$$d_n = \sum_{i=0}^{n} (-1)^n \mu_{n,i}.$$

Since μ is an A^e -module homomorphism, it follows that $\mu_{n,i}$ and d_n are A^e -module homomorphisms.

LEMMA 12.7.2. In the above context,

$$\cdots \to S_n(A) \xrightarrow{d_n} S_{n-1}(A) \to \cdots \to S_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} S_0 \xrightarrow{\mu} A \to 0$$

is an exact sequence. If A is projective as an R-module, then $S_{\bullet}(A) \to A$ is a projective resolution of A as a left A^e -module.

PROOF. By a slight variation of Theorem 6.4.23, we see that if A is a projective R-module, then $S_n(A)$ is a projective A^e -module. We must show that $d_{n-1}d_n = 0$,

and that the homology of the complex is (0). For $n \ge -1$ define $k_n : S_n(A) \to S_{n+1}(A)$ by $k_n(x) = 1 \otimes x$. For all $n \ge 0$ and $x \in S_n(A)$, we see that

$$d_{n+1}k_n(x) = d_{n+1}(1 \otimes x)$$

$$= x + \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} (-1)^i \mu_{n+1,i}(1 \otimes x)$$

$$= x - \sum_{i=0}^{n} (-1)^i 1 \otimes \mu_{n,i}(x)$$

and

$$k_{n-1}d_n(x) = k_{n+1} \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \mu_{n,i}(x)$$
$$= \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i 1 \otimes \mu_{n,i}(x).$$

Therefore, the contracting homotopy relations

$$d_{n+1}k_n(x) + k_{n-1}d_n = 1$$

are satisfied. Now we show that $d_{n-1}d_n = 0$. For n = 1,

$$\mu d_1(x \otimes y \otimes z) = \mu(xy \otimes z - x \otimes yz) = (xy)z - x(yz) = 0$$

by the associative property for multiplication in A. By induction on n and the contracting homotopy relations, it follows that $d_{n-1}d_n=0$ for all $n\geq 1$ (see the proof of Theorem 12.5.8). Applying Exercise 12.1.15 completes the proof.

7.2. Cocycle and Coboundary Groups in Low Degree. Let A be an R-algebra which is projective as an R-module. Let M be a left A^e -module. The Hochschild cohomology groups $\operatorname{H}^n(A,M)$ are defined to be $\operatorname{Ext}_{A^e}^n(A,M)$ (Definition 12.7.1). The projective resolution $S_{\bullet}(A) \to A$ of Lemma 12.7.2 is called the standard complex of A. From (7.1) we have

$$S_n(A) = A \otimes_R T^n(A) \otimes_R A = A^e \otimes_R T^n(A)$$

where $T^n(A) = A^{\otimes n}$ is the *n*th tensor module of A over R (Definition 7.9.5). Then the Adjoint Isomorphism (Theorem 6.5.10 (1) implies

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(S_n(A), M) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A^e \otimes_R T^n(A), M)$$

$$\cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(T^n(A), \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A^e, M))$$

$$\cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(T^n(A), M).$$

By Definition 12.3.11, the cohomology groups are the homology groups of the truncated complex

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{A^c}(S_{\bullet}(A), M) = \operatorname{Hom}_{A^c}(A^e \otimes_R T^n(A), M)$$
$$= \operatorname{Hom}_R(T^n(A), M).$$

The terms of low degree are

$$(7.2) \quad 0 \to M \xrightarrow{\delta^0} \operatorname{Hom}_R(A, M) \xrightarrow{\delta^1} \operatorname{Hom}_R(A \otimes_R A, M)$$
$$\xrightarrow{\delta^2} \operatorname{Hom}_R(A \otimes_R A \otimes_R A, M) \xrightarrow{\delta^3} \operatorname{Hom}_R(A^{\otimes 4}, M) \to \cdots$$

A tedious computation involving (7.2), the boundary maps d_n of Lemma 12.7.2, the Adjoint Isomorphism, and the Hom functor results in a formula for the coboundary maps. Let $f \in \text{Hom}_R(A^{\otimes n}, M)$ be an n-cochain. Then

$$(7.3) \quad (\delta^n f)(x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{n+1}) = x_1 f(x_2 \otimes \dots x_{n+1})$$

$$+ \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^i f(x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_i x_{i+1} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{n+1})$$

$$+ (-1)^{n+1} f(x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_n) x_{n+1}.$$

8. Amitsur Cohomology

Amitsur cohomology was first used in [2]. It is the basis of the Čech cohomology which was introduced by Grothendieck and Cartier for schemes. The results presented here are taken from various sources, including [28], [34] and [47].

8.1. The Definition and First Properties. Let S be a commutative R-algebra. By $S^{\otimes r}$ we denote $S \otimes_R \cdots \otimes_R S$, the tensor product of r copies of S. As in Section 12.6.1, for $0 \leq j \leq n+1$, there is an R-algebra homomorphism

$$S^{\otimes (n+1)} \xrightarrow{e_j} S^{\otimes (n+2)}$$
$$(x_0 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_n) \mapsto x_0 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{j-1} \otimes 1 \otimes x_j \otimes \cdots \otimes x_n.$$

Let \mathfrak{F} be a covariant functor from the category of commutative R-algebras to the category of abelian groups. The $Amitsur\ complex$ for S/R with coefficients in \mathfrak{F} is

$$(8.1) 1 \to \mathfrak{F}(S) \xrightarrow{d^0} \mathfrak{F}(S^{\otimes 2}) \xrightarrow{d^1} \mathfrak{F}(S^{\otimes 3}) \xrightarrow{d^2} \cdots$$

where the coboundary map $d^r: \mathfrak{F}(S^{\otimes (r+1)}) \to \mathfrak{F}(S^{\otimes (r+2)})$ is defined to be

$$d^{r} = \prod_{i=0}^{r+1} \mathfrak{F}(e_i)^{(-1)^i}.$$

Denote this complex by $C^{\bullet}(S/R, \mathfrak{F})$. Since $e_j e_i = e_{i+1} e_j$ for all $j \leq i$, the reader should verify that (8.1) is a complex of abelian groups.

DEFINITION 12.8.1. In the cochain complex (8.1), the kernel of d^n is the group of n-cocycles, $Z^n(S/R,\mathfrak{F}) = \ker d^n$. The image of d^{n-1} is the group of n-coboundaries, $B^n(S/R,\mathfrak{F}) = \operatorname{im} d^{n-1}$. The group of cocycles modulo the coboundaries is

$$\operatorname{H}^n(S/R,\mathfrak{F})=\operatorname{Z}^n(S/R,\mathfrak{F})/\operatorname{B}^n(S/R,\mathfrak{F})$$

which is called the nth Amitsur cohomology group of S/R with coefficients in \mathfrak{F} .

EXAMPLE 12.8.2. In degrees 0 and 1, we have

(8.2)
$$Z^{0}(S/R, \mathfrak{F}) = H^{0}(S/R, \mathfrak{F})$$

$$= \{\alpha \in \mathfrak{F}(S) \mid \mathfrak{F}(e_{0})(\alpha) = \mathfrak{F}(e_{1})(\alpha)\}$$

$$B^{1}(S/R, \mathfrak{F}) = \{\mathfrak{F}(e_{0})(\alpha)\mathfrak{F}(e_{1})(\alpha^{-1}) \mid \alpha \in \mathfrak{F}(S)\}$$

$$Z^{1}(S/R, \mathfrak{F}) = \{\alpha \in \mathfrak{F}(S \otimes_{R} S) \mid \mathfrak{F}(e_{2})(\alpha)\mathfrak{F}(e_{0})(\alpha) = \mathfrak{F}(e_{1})(\alpha)\}.$$

EXAMPLE 12.8.3. For any commutative R-algebra S, let $\mathbb{G}_a(S)$ be the additive abelian group of S. If S is faithfully flat, then by Proposition 12.6.1,

$$\mathrm{H}^n(S/R,\mathbb{G}_a) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{G}_a(R) & \text{if } n = 0\\ 0 & \text{if } n \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

DEFINITION 12.8.4. When $\mathfrak F$ is nonabelian, the cohomology is defined using the relations of (8.2). In this case, the result is not a group, but a pointed set. Let $\mathfrak F$ be a functor from the category of commutative R-algebras to the category of groups. We define

$$H^{0}(S/R,\mathfrak{F}) = \{\alpha \in \mathfrak{F}(S) \mid \mathfrak{F}(e_{0})(\alpha) = \mathfrak{F}(e_{1})(\alpha)\}\$$

with base point being the group identity of $\mathfrak{F}(S)$. We define

$$Z^{1}(S/R,\mathfrak{F}) = \{\alpha \in \mathfrak{F}(S \otimes_{R} S) \mid \mathfrak{F}(e_{2})(\alpha)\mathfrak{F}(e_{0})(\alpha) = \mathfrak{F}(e_{1})(\alpha)\}$$

with base point being the group identity of $\mathfrak{F}(S \otimes_R S)$. Define a relation on $Z^1(S/R,\mathfrak{F})$ by $\alpha \sim \beta$ if there exists $\gamma \in \mathfrak{F}(S)$ such that

$$\alpha = \mathfrak{F}(e_1)(\gamma)\beta\mathfrak{F}(e_0)(\gamma^{-1}).$$

The reader should verify that \sim is an equivalence relation. We define $\mathrm{H}^1(S/R,\mathfrak{F})$ to be the set of equivalence classes $\mathrm{Z}^1(S/R,\mathfrak{F})/\sim$, with base point being the equivalence class containing the group identity of $\mathfrak{F}(S\otimes_R S)$. When the functor \mathfrak{F} takes its values in the category of abelian groups, it is clear that this definition agrees with Definition 12.8.1 for n=0,1.

Theorem 12.8.5. Suppose

$$S \xrightarrow{f} S'$$

$$\theta \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \theta'$$

$$R \xrightarrow{\phi} R'$$

is a commutative diagram of homomorphisms of commutative R-algebras. Let $\mathfrak F$ be a functor from the category of commutative R-algebras to the category of abelian groups. Then f induces homomorphisms

$$f^*: \mathrm{H}^n(S/R,\mathfrak{F}) \to \mathrm{H}^n(S'/R',\mathfrak{F})$$

for $n \geq 0$. Moreover, f^* is independent of f. That is, if $g: S \to S'$ is another such homomorphism, then $f^* = g^*$. If \mathfrak{F} is a functor that takes its values in the category of nonabelian groups, then the above is true for n = 0, 1, where f^* is a morphism of pointed sets.

PROOF. Since \mathfrak{F} is a functor, and the diagram of algebra homomorphisms commutes, f induces a morphism of cochain complexes $f:\mathfrak{F}(S^{\otimes n})\to\mathfrak{F}((S')^{\otimes n})$. Consequently, there are homomorphisms $f^*:\mathrm{H}^n(S/R,\mathfrak{F})\to\mathrm{H}^n(S'/R',\mathfrak{F})$.

Case 1: Assume \mathfrak{F} is abelian and use additive notation in the groups $\mathfrak{F}(\cdot)$. By Theorem 12.2.12, it is enough to show that the two morphisms f and g between $\mathfrak{F}(S^{\otimes n})$ and $\mathfrak{F}((S')^{\otimes n})$ are homotopic. We define $k^n:\mathfrak{F}(S^{\otimes (n+1)})\to\mathfrak{F}((S')^{\otimes n})$ and show that

$$(8.3) (f^*)^n - (q^*)^n = d^{n-1}k^n + k^{n+1}d^n$$

for $n \geq 1$. For $0 \leq i < n$ define $k_i^n : S^{\otimes (n+1)} \to (S')^{\otimes n}$ by

$$(8.4) k_i^n(s_0 \otimes \cdots \otimes s_n) = f(s_0) \otimes \cdots \otimes f(s_i)g(s_{i+1}) \otimes \cdots \otimes g(s_n).$$

Then each k_i^n is an R-algebra homomorphism (Exercises 6.4.35 and 6.4.43). The homotopy operator is defined by $k^n = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^i \mathfrak{F}(k_i^n)$. We define auxiliary R-algebra homomorphisms $h_i^n: S^{\otimes (n+1)} \to (S')^{\otimes (n+1)}$ by (8.5)

$$h_i^n(s_0 \otimes \cdots \otimes s_n) = \begin{cases} g(s_0) \otimes \cdots \otimes g(s_n) & \text{if } i = 0\\ f(s_0) \otimes \cdots \otimes f(s_{i-1}) \otimes g(s_i) \otimes \cdots \otimes g(s_n) & \text{if } 1 \leq i \leq n\\ f(s_0) \otimes \cdots \otimes f(s_n) & \text{if } i = n+1. \end{cases}$$

The reader should verify the relations

(8.6)
$$k_j^{n+1} e_i = \begin{cases} e_{i-1} k_j^n & \text{if } j < i-1 \\ h_i^n & \text{if } i-1 \le j \le i \\ e_i k_{j-1}^n & \text{if } i < j. \end{cases}$$

Starting with the right-most term in (8.3),

$$k^{n+1}d^n = \sum_{j=0}^n \sum_{i=0}^{n+1} (-1)^j (-1)^i \mathfrak{F}(k_j^{n+1}) \mathfrak{F}(e_i)$$
$$= \sum_{j=0}^n \sum_{i=0}^{n+1} (-1)^{j+i} \mathfrak{F}(k_j^{n+1}e_i)$$

Using (8.6), we get

$$\begin{split} k^{n+1}d^n &= \sum_{i=2}^{n+1} \sum_{j=0}^{i-2} (-1)^{j+i} \mathfrak{F}(e_{i-1}k_j^n) \\ &+ \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} (-1)^{i-1+i} \mathfrak{F}(h_i) + \sum_{i=0}^{n} (-1)^{i+i} \mathfrak{F}(h_i) \\ &+ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} (-1)^{j+i} \mathfrak{F}(e_i k_{j-1}^n)) \\ &= \sum_{i=2}^{n+1} \sum_{j=0}^{i-2} (-1)^{j+i} \mathfrak{F}(e_{i-1}k_j^n) \\ &+ \mathfrak{F}(h_0) - \mathfrak{F}(h_{n+1}) \\ &+ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} (-1)^{j+i} \mathfrak{F}(e_i k_{j-1}^n)) \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{j+n+1} \mathfrak{F}(e_n k_j^n) \\ &+ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{i-1} (-1)^{j+i+1} \mathfrak{F}(e_i k_j^n)) + \sum_{j=i}^{n-1} (-1)^{j+i+1} \mathfrak{F}(e_i k_j^n)) \right) \\ &+ \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{j} \mathfrak{F}(e_0 k_j^n)) \\ &+ \mathfrak{F}(h_0) - \mathfrak{F}(h_{n+1}) \\ &= (g^*)^n - (f^*)^n - \sum_{i=0}^n \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{j+i} \mathfrak{F}(e_i k_j^n)) \\ &= (g^*)^n - (f^*)^n - d^{n-1} k^n \end{split}$$

Which proves the theorem when $\mathfrak F$ is abelian.

Case 2: Assume \mathfrak{F} is non-abelian (written multiplicatively) and n=0. Let $k_0^1: S \otimes_R S \to S'$ be as in (8.4). Note that $k_0^1 e_0 = g$ and $k_0^1 e_1 = f$. If $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}^0(S/R, \mathfrak{F})$, then $\mathfrak{F}(g)\alpha = \mathfrak{F}(k_0^1 e_0)\alpha = \mathfrak{F}(k_0^1)\mathfrak{F}(e_0)\alpha = \mathfrak{F}(k_0^1)\mathfrak{F}(e_1)\alpha = \mathfrak{F}(k_0^1 e_1)\alpha = \mathfrak{F}(f)\alpha$.

Case 3: Assume \mathfrak{F} is non-abelian (written multiplicatively) and n=1. Let k_0^2 and k_1^2 be the R-algebra homomorphisms defined in (8.4). If $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}^1(S/R,\mathfrak{F})$, then on the one hand,

$$\mathfrak{F}(f\otimes g)(\alpha) = \mathfrak{F}(h_1^1)(\alpha) \quad \text{(by (8.5))}$$

$$= \mathfrak{F}(k_0^2 e_1)(\alpha) \quad \text{(by (8.6))}$$

$$= \mathfrak{F}(k_0^2 e_2)(\alpha)\mathfrak{F}(k_0^2 e_0)(\alpha) \quad \text{(since } \alpha \in \mathbf{Z}^1(S/R, \mathfrak{F}))$$

$$= \mathfrak{F}(e_1 k_0^1)(\alpha)\mathfrak{F}(h_0^1)(\alpha) \quad \text{(by (8.6))}$$

$$= \mathfrak{F}(e_1 k_0^1)(\alpha)\mathfrak{F}(g\otimes g)(\alpha) \quad \text{(by (8.5))}.$$

On the other hand,

$$\mathfrak{F}(f \otimes g)(\alpha) = \mathfrak{F}(h_1^1)(\alpha) \quad \text{(by (8.5))}$$

$$= \mathfrak{F}(k_1^2 e_1)(\alpha) \quad \text{(by (8.6))}$$

$$= \mathfrak{F}(k_1^2 e_2)(\alpha)\mathfrak{F}(k_1^2 e_0)(\alpha) \quad \text{(since } \alpha \in \mathbf{Z}^1(S/R, \mathfrak{F}))$$

$$= \mathfrak{F}(h_2^1)(\alpha)\mathfrak{F}(e_0 k_0^1)(\alpha) \quad \text{(by (8.6))}$$

$$= \mathfrak{F}(f \otimes f)(\alpha)\mathfrak{F}(e_0 k_0^1)(\alpha) \quad \text{(by (8.5))}.$$

Set $\gamma = \mathfrak{F}(k_0^1)(\alpha)$. Combining (8.7) and (8.8),

$$\mathfrak{F}(f\otimes f)(\alpha)=\mathfrak{F}(e_1)(\gamma)\mathfrak{F}(g\otimes g)(\alpha)\mathfrak{F}(e_0)(\gamma^{-1})$$

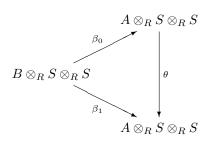
which shows $\mathfrak{F}(f \otimes f) \sim \mathfrak{F}(g \otimes g)$.

8.2. Twisted Forms. Let R be a commutative ring and $\mathfrak{C}_{\mathrm{fl}}(R)$ the category of isomorphism classes of faithfully flat R-algebras. If A is an R-module (or R-algebra), let $\mathrm{Aut}(A)$ denote the functor from $\mathfrak{C}_{\mathrm{fl}}(R)$ to the category of groups defined by $S \mapsto \mathrm{Aut}_S(A \otimes_R S)$.

DEFINITION 12.8.6. Let R be a commutative ring and A a fixed R-module (or R-algebra). Given an R-module (or R-algebra) B and a faithfully flat R-algebra S, we say B is a twisted form of A for the extension S/R if there exists an isomorphism of S-algebras $B \otimes_R S \cong A \otimes_R S$.

PROPOSITION 12.8.7. In the above context, the pointed set $H^1(S/R, Aut(A))$ classifies up to R-module (or R-algebra) isomorphism the twisted forms of A for the extension S/R.

PROOF. Suppose B is a twisted form of A for the extension S/R, and β : $B \otimes_R S \to A \otimes_R S$ is an S-module isomorphism. In a switch from the notation of Proposition 12.6.4, we write β_i instead of $\mathfrak{F}_i(\beta)$. Define $\theta \in \operatorname{Aut}_{S \otimes_R S}(A \otimes_R S \otimes_R S)$ by $\theta = \beta_1 \beta_0^{-1}$. So θ is the map that makes the diagram



commute. The reader should verify the identities: $(\beta_0)_0 = (\beta_0)_1$, $(\beta_0)_2 = (\beta_1)_0$, $(\beta_1)_1 = (\beta_1)_2$. Therefore, $\theta_2\theta_0 = (\beta_1\beta_0^{-1})_2(\beta_1\beta_0^{-1})_0 = (\beta_1)_2(\beta_0^{-1})_2(\beta_1)_0(\beta_0^{-1})_0 = (\beta_1)_1(\beta_0^{-1})_1 = (\beta_1\beta_0^{-1})_1 = \theta_1$. So θ is a 1-cocycle. To show that the cohomology class of θ depends only on B, suppose $\alpha: B\otimes_R S \to A\otimes_R S$ is another S-module isomorphism, and $\phi = \alpha_1\alpha_0^{-1}$. Set $\gamma = \alpha\beta^{-1}$. Then γ is an S-module automorphism of $A\otimes_R S$. We have $\gamma_1\theta\gamma_0^{-1} = \gamma_1(\beta_1\beta_0^{-1})\gamma_0^{-1} = \alpha_1\beta_1^{-1}(\beta_1\beta_0^{-1})\beta_0\alpha_0^{-1} = \alpha_1\alpha_0^{-1} = \phi$. Therefore, ϕ is cohomologous to θ .

Let $\theta \in \operatorname{Aut}_{S \otimes_R S}(A \otimes_R S \otimes S)$. Assume θ is a 1-cocycle in $\operatorname{Z}^1(S/R,\operatorname{Aut}(A))$. In a switch from the notation of Section 12.8.1, write θ_i instead of $\mathfrak{F}(e_i)(\theta)$. Then

 $\theta_2\theta_0=\theta_1$. As in Section 12.6.3, for i=0,1 there are R-module homomorphisms $e_i:A\otimes_RS\to A\otimes_RS\otimes_RS$. Define

$$B = \left\{ \sum a_i \otimes s_i \in A \otimes_R S \mid \theta \left(\sum a_i \otimes 1 \otimes s_i \right) = \sum a_i \otimes s_i \otimes 1 \right\}$$
$$= \ker \left\{ \theta e_0 - e_1 : A \otimes_R S \to A \otimes_R S \otimes_R S \right\}.$$

Then B is an R-module. Define $\beta: B \otimes_R S \to A \otimes_R S$ to be the multiplication map, $\beta((\sum a_i \otimes s_i) \otimes s) = \sum a_i \otimes s_i s$. As in the proof of Theorem 12.6.7, the reader should verify that β is an isomorphism of S-modules and $\theta = \beta_1 \beta_0^{-1}$. Therefore B is a twisted form of A for the extension S/R.

To see that B depends only on the cohomology class of θ , suppose ϕ is a 1-cocycle that is cohomologous to θ . Then there is $\gamma \in \operatorname{Aut}(A \otimes_R S)$ such that $\gamma_1 \theta \gamma_0^{-1} = \phi$. Since ϕ is a descent datum, there is an R-module C, and an isomorphism $\alpha: C \otimes_R S \to A \otimes_R S$ such that $\phi = \alpha_1 \alpha_0^{-1}$. It follows from

$$\phi = \gamma_1 \theta \gamma_0^{-1}$$

$$\alpha_1 \alpha_0^{-1} = \gamma_1 \beta_1 \beta_0^{-1} \gamma_0^{-1}$$

$$\alpha_0^{-1} \gamma_0 \beta_0 = \alpha_1^{-1} \gamma_1 \beta_1$$

that $(\alpha^{-1}\gamma\beta)_0 = (\alpha^{-1}\gamma\beta)_1$. In the notation of Proposition 12.6.4, we see that $\mathfrak{F}_0(\alpha^{-1}\gamma\beta) = \mathfrak{F}_0(\alpha^{-1}\gamma\beta)$. This implies the isomorphism $\alpha^{-1}\gamma\beta : B \otimes_R S \to C \otimes_R S$ of S-modules comes from an isomorphism $B \cong C$ of R-modules.

8.2.1. Twisted Form of a Finitely Generated Free Module. Let R be a commutative ring and denote by R^n the direct sum of n copies of R. Let S be a commutative faithfully flat R-algebra. A free module of rank n is a projective module of rank n. It follows from Lemma 7.5.12 that a twisted form of R^n for S/R is a projective module of rank n. The group $\operatorname{Aut}_S(R^n \otimes_R S) = \operatorname{Aut}_S(S^n)$ is isomorphic to the group of invertible matrices in $M_n(S)$. The group of invertible n-by-n matrices over S is also denoted $\operatorname{GL}_n(S)$ and is called the general linear group. We also denote by GL_n the functor from $\mathfrak{C}_{\mathrm{fl}}$ to the category of groups defined by $S \mapsto \operatorname{GL}_n(S)$.

COROLLARY 12.8.8. Let S be a commutative faithfully flat R-algebra.

- (1) The twisted forms of the free R-module of rank n for S/R are classified up to isomorphism by the pointed set $H^1(S/R, GL_n)$.
- (2) If R is a ring for which finitely generated projective modules are free, then $H^1(S/R, GL_n) = \{1\}$. This is true, for instance, if R is a local ring (Proposition 7.4.2), or a PID (Proposition 4.3.5).

For n=1, the general linear group $\mathrm{GL}_1(S)$ is equal to $S^*=\mathbb{G}_m(S)$, the group of invertible elements of S. Since S is commutative, $\mathbb{G}_m(S)$ is an abelian group and the pointed set $\mathrm{H}^1(S/R,\mathrm{GL}_n)$ is a group. By Corollary 12.8.8, $\mathrm{H}^1(S/R,\mathbb{G}_m)$ classifies the group of rank one projective R-modules P such that $P\otimes_R S\cong S$. This and Proposition 7.7.8 proves

COROLLARY 12.8.9. In the above context, the group $H^1(S/R, \mathbb{G}_m)$ is isomorphic to the kernel of the natural homomorphism $\operatorname{Pic} R \to \operatorname{Pic} S$.

8.2.2. Twisted Form of a Finitely Generated Free Algebra. Let $R^n = R \oplus \cdots \oplus R$ be the trivial commutative separable extension of R of rank n. Let S be a commutative faithfully flat R-algebra. It follows from Proposition 9.6.11 that if

B is a twisted form of \mathbb{R}^n for S/\mathbb{R} , then B is a separable \mathbb{R} -algebra which is an \mathbb{R} -module progenerator of constant rank n.

8.2.3. Twisted Form of Matrices. If S is a commutative R-algebra, then the S-algebra $M_n(R) \otimes_R S$ is naturally isomorphic to $M_n(S)$. Let $\operatorname{Aut}(M_n)$ denote the functor from $\mathfrak{C}_{\mathrm{fl}}$, the category of faithfully flat R-algebras, to the category of groups, defined by $S \mapsto \operatorname{Aut}_S(M_n(S))$. Now let S be a commutative faithfully flat R-algebra. By Proposition 12.8.7, $\operatorname{H}^1(S/R,\operatorname{Aut}(M_n))$ classifies the twisted forms of $M_n(R)$ for S/R.

CHAPTER 13

Prime Ideals in Commutative Rings

This chapter consists of more results on the subject of Commutative Algebra. For the most part, the topics involve prime ideals in noetherian commutative rings. The notions of prime ideals, primary ideals, and more generally primary submodules of an R-module are closely tied to the notion of zero divisors, and in particular to the notion of nilpotency. In a commutative ring R, an ideal P is prime if if P is not the unit ideal and R/P has no zero divisors. The ideal P is primary if P is not the unit ideal and any zero divisor in R/P is nilpotent. If M is an R-module and $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, then P is an associated prime of M if there is a cyclic submodule of M isomorphic to R/P. A primary submodule of M is a submodule N such that M/N has a unique associated prime. An ideal P is a primary ideal in R if and only if P is a primary submodule of R. The main result on this subject is the Primary Decomposition Theorem, which says that every submodule N of a finitely generated module M over a noetherian ring R can be written as an intersection of primary submodules. This is proved in Theorem 13.3.8 below.

Zariski's Main Theorem can be summarized by saying a quasi-finite morphism factors into an open immersion followed by a finite morphism (see Corollary 13.4.16).

The Krull dimension of a commutative ring is defined in terms of the lengths of chains of prime ideals in Spec R. We prove the fundamental properties of this dimension. The Krull dimension of a polynomial ring in n indeterminates over a field k is equal to n.

1. Primary Ideals in a Commutative ring

In this section, R is a commutative ring.

LEMMA 13.1.1. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal of R. The following are equivalent.

- (1) $I \neq R$ and if $xy \in I$, then either $x \in I$ or $y^n \in I$ for some n > 0.
- (2) $R/I \neq 0$ and any zero divisor in R/I is nilpotent.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

An ideal that satisfies one of the equivalent conditions in Lemma 13.1.1 is called a *primary ideal*. In Definition 13.3.2, the more general notion of primary submodule is introduced. By Definition 3.2.11, an ideal I in a commutative ring R is prime if and only if R/I is an integral domain. Therefore, a prime ideal satisfies Lemma 13.1.1 (2) and we see that a prime ideal is a primary ideal.

By Proposition 13.1.2(1), the nil radical of a primary ideal is a prime ideal. For a given prime ideal P, an ideal I is said to be P-primary, if I is a primary ideal and Rad(I) = P.

Proposition 13.1.2. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal of R.

- (1) If I is a primary ideal, then P = Rad(I) is a prime ideal. Hence I is P-primary.
- (2) If $\mathfrak{m} = \operatorname{Rad}(I)$ is a maximal ideal, then I is \mathfrak{m} -primary.
- (3) If $I = \mathfrak{m}^n$ where \mathfrak{m} is a maximal ideal and n > 0, then I is \mathfrak{m} -primary.

PROOF. (1): Assume $xy \in \operatorname{Rad}(I)$. For some n > 0, $(xy)^n = x^n y^n \in I$. If $x^n \notin I$, then y^{nm} is in I for some m > 0. Therefore, one of x or y is in $\operatorname{Rad}(I)$.

(2): By Lemma 7.3.8, there is only one prime ideal that contains I, namely \mathfrak{m} . Therefore, R/I is a local ring and the Jacobson radical is \mathfrak{m}/I , which is equal to the nil radical. Then every element of R/I is either a unit, or a nilpotent. Every zero divisor of R/I is nilpotent.

(3): This is Exercise 13.1.6.

Proposition 13.1.3. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring.

- (1) The nil radical $Rad_R(0)$ is nilpotent.
- (2) Let I be an ideal of R and let N = Rad(I). For some n > 0, $N^n \subseteq I$.

PROOF. (1): Assume $N = \operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$ is generated by x_1, \ldots, x_m . For each i, there exists $e_i > 0$ such that $x_i^{e_i} = 0$. Take $n = e_1 + \cdots + e_m$. Then N^n is generated by elements of the form $x_1^{d_1} \cdots x_m^{d_m}$ where $d_1 + \cdots + d_m = n$. For at least one i we have $d_i \geq e_i$, so $N^n = 0$.

(2): Apply (1) to the ring R/I.

Corollary 13.1.4. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring, \mathfrak{m} a maximal ideal of R. For an ideal I of R, the following are equivalent.

- (1) I is \mathfrak{m} -primary.
- (2) $\operatorname{Rad}(I) = \mathfrak{m}$.
- (3) For some n > 0, $\mathfrak{m}^n \subseteq I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$.

PROOF. (1) is equivalent to (2): Follows from Proposition 13.1.2.

- (2) implies (3): Follows from Proposition 13.1.3.
- (3) implies (2): Follows from Exercise 7.3.21.

1.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 13.1.5. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. Show that if I is a primary ideal of S, then $f^{-1}(I)$ is a primary ideal of R.

EXERCISE 13.1.6. Show that if \mathfrak{m} is a maximal ideal in the commutative ring R, then \mathfrak{m}^n is \mathfrak{m} -primary, for any positive integer n.

EXERCISE 13.1.7. Let R be a commutative ring and $W \subseteq S$ a multiplicative set. Let P be a prime ideal in R and let I be a P-primary ideal. Prove:

- (1) If $P \cap W \neq \emptyset$, then $W^{-1}I = W^{-1}R$.
- (2) If $P \cap W = \emptyset$, then $(W^{-1}I) \cap R = I$.
- (3) $Rad(W^{-1}I) = W^{-1}Rad(I)$.
- (4) If $P \cap W = \emptyset$, then $W^{-1}I$ is $W^{-1}P$ -primary.
- (5) There is a one-to-one correspondence between primary ideals in $W^{-1}R$ and primary ideals I of R such that $I \subseteq R W$.

EXERCISE 13.1.8. Let k be a field and A = k[x, y] the polynomial ring in two variables over k. Let $I = (x, y^2)$. Show that every zero divisor in A/I is nilpotent. Conclude that I is \mathfrak{m} -primary, where $\mathfrak{m} = (x, y) = \operatorname{Rad}(I)$.

EXERCISE 13.1.9. Let k be a field and A = k[x, y] the polynomial ring in two variables over k. Let R be the k-subalgebra of A generated by x^2, xy, y^2 . In R, let $P = (x^2, xy)$.

- (1) Prove that P is prime, $P^2 = (x^4, x^3y, x^2y^2)$, and $Rad(P^2) = P$. Show that y^2 is a zero divisor in R/P^2 which is not nilpotent. Conclude that P^2 is not a primary ideal.
- (2) In R, let $I = (x^2)$. Prove that I is P-primary. (Hint: show that R_P is a principal ideal domain and P^2R_P is a primary ideal. Show that $x^2 \in P^2R_P$.)

EXERCISE 13.1.10. Let k be a field and A = k[x, y] the polynomial ring in two variables over k. Let R be the k-subalgebra of A generated by $x^2, xy, y^2, x^3, x^2y, xy^2, y^3$. In R, let $P = (x^2, xy, x^3, x^2y, xy^2)$ and $I = (x^3)$. Prove:

- (1) P is prime. (Hint: $R/P \cong k[y^2, y^3]$.)
- (2) $P = \operatorname{Rad}(I)$.
- (3) In R/I the elements y^2 and y^3 are zero divisors, but not nilpotent. Conclude that I is not a primary ideal.

EXERCISE 13.1.11. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R and N = Rad(I) the nil radical of I. Prove that the I-adic topology on R is equal to the N-adic topology on R and the I-adic completion of R is isomorphic to the N-adic completion of R. (Hint: Exercise 11.1.17 and Proposition 13.1.3.)

2. The Associated Primes of a Module

General references for the material in this section are [12] and [39]. In this section R is a commutative noetherian ring.

LEMMA 13.2.1. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring, M an R-module, and $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) There exists an element $x \in M$ such that $\operatorname{annih}_{R}(x) = P$.
- (2) M contains a submodule isomorphic to R/P.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

If $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ satisfies one of the conditions of Lemma 13.2.1, then P is called an $\operatorname{associated} \operatorname{prime}$ of M. The set of all associated primes of M in $\operatorname{Spec} R$ is denoted $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(M)$, or simply $\operatorname{Assoc}(M)$. If $r \in R$ and $\ell_r : M \to M$ is "left multiplication by r", then we say r is a $\operatorname{zero} \operatorname{divisor}$ for M in case ℓ_r is not one-to-one. If r is not a zero divisor for M, then we say r is M-regular.

Proposition 13.2.2. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and M an R-module.

- (1) If P is a maximal member of the set of ideals $C = \{\operatorname{annih}_R(x) \mid x \in M (0)\}$, then P is an associated prime of M.
- (2) M = 0 if and only if $Assoc(M) = \emptyset$.
- (3) The set of zero divisors of M is equal to the union of the associated primes of M.
- (4) If P is a prime ideal of R, then $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(R/P) = \{P\}.$
- (5) If N is a submodule of M, then

$$\operatorname{Assoc}(N) \subseteq \operatorname{Assoc}(M) \subseteq \operatorname{Assoc}(N) \cup \operatorname{Assoc}(M/N).$$

(6) Suppose I is an index set and $\{M_{\alpha} \mid \alpha \in I\}$ is a family of submodules of M such that $M = \bigcup_{\alpha} M_{\alpha}$. Then

$$\operatorname{Assoc}_R(M) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} \operatorname{Assoc}_R(M_\alpha).$$

- PROOF. (1): Suppose $P = \operatorname{annih}(x)$ is a maximal member of \mathcal{C} . Assume $a, b \in R$, $ab \in P$, and $b \notin P$. Then $bx \neq 0$ and abx = 0. But $P = \operatorname{annih}(x) \subseteq \operatorname{annih}(bx)$. By maximality of P, we conclude $a \in P$.
- (2): If M=0, then clearly $\operatorname{Assoc}(M)=\emptyset$. If M is nonzero, then in Part (1) we see that $\mathcal C$ is nonempty. Because R is noetherian, $\mathcal C$ contains a maximal member which is an associated prime of M.
- (3): If $r \in R$, $x \in M (0)$ and rx = 0, then $r \in \operatorname{annih}(x)$. By Parts (1) and (2), there exists a prime ideal P which contains r and which is an associated prime of M. Conversely, if P is an associated prime, every element of P is a zero divisor of M.
- (4): If $x + P \neq P$, then in the integral domain R/P, the principal ideal Rx + P is a free R/P-module.
- (5): The inclusion $\operatorname{Assoc}(N) \subseteq \operatorname{Assoc}(M)$ follows straight from Lemma 13.2.1. Let $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}(M)$ and let $S \subseteq M$ be a submodule that is isomorphic to R/P. If $S \cap N = (0)$, then S is isomorphic to a submodule of M/N, so $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}(M/N)$. If $x \in S \cap N$, $x \neq 0$, then by Part (4) the cyclic submodule Rx is isomorphic to R/P. In this case, $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}(N)$.

(6): Is left to the reader.
$$\Box$$

COROLLARY 13.2.3. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and $\{M_{\alpha} \mid \alpha \in I\}$ a family of R-modules, where I is an index set. If $M = \bigoplus_{\alpha \in I} M_{\alpha}$ is the direct sum, then $\operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(M) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} \operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(M_{\alpha})$.

PROOF. If I is a singleton set, then there is nothing to prove.

Step 1: Assume $I=\{\alpha,\beta\}$ has cardinality two. Since the sequence $0\to M_\alpha\to M\to M_\beta\to 0$ is split exact, Proposition 13.2.2(5) applied twice gives $M_\alpha\cup M_\beta\subseteq M\subseteq M_\alpha\cup M_\beta$.

Step 2: Assume $n \geq 2$ and I is a finite set of cardinality n. Then by Mathematical Induction and Step 1, $\mathrm{Assoc}_R(M) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} \mathrm{Assoc}_R(M_\alpha)$.

Step 3: Assume I is infinite. Let $F = \{S \subseteq I \mid S \text{ is a finite subset of } I \text{ and } |S| \ge 1\}$. By Proposition 13.2.2(6) and Step 2,

$$\operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(M) = \bigcup_{S \in F} \operatorname{Assoc}_{R} \left(\bigoplus_{\alpha \in S} M_{\alpha} \right)$$
$$= \bigcup_{S \in F} \bigcup_{\alpha \in S} \operatorname{Assoc}_{R} (M_{\alpha})$$
$$= \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} \operatorname{Assoc}_{R} (M_{\alpha}).$$

Proposition 13.2.4. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring, M an R-module, and Φ a subset of $\mathrm{Assoc}(M)$. Then there exists a submodule N of M such that $\mathrm{Assoc}(N) = \mathrm{Assoc}(M) - \Phi$ and $\mathrm{Assoc}(M/N) = \Phi$.

PROOF. Let \mathfrak{S} be the set of all submodules S of M such that $\mathrm{Assoc}(S) \subseteq \mathrm{Assoc}(M) - \Phi$. Since $(0) \in \mathfrak{S}, \mathfrak{S} \neq \emptyset$. We partially order \mathfrak{S} by set inclusion. If $\{S_{\alpha}\}$ is a chain in \mathfrak{S} , then by Proposition 13.2.2 (6), the union $\bigcup S_{\alpha}$ is also in \mathfrak{S} . By Zorn's Lemma, there exists a maximal element, say N, in \mathfrak{S} . By Proposition 13.2.2 (5), to finish the proof it suffices to show $\mathrm{Assoc}(M/N) \subseteq \Phi$. Let $\mathfrak{p} \in \mathrm{Assoc}(M/N)$. Then there is a submodule F/N of M/N such that F/N is isomorphic to R/\mathfrak{p} . By Proposition 13.2.2 (2), we know $N \subseteq F$. By Proposition 13.2.2 (4) and (5), $\mathrm{Assoc}(F) \subseteq \mathrm{Assoc}(N) \cup \mathrm{Assoc}(F/N) \subseteq \mathrm{Assoc}(N) \cup \{\mathfrak{p}\}$. Since N is a maximal member of \mathfrak{S} , we know $\mathrm{Assoc}(F) \not\subseteq \mathrm{Assoc}(N)$. Therefore, $\mathfrak{p} \in \Phi$.

See Corollary 13.3.12 for a generalization of Lemma 13.2.5.

LEMMA 13.2.5. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and M an R-module. Let $W \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative set and $\theta : R \to W^{-1}R$ the localization. Let $\Phi = \{P \in \operatorname{Spec} R \mid P \cap W = \emptyset\}$. Then

$$\theta^{\sharp}(\operatorname{Assoc}_{W^{-1}R}(W^{-1}M)) = \operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(M) \cap \Phi$$

= $\operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(W^{-1}M)$.

PROOF. By Exercise 7.3.26, the continuous map θ^{\sharp} : Spec $(W^{-1}R) \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is one-to-one and has image equal to Φ .

Step 1: Suppose $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(M) \cap \Phi$. By Lemma 13.2.1, there exists $x \in M$ such that $P = \operatorname{annih}_R(x)$. The diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow R \xrightarrow{1 \mapsto x} Rx \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$0 \longrightarrow W^{-1}P \longrightarrow W^{-1}R \xrightarrow{1 \mapsto x/1} (W^{-1}R)(x/1) \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes and has exact rows. This proves $W^{-1}P$ is equal to $\operatorname{annih}_{W^{-1}R}(x/1)$. Since $P = \theta^{\sharp}(W^{-1}P)$, we have

$$\operatorname{Assoc}_R(M) \cap \Phi \subseteq \theta^{\sharp}(\operatorname{Assoc}_{W^{-1}R}(W^{-1}M)).$$

Step 2: Suppose $P \in \Phi$ and $W^{-1}P$ is an associated prime of $W^{-1}M$. Then $W^{-1}P = \operatorname{annih}_{W^{-1}R}(x/t)$ for some $x \in M$, $t \in W$. Then $\operatorname{annih}_{R}(x/t) = W^{-1}P \cap R = P$, so $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(W^{-1}M)$. That is,

$$\theta^{\sharp}(\mathrm{Assoc}_{W^{-1}R}(W^{-1}M)) \subseteq \mathrm{Assoc}_{R}(W^{-1}M).$$

Since R is noetherian, P is finitely generated. Write $P=Ra_1+\cdots+Ra_n$ for some elements $a_i\in P$. For each a_i we have $(a_i/1)(x/t)=0$. That is, there exists $w_i\in W$ such that $w_ia_ix=0$. Let $w=w_1w_2\cdots w_n$. Given any $y=\sum_i r_ia_i\in P$, it follows that $ywx=\sum_i r_iwa_ix=0$. This proves $P\subseteq \operatorname{annih}_R(wx)$. For the reverse inclusion, suppose $u\in R$ and uwx=0. Then (u/1)(x/t)=0 so u/1 is in $\operatorname{annih}_{W^{-1}R}(x/t)=W^{-1}P$. This proves $P=\operatorname{annih}_R(wx)$ is an associated prime of M, so

$$\theta^{\sharp}(\mathrm{Assoc}_{W^{-1}R}(W^{-1}M)) \subseteq \mathrm{Assoc}_{R}(M) \cap \Phi.$$

Step 3: Suppose $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(W^{-1}M)$. Then $P = \operatorname{annih}_R(x/t)$ for some $x \in M$, $t \in W$. If $w \in P \cap W$, then w(x/t) = 0 implies x/t = 0. Therefore, $P \in \Phi$. The

diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow R \xrightarrow{1 \mapsto x/t} R(x/t) \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$0 \longrightarrow W^{-1}P \longrightarrow W^{-1}R \xrightarrow{1 \mapsto x/t} (W^{-1}R)(x/t) \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes and the rows are exact. Therefore, $W^{-1}P = \operatorname{annih}_{W^{-1}R}(x/t)$. It follows that $W^{-1}P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_{W^{-1}R}(W^{-1}M)$. Since $\theta^{\sharp}(W^{-1}P) = P$, this proves

$$\operatorname{Assoc}_R(W^{-1}M) \subseteq \theta^{\sharp}(\operatorname{Assoc}_{W^{-1}R}(W^{-1}M)),$$

which completes the proof.

PROPOSITION 13.2.6. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring and M an R-module. Let $W \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative set. Let $\Psi = \{ \mathfrak{p} \in \mathrm{Assoc}_R(M) \mid \mathfrak{p} \cap W = \emptyset \}$. If K is the kernel of the localization homomorphism $\theta : M \to W^{-1}M$, then K is the unique submodule of M such that $\mathrm{Assoc}_R(K) = \mathrm{Assoc}_R(M) - \Psi$ and $\mathrm{Assoc}_R(M/K) = \Psi$.

PROOF. Let N be any submodule of M such that $\mathrm{Assoc}_R(N) = \mathrm{Assoc}_R(M) - \Psi$ and $\mathrm{Assoc}_R(M/N) = \Psi$. There exists at least one such N, by Proposition 13.2.4. The proof consists in showing $N = \ker \theta$. Let $\pi: M \to M/N$ be the natural projection. The sequence

$$0 \to W^{-1}N \to W^{-1}M \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \pi} W^{-1}(M/N) \to 0$$

is exact because $W^{-1}R$ is a flat R-module (Lemma 7.1.4). If $\mathfrak{p} \in \mathrm{Assoc}_R(N)$, then $\mathfrak{p} \cap W \neq \emptyset$. By Lemma 13.2.5, $\mathrm{Assoc}_R(W^{-1}N) = \emptyset$. By Proposition 13.2.2 (2), $W^{-1}N = (0)$, hence $1 \otimes \pi$ is one-to-one. Now consider the localization map $\beta: M/N \to W^{-1}(M/N)$. We have $\mathrm{Assoc}_R(\ker \beta) \subseteq \mathrm{Assoc}_R(M/N) \subseteq \Psi$. For contradiction's sake, suppose $\mathfrak{p} \in \mathrm{Assoc}_R(\ker \beta)$. Then there is some $x \in \ker \beta$ and $\mathfrak{p} = \mathrm{annih}_R(x)$. Since $\beta(x) = 0$, $\mathfrak{p} \cap W = \mathrm{annih}_R(x) \cap W \neq \emptyset$. In other words, $\mathfrak{p} \notin \Psi$. This contradiction implies $\mathrm{Assoc}_R(\ker \beta) = \emptyset$, and therefore $\ker \beta = (0)$. In the commutative diagram

$$M \xrightarrow{\pi} M/N$$

$$\downarrow \beta$$

$$W^{-1}M \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \pi} W^{-1}(M/N)$$

the maps β and $1 \otimes \pi$ are one-to-one. Therefore, $K = \ker \theta = \ker \pi = N$.

Let M be a module over the commutative ring R. If $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, then the stalk of M at P is the localization M_P of M with respect to the multiplicative set R - P. The $\operatorname{support}$ of M is the set of all points in $\operatorname{Spec} R$ for which the stalk of M is nontrivial,

$$\operatorname{Supp}_R(M) = \{ P \in \operatorname{Spec} R \mid M_P \neq 0 \}.$$

If R is understood, we write simply Supp(M).

THEOREM 13.2.7. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring and M an R-module.

(1) $\operatorname{Assoc}(M) \subseteq \operatorname{Supp}(M)$.

- (2) If $P \in \text{Supp}(M)$, then P contains a member of Assoc(M). If P is a minimal member of Supp(M), then $P \in \text{Assoc}(M)$.
- (3) The sets Assoc(M) and Supp(M) have the same minimal elements.
- (4) If I is an ideal in R, then the minimal associated primes of the R-module R/I are precisely the minimal prime over-ideals of I.
- PROOF. (1): Let $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}(M)$ and set W = R P. By Lemma 13.2.5, $W^{-1}P$ is an associated prime of $W^{-1}M = M_P$. By Proposition 13.2.2, it follows that $M_P \neq 0$.
- (2): Let $P \in \operatorname{Supp}(M)$. Then $M_P \neq 0$. By Proposition 13.2.2, M_P has an associated prime in R_P . By Lemma 13.2.5, elements of $\operatorname{Assoc}_{R_P}(M_P)$ correspond bijectively to elements of $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(M)$ that are contained in P. This proves that P contains an element of $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(M)$. If P is a minimal member of $\operatorname{Supp}(M)$, then $\operatorname{Supp}(M_P)$ contains only one prime, namely PR_P . In this case, it follows that P is a minimal element in $\operatorname{Assoc}(M)$.
 - (3): Follows from the arguments in (1) and (2).
 - (4): By Exercise 13.2.10, the support of the module R/I is V(I).

DEFINITION 13.2.8. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring and M an R-module. If $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}(M)$ and P is not a minimal member of $\operatorname{Assoc}(M)$, then we say P is an embedded prime of M.

Theorem 13.2.9. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring and M a nonzero finitely generated R-module.

- (1) There exists a filtration $0 = M_0 \subsetneq M_1 \subsetneq M_2 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq M_n = M$ of M and a set of prime ideals $P_i \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ such that $M_i/M_{i-1} \cong R/P_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$.
- (2) If P_1, \ldots, P_n are the primes mentioned in Part (1), then $\operatorname{Assoc}(M) \subseteq \{P_1, \ldots, P_n\} \subseteq \operatorname{Supp}(M)$.
- (3) Assoc(M) is a finite set.
- PROOF. (1): Assume $M \neq (0)$. By Proposition 13.2.2, Assoc $(M) \neq \emptyset$, so there exists a submodule S of M isomorphic to R/P for some prime P. Define $\mathcal C$ to be the set of all submodules $S \subseteq M$ such that S has the kind of filtration specified in Part (1). Since $\mathcal C$ is nonempty and R is noetherian, $\mathcal C$ has a maximal member, say N. If $N \neq M$, then by Proposition 13.2.2, Assoc $(M/N) \neq \emptyset$. By Lemma 13.2.1 applied to M/N there is a submodule S of M such that $N \subsetneq S \subseteq M$ and $S/N \cong R/P$ for some prime P. Therefore, $S \in \mathcal C$ which is a contradiction. This proves Part (1).
- (2): By Proposition 13.2.2 (4), $\operatorname{Assoc}(M_i/M_{i-1}) = \{P_i\}$. Proposition 13.2.2 (5), applied n-1 times, yields

$$\operatorname{Assoc}(M) \subseteq \operatorname{Assoc}(M_1) \cup \operatorname{Assoc}(M_2/M_1) \cup \cdots \cup \operatorname{Assoc}(M_n/M_{n-1})$$

$$\subseteq \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}.$$

By Exercise 13.2.10, the support of the R-module R/P_i is $V(P_i)$, which contains P_i . By Exercise 13.2.11, $P_i \in \text{Supp}(M_i) \subseteq \text{Supp}(M)$. This proves Part (2).

(3): This follows straight from Part (2).

2.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 13.2.10. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal in R. Let $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. Prove that $(R/I)_P \neq 0$ if and only if $I \subseteq P$. Conclude that $\operatorname{Supp}(R/I)$ is equal to V(I). In particular, $\operatorname{Supp}(R) = \operatorname{Spec} R$.

EXERCISE 13.2.11. Let R be a commutative ring, M an R-module and N a submodule. Show that

$$\operatorname{Supp}(M) = \operatorname{Supp}(N) \cup \operatorname{Supp}(M/N).$$

(Hint: Localize the exact sequence $0 \to N \to M \to M/N \to 0$.)

EXERCISE 13.2.12. Let R be a commutative ring, M an R-module and $\{M_{\alpha} \mid \alpha \in I\}$ a collection of submodules such that $\sum_{\alpha \in I} M_{\alpha} = M$. Show that

$$\operatorname{Supp}(M) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} \operatorname{Supp}(M_{\alpha}).$$

(Hint: Use Exercise 13.2.11 and the exact sequence $\bigoplus_{\alpha \in I} M_\alpha \to M \to 0.)$

EXERCISE 13.2.13. Let R be a commutative ring, M an R-module and $\{x_{\alpha} \mid \alpha \in I\}$ a set of generators for M. Show that

$$\operatorname{Supp}(M) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} \operatorname{Supp}(Rx_{\alpha})$$
$$= \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} V(\operatorname{annih}(x_{\alpha})).$$

(Hint: Use Exercise 13.2.10, Exercise 13.2.12, and the isomorphism $Rx_{\alpha} \cong R/\operatorname{annih}(x_{\alpha})$.)

EXERCISE 13.2.14. Let R be a commutative ring and I_1, \ldots, I_n some ideals in R. Show that

$$V(I_1 \cap \cdots \cap I_n) = V(I_1 \cdots I_n) = V(I_1) \cup \cdots \cup V(I_n).$$

(Hint: Use Lemma 10.3.3 and Lemma 7.3.3.)

EXERCISE 13.2.15. Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated R-module. Show that $\mathrm{Supp}(M) = V(\mathrm{annih}(M))$. Conclude that $\mathrm{Supp}(M)$ is a closed subset of $\mathrm{Spec}\,R$. (Hint: $\mathrm{annih}(M) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n \mathrm{annih}(x_i)$ where x_1,\ldots,x_n is a generating set for M. Use Exercise 13.2.13 and Exercise 13.2.14.)

EXERCISE 13.2.16. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring, M a finitely generated R-module and I an ideal of R such that $\operatorname{Supp}(M) \subseteq V(I)$. Show that there exists n > 0 such that $I^n M = 0$. (Hint: Show that $\operatorname{Rad}(I) \subseteq \operatorname{Rad}(\operatorname{annih}(M))$). Use Proposition 13.1.3.)

EXERCISE 13.2.17. Let R be a commutative ring and M a finitely generated R-module. Show that the minimal associated primes of M are precisely the minimal prime over-ideals of annih(M).

EXERCISE 13.2.18. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and P_1, \ldots, P_n the complete list of distinct minimal primes of the zero ideal. Prove that the kernel of the natural map

$$R \xrightarrow{\phi} \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} R/P_i$$

is equal to the nil radical of R.

EXERCISE 13.2.19. Let *A* and *R* be as in Exercise 13.1.10. In *R*, let $I = (x^3)$ and $\mathfrak{m} = (x^2, xy, y^2, x^3, x^2y, xy^2, y^3)$. Prove:

- (1) m is a maximal ideal.
- (2) $x^4 \mathfrak{m} \subseteq I$.
- (3) $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(R/I)$.

EXERCISE 13.2.20. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring, M a finitely generated R-module and N an arbitrary R-module. Prove:

- (1) $\operatorname{Supp}(\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, N)) \subset \operatorname{Supp}(M)$.
- (2) For any $n \ge 1$, $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(N) = \operatorname{Assoc}_R(\bigoplus_{i=1}^n N)$.
- (3) If $R^n \to M \to 0$ is an exact sequence, then $0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(R^n,N)$ is an exact sequence.
- (4) If $\mathfrak{p} \in \mathrm{Assoc}_R(\mathrm{Hom}_R(M,N))$, then $\mathfrak{p} \in \mathrm{Assoc}_R(N) \cap \mathrm{Supp}(M)$.

EXERCISE 13.2.21. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring, M a finitely generated R-module, and N an arbitrary R-module. Let $\mathfrak{p} \in \mathrm{Assoc}_R(N) \cap \mathrm{Supp}(M)$. Follow the steps below to prove that $\mathfrak{p} \in \mathrm{Assoc}_R(\mathrm{Hom}_R(M,N))$.

- (1) $M \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{p}) \neq 0$, where $k(\mathfrak{p}) = R_{\mathfrak{p}}/\mathfrak{p}R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is the residue field.
- (2) The natural map $\operatorname{Hom}_{k(\mathfrak{p})}(M \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{p}), k(\mathfrak{p})) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}}(M \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{p}), k(\mathfrak{p}))$ is one-to-one, hence both modules are nonzero.
- (3) The natural map $\operatorname{Hom}_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}}(M \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{p}), k(\mathfrak{p})) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}}(M_{\mathfrak{p}}, k(\mathfrak{p}))$ is one-to-one, hence both modules are nonzero.
- (4) $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, R/\mathfrak{p})$ is nonzero.
- (5) \mathfrak{p} is an associated prime of $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, R/\mathfrak{p})$.
- (6) \mathfrak{p} is an associated prime of $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, N)$.

EXERCISE 13.2.22. Let R be a noetherian integral domain and M a finitely generated nonzero R-module. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (1) M is torsion free (see Definition 4.3.4).
- (2) $\operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(M) = \{(0)\}.$
- (3) $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)$ is torsion free.

(Hint: Exercises 13.2.20, and 13.2.21.)

EXERCISE 13.2.23. Let R be a noetherian commutative local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . Let C be a finitely generated nonzero R-module and assume $\mathrm{Assoc}_R(C) = \{\mathfrak{m}\}$. Prove that if M is a finitely generated nonzero R-module, then $\mathrm{Hom}_R(M,C)$ is nonzero. (Hint: Exercise 13.2.21.)

EXERCISE 13.2.24. Let R be an integral domain and M and N two R-modules. Prove that if N is torsion free (Definition 4.3.4), then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is torsion free. (Hint: Prove this directly, it does not require any theorem from this chapter.)

3. Primary Decomposition Theorem

3.1. Primary Submodules.

Proposition 13.3.1. If R is a noetherian commutative ring and M is an R-module, then (1) and (2) are equivalent.

- (1) Assoc $(M) = \{P\}$. In words, M has exactly one associated prime.
- (2) (a) $M \neq 0$, and
 - (b) if $r \in R$ is a zero divisor for M, then for every $x \in M$ there exists n > 0 such that $r^n x = 0$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Suppose r is a zero divisor for M. By Proposition 13.2.2(3), $r \in P$. Given any $x \in M - (0)$, $Rx \neq 0$. Therefore $\emptyset \neq \operatorname{Assoc}(Rx) \subseteq \operatorname{Assoc}(M) = \{P\}$, which implies $\operatorname{Assoc}(Rx) = \{P\}$. By Theorem 13.2.7(3), P is the unique minimal member of $\operatorname{Supp}(Rx)$. By Exercise 13.2.15, P is the unique minimal member of $V(\operatorname{annih}(Rx))$. Therefore, $P = \operatorname{Rad}(\operatorname{annih}(Rx))$. There exists n > 0 such that $r^n \in \operatorname{annih}(Rx)$.

(2) implies (1): Let P be the set of all zero divisors in R for M. By (2), if $r \in P$ and $x \in M$, then there exists n > 0 such that $r^n x = 0$. The reader should verify that P is an ideal in R. Let $Q \in \operatorname{Assoc}(M)$. There exists $x \in M$ such that $Q = \operatorname{annih}(x)$. Every element of Q is a zero divisor, so $Q \subseteq P$. Given $r \in P$, there exists n > 0 such that $r^n \in \operatorname{annih}(x) = Q$. Since Q is prime, this implies $r \in Q$. So $P \subseteq Q$.

DEFINITION 13.3.2. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring and M an R-module. Suppose N is a submodule of M and M/N satisfies the equivalent conditions of Proposition 13.3.1. That is, assume $\operatorname{Assoc}(M/N) = \{P\}$. Then we say N is a P-primary submodule of M. Suppose I is an ideal of R. Comparing Lemma 13.1.1 and Proposition 13.3.1 we see that I is a primary submodule of R if and only if I is a primary ideal of R and in this case, $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(R/I) = \operatorname{Rad}(I)$.

LEMMA 13.3.3. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring, M an R-module, and P a prime ideal of R. If S,T are P-primary submodules of M, then $S \cap T$ is a P-primary submodule of M.

Proof. The sequence

$$0 \to M/(S \cap T) \to M/S \oplus M/T$$

is exact. By Proposition 13.2.2 (5), $\operatorname{Assoc}(M/(S \cap T)) \subseteq \operatorname{Assoc}(M/S) \cup \operatorname{Assoc}(M/T) = \{P\}$. Since $M/(S \cap T) \neq 0$, it follows that P is the only associated prime of $M/(S \cap T)$.

3.2. Primary Decomposition.

DEFINITION 13.3.4. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring, M an R-module, and N a submodule of M. A primary decomposition of N is a representation of the form $N = Y_1 \cap Y_2 \cap \cdots \cap Y_n$ where each Y_i is a primary submodule of M. Let P_i denote the associated prime of M/Y_i . The primary decomposition $N = Y_1 \cap Y_2 \cap \cdots \cap Y_n$ is called reduced in case

- (1) P_1, \ldots, P_n are distinct prime ideals and
- (2) for j = 1, 2, ..., n we have $Y_j \not\supseteq \bigcap_{i \neq j} Y_i$.

A primary decomposition can always be simplified to a reduced one. In fact, any submodule Y_j for which (2) fails is redundant hence can be removed. Furthermore, Lemma 13.3.3 says that we can merge by intersection all of the Y_i that have the same associated prime.

LEMMA 13.3.5. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring, M an R-module, and N a submodule of M. Suppose $N = Y_1 \cap Y_2 \cap \cdots \cap Y_n$ is a reduced primary decomposition. For each i, let P_i be the associated prime ideal of M/Y_i . Then

- (1) Assoc $(M/N) = \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}.$
- (2) In a reduced primary decomposition of N, the set of associated prime ideals is uniquely determined by N.

PROOF. This proof uses Proposition 13.2.2, Parts (2) and (5). The sequence

$$0 \to N \to M \to \bigoplus_{i=1}^n M/Y_i$$

is exact. Therefore $\operatorname{Assoc}(M/N) \subseteq \operatorname{Assoc}(M/Y_1) \cup \cdots \cup \operatorname{Assoc}(M/Y_n) = \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}.$ Fix j and let $N_j = \bigcap_{i \neq j} Y_i$. Then $N_j \cap Y_j = N$, so the sequence

$$0 \to N \to N_j \to M/Y_j$$

is exact. Therefore $\operatorname{Assoc}(N_j/N) \subseteq \operatorname{Assoc}(M/Y_j) = \{P_j\}$. Since the decomposition of N is reduced, $N_i/N \neq 0$, and $\operatorname{Assoc}(N_i/N) \neq \emptyset$. Thus $P_i \in \operatorname{Assoc}(N_i/N)$. Because

$$0 \to N \to N_i \to M/N$$

is exact, we conclude that $P_j \in \operatorname{Assoc}(N_j/N) \subseteq \operatorname{Assoc}(M/N)$.

Proposition 13.3.6. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring, $P, Q \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, M an R-module and N a P-primary submodule of M. Let $\theta: M \to M_Q$ be the localization.

- (1) If $P \not\subseteq Q$, then $N_Q = M_Q$. (2) If $P \subseteq Q$, then $N = M \cap N_Q$. That is, $N = \theta^{-1}(N_Q)$.

PROOF. (1): By assumption, $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(M/N) = \{P\}$. Let $\Phi = \{x \in \operatorname{Spec} R \mid$ $x \subseteq Q$. Then $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(M/N) \cap \Phi = \emptyset$. By Lemma 13.2.5, $\operatorname{Assoc}_R((M/N)_Q) = \emptyset$. But Proposition 13.2.2 (2) implies $M_Q/N_Q = (M/N)_Q = 0$.

(2): By Proposition 13.3.1, the set of all zero divisors for M/N is equal to P, which is contained in Q. The set R-Q does not contain any zero divisors for M/N, so the localization map $M/N \to (M/N)_Q = M_Q/N_Q$ is one-to-one.

Corollary 13.3.7. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring, M an R-module and N a submodule of M which possesses a reduced primary decomposition, N = $Y_1 \cap \cdots \cap Y_n$. Let P_i denote the associated prime of M/Y_i .

- (1) If P_i is a minimal member of Assoc(M/N), then $Y_i = M \cap N_{P_i}$.
- (2) In a reduced primary decomposition of N, a primary component belonging to a minimal associated prime is uniquely determined by N and the prime.

PROOF. (1): If $i \neq j$, then by Proposition 13.3.6 applied with $N = Y_j$, $P = P_j$, $Q = P_i$, it follows that $(Y_i)_{P_i} = M_{P_i}$. On the other hand, $M \cap (Y_i)_{P_i} = Y_i$. Together with Exercise 7.1.12, we get

$$M \cap N_{P_i} = M \cap (Y_1 \cap \dots \cap Y_n)_{P_i}$$

$$= M \cap ((Y_1)_{P_i} \cap \dots \cap (Y_n)_{P_i})$$

$$= M \cap (Y_i)_{P_i}$$

$$= Y_i$$

(2): Follows from (1).

THEOREM 13.3.8. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring and M an R-module.

- (1) For each $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}(M)$ there exists a P-primary submodule Y_P of Msuch that $(0) = \bigcap_{P \in Assoc(M)} Y_P$.
- (2) If M is finitely generated and N is a submodule of M, then there exists a primary decomposition $N = \bigcap_{P \in Assoc(M/N)} Y_P$, where Y_P is a P-primary $submodule \ of \ M$.

PROOF. (1): Fix $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}(M)$. Let $\mathcal C$ be the set of all submodules S of M such that P is not an associated prime of S. Because $(0) \in \mathcal C$, this is a nonempty set. Given a linearly ordered subset $\{S_i \mid i \in I\} \subseteq \mathcal C$, let $S = \bigcup_{i \in I} S_i$. Then S is a submodule of M and $P \notin \operatorname{Assoc}(S)$. Therefore, $S \in \mathcal C$. By Zorn's Lemma, Proposition 1.3.3, there exists a maximal member, say Y, in $\mathcal C$. Because $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}(M)$ and $P \notin \operatorname{Assoc}(Y)$, Proposition 13.2.2 (5) implies $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}(M/Y)$. To show that Y is P-primary, suppose $P' \in \operatorname{Assoc}(M/Y)$ and $P' \neq P$. Then there exists a submodule $Y \subsetneq Y' \subseteq M$ such that $Y'/Y \cong R/P'$. Therefore $\operatorname{Assoc}(Y'/Y) = \{P'\}$ and by Proposition 13.2.2 (5), $P \notin \operatorname{Assoc}(Y') \subseteq \operatorname{Assoc}(Y) \cup \{P'\}$. Then $Y' \in \mathcal C$ which contradicts the maximal choice of Y. We have shown that $Y_P = Y$ is P-primary. Since

$$\operatorname{Assoc}\left(\bigcap_{P\in\operatorname{Assoc}(M)}Y_{P}\right)\subseteq\bigcap_{P\in\operatorname{Assoc}(M)}\operatorname{Assoc}(Y_{P})=\emptyset,$$

it follows from Proposition 13.2.2 (2) that $\bigcap_{P \in Assoc(M)} Y_P = (0)$. This proves (1).

(2): Apply Part (1) to the module M/N. The set $\mathrm{Assoc}(M/N)$ is finite, by Theorem 13.2.9. \square

3.3. Exercise.

EXERCISE 13.3.9. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring, $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, and $n \geq 1$. Prove:

- (1) P is the unique minimal associated prime of P^n .
- (2) The P-primary component of P^n is uniquely determined by P and n. The P-primary component of P^n is denoted $P^{(n)}$ and is called the nth symbolic power of P.
- $(3) P^{(n)} = P^n R_P \cap R.$
- **3.4. Flat Algebras and Associated Primes.** Throughout this section R and S will be commutative rings. Usually R and S will be noetherian. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings, and $f^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ the continuous map of Exercise 7.3.20. Let $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. The residue field at P is $k(P) = R_P/PR_P$. The fiber over P of the map f^{\sharp} is $\operatorname{Spec}(S \otimes_R k(P))$, which is homeomorphic to $(f^{\sharp})^{-1}(P)$, by Exercise 7.4.11. By Exercise 7.4.10, if Q is a prime ideal of S lying over P, then the corresponding prime ideal of $S \otimes_R k(P)$ is $Q \otimes_R k(P)$ and the local ring is $S_Q \otimes_R k(P) = S_Q/PS_Q$.

Proposition 13.3.10. Let $f:R\to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative noetherian rings, and M an S-module. Then

$$f^{\sharp}(\mathrm{Assoc}_{S}(M)) = \mathrm{Assoc}_{R}(M).$$

PROOF. Step 1: Show f^{\sharp} (Assoc_S(M)) \subseteq Assoc_R(M). Suppose $Q \in$ Assoc_S(M). By Lemma 13.2.1, there exists $x \in M$ such that $Q = \operatorname{annih}_S(x)$. Now $\operatorname{annih}_R(x) = \operatorname{annih}_S(x) \cap R = Q \cap R = f^{\sharp}(Q)$, which proves Step 1.

Step 2: We show that f^{\sharp} (Assoc_S(M)) \supseteq Assoc_R(M). Suppose $P \in \text{Assoc}_R(M)$. By Lemma 13.2.1, there exists $x \in M$ such that $P = \text{annih}_R(x)$. Set $N = \text{annih}_S(x)$. By Theorem 13.3.8 there exists a reduced primary decomposition $N = Y_1 \cap Y_2 \cap \cdots \cap Y_n$. For each i, Y_i is a primary ideal in S. By Proposition 13.1.2, let $Q_i = \text{Rad}_S(Y_i)$ be the associated prime ideal of S/Y_i . Then $\text{Assoc}_S(S/N) = \{Q_1, \ldots, Q_n\}$, by Lemma 13.3.5. The cyclic submodule Sx of M is isomorphic to S/N. By Proposition 13.2.2, each Q_i is in $\text{Assoc}_S(M)$. The proof

will be complete if we show $P=Q_i\cap R=f^\sharp(Q_i)$ for some i. For contradiction's sake, assume $P\neq Q_i\cap R$ for each i. We have $P=\mathrm{annih}_R(x)=\mathrm{annih}_S(x)\cap R=N\cap R\subseteq Y_i\cap R\subseteq Q_i\cap R$. So for each i there exists $y_i\in Q_i\cap R-P$. Since $Q_i=\mathrm{Rad}_S(Y_i)$, there exists $\alpha_i>0$ such that $y_i^{\alpha_i}\in Y_i\cap R$. Then $y=y_1^{\alpha_1}\cdots y_n^{\alpha_n}\in Y_1\cdots Y_n\cap R\subseteq Y_1\cap \cdots\cap Y_n\cap R=N\cap R=P$. Since P is a prime ideal, $y_i\in P$ for some i. This is a contradiction.

Theorem 13.3.11. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative noetherian rings, B an S-module that is flat as an R-module. Then the following are true.

(1) For each $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$,

$$f^{\sharp} (\operatorname{Assoc}_{S}(B/PB)) = \operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(B/PB)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \{P\} & \text{if } B/PB \neq (0) \\ \emptyset & \text{if } B/PB = (0). \end{cases}$$

(2) If A is any R-module, then

$$\operatorname{Assoc}_S(A \otimes_R B) = \bigcup_{P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(A)} \operatorname{Assoc}_S(B/PB).$$

PROOF. (1): By Proposition 13.2.2 (2)) we can assume $B/PB \neq (0)$, otherwise all of the sets are empty. By Theorem 6.4.23, $B/PB = B \otimes_R R/P$ is a flat R/P-module. Since R/P is an integral domain, B/PB is a torsion free R/P-module, by Exercise 7.8.13. Applying Proposition 13.3.10 twice,

$$f^{\sharp} (\operatorname{Assoc}_{S}(B/PB)) = \operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(B/PB)$$

$$= \eta^{\sharp} (\operatorname{Assoc}_{R/P}(B/PB))$$

$$= \eta^{\sharp} (\{(0)\})$$

$$= \{P\}$$

where $\eta: R \to R/P$ is the natural homomorphism.

(2): First we show the right hand side is contained in the left. We remark that this part of the proof does not require R to be noetherian. Let $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(A)$. There exists $x \in A$ and R/P is isomorphic to the cyclic submodule $Rx \subseteq A$. Tensoring with B which is a flat R-module, we see that $R/P \otimes_R B = B/PB$ is isomorphic to the S-submodule $Rx \otimes_R B$ of $A \otimes_R B$. By Proposition 13.2.2(5), $\operatorname{Assoc}_S(A \otimes_R B) \supseteq \operatorname{Assoc}_S(B/PB)$.

Now we show the left hand side is contained in the right. This part of the proof is split into three cases.

Case 1: We show that the result is true if A is a finitely generated R-module and $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(A)=\{P\}$ is a singleton set. Let x_1,\ldots,x_m be a generating set for A over R. For any $r\in P$, there is n>0 such that $r^nx_i=0$ for all i (Proposition 13.3.1). For any $a\in A$, $r^na=0$. Let $Q\in\operatorname{Assoc}_S(A\otimes_R B)$. Then there is $z=\sum_{i=1}^t a_i\otimes b_i\in A\otimes_R B$ such that $Q=\operatorname{annih}_S(z)$. Since $r^na_i=0$ for each $i,\ r^n\in Q$. Since Q is a prime ideal, $r\in Q$. This shows $Q\cap R\supseteq P$. Given $r\in R-P$, r is not a zero divisor for M. That is, $\ell_r:A\to A$ is one-to-one. Since B is R-flat, $\ell_r\otimes 1:A\otimes_R B\to A\otimes_R B$ is one-to-one. Therefore, r is not in Q. Hence $Q\cap R\subseteq P$. We have shown that $f^\sharp(\operatorname{Assoc}_S(A\otimes_R B))=\operatorname{Assoc}_R(A)=\{P\}$.

Now apply Theorem 13.2.9 to get a filtration $0 = A_0 \subsetneq A_1 \subsetneq A_2 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq A_n = A$ of A and a set of prime ideals $P_i \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ such that $A_i/A_{i-1} \cong R/P_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. Since B is R-flat, $0 = A_0 \otimes_R B \subsetneq A_1 \otimes_R B \subsetneq A_2 \otimes_R B \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq A_n \otimes_R B = A \otimes_R B$ is a filtration of $A \otimes_R B$ and $A_i \otimes_R B/A_{i-1} \otimes_R B \cong R/P_i \otimes_R B = B/P_i B$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. Proposition 13.2.2 (5), applied n - 1 times, yields

$$\operatorname{Assoc}_S(A \otimes_R B) \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n \operatorname{Assoc}_S(B/P_i B).$$

By Part (1), if $Q \in \mathrm{Assoc}_S(B/P_iB)$, then $Q \cap R = P_i$. By what we proved in the first paragraph of Case 1, if $P_i \neq P$, then $Q \notin \mathrm{Assoc}_S(A \otimes_R B)$. This proves $\mathrm{Assoc}_S(A \otimes_R B) \subseteq \mathrm{Assoc}_S(B/PB)$.

Case 2: We prove (2) is true if A is a finitely generated R-module. By Theorem 13.3.8, for each $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(M)$ there is a P-primary submodule Y(P) of A such that $(0) = \bigcap_{P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(A)} Y(P)$. Then the sequence of R-modules

$$0 \to A \to \bigoplus_{P \in \mathrm{Assoc}_R(A)} A/Y(P)$$

is exact. Since B is R-flat,

$$0 \to A \otimes_R B \to \bigoplus_{P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(A)} A/Y(P) \otimes_R B$$

is an exact sequence of S-modules. By Case 1, $\operatorname{Assoc}_S(A/Y(P) \otimes_R B) = \operatorname{Assoc}_S(B/PB)$. Applying Proposition 13.2.2 (5),

$$\operatorname{Assoc}_{S}(A \otimes_{R} B) \subseteq \bigcup_{P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(A)} \operatorname{Assoc}_{S}(A/Y(P) \otimes_{R} B)$$
$$\subseteq \bigcup_{P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(A)} \operatorname{Assoc}_{S}(B/PB)$$

which proves (2) in this case.

Case 3: Let A be an R-module. Given any $Q \in \mathrm{Assoc}_S(A \otimes_R B)$, there is $z \in A \otimes_R B$ such that $Q = \mathrm{annih}_S(z)$. Write $z = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \otimes b_i$ for some elements $a_i \in A$ and $b_i \in B$. Let $Z = \sum_{i=1}^n Ra_i$ be the R-submodule of A generated by a_1, \ldots, a_n . Since z is in the S-submodule $Z \otimes_R B$ of $A \otimes_R B$, it follows that $Q \in \mathrm{Assoc}_S(Z \otimes_R B)$. By Case 2, there is $P \in \mathrm{Assoc}_R(Z)$ such that $Q \in \mathrm{Assoc}_S(B/PB)$. Since $\mathrm{Assoc}_R(Z) \subseteq \mathrm{Assoc}_R(A)$, this completes the proof.

The following corollary of Theorem 13.3.11 is a generalization of Lemma 13.2.5.

Corollary 13.3.12. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative noetherian rings and assume S is flat as an R-module. Then the following are true.

- (1) $\operatorname{Assoc}_S(S) = \bigcup_{P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(R)} \operatorname{Assoc}_S(S/PS)$
- (2) $f^{\sharp}(\operatorname{Assoc}_{S}(S)) = \{P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(R) \mid S \neq PS\}.$
- (3) If S is faithfully flat over R, then $f^{\sharp}(\operatorname{Assoc}_{S}(S)) = \operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(R)$.

4. Zariski's Main Theorem

The proof we give is from [48, Chapter IV]. Throughout this section all rings are commutative.

Let B be a finitely generated commutative A-algebra with structure homomorphism $f:A\to B$. If $p\in \operatorname{Spec} A$ and $k_p=A_p/pA_p$ is the residue field at p, then the fiber over p of f is $B\otimes_A k_p$. If $B\otimes_A k_p$ is finite dimensional over k_p for all $p\in \operatorname{Spec} A$, then we say B is quasi-finite over A (see Definition 13.4.4). As we see in Proposition 13.4.3 below, this is equivalent to the property that for every $p\in \operatorname{Spec} A$, the fiber $\operatorname{Spec}(B\otimes_A k_p)$ is a discrete set. While the thrust of Zariski's Main Theorem itself can be somewhat difficult for one to grasp on first encounter, there is one important application that can be readily stated here. In Corollary 13.4.16 we show that if B is a quasi-finite A-algebra, then there is an A-subalgebra B of B such that B is finitely generated as an B-module and B-module and B-module B

4.1. Quasi-finite Algebras.

PROPOSITION 13.4.1. Let k be a field, B a finitely generated commutative k-algebra, and $q \in \operatorname{Spec} B$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) q is an isolated point in Spec B.
- (2) B_q is a finite dimensional k-algebra.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): If the point q is isolated in the Zariski topology, then it is an open set. There exists $f \in B$ such that $q = \operatorname{Spec} B - V(f) = \operatorname{Spec} B_f$. Since B_f is noetherian and has only one prime ideal, B_f is artinian by Proposition 8.4.4. Since B_f has only one prime ideal, B_f is local with maximal ideal qB_f . By Exercise 10.2.23, B_f is finite dimensional over k. Since B_f is local, $B_f = (B_f)_q = B_q$, which shows B_q is finite dimensional over k.

(2) implies (1): Suppose B_q is finite dimensional over k. Let K and C be the kernel and cokernel of the localization map $B \to B_q$. Consider the sequence of B-modules

$$0 \to K \to B \to B_q \to C \to 0.$$

Then $K_q = C_q = 0$. Since B is noetherian, K is finitely generated over B. Since B_q is finite dimensional over k, C is finite dimensional over k hence finitely generated over B. By Lemma 7.1.7, there exists $f \in B - q$ such that $K_f = C_f = 0$. Therefore $B_f = B_q$. But B_q is local and finite dimensional over k, hence is artinian. So $\operatorname{Spec} B_q = q = \operatorname{Spec} B_f$. So q is isolated.

PROPOSITION 13.4.2. Let B be a finitely generated commutative A-algebra, $q \in \operatorname{Spec} B$, and $p = q \cap A$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) q is an isolated point in the fiber $\operatorname{Spec}(B \otimes_A k_p) = \operatorname{Spec}(B \otimes_A (A_p/pA_p))$.
- (2) B_q/pB_q is finite dimensional over k_p .

PROOF. By k_p we denote the residue field of A at the prime p. That is, $k_p = A_p/pA_p$. Then $B \otimes_A k_p = B \otimes_A A_p \otimes_{A_p} k_p = B_p \otimes_{A_p} k_p$. Also, $B_q = (B_p)_q$, from which we get $B_q/pB_q = (B_p)_q/p(B_p)_q$. It is enough to prove the proposition when A is a local ring with maximal ideal p. In this case, $B/pB = B \otimes_A k_p$ is a

finitely generated algebra over the field $A/p = k_p$ and $(B/pB)_q = B_q/pB_q$. Apply Proposition 13.4.1 to the algebra B/pB over k_p .

If A and B are as in Proposition 13.4.2 and either (1) or (2) is satisfied, then we say B is quasi-finite over A at q.

Proposition 13.4.3. Let B be a finitely generated commutative A-algebra. The following are equivalent.

- (1) B is quasi-finite over A for all $q \in \operatorname{Spec} B$.
- (2) For all $p \in \operatorname{Spec} A$, $B \otimes_A k_p$ is a finite dimensional k_p -algebra.

PROOF. It is enough to prove the proposition when A=k is a field. Assume that B is a finitely generated k-algebra.

- (2) implies (1): Assume B is a finite dimensional k-algebra. Therefore, B is artinian (Exercise 7.6.35) and semilocal (Proposition 8.4.3). By Theorem 8.4.6, the natural homomorphism $B \to \bigoplus B_q$ is an isomorphism, where q runs through the finite set Spec B. Each B_q is finite dimensional over k. By Proposition 13.4.1, each q is isolated in Spec B.
- (1) implies (2): For each $q \in \operatorname{Spec} B$, q is isolated. So $\operatorname{Spec} B$ is a disjoint union $\bigcup_{q \in \operatorname{Spec} B} \operatorname{Spec} B_{f(q)}$, where $\operatorname{Spec} B_{f(q)} = q$. Only finitely many of the f(q) are required to generate the unit ideal, so the union is finite. Therefore B is a finite direct sum of the local rings $B_{f(q)} = B_q$. Each B_q is finite dimensional over k, by Proposition 13.4.1. Therefore B is finite dimensional over k.

DEFINITION 13.4.4. Let B be a commutative finitely generated A-algebra. If either Part (1) or (2) of Proposition 13.4.3 is satisfied, then we say B is quasi-finite over A.

LEMMA 13.4.5. Let $A \subseteq C \subseteq B$ be three rings. Assume B is finitely generated over A and $q \in \operatorname{Spec} B$. If B is quasi-finite over A at q, then B is quasi-finite over C at q.

PROOF. Let $p = q \cap A$ and $r = q \cap C$. The fiber over r is a subset of the fiber over p. If q is isolated in the fiber over p, then q is isolated in the fiber over r. \square

EXAMPLE 13.4.6. (1) If B is a commutative A-algebra that is finitely generated as an A-module, then B is quasi-finite over A (Exercise 13.4.20).

(2) Let A be a commutative ring, $f \in A$, and $B = A_f$. If $q \in \text{Spec } B$, and $p = q \cap A$, then $B_q = A_p$. Therefore, A_f is quasi-finite over A.

4.2. Zariski's Main Theorem.

Lemma 13.4.7. Let $A\subseteq B$ be commutative rings, $q\in\operatorname{Spec} B$ and $p=q\cap A$. Assume

- (1) A is integrally closed in B,
- (2) B = A[x] is generated by one element as an A-algebra, and
- (3) B is quasi-finite over A at q.

Then $B_p = A_p$.

PROOF. The first step is to reduce to the case where A is a local ring with maximal ideal p. Clearly $B_p = A[x] \otimes_A A_p$ is finitely generated over A_p and B_p is

quasi-finite over A_p . Let us check that A_p is integrally closed in B_p . Let $b \in B$ and $f \in A - p$ and assume b/f is integral over A_p . Then

$$\frac{b^n}{f^n} + \frac{a_{n-1}}{y_{n-1}} \frac{b^{n-1}}{f^{n-1}} + \dots + \frac{a_0}{y_0} = 0$$

for some $a_i \in A$ and $y_i \in A - p$. Multiply both sides by f^n to get

$$b^{n} + \frac{fa_{n-1}}{y_{n-1}}b^{n-1} + \dots + \frac{f^{n}a_{0}}{y_{0}}.$$

Let $y = y_0 \cdots y_{n-1}$ and multiply both sides by y^n to get

$$y^{n}b^{n} + \frac{fya_{n-1}}{y_{n-1}}y^{n-1}b^{n-1} + \dots + \frac{f^{n}y^{n}a_{0}}{y_{0}} = 0$$
$$(yb)^{n} + \alpha_{n-1}(yb)^{n-1} + \dots + \alpha_{0} = 0$$

for some $\alpha_i \in A$. So yb is integral over A, hence $b \in A_p$.

From now on we assume

- (1) A is integrally closed in B,
- (2) B = A[x],
- (3) A is local with maximal ideal p, and if $q \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ lies over p, then B is quasi-finite over A at q.

Out goal is to prove that A=B. It is enough to show that x is integral over A. Let k=A/p. Since B is quasi-finite over A at q, $B/pB=A[x]\otimes_A k=k[\bar{x}]$ is the fiber over p and q is isolated in Spec $k[\bar{x}]$. Throughout the rest of the proof, if $b\in B$, then the image of b in B/pB will be denoted by \bar{b} . By Exercise 13.4.19, \bar{x} is algebraic over k. There exists a monic polynomial $f(t)\in A[t]$ of degree greater than or equal to one, such that $\bar{f}(\bar{x})=0$ in $k[\bar{x}]$. That is, $f(x)\in pB$. Let y=1+f(x). We have the inclusion relations $A\subseteq A[y]\subseteq A[x]$ and because x is integral over A[y], the map $\mathrm{Spec}\, k[x]\to \mathrm{Spec}\, k[y]$ is onto by Theorem 10.3.7. Let \bar{y} denote the image of y in $k[y]\otimes_A k=k[\bar{y}]$. Under the map $k[\bar{y}]\to k[\bar{x}]$, the image of \bar{y} is 1. Because \bar{y} generates the unit ideal of $k[\bar{x}]$, we see that \bar{y} does not belong to any prime ideal of $k[\bar{y}]$. Therefore, \bar{y} is a unit of $k[\bar{y}]$. Since $\mathrm{Spec}\, k[\bar{x}]$ is finite, it follows that $\mathrm{Spec}\, k[\bar{y}]$ is finite. That is to say, $k[\bar{y}]$ is finite dimensional over k.

Now we show that $y \in A$. Since \bar{y} is algebraic over k, there exist $a_i \in A$ such that

$$\bar{y}^n + \bar{a}_{n-1}\bar{y}^{n-1} + \dots + \bar{a}_0 = 0$$

where $n \geq 1$ and $\bar{a}_0 \neq 0$. Therefore

$$y^n + a_{n-1}y^{n-1} + \dots + a_0 \in pA[y]$$

which says there exist $b_i \in p$ such that

$$y^{n} + a_{n-1}y^{n-1} + \dots + a_0 = b_m y^m + \dots + b_1 y + b_0.$$

After adding some zero terms we can suppose m = n. Subtracting,

$$(a_m - b_m)y^m + \dots + (a_1 - b_1)y + (a_0 - b_0) = 0.$$

But A is local and a_0 is not in p, so $a_0 - b_0$ is a unit. There exist $c_i \in A$ such that

$$1 + (c_0 + c_1 y + \dots + c_{m-1} y^{m-1})y = 0$$

which shows y is invertible in A[y]. The last equation yields

$$y^{-1} + c_0 + (c_1 + \dots + c_{m-1}y^{m-2})y = 0$$

and

$$y^{-2} + c_0 y^{-1} + c_1 (c_2 + \dots + c_{m-1} y^{m-3}) y = 0.$$

Iterating we get

$$y^{-m} + c_0 y^{1-m} + \dots + c_{m-2} y^{-1} + c_{m-1} = 0$$

which shows that y^{-1} is integral over A. Since A is integrally closed in B, $y^{-1} \in A$. Since y^{-1} is invertible in B, y^{-1} is not in q. Therefore, y^{-1} is not in $p = q \cap A$. Thus y^{-1} is invertible in A and y is in A. We have $A = A[y] \subseteq A[x] = B$ and x is integral over A. So A = B.

LEMMA 13.4.8. Assume B is an integral domain which is an integral extension of the polynomial ring A[T]. Let q be a prime ideal of B. Then B is not quasi-finite over A at q.

PROOF. Let $p=q\cap A$ and $k_p=A_p/pA_p$ the residue field. Choose q to be maximal among all primes lying over p. We will show q is not minimal, which will prove that q is not isolated in the fiber $B\otimes_A k_p$, hence B is not quasi-finite over A at q.

Assume A is integrally closed in its quotient field. Let $r=q\cap A[T]$. Since B is integral over A[T], Theorem 10.3.7 (3) says that r is maximal among the set of prime ideals of A[T] lying over p. That is, $r\otimes_A k_p$ is a maximal ideal of $A[T]\otimes_A k_p=k_p[T]$. This says r properly contains the prime ideal pA[T]. By Theorem 10.3.7 (5), there is a prime ideal $q_1 \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ such that $q_1 \subsetneq q$ and $q_1 \cap A[T] = pA[T]$. This proves q is not a minimal prime lying over p.

For the general case, let \tilde{A} be the integral closure of A in its field of quotients and \tilde{B} the integral closure of B in its field of quotients. Then \tilde{B} is integral over $\tilde{A}[T]$. Let \tilde{q} be a prime ideal of \tilde{B} lying over q. Let $\tilde{p} = \tilde{q} \cap \tilde{A}$. By Theorem 10.3.7 (2), \tilde{q} is maximal among primes lying over \tilde{p} . By the previous paragraph, there is \tilde{q}_1 in Spec \tilde{B} such that $\tilde{q}_1 \subseteq \tilde{q}$ and \tilde{q}_1 lies over \tilde{p} . By Theorem 10.3.7 (2), $\tilde{q}_1 \cap B \subseteq q$ so q is not a minimal prime lying over p.

Lemma 13.4.9. Let $A \subseteq A[x] \subseteq B$ be three rings such that

- (1) B is integral over A[x],
- (2) A is integrally closed in B, and
- (3) there exists a monic polynomial $F(T) \in A[T]$ such that $F(x)B \subseteq A[x]$. That is, F(x) is in the conductor from B to A[x] (see Exercise 4.1.25).

Then A[x] = B.

PROOF. Let $b \in B$. Our goal is to show $b \in A[x]$. We are given that $F(x)b \in A[x]$, so F(x)b = G(x) for some $G(T) \in A[T]$. Since F is monic, we can divide F into G. There exist $Q(T), R(T) \in A[T]$ such that G(T) = F(T)Q(T) + R(T) and $0 \le \deg R < \deg F$. Note that G(x) = F(x)b = Q(x)F(x) + R(x), hence (b - Q(x))F(x) = R(x). Set y = b - Q(x). It is enough to show that $y \in A[x]$.

Let $\theta: B \to B[y^{-1}]$ be the localization of B. Let \bar{A} , \bar{y} , \bar{x} , etc. denote the images of A, y, x, etc. under θ . Then yF(x) = R(x) implies that $\bar{F}(\bar{x}) = y^{-1}\bar{R}(\bar{x})$ in $B[y^{-1}]$. Since $\deg R < \deg F$, this implies that \bar{x} is integral over $\bar{A}[y^{-1}]$. But $y \in B$, so y is integral over A[x]. Hence \bar{y} is integral over $\bar{A}[\bar{x}]$. Since integral over integral is integral, \bar{y} is integral over $\bar{A}[y^{-1}]$. There exists $P(T) \in \bar{A}[y^{-1}][T]$ such that $(\bar{y})^n + P(\bar{y}) = 0$ and $\deg P(T) < n$. By clearing denominators, we see that for some m > 0, $(\bar{y})^{n+m} + (\bar{y})^m P(\bar{y}) = 0$ is a monic polynomial equation

in \bar{y} over \bar{A} . Therefore, \bar{y} is integral over \bar{A} and there exists a monic polynomial $\bar{H}(T) \in \bar{A}[T]$ such that $\bar{H}(\bar{y}) = 0$. Let $H \in A[T]$ be a monic polynomial such that $\theta(H(T)) = \bar{H}(T)$. Since $\theta(H(y)) = 0$ in $B[y^{-1}]$, there exists u > 0 such that $y^u H(y) = 0$ in B. This shows that y is integral over A, hence $y \in A$.

LEMMA 13.4.10. Let $A \subseteq R \subseteq B$ be three rings and $p \in \operatorname{Spec} A$. Assume

- (1) B is a finitely generated R-module,
- (2) c is the conductor from B to R, and
- (3) c' is the conductor from B_p to R_p .

Then $c' = c_p$.

PROOF. Let $\alpha/\beta \in c_p$, where $\alpha \in c$, $\beta \in A - p$. Then

$$(\alpha/\beta)B_p \subseteq (\alpha B)_p \subseteq R_p$$

shows that $\alpha/\beta \in c'$.

Let $\alpha/\beta \in c'$ where $\alpha \in R$ and $\beta \in A - p$. If $b \in B$ and $z \in A - p$, then

$$(\alpha/1)(b/z) = (\alpha/\beta)((\beta b)/z) \in R_p$$

So $\alpha/1 \in c'$. Let b_1, \ldots, b_n be a generating set for B over R. Then $(\alpha/1)(b_i/1) \in R_p$ so there exists $x_i \in A - p$ such that $\alpha b_i x_i \in R$. Therefore $\alpha x_1 \cdots x_n \in c$ and since $\beta x_1 \cdots x_n \in A - p$ it follows that $\alpha/\beta \in c_p$.

LEMMA 13.4.11. Let $A \subseteq A[x] \subseteq B$ be three rings, $q \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ and $p = q \cap A$. Assume

- (1) B is finitely generated as a module over A[x],
- (2) A is integrally closed in B, and
- (3) B is quasi-finite over A at q.

Then $A_p = B_p$.

Proof. Let

$$c = \{ \alpha \in A[x] \mid \alpha B \subseteq A[x] \}$$

be the conductor from B to A[x].

Case 1: $c \not\subseteq q$. Let $r = q \cap A[x]$. There exists $\alpha \in c - r$, hence $A[x]_r = B \otimes_{A[x]} A[x]_r = B_r$. It follows that B_r is a local ring and $B_r = B_q$. Since $r \cap A = q \cap A = p$, and B is quasi-finite over A at q, we have

$$B_q/pB_q = A[x]_r/pA[x]_r$$

is finite dimensional over k_p . This says A[x] is quasi-finite over A at r. Apply Lemma 13.4.7 to get $A[x]_p = A_p$. But B is finitely generated as a module over A[x], so B_p is finitely generated over $A_p = A[x]_p$. Since A is integrally closed in B, A_p is integrally closed in B_p and $A_p = B_p$.

Case 2: $c \subseteq q$. Let n be a minimal element of the set $\{z \in \operatorname{Spec} B \mid c \subseteq z \subseteq q\}$ and let $m = n \cap A$. First we show that the image of x in the residue field $k_n = B_n/nB_n$ is transcendental over the subfield $k_m = A_m/mA_m$. To prove this, it is enough to assume A is local with maximal ideal m. Lemma 13.4.10 says the conductor c is preserved under this localization step. Suppose that image of x in k_n is algebraic over $k_m = A/m$. Then $n \cap A[x]$ is a prime ideal, so the integral domain $A[x]/(n \cap A[x])$ is a finite integral extension of the field $k_m = A/m$. Therefore, $A[x]/(n \cap A[x])$ is a field so $n \cap A[x]$ is a maximal ideal. Since B is integral over A[x], by Theorem 10.3.7, it follows that n is a maximal ideal of B and $B/n = k_n$.

By assumption, there exists a monic polynomial $F(T) \in A[T]$ such that $F(x) \in n$. But n is minimal with respect to prime ideals of B containing c. In B_n , nB_n is the only prime ideal containing c_n and the radical of c_n is equal to nB_n . Let $\bar{F}(\bar{x})$ denote the image of F(x) in B_n . There exists $\nu > 0$ such that $(\bar{F}(\bar{x}))^{\nu} \in c_n$. There exists $y \in B - n$ such that $y(F(x))^{\nu} \in c$. This implies $y(F(x))^{\nu}B \subseteq A[x]$. Let B' = A[x][yB]. Clearly $F(x)^{\nu}$ is in the conductor from B' to A[x]. Apply Lemma 13.4.9 to $A \subseteq A[x] \subseteq B'$ with the monic polynomial F^{ν} . Then A[x] = B' which implies $yB \subseteq A[x]$. This says $y \in c \subseteq n$, which contradicts the choice of y.

For the rest of the proof, let B = B/n and A = A/m and assume the image \bar{x} of x in \bar{B} is transcendental over \bar{A} . We have $\bar{A} \subseteq \bar{A}[\bar{x}] \subseteq \bar{B}$. Let \bar{q} denote the image of q in \bar{B} . Since B is quasi-finite over A at q, it follows that \bar{B} is quasi-finite over \bar{A} at \bar{q} . This contradicts Lemma 13.4.8, so Case 2 cannot occur.

Proposition 13.4.12. Let $A \subseteq C \subseteq B$ be three commutative rings, $q \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ and $p = q \cap A$. Assume

- (1) C is finitely generated as an A-algebra,
- (2) B is finitely generated as a C-module,
- (3) A is integrally closed in B, and
- (4) B is quasi-finite over A at q.

Then $B_p = A_p$.

PROOF. Proceed by induction on the number n of generators for the A-algebra C. If n=0, then B is integral over A and by assumption, A=B.

Assume n>0 and suppose the proposition is true when C is generated by n-1 elements over A. Let $C=A[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$. Let \tilde{A} be the integral closure of $R=A[x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1}]$ in B. Then B is finitely generated as a module over $\tilde{A}[x_n]$ and $\tilde{A}\subseteq \tilde{A}[x_n]\subseteq B$. Since B is quasi-finite over A at q, by Lemma 13.4.5, B is quasi-finite over \tilde{A} at q. We are in the setting of Lemma 13.4.11, so if $\tilde{p}=q\cap \tilde{A}$, then $\tilde{A}_{\tilde{p}}=B_{\tilde{p}}$.

Since \tilde{A} is integral over $R = A[x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}]$, \tilde{A} is the direct limit $\tilde{A} = \varinjlim_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}$ over all subalgebras A_{α} where $R \subseteq A_{\alpha} \subseteq \tilde{A}$ and A_{α} is finitely generated as a module over R. For any such A_{α} , let $p_{\alpha} = q \cap A_{\alpha} = \tilde{p} \cap A_{\alpha}$.

Let $r=q\cap R$. Since B is finitely generated as an R-algebra, $B_{\tilde{p}}=\tilde{A}_{\tilde{p}}$ is finitely generated as an R_r -algebra. Pick a generating set $z_1/y_1,\ldots,z_m/y_m$ for the R_r -algebra $\tilde{A}_{\tilde{p}}$ where $z_i\in \tilde{A}$ and $y_i\in \tilde{A}-\tilde{p}$. Since \tilde{A} is integral over R, it follows that $A_1=R[z_1,\ldots,z_m,y_1,\ldots,y_m]$ is finitely generated as a module over R. Let $p_1=q\cap A_1$. For each i, we have $z_i/y_i\in (A_1)_{p_1}$ so the natural map $(A_1)_{p_1}\to \tilde{A}_{\tilde{p}}=B_{\tilde{p}}$ is an isomorphism. Therefore, $(A_1)_{p_1}\cong \tilde{A}_{\tilde{p}}=B_{\tilde{p}}=B_q$. By the induction hypothesis applied to $A\subseteq R\subseteq A_1$, we have $A_p=(A_1)_p=(A_1)_{p_1}$. This shows $A_p=B_p$.

THEOREM 13.4.13. (Zariski's Main Theorem) Let B be a finitely generated commutative A-algebra, \tilde{A} the integral closure of A in B and $q \in \text{Spec } B$. If B is quasi-finite over A at q, then there exists $f \in \tilde{A}$ such that $f \notin q$ and $\tilde{A}_f = B_f$.

PROOF. By Lemma 13.4.5, B is quasi-finite over \tilde{A} at q. Let $\tilde{p}=q\cap \tilde{A}$. By Proposition 13.4.12, $\tilde{A}_{\tilde{p}}=B_{\tilde{p}}$. Let b_1,\ldots,b_n be a generating set for the \tilde{A} -algebra B. For each i there exists $a_i/x_i\in \tilde{A}_{\tilde{p}}$ such that $a_i/x_i=b_i/1$ in $B_{\tilde{p}}$. Let $f=x_1\cdots x_n$. Then $f\in \tilde{A}-\tilde{p}$. The inclusion $\tilde{A}_f\subseteq B_f$ is an equality. \square

COROLLARY 13.4.14. Let A be a ring, B a finitely generated commutative A-algebra. The set of all q in Spec B such that B is quasi-finite over A at q is an open subset of Spec B.

PROOF. Let $q \in \operatorname{Spec} B$ and assume B is quasi-finite over A at q. Let \tilde{A} be the integral closure of A in B. By Theorem 13.4.13 (Zariski's Main Theorem), there exists $f \in \tilde{A} - q$ such that $\tilde{A}_f = B_f$. Since \tilde{A} is integral over A, we can write \tilde{A} as the direct limit of all subalgebras A_{α} such that $f \in A_{\alpha}$ and A_{α} is finitely generated as a module over A. Therefore

$$\tilde{A} = \varinjlim A_{\alpha}$$

which implies

$$B_f = \tilde{A}_f = \left(\varinjlim A_{\alpha} \right)_f = \varinjlim (A_{\alpha})_f.$$

But B is finitely generated as an A-algebra, hence B_f is too. Let $a_1/f^{\nu}, \ldots, a_m/f^{\nu}$ be a set of generators of \tilde{A}_f over A. For some α , $\{a_1, \ldots, a_m\} \subseteq A_{\alpha}$. It follows that $B_f = (A_{\alpha})_f$ for this α . By Example 13.4.6, $(A_{\alpha})_f$ is quasi-finite over A. The open set $V = \operatorname{Spec} B_f$ is a neighborhood of q.

Example 13.4.15. Let $A \to B \to C$ be homomorphisms of rings. Assume B is finitely generated as a A-module, C is finitely generated as a B-algebra and Spec $C \to \operatorname{Spec} B$ is an open immersion (Exercise 7.5.33). Then C is quasi-finite over A. The next corollary says every quasi-finite homomorphism factors in this way.

COROLLARY 13.4.16. Let B be a commutative A-algebra which is finitely generated as an A-algebra and which is quasi-finite over A. If \tilde{A} is the integral closure of A in B, then

- (1) Spec $B \to \operatorname{Spec} \tilde{A}$ is an open immersion and
- (2) there exists an A-subalgebra R of \tilde{A} such that R is finitely generated as an A-module and Spec $B \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is an open immersion.

PROOF. By Corollary 13.4.14 there are a finite number of $f_i \in \tilde{A}$ such that $B_{f_i} \cong \tilde{A}_{f_i}$ and $\{f_i\}$ generate the unit ideal of B. The open sets $U_i = \operatorname{Spec} B_{f_i}$ are an open cover of $\operatorname{Spec} B$, so $\operatorname{Spec} B \to \operatorname{Spec} \tilde{A}$ is an open immersion. By the argument of Corollary 13.4.14, the finite set $\{f_i\}$ of elements in \tilde{A} belongs to a subalgebra $R \subseteq \tilde{A}$ such that R is finitely generated as a module over A and $R_{f_i} \cong B_{f_i}$ for each i. Therefore $\operatorname{Spec} B \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is an open immersion. \square

4.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 13.4.17. (Quasi-finite over quasi-finite is quasi-finite) If B is quasi-finite over A, and C is quasi-finite over B, then C is quasi-finite over A.

EXERCISE 13.4.18. If S is a commutative finitely generated separable R-algebra, then S is quasi-finite over R.

EXERCISE 13.4.19. Show that if k is a field and x an indeterminate, then Spec k[x] has no isolated point. (Hint: Show that Spec k[x] is infinite and that a proper closed subset is finite.)

EXERCISE 13.4.20. Let B be a commutative A-algebra. Prove that if B is finitely generated as an A-module, then B is quasi-finite over A.

5. Graded Rings and Modules

Throughout this section all rings are commutative. We refer the reader to Section 11.2 for the definitions of graded rings and modules.

5.1. Associated Prime Ideals of a Graded Module.

LEMMA 13.5.1. Let $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ be a graded ring and $M = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} M_n$ a graded R-module. If N is an R-submodule of M, then the following are equivalent.

- (1) $N = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (N \cap M_n)$
- (2) N is generated by homogeneous elements.
- (3) if $x = x_p + x_{p+1} + \cdots + x_{p+m}$ is in N where each x_i is in M_i , then each x_i is in N.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

If N satisfies the equivalent properties of Lemma 13.5.1, then we say N is a graded submodule of M. A homogeneous ideal of R is an ideal which is a graded submodule of the free R-module R.

LEMMA 13.5.2. Let $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ be a graded ring and I a homogeneous ideal in R.

- (1) I is a prime ideal if and only if for all homogeneous $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^h$, if $ab \in I$, then $a \in I$, or $b \in I$.
- (2) Rad(I) is a homogeneous ideal.
- (3) If $\{I_j \mid j \in J\}$ is a family of homogeneous ideals in R, then $\sum_{j \in J} I_j$ and $\bigcap_{i \in J} I_j$ are homogeneous ideals.
- (4) If \mathfrak{p} is a prime ideal in R and \mathfrak{q} is the ideal generated by the homogeneous elements in \mathfrak{p} , then \mathfrak{q} is a prime ideal.

PROOF. (1): Suppose $x=\sum_{i=0}^p x_i$ and $y=\sum_{j=0}^q y_j$ are in R and $xy\in I$ and $y\not\in I$. Prove that $x\in I$. Suppose $y_m\not\in I$ and that $y_j\in I$ for all j>m. The homogeneous component of xy in degree p+m is $z_{p+m}=x_py_m+\sum_{i=1}^p x_{p-i}y_{m+i}$. Therefore, $x_py_m=z_{p+m}-\sum_{i=1}^p x_{p-i}y_{m+i}\in I$ and by hypothesis we get $x_p\in I$. Subtract to get $(x-x_p)y\in I$. Descending induction on p shows $x_i\in I$ for each $i\geq 0$.

- (2): Suppose $x = \sum_{i=0}^p x_i \in \operatorname{Rad}(I)$. For some n > 0, $x^n \in I$. The homogeneous component of x^n of degree np is x_p^n , which is in I because I is homogeneous. This implies $x_p \in \operatorname{Rad}(I)$. Subtract to get $x x_p \in \operatorname{Rad}(I)$. Descending induction on p shows $x_i \in \operatorname{Rad}(I)$ for each $i \geq 0$.
 - (3) and (4): Are left to the reader.

LEMMA 13.5.3. Let $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ be a noetherian graded ring and $M = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} M_n$ a graded R-module.

- (1) $\operatorname{annih}_R(M)$ is a homogeneous ideal.
- (2) If P is a maximal member of the set of ideals $C = \{\operatorname{annih}_R(x) \mid x \in M^h (0)\}$, then P is an associated prime of M.
- (3) If P is an associated prime of M, then
 - (a) P is a homogeneous ideal,
 - (b) there exists a homogeneous element $x \in M$ of degree n such that $P = \operatorname{annih}_{R}(x)$, and
 - (c) the cyclic submodule Rx is isomorphic to (R/P)(-n).

(4) If I is a homogeneous ideal of R and P is a minimal prime over-ideal of I, then P is homogeneous.

PROOF. (1): Is left to the reader.

- (2): Is left to the reader. Mimic the proof of Proposition 13.2.2(1).
- (3): There exists $x = x_p + \cdots + x_{p+q}$ in M such that $P = \operatorname{annih}_R(x)$ and each x_i is homogeneous of degree i. Let f be an arbitrary element of P and write f in terms of its homogeneous components, $f = f_0 + \cdots + f_r$. The idea is to show each f_i is in P and apply Lemma 13.5.1 (3). Start with

$$0 = fx = \sum_{i=0}^{r} \sum_{j=0}^{q} f_i x_{p+j}$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{r+q} \sum_{i+j=k} f_i x_{p+j}$$

Comparing homogeneous components we get $\sum_{i+j=k} f_i x_{p+j} = 0$ for each $k = 0, \ldots, r+q$. For k = r+q, this means $f_r x_{p+q} = 0$. For k = r+q-1, it means

$$0 = f_r x_{p+q-1} + f_{r-1} x_{p+q}$$

= $f_r^2 x_{p+q-1} + f_{r-1} f_r x_{p+q}$
= $f_r^2 x_{p+q-1}$.

Inductively, we see that $0 = f_r x_{p+q} = f_r^2 x_{p+q-1} = \cdots = f_r^j x_{p+q-j+1}$ for any $j \ge 1$. Therefore $f_r^{q+1} x = 0$, which implies $f_r \in P$. By descending induction on r, we see that $f_i \in P$ for each i. This proves P satisfies Lemma 13.5.1 (3), so P is homogeneous.

For (b), suppose we are given a homogeneous element $h \in P^h$, since $0 = hx = hx_p + \cdots + hx_{p+q}$, it follows that $hx_j = 0$ for each x_j . Since P is generated by homogeneous elements, this proves that $P \subseteq \operatorname{annih}(x_j)$ for each j. We have

$$P \subseteq \bigcap_{j=n}^{p+q} \operatorname{annih}(x_j) \subseteq \operatorname{annih}(x) = P.$$

Because P is prime, Lemma 10.3.3 says $P = \operatorname{annih}(x_j)$ for some j.

- (c): Assume $x \in M_n$ and $P = \operatorname{annih}(x)$. Then $1 \mapsto x$ defines a function $(R/P)(-n) \to Rx$ which is an isomorphism of graded R-modules.
- (4): By Theorem 13.2.7 (4), a minimal prime over-ideal P of an ideal I is an associated prime of R/I. Part (3) (a) says P is homogeneous.

The next result is the graded counterpart of Theorem 13.2.9.

Theorem 13.5.4. Let $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ be a noetherian graded ring and $M = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} M_n$ a finitely generated graded R-module.

- (1) There exists a filtration $0 = S_0 \subsetneq S_1 \subsetneq S_2 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq S_r = M$ of M by graded submodules, a set of homogeneous prime ideals $P_i \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, and integers n_i such that $S_i/S_{i-1} \cong (R/P_i)(-n_i)$ for $i = 1, \ldots, r$.
- (2) The filtration in (1) is not unique, but for any such filtration we do have: (a) If P is a homogeneous prime ideal of R, then

$$P \supset \operatorname{annih}_{R}(M) \Leftrightarrow P \supset P_{i}$$

- for some i. In particular, the minimal elements of the set $\{P_1, \ldots, P_r\}$ are the minimal prime over-ideals of annih_R M.
- (b) For each minimal prime over-ideal P of $\operatorname{annih}_R M$, the number of times which P occurs in the set $\{P_1, \ldots, P_r\}$ is equal to the length of M_P over the local ring R_P , hence is independent of the filtration.

PROOF. Assume $M \neq (0)$. By Proposition 13.2.2, Assoc $(M) \neq \emptyset$. By Lemma 13.5.3 there exists a graded submodule S of M isomorphic to (R/P)(-n) for some homogeneous prime P and some integer n. Define $\mathcal C$ to be the set of all graded submodules $S \subseteq M$ such that S has the kind of filtration specified in Part (1). Since $\mathcal C$ is nonempty and M is a finitely generated module over the noetherian ring R, $\mathcal C$ has a maximal member, say N. If $N \neq M$, then by Proposition 13.2.2, Assoc $(M/N) \neq \emptyset$. By Lemma 13.5.3 applied to M/N there is a graded submodule S of M such that $N \subsetneq S \subseteq M$ and $S/N \cong (R/P)(-n)$ for some homogeneous prime P and integer n. Therefore, $S \in \mathcal C$. But N is maximal in $\mathcal C$, which is a contradiction. This proves Part (1).

(2) We have $\operatorname{annih}(S_i/S_{i-1}) = \operatorname{annih}((R/P_i)(-n_i)) = P_i$. Because $S_0 = (0)$, $x \in \prod_{i=1}^r P_i$ implies $x \in \operatorname{annih}(M)$. Thus $\prod_{i=1}^r P_i \subseteq \operatorname{annih}(M)$. If $x \in \operatorname{annih}(M)$, then $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^r P_i$. Therefore $\operatorname{annih}(M) \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^r \mathfrak{p}_i$. Let P be a homogeneous prime ideal in R. If $P \supseteq \operatorname{annih}(M)$, then we have $P \supseteq \prod_{i=1}^r P_i$. Proposition 3.2.14 implies $P \supseteq P_i$ for some i. Conversely, if $P \supseteq P_i$ for some i, then $P \supseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^r P_i \supseteq \operatorname{annih}(M)$. This proves (a).

For (b), localize at P. Consider

$$(5.1) \qquad (S_i/S_{i-1})_{\mathcal{D}} = ((R/P_i)(-n_i))_{\mathcal{D}}.$$

If $P = P_i$, then the right-hand side of (5.1) is $(R/P)_P = R_P/PR_P$ which has length one as an R_P -module, since PR_P is the maximal ideal of R_P . Since P is a minimal prime over-ideal of annih(M), if $P \neq P_i$, then there exists some $x \in P_i$ which is not in P. In this case, the right-hand side of (5.1) is (0). That is, $(S_{i-1})_P = (S_i)_P$. We have shown that M_P has a filtration of length equal to the number of times P occurs in $\{P_1, \ldots, P_r\}$.

DEFINITION 13.5.5. If R is a noetherian graded ring, M is a finitely generated graded R-module, and P is a minimal prime over-ideal of $\operatorname{annih}_R(M)$, then the length of M_P over the local ring R_P is called the *multiplicity* of M at P and is denoted $\mu_P(M)$. In Algebraic Geometry, it plays an important role in the definition of intersection multiplicity of two hypersurfaces along a subvariety.

The next result is the counterpart of Theorem 13.3.8 for a graded ring and module.

Theorem 13.5.6. Let $R=\oplus_{n=0}^{\infty}R_n$ be a noetherian graded ring and $M=\oplus_{n\in\mathbb{Z}}M_n$ a graded R-module.

- (1) For each $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}(M)$ there exists a P-primary graded submodule Y_P of M such that $(0) = \bigcap_{P \in \operatorname{Assoc}(M)} Y_P$.
- (2) If M is finitely generated and N is a graded submodule of M, then there exists a primary decomposition $N = \bigcap_{P \in \operatorname{Assoc}(M/N)} Y_P$, where Y_P is a P-primary graded submodule of M.

PROOF. Is left to the reader. (Mimic the proof of Theorem 13.3.8, substituting graded submodules.) $\hfill\Box$

5.2. Numerical Polynomials.

Definition 13.5.7. A numerical polynomial is a polynomial $p(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ with the property that there exists N>0 such that $p(n)\in\mathbb{Z}$ for all integers n greater than N. If r is a nonnegative integer, the binomial coefficient function is defined to be

$$\binom{x}{r} = \frac{1}{r!}x(x-1)\cdots(x-r+1)$$

which is clearly a polynomial of degree r in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. For any polynomial $p \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, define the difference polynomial to be

$$\Delta p(x) = p(x+1) - p(x).$$

LEMMA 13.5.8. In the context of Definition 13.5.7,

- (1) For any integer x, $\binom{x}{r}$ is an integer.
- (2) The binomial coefficient function is a numerical polynomial of degree r.
- (3) The set $\{\binom{x}{i} \mid i=0,\ldots,r\}$ is linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} .
- (4) The set $\{\binom{x}{i} \mid i = 0, \dots, r\}$ is a \mathbb{Q} -basis for $\{f \in \mathbb{Q}[x] \mid \deg f \leq r\}$. (5) $\binom{z+1}{r} \binom{z}{r} = \binom{z}{r-1}$

$$(5) \ \binom{z+1}{r} - \binom{z}{r} = \binom{z}{r-1}$$

(6) For all integers
$$d > 0$$
, $\binom{z+d}{r} - \binom{z}{r} = \binom{z+d-1}{r-1} + \dots + \binom{z}{r-1}$.

$$(7) \ \Delta \binom{z}{r} = \binom{z}{r-1}.$$

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

Proposition 13.5.9. In the context of Definition 13.5.7,

(1) If $p(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is a numerical polynomial, then there exist integers c_i such that

$$p(x) = c_0 {x \choose r} + c_1 {x \choose r-1} + \dots + c_r.$$

In particular, $p(n) \in \mathbb{Z}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

(2) If $f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ is any function, and if there exists a numerical polynomial $q(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ such that the difference function $\Delta f = f(n+1) - f(n)$ is equal to q(n) for all sufficiently large integers n, then there exists a numerical polynomial p(x) such that f(n) = p(n) for all sufficiently large integers n.

PROOF. (1): The proof is by induction on $r = \deg p$. If r = 0, then (1) is obvious. Assume r > 0 and assume (1) is true for all numerical polynomials of degree less than r. By Lemma 13.5.8(4), write p as a linear combination of the binomial coefficient functions

$$p(x) = c_0 \binom{x}{r} + c_1 \binom{x}{r-1} + \dots + c_r$$

where $c_i \in \mathbb{Q}$. Using Lemma 13.5.8(5),

$$\Delta p(x) = c_0 \binom{x}{r-1} + c_1 \binom{x}{r-2} + \dots + c_{r-1}$$

is a numerical polynomial of degree r-1. By the induction hypothesis, and Lemma 13.5.8(3), it follows that c_0, \ldots, c_{r-1} are integers. Since $p(n) \in \mathbb{Z}$ for all sufficiently large integers n, it follows that c_r is an integer.

(2): Applying Part (1) to q,

$$q(x) = c_0 \binom{x}{r} + c_1 \binom{x}{r-1} + \dots + c_r$$

for integers c_i . Setting

$$p(x) = c_0 \binom{x}{r+1} + c_1 \binom{x}{r} + \dots + c_r \binom{x}{1},$$

we see that $\Delta p = q$. Therefore $\Delta(f - q)(n) = 0$ for all sufficiently large integers n. Hence (f - p)(n) = c is constant for all sufficiently large integers n. Then f(n) = p(n) + c for all sufficiently large n. The desired polynomial is p(x) + c. \square

5.3. The Hilbert Polynomial.

EXAMPLE 13.5.10. Let A be a commutative artinian ring. By Proposition 8.4.4, A is an A-module of finite length, say $\ell(A)$. If $S = A[x_0, \ldots, x_r]$, then S is a graded ring, where $S_0 = A$ and each indeterminate x_i is homogeneous of degree 1. The homogeneous component S_d is a free A-module of rank $\rho(d)$, where $\rho(d)$ is equal to the number of monomials of degree d in the variables x_0, \ldots, x_r . The reader should verify that $\operatorname{Rank}_A(S_d) = \rho(d) = \binom{r+d}{d} = \binom{r+d}{r}$. By Exercise 8.4.10, the length of the A-module S_d is equal to

$$\ell(S_d) = \rho(d)\ell(A)$$

$$= \binom{r+d}{d}\ell(A)$$

$$= \frac{(r+d)!}{r!d!}\ell(A)$$

$$= \frac{\ell(A)}{r!}(d+r)\cdots(d+1)$$

which is a numerical polynomial in $\mathbb{Q}[d]$ of degree r and with leading coefficient $\ell(A)/r!$.

EXAMPLE 13.5.11. Let A be a commutative artinian ring and $S = A[x_0, \ldots, x_r]$. Let $M = \bigoplus_{j=0}^{\infty} M_j$ be a finitely generated graded S-module. Then M is generated over S by a finite set of homogeneous elements. Let $\{\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_m\} \subseteq M^h$ be a generating set for M and suppose $d_i = \deg(\xi_i)$. Let $S(-d_i)$ be the twisted S-module. The map $\phi_i : S(-d_i) \to M$ defined by $1 \mapsto \xi_i$ is a graded homomorphism of graded S-modules. Let $\phi : \bigoplus_{i=1}^m S(-d_i) \to M$ be the sum map. So ϕ is a graded homomorphism of graded S-modules, and ϕ is onto because the image of ϕ contains a generating set for M. For all $d \ge 0$, there is an exact sequence

$$\bigoplus_{i=1}^{m} S(-d_i)_d \to M_d \to 0.$$

By Proposition 7.6.31, $\ell(M_d) \leq \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(S_{d-d_i})$. By Example 13.5.10, it follows that $\ell(M_d)$ is finite.

DEFINITION 13.5.12. Let A be a commutative artinian ring and $S = A[x_0, \ldots, x_r]$. Let $M = \bigoplus_{j=0}^{\infty} M_j$ be a finitely generated graded S-module. The *Hilbert function* of M is defined to be $\varphi_M(d) = \ell(M_d)$. By Example 13.5.11, $\varphi_M(d) \in \mathbb{Z}$ for all d. THEOREM 13.5.13. (Hilbert-Serre) Let A be a commutative artinian ring and $S = A[x_0, \ldots, x_r]$. Let $M = \bigoplus_{j=0}^{\infty} M_j$ be a finitely generated graded S-module. There exists a unique numerical polynomial $P_M(z) \in \mathbb{Q}[z]$ such that $\varphi_M(d) = P_M(d)$ for all sufficiently large integers d. The polynomial P_M is called the Hilbert polynomial of M.

PROOF. A polynomial in $\mathbb{Q}[z]$ is determined by its values on a finite set, so $P_M(z)$ is clearly unique, if it exists. Since A is noetherian, so is S.

Step 1: If $S = S_0 = A$, is concentrated in degree 0, then since M is finitely generated it follows that $M_d = 0$ for all sufficiently large d. The polynomial is $P_M(z) = 0$. Proceed by induction on the number r + 1 of generators for S over $S_0 = A$. Assume $r \geq 0$.

Step 2: For any short exact sequence of graded S-modules

$$0 \to J \to K \to L \to 0$$

Proposition 7.6.31 implies $\varphi_K = \varphi_J + \varphi_L$. If the Theorem is true for the S-modules J and L, then it is true for K. By Theorem 13.5.4 there is a filtration of M by graded submodules such that the consecutive factors are isomorphic to graded S modules of the form (S/P)(-d), where P is a homogeneous prime ideal of S, and d is an integer. The twist corresponds to a change of variables $z \mapsto z - d$ on the Hilbert polynomials, so it suffices to prove the Theorem for S-modules of the form M = S/P. Assume that M = S/P, where P is a homogeneous prime ideal in the graded ring $S = A[x_0, \ldots, x_r]$.

Step 3: Assume P contains the exceptional ideal (x_0, \ldots, x_r) . Then M = S/P is concentrated in degree 0, so $\varphi_M(d) = \ell(M_d) = 0$ for all d > 0. The desired polynomial is $P_M(z) = 0$.

Step 4: Assume P does not contain the exceptional ideal (x_0, \ldots, x_r) . Without loss of generality, assume $x_0 \notin P$. Consider the S-module map $\lambda : S/P \to S/P$ which is defined by $1 \mapsto x_0$. Then λ is "left multiplication by x_0 ". Since P is a prime ideal and $x_0 \in S - P$, x_0 is not a zero divisor. The sequence

$$0 \to M \xrightarrow{\lambda} M \to M' \to 0$$

is exact, where $M' = S/(P + (x_0))$. Since $\deg(x_0) = 1$, there is an exact sequence

$$0 \to M_{d-1} \xrightarrow{\lambda} M_d \to M'_d \to 0$$

for each d>0. Proposition 7.6.31 implies $\varphi_M(d)=\varphi_M(d-1)+\varphi_{M'}(d)$. In the notation of Proposition 13.5.9, we have $\varphi_{M'}(d)=(\Delta\varphi_M)(d-1)$. Since M' is a graded $S/(x_0)$ -module and $S/(x_0)=A[x_1,\ldots,x_r]$ is generated over A by r elements, our induction hypothesis applies to M'. By Proposition 13.5.9, $P_M(z)$ exists.

6. Krull Dimension of a Commutative Noetherian Ring

6.1. Definitions. Let R be a commutative ring. Suppose

$$P_0 \supsetneq P_1 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq P_n$$

is a chain of n+1 distinct prime ideals in Spec R. We say this is a *prime chain* of length n. If $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, the height of P, denoted $\operatorname{ht}(P)$, is the supremum of the lengths of all prime chains with $P = P_0$. Let I be a proper ideal of R. The height of I, denoted $\operatorname{ht}(I)$, is defined to be the infimum of the heights of all prime

ideals containing I, $\operatorname{ht}(I) = \inf\{\operatorname{ht}(P) \mid P \in \operatorname{Spec} R, P \supseteq I\}$. The Krull dimension, or simply dimension of R is the supremum of the heights of all prime ideals in R, $\dim(R) = \sup\{\operatorname{ht}(P) \mid P \in \operatorname{Spec} R\}$.

Example 13.6.1. Let R be a commutative ring.

- (1) If R is artinian, then by Proposition 8.4.3, every prime ideal is maximal, so $\dim(R) = 0$.
- (2) If R is a PID, then by Lemma 3.4.5, nonzero prime ideals are maximal, so $\dim(R) < 1$. If R is not a field, $\dim(R) = 1$.
- (3) If P is a minimal prime over-ideal of (0), then ht(P) = 0.
- (4) If R is a UFD with Krull dimension one, then by Theorem 3.4.17, R is a PID.

Lemma 13.6.2. Let R be a commutative ring.

- (1) If $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, then $\operatorname{ht}(P) = \dim(R_P)$.
- (2) If I is not the unit ideal, then $\dim(R/I) + \operatorname{ht}(I) \leq \dim(R)$.
- (3) Let R be an integral domain of finite Krull dimension and P a prime ideal in R. If $\dim(R/P)$ and $\dim(R)$ are equal, then P = (0).

(4) If $W \subseteq R$ is a multiplicative set, then $\dim(W^{-1}R) \leq \dim(R)$.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

DEFINITION 13.6.3. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. The Krull dimension of M is defined by

$$\dim_R(M) = \begin{cases} \dim(R/\operatorname{annih}_R(M)) & \text{if } M \neq (0) \\ -1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

If the ring R is unambiguous, then we write $\dim(M)$ instead of $\dim_R(M)$.

Lemma 13.6.4. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and M a finitely generated nonzero R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) The length of the R-module M is finite, $\ell(M) < \infty$.
- (2) The ring $R/\operatorname{annih}_R(M)$ is artinian.
- (3) The Krull dimension of M is zero, dim(M) = 0.

PROOF. (2) is equivalent to (3): Follows from Proposition 8.4.4.

- (2) implies (1): Follows from Proposition 7.6.30 and Exercise 7.6.19.
- (1) implies (3): Prove the contrapositive. Replace R with $R/\operatorname{annih}(M)$ and assume $\operatorname{annih}(M)=(0)$. Assume $\dim(R)>0$. Let P be a minimal prime over-ideal of 0 such that P is not maximal. Since $\operatorname{annih}(M)=0$ and M is finitely generated, Lemma 7.1.7 says $M_P\neq (0)$. Therefore $P\in\operatorname{Supp}(M)$ and because P is minimal, Theorem 13.2.7 says $P\in\operatorname{Assoc}(M)$. By Lemma 13.2.1, M contains a submodule isomorphic to R/P. The integral domain R/P contains a nonzero prime ideal, so by Proposition 8.4.4, the R-module R/P has infinite length. Therefore $\ell(M)=\infty$. \square

6.2. The Krull Dimension of a Noetherian Semilocal Ring.

DEFINITION 13.6.5. Let R be a commutative noetherian semilocal ring with Jacobson radical J=J(R). Let I be an ideal which is contained in J. By Exercise 8.4.14, R/I is artinian if and only if there exists $\nu>0$ such that $J^{\nu}\subseteq I\subseteq J$. If this is true, we call I an *ideal of definition* for R.

EXAMPLE 13.6.6. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring and $I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$ an ideal contained in the maximal ideal of R. By Corollary 13.1.4, I is an ideal of definition for R if and only if I is \mathfrak{m} -primary.

Proposition 13.6.7. Let R be a commutative noetherian semilocal ring, M a finitely generated R-module and I an ideal of definition for R.

- (1) For $d \ge 0$, M/I^dM is an R/I-module of finite length.
- (2) For all sufficiently large d, $\ell(M/I^dM)$ is a numerical polynomial. This polynomial, denoted $\chi_{M,I}(x)$, is called the Hilbert polynomial of M with respect to I.
- (3) If d(M) denotes the degree of the Hilbert polynomial $\chi_{M,I}$, then d(M) is independent of the choice of I.
- (4) d(M) is bounded above by the number of elements in a generating set for I.

PROOF. As in Example 11.2.3, the associated graded ring for the I-adic filtration of R is $R^* = \operatorname{gr}_I(R) = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} I^n/I^{n+1}$. As in Example 11.2.5, the associated graded R^* -module for the I-adic filtration of M is $M^* = \operatorname{gr}_I(M) = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} I^n M/I^{n+1} M$. By Proposition 11.2.9, M^* is a finitely generated R^* -module. Because I is finitely generated, we can write $I = Ru_0 + \cdots + Ru_m$. Let $S = (R/I)[x_0, \ldots, x_m]$. The assignments $x_i \mapsto u_i$ define a graded homomorphism of graded R/I-algebras $S \to R^*$ which is onto. In degree d the length of the modules satisfy $\ell(I^d/I^{d+1}) \leq \ell(S_d)$. As computed in Example 13.5.10, the Hilbert polynomial of S, $P_S(x)$, has degree m. Therefore, the Hilbert polynomial of R^* , $P_{R^*}(x)$, has degree less than or equal to m. In Example 13.5.11 we computed $P_{M^*}(d) = \ell(I^d M/I^{d+1} M) \leq \sum P_{R^*}(d)$ where the sum is finite. It follows that the Hilbert polynomial $P_{M^*}(x)$ has degree less than or equal to m. From the filtration $I^d M \subseteq I^{d-1} M \subseteq \cdots \subseteq IM \subseteq M$, we compute

$$\ell(M/I^{d}M) = \sum_{j=0}^{d-1} \ell(I^{j}M/I^{j+1}M)$$

is finite, and is a polynomial of degree less than or equal to m for all sufficiently large d. This proves Parts (1), (2) and (4).

(3): Suppose J is another ideal of definition for R. There exists $\nu > 0$ such that $J^{\nu} \subseteq I$. For all $d \geq 0$ we have $\ell(M/I^dM) \leq \ell(M/J^{\nu d}M)$. That is, $\chi_{M,I}(x) \leq \chi_{M,J}(\nu x)$ for all sufficiently large x. Since ν is constant, we conclude that $\deg(\chi_{M,I}(x)) \leq \deg(\chi_{M,J}(x))$. By symmetry, we see that $\mathrm{d}(M)$ is independent of the choice of I.

Proposition 13.6.8. Let R be a commutative noetherian semilocal ring and I an ideal of definition for R. Let

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

be an exact sequence of finitely generated R-modules. Then

- (1) d(B) is equal to the maximum of d(A) and d(C).
- (2) The degree of the polynomial $\chi_{B,I} \chi_{A,I} \chi_{C,I}$ is less than d(B).

PROOF. Since $C/I^nC = B/(A + I^nB)$, we have

$$\ell(C/I^nC) = \ell(B/(A+I^nB)) < \ell(B/I^nB)$$

hence $d(C) \leq d(B)$. From the exact sequence

$$0 \to (A + I^n B)/I^n B \to B/I^n B \to B/(A + I^n B) \to 0$$

and $(A + I^n B)/I^n B = A/(A \cap I^n B)$, we have

$$\chi_{B,I}(n) - \chi_{C,I}(n) = \ell(B/I^n B) - \ell(B/(A + I^n B))$$
$$= \ell((A + I^n B)/I^n B)$$
$$= \ell(A/(A \cap I^n B)).$$

By Artin-Rees, Corollary 11.2.14, there exists an integer n_0 such that $I^{n+n_0}A \subseteq A \cap (I^nB) \subseteq I^{n-n_0}A$ for all $n > n_0$. This implies

$$\ell(A/I^{n+n_0}A) \ge \ell(A/(A+I^nB)) \ge \ell(A/I^{n-n_0}A)$$

for $n > n_0$. Taken together, this says the polynomials $\chi_{B,I} - \chi_{C,I}$ and $\chi_{A,I}$ have the same degree and the same leading coefficient.

Proposition 13.6.9. Let R be commutative noetherian ring.

- (1) If R is a semilocal ring, then the Krull dimension of R is finite.
- (2) If R is a semilocal ring, then $\dim(R) \leq d(R)$.
- (3) If $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, then $\operatorname{ht}(P)$ is finite.
- (4) R satisfies the DCC on prime ideals.

PROOF. (2): Let J=J(R). The proof is by induction on d(R). If d(R)=0, then there exists N>0, such that $\ell(R/J^d)$ is constant for all $d\geq N$. By Corollary 11.3.6, this implies $J^N=(0)$. By Proposition 8.4.2, R is artinian and as we have seen in Example 13.6.1, $\dim(R)=0$.

Inductively suppose d(R)>0 and that the result is true for any semilocal ring S such that d(S)< d(R). If $\dim(R)=0$, then the result is trivially true. Assume R has a prime chain $P_0\supseteq\cdots\supseteq P_{r-1}\supseteq P_r=P$ of length r>0. Let $x\in P-P_{r-1}$. Then $\dim(R/(xR+P))\ge r-1$. Since P is a prime ideal, if λ is "left multiplication by x", then

$$0 \to R/P \xrightarrow{\lambda} R/P \to R/(xR+P) \to 0$$

is an exact sequence. Apply Proposition 13.6.8 to get d(R/(xR+P)) < d(R/P). We always have $d(R/P) \le d(R)$. By the induction hypothesis, $d(R/(xR+P)) \ge \dim(R/(xR+P))$. Take together, this proves $r-1 \le \dim(R/(xR+P)) \le d(R/(xR+P)) < d(R/P) \le d(R)$.

The rest is left to the reader.

Lemma 13.6.10. Let R be a commutative noetherian semilocal ring, $x \in J(R)$, and M a nonzero finitely generated R-module.

- (1) $d(M) \ge d(M/xM) \ge d(M) 1$.
- (2) If the Krull dimension of M is r, then there exist elements x_1, \ldots, x_r in J(R) such that $M/(x_1M + \cdots + x_rM)$ is an R-module of finite length.

PROOF. (1): Let I be an ideal of definition for R which contains x. By Proposition 13.6.8, $d(M) \le d(M/xM)$. From the short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow (xM + I^nM)/I^nM \rightarrow M/I^nM \rightarrow M/(xM + I^nM) \rightarrow 0$$

we get

$$\ell((xM+I^nM)/I^nM) = \ell(M/I^nM) - \ell(M/(xM+I^nM)).$$

The kernel of the natural map $M \to xM/(xM \cap I^nM)$ is $\{m \in M \mid xm \in I^nM\} = (I^nM : x)$. Therefore,

$$(xM + I^n M)/I^n M = xM/(xM \cap I^n M) = M/(I^n M : x).$$

Since $x \in I$, $xI^{n-1}M \subseteq I^nM$, hence $I^{n-1}M \subseteq (I^nM:x)$. Therefore

$$\ell(M/I^{n-1}M) \ge \ell(M/(I^nM:x)) = \ell(M/I^nM) - \ell(M/(xM+I^nM)),$$

or

$$\ell(M/(xM+I^nM)) > \ell(M/I^nM) - \ell(M/I^{n-1}M),$$

which is true for all sufficiently large n. Since $M/xM \otimes R/I^n = M/(xM + I^nM)$, we can compare the Hilbert polynomials

$$\chi_{M/xM,I}(n) \ge \chi_{M,I}(n) - \chi_{M,I}(n-1).$$

Comparing degrees, we get $d(M/xM) \ge d(M) - 1$.

(2): The proof is by induction on $r = \dim(M)$. Lemma 13.6.4 says that M is of finite length when r = 0. Inductively, assume r > 0 and that the result holds for any module of dimension less than r. Since R is noetherian and $M \neq (0)$, Theorem 13.3.8 says annih(M) has a primary decomposition. By Theorem 13.2.7, there are only finitely many minimal prime over-ideals of annih(M). Suppose P_1, \ldots, P_t are those minimal prime over-ideals of annih(M) such that $\dim(R/P_i) = r$. Assume $\max(R) = \{\mathfrak{m}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{m}_u\}$, so that $J(R) = \bigcap_{j=1}^u \mathfrak{m}_j$. Since r > 0, we know that for all i, j, there is no containment relation $\mathfrak{m}_j \subseteq P_i$. By Lemma 10.3.3, for all i there is no containment relation $J(R) \subseteq P_i$. By Lemma 10.3.2, J(R) is not contained in the union $P_1 \cup \cdots \cup P_t$. Pick $x \in J(R) - (P_1 \cup \cdots \cup P_t)$. Consider annih $(M/xM) \supseteq xR + \operatorname{annih}(M)$. If $P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$ and $\operatorname{annih}(M) \subseteq P$, then by choice of x we know P is not in the set $\{P_1, \ldots, P_t\}$. Consequently, $\dim(R/P) \le r - 1$. This proves $\dim(M/xM) \le r - 1$. By the induction hypothesis applied to M/xM, there exist x_2, \ldots, x_r in J(R) such that $M/(xM + x_2M + \cdots + x_rM)$ is an R-module of finite length.

Let R be a commutative noetherian semilocal ring with Jacobson radical J=J(R). Let M be a nonzero finitely generated R-module. Let $\mathcal S$ be the set of all cardinal numbers r such that there exist elements x_1,\ldots,x_r in J(R) satisfying $M/(x_1M+\cdots+x_rM)$ is an R-module of finite length. By Lemma 13.6.10(2), $\mathcal S$ is nonempty. By the Well Ordering Principle, there is a minimum $r \in \mathcal S$, which we denote by $\delta(M)$ in the next theorem.

Theorem 13.6.11. Let R be a commutative noetherian semilocal ring with Jacobson radical J = J(R). Let M be a nonzero finitely generated R-module. The three integers

- (1) d(M)
- $(2) \dim(M)$
- (3) $\delta(M)$

are equal.

PROOF. If x_1, \ldots, x_r are in J(R) and $M/(x_1M + \cdots + x_rM)$ is an R-module of finite length, then by Exercise 13.6.16, $d(M/(x_1M + \cdots + x_rM)) = 0$ and by Lemma 13.6.10 (1), $d(M/(x_1M + \cdots + x_{r-1}M)) \le 1$. Iterate this argument to get $d(M) \le r$, which implies $d(M) \le \delta(M)$. By Lemma 13.6.10 (2) we have $\delta(M) \le \dim(M)$. To finish, it is enough to prove $\dim(M) \le d(M)$.

By Theorem 13.2.9 there exists a filtration $0 = M_0 \subsetneq M_1 \subsetneq M_2 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq M_n = M$ of M and a set of prime ideals $P_i \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ such that $M_i/M_{i-1} \cong R/P_i$ for $i=1,\ldots,n$. Also $\operatorname{Assoc}(M) \subseteq \{P_1,\ldots,P_n\} \subseteq \operatorname{Supp}(M)$. By Exercise 13.2.17, every minimal prime over-ideal of $\operatorname{annih}(M)$ is included in the set $\{P_1,\ldots,P_n\}$. By Proposition 13.6.8, $\operatorname{d}(M_i)$ is equal to the maximum of $\operatorname{d}(M_{i-1})$ and $\operatorname{d}(R/P_i)$. Iterate this n times to show that $\operatorname{d}(M)$ is equal to the maximum number in the set $\{\operatorname{d}(R/P_i) \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$. By Proposition 13.6.9, it follows that $\operatorname{d}(M)$ is greater than or equal to the maximum number in the set $\{\operatorname{dim}(R/P_i) \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$. A chain of prime ideals in $\operatorname{Spec}(R/\operatorname{annih}(M))$ corresponds to a chain in $\operatorname{Spec}(R)$ of prime ideals containing $\operatorname{annih}(M)$. If such a chain has maximal length, then it terminates at a minimal member of the set $\{P_1,\ldots,P_n\}$. Therefore, $\operatorname{dim}(M)$ is equal to the maximum number in the set $\{\operatorname{dim}(R/P_i) \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$. This completes the proof.

COROLLARY 13.6.12. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and x, x_1, \ldots, x_n elements of R.

- (1) If P is a minimal prime over-ideal of $Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_n$, then $ht(P) \leq n$.
- (2) (Krull's Hauptidealsatz) If x is not a zero divisor or a unit, and P is a minimal prime over-ideal of Rx, then ht(P) = 1.

PROOF. (1): Let $I = Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_n$ and assume P is a minimal prime overideal of I. There is the containment of sets $I \subseteq P \subseteq R$. Localizing gives rise to the containment of sets $IR_P \subseteq PR_P \subseteq R_P$. Therefore R_P/IR_P has only one prime ideal, so R_P/IR_P is artinian. By Theorem 13.6.11, $n \ge \delta(R_P) = \dim(R_P)$. By Lemma 13.6.2, $\operatorname{ht}(P) = \dim(R_P)$.

(2): By Part (1), $\operatorname{ht}(P) \leq 1$. If $\operatorname{ht}(P) = 0$, then P is a minimal prime in $\operatorname{Spec}(R)$. By Theorem 13.2.7 and Proposition 13.2.2, every element of P is a zero divisor. This is a contradiction, since $x \in P$.

Corollary 13.6.13. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} = J(R)$.

- (1) The numbers
 - (a) $\dim(R)$, the Krull dimension of R.
 - (b) d(R), the degree of the Hilbert polynomial $\chi_{R,\mathfrak{m}}(n) = \ell(R/\mathfrak{m}^n)$.
 - (c) $\delta(R)$, the minimum number r such that there exists a \mathfrak{m} -primary ideal with a generating set consisting of r elements. are equal.
- (2) $\dim(R) \leq \dim_{R/\mathfrak{m}}(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2)$.
- (3) If $x \in \mathfrak{m}$ is not a zero divisor, then $\dim(R/xR) = \dim(R) 1$.
- (4) Let R be the \mathfrak{m} -adic completion of R. Then $\dim(R) = \dim(R)$.

PROOF. (1): Follows straight from Theorem 13.6.11.

- (2): Let x_1, \ldots, x_t be elements of \mathfrak{m} that restrict to a R/\mathfrak{m} -basis for $\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$. By Lemma 7.4.1, $Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_t = \mathfrak{m}$. By Part (1), $\dim(R) = \delta(R) \leq t$.
- (3): By Corollary 13.6.12(2), ht(Rx) = 1. By Lemma 13.6.2, $dim(R/xR) \le dim(R) 1$. The reverse inequality follows from Lemma 13.6.10(1) and Part (1).
- (4): By Corollary 11.3.2, $R/\mathfrak{m}^n = R/\hat{\mathfrak{m}}^n$, so the Hilbert polynomials $\chi_{R,\mathfrak{m}}$ and $\chi_{\hat{R},\hat{\mathfrak{m}}}$ are equal.

DEFINITION 13.6.14. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and assume $\dim(R) = d$. According to Corollary 13.6.13 (1) there exists

a subset $\{x_1, \ldots, x_d\} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$ such that the ideal $Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_d$ is \mathfrak{m} -primary. In this case, we say x_1, \ldots, x_d is a system of parameters for R. If $Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_d = \mathfrak{m}$, then we say R is a regular local ring and in this case we call x_1, \ldots, x_d a regular system of parameters.

PROPOSITION 13.6.15. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and x_1, \ldots, x_d a system of parameters for R. Then

$$\dim(R/(Rx_1 + \dots + Rx_i)) = d - i = \dim(R) - i$$

for each i such that $1 \le i \le d$.

PROOF. Let $I_i = Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_i$, $R_i = R/I_i$, $\mathfrak{m}_i = \mathfrak{m}/I_i$. Let $\eta: R \to R/I_i$. Then R_i is a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m}_i and $\eta(x_{i+1}), \ldots, \eta(x_d)$ generate a \mathfrak{m}_i -primary ideal in R_i . Therefore $\dim(R_i) = \delta(R_i) \leq d-i$. Suppose we are given a system of parameters $\eta(z_1), \ldots, \eta(z_e)$ for R_i . Then $Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_i + Rz_1 + \cdots + Rz_e$ is \mathfrak{m} -primary. This means $\delta(R) = d \leq i + e$, or $e = \dim(R_i) \geq d-i$.

6.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 13.6.16. Let R be a commutative noetherian semilocal ring and M a nonzero R-module of finite length. Then d(M) = 0.

EXERCISE 13.6.17. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . Then $\dim(R) = \dim_{R/\mathfrak{m}}(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2)$ if and only if R is a regular local ring.

EXERCISE 13.6.18. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal of R. Then $\dim(R/I) = \dim(R/\operatorname{Rad}(I))$.

EXERCISE 13.6.19. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring. Let I be a proper ideal in R such that $\operatorname{ht}(I) = h > 0$.

- (1) Let P_1, \ldots, P_t be the complete list of minimal prime over-ideals of (0) in R. Show that there exists $x \in I \bigcup_{j=1}^t P_j$ and that ht(Rx) = 1.
- (2) If $1 \le r < h$, and x_1, \ldots, x_r is a sequence of elements of I such that $\operatorname{ht}(x_1, \ldots, x_r) = r$, show that there exists an element x_{r+1} in I such that $\operatorname{ht}(x_1, \ldots, x_r, x_{r+1}) = r + 1$.
- (3) Show that there exists a sequence x_1, \ldots, x_h of elements of I such that if $1 \le i \le h$, then $\operatorname{ht}(x_1, \ldots, x_i) = i$.

EXERCISE 13.6.20. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module.

- (1) If N is a submodule of M, then $\dim(N) \leq \dim(M)$ and $\dim(M/N) \leq \dim(M)$.
- (2) If $W \subseteq R$ is a multiplicative set and M is finitely generated, then

$$\dim_{W^{-1}R}(W^{-1}M) \le \dim_R(M).$$

(Hint: Corollary 7.8.10.)

6.4. The Krull Dimension of a Fiber of a Morphism. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings, and $f^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ the continuous map of Exercise 7.3.20. Let $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. The fiber over P of the map f^{\sharp} is $\operatorname{Spec}(S \otimes_R k_p)$, which is homeomorphic to $(f^{\sharp})^{-1}(P)$, by Exercise 7.4.11. By Exercise 7.4.10, if Q is a prime ideal of S lying over P, then the corresponding prime ideal of $S \otimes_R k_p$ is $Q \otimes_R k_P$ and the local ring is $S_Q \otimes_R k_P$.

THEOREM 13.6.21. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative noetherian rings. Let $Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ and $P = Q \cap R$. Then

- (1) $ht(Q) \le ht(P) + ht(Q/PS)$.
- (2) $\dim(S_Q) \leq \dim(R_P) + \dim(S_Q \otimes_R k_P)$ where $k_P = R_P/PR_P$ is the residue field.
- (3) If going down holds for f, then equality holds in Parts (1) and (2).
- (4) If going down holds for f and f^{\sharp} : Spec $S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is surjective, then (a) $\dim(S) \ge \dim(R)$, and
 - (b) for any ideal $I \subseteq R$, ht(I) = ht(IS).

PROOF. (1): Follows from (2) by Lemma 13.6.2 and Exercise 7.4.10.

- (2): Replace R with R_P , S with S_Q . Assume (R, P) and (S, Q) are local rings and $f: R \to S$ is a local homomorphism of local rings. The goal is to prove that $\dim(S) \leq \dim(R) + \dim(S/PS)$. Let x_1, \ldots, x_n be a system of parameters for R and set $I = Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_n$. There exists $\nu > 0$ such that $P^{\nu} \subseteq I$. Therefore $P^{\nu}S \subseteq IS \subseteq PS$ and the ideals IS and PS have the same nil radicals. By Exercise 13.6.18, $\dim(S/IS) = \dim(S/PS)$. Let $\eta: S \to S/IS$ and let $\eta(y_1), \ldots, \eta(y_r)$ be a system of parameters for S/IS. Then $Sy_1 + \cdots + Sy_r + Sx_1 + \cdots + Sx_n$ is a Q-primary ideal. Then $\dim(S) \leq r + n = \dim(S/PS) + \dim(R)$.
- (3): Continue to use the same notation as in Part (2). Assume $\operatorname{ht}(Q/PS) = r$ and $\operatorname{ht}(P) = n$. There exists a chain $Q = Q_0 \supsetneq Q_1 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq Q_r$ in Spec S such that $Q_r \supseteq PS$. Then $P = Q \cap R \supseteq Q_i \cap R \supseteq P$. This implies each Q_i lies over P. In Spec R there exists a chain $P \supsetneq P_1 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq P_n$. By going down, Proposition 10.3.4, there exists a chain $Q_r \supsetneq Q_{r+1} \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq R_{r+n}$ in Spec S such that $Q_{r+i} \cap R = P_i$ for $i = 0, \ldots, n$. The chain $Q \supsetneq Q_1 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq Q_{r+n}$ shows that $\operatorname{ht}(Q) \ge r + n$.
- (4): (a): Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal prime in R such that $\operatorname{ht}(\mathfrak{m}) = \dim(R)$. Let \mathfrak{n} be a maximal prime in S lying over \mathfrak{m} . By Part (3), $\dim(S) \ge \dim(S_{\mathfrak{n}}) \ge \dim(R_{\mathfrak{m}}) = \dim(R)$.
- (b): Let Q be a minimal prime over-ideal of IS such that $\operatorname{ht}(Q)=\operatorname{ht}(IS)$. If $P=Q\cap R$, then $P\supseteq I$ and $Q\supseteq PS\supseteq IS$. By the choice of Q, $\operatorname{ht}(Q/PS)=0$. By Part (3), $\operatorname{ht}(IS)=\operatorname{ht}(Q)=\operatorname{ht}(P)\ge\operatorname{ht}(I)$. Conversely, let P be a minimal prime over-ideal of I such that $\operatorname{ht}(P)=\operatorname{ht}(I)$. Let Q be a prime ideal in S lying over P. Then $Q\supseteq PS\supseteq IS$. By Proposition 13.6.9 (4) we can assume Q is a minimal prime over-ideal of PS. Then $\operatorname{ht}(Q/PS)=0$. By Part (3), $\operatorname{ht}(I)=\operatorname{ht}(P)=\operatorname{ht}(Q)\ge\operatorname{ht}(IS)$.

Theorem 13.6.22. Let $f: R \to S$ where R and S are commutative noetherian rings. Assume S is a faithful integral R-algebra.

- (1) $\dim(R) = \dim(S)$.
- (2) If $Q \in \operatorname{Spec}(S)$, then $\operatorname{ht}(Q) \leq \operatorname{ht}(Q \cap R)$.
- (3) If going down holds for f, then for any ideal J of S, $ht(J) = ht(J \cap R)$.

PROOF. We can assume f is the set inclusion map and view R as a subring of S.

- (1): It follows from Theorem 10.3.7 (2) that a chain $Q_0 \subsetneq Q_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq Q_n$ of length n in $\operatorname{Spec}(S)$ gives rise to a chain $Q_0 \cap R \subsetneq Q_1 \cap R \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq Q_n \cap R$ of length n in $\operatorname{Spec}(R)$. Thus $\dim(S) \leq \dim(R)$. By Theorem 10.3.7 (3), a chain of length n in $\operatorname{Spec}(R)$ lifts to a chain of length n in $\operatorname{Spec}(S)$. Thus $\dim(S) \geq \dim(R)$.
- (2): We have $Q \subseteq (Q \cap R)S$ and by Theorem 10.3.7(2), Q is a minimal prime over-ideal of $(Q \cap R)S$. Apply Theorem 13.6.21(1).

(3): Since going down holds for $R \to S$, by Theorem 13.6.21 (3), equality holds in Part (2). Pick Q to be a minimal prime over-ideal of J such that $\operatorname{ht}(Q) = \operatorname{ht}(J)$. Then $\operatorname{ht}(J) = \operatorname{ht}(Q) = \operatorname{ht}(Q \cap R) \ge \operatorname{ht}(J \cap R)$. Pick P to be a minimal prime over-ideal for $J \cap R$. By Exercise 10.1.16, S/J is an integral extension of $R/(J \cap R)$. By Theorem 10.3.7 (1), there exists $Q \in \operatorname{Spec}(S)$ such that $Q \supseteq J$ and $Q \cap R = P$. Then $\operatorname{ht}(J \cap R) = \operatorname{ht}(P) = \operatorname{ht}(Q) \ge \operatorname{ht}(J)$.

THEOREM 13.6.23. Let $f: R \to S$ where R and S are commutative noetherian rings, and assume going up holds for f. If $p, q \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ such that $p \supseteq q$, then $\dim(S \otimes_R k_p) \ge \dim(S \otimes_R k_q)$.

PROOF. Let $n=\dim(S\otimes_R k_q)$. Then there exists a chain $Q_0\subsetneq\cdots\subsetneq Q_n$ in Spec S such that $Q_i\cap R=q$ for all $i=0,\ldots,n$. Let $m=\operatorname{ht}(p/q)$. Then there exists a chain $q=p_0\subsetneq\cdots\subsetneq p_m=p$ in Spec R. Since going up holds, there exists a chain $Q_n\subsetneq\cdots\subsetneq Q_{n+m}$ in Spec S such that $Q_{n+i}\cap R=p_i$ for all $i=0,\ldots,m$. The chain $Q_0\subsetneq\cdots\subsetneq Q_{n+m}$ shows $\operatorname{ht}(Q_{n+m}/Q_0)\geq n+m$. Apply Theorem 13.6.21 to $R/q\to S/Q_0$ with the prime ideals Q_{n+m}/Q_0 and Q_0 playing the roles of Q and Q_0 . Then

$$n + m \le \operatorname{ht}(Q_{n+r}/Q_0)$$

$$\le \operatorname{ht}(p/q) + \operatorname{ht}(Q_{n+m}/(Q_0 + pS))$$

$$\le \operatorname{ht}(p/q) + \operatorname{ht}(Q_{n+m}/pS)$$

$$\le \operatorname{ht}(p/q) + \dim(S \otimes_R k_p).$$

From which it follows that $\dim(S \otimes_R k_q) \leq \dim(S \otimes_R k_p)$.

7. The Krull-Akizuki Theorem

This short section is devoted to a proof of Theorem 13.7.5, which is commonly known as the Krull-Akizuki Theorem. The proof we give follows [12, Chapter VII, § 2.5]. Throughout this section, all rings are commutative. Given an R-module M, if M has a composition series, then we say M has finite length and $\ell(M)$ denotes the length of any composition series for M (Definition 7.6.28). If R is an integral domain with field of fractions K and M is a torsion free R-module, then the natural mapping $R \otimes_R M \to K \otimes_R M$ is one-to-one (Lemma 7.1.1). We identify M with the R-submodule $1 \otimes_R M$ of $K \otimes_R M$. The rank of M is defined to be $\dim_K (K \otimes_R M)$. If M is finitely generated, then by Theorem 6.4.23, M has finite rank. We mention however that the converse is false. For example, if we assume R is not a field, then K is not a finitely generated R-module (Lemma 10.1.4), but K has rank 1 since $K \otimes_R K = K$.

The Krull-Akizuki Theorem is concerned with the finiteness of the integral closure S of a noetherian integral domain R in a finite algebraic field extension L of the quotient field K of R. When R is integrally closed in K and L/K is separable, Theorem 10.1.13 applies. When R is a finitely generated algebra over a field k, there is a stronger result proved below in Theorem 14.3.11. The main difference between these theorems and Theorem 13.7.5 below is that we assume only that R is noetherian with Krull dimension one, and we show that S is also noetherian and has dimension one. Also, in Corollary 13.7.6 we see that the fibers of $\operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ are finite. Before restricting to the case where R is noetherian, we prove in Lemma 13.7.1 that the fiber over the generic point of $\operatorname{Spec} R$ is the generic point of S.

LEMMA 13.7.1. Let R be an integral domain with quotient field K. Let L be a finitely generated algebraic extension field of K and S a subring of L containing R. Then the following are true.

- (1) There is an R-algebra homomorphism $\gamma: K \otimes_R S \to L$ defined by $x \otimes y \mapsto xy$ which maps $K \otimes_R S$ isomorphically onto a subfield of L containing K and S.
- (2) S is an R-module of finite rank.
- (3) If \mathfrak{q} is a prime ideal of S such that $\mathfrak{q} \cap R = (0)$, then $\mathfrak{q} = (0)$.

PROOF. (1): Consider W=R-(0) which is a multiplicative subset of S contained in R. We can identify the localization $W^{-1}S$ with an R-subalgebra of L containing both K and S (Theorem 3.5.5). Since $W^{-1}S$ is finite dimensional over K, $W^{-1}S$ is a field (Exercise 4.5.15). Hence $W^{-1}S$ is isomorphic to the quotient field of S. By Lemma 7.1.1, γ maps $K \otimes_R S$ isomorphically onto $W^{-1}S$.

Part (2) follows from the fact that $K \otimes_R S$ is finite dimensional over K. Part (3) follows from Exercise 7.3.26.

LEMMA 13.7.2. Let R be a noetherian integral domain with dim(R) = 1. If M is a finitely generated torsion R-module, then the length of M is finite, $\ell(M) < \infty$.

PROOF. Since M is torsion, $\operatorname{annih}_R(M)$ is a proper ideal of R. Then $\dim(M) = \dim(R/\operatorname{annih}_R(M)) = 0$. By Lemma 13.6.4, M has finite length. \square

LEMMA 13.7.3. Let R be a commutative ring, M an R-module, and $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ a directed system of submodules of M ordered by set inclusion and indexed by a directed set I. If $M = \bigcup_{i \in I} M_i$, then $\ell(M) = \sup{\ell(M_i) \mid i \in I}$.

PROOF. By Proposition 7.6.29, $\ell(M_i) \leq \ell(M)$ for each i. If the set $\{\ell(M_i) \mid i \in I\}$ is unbounded, then $\ell(M) = \sup\{\ell(M_i) \mid i \in I\} = \infty$. Assume $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and $N = \sup\{\ell(M_i) \mid i \in I\}$. Therefore, there exists $j \in I$ such that $\ell(M_j) = N$. The family of submodules is directed, hence given any pair i, j in I, there is $k \in I$ such that $M_i \cup M_j \subseteq M_k$. So for all $k \geq j$ we have $\ell(M_j) = \ell(M_k) = N$. Since the union of the M_i is M, we have $N = \ell(M)$.

LEMMA 13.7.4. Let R be a noetherian integral domain with $\dim(R) = 1$. Let M be a torsion free R-module of finite rank n. If α is a nonzero element of R, then $R/\alpha R$ is an R-module of finite length and

$$\ell(M/\alpha M) \le n \, \ell(R/\alpha R).$$

PROOF. Since $R/\alpha R$ is a torsion R-module, by Lemma 13.7.2, it is an R-module of finite length.

Step 1: We prove that the inequality holds if M is a finitely generated R-module. By Exercise 7.1.24, there is a free R-submodule $F\subseteq M$ such that F has rank n and M/F is a finitely generated torsion R-module. By Lemma 13.7.2, $\ell(M/F)$ is finite. Since M is torsion free, if $i\geq 0$, then multiplication by α^i defines an isomorphism $M/\alpha M\to \alpha^i M/\alpha^{i+1} M$. Fix $m\geq 1$. By Theorem 4.1.18 (b), Proposition 7.6.31 and induction on m,

(7.1)
$$\ell(M/\alpha^m M) = m \, \ell(M/\alpha M).$$

Since F is free of rank n, we have

(7.2)
$$\ell(F/\alpha^m F) = m \, \ell(F/\alpha F) = nm \, \ell(R/\alpha R).$$

Consider the commutative diagram

$$(7.3) \qquad 0 \longrightarrow F \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow M/F \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha^m} \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha^m} \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha^m}$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha^m} \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha^m} \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha^m}$$

$$\downarrow^{\eta_1} \qquad \downarrow^{\eta_2} \qquad \downarrow^{\eta_3}$$

$$F/\alpha^m F \stackrel{\phi}{\longrightarrow} M/\alpha^m M \longrightarrow (M/F)/(\alpha^m (M/F)) \longrightarrow 0$$

where η_1, η_2, η_3 are the natural maps and are onto. The bottom row of (7.3) is exact by Theorem 6.6.2. Viewing F as a submodule of M, the image of ϕ is $\eta_2(F)$. By Theorem 4.1.18 (a),

(7.4)
$$F/\alpha^m F \xrightarrow{\phi} F/(F \cap \alpha^m M) \to 0$$

is exact. Applying Proposition 7.6.31 to the bottom row of (7.3), (7.4), and the rightmost column of (7.3), we have

(7.5)
$$\ell(M/\alpha^m M) = \ell(\operatorname{im} \phi) + \ell((M/F)/(\alpha^m (M/F)))$$
$$\leq \ell(F/\alpha^m F) + \ell((M/F)/(\alpha^m (M/F)))$$
$$\leq \ell(F/\alpha^m F) + \ell(M/F).$$

Combining (7.5) with (7.1) and (7.2) yields

(7.6)
$$\ell(M/\alpha M) \le n \,\ell(R/\alpha R) + m^{-1} \,\ell(M/F).$$

Since $\ell(M/F)$ is finite and (7.6) holds for all m > 1, this completes Step 1.

Step 2: Assume M is not finitely generated. Let $\{M_i \mid i \in I\}$ be the directed system of finitely generated submodules $M_i \subseteq M$ ordered by set inclusion and where each M_i has rank n. By Step 1, $\ell(M_i/\alpha M_i) \leq n \ell(R/\alpha R)$ for each i. Using a diagram similar to (7.3), we see that for each i, the image of $M_i/\alpha M_i \to M/\alpha M$ is $M_i/(M_i \cap \alpha M)$. Therefore,

(7.7)
$$\ell(M_i/(M_i \cap \alpha M)) \leq \ell(M_i/\alpha M_i) \\ \leq n \, \ell(R/\alpha R).$$

By Lemma 13.7.3 applied to $M/\alpha M$ and the directed system $\{M_i/(M_i \cap \alpha M) \mid i \in I\}$ of submodules, we conclude that $\ell(M/\alpha M) \leq n \, \ell(R/\alpha R)$.

Theorem 13.7.5. (Krull-Akizuki) Let R be a noetherian integral domain with $\dim(R) = 1$. Let K be the quotient field of R, L a finitely generated algebraic extension of K, and S a subring of L containing R. Then S is noetherian. If S is not a field, then $\dim(S) = 1$, and for every nonzero ideal $\mathfrak A$ in S, $S/\mathfrak A$ is a finitely generated R-module.

PROOF. Since a field is noetherian, assume from now on that S is not a field. By Lemma 13.7.1, S is an R-module of finite rank.

Let $\mathfrak A$ be a nonzero nonunit ideal of S. To show S is noetherian, it suffices to show that $\mathfrak A$ is finitely generated as an S-module. To show $S/\mathfrak A$ is finitely generated as an R-module, it suffices to show $S/\mathfrak A$ is an R-module of finite length.

Let $u \in \mathfrak{A} - (0)$ and let $f(x) = \operatorname{Irr.poly}_K(u)$ be the irreducible polynomial for u in K[x]. Then f(u) = 0 and after clearing denominators by multiplying by some element of R, we get an equation

$$r_n u^n + \dots + r_2 u^2 + r_1 u + r_0 = 0$$

where r_0, \ldots, r_n are elements in R. Since u is invertible in L, $r_0 \neq 0$. This shows $r_0 \in Su \subseteq \mathfrak{A}$. Apply Lemma 13.7.4 with M = S and $\alpha = r_0$. Then S/r_0S is an R-module of finite length. Since $S/r_0S \to S/\mathfrak{A}$ is onto, this implies S/\mathfrak{A} is an R-module of finite length.

By Exercise 7.6.36, S/r_0S is an S-module of finite length. Since $\mathfrak{A}/r_0S \to S/r_0S$ is one-to-one, it follows that \mathfrak{A}/r_0S is an S-module of finite length. Hence \mathfrak{A}/r_0S is a finitely generated S-module. The exact sequence

$$0 \to r_0 S \to \mathfrak{A} \to \mathfrak{A}/r_0 S \to 0$$

shows that \mathfrak{A} is a finitely generated S-module (Exercise 4.2.19). If \mathfrak{p} is a nonzero prime ideal of S, then S/\mathfrak{p} is an integral domain and an S-module of finite length. By Proposition 7.6.30, S/\mathfrak{p} is artinian. By Exercise 7.6.23, S/\mathfrak{p} is a field. Therefore, \mathfrak{p} is a maximal ideal.

COROLLARY 13.7.6. Let R, K, L and S be as in Theorem 13.7.5. If \mathfrak{p} is a prime ideal of R, then there are only finitely many prime ideals of S lying over \mathfrak{p} .

PROOF. If $\mathfrak{p}=(0)$, then there is only one prime ideal of S lying over \mathfrak{p} , by Lemma 13.7.1. If $\mathfrak{p}\neq(0)$, then by Theorem 13.7.5, $S\otimes_R R/\mathfrak{p}$ is a finitely generated R-module. Therefore, $S\otimes_R R/\mathfrak{p}$ is a finitely generated vector space over the field R/\mathfrak{p} . By Exercise 7.4.11 there is a one-to-one correspondence between prime ideals of S lying over \mathfrak{p} and prime ideals of $S\otimes_R R/\mathfrak{p}$. By Exercise 7.6.35 and Proposition 8.4.3, Spec $(S\otimes_R R/\mathfrak{p})$ is finite.

CHAPTER 14

Derivations, Differentials

This chapter introduces two powerful methods for studying separable algebras over commutative rings. These new tools are the module of R-derivations on an R-algebra, and the module of Kähler differentials. Applying results about derivations allows us to prove theorems on faithfully flat descent of separability, the separability at the stalks criteria, and the residue field tests for separability. Applying results on Kähler differentials, we derive separability criteria for commutative R-algebras. For example, the vanishing of the module of Kähler differentials leads to a separability criterion for a finitely generated commutative algebra. Differentials are applied to prove jacobian criteria for separability in Section 14.2, and for regularity in Section 15.6.

Noether's Normalization Lemma is proved in Theorem 14.3.3. In summary this lemma states that if A is a finitely generated k-algebra, then A contains a subalgebra Z isomorphic to a polynomial ring in n indeterminates, where A is integral over Z and n is equal to the Krull dimension of A. When the ground field k is infinite, a second version is proved in Corollary 14.3.3. As an application, a theorem on the finiteness of the integral closure of an integral domain is proved (Theorem 14.3.11).

The useful Local Criteria for Flatness are proved in Theorem 14.4.13 and the Theorem on Generic Flatness is proved in Theorem 14.4.21.

The last section of this chapter concludes with Corollary 14.5.4. This useful result specifies sufficient criteria such that the direct limit of a directed system of noetherian local rings is again a noetherian local ring.

1. Derivations

This section contains an introduction to R-derivations on an R-algebra with coefficients in a two-sided module. General references for the material in this section are [14], [34], [39], [30], [33], and [20].

1.1. The Definition and First Results. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. The enveloping algebra is $A^e = A \otimes_R A^o$. A left right A-bimodule M is called a two-sided A/R-module if the left and right R-actions agree (Definition 9.1.5). If M is a left A^e -module, then we can make M into a two-sided A/R-module by defining $ax = a \otimes 1 \cdot x$ and $xa = 1 \otimes a \cdot x$ (Definition 9.1.6). In particular, A^e is a left A^e -module, hence is a two-sided A/R-module.

If M is any two-sided A/R-module, then an R-derivation from A to M is an R-module homomorphism $\partial:A\to M$ satisfying

$$\partial(ab) = a\partial(b) + \partial(a)b$$

for all $a, b \in A$. The set of all R-derivations from A to M is denoted $\mathrm{Der}_R(A, M)$. The reader should verify that $\mathrm{Der}_R(A, M)$ is an R-submodule of $\mathrm{Hom}_R(A, M)$ and that if ∂ is any R-derivation, then $\partial(1) = 0$.

EXAMPLE 14.1.1. Let R be any ring, x an indeterminate, and A = R[x] the polynomial ring. The usual derivative with respect to x is a \mathbb{Z} -derivation $\partial: A \to A$.

There is an exact sequence of A^e -modules

$$(1.1) 0 \to J_{A/R} \to A^e \xrightarrow{\mu} A \to 0$$

where μ is defined by $a \otimes b \mapsto ab$ and $J_{A/R}$ is defined to be the kernel of μ (Definition 9.1.1). By Definition 9.1.3, A is separable over R if and only if (1.1) is split exact as a sequence of A^e -modules. By Exercise 9.1.13, $J_{A/R}$ is generated as a left ideal in A^e by the set of all elements of the form $a \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes a$.

Lemma 14.1.2. Let R be a commutative ring, A an R-algebra and S a commutative R-algebra. Then the following are true.

- (1) The sequence (1.1) is a split exact sequence of A-modules and hence a split exact sequence of R-modules.
- (2) $A^e \otimes_R S = (A \otimes_R S)^e$.
- (3) $J_{A\otimes_R S/S} = J_{A/R} \otimes_R S$.

PROOF. (1): By Exercise 6.4.35, there is an R-algebra homomorphism $\rho: A \to A \otimes_R A^o$ defined by $\rho(a) = a \otimes 1$. Using ρ we view each term in (1.1) as a left A-module. The reader should verify that $\mu \rho = 1$ and that both ρ and μ are left A-module homomorphisms. Therefore, (1.1) is split exact as a sequence of left A-modules.

- (2): This is left to the reader.
- (3): This follows from (2) by tensoring the split exact sequence (1.1) with () $\otimes_R S$.

Example 14.1.3. Define an R-module homomorphism $\delta: A \to J_{A/R}$ by

$$\delta(a) = a \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes a.$$

If $a, b \in A$, then

$$\delta(ab) = ab \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes ab$$

$$= ab \otimes 1 - a \otimes b + a \otimes b - 1 \otimes ab$$

$$= (a \otimes 1)(b \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes b) + (1 \otimes b)(a \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes a)$$

$$= a\delta(b) + \delta(a)b.$$

Therefore $\delta: A \to J_{A/R}$ is an R-derivation.

LEMMA 14.1.4. If $\delta: A \to J_{A/R}$ is from Example 14.1.3, then $A\delta(A) = J_{A/R}$. That is, the image of δ generates $J_{A/R}$ as a left A-module.

PROOF. A typical element of
$$J_{A/R}$$
 is $x = \sum_i x_i \otimes y_i$ such that $\sum_i x_i y_i = 0$. Then $\sum_i x_i (1 \otimes y_i - y_i \otimes 1) = \sum_i x_i \otimes y_i - (\sum_i x_i y_i) \otimes 1 = x$.

Lemma 14.1.5. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra.

(1) If A is commutative and is generated as an R-algebra by the set $X = \{x_i\}_{i\in I}$, then $J_{A/R}$ is generated as an A^e -module by the set $\delta(X) = \{x_i \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes x_i\}_{i\in I}$.

- (2) If A is finitely generated as an R-module, then $J_{A/R}$ is finitely generated as an R-module.
- (3) Assume either
 - (a) A is a finitely generated R-module, or
 - (b) A a finitely generated commutative R-algebra.

Then $J_{A/R}$ is a finitely generated left ideal of A^e and A is an A^e -module of finite presentation.

- PROOF. (1): A typical element of A can be written as a finite sum $a = \sum r_i m_i$, where $r_i \in R$ and m_i is a monomial in X. Since δ is R-linear, it is enough to show $\delta(x_1 \cdots x_n)$ is in $A^e \delta(X)$, where x_1, \ldots, x_n represent any elements (not necessarily distinct) of X. Because δ is an R-derivation, this follows from the generalized product rule, Exercise 14.1.8.
- (2): By Proposition 6.4.24, A^e is a finitely generated R-module. The sequence (1.1) is split exact as a sequence of R-modules, hence $J_{A/R}$ is a homomorphic image of A^e .
- (3): In both cases, $J_{A/R}$ is finitely generated over A^e . The exact sequence (1.1) shows that A is of finite presentation as a left A^e -module.

Given any $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(J_{A/R}, M)$, let $\alpha_f : A \to M$ be defined by

$$\alpha_f(a) = f(\delta(a)).$$

The reader should verify that $\alpha_f \in \operatorname{Der}_R(A, M)$ and that there is a homomorphism of R-modules $\alpha : \operatorname{Hom}_{A^c}(J_{A/R}, M) \to \operatorname{Der}_R(A, M)$ defined by $f \mapsto \alpha_f$. Given any $m \in M$, let $\tau_m : A \to M$ be defined by

$$\tau_m(a) = am - ma$$
.

The reader should verify that $\tau_m \in \operatorname{Der}_R(A, M)$ and that there is a homomorphism of R-modules $\tau : M \to \operatorname{Der}_R(A, M)$ defined by $m \mapsto \tau_m$.

Proposition 14.1.6. In the notation developed above, there is a commutative diagram of R-modules

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A^{e}}(A, M) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A^{e}}(A^{e}, M) \xrightarrow{\sigma} \operatorname{Hom}_{A^{e}}(J_{A/R}, M)$$

$$\uparrow \bigvee_{\gamma} \cong \qquad \qquad \beta \bigvee_{\gamma} \cong \qquad \qquad \alpha \bigvee_{\gamma} \cong \qquad \qquad 0 \longrightarrow M^{A} \longrightarrow M \xrightarrow{\tau} \operatorname{Der}_{R}(A, M)$$

such that the three vertical maps are isomorphisms and the rows are exact.

PROOF. Applying the left exact functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(\cdot,M)$ to the exact sequence (1.1) yields the top row. Clearly the kernel of τ is M^A , so the bottom row is exact. The isomorphism β comes from Lemma 6.5.7 and is defined by the action $f \mapsto f(1)$. The isomorphism γ comes from Lemma 9.1.7. We check that $\alpha\sigma = \tau\beta$. Suppose $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A^e,M), f(1) = m$, and $a \in A$. Then

$$\alpha(\sigma(f))(a) = f(\delta(a))$$

$$= \delta(a)f(1)$$

$$= (a \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes a)m$$

$$= am - ma$$

$$= \tau(\beta(f))(a).$$

Next we verify that α is one-to-one. Suppose $\alpha_f = 0$. Then $f(\delta(A)) = 0$. It follows from Lemma 14.1.4 that $f(J_{A/R}) = 0$. Now we show that α is onto. Let $\partial \in \operatorname{Der}_R(A,M)$. We must show that there exists $h \in \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(J_{A/R},M)$ such that $\partial = h \circ \delta$. The reader should verify that the assignment $x \otimes y \mapsto -x\partial(y)$ defines an R-module homomorphism $h: A^e \to M$ and $h(\delta(a)) = h(a \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes a) = -a\partial(1) + \partial(a) = \partial(a)$. To show that h is a homomorphism of A^e -modules, let $x = \sum_i x_i \otimes y_i$ be a typical element of $J_{A/R}$ and $a \otimes b \in A^e$. Then

$$h(a \otimes b \cdot x) = h\left(a \otimes b \sum_{i} x_{i} \otimes y_{i}\right)$$

$$= h\left(\sum_{i} ax_{i} \otimes y_{i}b\right)$$

$$= -\sum_{i} ax_{i}\partial(y_{i}b)$$

$$= -\sum_{i} ax_{i}\left(y_{i}\partial(b) + \partial(y_{i})b\right)$$

$$= -a\left(\sum_{i} x_{i}y_{i}\right)\partial(b) - a\left(\sum_{i} x_{i}\partial(y_{i})\right)b$$

$$= a \otimes b \cdot h(x)$$

completes the proof.

The image of $\tau: M \to \operatorname{Der}_R(A, M)$ is denoted Inn. $\operatorname{Der}_R(A, M)$ and is called the set of *inner derivations*. Because the diagram of Proposition 14.1.6 commutes, under the isomorphism α , the set of inner derivations corresponds to the set of $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(J_{A/R}, M)$ such that f extends to $A^e \to M$.

Proposition 14.1.7. Let A and C be commutative R-algebras and

$$u:A\to C$$

a homomorphism of R-algebras. Let I be an ideal in C such that $I^2 = 0$. Consider the map on sets

$$\beta: \operatorname{Hom}_{R\text{-}alq}(A,C) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R\text{-}alq}(A,C/I)$$

which is induced by the natural map $\eta: C \to C/I$ on R-algebras. Let $\bar{u} = \beta(u) = \eta u$. Make I into an A-module using the homomorphism u. That is, $a \cdot x = u(a)x$.

- (1) If $D: A \to I$ is an R-derivation, then $u + D: A \to C$ is an R-algebra homomorphism in $\beta^{-1}(\bar{u})$.
- (2) If $v:A\to C$ is in $\beta^{-1}(\bar u)$, and D=v-u, then $D:A\to I$ is an R-derivation.
- (3) The mapping $D \mapsto u + D$ defines a one-to-one correspondence

$$\operatorname{Der}_R(A, I) \to \{v \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R\text{-}alg}(A, C) \mid \beta(v) = \beta(u)\}.$$

Proof. (1): Because

$$(u+D)(ab) = u(ab) + D(ab)$$

= $u(a)u(b) + u(a)D(b) + u(b)D(a)$

is equal to

$$(u(a) + D(a))(u(b) + D(b)) = u(a)u(b) + u(a)D(b) + u(b)D(a) + D(a)D(b)$$

= $u(a)u(b) + u(a)D(b) + u(b)D(a)$,

u+D is multiplicative. The rest is left to the reader.

(2): For $a \in A$, D(a) = u(a) - v(a) is in I. The computation v(ab) = v(a)v(b)

$$\begin{aligned} (ab) &= v(a)v(b) \\ &= (u(a) + D(a))(u(b) + D(b)) \\ &= u(a)u(b) + u(a)D(b) + u(b)D(a) + D(a)D(b) \\ &= u(a)u(b) + u(a)D(b) + u(b)D(a), \end{aligned}$$

shows that D(ab) = u(a)D(b) + u(b)D(a).

Part (3) follows from (1) and (2).

1.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 14.1.8. (Generalized Product and Power Rules) Suppose A is an R-algebra, M is a two-sided A/R-module, $\partial \in \mathrm{Der}_R(A,M)$ and $x,x_1,\ldots,x_n \in A$. Prove that

$$\partial(x_1x_2\cdots x_n) = \partial(x_1)x_2\cdots x_n + x_1\partial(x_2)x_3\cdots x_n + \cdots + x_1\cdots x_{n-1}\partial(x_n)$$

and if $n \ge 1$, then $\partial(x^n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} x^i \partial(x_i) x^{n-1-i}$.

EXERCISE 14.1.9. (Chain Rule) Suppose A is a commutative R-algebra and M is an A-module. Prove that if $a \in A$ and $f(x) \in R[x]$, then for any $\partial \in \mathrm{Der}_R(A,M)$, $\partial (f(a)) = f'(a)\partial (a)$.

EXERCISE 14.1.10. Let A be an R-algebra. Show that $M \mapsto \operatorname{Der}_R(A, M)$ defines a covariant functor from the category of two-sided A/R-modules to the category of R-modules.

EXERCISE 14.1.11. Suppose S is a commutative R-algebra and A is any S-algebra. Let M be a two-sided A/S-module. Show that there is an exact sequence of abelian groups

$$0 \to \operatorname{Der}_S(A, M) \xrightarrow{a} \operatorname{Der}_R(A, M) \xrightarrow{b} \operatorname{Der}_R(S, M).$$

EXERCISE 14.1.12. Let R be a commutative ring and S a commutative R-algebra. Let A = S[x] be the polynomial ring over S in one variable and let M be any A-module. Show that $\mathrm{Der}_R(A,M) \to \mathrm{Der}_R(S,M)$ is onto. (Hint: If $\partial: S \to M$ is an R-derivation, show that the assignment $ax^i \mapsto x^i \partial(a)$ defines an R-derivation $D: A \to M$.)

EXERCISE 14.1.13. (The Extension of a Ring by a Module) Let A be an R-algebra and N a two-sided A/R-module (Definition 9.1.5). Define a multiplication on the two-sided A/R-module $A \oplus N$ by the formula (a, x)(b, y) = (ab, ay + xb), for all a, b in A and all x, y in N.

- (1) Show that the multiplication rule defined above turns the A-module $A \oplus N$ into an R-algebra with unit element (1,0). Denote this R-algebra by A*N.
- (2) Show that the subset $\{(0,x) \mid x \in N\}$ is an ideal in A*N satisfying $N^2 = 0$ and that there is a split exact sequence of two-sided A/R-modules $0 \to N \to A*N \to A \to 0$. The ring A*N is called the *trivial*, or split extension of A by N.
- (3) Show that the map $a\mapsto (a,0)$ defines an R-algebra homomorphism $\sigma:A\to A*N$ which is a section to the natural map $\eta:A*N\to A$ (that is, $\eta\sigma=1$).

- (4) Let $D \in \operatorname{Der}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, N)$. Define $u : A \to A * N$ by u(a) = (a, D(a)). Show that u is a ring homomorphism which is a section to the natural map $\eta : A * N \to A$.
- (5) Prove the converse to (4). That is, show that if $u: A \to A * N$ is a \mathbb{Z} -algebra section to η , then $u(a) \sigma(a): A \to N$ is a \mathbb{Z} -derivation.
- (6) Let B be a commutative R-algebra and I an ideal in B satisfying $I^2 = 0$. Let A = B/I. Show that there is an exact sequence of A-modules $0 \to I \to B \to A \to 0$. We say that B is an extension of A by I. Show that B is isomorphic to A*I as R-algebras if and only if there is an R-algebra homomorphism $\sigma: A \to B$ which is a section to the natural map $B \to A$ (in this case the extension is also said to be trivial, or split).

EXERCISE 14.1.14. Let A be an R-algebra and $D \in \operatorname{Der}_R(A, A)$. View $\operatorname{Der}_R(A, A)$ as an R-submodule of the ring $\operatorname{Hom}_R(A, A)$ of A-module endomorphisms of A. Let D^i denote the composition map where D is applied i times. Then D^i is an element of $\operatorname{Hom}_R(A, A)$, but not necessarily an element of $\operatorname{Der}_R(A, A)$. Prove:

(1) (Leibniz Formula) For all $a, b \in A$ and $n \ge 0$,

$$D^{n}(ab) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \binom{n}{i} D^{i}(a) D^{n-i}(b).$$

- (2) If R has characteristic p, a prime number, then $D^p \in \operatorname{Der}_R(A, A)$ is an R-derivation on A.
- 1.3. More Tests for Separability. Now we apply the above results on derivations to establish separability criteria for algebras. The main results are the vanishing of the first Hochschild cohomology criterion, the theorems on faithfully flat descent, the separability at the stalks criteria, and the residue field tests.

Let R be a commutative ring, A an R-algebra, and $A^e = A \otimes_R A^o$ the enveloping algebra. If M is a two-sided A/R-module, then the nth Hochschild cohomology group of A with coefficients in M is defined to be $\operatorname{H}^n(A,M) = \operatorname{Ext}_{A^e}^n(A,M)$ (Definition 12.7.1).

LEMMA 14.1.15. In the above context, the following are true.

- (1) $H^0(A, M) = M^A = \{x \in M \mid ax = xa, \text{ for all } a \in A\}.$
- (2) $H^1(A, M) = Der_R(A, M) / Inn. Der_R(A, M)$.

Proof. The sequence of left A^e -modules

$$0 \to J_{A/R} \to A^e \xrightarrow{\mu} A \to 0$$

is exact (Definition 9.1.1). Consider the associated long exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A, M) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A^e, M) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(J_{A/R}, M) \xrightarrow{\delta^0}$$
$$\operatorname{Ext}_{A^e}^1(A, M) \to \operatorname{Ext}_{A^e}^1(A^e, M) \to \operatorname{Ext}_{A^e}^1(J_{A/R}, M) \to$$

of abelian groups (Proposition 12.3.12 (2)). Since A^e is projective over A^e , it follows from Proposition 12.3.12 (3) that $\operatorname{Ext}_{A^e}^1(A^e,M)=0$. The rest follows from Proposition 14.1.6.

Theorem 14.1.16. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra. The following are equivalent.

(1) A is a separable R-algebra.

- (2) $H^1(A, M) = 0$ for every two-sided A/R-module M.
- (3) The sequence

$$0 \to M^A \to M \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathrm{Der}_R(A, M) \to 0$$

is exact, for every two-sided A/R-module M.

PROOF. (1) is equivalent to (2): Let $A^e = A \otimes_R A^o$ be the enveloping algebra. By Definition 9.1.3, A is R-separable if and only if A is projective as a left A^e -module. By Proposition 12.3.12 (3), A is projective as a left A^e -module if and only if $\mathrm{H}^1(A,M) = \mathrm{Ext}_{A^e}^1(A,M) = 0$ for every two-sided A/R-module M.

(2) is equivalent to (3): This follows from an application of Proposition 14.1.6 and Lemma 14.1.15. $\hfill\Box$

We now prove a faithfully flat descent theorem for separability.

THEOREM 14.1.17. Let A be an R-algebra and S a commutative faithfully flat R-algebra. Assume $A \otimes_R S$ is separable over S and either

- (1) A is a finitely generated R-module, or
- (2) A a finitely generated commutative R-algebra.

Then A is separable over R.

PROOF. By Lemma 14.1.5, A is finitely presented as an A^e -module. By Proposition 7.5.9, the functors $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A,\cdot)\otimes_R S$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e\otimes_R S}(A\otimes_R S,(\cdot)\otimes_R S)$ are isomorphic. By Corollary 9.1.10, the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e\otimes_R S}(A\otimes_R S,\cdot)$ is exact. Since S is faithfully flat, it follows that $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A,\cdot)$ is exact. By Corollary 9.1.10 again, A is separable over R.

The next theorem provides sufficient conditions allowing us to prove that an algebra is separable if it is separable when localized at every prime.

Theorem 14.1.18. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra which satisfies either

- (a) A is a finitely generated R-module, or
- (b) A a finitely generated commutative R-algebra.

Then the following are equivalent.

- (1) A is a separable R-algebra.
- (2) $A \otimes_R R_P$ is a separable R_P -algebra for every prime ideal P of R.
- (3) $A \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a separable $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ -algebra for every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of R.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): This follows straight from Corollary 9.3.2.

- (2) implies (3): This is trivial.
- (3) implies (1): By Proposition 9.1.2(2), it suffices to show that sequence

$$0 \to J_{A/R} \to A^e \xrightarrow{\mu} A \to 0$$

of left A^e -modules is split exact. By Exercise 6.5.24, it is enough to show that $\mu \circ () : \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A,A^e) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A,A)$ is onto. By Lemma 14.1.5, A is of finite presentation as a left A^e -module. Let $\mathfrak m$ be any maximal ideal of R. Denote by $A_{\mathfrak m}$

the tensor product $A \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}}$. By Lemma 14.1.2, $A^e \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}} = A^e_{\mathfrak{m}}$. The diagram

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{A^{e}}(A, A^{e}) \otimes_{R} R_{\mathfrak{m}} \xrightarrow{\mu \circ () \otimes 1} \operatorname{Hom}_{A^{e}}(A, A) \otimes_{R} R_{\mathfrak{m}}$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{A^{e}_{\mathfrak{m}}}(A_{\mathfrak{m}}, A^{e}_{\mathfrak{m}}) \xrightarrow{\mu \circ ()} \operatorname{Hom}_{A^{e}_{\mathfrak{m}}}(A_{\mathfrak{m}}, A_{\mathfrak{m}})$$

commutes. The vertical maps are isomorphisms, by Proposition 7.5.9. By Corollary 9.1.10, the second horizontal map $\mu \circ ()$ is onto. Hence the top horizontal map is onto. By Exercise 7.5.16, $\mu \circ ()$: $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A, A^e) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(A, A)$ is onto. \square

For an R-algebra A that is a finitely generated R-module, the next theorem and its corollaries show that separability of A over R can be reduced to the same question for certain algebras over fields. Separable algebras over fields are described by the decomposition theorems of Section 9.5.

Theorem 14.1.19. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-algebra which is finitely generated as an R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) A is a separable R-algebra.
- (2) $A/\mathfrak{m}A$ is a separable R/\mathfrak{m} -algebra for every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of R.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): This follows straight from Corollary 9.3.2.

(2) implies (1): Let \mathfrak{m} be any maximal ideal of R. Since $R_{\mathfrak{m}}/\mathfrak{m}R_{\mathfrak{m}}\cong R/\mathfrak{m}$ we have

$$(A \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}}) / \mathfrak{m}(A \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}}) \cong A \otimes_R (R_{\mathfrak{m}} / \mathfrak{m} R_{\mathfrak{m}})$$
$$\cong A \otimes_R (R / \mathfrak{m})$$
$$\cong A / \mathfrak{m} A.$$

Since we already proved that (3) implies (1) in Theorem 14.1.18, it is enough to prove (2) implies (1) when R is a local ring.

Assume R is a local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and A is an R-algebra which is finitely generated as an R-module and such that $A/\mathfrak{m}A$ is separable over R/\mathfrak{m} . For the remainder of this proof, we write simply $J_{A/\mathfrak{m}A}$ instead of $J_{(A/\mathfrak{m}A)/(R/\mathfrak{m})}$ and J_A rather than $J_{A/R}$. Let $\delta:A/\mathfrak{m}A\to J_{A/\mathfrak{m}A}$ be the derivation defined by $\bar{a}\mapsto \bar{a}\otimes 1-1\otimes \bar{a}$. By Theorem 14.1.16, $\delta=\tau_{\bar{z}}$ for some $\bar{z}\in J_{A/\mathfrak{m}A}$. In other words, for each $\bar{a}\in A/\mathfrak{m}A$, $\delta(\bar{a})=\bar{a}\bar{z}-\bar{z}\bar{a}=(\bar{a}\otimes 1-1\otimes \bar{a})\bar{z}=\delta(\bar{a})\bar{z}$. By Lemma 14.1.4, it follows that

$$J_{A/\mathfrak{m}A} = (A/\mathfrak{m}A)\delta(A/\mathfrak{m}A) = (A/\mathfrak{m}A)\delta(A/\mathfrak{m}A)\bar{z} = J_{A/\mathfrak{m}A}\bar{z}.$$

By Lemma 14.1.2, $J_{A/\mathfrak{m}A} = J_A/(\mathfrak{m}J_A)$. If $z \in J_A$ is a preimage of \bar{z} , then $J_A = J_Az + \mathfrak{m}J_A$. In Lemma 14.1.5 it was shown that J_A is finitely generated over R. By Nakayama's Lemma (Theorem 8.1.3), it follows that $J_A = J_Az$. Define a homomorphism ϕ in $\mathrm{Hom}_{A^e}(A^e,J_A)$ by $\phi(x)=xz$. Then $\phi(J_A)=J_Az=J_A$. By Corollary 6.5.2, $\phi:J_A\to J_A$ is an automorphism of A^e -modules. Therefore sequence (1.1) is split exact as A^e -modules.

EXAMPLE 14.1.20. Let R be a commutative ring and $f \in R[x]$ a monic polynomial. We proved in Proposition 9.6.2 that S = R[x]/(f) is separable over R if and only if (f, f') = R[x]. In this example, we apply the Residue Field Criterion to give another proof that S/R is separable if (f, f') = R[x]. Since f is monic, S is a free R-module of finite rank. By Theorem 14.1.19, S/R is separable if and only if

 $S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{m}} = k_{\mathfrak{m}}[x]/(f)$ is separable over $k_{\mathfrak{m}}$ for every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} in R, where $k_{\mathfrak{m}}$ denotes the residue field R/\mathfrak{m} . By Exercise 9.5.13, $k_{\mathfrak{m}}[x]/(f)$ is separable over $k_{\mathfrak{m}}$ if and only if (f, f') is the unit ideal in $k_{\mathfrak{m}}[x]$. If (f, f') is the unit ideal in R[x], then for every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , (f, f') is the unit ideal in $k_{\mathfrak{m}}[x]$ and we are done.

COROLLARY 14.1.21. Let R be a local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field k. The change of base functor () $\otimes_R k$ from the category of commutative separable R-algebras which are finitely generated free R-modules and the category of commutative separable k-algebras is essentially surjective.

PROOF. A commutative separable k-algebra is a direct sum $F_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus F_n$, where each F_i is a finite separable field extension of k (Corollary 9.5.9). Let F/k be a finite separable field extension. To show () $\otimes_R k$ is essentially surjective, it is enough to show that $F = S \otimes_R k$, for an appropriate extension S/R. By the Primitive Element Theorem (Theorem 5.4.7) and Corollary 9.6.3, we are done. \square

1.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 14.1.22. This exercise is based on [25, Proposition I.3.1, p. 2] and [43, Proposition I.3.5] Let R be a commutative ring and S a commutative finitely generated R-algebra. Show that the following are equivalent.

- (1) S is a separable R-algebra.
- (2) The homomorphism of R-algebras $\mu:S^e\to S$ makes S into a flat S^e -module.
- (3) For every $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Spec} S$, if $\mathfrak{p} = \mu^{-1}(\mathfrak{q})$, then $\mu : (S^e)_{\mathfrak{p}} \to S_{\mathfrak{q}}$ is an isomorphism. In the terminology of Algebraic Geometry, the diagonal morphism $\mu^{\sharp} : \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} S^e$ is said to be an open immersion (Exercise 7.5.33).

(Hint: Exercise 7.2.6 and Proposition 7.8.2.)

EXERCISE 14.1.23. Let R be a commutative ring and S a commutative R-algebra. In Algebraic Geometry, the morphism $\mu^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} S \otimes_R S$ associated to $\mu: S \otimes_R S \to S$ is called the diagonal morphism.

- (1) For every $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Spec} S$, show that $\mu^{-1}(\mathfrak{q})$ is the ideal $\mathfrak{q} \otimes S + S \otimes \mathfrak{q} + J_{S/R}$.
- (2) Let k be an algebraically closed field. Let $\alpha \in k$ and let \mathfrak{q} be the maximal ideal in k[x] generated by $x \alpha$. Show that under the diagonal map $\mu^{\sharp} : \operatorname{Spec} k[x] \to \operatorname{Spec} k[x] \otimes_k k[x]$, the image of \mathfrak{q} is the maximal ideal in $k[x] \otimes_k k[x]$ generated by $(x \alpha) \otimes 1$ and $1 \otimes (x \alpha)$.

EXERCISE 14.1.24. (An Open Immersion is Separable) Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. Show that if the continuous map f^{\sharp} : Spec $S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is an open immersion (see Exercise 7.5.33), then S is separable over R. (Use Corollary 7.5.37 to show S is a finitely generated R-algebra.)

2. Differentials

This section contains an introduction to the module of Kähler differentials associated to a commutative R-algebra. The module of differentials is defined and its fundamental properties are proved. These results are applied in Section 14.2.2 to derive new tests for separability, in Section 14.3.2 to study separably generated field extensions, and in Section 15.6 to derive new tests for regularity.

2.1. The Definition and Fundamental Exact Sequences. A general reference for this section is [39]. Let A be a commutative R-algebra and $A^e = A \otimes_R A$. The multiplication map $a \otimes b \mapsto ab$ induces a homomorphism of R-algebras $\mu : A \otimes_R A \to A$ (see Exercise 6.4.36). As in Definition 9.1.1 the kernel of μ is denoted $J_{A/R}$ and there is an exact sequence of A^e -modules

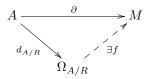
$$0 \to J_{A/R} \to A^e \xrightarrow{\mu} A \to 0.$$

Using the R-algebra homomorphism $\rho:A\to A^e$ defined by $a\mapsto a\otimes 1$, we turn A^e into a left A-module. Consequently $J_{A/R}$ and $J_{A/R}^2$ are also A-modules. Let $\Omega_{A/R}$ be defined by the exact sequence

$$0 \to J_{A/R}^2 \to J_{A/R} \xrightarrow{\pi} \Omega_{A/R} \to 0.$$

The left A-module $\Omega_{A/R}$ is called the module of Kähler differentials. As in Example 14.1.3, there is an R-derivation $\delta:A\to J_{A/R}$ defined by $a\mapsto a\otimes 1-1\otimes a$. Let $d_{A/R}=\pi\delta$. The reader should verify that $d_{A/R}:A\to\Omega_{A/R}$ is an R-derivation. The derivation $d_{A/R}$, together with the module of Kähler differentials satisfies a universal mapping property. In Theorem 14.2.1, a left A-module is made into a two-sided A/R-module by making the right multiplication agree with the left multiplication. An R-module homomorphism $\partial:A\to M$ is an R-derivation of A, if $\partial(ab)=a\partial(b)+b\partial(a)$, for all $a,b\in A$.

Theorem 14.2.1. Let A be a commutative R-algebra. For any left A-module M, if $\partial: A \to M$ is an R-derivation of A, then there exists a unique A-module homomorphism $f: \Omega_{A/R} \to M$ such that the diagram



commutes. The assignment $f \mapsto fd_{A/R}$ defines an isomorphism of A-modules $\operatorname{Hom}_A(\Omega_{A/R}, M) \cong \operatorname{Der}_R(A, M)$.

PROOF. The exact sequence

$$J_{A/R} \xrightarrow{\pi} \Omega_{A/R} \to 0$$

gives rise to the exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_A(\Omega_{A/R}, M) \to \operatorname{Hom}_A(J_{A/R}, M).$$

Let $f \in \text{Hom}_A(\Omega_{A/R}, M)$. For any $a, b, x \in A$,

$$(f\pi)\big((a\otimes b)(x\otimes 1 - 1\otimes x)\big) = (f\pi)\Big(\big(a(1\otimes b - b\otimes 1) + ab\otimes 1\big)(x\otimes 1 - 1\otimes x)\Big)$$
$$= (f\pi)\big(a(1\otimes b - b\otimes 1)(x\otimes 1 - 1\otimes x)\big)$$
$$+ ab(x\otimes 1 - 1\otimes x)\big)$$
$$= f\big(ab(x\otimes 1 - 1\otimes x)\big)$$
$$= abf(x\otimes 1 - 1\otimes x).$$

This means $f\pi$ is in $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(J_{A/R}, M)$, so the sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_A(\Omega_{A/R}, M) \xrightarrow{\zeta} \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(J_{A/R}, M)$$

is exact. Let $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{A^e}(J_{A/R}, M)$. For all $a, b \in A$,

$$g((a \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes a)(b \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes b)) = g(a \otimes 1(b \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes b))$$
$$-g(1 \otimes a(b \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes b))$$
$$= ag(b \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes b) - g(b \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes b)a$$
$$= 0.$$

Since g annihilates $J_{A/R}^2$, there exists $f:\Omega_{A/R}\to M$ such that $g=f\pi$. This proves ζ is an isomorphism. Combined with Proposition 14.1.6, this shows that there is an isomorphism $\operatorname{Hom}_A(\Omega_{A/R},M)\cong\operatorname{Der}_R(A,M)$ which is defined by $f\mapsto f\pi\delta$. Because A is commutative, the maps are A-linear.

PROPOSITION 14.2.2. Let S be a commutative R-algebra which is generated as an R-algebra by the set $X = \{x_i\}_{i \in I}$. Then

- (1) $\Omega_{S/R}$ is generated as an S-module by $d_{S/R}(X) = \{d_{S/R}x_i\}_{i \in I}$.
- (2) If S is a polynomial ring over R (that is, if X is a set of indeterminates), then $\Omega_{S/R}$ is a free S-module with basis $d_{S/R}(X)$.
- (3) If S is a finitely generated R-algebra, then $\Omega_{S/R}$ is a finitely generated S-module.

PROOF. Part (3) follows directly from Part (1).

(1): By Lemma 14.1.5, $J_{S/R}$ is generated as an S^e -module by the set $\delta(X) = \{x_i \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes x_i\}_{i \in I}$. Let $\pi: J_{S/R} \to J_{S/R}/J_{S/R}^2$ be the natural map. Given any $a, b \in S$ and $x \in X$,

$$\pi(a \otimes b(x \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes x)) = \pi((a(1 \otimes b - b \otimes 1) + (ab \otimes 1))(x \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes x))$$

$$= \pi(a(1 \otimes b - b \otimes 1)(x \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes x))$$

$$+ \pi((ab \otimes 1)(x \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes x))$$

$$= \pi((ab \otimes 1)(x \otimes 1 - 1 \otimes x)).$$

It follows from this that $\Omega_{S/R} = J_{S/R}/J_{S/R}^2$ is generated as a left S-module by the set $\pi \delta(X) = d_{S/R}(X)$.

(2): For each $i \in I$, let $\partial_i : S \to S$ represent the "partial derivative with respect to x_i " function. By the Universal Mapping Property (Theorem 14.2.1), there exists a unique $b_i \in \text{Hom}_S(\Omega_{S/R}, S)$ such that for all $j \in I$

$$b_i d_{S/R} x_j = \partial_i x_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Suppose $\sum_j s_j d_{S/R} x_j = 0$ is a finite dependence relation in $\Omega_{S/R}$ where each $s_j \in S$. Applying b_i we see that $s_i = 0$.

2.1.1. The Fundamental Exact Sequences. Now we derive the so-called fundamental exact sequences for the module of differentials.

Theorem 14.2.3. (The First Fundamental Exact Sequence) Let S be a commutative R-algebra and A a commutative S-algebra.

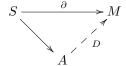
(1) There is an exact sequence of natural homomorphisms of A-modules

$$\Omega_{S/R} \otimes_S A \xrightarrow{a} \Omega_{A/R} \xrightarrow{b} \Omega_{A/S} \to 0.$$

(2) There is a split-exact sequence of natural homomorphisms of A-modules

$$0 \to \Omega_{S/R} \otimes_S A \xrightarrow{a} \Omega_{A/R} \xrightarrow{b} \Omega_{A/S} \to 0$$

if and only if given any A-module M and any R-derivation $\partial: S \to M$, there exists an R-derivation $D: A \to M$ such that the diagram



commutes.

PROOF. (1): Step 1: Define the map a. By Exercise 14.2.10, the commutative diagram of commutative rings

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R \longrightarrow R \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ S \longrightarrow A \end{array}$$

induces a natural homomorphism of A-modules $a: \Omega_{S/R} \otimes_S A \to \Omega_{A/R}$.

Step 2: Define the map b. Again, by Exercise 14.2.10, the commutative diagram of commutative rings

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R \longrightarrow S \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ A \longrightarrow A \end{array}$$

induces a natural homomorphism of A-modules $b: \Omega_{A/R} \to \Omega_{A/S}$.

Step 3: b is onto. A generating set for A as an R-algebra is a generating set for A as an S-algebra. It is evident that b is onto, by Proposition 14.2.2.

Step 4: The sequence is a complex. In the commutative diagram

$$S \longrightarrow A$$

$$\downarrow d_{S/R} \qquad \qquad \downarrow d_{A/S}$$

$$\Omega_{S/R} \stackrel{c}{\longrightarrow} \Omega_{A/S}$$

c is the zero map. Therefore, ba = 0.

Step 5: $\ker b = \operatorname{im} a$. By Lemma 6.5.6, this is true if

$$(2.1) \quad 0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_A(\Omega_{A/S}, M) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_b} \operatorname{Hom}_A(\Omega_{A/R}, M) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_a} \operatorname{Hom}_A(\Omega_{S/R} \otimes_S A, M)$$

is exact for all A-modules M. By the adjoint isomorphism of Theorem 6.5.10 and Theorem 14.2.1, (2.1) is naturally isomorphic to

$$0 \to \mathrm{Der}_S(A, M) \to \mathrm{Der}_R(A, M) \to \mathrm{Der}_R(S, M)$$

which is exact, by Exercise 14.1.11.

(2): By Exercise 6.5.17, there is a left inverse for a if and only if for all all A-modules M, the map H_a in (2.1) is onto. Equivalently, $\operatorname{Der}_R(A, M) \to \operatorname{Der}_R(S, M) \to 0$ is exact, for all A-modules M.

Let R be a commutative ring and S a commutative R-algebra. Let I be an ideal of S and set A=S/I. Define a function $\gamma:I\to \Omega_{S/R}\otimes_S A$ by $x\mapsto d_{S/R}x\otimes 1$. If $x,y\in I$, then $\gamma(xy)=xd_{S/R}y\otimes 1+yd_{S/R}x\otimes 1=d_{S/R}y\otimes x+d_{S/R}x\otimes y=0$. Therefore, γ factors through I^2 and we have the A-module homomorphism (also denoted by γ)

$$\gamma: I/I^2 \to \Omega_{S/R} \otimes_S A.$$

Theorem 14.2.4. (The Second Fundamental Exact Sequence) Let S be a commutative R-algebra, I an ideal in S, and A = S/I. The sequence of A-modules

$$I/I^2 \xrightarrow{\gamma} \Omega_{S/R} \otimes_S A \xrightarrow{a} \Omega_{A/R} \to 0$$

is exact.

PROOF. Step 1: a is onto and the sequence is a complex. By Exercise 14.2.10, the diagram

$$S \xrightarrow{\theta} A$$

$$\downarrow^{d_{S/R}} \downarrow^{d_{A/R}}$$

$$\Omega_{S/R} \xrightarrow{a} \Omega_{A/R}$$

commutes. Since θ is onto and the vertical maps are onto, a is onto. If $x \in I$, then $d_{A/R}\theta(x) = 0$, hence im $\gamma \subseteq \ker a$.

Step 2: im $\gamma = \ker a$. As in the proof of Theorem 14.2.3, it suffices to prove

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_A(\Omega_{A/R}, M) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_a} \operatorname{Hom}_A(\Omega_{S/R} \otimes_S A, M) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\gamma}} \operatorname{Hom}_A(I/I^2, M)$$

is exact, for every A-module M. By the adjoint isomorphism of Theorem 6.5.10 and Theorem 14.2.1, this last sequence is isomorphic to

$$0 \to \operatorname{Der}_R(A, M) \to \operatorname{Der}_R(S, M) \to \operatorname{Hom}_S(I, M).$$

The reader should verify that this last sequence is exact.

2.2. More Tests for Separability. In this section ideas from Section 14.2 are applied to derive separability criteria for commutative R-algebras. For example, for a finitely generated algebra, the vanishing of the module of Kähler differentials is equivalent to being separable (Theorem 14.2.5). As an application, we prove the Jacobian Criterion for Separability (Proposition 14.2.7). General references for the material in this section are [20], [34] and [48].

Theorem 14.2.5. Let S be a commutative finitely generated R-algebra. The following are equivalent.

- (1) S is a separable R-algebra.
- (2) $\operatorname{Der}_R(S, M) = 0$ for every left S-module M.
- (3) $\Omega_{S/R} = 0$.

PROOF. (3) implies (2): This follows from Theorem 14.2.1.

- (2) implies (3): If $\operatorname{Der}_R(S,\Omega_{S/R})=0$, then $\operatorname{Hom}_S(\Omega_{S/R},\Omega_{S/R})=0$, by Theorem 14.2.1. From this we conclude that $\Omega_{S/R}=0$.
- (1) implies (3): By Proposition 9.1.2, $J_{S/R}$ is an idempotent generated ideal in S^e . Therefore, $J_{S/R}^2 = J_{S/R}$, by Exercise 6.3.18 (1).
- (3) implies (1): This is the only part of the proof where we need to assume S is finitely generated. By Lemma 14.1.5, $J_{S/R}$ is a finitely generated ideal of S^e . We are

given that $J_{S/R}^2 = J_{S/R}$. It follows from Exercise 6.3.18(2) and Proposition 9.1.2 that S/R is separable.

Theorem 14.2.6. Let S be a commutative finitely generated R-algebra with structure homomorphism $\theta: R \to S$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) S is a separable R-algebra.
- (2) For every $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, if $k_{\mathfrak{p}} = R_{\mathfrak{p}}/(\mathfrak{p}R_{\mathfrak{p}})$, then $S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a separable $k_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -algebra.
- (3) For every $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, and every $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ such that $\mathfrak{p} = \theta^{-1}(\mathfrak{q})$, $\mathfrak{p} S_{\mathfrak{q}} = \mathfrak{q} S_{\mathfrak{q}}$, and $k_{\mathfrak{q}} = S_{\mathfrak{q}}/(\mathfrak{q} S_{\mathfrak{q}})$ is a finite separable extension of the field $k_{\mathfrak{p}} = R_{\mathfrak{p}}/(\mathfrak{p} R_{\mathfrak{p}})$.
- (4) For every algebraically closed field F and homomorphism of rings $\phi: R \to F$, $S \otimes_R F$ is a separable F-algebra.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): This follows directly from Corollary 9.3.2.

- (1) implies (4): This follows directly from Corollary 9.3.2.
- (4) implies (2): Let $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. Let F be the algebraic closure of $k_{\mathfrak{p}} = R_{\mathfrak{p}}/(\mathfrak{p}R_{\mathfrak{p}})$ and $\phi: R \to F$ the natural map. By assumption, $S \otimes_R F$ is separable over F. Corollary 9.3.5 implies $S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is separable over $k_{\mathfrak{p}}$.
- (2) implies (1): By Proposition 14.2.2, $\Omega_{S/R}$ is a finitely generated S-module. By Theorem 14.2.5, to finish the proof it is enough to show $\Omega_{S/R} = 0$. By Proposition 7.1.6, it is enough to show $\Omega_{S/R} \otimes_S S_{\mathfrak{q}} = 0$ for every $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Spec} S$. Fix $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ and let $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{q} \cap R$. Since $(\Omega_{S/R})_{\mathfrak{q}} = \Omega_{S/R} \otimes_S S_{\mathfrak{q}}$ is finitely generated over $S_{\mathfrak{q}}$ and $\mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{p}} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{q}}$, by Theorem 8.1.3 (Nakayama's Lemma), it is enough to show $(\Omega_{S/R})_{\mathfrak{q}}/\mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{p}} (\Omega_{S/R})_{\mathfrak{q}} = 0$. By Exercise 14.2.11, $\Omega_{S/R} \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}} = \Omega_{S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}/k_{\mathfrak{p}}}$, and by Theorem 14.2.5, $\Omega_{S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}/k_{\mathfrak{p}}} = 0$. The reader should verify that

$$\begin{split} \left(\Omega_{S/R}\right)_{\mathfrak{q}}/\mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{p}} \left(\Omega_{S/R}\right)_{\mathfrak{q}} &= \left(\Omega_{S/R}\right)_{\mathfrak{q}} \otimes_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}} R_{\mathfrak{p}}/\mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{p}} \\ &= \left(\Omega_{S/R}\right)_{\mathfrak{q}} \otimes_{R} k_{\mathfrak{p}} \\ &\cong S_{\mathfrak{q}} \otimes_{S} \Omega_{S/R} \otimes_{R} k_{\mathfrak{p}} \\ &\cong S_{\mathfrak{q}} \otimes_{S} \Omega_{S \otimes_{R} k_{\mathfrak{p}}/k_{\mathfrak{p}}} \\ &= 0. \end{split}$$

- (1) implies (3): Assume S is R-separable, $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ and $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{q} \cap R$. By Exercise 9.4.8, $S_{\mathfrak{q}}$ is separable over $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$. By Exercise 9.5.16, $\mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{p}}S_{\mathfrak{q}} = \mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{q}}$ and $k_{\mathfrak{q}} = S_{\mathfrak{q}} \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a separable field extension of $k_{\mathfrak{p}}$.
- (3) implies (2): Fix $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ such that there exists some $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ and $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{q} \cap R$. By Exercise 7.1.22, $\mathfrak{q}_{\mathfrak{p}} = \mathfrak{q} \otimes_{R} R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a prime ideal of $S_{\mathfrak{p}} = S \otimes_{R} R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ and the local ring of $S_{\mathfrak{p}}$ at $\mathfrak{q}_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is $S_{\mathfrak{q}}$. By Exercise 7.1.17, $S_{\mathfrak{p}}/\mathfrak{q}_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is an integral domain with quotient field $k_{\mathfrak{q}} = S_{\mathfrak{q}}/\mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{q}}$. The diagram

$$S_{\mathfrak{p}}/\mathfrak{q}_{\mathfrak{p}} \longrightarrow k_{\mathfrak{q}}$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow$$

$$R_{\mathfrak{p}}/\mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{p}} \stackrel{=}{\longrightarrow} k_{\mathfrak{p}}$$

commutes. By hypothesis, $k_{\mathfrak{q}}/k_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a finite dimensional field extension. It follows from Lemma 10.1.4 that $S_{\mathfrak{p}}/\mathfrak{q}_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a field. That is, $\mathfrak{q}_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a maximal ideal in $S_{\mathfrak{p}}$. It follows from Exercise 7.4.10 that every prime ideal in $S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a maximal ideal,

and moreover each maximal ideal is of the form $\mathfrak{q} \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for some \mathfrak{q} lying over \mathfrak{p} . Because $S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is finitely generated as a $k_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -algebra, $S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is noetherian by the Hilbert Basis Theorem (Theorem 10.2.1). By Proposition 8.4.4, $S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is artinian. By Theorem 8.4.6, if $\operatorname{Max}(S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}) = \{\mathfrak{n}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{n}_n\}$, then $S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}} = (S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}})_{\mathfrak{n}_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus (S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}})_{\mathfrak{n}_n}$. Suppose $\mathfrak{n}_i = \mathfrak{q}_i \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is an arbitrary maximal ideal of $S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}$. By Exercise 7.4.10,

$$(S\otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}})_{\mathfrak{n}_i} = (S\otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}})_{\mathfrak{q}_i\otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}}} = S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}/\mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{p}}S_{\mathfrak{q}_i} = S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}/\mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{q}_i} = k_{\mathfrak{q}_i}.$$

This proves that $S \otimes_R k_{\mathfrak{p}} \cong k_{\mathfrak{q}_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus k_{\mathfrak{q}_n}$ and by Corollary 9.5.9, we are done. \square

We conclude this section with a proof of a jacobian criterion for separability. For computations it turns out to be one of the most useful tests for separability. Proposition 14.2.7 is a generalization of Proposition 9.6.2.

PROPOSITION 14.2.7. Let R be a commutative ring. Let $I = (f_1, \ldots, f_n)$ be an ideal in $S = R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ generated by a set of n polynomials in n indeterminates. Then S/I is separable over R if and only if the determinant of the jacobian matrix $(\partial f_i/\partial x_i)$ maps to a unit in S/I.

PROOF. Let A = S/I. We use the notation of Theorem 14.2.4. The sequence

$$I/I^2 \xrightarrow{\gamma} \Omega_{S/R} \otimes_S A \xrightarrow{a} \Omega_{A/R} \to 0$$

is exact. By Theorem 14.2.5, A/R is separable if and only if γ is onto. By Proposition 14.2.2, $\Omega_{S/R} \otimes_S A$ is a free A-module on the basis $\{dx_1, \ldots, dx_n\}$. For each i,

$$\gamma(f_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} dx_j.$$

Thus, $\Omega_{A/R}$ is isomorphic to the cokernel of the A-module homomorphism

$$A^{(n)} \xrightarrow{J} A^{(n)}$$

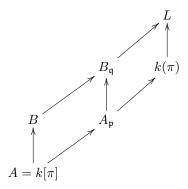
where J denotes multiplication by the jacobian matrix $(\partial f_i/\partial x_j)$. By Lemma 4.7.5, J is invertible if and only if the determinant of J is a unit. By Corollary 6.5.2, if J is onto, then J is invertible.

2.3. An Application to Algebraic Varieties. Let k be a field and B a finitely generated k-algebra such that B is an integral domain with Krull dimension one. Let \mathfrak{q} be a maximal ideal of B such that the local ring $B_{\mathfrak{q}}$ is a PID with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q})$ and residue field $k(\mathfrak{q})$. Using Exercise 3.5.10 we see that there exists $\pi \in B$ such that $\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}) = \pi B_{\mathfrak{q}}$. Hence π is a local parameter for $B_{\mathfrak{q}}$ (see Theorem 15.2.10). Proposition 14.2.8 is from [55, Proposition II.1.4, p. 18].

PROPOSITION 14.2.8. Let k be a field and B a finitely generated k-algebra such that B is an integral domain with Krull dimension one and quotient field L. Let \mathfrak{q} be a maximal ideal in B such that $B_{\mathfrak{q}}$ is a PID with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q})$ and residue field $k(\mathfrak{q})$. Let $\pi \in B$ such that $\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}) = \pi B_{\mathfrak{q}}$. Then π is transcendental over k, $k(\pi)$ is a subfield of L, and if $k(\mathfrak{q})$ is a separable extension of k, then L is a separable field extension of $k(\pi)$.

PROOF. Since $\pi \in \mathfrak{q}$, π is not invertible in $B_{\mathfrak{q}}$. Therefore, the map $k[x] \to B_{\mathfrak{q}}$ defined by $x \mapsto \pi$, maps k[x] isomorphically onto $k[\pi]$. So π is transcendental over

k. Let $A = k[\pi] \subseteq B$. Let R be the local ring $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$, where $\mathfrak{p} = \pi A$. Then $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a local PID with maximal ideal $\pi A_{\mathfrak{p}}$. We have the commutative diagram of subrings:



Since B is a finitely generated k-algebra, L is a finitely generated field extension of $k(\pi)$. By Corollary 14.3.3, L has transcendence degree 1 over k. Therefore, L is a finitely generated algebraic extension of $k(\pi)$. Let $S = B \otimes_A R$ the localization of B in L with respect to the multiplicative set $A - \mathfrak{p}$. Then S is a finitely generated R-algebra. Consider the tower of subrings $B \subseteq S \subseteq B_{\mathfrak{q}} \subseteq L$. By Corollary 13.7.6, Spec S is finite, and by Corollary 7.5.38, B_q is a finitely generated S-algebra. It follows that B_q is a finitely generated R-algebra. By Theorem 14.2.6, $B_{\mathfrak{q}}$ is a separable R-algebra. Then by Exercise 9.4.8, L is separable over $k(\pi)$.

Now we prove a converse to Proposition 14.2.8.

PROPOSITION 14.2.9. Let k be a field, S/R an extension of finitely generated commutative k-algebras. Assume S and R are integral domains and let L/K be the corresponding extension of the fields of fractions. If L is a finitely generated separable extension field of K, then there exists a maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} S$ such that $S_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is separable over R.

PROOF. Let U be the set of all points P in Spec S such that S_P is a separable R-algebra. By Exercise 14.2.14, U is an open subset of Spec S. By Exercise 9.1.12, Proposition 9.5.7, and Theorem 9.4.3, L is separable over R. Therefore, U is an open neighborhood of (0). By Exercise 10.3.10, U contains a closed point of Spec S. \square

2.4. Exercises.

Exercise 14.2.10. Let

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \longrightarrow S \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ A & \stackrel{\theta}{\longrightarrow} B \end{array}$$

be a commutative diagram of commutative rings. Show that there exists a unique homomorphism ψ such that the diagram

$$A \xrightarrow{\theta} B$$

$$\downarrow^{d_{A/R}} \downarrow^{d_{B/S}}$$

$$\Omega_{A/R} \xrightarrow{\exists \psi} \Omega_{B/S}$$

of A-modules commutes. Show that ψ induces a homomorphism $\Omega_{A/R} \otimes_A B \to \Omega_{B/S}$ of B-modules.

EXERCISE 14.2.11. Suppose A and S are commutative R-algebras. Show that there exists a unique isomorphism ϕ such that the diagram



of S-modules commutes. (Hint: The inverse of ϕ is constructed in Exercise 14.2.10.)

EXERCISE 14.2.12. Let A be a commutative R-algebra and $W\subseteq A$ a multiplicative set. Let A_W denote the localization $W^{-1}A$. Show that there exists an isomorphism of A_W -modules $\Omega_{A_W/R}\cong\Omega_{A/R}\otimes_A A_W=W^{-1}\Omega_{A/R}$. (Hint: Construct $\Omega_{A/R}\otimes_A A_W\to\Omega_{A_W/R}$ using Exercise 14.2.10.)

EXERCISE 14.2.13. Let R be a commutative ring and S a commutative R-algebra. Let $A = S[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ be the polynomial ring over S in n variables. Show that the sequence

$$0 \to \Omega_{S/R} \otimes_S A \xrightarrow{a} \Omega_{A/R} \xrightarrow{b} \Omega_{A/S} \to 0$$

is split-exact.

EXERCISE 14.2.14. Let S be a finitely generated commutative R-algebra. Let U be the set of all points P in Spec S such that S_P is a separable R-algebra. Prove that U is an open (possibly empty) subset of Spec S. (Hint: Apply Exercise 13.2.15 to $\Omega_{S/R}$.)

3. Noether Normalization

This section is devoted to proving Emmy Noether's Normalization Lemma. We actually prove two different versions. The first form appears in Corollary 14.3.3. In summary, it says that if A is a finitely generated commutative algebra over a field k with Krull dimension $\dim(A) = m$, then there is a subring S of A which is isomorphic to a polynomial ring in m variables over k and A is integral over S. Section 14.3.2 contains an introduction to the notion of separably generated field extensions. We prove a strong version of the Noether Normalization Lemma (Theorem 14.3.10) and apply it to prove the theorem on the finiteness of the integral closure of a finitely generated k-algebra (Theorem 14.3.11). General references for this section are [20], [39] and [65].

3.1. First Form of the Normalization Lemma.

Theorem 14.3.1. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and x_1, \ldots, x_n some indeterminates.

- $(1) \dim(R[x_1,\ldots,x_n]) = \dim(R) + n.$
- (2) If R is a field, $\dim(R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]) = n$ and the ideal (x_1, \ldots, x_j) is a prime ideal of height j for all $j = 1, \ldots, n$.

PROOF. (2): Is left to the reader.

(1): It is enough to prove $\dim(R[x]) = \dim(R) + 1$. For notational simplicity, write S = R[x]. Since S is a free R-module, it is a faithfully flat R-module. Therefore $\operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is onto and going down holds. Let $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ and choose $Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ to be maximal among all primes lying over P. The prime ideals lying over P are in one-to-one correspondence with the elements of the fiber over P. But the fiber over P is $\operatorname{Spec}(R[x] \otimes_R k_P)$, which we can identify with $\operatorname{Spec}(k_P[x])$. The ring $k_P[x]$ is a PID, so a maximal ideal has height one. This proves $\operatorname{ht}(Q/PS) = 1$. If we pick $P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$ such that $\operatorname{ht}(P) = \dim(R)$, then by Theorem 13.6.21, $\dim(S) \geq \dim(S_Q) = \dim(S)$. Set $P = Q \cap R$. By Theorem 13.6.21, $\dim(S) = \dim(S_Q) = \dim(S_P) + 1 \leq \dim(R) + 1$.

THEOREM 14.3.2. Let k be a field and $A = k[x_1, ..., x_n]$. Let I be a nonunit ideal of A such that I has height r. There exist $y_1, ..., y_n$ in A such that

- (1) the set $\{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}$ is algebraically independent over k,
- (2) A is integral over $k[y_1, \ldots, y_n]$,
- (3) $I \cap k[y_1, \ldots, y_n] = (y_1, \ldots, y_r)$, and
- (4) y_1, \ldots, y_n can be chosen in such a way that for $1 \leq j \leq n-r$, $y_{r+j} = x_{r+j} + h_j(x_1, \ldots, x_r)$, where h_j is a polynomial in the image of $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_r] \to A$. Moreover, if char k = p > 0, then h_j can be chosen to be in the image of $\mathbb{Z}[x_1^p, \ldots, x_r^p] \to A$.

PROOF. The proof is by induction on r. If r = 0, then I = (0) because A is an integral domain. Take each y_i to be equal to x_i .

Step 1: r = 1. Pick $y_1 = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ to be any nonzero element in I. Write

$$y_1 = f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{t} a_i f_i$$

as a sum of distinct monomials, where each a_i is an invertible element of k and $f_i = x_1^{e_{1i}} \cdots x_n^{e_{ni}}$. The exponents e_{ji} define t distinct monomials, hence they also define t distinct polynomials $q_i(z) = e_{1i} + e_{2i}z^2 + \cdots + e_{ni}z^n$ in $\mathbb{Z}[z]$. For some sufficiently large positive integer v, the values $q_1(v), \ldots, q_t(v)$ are distinct. Define a weight function μ on the set of monomials in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ by the rule $\mu(x_1^{e_1} \cdots x_n^{e_n}) = e_1 + e_2v^2 + \cdots + e_nv^n$. So $\mu(f_1), \ldots, \mu(f_t)$ are distinct positive integers. Without loss of generality, assume $\mu(f_1)$ is maximal. Set $y_2 = x_2 - x_1^{v^2}, \ldots, y_n = x_n - x_1^{v^n}$. Consider

$$y_1 = f(x_1, y_2 + x_1^{v^2}, \dots, y_n + x_1^{v^n})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^t a_i f_i(x_1, y_2 + x_1^{v^2}, \dots, y_n + x_1^{v^n})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^t a_i x_1^{e_{1i}} (y_2 + x_1^{v^2})^{e_{2i}} \cdots (y_n + x_1^{v^n})^{e_{ni}}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^t a_i (x_1^{\mu(f_i)} + g_i(x_1, y_2, \dots, y_n))$$

where each g_i is a polynomial in $k[x_1, y_2, ..., y_n]$ and the degree of g_i in x_1 is less than $\mu(f_i)$. Assuming $\mu(f_1)$ is maximal, we can write

(3.1)
$$y_1 = a_1 x_1^{\mu(f_i)} + g(x_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$

where g is a polynomial in $k[x_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n]$, and the degree of g in x_1 is less than $\mu(f_i)$. Equation (3.1) shows that x_1 is integral over $k[y_1, \ldots, y_n]$. It follows that $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n] = k[y_1, \ldots, y_n][x_1]$ is integral over $k[y_1, \ldots, y_n]$. Therefore the extension of quotient fields $k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)/k(y_1, \ldots, y_n)$ is algebraic. It follows from results in Section 5.10 that the set $\{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}$ is algebraically independent over k. Up to isomorphism, the ring $B = k[y_1, \ldots, y_n]$ is a polynomial ring in n variables over k, hence is integrally closed in its field of quotients. By Theorem 10.3.7 (5), going down holds between B and A. By Theorem 14.3.1, the ideal (y_1) in $k[y_1, \ldots, y_n]$ is prime of height one. By Theorem 13.6.22, $h(I) = h(I \cap B)$. Since $(y_1) \subseteq I \cap B$, putting all this together proves that $(y_1) = I \cap B$.

Step 2: r > 1. By Exercise 13.6.19, let $J \subseteq I$ be an ideal such that the height of J is equal to r-1. By induction on r, there exist z_1, \ldots, z_n in A such that A is integral over $B = k[z_1, \ldots, z_n]$ and $J \cap B = (z_1, \ldots, z_{r-1}) \subseteq I \cap B$. Write $I' = I \cap B$. By Theorem 13.6.22, $\operatorname{ht}(I) = \operatorname{ht}(I') = r$. There exists a polynomial f in $I' - (z_1, \ldots, z_{r-1})$ and by subtracting off an element of (z_1, \ldots, z_{r-1}) , we can assume f is a nonzero polynomial in $k[z_r, \ldots, z_n]$. Set $y_1 = z_1, \ldots, y_{r-1} = z_{r-1}$. Set $y_r = f$. Proceed as in Step 1. Let v be a positive integer and set $y_{r+1} = z_{r+1} - z_r^{v^{r+1}}, \ldots, y_n = z_n - z_r^{v^n}$. For a sufficiently large v, B is integral over $C = k[y_1, \ldots, y_n]$. The set $\{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}$ is algebraically independent over k. The height of $I \cap C$ is equal to the height of I. Since (y_1, \ldots, y_r) is a prime ideal of height r which is contained in $I \cap C$, the two ideals are equal.

COROLLARY 14.3.3. (E. Noether's Normalization Lemma) Let k be a field and A a finitely generated commutative k-algebra. There exist z_1, \ldots, z_m in A such that

- (1) the set $\{z_1, \ldots, z_m\}$ is algebraically independent over k,
- (2) A is integral over $k[z_1, \ldots, z_m]$,
- (3) $\dim(A) = m$, and
- (4) if A is an integral domain with quotient field K, then $\operatorname{tr.deg}_k(K) = m$.

PROOF. Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ be a generating set for A as a k-algebra. The assignments $x_i \mapsto \alpha_i$ define an epimorphism $\phi: k[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \to A$. Let I be the kernel of ϕ . Assume $\operatorname{ht}(I) = r$. By Theorem 14.3.2, there exist y_1, \ldots, y_n in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ which are algebraically independent over k such that $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is integral over $k[y_1, \ldots, y_n]$ and $I \cap k[y_1, \ldots, y_n] = (y_1, \ldots, y_r)$. The diagram

$$k[y_1, \dots, y_n] \xrightarrow{\psi} k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\phi}$$

$$k[y_{r+1}, \dots, y_n] \xrightarrow{\theta} A = k[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I$$

commutes. The vertical maps are onto. The horizontal maps ψ and θ are one-to-one. Since A is integral over $k[y_1,\ldots,y_n]$, θ is integral. Let m=n-r and set $z_1=\theta(y_{r+1}),\ldots,z_m=\theta(y_n)$. The set $\{z_1,\ldots,z_m\}$ is algebraically independent over k and A is integral over $k[z_1,\ldots,z_m]$. By Theorem 13.6.22, it follows that $\dim(A)=m$. If A is an integral domain, then the quotient field of A is algebraic over $k(z_1,\ldots,z_m)$, so Part (4) follows from results in Section 5.10.

COROLLARY 14.3.4. Let k be a field and A an integral domain which is a finitely generated commutative k-algebra.

- (1) If $p \in \operatorname{Spec} A$, then $\dim(A/p) + \operatorname{ht}(p) = \dim(A)$.
- (2) If p and q are in Spec A such that $p \supseteq q$, then ht(p/q) = ht(p) ht(q).
- PROOF. (1): By Corollary 14.3.3, there exist y_1, \ldots, y_n in A such that A is integral over $B=k[y_1,\ldots,y_n]$ and $n=\dim(B)=\dim(A)$. By Theorem 10.3.7 (5) and Theorem 13.6.22 (3), $\operatorname{ht}(p\cap B)=\operatorname{ht}(p)$. Since A/p is integral over B, we have A/p is integral over $B/p\cap B$. By Theorem 13.6.22 (1), $\dim(A/p)=\dim(B/p\cap B)$. By Theorem 14.3.2, if $r=\operatorname{ht}(p\cap B)$, then there exist z_1,\ldots,z_n in B such that B is integral over $C=k[z_1,\ldots,z_n],\ p\cap C=(z_1,\ldots,z_r)$ and $\dim(B/p\cap B)=\dim(C/p\cap C)=n-r$. This proves (1).
- (2): By Part (1), $\dim(A/p) + \operatorname{ht}(p) = \dim(A) = \dim(A/q) + \operatorname{ht}(q)$, which implies $\operatorname{ht}(p) \operatorname{ht}(q) = \dim(A/q) \dim(A/p)$. By Part (1) applied to the prime ideal p/q in $\operatorname{Spec}(A/q)$, $\dim(A/p) + \operatorname{ht}(p/q) = \dim(A/q)$. Combine these results to get (2). \square
- **3.2. Separably Generated Extension Fields.** This section contains an introduction to the notion of separably generated field extensions.

LEMMA 14.3.5. Let $k \subseteq K \subseteq F$ be a tower of field extensions. If $F = K(\alpha)$ is a simple algebraic extension of K, then

$$\dim_K \Omega_{K/k} \leq \dim_F \Omega_{F/k} \leq 1 + \dim_K \Omega_{K/k}$$
.

PROOF. Let $f \in K[x]$ be the irreducible polynomial of α . Let I be the principal ideal in K[x] generated by f. By Theorem 14.2.4,

$$I/I^2 \xrightarrow{\gamma} \Omega_{K[x]/k} \otimes_{K[x]} F \xrightarrow{a} \Omega_{F/k} \to 0$$

is an exact sequence of F-vector spaces. By Exercise 14.2.13 and Proposition 14.2.2, $\Omega_{K[x]/k}$ is a free K[x]-module of rank $1 + \dim_K \Omega_{K/k}$. The image of γ is generated over F by $\gamma(f)$, hence has dimension less than or equal to one.

Let F/k be a finitely generated extension of fields. Let $\Xi \subseteq F$ be a transcendence base for F/k. We say Ξ is a separating transcendence base of F/k in case F is a separable algebraic extension of $k(\Xi)$. We say F/k is separably generated if there exists a separating transcendence base for F/k.

Theorem 14.3.6. Let F be a finitely generated extension field of k.

- (1) $\dim_F \Omega_{F/k} \ge \operatorname{tr.deg}_k F$.
- (2) $\dim_F \Omega_{F/k} = \operatorname{tr.deg}_k F$ if and only if F/k is separably generated.
- (3) $\Omega_{F/k} = 0$ if and only if F is separable over k.

PROOF. (3): This part follows from Theorem 14.2.5, Corollary 9.5.4, and Proposition 9.5.7.

- (1): A transcendence base ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_n exists for F/k, by Lemma 5.10.4. If we set $K = k(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n)$, then F/K is finite dimensional. Applying Lemma 14.3.5 iteratively, we get $\dim_F \Omega_{F/k} \ge \dim_K \Omega_{K/k}$. Note that K is the quotient field of $k[\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n]$. By Proposition 14.2.2 and Exercise 14.2.12, $\dim_K \Omega_{K/k} = n = \operatorname{tr.deg}_k F$.
- (2): Assume ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_n is a transcendence base and $K = k(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n)$. If F/K is separable, then $\Omega_{F/K} = 0$, by Theorem 14.2.5. Theorem 14.2.3 implies

$$\Omega_{K/k} \otimes_K F \xrightarrow{a} \Omega_{F/k} \to 0$$

is exact. Therefore, equality holds in Part (1). Conversely, suppose in Part (1) that equality holds. Let $n = \text{tr.deg}_k F$ and choose ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_n in F such that the set $d_{F/k}(\xi_1), \ldots, d_{F/k}(\xi_n)$ is a basis for the F-vector space $\Omega_{F/k}$. Let $K = k(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n)$. The diagram

$$\begin{array}{c|c} K & \longrightarrow F \\ \downarrow^{d_{K/k}} & \downarrow^{d_{F/k}} \\ \Omega_{K/k} & \longrightarrow \Omega_{F/k} \end{array}$$

commutes. The image of ψ contains a generating set for $\Omega_{F/k}$, hence $a:\Omega_{K/k}\otimes_R F\to\Omega_{F/k}$ is onto. By Theorem 14.2.3, $\Omega_{F/K}=0$. By Part (3), F/K is separable and finite dimensional. By Lemma 5.10.4(1), the set $\{\xi_1,\ldots,\xi_n\}$ contains a transcendence base for F/k. Since $n={\rm tr.deg}_k F$, Theorem 5.10.5 implies that the set ξ_1,\ldots,ξ_n is a transcendence base for F/k.

PROPOSITION 14.3.7. (S. MacLane) Let k be a field and $F = k(a_1, ..., a_n)$ a finitely generated extension field of k. If F/k is separably generated, then there exists a subset of $\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ which is a separating transcendence base for F/k.

PROOF. Let $r=\operatorname{tr.deg}_k(F)$. Let $S=k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ be the polynomial ring over k in n indeterminates. Define $\phi:S\to F$ by $x_i\mapsto a_i$. Since the image of ϕ is $k[a_1,\ldots,a_n]$, an integral domain, the kernel of ϕ is a prime ideal P of S. The ideal P is finitely generated, hence we can write $P=(f_1,\ldots,f_m)$. Let A=S/P. Then F is the quotient field of A. The sequence

$$(3.2) P/P^2 \xrightarrow{\gamma} \Omega_{S/k} \otimes_S A \xrightarrow{a} \Omega_{A/k} \to 0$$

of Theorem 14.2.4 is exact, $\Omega_{S/k} \otimes_S A$ is a free A-module, and $\{dx_1, \ldots, dx_n\}$ is a free basis. For each i,

$$\gamma(f_i) = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} dx_j.$$

Tensor (3.2) with () $\otimes_A F$. The sequence

$$F^{(m)} \xrightarrow{J} F^{(n)} \to \Omega_{F/k} \to 0$$

is exact, where J is multiplication by the jacobian matrix $J=(\partial f_i/\partial x_j)$. Since F/k is separably generated, by Theorem 14.3.6, the rank of J is n-r. This implies there exists an (n-r)-by-(n-r) submatrix of J which also has rank n-r. Relabel the x_i if necessary and assume the rank of the submatrix

$$(\partial f_i/\partial x_j \mid 1 \le i \le n-r, r+1 \le j \le n)$$

is n-r. The proof of Theorem 14.3.6 shows the set $\{d_{F/k}(a_1),\ldots,d_{F/k}(a_r)\}$ is a basis for $\Omega_{F/k}$ over F and a_1,\ldots,a_r is a separating transcendence base for F/k. \square

LEMMA 14.3.8. Let k be a field and $F = k(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ a finitely generated extension field of k. If $\operatorname{tr.deg}_k F = r$ and F/k is not separably generated, then upon relabeling the a_i , the field $k(a_1, \ldots, a_{r+1})$ is of transcendence degree r over k, and is not separably generated over k.

PROOF. The proof is by induction on n. If n = r + 1, then there is nothing to prove. Assume n > r + 1 and that the result is true for n - 1. Relabel the a_i and assume a_1 is algebraically dependent on a_2, \ldots, a_n over k. Then $k(a_2, \ldots, a_n)$ has transcendence degree r over k. If $k(a_2, \ldots, a_n)$ is not separably generated over k,

then by induction we are done. Assume $k(a_2,\ldots,a_n)$ is separably generated over k. By Proposition 14.3.7, we can relabel the a_i and assume a_2,\ldots,a_{r+1} is a separating transcendence base for $k(a_2,\ldots,a_n)$ over k. Then $k(a_2,\ldots,a_n)$ is separable and finite dimensional over $k(a_2,\ldots,a_{r+1})$. It follows that $k(a_1,a_2,\ldots,a_n)$ is separable and finite dimensional over $k(a_1,a_2,\ldots,a_{r+1})$. By the transitive property of separable field extensions, Theorem 5.6.6, it follows that $k(a_1,a_2,\ldots,a_{r+1})$ is not separably generated over k.

Theorem 14.3.9. Let k be a perfect field, and F/k a finitely generated extension of fields.

- (1) (F. K. Schmidt) F/k is separably generated.
- (2) (Primitive Element Theorem) If $r = \text{tr.deg}_k F$, then there exists a transcendence base $\Xi = \{\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_r\}$ for F/k, an element $u \in F$ which is separable over $k(\Xi)$, and $F = k(\Xi)[u]$.

PROOF. (1): Let $r = \operatorname{tr.deg}_k F$ and assume $F = k(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$. For contradiction's sake, assume F/k is not separably generated. Let $p = \operatorname{char} k$. By Lemma 14.3.8, we reduce to the case where n = r+1. Let $S = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ be the polynomial ring over k in n indeterminates. Define $\phi: S \to F$ by $x_i \mapsto a_i$. Since the image of ϕ is $k[a_1, \ldots, a_n]$, an integral domain, the kernel of ϕ is a prime ideal P of S. By Noether's Normalization Lemma (Corollaries 14.3.3 and 14.3.4), P has height one. Since S is a unique factorization domain, there exists an irreducible polynomial f in S such that P = (f). View $f(a_1, \ldots, a_r, x_{r+1})$ as an element of $k(a_1, \ldots, a_r)[x_{r+1}]$. Since a_{r+1} is not separable over $k(a_1, \ldots, a_r)$, it follows that f is a polynomial in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_r][x_{r+1}^p]$. Iterate this argument r+1 times. Then $f \in k[x_1^p, \ldots, x_r^p, x_{r+1}^p]$. Since k is perfect, $f = g^p$ for some $g \in S$, a contradiction.

- (2): This follows from Part (1), Proposition 14.3.7, and the Primitive Element Theorem (Theorem 5.4.7).
- **3.3. Second Form of the Normalization Lemma.** We prove a second version of Emmy Noether's Normalization Lemma (Corollary 14.3.3). It requires the ground field to be infinite. The advantage of this version is that it allows us to construct the underlying polynomial ring in such a way that it contains a separating transcendence base. As an application, we derive in Theorem 14.3.11 sufficient conditions for the integral closure of an integral domain A to be a finitely generated A-module.

Theorem 14.3.10. (Emmy Noether's Normalization Lemma) Let k be an infinite field and A a finitely generated commutative k-algebra. Assume A is an integral domain with field of fractions K. Then there exist z_1, \ldots, z_m in A such that

- (1) the set $\{z_1, \ldots, z_m\}$ is algebraically independent over k,
- (2) A is integral over $k[z_1, \ldots, z_m]$,
- (3) $\dim(A) = m$,
- (4) $\operatorname{tr.deg}_k(K) = m$, and
- (5) if A is generated as a k-algebra by x_1, \ldots, x_n , then there are elements a_{ij} in k such that $z_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j$.
- (6) If K is separably generated over k, then $\{z_1, \ldots, z_m\}$ can be chosen in such a way that K is separable over $k(z_1, \ldots, z_m)$.

PROOF. We prove (6). The other cases are left to the reader. Our proof is based on [65, I, Chapter V, Theorem 8, p. 266]. Let x_1, \ldots, x_n be a generating set

for A as a k-algebra. By Proposition 14.3.7, resort the list and assume $\{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$ is a separating transcendence base for K over k. Proceed by induction on n. If m=n, then take $z_i=x_i$, for $1 \leq i \leq m$, and stop. Otherwise, assume n>m and assume the claim is true for any algebra on n-1 generators. Then each of x_{m+1}, \ldots, x_n is algebraic over $k(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$.

Let $A' = k[x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}]$, and K' the field of fractions of A'. By assumption, x_n is separable over K'. Starting with the minimum polynomial for x_n over K', we can find a polynomial P in $k[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$ such that $P(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}, X_n)$ is a separable polynomial in $K'[X_n]$ and such that $P(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}, x_n) = 0$. Write P as a sum

(3.3)
$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \sum_{i=0}^{q} P_i(X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

where $P_i(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ is a homogeneous polynomial of degree i in the polynomial ring $k[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$, and $P_q \neq 0$. Introduce new indeterminates Z_1, \ldots, Z_{n-1} , $\Lambda_1, \ldots, \Lambda_{n-1}$ and define an embedding of k-algebras

$$\theta: k[X_1, \dots, X_n] \to k[Z_1, \dots, Z_{n-1}, \Lambda_1, \dots, \Lambda_{n-1}, X_n]$$

$$X_1 \mapsto Z_1 + \Lambda_1 X_n$$

$$\vdots$$

$$X_{n-1} \mapsto Z_{n-1} + \Lambda_{n-1} X_n.$$

If we denote by F the image of P under θ , then

(3.4)
$$F = F(Z_1, \dots, Z_{n-1}, \Lambda_1, \dots, \Lambda_{n-1}, X_n)$$
$$= P(Z_1 + \Lambda_1 X_n, \dots, Z_{n-1} + \Lambda_{n-1} X_n, X_n)$$
$$= \sum_{i=0}^{q} P_i(Z_1 + \Lambda_1 X_n, \dots, Z_{n-1} + \Lambda_{n-1} X_n, X_n).$$

Because each P_i is homogeneous of degree i, if we expand F as a polynomial in X_n , the highest degree term is

$$(3.5) X_n^q P_q(\Lambda_1, \dots, \Lambda_{n-1}, 1).$$

By \mathbb{A}_k^{n-1} we denote affine n-1-space over k with the Zariski topology (Section 10.2.2). The zero set of $P_q(\Lambda_1,\ldots,\Lambda_{n-1},1)$ in \mathbb{A}_k^{n-1} is a closed subset, call it V_1 . Because the polynomial $P_q(\Lambda_1,\ldots,\Lambda_{n-1},1)$ is nonzero and k is infinite, we know from Exercise 3.6.31 that $V_1 \neq \mathbb{A}_k^{n-1}$. There exists a point $(\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_{n-1}) \in \mathbb{A}_k^{n-1}$ such that if we set $z_1 = x_1 - \lambda_1 x_n, z_{n-1} = x_{n-1} - \lambda_{n-1} x_n$, then

$$(3.6) F(z_1, \ldots, z_{n-1}, \lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_{n-1}, X_n)$$

is a polynomial of degree q in $k[z_1,\ldots,z_{n-1}][X_n]$ and the leading coefficient is a nonzero element of k. Since $F(z_1,\ldots,z_{n-1},\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_{n-1},x_n)=P(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=0$, this shows x_n is integral over $k[z_1,\ldots,z_{n-1}]$. To finish the proof, we show that there exists a choice for $(\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_{n-1})$ such that x_n is a simple root of the polynomial in (3.6). In (3.4), compute the derivative of F with respect to X_n :

(3.7)
$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial X_n} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \Lambda_i \frac{\partial P}{\partial X_i} + \frac{\partial P}{\partial X_n}.$$

Substituting $X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n$, we have

(3.8)
$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \Lambda_i \frac{\partial P}{\partial X_i}(x_1, \dots, x_n) + \frac{\partial P}{\partial X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

which is a linear polynomial in $k[\Lambda_1, \ldots, \Lambda_{n-1}]$. The polynomial (3.8) is not identically zero, because for $\Lambda_1 = 0, \ldots, \Lambda_{n-1} = 0$ it evaluates to $\partial P/\partial X_n(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ which is nonzero since x_n is separable over K'. The zero set of (3.8) in \mathbb{A}_k^{n-1} is a proper closed subset, call it V_2 . Since $V_1 \cup V_2$ is the zero set of a nonzero polynomial in $k[\Lambda_1, \ldots, \Lambda_{n-1}]$, it is a proper closed subset. Therefore, there is a point $(\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_{n-1})$ such that (3.8) is nonzero and x_n is a simple root of the polynomial

As an application, we get the following finiteness theorem for the integral closure of an integral domain in an extension of its quotient field. Theorem 14.3.11, which requires A to be a finitely generated algebra over a field, is a strong version of Theorem 10.1.13.

Theorem 14.3.11. Let A be an integral domain which is a finitely generated algebra over a field k. Let K be the quotient field of A, and let L be a finitely generated algebraic extension of K. If S is the integral closure of A in L, then S is a finitely generated A-module, and is also a finitely generated k-algebra.

PROOF. Our proof is based on [65, I, Chapter V, Theorem 9, p. 267]. By the proof of Theorem 10.1.13, there are elements $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ in S which generate L as a vector space over K. Let B be the A-subalgebra of L generated by $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$. Then B is finitely generated as an A-module, finitely generated as a k-algebra, L is the field of fractions of B, and S is the integral closure of B in L. After replacing A with B and K with L, we assume S is the integral closure of A in K. It is enough to show S is finitely generated as an A-module.

Let Ω be an algebraically closed field containing K. For the remainder of this proof, every k-algebra is tacitly assumed to be a subring of Ω . Assume A is generated as a k-algebra by x_1, \ldots, x_n . Let k be the algebraic closure of k, and \bar{A} the \bar{k} -algebra generated by x_1,\ldots,x_n . Let \bar{K} be the field of fractions of \bar{A} . By Theorem 14.3.9, K is separably generated over k. By Theorem 14.3.10, there are elements z_1, \ldots, z_m in \bar{A} which satisfy:

- (a) $\bar{k}[z_1,\ldots,z_m]$ is a polynomial subring of \bar{A} ,
- (b) \bar{A} is integral over $\bar{k}[z_1,\ldots,z_m]$, (c) there are elements a_{ij} in \bar{k} such that $z_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j$, for $1 \le i \le m$,
- (d) \bar{K} is separable over $\bar{k}(z_1,\ldots,z_m)$.

Let P_j be the minimum polynomial for x_j over $\bar{k}(z_1,\ldots,z_m)$. By Theorem 10.1.11, P_j is a polynomial with coefficients in $\bar{k}[z_1,\ldots,z_m]$. Let F be the subfield of \bar{k} generated by adjoining to k all of the elements a_{ij} of (c), and all of the \bar{k} -coefficients that appear in P_1, \ldots, P_n . Let A' be the F-algebra generated by x_1, \ldots, x_n and let K' be the field of fractions of A'. By construction, we have:

- (e) $F[z_1, \ldots, z_m]$ is a polynomial subring of A',
- (f) A' is integral over $F[z_1, \ldots, z_m]$, and
- (g) K' is separable over $F(z_1, \ldots, z_m)$.

Let T be the integral closure of $F[z_1,\ldots,z_m]$ in K'. By Theorem 10.1.13, T is a finitely generated $F[z_1,\ldots,z_m]$ -module. By (f), T contains A', hence T is a

finitely generated A'-module. Since $\dim_k(F)$ is finite, A' is a finitely generated A-module. Therefore, T is a finitely generated A-module. Since $S = T \cap K$, S is an A-submodule of T. Since A is noetherian, S is a finitely generated A-module (Corollary 7.6.12).

4. More Flatness Criteria

In this section we prove some necessary results on flatness. The material in this section is from various sources, including [39], [23], [38], and [48].

4.1. Constructible Sets. Let X be a topological space and $Z \subseteq X$. We say Z is *locally closed* in X if Z is an open subset of \overline{Z} , the closure of Z in X.

Lemma 14.4.1. The following are equivalent for a subset Z of a topological space X.

- (1) Z is locally closed.
- (2) For every point $x \in Z$, there exists an open neighborhood U_x such that $Z \cap U_x$ is closed in U_x .
- (3) There exists a closed set F in X and an open set G in X such that $Z = F \cap G$.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

We say that Z is a constructible set in X if Z is a finite union of locally closed sets in X. By Lemma 14.4.1, a constructible set Z has a representation

$$Z = \bigcup_{i=1}^{r} (U_i \cap F_i)$$

where each U_i is open in X and each F_i is closed in X.

LEMMA 14.4.2. If Y and Z are constructible in X, then so are $Y \cup Z$, Y - Z, $Y^c = X - Y$, and $Y \cap Z$.

PROOF. Write $Y = (U_1 \cap E_1) \cup \cdots \cup (U_r \cap E_r)$ and $Z = (V_1 \cap F_1) \cup \cdots \cup (V_s \cap F_s)$ where U_i, V_j are open and E_j, F_j are closed for all i and j. Using the identity

$$\begin{split} U \cap E - V \cap F &= U \cap E \cap (V \cap F)^c \\ &= U \cap E \cap (V^c \cup F^c) \\ &= (U \cap E \cap V^c) \cup (U \cap E \cap F^c) \\ &= (U \cap (E \cap V^c)) \cup ((U \cap F^c) \cap E) \end{split}$$

the reader should verify that $Y-V_1\cap F_1$ is constructible. Now use induction on s to prove Y-Z is constructible. This also proves $Y^c=X-Y$ and $Z^c=X-Z$ are constructible. Hence $Y\cap Z=(Y^c\cup Z^c)^c$ is constructible.

Proposition 14.4.3. Let X be a noetherian topological space and Z a subset of X. The following are equivalent.

- (1) Z is constructible in X.
- (2) For each irreducible closed set Y in X, either $Y \cap Z$ is not dense in Y, or $Y \cap Z$ contains a nonempty open set of Y.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Write $Z=(U_1\cap E_1)\cup\cdots\cup(U_r\cap E_r)$. Since Y is closed, by Proposition 1.4.7 we can decompose each $Y\cap E_i$ into its irreducible components. Therefore, we can write $Y\cap Z=(V_1\cap F_1)\cup\cdots\cup(V_s\cap F_s)$ where each V_i is open in X, each F_i is closed and irreducible in X, and $V_i\cap F_i$ is nonempty for each i. By Lemma 1.4.4, $\overline{V_i\cap F_i}=F_i$. Therefore, $\overline{Y\cap Z}=F_1\cup\cdots\cup F_s$. If $Y\cap Z$ is dense in Y, then $Y=F_1\cup\cdots\cup F_s$, so that for some i we have $Y=F_i$. Then $U_i\cap Y=U_i\cap F_i$ is a nonempty open subset of Y contained in $Y\cap Z$.

(2) implies (1): Let S be the set of all closed sets of the form \overline{Z} where Z is a subset of X that satisfies (2) but not (1). For contradiction's sake, assume S is nonempty. By Lemma 1.4.5 (4), let Z be a subset of X satisfying (2) but not (1) such that \overline{Z} is minimal in S. The empty set is constructible, so $Z \neq \emptyset$. Let $\overline{Z} = Z_1 \cup \cdots \cup Z_r$ be the decomposition into irreducible closed components. Then $Z \cap Z_1 \neq \emptyset$ and $\overline{Z} \cap \overline{Z_1}$ is a closed subset of Z_1 . Since $Z_1 = \overline{Z} \cap \overline{Z_1} \cup (Z_1 \cap Z_2) \cdots \cup (Z_1 \cap Z_r)$, it follows that $\overline{Z} \cap \overline{Z_1} = Z_1$. By (2) there exists a nonempty open $U \subseteq Z_1$ such that $U \subseteq Z$. Notice that U is locally closed in X. The set $Z_1' = Z_1 - U$ is a proper closed subset of Z_1 . Write $Z^* = Z_1' \cup Z_2 \cup \cdots \cup Z_r$, a proper closed subset of \overline{Z} . We have $\overline{Z} \cap \overline{Z}^* \subseteq Z^* \subseteq \overline{Z}$.

We next show $Z \cap Z^*$ satisfies (2). To this end, assume Y is an irreducible closed in X such that $\overline{Y \cap Z \cap Z^*} = Y$. In this case, the closed set Z^* contains Y, hence $Y \cap Z \cap Z^* = Z \cap Y$. Since Z satisfies (2), $Z \cap Y$ contains a nonempty open set of Y. This proves $Z \cap Z^*$ satisfies (2). Since \overline{Z} was a minimal member of S, $Z \cap Z^*$ is constructible. Therefore $Z = U \cup (Z \cap Z^*)$ is constructible, a contradiction. \square

4.1.1. Chevalley's Theorem.

Lemma 14.4.4. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings and $\theta^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ the continuous map of Exercise 7.3.20. The following are equivalent.

- (1) The image of θ^{\sharp} is dense in Spec R.
- (2) $\ker \theta \subseteq \operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$.

In particular, if $Rad_R(0)$, then the image of θ^{\sharp} is dense if and only if θ is one-to-one.

PROOF. The image of θ^{\sharp} is $\operatorname{im} \theta^{\sharp} = \{\theta^{-1}(Q) \mid Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S\}$. By Lemma 7.3.9, the closure of $\operatorname{im} \theta^{\sharp}$ is V(I), where I is the ideal

$$I = \bigcap_{Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S} \theta^{-1}(Q) = \theta^{-1} \left(\bigcap_{Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S} Q \right) = \theta^{-1} \left(\operatorname{Rad}_{S}(0) \right).$$

It is clear that $\ker \theta \subseteq I$.

- (1) implies (2): If $V(I) = \operatorname{Spec} R$, then $I \subseteq \operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$, and this implies (2).
- (2) implies (1): The reader should verify that if $x \in R$ and $\theta(x) \in \operatorname{Rad}_S(0)$, then $x \in \operatorname{Rad}(\ker \theta)$. By (2), $I = \theta^{-1}(\operatorname{Rad}_S(0)) \subseteq \operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$. Therefore, $V(I) = \operatorname{Spec} R$, which implies (1).

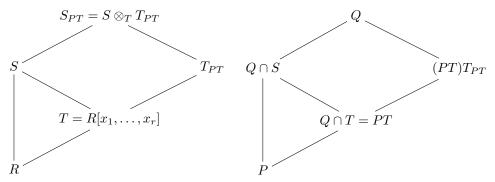
LEMMA 14.4.5. Let R be a noetherian integral domain and S a commutative faithful finitely generated R-algebra with structure map $\theta: R \to S$. There exists an element $a \in R - (0)$ such that the basic open set $U(a) = \operatorname{Spec} R - V(a)$ is contained in the image of the natural map $\theta^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$.

PROOF. Since θ is one-to-one, we assume $R \subseteq S$. Find x_1, \ldots, x_n in S such that $S = R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Further, assume x_1, \ldots, x_r are algebraically independent

over R, while each of the elements x_{r+1}, \ldots, x_n satisfies an algebraic relation over $T = R[x_1, \ldots, x_r]$. For each $j = r+1, \ldots, n$ find a polynomial $f_j(x) \in T[x]$ satisfying

- (1) $f_j(x_j) = 0$,
- (2) f_j has degree $d_j \geq 1$, and
- (3) the leading coefficient of f_j is f_{j0} , an element of T.

Then $f = \prod_{j=r+1}^n f_{j0}$ is a nonzero element of T. Let a be any nonzero coefficient of f, where we view f as a polynomial over R in the variables x_1, \ldots, x_r . We show that this a is satisfactory. Let P be an arbitrary element of U(a). Then $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ and $a \notin P$. We show that $P \in \operatorname{im} \theta^{\sharp}$. The reader should verify that $PT = P[x_1, \ldots, x_r]$ is a prime ideal in T. Since $f \notin PT$, each x_j is integral over T_{PT} . Therefore S_{PT} is integral over T_{PT} . By Theorem 10.3.7, there exists a prime ideal Q in S_{PT} lying over $(PT)T_{PT}$. On the left side of this diagram



is the lattice of subrings, on the right, the lattice of prime ideals. We have $Q \cap R = Q \cap T \cap R = PT \cap R = P$. Therefore, $P = Q \cap R = Q \cap S \cap R = \theta^{\sharp}(Q \cap S)$.

LEMMA 14.4.6. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and Z a constructible set in Spec R. There exists a finitely generated R-algebra S such that the image of the natural map Spec $S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is Z.

PROOF. Case 1: $Z=U(a)\cap V(I)$, where I is an ideal of R and $U(a)=\operatorname{Spec} R-V(a)$ is a basic open set, for some $a\in R$. By Exercise 7.3.26, $\operatorname{Spec} R[a^{-1}]$ maps homeomorphically onto U(a). By Exercise 7.3.25, $\operatorname{Spec} R/I$ maps homeomorphically onto V(I). The reader should verify that $S=R/I\otimes_R R[a^{-1}]$ is satisfactory.

Case 2: Z is an arbitrary constructible set. Then Z is a finite union of sets of the form $U \cap Y$ where U is open and F is closed. An arbitrary open is of the form R - V(I), where I is a finitely generated ideal in the noetherian ring R. Therefore, U can be written as a finite union of basis open sets. We can write $Z = \bigcup_{i=1}^n U(a_i) \cap V(I_i)$. By Case $1, U(a_i) \cap V(I_i)$ is the image of Spec S_i for some finitely generated R-algebra $S_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus S_n$. By Exercise 7.3.23, Spec S decomposes into the disjoint union Spec $S_1 \cup \cdots \cup$ Spec S_n . The image of Spec S is Z.

Theorem 14.4.7. (Chevalley) Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and S a finitely generated R-algebra. Under the natural map $\theta^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$, the image of a constructible set is a constructible set.

PROOF. Step 1: $\operatorname{im} \theta^{\sharp}$ is a constructible set. Let Y be an irreducible closed in Spec R. In order to apply Proposition 14.4.3, assume $\operatorname{im} \theta^{\sharp} \cap Y$ is dense in Y.

By Lemma 7.3.11, Y = V(P) for some prime ideal P in R. Consider the two commutative diagrams.

The map η^{\sharp} maps Spec R/P homeomorphically onto Y. The set im $\theta^{\sharp} \cap Y$ is equal to the image of $\eta^{\sharp} \bar{\theta}^{\sharp}$. By Lemma 14.4.4, $\bar{\theta}$ is one-to-one. By Lemma 14.4.5, im $\theta^{\sharp} \cap Y$ contains a nonempty open subset of Y. Proposition 14.4.3 implies im θ^{\sharp} is constructible.

Step 2: Let Z be a constructible set in Spec S. By Lemma 14.4.6 there exists a finitely generated S-algebra T with structure homomorphism $\phi: S \to T$ such that the image of the natural map $\phi^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} T \to \operatorname{Spec} S$ is equal to Z. Notice that T is a finitely generated R-algebra with structure homomorphism $\phi\theta: R \to T$ and the image of $\theta^{\sharp}\phi^{\sharp}$ is equal to $\theta^{\sharp}(Z)$. By Step 1 applied to T, the image of $\theta^{\sharp}\phi^{\sharp}$ constructible.

4.1.2. Submersive morphisms. Let X be a noetherian topological space. A subset Z of X is said to be pro-constructible if there exists a family $\{Z_i \mid i \in I\}$ of constructible sets such that $Z = \bigcap_{i \in I} Z_i$. We say Z is ind-constructible if such a family of constructible sets exists and $Z = \bigcup_{i \in I} Z_i$.

PROPOSITION 14.4.8. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring and S a commutative R-algebra with structure homomorphism $\theta: R \to S$. The image of $\theta^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is a pro-constructible set in $\operatorname{Spec} R$.

PROOF. By Exercise 6.8.26, $S = \varinjlim_{\alpha} S_{\alpha}$, where S_{α} runs through the set of all finitely generated R-subalgebras of S. For each α , let $\phi_{\alpha}: R \to S_{\alpha}$ be the structure homomorphism and let $\psi_{\alpha}: S_{\alpha} \to S$ be the set inclusion map. For each α , we have $\theta^{\sharp} = \phi_{\alpha}^{\sharp} \psi_{\alpha}^{\sharp}$. Therefore, $\operatorname{im}(\theta^{\sharp}) \subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha} \operatorname{im}(\phi_{\alpha}^{\sharp})$. To show that these sets are equal, suppose $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R - \operatorname{im}(\theta^{\sharp})$. Let $S_P = S \otimes_R R_P$. The reader should verify that $PS_P = S_P$. We can write $1 \in PS_P$ as a finite sum, $1 = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i s_i w^{-1}$, where $w \in R - P$ and for each $i, a_i \in P$ and $s_i \in S$. Let $T = R[s_1, \ldots, s_n]$ be the R-subalgebra of S generated by s_1, \ldots, s_n . Then $PT_P = T_P$, so P is not in the image of $\operatorname{Spec} T \to \operatorname{Spec} R$. This proves $\operatorname{im}(\theta^{\sharp}) = \bigcap_{\alpha} \operatorname{im}(\phi_{\alpha}^{\sharp})$. By Theorem 14.4.7, the image of θ^{\sharp} is pro-constructible.

Let R be a commutative ring and $P,Q \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. If $P \subseteq Q$, then we say that Q is a *specialization* of P and P is a *generalization* of Q. The set of all specializations of P is equal to the irreducible closed set V(P). If $Z \subseteq \operatorname{Spec} R$ we say Z is *stable under specialization* if Z contains all specializations of every point in Z. We say Z is *stable under generalization* if Z contains all generalizations of every point in Z. The reader should verify that a closed set is stable under specialization and an open set is stable under generalization.

Lemma 14.4.9. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring.

- (1) Let Z be a subset of Spec R which satisfies
 - (a) Z is pro-constructible and
 - (b) Z is stable under specialization.

Then Z is closed.

- (2) Let U be a subset of Spec R which satisfies
 - (a) U is stable under generalization and
 - (b) if $P \in U$, then U contains a nonempty open subset of the irreducible closed set V(P).

Then U is open.

PROOF. (1): Write $Z = \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} Z_{\alpha}$, where each Z_{α} is constructible. Let $\bar{Z} = Y_1 \cup \cdots \cup Y_m$ be the decomposition into irreducible closed components. Fix i such that $1 \leq i \leq m$. Then $Y_i = V(P_i)$, where P_i is the generic point of Y_i . As in the proof of Proposition 14.4.3, $Y_i \cap Z$ is a dense subset of Y_i . For each α , $Y_i \cap Z_{\alpha}$ is dense in Y_i . By Proposition 14.4.3, $Y_i \cap Z_{\alpha}$ contains a nonempty open subset of Y_i . Therefore, $P \in Y_i \cap Z_{\alpha}$ for each α . Hence $P_i \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} Z_{\alpha} = Z$. Since Z is stable under specialization, $Y_i = V(P_i) \subseteq Z$. Since i was arbitrary, $\bar{Z} \subseteq Z$, so Z is closed.

(2): Let $Z = \operatorname{Spec} R - U$ and let $\overline{Z} = Y_1 \cup \cdots \cup Y_m$ be the decomposition into irreducible closed components. Fix i such that $1 \leq i \leq m$. Then $Y_i = V(P_i)$, where P_i is the generic point of Y_i . For contradiction's sake, assume $P_i \in U$. By (b) there exists a nonempty set $V \subseteq Y_i$ such that V is open in Y_i and $V \subseteq Y_i \cap U$. Since $Y_i \not\subseteq Y_j$ if $i \neq j$, $W = V - \bigcup_{j \neq i} Y_j$ is a nonempty open subset of Y_i , W is open in \overline{Z} , and $W \subseteq U$. Then $\overline{Z} - W$ is a closed set containing Z which is a proper closed subset of \overline{Z} , a contradiction. We conclude that $P_i \in Z$. If P is a specialization of P_i , then by (a), $P \in Z$. That is, $Y_i \subseteq Z$. This proves $\overline{Z} \subseteq Z$, so Z is closed. \square

We say that a homomorphism of commutative rings $\phi: R \to S$ is *submersive* if $\phi^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is onto and the topology on $\operatorname{Spec} R$ is equal to the quotient topology of $\operatorname{Spec} S$. That is, $Y \subseteq \operatorname{Spec} R$ is closed if and only if $(\phi^{\sharp})^{-1}(Y)$ is closed.

Theorem 14.4.10. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and S a commutative R-algebra with structure homomorphism $\phi: R \to S$. If one of the following three conditions is satisfied, then ϕ is submersive.

- (1) S is a faithfully flat R-module.
- (2) R is an integrally closed integral domain and S is an integral domain which is a faithful integral R-algebra.
- (3) $\phi^{\sharp} : \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is onto, and going down holds for ϕ .

PROOF. If condition (1) is satisfied, then by Theorem 10.3.6, going down holds and by Lemma 7.5.4, ϕ^{\sharp} is onto. This case reduces to (3).

If condition (2) is satisfied, then by Theorem 10.3.7, so is condition (3).

Assume (3) is satisfied. Let Y be any subset of Spec R such that $(\phi^{\sharp})^{-1}(Y)$ is closed in Spec S. It suffices to show that Y is closed. There exists an ideal J in S such that $(\phi^{\sharp})^{-1}(Y) = V(J)$. Since ϕ^{\sharp} is onto, $\phi^{\sharp}(\phi^{\sharp})^{-1}(Y) = Y$. Let $\eta: S \to S/J$ be the natural map. The image of $\phi^{\sharp}\eta^{\sharp}$ is equal to Y, so by Proposition 14.4.8, Y is pro-constructible. By Lemma 14.4.9, if we show that Y is stable under specialization, the proof is complete. Assume $P_1 \in Y$ and P_2 is a specialization of P_1 in Spec R such that $P_1 \subsetneq P_2$. It suffices to show $P_2 \in Y$. Since ϕ^{\sharp} is onto, there exists $Q_2 \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ lying over P_1 . Since going down holds, by Proposition 10.3.4, there exists $Q_1 \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ lying over P_1 such that $Q_1 \subsetneq Q_2$. So Q_2 is a specialization of Q_1 . Since Q_1 is in the closed set $(\phi^{\sharp})^{-1}(Y)$, so is Q_2 . Therefore $P_2 = \phi^{\sharp}(Q_2) \in \phi^{\sharp}(\phi^{\sharp})^{-1}(Y) = Y$.

THEOREM 14.4.11. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and S a commutative finitely generated R-algebra with structure homomorphism $\phi: R \to S$. Assume going down holds for ϕ . Then $\phi^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is an open map.

PROOF. Start with U an open in Spec S and show that $\phi^{\sharp}(U)$ is open in Spec R. By Theorem 14.4.7, $\phi^{\sharp}(U)$ is constructible in Spec R. Let $P_2 \in \phi^{\sharp}(U)$. There exists $Q_2 \in U$ lying over P_2 . Assume P_1 is a generalization of P_2 , $P_1 \subseteq P_2$. By Proposition 10.3.4, since going down holds, there exists $Q_1 \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ lying over P_1 such that $Q_1 \subseteq Q_2$. Therefore $Q_1 \in U$, since Q_1 is a generalization of Q_2 and U is open. Hence $P_1 \in \phi^{\sharp}(U)$, which proves $\phi^{\sharp}(U)$ is stable under generalization. By Lemma 14.4.9, Spec $R = \phi^{\sharp}(U)$ is closed.

4.2. Local Criteria for Flatness. References for the material in this section are [39, Chapter 8, Section 20] and [23, Chapter 0, § 10].

Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal of R. Let M be an R-module. In Example 11.2.3 and Example 11.2.5 we defined the associated graded ring

$$\operatorname{gr}_{I}\left(R\right)=\bigoplus_{n\geq0}I^{n}/I^{n+1}$$

and the associated graded module

$$\operatorname{gr}_I(M) = \bigoplus_{n=0}^\infty I^n M/I^{n+1} M.$$

Then $\operatorname{gr}_I(M)$ is a graded $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ -module. For the following, set $R_0 = \operatorname{gr}_I(R)_0 = R/I$ and $M_0 = \operatorname{gr}_I(M)_0 = M/I$. The ring $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ is an R_0 -algebra, and M_0 is an R_0 -module. For all $n \geq 0$, the multiplication map

$$\mu_{n0}: \frac{I^n}{I^{n+1}} \otimes_{R_0} M_0 \to \frac{I^n M}{I^{n+1} M}$$

is onto. Taking the direct sum, there is a surjective degree-preserving homomorphism

$$\mu: \operatorname{gr}_I(R) \otimes_{R_0} M_0 \to \operatorname{gr}_I(M)$$

of R_0 -modules. We say that M is *ideal-wise separated for* I if for each finitely generated ideal J of R, the R-module $J \otimes_R M$ is separated in the I-adic topology.

Example 14.4.12. Some examples of modules that are ideal-wise separated are listed here.

- (1) Let S be a commutative R-algebra and M a finitely generated S-module. Suppose S is noetherian and I is an ideal of R such that $IS \subseteq J(S)$. Let J be any ideal of R. The reader should verify that the I-adic topology on $J \otimes_R M$ is equal to the $I \otimes_R S$ -adic topology, which is equal to the IS-adic topology. Since $J \otimes_R M$ is a finitely generated S-module, Corollary 11.3.6 (1) says $J \otimes_R M$ is separated in the I-adic topology. Therefore M is ideal-wise separated for I.
- (2) Let R be a commutative ring and M a flat R-module. If J is an ideal of R, then $0 \to J \otimes_R M \to M \to M/JM \to 0$ is exact. That is, $J \otimes_R M = JM$. If I is an ideal of R and M is separated for the I-adic topology, then $I^n JM \subseteq I^n M$ so JM is separated for the I-adic topology. Therefore M is ideal-wise separated for I.

(3) Let R be a principal ideal domain. Let I and J be ideals of R and M an R-module. If $w \in I^n(J \otimes_R M)$, then w can be written in the form $1 \otimes z$ where $z \in I^n M$. If M is separated in the I-adic topology, then M is ideal-wise separated for I.

Theorem 14.4.13. (Local Criteria for Flatness) Let R be a commutative ring, I an ideal of R, and M an R-module. Let $\operatorname{gr}_I(M)$ be the associated graded $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ -module. Set $R_0 = R/I$ and $M_0 = M/I$. Assume

- (A) I is nilpotent, or
- (B) R is noetherian and M is ideal-wise separated for I.

Then the following are equivalent.

- (1) M is a flat R-module.
- (2) $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(N, M) = 0$ for all R_{0} -modules N.
- (3) M_0 is a flat R_0 -module and $0 \to I \otimes_R M \to IM$ is an exact sequence.
- (4) M_0 is a flat R_0 -module and $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(R_0, M) = 0$.
- (5) M_0 is a flat R_0 -module and the multiplication maps

$$\mu_{n0}: \frac{I^n}{I^{n+1}} \otimes_{R_0} M_0 \to \frac{I^n M}{I^{n+1} M}$$

are isomorphisms for all $n \geq 0$.

(6) $M_n = M/I^{n+1}M$ is a flat $R_n = R/I^{n+1}$ -module for each $n \ge 0$.

PROOF. Notice that (A) or (B) is used to prove that (6) implies (1). The rest of the proof is valid for an arbitrary module M.

Throughout the proof we will frequently make use of the natural isomorphism

$$N \otimes_R M = N \otimes_{R/J} (R/J) \otimes_R M = N \otimes_{R/J} (M/JM)$$

for any ideal J of R and any R/J-module N.

- (1) implies (2): If N is an R_0 -module, then N is an R-module. This follows from Lemma 12.3.3.
 - (2) implies (3): Start with an exact sequence

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

of $R_0 = R/I$ -modules. The sequence

$$\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(C, M) \to A \otimes_{R_{0}} M_{0} \to B \otimes_{R_{0}} M_{0} \to C \otimes_{R_{0}} M_{0} \to 0$$

is also exact. But $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(C,M)=0$, so we conclude that M_0 is a flat R_0 -module.

(3) implies (4): Follows easily from the exact sequence

$$\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(R,M) \to \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(R/I,M) \to I \otimes_R M \to M.$$

(4) implies (2): Let N be an R_0 -module and write N as a quotient of a free R_0 -module F,

$$0 \to K \to F \to N \to 0.$$

By Lemma 12.3.2 (7) and hypothesis (4) $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(F,M) = \bigoplus_{\alpha} \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(R_0,M) = 0$. The sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(N, M) \to K \otimes_{R_0} M_0 \to F \otimes_{R_0} M_0 \to N \otimes_{R_0} M_0 \to 0$$

is exact. But M_0 is a flat R_0 -module, so we conclude that $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(N,M) = 0$.

(2) implies (5): Start with the exact sequence of R-modules

$$0 \to I^{n+1} \to I^n \to I^n/I^{n+1} \to 0$$

where $n \geq 0$. The multiplication homomorphisms combine to make up a commutative diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow I^{n+1} \otimes_R M \longrightarrow I^n \otimes_R M \longrightarrow I^n/I^{n+1} \otimes_{R_0} M_0 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\gamma_{n+1}} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma_n} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\mu_{n0}}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow I^{n+1}M \longrightarrow I^nM \longrightarrow I^nM/I^{n+1}M \longrightarrow 0$$

The top row is exact because of hypothesis (2). The second row is clearly exact. The multiplication maps γ_{n+1} , γ_n , μ_{n0} are all onto. For n=0, μ_{n0} is an isomorphism. For n=1, γ_n is an isomorphism by the proof of (2) implies (3). By induction on n, we see that γ_n is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 0$. By the Snake Lemma (Theorem 6.6.2) it follows that μ_{n0} is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 0$.

(5) implies (6): Fix an integer n > 0. For each i = 1, 2, ..., n there is a commutative diagram

$$I^{i+1}/I^{n+1} \otimes_R M \longrightarrow I^i/I^{n+1} \otimes_R M \longrightarrow I^i/I^{i+1} \otimes_{R_0} M_0 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha_{i+1}} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha_i} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\mu_{i0}}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow I^{i+1}M/I^{n+1}M \longrightarrow I^iM/I^nM \longrightarrow I^iM/I^{i+1}M \longrightarrow 0$$

with exact rows. By hypothesis, μ_{i0} is an isomorphism for all i. For i=n, the diagram collapses and we see immediately that α_n is an isomorphism. By descending induction on i we see that each α_i is an isomorphism. In particular, α_1 is an isomorphism. That is,

$$I/I^{n+1} \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} IM/I^{n+1}M$$

$$= \bigvee_{IR_n \otimes_{R_n} M_n} \bigvee_{\underline{\cong}} IM_n$$

commutes and the arrows are all isomorphisms. This proves that hypothesis (3) is satisfied for the ring R_n , the ideal IR_n and the module M_n . Because (3) implies (2), $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R_n}(N, M_n) = 0$ for all R_0 -modules N. Say $1 \leq j \leq n$ and A is an $R_j = R/I^{j+1}$ -module. Then IA and A/IA are R/I^j -modules. From the exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow IA \rightarrow A \rightarrow A/IA \rightarrow 0$$

we get the exact sequence

$$\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R_{n}}(IA, M_{n}) \to \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R_{n}}(A, M_{n}) \to \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R_{n}}(A/IA, M_{n}).$$

If j = 1, this implies $\operatorname{Tor}_1^{R_n}(A, M_n) = 0$. Induction on j shows $\operatorname{Tor}_1^{R_n}(A, M_n) = 0$ for any R_n -module A. This implies M_n is a flat R_n -module.

- (1) implies (6): The attribute of being flat is preserved under change of base (Theorem 6.4.23).
- (6) and (A) implies (1): If I is nilpotent, then $I^n=0$ for some n. In this case, $M/I^nM=M$ is a flat $R/I^n=R$ -module.
- (6) and (B) implies (1). Let J be any finitely generated ideal of R. By Corollary 7.8.4 it is enough to show

$$0 \to J \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{\mu} M \to M/JM$$

is an exact sequence. We are assuming (B), which implies $\bigcap_n I^n(J \otimes_R M) = 0$. It is enough to show $\ker(\mu) \subseteq I^n(J \otimes_R M)$ for each n > 0. By Corollary 11.2.14 there exists $\nu \geq n$ such that $J \cap I^{\nu} \subseteq I^n J$. Consider the commutative diagram

$$(4.1) J \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{\phi} \left(J/(J \cap I^{\nu}) \right) \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{\psi} \left(J/I^n J \right) \otimes_R M$$

$$\downarrow^{\mu} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\tau} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\psi} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\psi} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\psi} \qquad \downarrow^{\psi} \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

The kernel of the composition $\psi\phi$ is $\ker(\psi\phi) = I^n J \otimes_R M = I^n (J \otimes_R M)$. By hypothesis (6), $M/I^{\nu}M$ is a flat module over R/I^{ν} . Since $J/(J \cap I^{\nu})$ is an ideal in R/I^{ν} , by Corollary 7.8.4, the sequence

$$0 \to \left(J/(J \cap I^{\nu})\right) \otimes_{R/I^{\nu}} \left(M/I^{\nu}M\right) \to M/I^{\nu}M$$

is exact. Since $(J/J \cap I^{\nu}) \otimes_{R/I^{\nu}} (M/I^{\nu}M) = (J/J \cap I^{\nu}) \otimes_{R} M$, this implies the sequence

$$0 \to (J/J \cap I^{\nu}) \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{\tau} M/I^{\nu}M$$

is exact. In (4.1), since τ is one-to-one it follows that $\ker(\mu) \subseteq \ker(\psi\phi) = I^n(J \otimes_R M)$.

As an application of Theorem 14.4.13 we prove the following generalization of Corollary 7.4.3.

Proposition 14.4.14. Assume all of the following are satisfied.

- (A) R is a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field $k(\mathfrak{m})$.
- (B) S is a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{n} and residue field $k(\mathfrak{n})$.
- (C) $f: R \to S$ is a local homomorphism of local rings (that is, $f(\mathfrak{m}) \subseteq \mathfrak{n}$).
- (D) A and B are finitely generated S-modules, $\sigma \in \text{Hom}_S(A, B)$, and B is a flat R-module.

Then the following are equivalent.

(1) The sequence

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\sigma} B \to \operatorname{coker}(\sigma) \to 0$$

is exact and $coker(\sigma)$ is a flat R-module.

(2) The sequence

$$0 \to A \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{m}) \xrightarrow{\sigma \otimes 1} B \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{m}) \to \operatorname{coker}(\sigma) \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{m}) \to 0$$

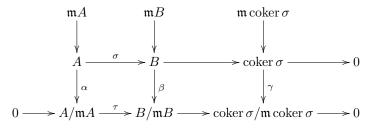
is exact.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Start with the short exact sequence in (1). Apply the functor () $\otimes_R k(\mathfrak{m})$. The long exact Tor sequence includes these terms

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(\operatorname{coker}(\sigma), k(\mathfrak{m})) \to A \otimes_{R} k(\mathfrak{m}) \xrightarrow{\sigma \otimes 1} B \otimes_{R} k(\mathfrak{m}) \to \operatorname{coker}(\sigma) \otimes_{R} k(\mathfrak{m}) \to 0.$$

Use the fact that $coker(\sigma)$ is flat to get (2).

(2) implies (1): For any R-module M, identify $M \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{m})$ with $M/\mathfrak{m}M$. The diagram



commutes. The rows and columns are exact. The three vertical arrows α,β,γ are onto.

Step 1: Show that $\ker(\sigma) = 0$. If $x \in \ker(\sigma)$, then $x \in \mathfrak{m}A$. The idea is to show

$$x \in \bigcap_{n \ge 1} \mathfrak{m}^n A \subseteq \bigcap_{n \ge 1} \mathfrak{n}^n A,$$

which proves x=0, by Corollary 11.3.6. Fix $n\geq 1$ and assume $x\in \mathfrak{m}^nA$. Since \mathfrak{m}^n is finitely generated over R, the vector space $\mathfrak{m}^n/\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}$ is finite dimensional over $k(\mathfrak{m})$. Let π_1,\ldots,π_r be a set of generators for \mathfrak{m}^n which restricts to a $k(\mathfrak{m})$ -basis for $\mathfrak{m}^n/\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}$. Write $x=\sum_{i=1}^r \pi_i x_i$ where $x_i\in A$. Then $0=\sigma(x)=\sum \pi_i \sigma(x_i)$ in the flat R-module B. By Corollary 7.8.4 there exist an integer s, elements $\{b_{ij}\mid 1\leq i\leq r, 1\leq j\leq s\}$ in R, and y_1,\ldots,y_s in B satisfying $\sum_i \pi_i b_{ij}=0$ for all j and $\sigma(x_i)=\sum_j b_{ij}y_j$ for all i. Since π_1,\ldots,π_r are linearly independent over $k(\mathfrak{m})$, each b_{ij} is in \mathfrak{m} . This implies each $\sigma(x_i)$ is in $\mathfrak{m} B$. Since τ is one-to-one, this implies each x_i is in $\mathfrak{m} A$. We conclude that $x\in \mathfrak{m}^{n+1} A$. As stated already, this proves x=0.

Step 2: Show that $\operatorname{coker}(\sigma)$ is a flat R-module. By Step 1, the sequence

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{\sigma} B \to \operatorname{coker}(\sigma) \to 0$$

is exact. Apply the functor () $\otimes_R k(\mathfrak{m})$. Since B is a flat R-module, the long exact Tor sequence reduces to the exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(\operatorname{coker}(\sigma), k(\mathfrak{m})) \to A \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{m}) \xrightarrow{\sigma \otimes 1} B \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{m}) \to \operatorname{coker}(\sigma) \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{m}) \to 0.$$

By assumption, $\sigma \otimes 1$ is one-to-one, so $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(\operatorname{coker}(\sigma), k(\mathfrak{m})) = 0$. By Example 14.4.12 (1) the hypotheses of Theorem 14.4.13 (4) are satisfied. Therefore $\operatorname{coker}(\sigma)$ is a flat R-module.

Corollary 14.4.15. Assume all of the following are satisfied.

- (1) R is a noetherian commutative ring.
- (2) S is a noetherian commutative R-algebra.
- (3) M is a finitely generated S-module which is a flat R-module and $f \in S$.
- (4) For each maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} S$,

$$0 \to M/(\mathfrak{m} \cap R)M \xrightarrow{\ell_f} M/(\mathfrak{m} \cap R)M$$

is exact, where ℓ_f is left multiplication by f.

Then

$$0 \to M \xrightarrow{\ell_f} M \to M/fM \to 0$$

is exact and M/fM is a flat R-module.

PROOF. Let $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} S$ and $\mathfrak{n} = \mathfrak{m} \cap R$. Then $M_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a finitely generated $S_{\mathfrak{m}}$ -module. By Corollary 12.3.6, $M_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a flat $R_{\mathfrak{n}}$ -module. By assumption,

$$0 \to M \otimes_R (R/\mathfrak{n}) \xrightarrow{\ell_f} M \otimes_R (R/\mathfrak{n})$$

is exact. Since $S_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a flat S-module,

$$0 \to M_{\mathfrak{m}} \otimes_R (R/\mathfrak{n}) \xrightarrow{\ell_f} M_{\mathfrak{m}} \otimes_R (R/\mathfrak{n})$$

is exact. By Exercise 7.1.17, $R_{\mathfrak{n}}/(\mathfrak{n}R_{\mathfrak{n}})$ is a flat R/\mathfrak{n} -module. Therefore,

$$0 \to M_{\mathfrak{m}} \otimes_{R_{\mathfrak{n}}} (R_{\mathfrak{n}}/\mathfrak{n}R_{\mathfrak{n}}) \xrightarrow{\ell_f} M_{\mathfrak{m}} \otimes_{R_{\mathfrak{n}}} (R_{\mathfrak{n}}/\mathfrak{n}R_{\mathfrak{n}})$$

is exact. We are in the context of Proposition 14.4.14 with the rings being R_n , S_m , and σ being $\ell_f: M_m \to M_m$. We have shown that Proposition 14.4.14 condition (2) is satisfied. Therefore, the sequence

$$0 \to M_{\mathfrak{m}} \xrightarrow{\ell_f} M_{\mathfrak{m}} \to M_{\mathfrak{m}}/fM_{\mathfrak{m}} \to 0$$

is exact, and $(M/fM)\otimes_S S_{\mathfrak{m}}=M_{\mathfrak{m}}/fM_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a flat $R_{\mathfrak{n}}$ -module. By Proposition 7.1.6, $\ell_f:M\to M$ is one-to-one. By Corollary 12.3.6, M/fM is a flat R-module. \square

COROLLARY 14.4.16. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and $S = R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ the polynomial ring over R in n indeterminates. Let $f \in S$ and assume the coefficients of f generate the unit ideal in R. Then f is not a zero divisor of S and S/fS is a flat R-algebra.

PROOF. Let $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} S$ and $\mathfrak{n} = \mathfrak{m} \cap R$. Then R/\mathfrak{n} is an integral domain and $f \notin \mathfrak{n}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Moreover, $S/\mathfrak{n}S = S \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{n} = (R/\mathfrak{n})[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, so $\ell_f : S/\mathfrak{n}S \to S/\mathfrak{n}S$ is one-to-one. The rest follows from Corollary 14.4.15.

COROLLARY 14.4.17. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a local homomorphism of commutative noetherian local rings. Let M be a finitely generated S-module which is flat over R. Let \mathfrak{m} be the maximal ideal of R and $k(\mathfrak{m})$ the residue field. For any $f \in S$, let ℓ_f be the left multiplication by f map. Then the following are equivalent.

(1) The sequence

$$0 \to M \xrightarrow{\ell_f} M \to M/fM \to 0$$

is exact, and M/fM is flat over R.

(2) The sequence

$$0 \to M \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{m}) \xrightarrow{\ell_f} M \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{m})$$

is exact.

Proof. Apply Proposition 14.4.14.

In Corollary 14.4.18, the reader is referred to Definition 15.3.1 for the definition of a regular sequence for an R-module contained in an ideal of R.

COROLLARY 14.4.18. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a local homomorphism of commutative noetherian local rings. Let M be a finitely generated S-module which is flat over R. Let \mathfrak{m} be the maximal ideal of R and $k(\mathfrak{m})$ the residue field. Let \mathfrak{n} be the maximal ideal of S, and (f_1, \ldots, f_r) a regular sequence for $M \otimes_R k(\mathfrak{m})$ in \mathfrak{n} . Then (f_1, \ldots, f_r) is a regular sequence for M and $M/(f_1, \ldots, f_r)M$ is flat over R.

PROOF. Use Corollary 14.4.17 and induction on r.

4.3. Theorem of Generic Flatness.

Theorem 14.4.19. Let R be a noetherian integral domain and S a finitely generated commutative R-algebra. For any finitely generated S-module M, there exists a nonzero element f in R such that the localization $M[f^{-1}] = M \otimes_R R[f^{-1}]$ is a free $R[f^{-1}]$ -module.

PROOF. Step 1: If M is not a faithful R-module, then we can take f to be a nonzero element of $\operatorname{annih}_R(M)$. From now on we assume S is an extension ring of R and M is a faithful R-module.

Step 2: By Theorem 13.2.9, there exists a filtration $0 = M_0 \subsetneq M_1 \subsetneq M_2 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq M_n = M$ of M and a set of prime ideals $P_i \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ such that $M_i/M_{i-1} \cong S/P_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. If

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

is an exact sequence of R-modules where A and C are free, then so is B. It is enough to prove the theorem for the case where M = S/P, for a prime ideal P in S. From now on assume M = S and S is an integral domain which is an extension ring of R.

Step 3: Let K be the quotient field of R and L the quotient field of S. Consider $SK = S \otimes_R K$, the K-subalgebra of L generated by S. Since S is a finitely generated R-algebra, SK is a finitely generated K-algebra. The Krull dimension of SK, $n = \dim(SK)$, is finite. The proof is by induction on the integer n.

Step 4: Assume n=0. That is, SK=L is the quotient field of S. Let s_1,\ldots,s_k be a set of generators for S as an R-algebra. Each s_i is integral over K, so there exists a polynomial $p_i(x) \in K[x]$ such that $p_i(s_i) = 0$. There exists a nonzero element α in R-(0) such that $\alpha p_i(x) \in R[x]$ for all i. Therefore, $R[\alpha^{-1}] \subseteq S[\alpha^{-1}]$ is a finitely generated integral extension of integral domains. By Theorem 10.1.3 (1), $S_1 = S[\alpha^{-1}]$ is finitely generated as an $R_1 = R[\alpha^{-1}]$ -module. Let u_1,\ldots,u_{ν} be a maximal subset in S_1 which is linearly independent over R_1 . Define $\phi: R_1^{(\nu)} \to S_1$ by $(a_1,\ldots,a_{\nu}) \mapsto \sum a_i u_i$. Let $C = \operatorname{coker} \phi$. Then C is a finitely generated torsion R_1 -module. Let $\gamma \in \operatorname{annih}_{R_1}(C)$. Tensor ϕ with $R_1[\gamma^{-1}]$ to get $R_1[\gamma^{-1}] \cong S_1[\gamma^{-1}]$. Take f to be $\alpha \gamma$.

Step 5: Assume $n \geq 1$. By Noether's Normalization Lemma (Corollary 14.3.3), there exist y_1,\ldots,y_n in SK which are algebraically independent over K and such that SK is integral over $K[y_1,\ldots,y_n]$. For some element β of R-(0), $\beta y_i \in S$. Relabel if necessary, and assume $R[y_1,\ldots,y_n]\subseteq S$. There exist s_1,\ldots,s_k such that $S=R[s_1,\ldots,s_k]$. Each s_i is integral over $K[y_1,\ldots,y_n]$, so there exists a polynomial $p_i(x)\in K[y_1,\ldots,y_n][x]$ such that $p_i(s_i)=0$. There exists a nonzero element α in R-(0) such that $\alpha p_i(x)\in R[y_1,\ldots,y_n][x]$ for all i. Therefore, $R[\alpha^{-1}][y_1,\ldots,y_n]\subseteq S[\alpha^{-1}]$ is an integral extension of integral domains. Let $R_1=R[\alpha^{-1}], S_1=S[\alpha^{-1}],$ and $T=R_1[y_1,\ldots,y_n]$. Then S_1 is a finitely generated integral extension of T, so by Theorem 10.1.3 (1), S_1 is finitely generated as a T-module. Let u_1,\ldots,u_ν be a maximal subset in S_1 which is linearly independent over T. Define $\phi:T^{(\nu)}\to S_1$ by $(a_1,\ldots,a_\nu)\mapsto \sum a_iu_i$. Let $C=\operatorname{coker}\phi$. Then C is a finitely generated T-module. As in Step 2, there is a filtration of the T-module C. Since C is a torsion T-module, for each prime ideal P of T that occurs in the filtration, $\operatorname{ht}(P)\geq 1$. Consider one such prime $P\in\operatorname{Spec}T$. By Step 1, assume T/P is an extension of R_1 . Then

$$T/P \otimes_R K = \frac{T \otimes_R K}{P \otimes_R K}.$$

Since $P \otimes_R K$ is a nonzero prime ideal in $T \otimes_R K$, $\dim_K(T/P \otimes_R K) < n$. By induction, there exists $g \in R_1 - (0)$ such that $T/P \otimes_{R_1} R_1[g^{-1}]$ is a free $R_1[g^{-1}]$ -module. Since R_1 is an integral domain, we can find one $g \in R_1 - (0)$ such that $C \otimes_{R_1} R_1[g^{-1}]$ is a free $R_1[g^{-1}]$ -module. Since T is a free R_1 -module, this proves $S_1 \otimes_{R_1} R_1[g^{-1}] = S \otimes_R R[f^{-1}]$ is a free $R[f^{-1}]$ -module for $f = \alpha g$.

COROLLARY 14.4.20. Let R be a noetherian integral domain and S a faithful finitely generated commutative R-algebra. There exists a nonzero element f in R such that $S[f^{-1}]$ is a faithful $R[f^{-1}]$ -algebra which is free as an $R[f^{-1}]$ -module.

In the language of Algebraic Geometry, Corollary 14.4.20 has the following interpretation. Let $\phi: R \to S$ be the structure homomorphism. Then over the nonempty open subscheme $U = U(f) = \operatorname{Spec} R - V(f)$, ϕ^{\sharp} is faithfully flat. That is, if $V = (\phi^{\sharp})^{-1}(U)$, then the restriction of ϕ^{\sharp} to $V \to U$ is a faithfully flat morphism.

Theorem 14.4.21. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring, S a finitely generated commutative R-algebra, and M a finitely generated S-module. Let U be the set of all points P in Spec S such that $M_P = M \otimes_S S_P$ is a flat R-module. Then

- (1) U is an open (possibly empty) subset of Spec S.
- (2) If going down holds for $R \to S$ (in particular, if S is flat over R), then the image of U in Spec R is open.

PROOF. The idea is to apply Lemma 14.4.9(2) to show that U is open. If U is empty, there is nothing to prove.

Step 1: First we show that U is stable under generalization. Let $P \in U$ and assume Q is a generalization of P. The functor $(\cdot) \otimes_R M_P$ from \mathfrak{M}_R to \mathfrak{M}_{S_P} is exact since $P \in U$. The functor $(\cdot) \otimes_{S_P} S_Q$ from \mathfrak{M}_{S_P} to \mathfrak{M}_{S_Q} is exact since S_Q is a localization of S_P . Thus $(\cdot) \otimes_R M_P \otimes_{S_P} S_Q = (\cdot) \otimes_R M_Q$ is exact. This shows $Q \in U$.

Step 2: Assume $P \in U$ and prove that U contains a nonempty open subset of the irreducible closed set V(P). Let $I = P \cap R$ and let $Q \in V(P)$. Then $IS_Q \subseteq QS_Q$, so by Example 14.4.12(1), M_Q is ideal-wise separated for I. Let $R_0 = R/I$ and $(M_Q)_0 = M_Q/IM_Q$. By the local criteria for flatness (Theorem 14.4.13), M_Q is a flat R-module if and only if $(M_Q)_0$ is a flat R-module and $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M_Q, R_0) = (0)$.

Step 2.1: By Theorem 14.4.19 applied to R_0 , $S_0 = S/IS$, and $M_0 = M/IM$, there exists $f \in (R-I) \subseteq (S-P)$ such that $M_0[f^{-1}]$ is a free $R_0[f^{-1}]$ -module. Let $W = (\operatorname{Spec} S - V(f)) \cap V(P)$. Since W consists of those specializations of P that do not contain f, W is an open subset of V(P) which contains P. For $Q \in W$, S_Q is a localization of $S[f^{-1}]$, so by Exercise 7.1.18, S_Q/IS_Q is a localization of $S_0[f^{-1}]$. It follows from these observations that the functor $(\cdot) \otimes_{R_0} M_0[f^{-1}]$ from \mathfrak{M}_{R_0} to $\mathfrak{M}_{S_0[f^{-1}]}$ is exact, and the functor $(\cdot) \otimes_{S_0[f^{-1}]} (S_Q/IS_Q)$ from $\mathfrak{M}_{S_0[f^{-1}]}$ to \mathfrak{M}_{S_Q/IS_Q} is exact. Combining the two, it follows that $(\cdot) \otimes_{R_0} M_0[f^{-1}] \otimes_{S_0[f^{-1}]} (S_Q/IS_Q) = (\cdot) \otimes_{R_0} (M_Q)_0$ is exact. This shows $(M_Q)_0$ is R_0 -flat for all Q in the nonempty open $W \subseteq V(P)$.

Step 2.2: Since $P \in U$, $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M_P, R_0) = 0$. By Lemma 12.3.5, $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M, R_0) \otimes_S S_P = 0$. Again by Lemma 12.3.5, $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M, R_0)$ is a finitely generated S-module. By Lemma 7.1.7, there exists an open neighborhood T of P in Spec S such that $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M, R_0) \otimes_S S_Q = 0$ for all $Q \in T$. By Lemma 12.3.5, $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M_Q, R_0) = 0$ for all Q in the nonempty open $T \subseteq V(P)$.

Step 2.3: If W is from Step 2.1 and T is from Step 2.2, then for all Q in $W \cap T$, M_Q is flat over R. Therefore U contains $W \cap T$ which is a nonempty open subset of V(P).

5. Complete *I*-adic Rings and Inverse Limits

The main result of this section, Corolary 14.5.4, provides sufficient conditions on a directed system of noetherian local rings such that the direct limit is again a noetherian local ring. The proof is a compilation of results from all of the following sources: [39], [12], [48], and [23].

PROPOSITION 14.5.1. Let $\{A_i, \phi_i^j\}$ be an inverse system of discrete commutative rings for the index set $\{0, 1, 2, ...\}$. Let $\{M_i, \psi_i^j\}$ be an inverse system of modules over the inverse system of rings $\{A_i, \phi_i^j\}$. For each $0 \le i \le j$, define \mathfrak{n}_j to be the kernel of $\phi_j^0: A_j \to A_0$, assume $\phi_i^i: A_i \to A_i$ is the identity mapping, and

$$0 \to \mathfrak{n}_i^{i+1} \to A_j \xrightarrow{\phi_i^j} A_i \to 0$$

and

$$0 \to \mathfrak{n}_i^{i+1} M_j \to M_j \xrightarrow{\psi_i^j} M_i \to 0$$

are exact sequences. If $A = \underline{\lim} A_i$ and $M = \underline{\lim} M_i$, then the following are true.

- (1) A is a separated and complete topological ring, M is a separated and complete topological A-module, and the natural maps $\alpha_j : A \to A_j$, $\beta_j : M \to M_j$, are onto.
- (2) If M_0 is a finitely generated A_0 -module, then M is a finitely generated A-module. More specifically, if S is a finite subset of M and $\beta_0(S)$ is a generating set for M_0 , then S is a generating set for M.

PROOF. (1): This follows from Proposition 11.1.7, Corollary 11.1.10, and the definition of inverse limit (Definition 6.8.12).

(2): For all $\ell \leq k$, the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathfrak{n}_{i+\ell}^{i+1} \longrightarrow A_{i+\ell} \xrightarrow{\phi_i^{i+\ell}} A_i \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \phi_{i+k}^{i+\ell} \qquad \downarrow \phi_i^{i}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathfrak{n}_{i+k}^{i+1} \longrightarrow A_{i+k} \xrightarrow{\phi_i^{i+k}} A_i \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes and the vertical arrows are onto. By Proposition 6.8.19, if we define \mathfrak{m}_{i+1} to be the kernel of $\alpha_i:A\to A_i$, then

$$\mathfrak{m}_{i+1} = \varprojlim_k \mathfrak{n}_{i+k}^{i+1}.$$

Similarly, if we set N_{i+1} to be the kernel of $\beta_i: M \to M_i$, then

$$N_{i+1} = \varprojlim_{k} \mathfrak{n}_{i+k}^{i+1} M_{i+k}.$$

It follows from the commutative diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathfrak{m}_{i+k+1} \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha_{i+k}} A_{i+k} \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \phi_i^{i+k}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathfrak{m}_{i+1} \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha_i} A_i \longrightarrow 0$$

that

(5.1)
$$\alpha_{i+k}(\mathfrak{m}_{i+1}) = \ker \phi_i^{i+k} = \mathfrak{n}_{i+k}^{i+1}.$$

Likewise,

(5.2)
$$\beta_{i+k}(N_{i+1}) = \mathfrak{n}_{i+k}^{i+1} M_{i+k}.$$

For $i \geq 1$ and $j \geq 1$,

$$\begin{split} \beta_{i+j-1}(\mathfrak{m}_{i}N_{j}) &= \alpha_{i+j-1}(\mathfrak{m}_{i})\beta_{i+j-1}(N_{j}) \\ &= \mathfrak{n}_{i+j-1}^{i}\mathfrak{n}_{i+j-1}^{j}M_{i+j-1} \\ &= \mathfrak{n}_{i+j-1}^{i+j}M_{i+j-1} \\ &= 0 \end{split}$$

since $\mathfrak{n}_{i+j-1}^{i+j}$ is the kernel of α_{i+j}^{i+j} . This shows that $\mathfrak{m}_i N_j \subseteq \ker \beta_{i+j-1} = N_{i+j}$. Similarly, one checks that $\mathfrak{m}_i \mathfrak{m}_j \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_{i+j}$. Defining $\mathfrak{m}_0 = A$, and $N_0 = M$, $\{\mathfrak{m}_i\}$ is a filtration on A and $\{N_i\}$ is a compatible filtration on M. The reader should verify that the topologies on A and M are those defined by the filtrations $\{\mathfrak{m}_i\}$ and $\{N_i\}$.

Let S be a finite subset of M and assume $\beta_0(S)$ is a generating set for M_0 . Let M' be the submodule of M generated by S. Let \mathfrak{a} be an ideal in A such that $\alpha_1(\mathfrak{a}) = \mathfrak{n}_1$. We are going to prove

$$(5.3) N_i = \mathfrak{a}^i M' + N_{i+1}$$

for all $i \geq 0$. Define $\mathfrak{a}_i = \alpha_i(\mathfrak{a})$ and $M'_i = \beta_i(M')$. Since $N_{i+1} = \ker \beta_i$, to prove (5.3) it suffices to prove

(5.4)
$$\beta_i(N_i) = \beta_i(\mathfrak{a}^i M') = \alpha_i(\mathfrak{a}^i)\beta_i(M') = \mathfrak{a}_i^i M'_i.$$

Since $\beta_0(N_0) = \beta_0(M) = M_0$ is equal to $M'_0 = \beta_0(M') = M_0$, we see that (5.4) is satisfied for i = 0. For $i \ge 1$, the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathfrak{n}_{i} \longrightarrow A_{i} \xrightarrow{\phi_{0}^{i}} A_{0} \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \phi_{1}^{i} \qquad \qquad \downarrow =$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathfrak{n}_{1} \longrightarrow A_{1} \xrightarrow{\phi_{0}^{1}} A_{0} \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes and the vertical arrows are onto. Therefore, $\phi_1^i(\mathfrak{n}_i) = \mathfrak{n}_1$. Since the diagram



commutes, $\phi_1^i(\mathfrak{n}_i) = \mathfrak{n}_1 = \alpha_1(\mathfrak{a}) = \phi_1^i \alpha_i(\mathfrak{a}) = \phi_1^i(\mathfrak{a}_i)$. Since $\mathfrak{n}_i^2 = \ker \phi_1^i$, it follows that $\mathfrak{n}_i = \mathfrak{a}_i + \mathfrak{n}_i^2$. For $i \geq 1$ the diagram

$$M \xrightarrow{\beta_0} M_0$$

$$\downarrow^{\psi_0^i}$$

$$M_i$$

commutes and ψ_0^i is onto. Therefore, $\psi_0^i(M_i') = \psi_0^i\beta_i(M') = \beta_0(M') = M_0 = \psi_0^i(M_i)$. Since $\mathfrak{n}_iM_i = \ker\psi_0^i$, it follows that $M_i = M_i' + \mathfrak{n}_iM_i$. Combining these results, we have

(5.5)
$$\mathfrak{n}_i^i M_i = (\mathfrak{a}_i + \mathfrak{n}_i^2)^i (M_i' + \mathfrak{n}_i M_i).$$

For $0 \le k \le i$ we have $\mathfrak{a}_i^k \mathfrak{n}_i^{i+1-k} \subseteq \mathfrak{n}_i^{i+1} = 0$. From this and (5.2), we see that (5.5) collapses to

$$\beta_i(N_i) = \mathfrak{n}_i^i M_i = \mathfrak{a}_i^i M_i'.$$

Together with (5.4), this proves (5.3).

From (5.1), $\mathfrak{m}_1 = \alpha_1^{-1}(\mathfrak{n}_1)$. Therefore, $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_1$, and $\mathfrak{a}^i \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_1^i \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_i$. From (5.3), this shows $N_i \subseteq m_i M' + N_{i+1}$. On the other hand, $m_i M \subseteq N_i$, from which it follows that

$$N_i = m_i M' + N_{i+1}.$$

It follows from Corollary 11.3.19 that M' = M.

COROLLARY 14.5.2. In the context of Proposition 14.5.1, assume M_0 is a finitely generated A_0 -module and that the ideal \mathfrak{n}_1 of A_1 is finitely generated. Let \mathfrak{m}_1 be the kernel of $\alpha_0:A\to A_0$. Then the following are true.

- (1) The topologies on A and M are the \mathfrak{m}_1 -adic topologies.
- (2) For all $i \geq 0$, the sequences

$$0 \to \mathfrak{m}_1^{i+1} \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha_i} A_i \to 0$$

and

$$0 \to \mathfrak{m}_1^{i+1} M \to M \xrightarrow{\beta_i} M_i \to 0$$

are exact.

(3) $\mathfrak{m}_1/\mathfrak{m}_1^2$ is a finitely generated A-module.

PROOF. We retain the notation established in the proof of Proposition 14.5.1. Since \mathfrak{n}_1 is a finitely generated ideal in A_1 , we assume \mathfrak{a} is a finitely generated ideal in A such that $\alpha_1(\mathfrak{a}) = \mathfrak{n}_1$. Let $i \geq 0$ be any integer. Since \mathfrak{a} and M are finitely generated A-modules, so is $\mathfrak{a}^i M$. For all $j \geq 0$, it follows from (5.3) that

$$N_{i+j} = \mathfrak{a}^j(\mathfrak{a}^i M) + N_{i+j+1} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_j(\mathfrak{a}^i M) + N_{i+j+1}.$$

On the other hand, $\mathfrak{m}_i(\mathfrak{a}^i M) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_i \mathfrak{m}_i M \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_{i+j} M \subseteq N_{i+j}$. This shows

$$N_{i+j} = \mathfrak{m}_j(\mathfrak{a}^i M) + N_{i+j+1}.$$

Define a filtration $\{N_{ij}\}_{j\in\mathbb{Z}}$ on N_i by

$$N_{ij} = \begin{cases} N_i & \text{if } j < 0\\ N_{i+j} & \text{if } j \ge 0. \end{cases}$$

Applying Corollary 11.3.19, we obtain $N_i = \mathfrak{a}^i M$. Since $\mathfrak{a}^i \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_1^i \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_i$, we have $N_i \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_1^i M \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_i M \subseteq N_i$. Hence, $N_i = \mathfrak{m}_1^i M$. If we take $M_i = A_i$, this shows

 $\mathfrak{m}_i = \mathfrak{m}_1^i$, and the proof of (1) is complete. Part (2) follows from (1) and the definitions for \mathfrak{m}_i and N_i . By (5.3), $\mathfrak{m}_1 = \mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{m}_1^2$, which proves Part (3).

EXAMPLE 14.5.3. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal in R such that I/I^2 is a finitely generated R/I-module. Let $\hat{R} = \varprojlim_n R/I^n$ be the separated completion of R. With respect to the filtration $\{\widehat{I^n}\}$, \hat{R} is separated and complete (Corollary 11.1.10). The reader should verify that the inverse system of rings $\{R/I^n\}$ satisfies the hypotheses of Corollary 14.5.2, hence the topology on \hat{R} is the \hat{I} -adic topology. Moreover, $\hat{I}/\hat{I}^2 \cong I/I^2$ is finitely generated over \hat{R}/\hat{I} .

COROLLARY 14.5.4. Let $\{A_i, \phi_j^i\}$ be a directed system of commutative local rings for a directed index set I. Let \mathfrak{m}_i denote the maximal ideal of A_i . For each $i \leq j$, assume $\phi_j^i: A_i \to A_j$ is a local homomorphism of local rings. If $A = \varinjlim A_i$, then the following are true.

- (1) A is a local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} = \varinjlim_{i} \mathfrak{m}_{i}$, each homomorphism $\alpha_{i}: A_{i} \to A$ is a local homomorphism of local rings, and the residue field of A is $\varinjlim_{i} A_{i}/\mathfrak{m}_{i}$.
- (2) If $\mathfrak{m}_i = \mathfrak{m}_i A_i$, for each $i \leq j$, then $\mathfrak{m}_i A = \mathfrak{m}$.
- (3) For each $i \leq j$, assume $\mathfrak{m}_j = \mathfrak{m}_i A_j$ and A_j is a faithfully flat A_i -module. If each A_i is noetherian, then A is noetherian.

PROOF. (1): Let $\mathfrak{m} = \bigcup_i \alpha_i(\mathfrak{m}_i)$. The reader should verify that \mathfrak{m} is the unique maximal ideal of A. Take the direct limit of the exact sequences

$$0 \to \mathfrak{m}_i \to A_i \to A_i/\mathfrak{m}_i \to 0$$

and apply Theorem 6.8.6 to get the exact sequence

$$0 \to \mathfrak{m} \to A \to A/\mathfrak{m} \to 0.$$

- (2): The sequence $\mathfrak{m}_i \otimes_{A_i} A_j \to \mathfrak{m}_j \to 0$ is exact. The functor $\varinjlim_j($) is exact (Theorem 6.8.6) and commutes with tensor products (Proposition 6.8.8). Hence the sequence $\mathfrak{m}_i \otimes_{A_i} A \to \mathfrak{m} \to 0$ is exact.
- (3): By Exercise 6.8.30 and Exercise 7.5.27, A is faithfully flat over each A_i . Therefore, $0 \to \mathfrak{m}_i^n \otimes_{A_i} A \to A_i \otimes_{A_i} A$ is exact, and $\mathfrak{m}_i^n \otimes_{A_i} A \to \mathfrak{m}_i^n A = \mathfrak{m}^n$ is an isomorphism. It follows that

$$\begin{split} \mathfrak{m}^n/\mathfrak{m}^{n+1} &\cong \left(\mathfrak{m}_i^n A\right) / \left(\mathfrak{m}_i^{n+1} A\right) \\ &\cong \left(\mathfrak{m}_i^n/\mathfrak{m}_i^{n+1}\right) \otimes_{A_i} A \\ &\cong \left(\mathfrak{m}_i^n/\mathfrak{m}_i^{n+1}\right) \otimes_{A_i/\mathfrak{m}_i} \left(A_i/\mathfrak{m}_i \otimes_{A_i} A\right) \\ &\cong \left(\mathfrak{m}_i^n/\mathfrak{m}_i^{n+1}\right) \otimes_{A_i/\mathfrak{m}_i} A/\mathfrak{m} \end{split}$$

are isomorphisms of A/\mathfrak{m} -vector spaces. Since A_i is noetherian, $\mathfrak{m}_i^n/\mathfrak{m}_i^{n+1}$ is a finite dimensional A_i/\mathfrak{m}_i -vector space. Therefore, $\mathfrak{m}^n/\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}$ is finite dimensional over A/\mathfrak{m} . Let $\hat{A} = \varprojlim A/\mathfrak{m}^n$. By (2), $\hat{A} = \varprojlim A/\mathfrak{m}_i^n A$, for each i. By Example 14.5.3 and Proposition 11.2.2, \hat{A} is noetherian.

The maximal ideal of \hat{A} is $\hat{\mathfrak{m}}$. By Proposition 11.3.1, we have $\hat{\mathfrak{m}} = \mathfrak{m}\hat{A} = \mathfrak{m}_i\hat{A}$, for each i. Because A is flat over A_i , $(A_i/\mathfrak{m}_i^n) \otimes_{A_i} A$ is flat over A_i/\mathfrak{m}_i^n . Therefore,

$$\hat{A}/\mathfrak{m}_i{}^n\hat{A} = A/\mathfrak{m}_i{}^nA = A_i/\mathfrak{m}_i^n \otimes_{A_i} A$$

is flat over A_i/\mathfrak{m}_i^n . In the terminology of Example 14.4.12 (1), the A_i -module \hat{A} is ideal-wise separated for \mathfrak{m}_i . By (6) implies (1) of Theorem 14.4.13, it follows that \hat{A} is flat over A_i . By Exercise 7.5.27, \hat{A} is faithfully flat over A_i . By Exercise 6.8.31, \hat{A} is faithfully flat over A. By Exercise 7.6.24, A is noetherian.

CHAPTER 15

Normal Integral Domains

1. Normal Rings and Regular Rings

1.1. Normal Integral Domains.

DEFINITION 15.1.1. Let R be an integral domain with quotient field K. If R is integrally closed in K, then we say R is normal. Let $u \in K$. We say u is almost integral over R in case there exists $r \in R - (0)$ such that $ru^n \in R$ for all n > 0. We say R is completely normal in case the set of all elements in K that are almost integral over R is equal to R itself.

Lemma 15.1.2. Let R be an integral domain with quotient field K.

- (1) If $u \in K$ and u is integral over R, then u is almost integral over R.
- (2) If $u, v \in K$ are both almost integral over R, then u + v and uv are almost integral over R.
- (3) If R is noetherian and $u \in K$, then u is almost integral over R if and only if u is integral over R.

PROOF. (1): By Proposition 10.1.2, there exists $m \geq 1$ such that R[u] is generated as an R-module by $1, u, u^2, \ldots, u^{m-1}$. Write u = a/b for some $a, b \in R$. For $i = 1, \ldots, m-1$ we have $b^{m-1}u^i \in R$. The rest is left to the reader.

- (2): Is left to the reader.
- (3): Assume u is almost integral and $r \in R (0)$ such that $ru^n \in R$ for all n > 0. Consider $r^{-1}R$, which is a principal R-submodule of K. Hence R[u] is an R-submodule of the finitely generated R-module $r^{-1}R$. By Corollary 7.6.12, R[u] is finitely generated. By

Proposition 10.1.2, u is integral over R. The converse follows from Part (1). \square

EXAMPLE 15.1.3. If R is a noetherian normal integral domain, then Lemma 15.1.2 (3) implies that R is completely normal. In particular, if R is a UFD, then R is normal by Example 10.1.6. If R is a noetherian UFD, then R is completely normal. If k is a field, then k[x] and k[[x]] are completely normal.

DEFINITION 15.1.4. Let R be a commutative ring. We say R is a normal ring in case R_P is a normal local integral domain for each $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. We say R is a regular ring in case R_P is a regular local ring (see Definition 13.6.14) for each $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$.

LEMMA 15.1.5. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring with the property that $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is an integral domain, for each maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$. Let P_1, \ldots, P_n be the distinct minimal primes of R.

(1) The natural map

$$R \xrightarrow{\phi} R/P_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R/P_n$$

is an isomorphism.

- (2) The nil radical of R, Rad (0), is equal to (0).
- (3) R is a normal ring if and only if each ring R/P_i is a normal integral domain.

PROOF. By Corollary 7.6.15, there are only finitely many minimal prime overideals of (0).

(1) and (2): For each maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$, the local ring $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is an integral domain. If $I = \operatorname{Rad}(0)$ is the nil radical of R, then $I_{\mathfrak{m}} = 0$ for each \mathfrak{m} . By Proposition 7.1.6, I = 0. By Exercise 13.2.18, $P_1 \cap \cdots \cap P_n = (0)$. Suppose \mathfrak{m} is a maximal ideal such that $P_i + P_j \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$. The integral domain $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ has a unique minimal prime ideal, namely (0). This means $P_i R_{\mathfrak{m}} = P_j R_{\mathfrak{m}} = (0)$. By Exercise 7.3.26, we conclude i = j. If n > 1, then the minimal prime ideals of R are pairwise comaximal. The rest follows from the Chinese Remainder Theorem (Theorem 3.3.8).

(3): Is left to the reader.

LEMMA 15.1.6. Let R be a commutative ring.

- (1) If R is a completely normal integral domain, then so is $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$.
- (2) If R is a completely normal integral domain, then so is $R[[x_1, \ldots, x_n]]$.
- (3) If R is a normal ring, then so is $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$.

PROOF. (1): It is enough to prove R[x] is completely normal. Let K be the quotient field of R. We have the tower of subrings $R[x] \subseteq K[x] \subseteq K(x)$ and K(x) is the quotient field of R[x] as well as K[x]. By Example 15.1.3, K[x] is completely normal. Let $u \in K(x)$ and assume u is almost integral over R[x]. Then u is almost integral over K[x], hence $u \in K[x]$. Let $f \in R[x]$ and assume $fu^n \in R[x]$ for all n. Write $u = u_t x^t + u_{t+1} x^{t+1} + \cdots + u_T x^T$, where $u_i \in K$, $t \ge 0$, and $u_t \ne 0$. Write $f = f_s x^s + f_{s+1} x^{s+1} + \cdots + f_S x^S$, where $f_i \in R$, $s \ge 0$, and $f_s \ne 0$. Since R is an integral domain, in fu^n , the coefficient of the lowest degree monomial is equal to $f_s u_t^n$. Therefore, u_t is almost integral over R, hence $u_t \in R$. By Lemma 15.1.2 (2) we see that $u - u_t x^t = u_{t+1} x^{t+1} + \cdots + u_T x^T$ is almost integral over R[x]. By a finite iteration, we can prove that every coefficient of u is in R.

- (2): Mimic the proof of Part (1). The proof is left to the reader.
- (3): It is enough to prove R[x] is normal. Let Q be a prime ideal in R[x]. We need to show $R[x]_Q$ is a normal integral domain. Let $P = Q \cap R$. Then $R[x]_Q$ is a localization of $R_P[x]$. By assumption, R_P is a normal integral domain. By Proposition 10.1.9, it is enough to prove the result when R is a local normal integral domain. Let K be the quotient field of R. Let $u \in K(x)$ and assume u is integral over R[x]. Then u is integral over K[x] and K[x] is integrally closed, so $u \in K[x]$. We can write $u = u_r x^r + \cdots + u_1 x + u_0$ where each $u_i \in K$. Each u_i can be represented as a fraction $u_i = t_i/b_i$, for some $t_i, b_i \in R$. There is a monic polynomial $f(y) \in R[x][y]$ such that f(u) = 0. Write $f(y) = y^m + f_{m-1}y^{m-1} + \cdots + f_1y + f_0$, where each $f_i \in R[x]$. Let S be the subring of R generated by $1, b_0, \ldots, b_r, t_0, \ldots, t_r$, together with all of the coefficients of all of the polynomials f_0, \ldots, f_{m-1} . Since S is a finitely generated \mathbb{Z} -algebra, S is noetherian, by the Hilbert Basis Theorem (Theorem 10.2.1). Also, S is an integral domain and $S[x] \subseteq R[x]$. If F is the quotient field of S, then $F \subseteq K$ and $u \in F[x]$. Therefore, u is integral over S[x]. By the proof of Part (1), each coefficient of u is almost integral over S. By

Lemma 15.1.2 (3), each coefficient of u is integral over S. Therefore, each coefficient of u is integral over R. Since R is integrally closed, this proves $u \in R[x]$.

Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal of R such that the I-adic topology of R is separated. In this case, $\bigcap_n I^n = (0)$. As in Example 11.2.3, let $\operatorname{gr}_I(R) = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} I^n/I^{n+1}$ be the graded ring associated to the I-adic filtration $R = I^0 \supset I^1 \supseteq I^2 \supset \ldots$ For notational simplicity, set $\operatorname{gr}_n(R) = I^n/I^{n+1}$. Then $\operatorname{gr}_I(R) = \operatorname{gr}_0(R) \oplus \operatorname{gr}_1(R) \oplus \operatorname{gr}_2(R) \oplus \cdots$. Given $x \in R - (0)$, there exists a unique nonnegative integer n such that $x \in I^n$ and $x \notin I^{n+1}$. This integer n is called the *order of* x with respect to I, and is written $\operatorname{ord}(x)$. Define $\operatorname{ord}(0) = \infty$. The reader should verify that $\operatorname{ord}(xy) \geq \operatorname{ord}(x) + \operatorname{ord}(y)$ and $\operatorname{ord}(x+y) \geq \min(\operatorname{ord}(x), \operatorname{ord}(y))$.

If $x \neq 0$ and $n = \operatorname{ord}(x)$, then the image of x in $\operatorname{gr}_n(R) = I^n/I^{n+1}$ is denoted $\lambda(x)$. We call $\lambda(x)$ the least form of x. Define $\lambda(0) = 0$.

Theorem 15.1.7. Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal of R such that the I-adic topology of R is separated.

- (1) If $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ is an integral domain, then R is an integral domain and for any $x,y\in R$, $\operatorname{ord}(xy)=\operatorname{ord}(x)+\operatorname{ord}(y)$ and $\lambda(xy)=\lambda(x)\lambda(y)$.
- (2) If R is noetherian, I is contained in the Jacobson radical of R, and $gr_I(R)$ is a normal integral domain, then R is a normal integral domain.

PROOF. (1): Let x and y be nonzero elements of R. Write $m = \operatorname{ord}(x)$ and $n = \operatorname{ord}(y)$. Then $\lambda(x) \in \operatorname{gr}_m(R)$ is nonzero and $\lambda(y) \in \operatorname{gr}_n(R)$ is nonzero. Since $\lambda(x)\lambda(y)$ is a nonzero element of $\operatorname{gr}_{m+n}(R)$, we have $xy \in I^{m+n}$ and $xy \notin I^{m+n+1}$. This proves $xy \neq 0$. This also proves $\operatorname{ord}(xy) = \operatorname{ord}(x) + \operatorname{ord}(y)$ and $\lambda(xy) = \lambda(x)\lambda(y)$.

(2): By Part (1), R is an integral domain. Let a/b be an element of the quotient field of R which is integral over R. We must prove that $a \in bR$. By Corollary 11.3.6, the I-adic topology of R/bR is separated. In other words, $bR = \bigcap_n (bR + I^n)$, and it suffices to prove $a \in bR + I^n$ for all $n \geq 0$. The n = 0 case is trivially true, since $I^0 = R$. Inductively assume n > 0 and that $a \in bR + I^{n-1}$. Write a = bx + c, for some $c \in I^{n-1}$ and $x \in R$. It is enough to prove $c \in bR + I^n$. Assume $c \neq 0$, otherwise the proof is trivial. Since c/b = a/b + x is integral over R, c/b is almost integral over R, by Lemma 15.1.2. There exists $d \in R - (0)$ such that $d(c/b)^m \in R$ for all m > 0. Therefore, $dc^m \in b^m R$ for all m > 0. By Part (1), λ is multiplicative, so $\lambda(d)\lambda(c)^m \in \lambda(b)^m \operatorname{gr}_I(R)$, for all m. This implies $\lambda(c)/\lambda(b)$ is almost integral over $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$. By Proposition 11.2.9, $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ is noetherian. By Lemma 15.1.2, $\lambda(c)/\lambda(b)$ is integral over $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$. By hypothesis, $\operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ is integrally closed, hence $\lambda(c) \in \lambda(b) \operatorname{gr}_I(R)$. Since $\lambda(c)$ is homogeneous, there exists a homogeneous element $\lambda(e) \in \operatorname{gr}_I(R)$ such that $\lambda(c) = \lambda(b)\lambda(e)$. By Part (1), $\lambda(c) = \lambda(be)$. By definition of λ , this implies $\operatorname{ord}(c) < \operatorname{ord}(c - be)$. By choice of c we have $n-1 < \operatorname{ord}(c) < \operatorname{ord}(c-be)$. Thus, $c-be \in I^n$, which proves $c \in bR + I^n$.

1.2. Regular Local Rings. A generalization of Theorem 15.1.8 for the ideal generated by a regular sequence in a commutative noetherian ring is proved in Corollary 15.3.7.

THEOREM 15.1.8. Let R be a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , and residue field $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$. Then R is a regular local ring of Krull dimension n if and

only if the graded ring $gr_{\mathfrak{m}}(R)$ associated to the \mathfrak{m} -adic filtration is isomorphic as a graded k-algebra to a polynomial ring $k[t_1,\ldots,t_n]$.

PROOF. Assume that R is regular. By Definition 13.6.14, \mathfrak{m} is generated by a regular system of parameters, say $\mathfrak{m} = x_1R + \cdots + x_nR$. By Example 11.2.3, $\operatorname{gr}_{\mathfrak{m}}(R) = R/\mathfrak{m} \oplus \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2 \oplus \mathfrak{m}^2/\mathfrak{m}^3 \oplus \cdots$ is a $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$ -algebra which is generated by $\lambda(x_1), \ldots, \lambda(x_n)$. As in the proof of Proposition 13.6.7, let $S = k[t_1, \ldots, t_n]$ and define $\theta: S \to \operatorname{gr}_{\mathfrak{m}}(R)$ by $\theta(t_i) = \lambda(x_i)$. Then θ is a graded homomorphism of graded k-algebras and θ is onto. Let I denote the kernel of θ . Then I is a graded ideal, hence is generated by homogeneous polynomials. If I = (0), then we are done. For contradiction's sake, assume f is a homogeneous polynomial of degree N in I. The sequence of graded S-modules

$$0 \to S(-N) \xrightarrow{\ell_f} S \to S/fS \to 0$$

is exact, where S(-N) is the twisted module. If m > N, the components of degree m give the sequence

$$0 \to S_{m-N} \xrightarrow{\ell_f} S_m \to (S/fS)_m \to 0$$

which is still exact. By Example 13.5.10,

$$\sum_{d=0}^{m} \ell(S_d) = \binom{n}{n} + \dots + \binom{m-1+n}{n} = \binom{m+n}{n},$$

and

$$\sum_{d=0}^{m-N} \ell(S_d) = \binom{n}{n} + \dots + \binom{m-N-1+n}{n} = \binom{m-N+n}{n}.$$

Since

$$(S/fS)_0 \oplus (S/fS)_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus (S/fS)_m \xrightarrow{\theta} R/\mathfrak{m} \oplus \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathfrak{m}^m/\mathfrak{m}^{m+1}$$

is onto, applying the length function, we have

$$\binom{m+n}{n}-\binom{m-N+n}{n}\geq \ell\left(R/\mathfrak{m}^{m+1}\right).$$

The left hand side is a numerical polynomial in m of degree n-1, by Lemma 13.5.8. At the same time, Theorem 13.6.11 says the function $\ell(A/\mathfrak{m}^{m+1})$ is a polynomial in m of degree n. This contradiction implies I=(0).

Conversely, assume $\operatorname{gr}_{\mathfrak{m}}(R)$ is isomorphic to a polynomial ring $k[t_1,\ldots,t_n]$. The Hilbert function of R is therefore $\ell(R/\mathfrak{m}^{m+1}) = \binom{m+n}{n}$, a polynomial in m of degree n. Corollary 13.6.13 says R has Krull dimension n. Also, $\dim_k \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2 = \dim_k(kt_1 + \cdots + kt_n) = n$. By Exercise 13.6.17, R is regular.

Corollary 15.1.9. If R is a commutative noetherian regular local ring, then R is a normal integral domain.

PROOF. This follows from Theorem 15.1.7 and Theorem 15.1.8.
$$\Box$$

COROLLARY 15.1.10. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . Let $\hat{R} = \varprojlim R/\mathfrak{m}^n$ be the completion of R with respect to the \mathfrak{m} -adic topology.

- (1) \hat{R} is a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal $\hat{\mathfrak{m}} = \mathfrak{m}\hat{R}$.
- (2) The Krull dimension of R is equal to the Krull dimension of \hat{R} .

- (3) $R \to \hat{R}$ is faithfully flat.
- (4) R is a regular local ring if and only if \hat{R} is a regular local ring.

PROOF. (1): Follows from Corollary 11.1.12 and Corollary 11.3.18.

- (2): This is Corollary 13.6.13 (4).
- (3): Follows from Theorem 11.3.7.
- (4): By Corollary 11.3.2, the associated graded rings $\operatorname{gr}_{\mathfrak{m}}(R)$ and $\operatorname{gr}_{\hat{\mathfrak{m}}}(\hat{R})$ are isomorphic as graded rings. Part (4) follows from Theorem 15.1.8.

1.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 15.1.11. Let k be an algebraically closed field of characteristic different from 2 and 3 and let x and y be indeterminates. Let $f = y^2 - x^2 + x^3$ and R = k[x,y]/(f). Define $\alpha: k[x] \to R$ by $x \mapsto x$.

- (1) Show that α is one-to-one.
- (2) Show that R is a finitely generated k[x]-module.
- (3) Show that R is not a separable k[x]-module.
- (4) Show that R is an integral domain.
- (5) Show that R is not a normal integral domain.

2. Valuations and Valuation Rings

2.1. Valuation Rings. In this section we employ the notation R^* to designate the group of invertible elements of a ring.

Lemma 15.2.1. Let R be an integral domain with quotient field K. The following are equivalent.

- (1) For all $x \in K^*$, either $x \in R$, or $x^{-1} \in R$.
- (2) For all a, b in R, either $a \mid b$, or $b \mid a$.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.

If R is an integral domain that satisfies the equivalent parts of Lemma 15.2.1, then we say R is a valuation ring of K.

Let G be an abelian group, written additively. We say G is an *ordered group*, if there is a partial order on G that preserves the binary operation. In other words, if $u \leq v$ and $x \leq y$, then $u + x \leq v + y$. We say G is a *totally ordered group*, if the partial order is a chain.

EXAMPLE 15.2.2. The set \mathbb{R} is partially ordered by the usual "less than" relation. Under addition, \mathbb{R} is a totally ordered group. The subgroup \mathbb{Z} is also a totally ordered group.

A valuation on a field F is a function $\nu: F^* \to G$, for a totally ordered group G which satisfies

- (1) $\nu(xy) = \nu(x) + \nu(y)$, and
- (2) if $x + y \neq 0$, then $\nu(x + y) \geq \min(\nu(x), \nu(y))$.

The reader should verify that $\nu(1) = 0$.

LEMMA 15.2.3. Suppose F is a field and $\nu: F^* \to G$ is a valuation on F. Let

$$R = \{0\} \cup \{x \in F^* \mid \nu(x) > 0\}.$$

Then R is a valuation ring of F which we call the valuation ring associated to ν . Conversely, if R is a valuation ring of F, then there exists a valuation $v: F^* \to H$ for some totally ordered group H such that R is the valuation ring of v.

PROOF. Is left to the reader (see Exercise 15.2.8).

Let F be a field and $R \subseteq S$ subrings of F. Assume R and S are local rings and that the inclusion homomorphism $R \to S$ is a local homomorphism of local rings (or, equivalently, the maximal ideal of S contains the maximal ideal of S). In this case, we say S dominates S. The reader should verify that this defines a partial order on the set of all local subrings of S.

LEMMA 15.2.4. Let F be a field and $\nu: F^* \to G$ a valuation on F. Let R be the valuation ring of ν .

- (1) R is a local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}_R = \{0\} \cup \{x \in F^* \mid \nu(x) > 0\}.$
- (2) If $R \subseteq A \subseteq F$ is a tower of local subrings of F such that A dominates R, then R = A. In other words, R is a maximal local subring with respect to the relation "dominates".
- (3) R is integrally closed in F.

PROOF. (1) and (2): Are left to the reader.

(3): Let $x \in F$ and assume x is integral over R. We prove $x \in R$. Assume the contrary. By Lemma 15.2.1, $x^{-1} \in R$. Since x is integral over R, there are elements r_0, \ldots, r_{n-1} in R such that

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

where n > 0. Multiply by x^{1-n} and solve for x. Then

$$x = -(x^{-1})^{n-1}(r_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + r_1x + r_0)$$

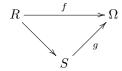
= $-(r_{n-1} + \dots + r_1x^{2-n} + r_0x^{1-n})$

is in R, a contradiction.

Let F be a field and Ω an algebraically closed field. Consider the set

 $\mathcal{C}(\Omega) = \{(R, f) \mid R \text{ is a subring of } F \text{ and } f : R \to \Omega \text{ is a homomorphism of rings}\}.$

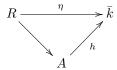
If (R, F) and (S, g) are in C, then we say (S, g) extends (R, f), in case $R \subseteq S$ and the diagram



commutes. The reader should verify that this defines a partial order on $\mathcal{C}(\Omega)$.

LEMMA 15.2.5. Let F be a field, R a local subring of F which is maximal with respect to the relation "dominates". Let \mathfrak{m}_R be the maximal ideal of R and $k_R = R/\mathfrak{m}$ the residue field. Let \bar{k} be an algebraic closure of k_R and $\eta: R \to \bar{k}$ the natural map. Then (R, η) is a maximal element of $C(\bar{k})$.

PROOF. Assume $R \subseteq A \subseteq F$ is a tower of subrings of F and $h: A \to \bar{k}$ is a homomorphism that extends η . The diagram



commutes. If P denotes the kernel of h, then it is easy to see that $P \cap R = \mathfrak{m}_R$. Then $R \to A_P$ is a local homomorphism of local rings and A_P dominates R. By hypothesis, R is equal to A_P . We conclude that R = A.

LEMMA 15.2.6. Let F be a field, Ω an algebraically closed field, and (R, f) a maximal element of $\mathcal{C}(\Omega)$. Then R is a valuation ring of F.

PROOF. Step 1: R is a local ring, with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}=\ker g$. Since the image of f is a subring of the field Ω , we know that $\mathfrak{m}=\ker g$ is a prime ideal of R. Consider the tower of subrings of F, $R\subseteq R_P\subseteq F$. By Theorem 3.5.5, f extends uniquely to $g:R_P\to\Omega$. By maximality of (R,f), we conclude that $R=R_P$. Therefore, R is local and \mathfrak{m} is the maximal ideal.

Step 2: For any nonzero $\alpha \in F$, either $\mathfrak{m}R[\alpha] \neq R[\alpha]$, or $\mathfrak{m}R[\alpha^{-1}] \neq R[\alpha^{-1}]$. Assume the contrary. Then $\mathfrak{m}[\alpha] = R[\alpha]$ and $\mathfrak{m}[\alpha^{-1}] = R[\alpha]$. There exist elements $a_0, \ldots, a_m \in \mathfrak{m}$ such that

$$(2.1) 1 = a_0 + a_1 \alpha + \dots + a_m \alpha^m.$$

Among all such relations, pick one such that m is minimal. Likewise, there is a relation

$$(2.2) 1 = b_0 + b_1 \alpha^{-1} + \dots + b_n \alpha^{-n}$$

where $b_0, \ldots, b_n \in \mathfrak{m}$ and n is minimal. Without loss of generality assume $m \geq n$. Multiply (2.2) by α^n and rearrange to get

$$(1 - b_0)\alpha^n = b_1\alpha^{n-1} + \dots + b_n.$$

By Step 1, R is a local ring, so $1 - b_0$ is invertible in R. Solve for α^n and we can write

$$\alpha^n = c_1 \alpha^{n-1} + \dots + c_n$$

for some $c_1, \ldots, c_n \in \mathfrak{m}$. Multiply by α^{m-n} to get $\alpha^m = c_1 \alpha^{m-1} + \cdots + c_n \alpha^{m-n}$. Substituting this in (2.1), we get a relation with degree less than m, a contradiction.

Step 3: Let $\alpha \in F^*$ and prove that either $\alpha \in R$, or $\alpha^{-1} \in R$. Without loss of generality we assume by Step 2 that $\mathfrak{m}R[\alpha] \neq R[\alpha]$. Let M be a maximal ideal of $R[\alpha]$ such that $\mathfrak{m}R[\alpha] \subseteq M$. Now $M \cap R$ is a prime ideal of R which contains the maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . Hence $M \cap R = \mathfrak{m}$ and we can view $R[\alpha]/M$ as an extension field of R/\mathfrak{m} . The field $R[\alpha]/M$ is generated as an algebra over R/\mathfrak{m} by the image of α . Therefore, $R[\alpha]/M$ is a finitely generated algebraic extension of R/\mathfrak{m} . By Corollary 5.3.9, there exists a homomorphism $R[\alpha] \to \Omega$ which extends $f: R \to \Omega$. Since (R, f) is maximal, we conclude that $R = R[\alpha]$.

Theorem 15.2.7. Let F be a field and R a subring of F.

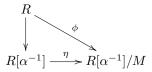
(1) Let Ω be an algebraically closed field and $f: R \to \Omega$ a homomorphism of rings. Then there exists a valuation ring A of F and a homomorphism

 $g: A \to \Omega$ such that (A, g) extends (R, f) and the kernel of g is equal to the maximal ideal of A.

- (2) If R is a local ring, then there exists a valuation ring A of F such that A dominates R.
- (3) The integral closure of R in F is equal to the intersection of the valuation rings of F that contain R.
- (4) If R is a local ring, then the integral closure of R in F is equal to the intersection of the valuation rings of F that dominate R.

PROOF. (2): Take Ω to be an algebraic closure of the residue field of R and let $\eta: R \to \Omega$ be the natural map. Apply Part (1).

- (1): Let \mathfrak{C} be the subset of $\mathcal{C}(\Omega)$ consisting of those pairs (A,g) that extend (R,f). Then \mathfrak{C} contains (R,f), hence is nonempty. Suppose $\{(A_i,f_i)\}$ is a chain in \mathfrak{C} . The reader should verify that the union $\cup f_i : \cup A_i \to \Omega$ is also in \mathfrak{C} . By Zorn's Lemma, Proposition 1.3.3, \mathfrak{C} contains a maximal member, say (A,g). By Lemma 15.2.6, A is a valuation ring of F and the kernel of f is the maximal ideal of A.
- (3): Let R be the integral closure of R in F. Let A be a valuation ring of F which contains R. By Lemma 15.2.4 (3), A is integrally closed. Therefore $\tilde{R} \subseteq A$. Conversely, suppose $\alpha \in F \tilde{R}$. The reader should verify that $\alpha \notin R[\alpha^{-1}]$, so α^{-1} is not invertible in $R[\alpha^{-1}]$. There exists a maximal ideal M of $R[\alpha^{-1}]$ such that $\alpha^{-1} \in M$. By Part (2), there exists a valuation ring A of F which dominates the local ring $R[\alpha^{-1}]_M$. Because α^{-1} is an element of the maximal ideal of A, A does not contain α .
 - (4): In the proof of Part (3), notice that the diagram



commutes. Since $\eta(\alpha^{-1}) = 0$, the image of ϕ is equal to the image of η . Therefore, ϕ is onto and the kernel of ϕ is a maximal ideal of R. If R is local with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , this proves $M \cap R = \mathfrak{m}$. The rest is left to the reader.

2.2. Exercise.

EXERCISE 15.2.8. This exercise outlines a proof to the last part of Lemma 15.2.3. Let F be a field and R a valuation ring of F. Define G to be the factor group F^*/R^* . There is a natural homomorphism of groups $\nu: F^* \to G$. The group G is an abelian group, written multiplicatively. If $x \in F^*$, the coset represented by x is denoted $\nu(x)$.

- (1) Define a binary relation on G by the rule $\nu(x) \geq \nu(y)$ if and only if $xy^{-1} \in R$. Prove the following.
 - (a) \geq is a well defined binary relation on G.
 - (b) \geq is a partial order on G.
 - (c) \geq preserves the group law on G, hence G is an ordered group.
 - (d) \geq is a chain, hence G is a totally ordered group.
- (2) $\nu: F^* \to G$ is a valuation on F.
- (3) The valuation ring of ν is R.

2.3. Discrete Valuation Rings. If F is a field, a discrete valuation on F is a valuation $\nu: F^* \to \mathbb{Z}$ such that ν is onto. The valuation ring of ν is $R = \{0\} \cup \{x \in F^* \mid \nu(x) \geq 0\}$. Then R is a valuation ring of F. In particular, Lemma 15.2.4 implies that R is a local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} = \{0\} \cup \{x \in F^* \mid \nu(x) > 0\}$, F is the field of fractions of R, and R is integrally closed in F. Since ν is onto, we see that $\mathfrak{m} \neq (0)$, so dim $R \geq 1$. An integral domain A is called a discrete valuation ring (DVR), if there exists a discrete valuation on the field of fractions of A such that A is the associated valuation ring.

LEMMA 15.2.9. Let F be a field and ν a discrete valuation on F. Let R be the associated DVR, with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} .

- (1) R is a PID.
- (2) R is noetherian.
- (3) For any element $\pi \in R$ such that $\nu(\pi) = 1$, $\mathfrak{m} = \pi R$. A complete list of the ideals of R is $(0), R\pi, R\pi^2, \ldots, R$.
- (4) $\dim R = 1$.

PROOF. (1): Let I be a proper ideal in R. Then $I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$. Consider the set $S = \{\nu(x) \mid x \in I - (0)\}$. This is a nonempty subset of \mathbb{Z} which has a lower bound. By the Well Ordering Principle, Axiom 1.2.1, there exists a least element, say $\nu(z)$. For any $x \in I$, we have $\nu(x/z) \geq 0$, so $x/z \in R$. Therefore, $x = z(x/z) \in Rz$. This proves that I = Rz is principal.

- (2): Follows from (1) and Theorem 3.4.16.
- (3): If $x, y \in R$, then x and y are associates if and only if Rx = Ry, if and only if $xy^{-1} \in R^*$, if and only if $\nu(x) = \nu(y)$. Since $\nu : F^* \to \mathbb{Z}$ is onto, there exists $\pi \in R$ such that $\nu(\pi) = 1$. Let I be a proper ideal of R. By Part (1), I = Rz for some $z \in R$. Since I is proper, $\nu(z) = k > 0$. Then $\nu(z) = \nu(\pi^k)$, so $Rz = R\pi^k$. This proves every ideal of R is represented in the list. For $i \geq 0$, the ideals $R\pi^i$ are distinct, since π^i and π^j are associates if and only if i = j.
 - (4): See Example 13.6.1. \Box

Theorem 15.2.10. Let R be a noetherian local integral domain with field of fractions K, maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$. If $\dim(R) = 1$, the following are equivalent.

- (1) R is a DVR.
- (2) R is a PID.
- (3) R is regular.
- (4) R is normal.
- (5) m is a principal ideal.
- (6) There exists an element $\pi \in R$ such that every ideal of R is of the form $R\pi^n$, for some $n \geq 0$. We call π a local parameter for R.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): This is Lemma 15.2.9.

- (2) implies (1): There exists $\pi \in R$ such that $\mathfrak{m} = R\pi$. The only prime ideals of R are \mathfrak{m} and (0). By Exercise 3.5.10, any $x \in K^*$ can be factored uniquely as $x = u\pi^{\nu(x)}$ for some integer $\nu(x)$ and $u \in R^*$. The reader should verify that the function $\nu: K^* \to \mathbb{Z}$ is a discrete valuation on K, R is the valuation ring associated to ν , and the function ν does not depend on the choice of π .
- (2) implies (3): There exists $\pi \in R$ such that $\mathfrak{m} = R\pi$. Then π is a regular system of parameters and R is regular, by Definition 13.6.14.

- (3) implies (4): Corollary 15.1.9.
- (4) implies (5): Let $x \in \mathfrak{m} (0)$. Since $\dim(R) = 1$, the only prime ideal that contains Rx is \mathfrak{m} . Therefore, $\operatorname{Rad}(Rx) = \mathfrak{m}$. By Corollary 13.1.4, there exists n > 0 such that $\mathfrak{m}^n \subseteq Rx$. If $\mathfrak{m} = Rx$, then we are done. Otherwise pick n such that $\mathfrak{m}^{n-1} \not\subseteq Rx$. Let $y \in \mathfrak{m}^{n-1} Rx$ and set $\pi = xy^{-1} \in K$. Then $y\mathfrak{m} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}^n \subseteq Rx$ implies $\pi^{-1}\mathfrak{m} = yx^{-1}\mathfrak{m} \subseteq R$. Since $\pi^{-1}x = y \not\in Rx$ it follows that $\pi^{-1} \not\in R$. Since R is integrally closed in K, it follows that π^{-1} is not integral over R. If $\pi^{-1}\mathfrak{m} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$, then \mathfrak{m} is a faithful $R[\pi^{-1}]$ -module which is finitely generated as an R-module. Proposition 10.1.2 implies π^{-1} is integral over R, a contradiction. Therefore, $\pi^{-1}\mathfrak{m}$ is an ideal in R which is not contained in \mathfrak{m} . This means $\pi^{-1}\mathfrak{m} = R$, $\pi \in \mathfrak{m}$, and $\mathfrak{m} = R\pi$.
- (5) implies (6): Let I be a proper ideal of R. Then $I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$. Since $\dim(R) = 1$, R is not artinian. By Proposition 8.4.5, for all $n \geq 1$, $\mathfrak{m}^{n+1} \subsetneq \mathfrak{m}^n$. There exists $n \geq 1$ such that $I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}^n$ and $I \not\subseteq \mathfrak{m}^{n+1}$. Pick $y \in I$ such that $y \in \mathfrak{m}^n$ and $y \not\in \mathfrak{m}^{n+1}$. There exists $\pi \in R$ such that $\mathfrak{m} = R\pi$. For some $u \in R$, we can write $y = u\pi^n$. Since $y \not\in \mathfrak{m}^{n+1}$, we know that $u \in R \mathfrak{m}$. That is, $u \in R^*$. It follows that $\pi^n = u^{-1}y \in I$, so $I = \mathfrak{m}^n$.
 - (6) implies (2): Is trivial. \Box
 - 2.3.1. Completion of a Discrete Valuation Ring.

THEOREM 15.2.11. Let R be a DVR with field of fractions K and maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} = \pi R$. Let $\hat{R} = \varprojlim R/\mathfrak{m}^n$ be the completion of R with respect to the \mathfrak{m} -adic topology.

- (1) \hat{R} is a DVR with maximal ideal $\hat{\mathfrak{m}} = \pi \hat{R}$.
- (2) K is equal to the localization $R[\pi^{-1}]$.
- (3) The quotient field of \hat{R} is $\hat{K} = \hat{R} \otimes_R K$.
- (4) \hat{K} is equal to the localization $\hat{R}[\pi^{-1}]$.
- (5) $\hat{R} \cap K = R$.
- (6) Given $a \in R$ and p > 0 there exists $b \in R$ such that $a b \in \mathfrak{m}^p$.
- (7) Given $a \in \hat{K}$ and p > 0 there exists $b \in K$ such that $a b \in \hat{\mathfrak{m}}^p$.

PROOF. (1) – (4): By Corollary 15.1.10, \hat{R} is a DVR with maximal ideal $\hat{\mathbf{m}} = \pi \hat{R}$ and $R \to \hat{R}$ is faithfully flat. It follows from Theorem 15.2.10 that K is generated as an R-algebra by π^{-1} . By the same argument, the field of fractions of \hat{R} is generated by π^{-1} . Consider the exact sequence $R[x] \to K \to 0$ where $x \mapsto \pi^{-1}$. Tensor with \hat{R} to get the exact sequence $\hat{R}[x] \to \hat{K} \to 0$. Therefore, \hat{K} is generated as a \hat{R} -algebra by π^{-1} , so \hat{K} is equal to the field of fractions of \hat{R} .

- (5): Let $a \in \hat{R} \cap K$. Since $a \in \hat{R}$, $\nu(a) \geq 0$. Then a is in the valuation ring of K, which is equal to R.
- (6): Since R is the completion of R with respect to the \mathfrak{m} -adic topology, the open set $a + \mathfrak{m}^p$ has a nontrivial intersection with R.

(7): Is left to the reader.

3. Some Local Algebra

3.1. Regular Sequences. Let R be a commutative ring, M an R-module, and a_1, \ldots, a_n some elements of R. We denote by $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = Ra_1 + \cdots + Ra_n$ the ideal which they generate and in the same fashion $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)M = Ra_1M + \cdots + Ra_nM$.

DEFINITION 15.3.1. Let a_1, \ldots, a_r be elements of R. We say a_1, \ldots, a_r is a regular sequence for M in case the following are satisfied.

- (1) a_1 is not a zero divisor for M,
- (2) for k = 2, ..., r, a_k is not a zero divisor for $M/(a_1, ..., a_{k-1})M$, and
- (3) $M \neq (a_1, \ldots, a_r)M$.

If this is true, and if I is an ideal of R such that $(a_1, \ldots, a_r) \subseteq I$, then we say a_1, \ldots, a_r is a regular sequence for M in I. A regular sequence a_1, \ldots, a_r is maximal if there is no $b \in I$ such that a_1, \ldots, a_r, b is a regular sequence for M in I.

EXAMPLE 15.3.2. Let R be a regular local ring of dimension n and maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . By Definition 13.6.14, \mathfrak{m} is generated by a regular system of parameters, say $\mathfrak{m} = x_1 R + \cdots + x_n R$. We will show in Theorem 15.3.31(1) that x_1, \ldots, x_n is a regular sequence for R in \mathfrak{m} .

LEMMA 15.3.3. Suppose a_1, \ldots, a_r is a regular sequence for M. If ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_r are elements of M and $\sum_{i=1}^r a_i \xi_i = 0$, then for all $i, \xi_i \in (a_1, \ldots, a_r)M$.

PROOF. If r=1, then $a_1\xi_1=0$ implies $\xi_1=0$. Inductively assume r>1 and that the result is true for a regular sequence of length r-1. We have $a_r\xi_r\in(a_1,\ldots,a_{r-1})M$, which implies $\xi_r\in(a_1,\ldots,a_{r-1})M$. Write $\xi_r=\sum_{i=1}^{r-1}a_i\zeta_i$, for some $\zeta_i\in M$. Hence $0=\sum_{i=1}^{r-1}a_i\xi_i+a_r\sum_{i=1}^{r-1}a_i\zeta_i$. By the induction hypothesis, for each $1\leq i< r,\ \xi_i+a_r\zeta_i\in(a_1,\ldots,a_{r-1})M$. Consequently each ξ_i is in $(a_1,\ldots,a_r)M$.

Let $S=R[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ be the polynomial ring in n variables with coefficients in R. Give S the usual grading, where $S_0=R$ and $\deg(x_i)=1$, for each i. By $M[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ we denote the R-module $M\otimes_R R[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$. An element f of $M[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ can be viewed as a polynomial $f(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ with coefficients in M. Give $T=M[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ the grading where $T_0=M$ and $\deg(x_i)=1$, for each i. If $(a_1,\ldots,a_n)\in R^n$, then $f(a_1,\ldots,a_n)\in (a_1,\ldots,a_n)M$. Let $I=(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$ and $\gcd_I(M)=\bigoplus_{k=1}^\infty I^kM/I^{k+1}M$ the graded module associated to the I-adic filtration of M. Given a homogeneous polynomial $f\in T_k$, $f(a_1,\ldots,a_n)\in I^kM$. There is an evaluation mapping

$$\phi_k: T_k \to I^k M/I^{k+1} M$$

which maps f to the coset of $f(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$. The reader should verify that ϕ_k is onto. Sum over all k to get a graded homomorphism $\phi: T \to \operatorname{gr}_I(M)$. If $f \in IM[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is homogeneous of degree k, then $f(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in I^{k+1}M$. So ϕ factors into

$$\phi: M/IM[x_1,\ldots,x_n] \to \operatorname{gr}_I(M)$$

which is a surjective graded homomorphism. If ϕ is an isomorphism, then a_1, \ldots, a_n is called a *quasi-regular sequence for M*.

LEMMA 15.3.4. Let R be a commutative ring, M an R-module, $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in R$, $I = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) a_1, \ldots, a_n is a quasi-regular sequence for M.
- (2) If $f \in M[x_1, ..., x_n]$ is a homogeneous polynomial and $f(a_1, ..., a_n) = 0$, then $f \in IM[x_1, ..., x_n]$.

PROOF. (1) implies (2): Suppose f is homogeneous of degree k and $f(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = 0$. Since ϕ is one-to-one, f is in $IM[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$.

(2) implies (1): Suppose f is homogeneous of degree k and that $f(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in I^{k+1}M$. If k=0, then this implies $f \in IM$ and we are done. Suppose $k \geq 1$. Since $I^{k+1}M = I^kIM$, there is a homogeneous polynomial $g \in IM[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ such that $f(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = g(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$. If f = g, then we can stop. Otherwise, f - g is a homogeneous polynomial of degree k such that $(f - g)(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = 0$. Then $f - g \in IM[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, hence $f \in IM[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$.

DEFINITION 15.3.5. Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. If S is a submodule of M and I is an ideal of R, then the module quotient of S over I is defined to be $S:I=\{x\in M\mid Ix\subseteq S\}$. If M is R and S is an ideal of R, this definition agrees with the ideal quotient defined in Exercise 3.2.30. If A is a commutative ring containing R as a subring, then R:A is called the conductor ideal from A to R (see Exercise 4.1.25).

THEOREM 15.3.6. Let R be a commutative ring, M an R-module, $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in R$, $I = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$.

- (1) Assume a_1, \ldots, a_n is a quasi-regular sequence for M and x is an element of R such that IM : x = IM. Then $I^kM : x = I^kM$ for all k > 0.
- (2) If a_1, \ldots, a_n is a regular sequence for M, then a_1, \ldots, a_n is a quasi-regular sequence for M.
- (3) Assume
 - (a) M, $M/(a_1)M$, $M/(a_1, a_2)M$, ..., $M/(a_1, ..., a_{n-1})M$ are separated for the I-adic topology, and
 - (b) a_1, \ldots, a_n is a quasi-regular sequence for M. Then a_1, \ldots, a_n is a regular sequence for M.

PROOF. (1): Inductively assume k>1 and that the result is true for k-1. Suppose $x\xi\in I^kM=II^{k-1}M\subseteq I^{k-1}M$. By the induction hypothesis, $\xi\in I^{k-1}M$. There exists a homogeneous polynomial $f(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ in $M[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ of degree k-1 such that $\xi=f(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$. Thus $x\xi=xf(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$ is in I^kM . By quasi-regularity, the polynomial xf is in $IM[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$, which implies the coefficients of f are in IM: x=IM. So $\xi=f(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$ is in I^kM .

(2): The proof is by induction on n. The basis step, n=1, is left to the reader. Assume n>1 and that the result is true for a regular sequence of length n-1. Let f in $M[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ be a homogeneous polynomial of degree k and assume $f(a_1,\ldots,a_n)=0$. By Lemma 15.3.4, it suffices to show f is in $IM[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$. If k=0 this is trivial. If k=1, this is Lemma 15.3.3. Proceed by induction on k. Assume k>1 and that for any such homogeneous polynomial of degree k-1, its coefficients are in IM. Write

$$f(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = x_n g(x_1,\ldots,x_n) + h(x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1})$$

where g and h are homogeneous polynomials of degrees k-1 and k respectively. Then $f(a_1,\ldots,a_n)=a_ng(a_1,\ldots,a_n)+h(a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1})=0$, which says $g(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$ is in the set $(a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1})^kM:a_n$. Because a_1,\ldots,a_n is a regular sequence, $(a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1})M:a_n$ is equal to $(a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1})M$. By our induction hypothesis, a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1} is quasi-regular. Part (1) implies that $g(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$ is in $(a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1})^kM\subseteq I^kM$. Now g is homogeneous of degree k-1 and by induction on k and the proof of Lemma 15.3.4, this implies $g(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ is in $IM[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$. Because $g(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$ is in $(a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1})^kM$, there exists a homogeneous polynomial $p(x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1})$ of

degree k such that $g(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = p(a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1})$. Look at the polynomial

$$q(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) = h(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) + a_n p(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$$

which is either 0 or homogeneous of degree k in n-1 variables. Because $q(a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1})=f(a_1,\ldots,a_n)=0$, the induction hypothesis on n says $q(x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1})$ is in $IM[x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1}]$. This implies $q(a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1})$ is in $I^{k+1}M$. Now $p(a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1})=g(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$ is in I^kM , from which it follows that $a_np(a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1})$ is in $I^{k+1}M$. This shows $h(a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1})$ is in $I^{k+1}M$. By induction on n and the proof of Lemma 15.3.4, this implies the coefficients of h are in IM. We conclude that the coefficients of f are in IM.

(3): We must show conditions (1), (2) and (3) of Definition 15.3.1 are satisfied. Since M is separated for the I-adic topology we have $\bigcap_{k>0} I^k M = (0)$. In particular, $M \neq IM$.

Step 1: Show that a_1 is not a zero divisor for M. Suppose $\xi \in M$ and $a_1\xi = 0$. Consider $f(x) = \xi x_1$, a homogeneous linear polynomial in $M[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Since $f(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = 0$, by quasi-regularity ξ is in IM. There exists a homogeneous linear polynomial $f_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i x_i$ in $M[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ such that $f_1(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = \xi$. In this case, $a_1 f_1(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ is equal to $f(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = 0$, so the coefficients of the homogeneous quadratic $x_1 f_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ are in IM. That is, for each m_i there exists a homogeneous linear polynomial f_{i2} such that $m_i = f_{i2}(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$. Consider the homogeneous quadratic polynomial

$$f_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n f_{i2} x_i.$$

Then $f_2(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = \xi$ is in I^2M . Moreover, $a_1 f_2(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = 0$, so the coefficients of f_2 are in IM. By an obvious iterative argument, we conclude that $\xi \in I^kM$ for all $k \geq 1$. Since M is separated in the I-adic topology, this proves $\xi = 0$.

Step 2: Show that a_2, \ldots, a_n is a quasi-regular sequence for M/a_1M . For this, apply Lemma 15.3.4(2). Let f be a homogeneous polynomial of degree k in $M[x_2, \ldots, x_n]$. Assume $f(a_2, \ldots, a_n) \in a_1M$. For some $\xi \in M$, we can write $f(a_2, \ldots, a_n) = a_1\xi$. Since $\bigcap I^iM = (0)$, there exists $i \geq 0$ such that $\xi \in I^iM - I^{i+1}M$. There is a homogeneous polynomial g in $M[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ with degree i such that $\xi = g(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$. For contradiction's sake, suppose i < k - 1. Then $I^kM \subseteq I^{i+2}M$. Notice that $x_1g(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is homogeneous of degree i + 1 and under the evaluation map, $a_1g(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ is in $I^{i+1}M/I^{i+2}M$. But $a_1g(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = f(a_2, \ldots, a_n) \in I^kM$. Because a_1, \ldots, a_n is a quasi-regular sequence for M the coefficients of g are in IM. Then $\xi = g(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ is in $I^{i+1}M$, a contradiction. Consequently, we know i = k - 1. Set

$$h(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = f(x_2,\ldots,x_n) - x_1 g(x_1,\ldots,x_n),$$

a homogeneous polynomial of degree k. Since $h(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = 0$, by quasi-regularity, the coefficients of h are in IM. $h(0, x_2, \ldots, x_n) = f(x_2, \ldots, x_n)$, each coefficient of f is in IM. Under the map $M[x_2, \ldots, x_n] \to (M/a_1M)[x_2, \ldots, x_n]$ the image of f is in the submodule $(a_2, \ldots, a_n)(M/a_1M)[x_2, \ldots, x_n]$. That completes Step 2.

Step 3: To complete Part (3), we must show that for all k = 2, ..., n, a_k is not a zero divisor for $M/(a_1, ..., a_{k-1})M$. We prove a stronger statement. For n = 1, Step 1 shows Part (3) is true. Therefore, assume $n \geq 2$ and that the statement of

Part (3) is true for any sequence of length n-1. By Step 2, a_2, \ldots, a_n is a quasi-regular sequence for M/a_1M . By the induction hypothesis we conclude a_2, \ldots, a_n is a regular sequence for M/a_1M . From this it follows that a_k is not a zero divisor for $M/(a_1, \ldots, a_{k-1})M$.

COROLLARY 15.3.7. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring, M a finitely generated R-module, and a_1, \ldots, a_n elements of the Jacobson radical of R. Then a_1, \ldots, a_n is a regular sequence for M if and only if a_1, \ldots, a_n is a quasi-regular sequence for M.

PROOF. Is left to the reader. \Box

COROLLARY 15.3.8. Let $R = \bigoplus_{n\geq 0} R_n$ be a commutative graded ring, $M = \bigoplus_{n\geq 0} M_n$ a graded R-module, and a_1, \ldots, a_n elements of R. Assume each a_i is homogeneous of positive degree. Then a_1, \ldots, a_n is a regular sequence for M if and only if a_1, \ldots, a_n is a quasi-regular sequence for M.

PROOF. There exists a positive integer N such that $I^kM \subseteq \sum_{n\geq kN} M_n$. The rest is left to the reader.

Theorem 15.3.9. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and M a finitely generated R-module. Let I be an ideal of R such that $IM \neq M$ and n a positive integer. The following are equivalent.

- (1) There exists a regular sequence a_1, \ldots, a_n for M in I.
- (2) For all i < n and for all finitely generated R-modules N such that $\operatorname{Supp}(N) \subseteq V(I)$, we have $\operatorname{Ext}_R^i(N,M) = (0)$.
- (3) $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{i}(R/I, M) = (0)$ for all i < n.
- (4) There exists a finitely generated R-module N such that Supp(N) = V(I) and $Ext_R^i(N, M) = (0)$ for all i < n.

PROOF. (2) implies (3): Is trivial. (3) implies (4): Is trivial.

(4) implies (1): Step 1: Show that there exists an element $a_1 \in R$ such that a_1 is not a zero divisor for M. There exists a finitely generated R-module N such that $\operatorname{Supp}(N) = V(I)$ and $\operatorname{Ext}^i_R(N,M) = (0)$ for all i < n. In particular, if i = 0, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(N,M) = (0)$. For contradiction's sake, assume every element of I is a zero divisor for M. Then I is a subset of the union of the associated primes of M. By Lemma 10.3.2, there exists $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(M)$ such that $I \subseteq P$. By Lemma 13.2.1, M contains an element x such that

$$0 \to P \to R \xrightarrow{\rho_x} M$$

is exact, where $\rho_x(1) = x$. Localize at P. Let \mathfrak{m}_P denote the maximal ideal PR_P and k_P the residue field R_P/\mathfrak{m}_P . Then $\rho_x: k_P \to M_P$ is one-to-one, where $1 \mapsto x$. Since $P \in V(I) = \operatorname{Supp}(N)$, $N_P \neq (0)$. By Corollary 6.3.2, $N_P \otimes_{R_P} k_P \neq (0)$. Since $N_P \otimes_{R_P} k_P$ is a nonzero finitely generated k_P -vector space, there exists a nonzero R_P -module homomorphism

$$N_P \to N_P \otimes_{R_P} k_P \to k_P \xrightarrow{\rho_x} M_P.$$

That is, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(N, M) \otimes_R R_P = \operatorname{Hom}_{R_P}(N_P, M_P) \neq (0)$, a contradiction.

Step 2: The induction step. By Step 1, let a_1 be an element of I which is not a zero divisor for M. If n = 1, then we are done. Otherwise, assume (4) implies (1)

is true for n-1. Start with the short exact sequence of R-modules

$$(3.1) 0 \to M \xrightarrow{\ell_{a_1}} M \to M/a_1 M \to 0.$$

By Proposition 12.3.12(2) there is a long exact sequence (3.2)

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^i(N,M) \xrightarrow{\ell_{a_1}} \operatorname{Ext}_R^i(N,M) \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^i(N,M/a_1M) \xrightarrow{\delta^i} \operatorname{Ext}_R^{i+1}(N,M) \to \cdots$$
 from which it immediately follows $\operatorname{Ext}_R^i(N,M/a_1M) = (0)$ for $0 \le i < n-1$. By the induction hypothesis, there exists a regular sequence a_2,\ldots,a_n for M/a_1M in I .

(1) implies (2): Since a_1 is not a zero divisor for M, the sequence (3.1) is exact. Let N be a finitely generated R-module with $\operatorname{Supp}(N) \subseteq V(I)$. In degree zero, the long exact sequence (3.2) is

$$0 \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^0(N, M) \xrightarrow{\ell_{a_1}} \operatorname{Ext}_R^0(N, M).$$

For any r>0, "left multiplication" by a_1^r is one-to-one on $\operatorname{Ext}^0_R(N,M)$. By Exercise 13.2.16, $\operatorname{Supp}(N)\subseteq V(I)$ implies there exists r>0 such that $a_1^r\in\operatorname{annih}_R(N)$. That is, "left multiplication" by a_1^r is the zero map. Applying the functor $\operatorname{Ext}^0_R(\cdot,M)$ to $\ell_{a_1^r}:N\to N$, "left multiplication" by a_1^r is the zero map on $\operatorname{Ext}^0_R(N,M)$. Taken together, this implies $\operatorname{Ext}^0_R(N,M)=(0)$. Proceed by induction on n. Assume n>1 and that (1) implies (2) is true for a regular sequence of length n-1. Then a_2,\ldots,a_n is a regular sequence for M/a_1M in I and $\operatorname{Ext}^i_R(N,M/a_1M)=(0)$ for $i=0,\ldots,n-2$. The long exact sequence (3.2) reduces to the exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Ext}^i_R(N, M) \xrightarrow{\ell_{a_1}} \operatorname{Ext}^i_R(N, M)$$

for i = 0, ..., n - 1. The rest of the proof is left to the reader.

DEFINITION 15.3.10. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring and M a finitely generated R-module. Let I be a proper ideal in R. The I-depth of M, denoted depth $_I(M)$, is the least element of the set $\{i \mid \operatorname{Ext}_R^i(R/I,M) \neq (0)\}$. By Theorem 15.3.9, $\operatorname{depth}_I(M)$ is equal to the length of any maximal regular sequence for M in I. If R is a local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , then we sometimes write $\operatorname{depth}(M)$ instead of $\operatorname{depth}_{\mathfrak{m}}(M)$.

On the subject of depth, the terminology and notation appearing in the literature is inconsistent. In [24] Grothendieck calls depth(M) the "profondeur de M" and writes prof(M). In [7] and [8] Auslander, Buchsbaum and Goldman call depth(M) the "codimension of M" and write codim(M). Our terminology and notation agree with that used by Matsumura (see [39, p. 102]).

LEMMA 15.3.11. Let R be a noetherian commutative local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . Let M and N be nonzero finitely generated R-modules. For all i less than $\operatorname{depth}(M) - \dim(N)$, $\operatorname{Ext}^i_R(N,M) = (0)$.

PROOF. Set $n = \dim(N)$. By definition, $n = \dim(R/\operatorname{annih}_R(N))$. The proof is by induction on n. If n = 0, then $R/\operatorname{annih}_R(N)$ is a local artinian ring and $\operatorname{Supp}(N) = \{\mathfrak{m}\}$. By Part (1) implies (2) of Theorem 15.3.9, $\operatorname{Ext}_R^i(N, M) = (0)$ for all $i < \operatorname{depth}(M)$. Inductively assume n > 0 and that the lemma is true for any module L such that $0 \le \dim(L) < n$. By Theorem 13.2.9 there exists a filtration $0 = N_0 \subsetneq N_1 \subsetneq N_2 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq N_t = N$ of N and a set of prime ideals $P_j \in \operatorname{Spec} R$

such that $N_j/N_{j-1} \cong R/P_j$ for $j=1,\ldots,t$. Moreover, for each $j, P_j \in \operatorname{Supp}(M)$, hence $\operatorname{annih}_R(M) \subseteq P_j$. Then $\dim(R/P_j) \leq \dim(N)$. For each j we have a short exact sequence

$$0 \to N_{i-1} \to N_i \to R/P_i \to 0$$

and a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Ext}^i(N_{i-1}, M) \to \operatorname{Ext}^i(N_i, M) \to \operatorname{Ext}^i(R/P_i, M) \to \cdots$$

Therefore, it is enough to prove that $\operatorname{Ext}_R^i(R/P_j, M) = (0)$ for $1 \leq j \leq t$ and $i < \operatorname{depth}(M) - \dim(N)$. Assume $P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$ and $n = \dim(R/P)$. Then $P \neq \mathfrak{m}$ so there exists $a \in \mathfrak{m} - P$. Denote by S the quotient R/(P + (a)). In the integral domain R/P, a is not a zero divisor, so the sequence

$$0 \to R/P \xrightarrow{\ell_a} R/P \to S \to 0$$

is exact. By Corollary 13.6.13, $\dim(S) = n - 1$. If $i < \operatorname{depth}(M) - n$, then $i+1 < \operatorname{depth}(M) - (n-1)$. By the induction hypothesis, $\operatorname{Ext}_R^{i+1}(S,M) = (0)$. From the long exact sequence of Ext groups, left multiplication by a is an isomorphism

$$0 \to \operatorname{Ext}^i(R/P, M) \xrightarrow{\ell_a} \operatorname{Ext}^i(R/P, M) \to 0$$

for all $i < \operatorname{depth}(M) - n$. Tensoring ℓ_a with R/\mathfrak{m} it becomes the zero map. Therefore, by Corollary 6.3.2, $\operatorname{Ext}^i(R/P, M) = (0)$.

Corollary 15.3.12. Let R be a noetherian commutative local ring and M a nonzero finitely generated R-module.

- (1) $\operatorname{depth}(M) \leq \dim(R/P)$ for every associated prime ideal $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(M)$.
- (2) $\operatorname{depth}(M) \leq \dim(M)$.

PROOF. (1): If $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(M)$, then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(R/P,M) \neq (0)$. By Lemma 15.3.11, $\operatorname{depth}(M) - \dim(R/P) \leq 0$.

(2): Is left to the reader.
$$\Box$$

LEMMA 15.3.13. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring, \mathfrak{m} the maximal ideal of R, M a nonzero finitely generated R-module, and a_1, \ldots, a_r a regular sequence for M in \mathfrak{m} . Then $\dim(M/(a_1, \ldots, a_r)M) = \dim(M) - r$.

PROOF. Let $t = \dim(M) = \dim(R/\operatorname{annih}_R(M))$. Then t is the supremum of the lengths of all prime chains $\operatorname{annih}_R(M) \subseteq Q_0 \subsetneq Q_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq Q_t \subsetneq R$. A minimal prime over-ideal Q_0 of $\operatorname{annih}_R(M)$ is in the support of M, hence by Theorem 13.2.7, Q_0 is an associated prime of M. Then every element of Q_0 is a zero divisor of M, hence $a_1 \notin Q_0$. By Exercise 15.3.19, $\operatorname{Supp}(M/a_1M) = \operatorname{Supp}(M) \cap \operatorname{Supp}(R/(a_1))$. Let $s = \dim(M/a_1M) = \dim(R/\operatorname{annih}_R(M/a_1M))$. Then s is the supremum of the lengths of all prime chains $\operatorname{annih}_R(M/a_1M) \subseteq P_0 \subsetneq P_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq P_s \subsetneq R$. Since $a_1 \in P_0$, this proves s < t. Iterate this argument r times to see that $\dim(M/(a_1,\ldots,a_r)M) \leq \dim(M) - r$. For the reverse inequality, $\dim(M) \geq \dim(M/a_1M) \geq \dim(M) - 1$, by Lemma 13.6.10. Iterate r times to see that $\dim(M/(a_1,\ldots,a_r)M) \geq \dim(M) - r$.

3.2. Exercises.

EXERCISE 15.3.14. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring, I a proper ideal of R, M an R module, and a_1, \ldots, a_r a regular sequence for M in I.

- (1) There exists $n \geq r$ and elements a_{r+1}, \ldots, a_n such that a_1, \ldots, a_n is a maximal regular sequence for M.
- (2) $\operatorname{depth}_{I}(M/(a_{1},\ldots,a_{r})M) = \operatorname{depth}_{I}(M) r.$

EXERCISE 15.3.15. Let R be a noetherian commutative local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Then $\operatorname{depth}_{\mathfrak{m}}(M)=0$ if and only if \mathfrak{m} is an associated prime of M.

EXERCISE 15.3.16. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring and $P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Let $\mathfrak{m}_P = PR_P$ be the maximal ideal of R_P and let $M_P = M \otimes_R R_P$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) $\operatorname{depth}_{\mathfrak{m}_{P}}(M_{P}) = 0.$
- (2) $\mathfrak{m}_P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_{R_P}(M_P)$.
- (3) $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(M)$.

EXERCISE 15.3.17. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring and $P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Let $\mathfrak{m}_P = PR_P$ be the maximal ideal of R_P and let $M_P = M \otimes_R R_P$. Then $\operatorname{depth}_{\mathfrak{m}_P}(M_P) \ge \operatorname{depth}_P(M)$.

EXERCISE 15.3.18. Let R be a commutative local ring. Let M and N be nonzero finitely generated R-modules. Show that $M \otimes_R N$ is nonzero.

EXERCISE 15.3.19. Let R be a commutative ring. Let M and N be nonzero finitely generated R-modules. Show that $\operatorname{Supp}(M \otimes_R N) = \operatorname{Supp}(M) \cap \operatorname{Supp}(N)$.

3.3. Cohen-Macaulay Modules.

DEFINITION 15.3.20. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . Let M be a finitely generated R-module. By Corollary 15.3.12, if M is nonzero, then $\operatorname{depth}_{\mathfrak{m}}(M) \leq \dim(M)$. We say that M is a $\operatorname{Cohen-Macaulay}$ module in case M = (0), or $\operatorname{depth}_{\mathfrak{m}}(M) = \dim(M)$. If $\operatorname{depth}_{\mathfrak{m}}(R) = \dim(R)$, then we say R is a $\operatorname{Cohen-Macaulay}$ local ring .

THEOREM 15.3.21. Let R be a noetherian commutative local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , and M a finitely generated R-module. If $P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$, then we write \mathfrak{m}_P for PR_P and M_P for $M \otimes_R R_P$.

- (1) If M is a Cohen-Macaulay module and $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(M)$, then $\operatorname{depth}(M)$ is equal to $\dim(R/P)$. The associated primes of M all have the same height, or in other words, M has no embedded prime ideals (see Definition 13.2.8).
- (2) If a_1, \ldots, a_r is a regular sequence for M in \mathfrak{m} , then M is a Cohen-Macaulay module if and only if $M/(a_1, \ldots, a_r)M$ is a Cohen-Macaulay module.
- (3) If M is a Cohen-Macaulay module and $P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$, then M_P is a Cohen-Macaulay R_P -module. If $M_P \neq (0)$, then $\operatorname{depth}_{\mathfrak{m}_P}(M_P) = \operatorname{depth}_P(M)$.

PROOF. (1): Since P is an associated prime of M, M is nonzero and $\operatorname{depth}(M) = \dim(M)$. By Corollary 15.3.12, $\operatorname{depth}(M) \leq \dim(R/P)$. Since $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(M) \subseteq \operatorname{Supp}(M)$, $\operatorname{annih}_R(M) \subseteq P$. Then $\dim(M) = \dim(R/\operatorname{annih}_R(M)) \geq \dim(R/P)$.

(2): Since $(a_1, \ldots, a_r) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$, by Corollary 6.3.2, $M/(a_1, \ldots, a_r)M$ is nonzero if and only if M is nonzero. Assume M is nonzero. Then $\dim(M/(a_1, \ldots, a_r)M) =$

 $\dim(M)-r$, which follows from Lemma 15.3.13. Consequently, $\operatorname{depth}(M/(a_1,\ldots,a_r)M)=\operatorname{depth}(M)-r$, by Exercise 15.3.14.

(3): Assume $M_P \neq (0)$, hence $\operatorname{annih}_R(M) \subseteq P$. By Exercise 15.3.17, $\operatorname{depth}_P(M) \leq \operatorname{depth}_{\mathfrak{m}_P}(M_P)$. By Corollary 15.3.12, $\operatorname{depth}_{\mathfrak{m}_P}(M_P) \leq \dim(M_P)$. To finish the proof, we show $\operatorname{depth}_P(M) = \dim(M_P)$. The proof is by induction on $n = \operatorname{depth}_P(M)$.

For the basis step, assume $\operatorname{depth}_P(M) = 0$. Then every element of P is a zero divisor of M. It follows from Proposition 13.2.2 and Lemma 10.3.2 that $P \subseteq Q$ for some $Q \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(M)$. By Exercise 13.2.17 and Part (1), Q is a minimal prime overideal of $\operatorname{annih}_R(M)$. Because $\operatorname{annih}_R(M) \subseteq P \subseteq Q$, we conclude P = Q. Then \mathfrak{m}_P is a minimal prime over-ideal for $\operatorname{annih}_{R_P}(M_P)$. By Lemma 13.6.4, $\dim(M_P) = 0$.

Inductively, assume $n = \operatorname{depth}_{P}(M) > 0$ and that the result holds for n - 1. Let a be a nonzero divisor of M in P. The sequence

$$0 \to M \xrightarrow{\ell_a} M \to M/aM \to 0$$

is exact. Since R_P is a flat R-module, the sequence

$$0 \to M_P \xrightarrow{\ell_a} M_P \to (M/aM)_P \to 0$$

is also exact and a is a nonzero divisor of M_P in \mathfrak{m}_P . Also, $(M/aM)_P = M_P/(aM_P)$, so by Lemma 15.3.13, $\dim((M/aM)_P) = \dim(M_P) - 1$. By Exercise 15.3.14, $\operatorname{depth}_P(M/aM) = \operatorname{depth}_P(M) - 1$. By Part (2), M/aM is a Cohen-Macaulay R-module. By induction on n, $\dim((M/aM)_P) = \operatorname{depth}_P(M/aM)$ which completes the proof.

Theorem 15.3.22. Let R be a noetherian commutative Cohen-Macaulay local ring. Let \mathfrak{m} denote the maximal ideal of R.

- (1) Let a_1, \ldots, a_r be a sequence of elements in \mathfrak{m} . The following are equivalent.
 - (a) a_1, \ldots, a_r is a regular sequence for R in \mathfrak{m} .
 - (b) $ht(a_1, \ldots, a_i) = i$ for all i such that $1 \le i \le r$.
 - (c) $ht(a_1, ..., a_r) = r$.
 - (d) If $n = \dim(R)$, then there exist a_{r+1}, \ldots, a_n in \mathfrak{m} such that a_1, \ldots, a_n is a system of parameters for R.
- (2) Let I be a proper ideal of R. Then $ht(I) = depth_I(R)$ and ht(I) + dim(R/I) = dim(R).
- (3) If P and Q are in Spec R such that $P \supseteq Q$, then ht(P/Q) = ht(P) ht(Q).

PROOF. (1): The reader should verify that the proofs of the implications (a) implies (b) implies (c) implies (d) are all true without the Cohen-Macaulay hypothesis.

- (a) implies (b): Since a_1, \ldots, a_r is a regular sequence, $\operatorname{ht}(a_1) = 1$, by Corollary 13.6.12. Inductively, assume i > 1 and that $\operatorname{ht}(a_1, \ldots, a_{i-1}) = i 1$. Let $I = (a_1, \ldots, a_i)$ and $I_1 = (a_1, \ldots, a_{i-1})$. By Corollary 13.6.12, $\operatorname{ht}(I) \leq i$. For contradiction's sake, assume there exists a prime ideal P containing I such that $\operatorname{ht}(P) = i 1$. Since $I_1 \subseteq P$, it follows that P is a minimal prime over-ideal of I_1 . Thus P is an associated prime of R/I_1 , which implies a_i is a zero divisor of R/I_1 , a contradiction.
 - (b) implies (c): is trivial.
- (c) implies (d): Let $I = (a_1, \ldots, a_r)$. We are given that $\operatorname{ht}(I) = r$. If $r = n = \dim(R)$, then $\operatorname{ht}(\mathfrak{m}) = r$, which means \mathfrak{m} is a minimal prime over-ideal of

- I. Therefore, I is \mathfrak{m} -primary and a_1, \ldots, a_r is a system of parameters for R. If $\dim(R) > r$, then by Exercise 13.6.19, there exists an element $a_{r+1} \in \mathfrak{m}$ such that $\operatorname{ht}(a_1, \ldots, a_{r+1}) = r+1$. Iterate this process to construct a_1, \ldots, a_n such that $\operatorname{ht}(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = n = \dim(R)$.
- (d) implies (a): Let R be a Cohen-Macaulay local ring and x_1, \ldots, x_n a system of parameters for R. We show that x_1, \ldots, x_n is a regular sequence for R. By Proposition 13.6.15, $\dim(R/(x_1)) = n-1$. If P is an associated prime of (0), then $\dim(R/P) = n$, by Theorem 15.3.21 (1). This implies x_1 is not in P. By Proposition 13.2.2, x_1 is not a zero divisor of R. By Theorem 15.3.21 (2), $R/(x_1)$ is a Cohen-Macaulay local ring. Moreover, the images of x_2, \ldots, x_n make up a system of parameters for $R/(x_1)$. By induction on n, x_2, \ldots, x_n is a regular sequence for $R/(x_1)$ in \mathfrak{m} .
- (2): Step 1: Show that $\operatorname{depth}_I(R) = \operatorname{ht}(I)$. Let $\operatorname{ht}(I) = h$. By Exercise 13.6.19, there exist elements x_1, \ldots, x_h in I such that $\operatorname{ht}(x_1, \ldots, x_i) = i$ for $1 \le i \le h$. By Part $(1), x_1, \ldots, x_h$ is a regular sequence for R in I. This proves $\operatorname{ht}(I) \le \operatorname{depth}_I(R)$. On the other hand, if a_1, \ldots, a_r is a regular sequence for R in I, then by Part (1), $r = \operatorname{ht}(a_1, \ldots, a_r) \le \operatorname{ht}(I)$, so $\operatorname{depth}_I(R) \le \operatorname{ht}(I)$.
- Step 2: Show that $\operatorname{ht}(P) + \dim(R/P) = \dim(R)$ for all prime ideals P. Let $\operatorname{ht}(P) = r$. By Step 1, $\operatorname{depth}_P(R) = r$. Start with a maximal regular sequence a_1, \ldots, a_r for R in P and put $J = (a_1, \ldots, a_r)$. By Theorem 15.3.21 (2), R/I is Cohen-Macaulay. Every element of P is a zero divisor for R/I, so P is an associated prime of R/I. By Theorem 15.3.21 (1), R/I has no embedded primes, so P is a minimal prime over-ideal of I. Therefore, $\dim(R/I) = \dim(R/P)$. By Lemma 15.3.13, $\dim(R/I) = \dim(R) r$.

Step 3: ht(I) + dim(R/I) = dim(R). By definition, $ht(I) = \inf\{ht(P) \mid P \in V(I)\}$. By Step 2, this becomes

$$ht(I) = \inf \{ \dim(R) - \dim(R/P) \mid P \in V(I) \}$$
$$= \dim(R) - \sup \{ \dim(R/P) \mid P \in V(I) \}.$$

The reader should verify that $\dim(R/I) = \sup\{\dim(R/P) \mid P \in V(I)\}$, so we are done.

(3): By Theorem 15.3.21 (3), R_P is a Cohen-Macaulay ring. By Part (2), $\dim R_P = \operatorname{ht}(QR_P) + \dim(R_P/QR_P)$. By Lemma 13.6.2, and Exercise 7.3.26, $\operatorname{ht}(P) = \operatorname{ht}(Q) + \operatorname{ht}(P/Q)$.

DEFINITION 15.3.23. A commutative ring R is said to be a *Cohen-Macaulay* ring if R is noetherian and R_P is a Cohen-Macaulay local ring, for every prime ideal P in R. By Theorem 15.3.21, a noetherian commutative ring R is Cohen-Macaulay if $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is Cohen-Macaulay for every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of R.

Theorem 15.3.24. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring. The following are equivalent.

- (1) R is a Cohen-Macaulay ring.
- (2) For every $r \geq 0$, if $I = (a_1, \ldots, a_r)$ is an ideal generated by r elements in R such that ht(I) = r, then R/I has no embedded primes.
- (3) For every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of R, and for every $r \geq 0$, if $J = (a_1, \ldots, a_r)$ is an ideal generated by r elements in $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ such that $\operatorname{ht}(J) = r$, then $R_{\mathfrak{m}}/J$ has no embedded primes.

- PROOF. (2) implies (1): Let P be a prime ideal in R and assume $\operatorname{ht}(P) = r$. We must prove that R_P is Cohen-Macaulay. If r = 0, then R_P is a field and by Exercise 15.3.26, R_P is Cohen-Macaulay. Assume r > 0. By Exercise 13.6.19, there exist elements a_1, \ldots, a_r in P such that $\operatorname{ht}(a_1, \ldots, a_i) = i$ for all $i = 1, \ldots, r$. By (2), the ideal (0) has no embedded primes. Since $\operatorname{ht}(a_1) = 1$, a_1 belongs to no associated prime of (0). So a_1 is not a zero divisor of R. For $1 \leq i < r$, $R/(a_1, \ldots, a_i)$ has no embedded primes. Since $\operatorname{ht}(a_1, \ldots, a_{i+1}) = i + 1$, a_{i+1} belongs to no associated prime of (a_1, \ldots, a_i) . So a_{i+1} is not a zero divisor of $R/(a_1, \ldots, a_i)$. This shows a_1, \ldots, a_r is a regular sequence for R in P. We have $r \leq \operatorname{depth}_P(R) \leq \operatorname{depth}_{PR_P}(R_P)$, by Exercise 15.3.17. By Corollary 15.3.12, $\operatorname{depth}_{PR_P}(R_P) \leq \operatorname{dim} R_P$, which is equal to $\operatorname{ht}(P) = r$, by Lemma 13.6.2. This proves R_P is Cohen-Macaulay.
- (1) implies (3): Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal of R. By definition, $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a Cohen-Macaulay local ring. By Theorem 15.3.21, the zero ideal of $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ has no embedded primes. Let r>0 and $J=(a_1,\ldots,a_r)$ an ideal generated by r elements in $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ such that $\operatorname{ht}(J)=r$. By Theorem 15.3.22, the sequence a_1,\ldots,a_r is a regular sequence for $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ in $\mathfrak{m}R_{\mathfrak{m}}$. By Theorem 15.3.21, $R_{\mathfrak{m}}/J$ is Cohen-Macaulay and has no embedded primes.
- (3) implies (2): Let I be a nonunit ideal in R. Let P be an associated prime of R/I in Spec R and assume P is an embedded prime. Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal of R containing P. By Lemma 13.2.5, $PR_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is an associated prime of $R_{\mathfrak{m}}/IR_{\mathfrak{m}}$ which is an embedded prime.

Theorem 15.3.25. If R is a Cohen-Macaulay ring, then so is R[x] for an indeterminate x.

PROOF. Let Q be a prime ideal in S=R[x] and let $P=Q\cap R$. We must show that S_Q is a Cohen-Macaulay local ring. But R_P is a Cohen-Macaulay local ring, by Theorem 15.3.21. Since $(R-P)\subseteq (S-Q)$, S_Q is the localization of $S\otimes_R R_P=R_P[x]$ at the prime ideal $Q\otimes_R R_P$. From now on assume R is a Cohen-Macaulay local ring with maximal ideal P and residue field k=R/P. Moreover assume Q is a prime ideal of S=R[x] and $Q\cap R=P$. Then S/PS=k[x]. The reader should verify that S is a flat R-module. Consequently, S_Q is a flat R-module. By Theorem 10.3.6, going down holds for $R\to S$.

Suppose $\dim(R) = r$ and a_1, \ldots, a_r is a regular sequence for R in P. If $\ell_{a_1} : R \to R$ is left multiplication by a_1 , then ℓ_{a_1} is one-to-one. Upon tensoring with the flat R-algebra S_Q , ℓ_{a_1} is still one-to-one. In the same way, upon tensoring $\ell_{a_i} : R/(a_1, \ldots, a_{i-1}) \to R/(a_1, \ldots, a_{i-1})$ with the flat R-algebra S_Q , ℓ_{a_i} is still one-to-one. Therefore, a_1, \ldots, a_r is a regular sequence for S_Q in QS_Q . This proves $r \leq \operatorname{depth}(S_Q)$.

A prime ideal of k[x] is principal and is either equal to the zero ideal, or is generated by a monic irreducible polynomial in k[x]. Since Q is a prime ideal of S containing PS, Q is equal to PS+gS, where g is either 0, or a monic polynomial in S=R[x] which restricts to an irreducible polynomial in k[x]. There are two cases.

Case 1: Q = PS. Theorem 13.6.21 says $\dim(S_Q) = \dim(R) = r$. This implies S_Q is Cohen-Macaulay.

Case 2: Q = PS + gS. In this case, the fiber $S_Q \otimes_R k$ is equal to the localization of $k[x] = S \otimes_R k$ at the prime ideal Q/PS. The local ring $S_Q \otimes_R k$ is a PID, hence has Krull dimension one. By Theorem 13.6.21, $\dim(S_Q) = \dim(R) + 1 = r + 1$.

But g is a monic polynomial in R[x] so g is not a zero divisor for $R/(a_1, \ldots, a_r)[x]$. Therefore, depth_Q $(S) \ge r + 1$. This implies S_Q is Cohen-Macaulay.

3.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 15.3.26. Let F be a field. If F is viewed as a local ring with maximal ideal (0), then F is a Cohen-Macaulay local ring.

EXERCISE 15.3.27. Let R be a local PID. Then R is a Cohen-Macaulay local ring.

EXERCISE 15.3.28. Let R be a Cohen-Macaulay local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , and x_1, \ldots, x_r a set of elements of \mathfrak{m} . Then x_1, \ldots, x_r is a regular sequence for R in \mathfrak{m} if and only if $\dim(R/(x_1, \ldots, x_r)) = \dim R - r$.

EXERCISE 15.3.29. Let k be a field. As in Exercises 13.1.10, 13.2.19, and 11.3.9, let A = k[x, y] and $R = k[x^2, xy, y^2, x^3, x^2y, xy^2, y^3]$. Prove:

- (1) R and A have the same quotient field, namely k(x, y), and A is equal to the integral closure of R in k(x, y).
- (2) $\dim(R) = 2$.
- (3) Let M be the maximal ideal in A generated by x and y. Let $\mathfrak{m} = M \cap R$. Then \mathfrak{m} is generated by $x^2, xy, y^2, x^3, x^2y, xy^2, y^3$, and $ht(\mathfrak{m}) = 2$.
- (4) In R, ht(x^3) = 1, and dim($R/(x^3)$) = 1.
- (5) depth $(R_{\mathfrak{m}}/(x^3) = 0$ and $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is not Cohen-Macaulay.

EXERCISE 15.3.30. Let k be a field and R the localization of k[x,y] at the maximal ideal (x,y). Show that the rings R, R/(xy), R/(xy,x-y) are Cohen-Macaulay.

3.5. Cohomological Theory of Regular Local Rings.

THEOREM 15.3.31. Let R be a regular local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , residue field k, and regular system of parameters x_1, \ldots, x_r . The following are true.

- (1) x_1, \ldots, x_r is a regular sequence for R in \mathfrak{m} .
- (2) R is a Cohen-Macaulay local ring.
- (3) For each i, $P_i = (x_1, ..., x_r)$ is a prime ideal of R of height i, and R/P_i is a regular local ring of Krull dimension r i.
- (4) If P is a prime ideal of R such that R/P is a regular local ring of dimension r-i, then there exists a regular system of parameters y_1, \ldots, y_r for R such that $P = (y_1, \ldots, y_i)$.
- (5) $\dim(R) = r = \cosh.\dim(R)$.

PROOF. (1): By Theorem 15.1.8, $k[t_1, \ldots, t_r] \cong \operatorname{gr}_{\mathfrak{m}}(R)$. The sequence x_1, \ldots, x_r is a quasi-regular sequence for R in \mathfrak{m} . By Corollary 15.3.7, x_1, \ldots, x_r is a regular sequence for R in \mathfrak{m} .

- (2): By Part (1), $depth(R) \ge r = dim(R)$.
- (3): By Proposition 13.6.15, $\dim(R/P_i) = r i$. Since \mathfrak{m}/P_i is generated by $x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_r, R/P_i$ is a regular local ring. By Corollary 15.1.9, R/P_i is a normal integral domain. Thus P_i is a prime ideal.
- (4): Let $\bar{\mathfrak{m}} = \mathfrak{m}/P$. By Exercise 13.6.17, $r = \dim(R) = \dim_k(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2)$ and $r i = \dim(R/P) = \dim_k(\bar{\mathfrak{m}}/\bar{\mathfrak{m}}^2)$. But $\bar{\mathfrak{m}}/\bar{\mathfrak{m}}^2 = \mathfrak{m}/(\mathfrak{m}^2 + P)$. Consider the tower of ideals $\mathfrak{m}^2 \subseteq \mathfrak{m}^2 + P \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$. Then $r i = \dim_k(\mathfrak{m}/(\mathfrak{m}^2 + P)) = \dim_k(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2) \dim_k((\mathfrak{m}^2 + P)/\mathfrak{m}^2)$, from which it follows that $\dim_k((\mathfrak{m}^2 + P)/\mathfrak{m}^2) = i$. Choose i

elements y_1, \ldots, y_i in P such that modulo \mathfrak{m}^2 , y_1, \ldots, y_i are linearly independent over k. Choose r-i elements y_{i+1}, \ldots, y_r in \mathfrak{m} such that modulo \mathfrak{m}^2 , y_1, \ldots, y_r are linearly independent over k. Then y_1, \ldots, y_r is a regular system of parameters for R. By Part (3), $Q = (y_1, \ldots, y_i)$ is a prime ideal of height i. By Theorem 15.3.22, $\operatorname{ht}(P) = \dim(R) - \dim(R/P) = i$. Since $Q \subseteq P$, this proves Q = P.

(5): Let x_1, \ldots, x_d be a regular system of parameters for R. By Proposition 12.4.10 applied recursively to $k = R/(x_1, \ldots, x_d)$, proj. $\dim_R(k) = \text{proj.} \dim(R) + d = d$. By Theorem 12.4.15, coh. $\dim(R) = d$.

Theorem 15.3.32. Let R be a commutative regular ring. If x is an indeterminate, then R[x] is a regular ring.

PROOF. As in the proof of Theorem 15.3.25, we can reduce to the case where R is a regular local ring with maximal ideal P, k=R/P, Q is a prime ideal of S=R[x] and $Q\cap R=P$. Moreover, S/PS=k[x] and going down holds for $R\to S$. A prime ideal of k[x] is principal and is either equal to the zero ideal, or is generated by a monic irreducible polynomial in k[x]. Since Q is a prime ideal of S containing PS, Q is equal to PS+gS, where g is either 0, or a monic polynomial in S=R[x] which restricts to an irreducible polynomial in k[x].

Suppose $\dim(R)=r$. Then P is generated by r elements. There are two cases. If Q=PS, then Q is generated by r elements. In this case, Theorem 13.6.21 says $\dim(S_Q)=\dim(R)=r$, hence S_Q is regular. For the second case, assume Q=PS+gS and $g\neq 0$. Then Q is generated by r+1 elements. In this case, the fiber $S_Q\otimes_R k$ is equal to the localization of $k[x]=S\otimes_R k$ at the prime ideal Q/PS. The local ring $S_Q\otimes_R k$ is a PID, hence has Krull dimension one. By Theorem 13.6.21, $\dim(S_Q)=\dim(R)+1=r+1$. Hence S_Q is regular in this case as well.

COROLLARY 15.3.33. (Hilbert's Syzygy Theorem) Let k be a field and x_1, \ldots, x_n a set of indeterminates. Then $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ has cohomological dimension n.

PROOF. By Theorem 14.3.1, $R = k[x_1, ..., x_n]$ has dimension n. Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal of R. By Theorem 15.3.32, $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a regular local ring of dimension n. By Theorem 15.3.31, $\operatorname{coh.dim}(R_P) = n$. By Lemma 12.4.14(2), $\operatorname{coh.dim}(R) = n$

LEMMA 15.3.34. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . If every element of $\mathfrak{m} - \mathfrak{m}^2$ is a zero divisor of R, then \mathfrak{m} an associated prime of R.

PROOF. If $\mathfrak{m}^2 = \mathfrak{m}$, then by Nakayama's Lemma (Theorem 8.1.3), $\mathfrak{m} = 0$. In this case, R is a field and the result is trivially true. Assume $\mathfrak{m} - \mathfrak{m}^2$ is nonempty. Let $\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$ be the set of associated primes of R. By Proposition 13.2.2,

$$\mathfrak{m} - \mathfrak{m}^2 \subseteq P_1 \cup \cdots \cup P_n$$
.

Since \mathfrak{m} is not a subset of \mathfrak{m}^2 , it follows from Lemma 10.3.2 that $\mathfrak{m} \subseteq P_i$ for some i. Since \mathfrak{m} is maximal, \mathfrak{m} is equal to P_i .

LEMMA 15.3.35. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . Let a be an element of $\mathfrak{m} - \mathfrak{m}^2$. The natural map $\mathfrak{m}/a\mathfrak{m} \to \mathfrak{m}/aR$ splits.

PROOF. Without loss of generality, assume $\mathfrak{m} \neq \mathfrak{m}^2$. In the R/\mathfrak{m} -vector space $\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$, the image of a is nonzero. Extend the image of a to a basis of $\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$, and lift this basis to elements a,b_1,\ldots,b_n in $\mathfrak{m}-\mathfrak{m}^2$. Let $B=Rb_1+\cdots+Rb_n$. Consider an element ax in the intersection $aR\cap B$, where $x\in R$. Then $ax=\sum r_ib_i$ for some $r_i\in R$. We have linear independence of a,b_1,\ldots,b_n modulo \mathfrak{m}^2 , hence $ax\in \mathfrak{m}^2$. By choice of a, if $x\in R-\mathfrak{m}$, then $ax\not\in \mathfrak{m}^2$. Therefore $x\in \mathfrak{m}$. This proves $aR\cap B\subseteq a\mathfrak{m}$, so the natural map $B\to \mathfrak{m}/a\mathfrak{m}$ factors through $B/(aR\cap B)$. Let α be the inverse of the natural isomorphism $B/(aR\cap B)\to (aR+B)/aR$. The reader should verify that the composition

$$\frac{\mathfrak{m}}{aR} \xrightarrow{=} \frac{aR+B}{aR} \xrightarrow{\alpha} \frac{B}{aR \cap B} \to \frac{\mathfrak{m}}{a\mathfrak{m}} \to \frac{\mathfrak{m}}{aR}$$

is the identity map.

LEMMA 15.3.36. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . Let M be a finitely generated R-module of finite projective dimension. If a is an element in \mathfrak{m} which is both M-regular and R-regular, then

- (1) M/aM is an R/aR-module of finite projective dimension, and
- (2) $\operatorname{proj.dim}_{R/aR}(M/aM) \leq \operatorname{proj.dim}_{R}(M)$.

PROOF. Let $\operatorname{proj.dim}_R(M) = n$. If n = 0, then M is a projective R-module and M/aM is a projective R/aR-module. This implies $\operatorname{proj.dim}_{R/aR}(M/aM) = 0$. Inductively, suppose n > 0 and that the result holds for any finitely generated R-module of projective dimension less than n. By Exercise 12.3.10, there exists a projective resolution $P_{\bullet} \to M$ such that each P_i is finitely generated. Since R is a local ring, each P_j is free. Let K be the kernel of $\epsilon: P_0 \to M$. Consider the exact sequence

$$0 \to K \to P_0 \to M \to 0.$$

The reader should verify that $\operatorname{proj.dim}_R(K) = \operatorname{proj.dim}_R(M) - 1$. Since R is noetherian, K is finitely generated. The diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow K \longrightarrow P_0 \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha} \qquad \downarrow^{\beta} \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow K \longrightarrow P_0 \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes, where the three vertical maps are "left multiplication" by a. Since a is R-regular and P_0 is free, β is one-to-one. Since a is M-regular, γ is one-to-one. The Snake Lemma (Theorem 6.6.2) implies α is one-to-one, and the sequence

$$0 \to K/aK \to P_0/aP_0 \to M/aM \to 0$$

is exact. Since P_0/aP_0 is a free R/aR-module, this proves

$$\operatorname{proj.dim}_{R/aR}(M/aM) \leq \operatorname{proj.dim}_{R/aR}(K/aK) + 1.$$

Since α is one-to-one, a is K-regular. Applying the induction hypothesis to K, it follows that $\operatorname{proj.dim}_{R/aR}(K/aK) \leq n$. In conclusion, $\operatorname{proj.dim}_{R/aR}(M/aM) \leq n+1$.

Theorem 15.3.37. (Hilbert-Serre) Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring. The following are equivalent

- (1) R has finite cohomological dimension.
- (2) R is regular.

If either condition is satisfied, coh. $\dim(R) = \dim(R)$.

PROOF. Let \mathfrak{m} denote the maximal ideal of R and $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$ the residue field.

- (2) implies (1): This follows from Theorem 15.3.31. It also follows that the equation coh. dim(R) = dim(R) is satisfied.
 - (1) implies (2): Let n = coh.dim(R).

Step 1: Prove that $\mathfrak{m} - \mathfrak{m}^2$ contains an R-regular element. For contradiction's sake, assume $\mathfrak{m} - \mathfrak{m}^2$ is nonempty and consists of zero divisors. By Lemma 15.3.34, \mathfrak{m} is an associated prime of R. By Lemma 13.2.1, there exists $x \in R - (0)$ such that $x\mathfrak{m} = (0)$. In other words, \mathfrak{m} is not faithful, hence not free. By Proposition 7.4.2, \mathfrak{m} is not a projective R-module. By Definition 12.4.13, $\mathrm{coh.dim}(R) \geq \mathrm{proj.dim}_R(\mathfrak{m}) \geq 1$. By Theorem 12.4.15, $\mathrm{proj.dim}_R(k) = \mathrm{coh.dim}(R) \geq 1$. By Proposition 12.4.10, $\mathrm{Tor}_{n+1}^R(R/xR,k) = 0$. The exact sequence of R-modules

$$0 \to \mathfrak{m} \to R \xrightarrow{\ell_x} R \to R/xR \to 0$$

can be shortened to

$$0 \to k \to R \to R/xR \to 0$$
.

Since $\operatorname{Tor}_i^R(R,k)=0$ for $i\geq 1$, the associated long exact sequence of Lemma 12.3.2 (3) implies the boundary map $\partial:\operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^R(R/xR,k)\to\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(k,k)$ is an isomorphism. This implies $\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(k,k)=0$, which is a contradiction to Theorem 12.4.15.

Step 2: The proof is by induction on $d=\dim(R)$. If d=0, then R is regular, by Definition 13.6.14. Assume d>0 and that the result is true for a ring of dimension d-1. By Step 1 we can assume there exists an element $a\in\mathfrak{m}-\mathfrak{m}^2$ such that a is R-regular. Then a is also \mathfrak{m} -regular. Consider the local ring R/aR, which has maximal ideal \mathfrak{m}/aR . By Corollary 13.6.13 (3), $\dim(R/aR)=d-1$. By (1), $\operatorname{proj.dim}_R(\mathfrak{m}) \leq \operatorname{coh.dim}(R)$ is finite. By Lemma 15.3.36, \mathfrak{m}/aR is an R/aR-module of finite projective dimension. By Lemma 15.3.35, \mathfrak{m}/aR is an R/aR-module of finite projective dimension. By the induction hypothesis, R/aR is a regular local ring. By Exercise 15.3.40, R is regular.

COROLLARY 15.3.38. If R is a regular local ring and P a prime ideal of R, then R_P is a regular local ring.

PROOF. Is left to the reader.
$$\Box$$

Proposition 15.3.39. If R is a regular local ring and M a nonzero finitely generated R-module, then the following are true.

- (1) $\operatorname{depth}(M) + \operatorname{proj.dim}(M) = \operatorname{dim}(R)$.
- (2) M is a free R-module if and only if depth(M) = dim(R).

PROOF. Let $n=\dim(R)$, \mathfrak{m} the maximal ideal of R, and $k=R/\mathfrak{m}$ the residue field. Since R is regular, coh.dim(R)=n (Theorem 15.3.31(5)). Therefore, proj.dim $_R(M) \leq n$ (Definition 12.4.13) and proj.dim $_R(k)=n$ (Theorem 12.4.15). The proof is by induction on $d=\operatorname{depth}(M)$. First assume d=0. By Exercise 15.3.15, there is an R-submodule $N\subseteq M$ such that N is isomorphic to k. The short exact sequence $0\to N\to M\to M/N\to 0$ yields

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^R(M/N,k) \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(N,k) \to \operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,k) \to \cdots$$

(Lemma 12.3.2). By Proposition 12.4.10 (2), $\operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^R(M/N,k) = 0$ and by Theorem 12.4.15, $\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(N,k) \neq 0$. Since $\operatorname{Tor}_n^R(M,k) \neq 0$, Proposition 12.4.10 (2) implies $\operatorname{proj.dim}(M) \geq n$. We have shown that $\operatorname{proj.dim}(M) = n$.

Inductively, assume d>0 and that the statement is true for any module of depth d-1. Let x be an M-regular element in \mathfrak{m} . Then $\operatorname{depth}(M/xM)=\operatorname{depth}(M)-1=d-1$ (Exercise 15.3.14) and $\operatorname{proj.dim}(M/xM)=\operatorname{proj.dim}(M)+1$ (Proposition 12.4.10 (3)). By induction, we are done.

3.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 15.3.40. Let R be a commutative noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and let a be an R-regular element in \mathfrak{m} . Prove that if R/aR is regular, then R is regular and $a \notin \mathfrak{m}^2$.

EXERCISE 15.3.41. Let S be a commutative faithfully flat R-algebra. Prove that if R and S are both noetherian, and S is regular, then R is regular.

EXERCISE 15.3.42. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring. Prove R is regular if and only if $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a regular local ring for every $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$.

4. Noetherian Normal Integral Domains

4.1. A Noetherian Normal Integral Domain is a Krull Domain. Let R denote a noetherian integral domain and K the field of fractions. Given an ideal I of R, let

$$I^{-1} = \{ x \in K \mid xI \subseteq R \}.$$

Then $R \subseteq I^{-1}$ and I^{-1} is an R-submodule of K. The reader should verify that $I \subset I^{-1}I \subset R$ and $I^{-1}I$ is an ideal of R.

LEMMA 15.4.1. Let R be a noetherian integral domain, x a nonzero noninvertible element of R, and $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(R/xR)$. Then $P^{-1} \neq R$.

PROOF. By Lemma 13.2.1, there exists $y \in R - xR$ such that P = (xR : y). Then $yP \subseteq xR$, or in other words, $yx^{-1}P \subseteq R$. This implies $yx^{-1} \in P^{-1}$ and $yx^{-1} \notin R$ because $y \notin xR$.

LEMMA 15.4.2. Let R be a noetherian local integral domain with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . If $\mathfrak{m} \neq (0)$ and $\mathfrak{m}^{-1}\mathfrak{m} = R$, then \mathfrak{m} is a principal ideal and R is a DVR.

PROOF. By Exercise 7.6.23, R is not artinian. By Proposition 8.4.5, $\mathfrak{m} \neq \mathfrak{m}^2$. Pick $\pi \in \mathfrak{m} - \mathfrak{m}^2$. Then $\pi \mathfrak{m}^{-1} \subseteq R$. Hence $\pi \mathfrak{m}^{-1}$ is an ideal in R. If $\pi \mathfrak{m}^{-1} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$, then $\pi R = \pi \mathfrak{m}^{-1} \mathfrak{m} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}^2$, which contradicts the choice of π . Since $\pi \mathfrak{m}^{-1}$ is an ideal of R which is not contained in \mathfrak{m} , we conclude that $\pi \mathfrak{m}^{-1} = R$. That is, $\pi R = \pi \mathfrak{m}^{-1} \mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}$, which proves that \mathfrak{m} is principal. By Corollary 13.6.13, dim R = 1. By Theorem 15.2.10, R is a DVR.

Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain with field of fractions K. Let $X_1(R)$ denote the subset of Spec R consisting of all prime ideals P such that $\operatorname{ht}(P)=1$. If $P\in X_1(R)$, then R_P is a one-dimensional noetherian normal local integral domain. By Theorem 15.2.10, R_P is a DVR of K. Denote by \mathfrak{m}_P the maximal ideal of R_P and by π_P a generator of \mathfrak{m}_P . Then π_P is unique up to associates in R_P . Let $\nu_P: K \to \mathbb{Z}$ be the valuation on K defined as in the proof of (2) implies (1) of Theorem 15.2.10.

Theorem 15.4.3. Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain with field of fractions K.

- (1) Let x be a nonzero, noninvertible element of R. If P is an associated prime of Rx, then the height of P is equal to one.
- (2) Let P be a prime ideal of height one in R and I a P-primary ideal. Then there exists a unique $\nu > 0$ such that I is equal to $P^{(\nu)}$, the ν th symbolic power of P.
- (3) If $\dim(R) \leq 2$, then R is Cohen-Macaulay.

PROOF. (1): Let $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(R/xR)$. By Lemma 13.6.2, it suffices to prove $\dim(R_P) = 1$. By this observation and Lemma 13.2.5, we assume from now on that R is a local normal integral domain with maximal ideal P and that P is an associated prime of a nonzero principal ideal xR and x is noninvertible. By Lemma 15.4.1 we have $R \subseteq P^{-1}$. For contradiction's sake, assume $\operatorname{ht}(P) > 1$. Lemma 15.4.2 says $P^{-1}P = P$. Given $\alpha \in P^{-1}$, we have $\alpha P \subseteq P$, and for all n > 0,

$$\alpha^n P = \alpha^{n-1} \alpha P \subseteq \alpha^{n-1} P \subseteq \dots \subseteq \alpha P.$$

Therefore, $\alpha^n \in P^{-1}$ for all n > 0, and $R[\alpha] \subseteq P^{-1}$. Since $x \neq 0$, $P \neq (0)$, so there exists $x_1 \in P - (0)$. Then for all $y \in P^{-1}$, $x_1^{-1}y \in R$. So $y \in x_1^{-1}R$, which shows P^{-1} is a subset of the principal R-module $x_1^{-1}R$. Since R is noetherian, P^{-1} is finitely generated as an R-module. Since $R[\alpha] \subseteq P^{-1}$, it follows that $R[\alpha]$ is finitely generated as an R-module. By Proposition 10.1.2, α , and hence P^{-1} , is integral over R. Since R is integrally closed, it follows that $P^{-1} \subseteq R$, which is a contradiction.

(2): By Theorem 15.2.10, R_P is a DVR and every proper ideal is equal to P^mR_P , for some m>0. By Exercise 13.1.7, there is a unique ν such that $I=P^{\nu}R_P\cap R$, which is equal to $P^{(\nu)}$, by Exercise 13.3.9.

(3): This follows from Part (1), and Theorem 15.3.24.
$$\Box$$

In the terminology of [22], Corollary 15.4.4 says that R is a Krull domain.

COROLLARY 15.4.4. Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain with field of fractions K. Let $\alpha \in K^*$.

- (1) $\nu_P(\alpha) = 0$ for all but finitely many $P \in X_1(R)$.
- (2) $\alpha \in R$ if and only if $\nu_P(\alpha) \geq 0$ for all $P \in X_1(R)$.
- (3) $\alpha \in R^*$ if and only if $\nu_P(\alpha) = 0$ for all $P \in X_1(R)$.
- (4) $R = \bigcap_{P \in X_1(R)} R_P$.

PROOF. Step 1: Assume $\alpha \in R-(0)$. By Theorem 15.4.3, the reduced primary decomposition of $R\alpha$ is

$$\alpha R = P_1^{(n_1)} \cap \dots \cap P_s^{(n_s)}$$

where $s \geq 0$, P_1, \ldots, P_s are height one primes of R, $n_i \geq 1$, and s = 0 if and only if α is invertible in R. The integers s, n_1, \ldots, n_s and the primes P_1, \ldots, P_s are unique. By Exercise 7.1.12,

$$\alpha R_P = \begin{cases} \mathfrak{m}_{P_i}^{n_i} & \text{if } P \in \{P_1, \dots, P_s\} \\ R_P & \text{if } P \notin \{P_1, \dots, P_s\}. \end{cases}$$

It follows that

$$\nu_P(\alpha) = \begin{cases} n_i & \text{if } P \in \{P_1, \dots, P_s\} \\ 0 & \text{if } P \notin \{P_1, \dots, P_s\}. \end{cases}$$

This proves that

$$\alpha R = \bigcap_{P \in X_1(R)} P^{(\nu_P(\alpha))}.$$

Step 2: Assume $\alpha = uv^{-1} \in K^*$, where $u, v \in R - (0)$. We can apply Step 1 to both u and v. That is, $uR = \bigcap_{P \in X_1(R)} P^{(\nu_P(u))}$ and $vR = \bigcap_{P \in X_1(R)} P^{(\nu_P(v))}$ where $\nu_P(u) \geq 0$ and $\nu_P(v) \geq 0$ for all $P \in X_1(R)$. For each $P \in X_1(R)$, $\nu_P(uv^{-1}) = \nu_P(u) - \nu_P(v)$ is zero for all but finitely many P. This proves Part (1). If $\nu_P(uv^{-1}) \geq 0$ for all P, then $uR \subseteq vR$, hence $uv^{-1}R \subseteq R$ which implies $uv^{-1} \in R$. This proves Part (2). Parts (3) and (4) are left to the reader.

4.2. Serre's Criteria for Normality.

DEFINITION 15.4.5. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring and $i \in \mathbb{N}$. We say R has property (S_i) , if for every prime ideal P in R depth $(R_P) \ge \inf(i, \operatorname{ht}(P))$. We say R has property (R_i) , if for every prime ideal P in R such that $\operatorname{ht}(P) \le i$, R_P is a regular local ring.

Example 15.4.6. Some important cases of properties (S_i) are listed here.

- (1) Any commutative noetherian ring R has property (S_0) .
- (2) By Exercise 15.3.16, R has property (S_1) if and only if R has no embedded primes.
- (3) The commutative noetherian ring R has properties (S_i) for all $i \geq 0$ if and only if for every $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, $\operatorname{depth}(R_P) = \dim(R_P) = \operatorname{ht}(P)$. This is true if and only if R is Cohen-Macaulay.

PROPOSITION 15.4.7. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring. Then R has properties (S_1) and (R_0) if and only if $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0) = (0)$. The ring R is said to be reduced.

PROOF. Assume R is reduced, that is, assume $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0) = (0)$. Let P_1, \ldots, P_n be the complete list of distinct minimal primes of the zero ideal. By Theorem 13.2.7, $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(R) \supseteq \{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$. By Exercise 13.2.18, the natural homomorphism of rings

$$R \xrightarrow{\phi} \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} R/P_i$$

is one-to-one. By Corollary 13.2.3, we have $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(\bigoplus_{i=1}^n R/P_i) = \{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$. These results, together with Proposition 13.2.2(4), prove $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(R) = \{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$. Therefore every associated prime of R is minimal. Given $P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$, if $\operatorname{ht}(P) \geq 1$, then $\operatorname{depth}(P) \geq 1$, by Exercise 15.3.16. Therefore, R has property (S_1) . If $\operatorname{ht}(P) = 0$, then by Exercise 7.3.28, the nil radical of R_P is (0). Since R_P has dimension 0, by Lemma 8.4.2, R_P is artinian. Proposition 8.4.3 implies R_P is a field. This proves R has property (R_0) .

Conversely, assume $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0) \neq (0)$ and R has property (S_1) . We show R does not have property (R_0) . By Proposition 13.2.2 (1), there exists a nonzero nilpotent element $x \in \operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$ and a prime ideal $P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$ such that $P = \operatorname{annih}_R(x)$. Then $P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(R)$ and by property (S_1) , $\operatorname{ht}(P) = 0$. By Exercise 15.4.18, the image of x in R_P is a nonzero nilpotent. Therefore, R_P is not a field, so R does not have property (R_0) .

Theorem 15.4.8. (Serre's Criteria for Normality) Let R be a commutative noetherian ring. Then R is normal if and only if the following two properties are satisfied.

- (R₁) For every prime ideal P in R such that $ht(P) \leq 1$, R_P is a regular local ring.
- (S_2) For every prime ideal P in R,

$$depth(R_P) \ge \begin{cases} 1 & if \operatorname{ht}(P) = 1\\ 2 & if \operatorname{ht}(P) \ge 2. \end{cases}$$

PROOF. Assume R is normal and $P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$. By definition, R_P is an integrally closed integral domain. If $\operatorname{ht}(P) = 1$, then Theorem 15.2.10 says R_P is a regular local ring. Suppose $\operatorname{ht}(P) \geq 2$. By Exercise 13.6.19, there exist elements a_1, a_2 in PR_P such that $\operatorname{ht}(a_1) = 1$ and $\operatorname{ht}(a_1, a_2) = 2$. Therefore, a_1 is not a zero divisor for R_P . By Theorem 15.4.3(1), $R_P/(a_1)$ has no embedded primes, so a_2 is not a zero divisor for $R_P/(a_1)$. This proves a_1, a_2 is a regular sequence for R_P in PR_P , hence $\operatorname{depth}(R_P) \geq 2$.

The converse is a series of four steps. Assume R has properties (R_1) and (S_2) . Step 1: Show that the nil radical of R is trivial. If $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ and $\operatorname{ht}(P) \geq 1$, then by (S_2) , $\operatorname{depth}(R_P) \geq 1$ and by Exercise 15.3.16, P is not an associated prime of R. That is, $\operatorname{Assoc}(R)$ contains no embedded primes. By Proposition 15.4.7 we know that $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0) = (0)$.

Step 2: Show that the localization of R with respect to the set of all nonzero divisors decomposes into a sum of fields. Let P_1, \ldots, P_n be the distinct minimal primes of R. Then R_{P_i} is a field, and by Exercise 7.1.17, R_{P_i} is the quotient field of R/P_i . Since $\operatorname{Assoc}(R) = \{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$, by Proposition 13.2.2, the set of nonzero divisors in R is equal to $W = R - \bigcup_{i=1}^n P_i$. Then W is a multiplicatively closed set and $\operatorname{Spec}(RW^{-1}) = \{P_1W^{-1}, \ldots, P_nW^{-1}\}$. Since each prime ideal in RW^{-1} is maximal, RW^{-1} is artinian. By Exercise 7.3.28, $\operatorname{Rad}_{RW^{-1}}(0) = (0)$. By Proposition 8.4.3 and Theorem 8.2.3, RW^{-1} is semisimple. By Theorem 8.3.3 (2) RW^{-1} decomposes into a direct sum

$$RW^{-1} = \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} \frac{RW^{-1}}{P_i W^{-1}} = \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} (R/P_i)W^{-1}$$

where each ring $(R/P_i)W^{-1}$ is a field. Since $W \subseteq R - P_i$ for each i, there is a natural map $RW^{-1} \to \bigoplus_{i=1}^n R_{P_i}$. This gives a homomorphism

$$(R/P_i)W^{-1} = \frac{RW^{-1}}{P_iW^{-1}} \xrightarrow{\phi_i} R_{P_i}$$

for each i. For each i, the kernel of the natural map $R \to (R/P_i)W^{-1}$ is the prime ideal P_i . Hence $R/P_i \to (R/P_i)W^{-1}$ is one-to-one and factors through the quotient field R_{P_i} ,

$$R_{P_i} \xrightarrow{\psi_i} (R/P_i)W^{-1}$$

for each i. The maps ϕ_i and ψ_i are inverses of each other, so the natural map

$$RW^{-1} \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} R_{P_i}$$

is an isomorphism.

Step 3: Show that R is integrally closed in its total ring of quotients RW^{-1} . Suppose $rw^{-1} \in RW^{-1}$, $u \ge 1$, and $a_1, \ldots, a_{u-1} \in R$ such that

$$(4.1) (rw^{-1})^u + a_{u-1}(rw^{-1})^{u-1} + \dots + a_1(rw^{-1}) + a_0 = 0$$

in RW^{-1} . The objective is to show $r \in wR$, so assume w is not a unit in R. If Q is a prime ideal that contains w, then the image of w is a nonzero divisor of R_Q in $\mathfrak{m}_Q = QR_Q$. By Corollary 13.6.12, $\operatorname{ht}(Q) \geq 1$. If $\operatorname{ht}(Q) \geq 2$, then by (S_2) , depth $(R_Q) \geq 2$. By Exercise 15.3.14, depth $(R_Q/wR_Q) \geq 1$ and by Exercise 15.3.16, Q is not an associated prime of R/wR. That is, $\operatorname{Assoc}(R/wR)$ consists only of minimal prime over-ideals of wR. Let $Q \in \operatorname{Assoc}(R/wR)$. By (R_1) , R_Q is an integral domain which is integrally closed in its field of fractions. By (4.1), the image of rw^{-1} in the quotient field of R_Q is integral over R_Q . In other words, $rw^{-1} \in R_Q$, or $r \in wR_Q \cap R$. If I is a Q-primary ideal in R, then $IR_Q = \mathfrak{m}_Q^{\nu}$, for some $\nu > 0$. By Exercise 13.1.7, $I = Q^{\nu}R_Q \cap R = Q^{(\nu)}$, the ν -th symbolic power of Q. The reduced primary decomposition of wR can be written in the form $wR = Q_1^{(\nu_1)} \cap \cdots \cap Q_s^{(\nu_s)}$. In this case, $wR_{Q_i} = Q_i^{\nu_i}R_{Q_i}$ and we already showed that r is in $wR_{Q_i} \cap R = Q_i^{(\nu_i)}$. This proves $r \in wR$.

Step 4: Show that R is normal. Let e_1, \ldots, e_n be the orthogonal idempotents in RW^{-1} corresponding to the direct sum decomposition of Step 2. Each e_i satisfies the monic polynomial $x^2 - x$ over R, hence belongs to R, by Step 3. This proves the natural map

$$R \to R/P_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus R/P_n$$

is onto, hence it is an isomorphism. The ideals P_1, \ldots, P_n are pairwise co-maximal. Every prime ideal Q of R contains exactly one of the ideals P_1, \ldots, P_n . Each of the integral domains R/P_i satisfies the two properties (R_1) and (S_2) . By Step 3, R/P_i is integrally closed in its quotient field R_{P_i} . By Lemma 15.1.5, R is a normal ring.

COROLLARY 15.4.9. If R is a Cohen-Macaulay ring, then R is normal if and only if R_P is regular for all P such that $\operatorname{ht}(P) \leq 1$.

PROOF. For every prime ideal P in R, depth $(R_P) = \dim(R_P) = \operatorname{ht}(P)$, so condition (S_2) of Theorem 15.4.8 is satisfied. Therefore, R is normal if and only condition (R_1) is satisfied.

4.2.1. Local Complete Intersection Criteria.

PROPOSITION 15.4.10. Let R be a commutative noetherian ring. Let a_1, \ldots, a_r be a sequence of elements of R such that $I = (a_1, \ldots, a_r)$ is not the unit ideal in R. Assume for every maximal ideal M of R such that $I \subseteq M$ that R_M is a Cohen-Macaulay local ring and $\operatorname{ht}(IR_M) = r$. Then

- (1) R/I is Cohen-Macaulay, and
- (2) R/I is normal if and only if $(R/I)_P$ is regular for all $P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R/I)$ such that $\operatorname{ht}(P) \leq 1$.

PROOF. (1): Since R_M is Cohen-Macaulay and $\operatorname{ht}(a_1R_M+\cdots+a_rR_M)=r$, by Theorem 15.3.22, a_1,\ldots,a_r is a regular sequence for R_M in MR_M . By Theorem 15.3.21, $R_M/IR_M=(R/I)_{M/I}$ is Cohen-Macaulay. By Definition 15.3.23, R/I is Cohen-Macaulay.

(2): Follows by Corollary 15.4.9 and Part (1).

4.3. The Approximation Theorem.

LEMMA 15.4.11. Let R be a noetherian integrally closed integral domain. Let $r \geq 1$ and $\mathfrak{p}, \mathfrak{p}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_r$ a set of r+1 distinct primes in $X_1(R)$. Then there exists $t \in R$ such that $\nu_{\mathfrak{p}}(t) = 1$ and for $1 \leq i \leq r$, $\nu_{\mathfrak{p}_i}(t) = 0$.

PROOF. Let $\pi_{\mathfrak{p}}$ be an element in R which maps to a local parameter for $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$. If $\pi_{\mathfrak{p}} \not\in \bigcup_{i=1}^r \mathfrak{p}_i$, then set $t = \pi_{\mathfrak{p}}$ and stop. Otherwise rearrange the list $\mathfrak{p}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_r$ and assume that $\pi_{\mathfrak{p}} \in \bigcap_{i=1}^s \mathfrak{p}_i$ and $\pi_{\mathfrak{p}} \not\in \bigcup_{j=1}^{r-s} \mathfrak{p}_{s+j}$ for some $s \geq 1$. Applying Lemma 10.3.2, since $\mathfrak{p}^2 \not\subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^s \mathfrak{p}_i$, pick $f_0 \in \mathfrak{p}^2 - \bigcup_{i=1}^s \mathfrak{p}_i$. Likewise, for $1 \leq j \leq r-s$, since $\mathfrak{p}_{s+j} \not\subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^s \mathfrak{p}_i$, pick $f_j \in \mathfrak{p}_{s+j} - \bigcup_{i=1}^s \mathfrak{p}_i$. Set $t = \pi_{\mathfrak{p}} - f_0 f_1 \cdots f_{r-s}$. Then $t \in \mathfrak{p} - \bigcup_{i=1}^r \mathfrak{p}_i$. Thus $\nu_{\mathfrak{p}_i}(t) = 0$ for $1 \leq i \leq r$. Now $f_0 f_1 \cdots f_{r-s} \in \mathfrak{p}^2 R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ and since $\pi_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a local parameter for $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$, $t \in \mathfrak{p} R_{\mathfrak{p}} - \mathfrak{p}^2 R_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Thus $\nu_{\mathfrak{p}}(t) = 1$.

THEOREM 15.4.12. (The Approximation Theorem) Let R be a noetherian integrally closed integral domain with field of fractions K. Let $r \geq 1$ and $\mathfrak{p}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_r$ a set of distinct primes in $X_1(R)$. Let $n_1, \ldots, n_r \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then there exists $\alpha \in K$ such that

$$\nu_{\mathfrak{p}}(\alpha) = \begin{cases} n_i & \text{if } \mathfrak{p} \in \{\mathfrak{p}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_r\} \\ \geq 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

PROOF. Using Lemma 15.4.11, pick t_1, \ldots, t_r in R such that $\nu_{\mathfrak{p}_i}(t_j) = \delta_{i,j}$ (Kronecker delta). In K^* , let $\beta = t_1^{n_1} \cdots t_r^{n_r}$. If there is no height one prime \mathfrak{p} in $X_1(R) - \{\mathfrak{p}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_r\}$ such that $\nu_{\mathfrak{p}}(\beta) < 0$, then we take $\alpha = \beta$ and stop. Otherwise, let $\mathfrak{q}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{q}_s$ be those height one primes in $X_1(R) - \{\mathfrak{p}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_r\}$ such that $\nu_{\mathfrak{q}_j}(\beta) < 0$ for $1 \le j \le s$. Using Lemma 15.4.11, pick u_1, \ldots, u_s in R such that

$$\nu_{\mathfrak{p}}(u_j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{q}_j, \\ 0 & \text{if } \mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{q}_i, \text{ for some } i \neq j, \\ 0 & \text{if } \mathfrak{p} \in \{\mathfrak{p}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_r\}. \end{cases}$$

Let $m_j = \nu_{\mathfrak{q}_j}(\beta)$ for $1 \leq j \leq s$. Then $\alpha = t_1^{n_1} \cdots t_r^{n_r} u_1^{-m_1} \cdots u_s^{-m_s}$ satisfies the conclusion of the theorem.

4.4. Divisor Classes of Integral Domains.

DEFINITION 15.4.13. Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain with field of fractions K. Let $X_1(R)$ be the subset of Spec R consisting of those prime ideals of height one. The free \mathbb{Z} -module on $X_1(R)$,

$$\operatorname{Div} R = \bigoplus_{P \in X_1(R)} \mathbb{Z} P$$

is called the *group of Weil divisors* of R. According to Corollary 15.4.4, there is a homomorphism of groups Div : $K^* \to \text{Div}(R)$ defined by

$$\operatorname{Div}(\alpha) = \sum_{P \in X_1(R)} \nu_P(\alpha) P,$$

and the kernel of Div() is equal to the group R^* . The class group of R is defined to be the cokernel of Div(), and is denoted Cl(R). The sequence

$$0 \to R^* \to K^* \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Div}} \operatorname{Div}(R) \to \operatorname{Cl}(R) \to 0$$

is exact. The image of Div : $K^* \to \text{Div } R$ is denoted Prin R and is called the group of *principal Weil divisors*. In other words, Cl(R) is the group of Weil divisors modulo the principal Weil divisors.

Theorem 15.4.14. Let R be a noetherian integral domain. Then R is a UFD if and only if every prime ideal of height one is principal.

PROOF. Suppose R has the property that every height one prime is principal. Let p be an irreducible element of R. By Exercise 3.4.29, it suffices to show that p is a prime element of R. By Lemma 3.4.5, it is enough to show that the principal ideal (p) is a prime ideal. Let P be a minimal prime over-ideal of (p). By Corollary 13.6.12 (Krull's Hauptidealsatz), $\operatorname{ht}(P) = 1$. By hypothesis, $P = (\pi)$ is principal. Then π divides p and since p is irreducible, it follows that π and p are associates. This implies P = (p). The converse follows from Exercise 3.4.30.

COROLLARY 15.4.15. Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain. Then R is a UFD if and only if Cl(R) = (0).

THEOREM 15.4.16. (Nagata's Theorem) Let R denote a noetherian normal integral domain with field of fractions K. Let f be a nonzero noninvertible element of R with divisor $Div(f) = \nu_1 P_1 + \cdots + \nu_n P_n$. The sequence of abelian groups

$$1 \to R^* \to R[f^{-1}]^* \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Div}} \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \mathbb{Z}P_i \to \operatorname{Cl}(R) \to \operatorname{Cl}(R[f^{-1}]) \to 0$$

is exact.

PROOF. There is a tower of subgroups $R^* \subseteq R[f^{-1}]^* \subseteq K^*$. There exists a map α such that the diagram

$$1 \longrightarrow R^* \longrightarrow K^* \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Div}} \operatorname{Prin} R \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\delta} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\epsilon} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha}$$

$$1 \longrightarrow R[f^{-1}]^* \longrightarrow K^* \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Div}} \operatorname{Prin} R[f^{-1}] \longrightarrow 0$$

is commutative, where δ is set inclusion and ϵ is set equality. Clearly, α is onto. By the Snake Lemma (Theorem 6.6.2), coker $\delta \cong \ker \alpha$. Hence

$$(4.2) 1 \to R^* \to R[f^{-1}]^* \to \ker \alpha \to 0$$

is exact. Using Exercise 7.3.26, $X_1(R[f^{-1}])$ is the subset of $X_1(R)$ consisting of those primes of height one in R that do not contain f. We can view $\text{Div}(R[f^{-1}])$ as the free \mathbb{Z} -submodule of Div(R) generated by primes in $X_1(R[f^{-1}])$. Let β be the projection map onto this subgroup defined by $P_1 \mapsto 0, \ldots, P_n \mapsto 0$. This diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Prin}(R) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Div}(R) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Cl}(R) \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\beta} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Prin}(R[f^{-1}]) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Div}(R[f^{-1}]) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Cl}(R[f^{-1}]) \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes and the rows are exact. Since β is onto, so is γ . The group Div R is free on $X_1(R)$. The only height one primes that contain f are P_1, \ldots, P_n . Therefore, the kernel of β is the free subgroup $\mathbb{Z}P_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}P_n$. By the Snake Lemma

(Theorem 6.6.2),

$$(4.3) 0 \to \ker \alpha \to \ker \beta \to \ker \gamma \to 0$$

is exact. Combine (4.2) and (4.3) to complete the proof.

Example 15.4.17. Let k be a field with characteristic not equal to 3. Let

$$R = \frac{k[x, y, z]}{(z^3 - y(y - x)(x + 1))}.$$

The reader should verify that R is an integrally closed noetherian integral domain. This can be done using the method outlined in Exercise 15.4.19. Let K be the quotient field of R. In this example we compute the class group $\mathrm{Cl}(R)$ and the group of invertible elements, R^* . To compute the class group $\mathrm{Cl}(R)$, we first show that there exists a localization of R which is factorial. The transformation we use is based on the blowing-up of the maximal ideal (x,y,z). The reader is referred to $[\mathbf{26}, \mathrm{pp}, 28-29]$ for more details. Start with the equation

$$(4.4) z3 - y(y-x)(x+1) = 0$$

in K. Divide both sides of (4.4) by x^3 and substitute v = y/x and w = z/x to get

$$(4.5) w^3 - v(v-1)(1+x^{-1}) = 0.$$

Solve (4.5) for x to get

$$(4.6) x = \frac{v^2 - v}{w^3 - v^2 + v}.$$

Now treat v, w as indeterminates and define

(4.7)
$$R = \frac{k[x, y, z]}{(z^3 - y(y - x)(x + 1))} \xrightarrow{\phi} k[v, w][(w^3 - v^2 + v)^{-1}]$$

by $\phi(x) = (v^2 - v)(w^3 - v^2 + v)^{-1}$, $\phi(y) = v\phi(x)$, and $\phi(z) = w\phi(x)$. The reader should verify that ϕ is a well-defined k-algebra homomorphism and that if we adjoin $(xy(y-x))^{-1}$ to R and $(v^2 - v)^{-1}$ to the ring on the right hand side of (4.7), then

$$(4.8) R[x^{-1}, y^{-1}, (y-x)^{-1}] \xrightarrow{\phi} k[v, w][v^{-1}, (v-1)^{-1}, (w^3 - v^2 + v)^{-1}]$$

is a k-algebra homomorphism which is onto. Since the domain and range of ϕ are both noetherian integral domains with Krull dimension two, ϕ is an isomorphism (Corollary 14.3.4). Since k[v,w] is a unique factorization domain, it follows from Theorem 15.4.16 that the group of units in the ring on the right hand side of (4.8) decomposes into the internal direct product

$$(4.9) k^* \times \langle v \rangle \times \langle v - 1 \rangle \times \langle w^3 - v^2 + v \rangle.$$

Using the isomorphism (4.8) we see that the group of units in $R[x^{-1}, y^{-1}, (y-x)^{-1}]$ is generated by k^* , x, y, y-x. Since z^3-y^2 is irreducible, $R/(x) \cong k[y, z]/(z^3-y^2)$ is an integral domain of Krull dimension one. Also, $R/(y, z) \cong k[x]$ and $R/(y-x, z) \cong k[x]$. From this it follows that

$$\mathfrak{p}_0 = (x)
\mathfrak{p}_1 = (y, z)
\mathfrak{p}_2 = (y - x, z)$$

are each height one prime ideals of R. Using the identity (4.4) we see that z is a local parameter for each of the two local rings: $R_{\mathfrak{p}_1}$ and $R_{\mathfrak{p}_2}$. From this we compute the divisors:

Since $R[x^{-1}, y^{-1}, (y - x)^{-1}]$ is factorial, the exact sequence of Nagata (Theorem 15.4.16) is

$$(4.12) 1 \to R^* \to R[(xy(y-x))^{-1}]^* \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Div}} \bigoplus_{i=0}^2 \mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{p}_i \to \operatorname{Cl}(R) \to 0.$$

From (4.12) and (4.11), it follows that $\operatorname{Cl}(R) \cong \mathbb{Z}/3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}/3$ and is generated by the prime divisors \mathfrak{p}_1 and \mathfrak{p}_2 . We remark that from (4.9) and (4.12) it follows that $R^* = k^*$.

4.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 15.4.18. Let R be a commutative ring and assume $\operatorname{Rad}_R(0)$ is nonzero. Let x be a nonzero nilpotent element in R and let P be a prime ideal of R containing $\operatorname{annih}_R(x)$. Show that the image of x in the local ring R_P is nonzero and nilpotent.

EXERCISE 15.4.19. Let k be a field and $n \ge 2$ an integer which is invertible in k. Let $f \in k[x,y,z]$ be the polynomial $z^n - xy$ and let R be the quotient k[x,y,z]/(f). In R we prefer not to use special adornment for cosets. That is, write simply x, or z for the coset represented by that element.

- (1) Show that R is a noetherian integral domain and $\dim(R) = 2$.
- (2) Let P = (x, z) be the ideal in R generated by x and z. Show that P is a prime ideal of height one.
- (3) Let I=(x) be the principal ideal generated by x in R. Show that $\operatorname{Rad}(I)=P$.
- (4) Show that R_P is a DVR and z generates the maximal ideal \mathfrak{m}_P .
- (5) Show that $\nu_P(x) = n$ and Div(x) = nP.
- (6) Show that $R[x^{-1}] \cong k[x,z][x^{-1}]$ and $R[y^{-1}] \cong k[y,z][y^{-1}]$. Show that $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is regular if $\mathfrak{p} \in U(x) \cup U(y)$.
- (7) Show that the only prime ideal containing both x and y is the maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} = (x, y, z)$, which has height 2. Show that $\operatorname{depth}(R_{\mathfrak{m}}) = 2$. Apply Theorem 15.4.8 to show that R is integrally closed.
- (8) Show that $Cl(R[x^{-1}]) = 0$. (Hint: $R[x^{-1}]$ is a UFD.)
- (9) Cl(R) is cyclic of order n.

EXERCISE 15.4.20. Let $S = \mathbb{R}[x,y]/(f)$, where $f = x^2 + y^2 - 1$. By Exercise 6.3.8, S is not a UFD. This exercise is an outline of a proof that $\mathrm{Cl}(S)$, the class group of S, is cyclic of order two.

- (1) Let R be the \mathbb{R} -subalgebra of $S[x^{-1}]$ generated by yx^{-1} and x^{-1} . Show that $R = \mathbb{R}[yx^{-1}, x^{-1}]/(1 + (yx^{-1})^2 (x^{-1})^2)$ is a PID.
- (2) Show that R[x] = S[1/x] is a PID.
- (3) Let $P_1 = (x, y 1)$ and $P_2 = (x, y + 1)$. Show that S_{P_1} and S_{P_2} are local principal ideal domains. Conclude that S is normal.

- (4) Show that $Div(x) = P_1 + P_2$ and $Div(y 1) = 2P_1$.
- (5) Use Theorem 15.4.16 to prove that that Cl(S) is generated by P_1 and has order two.

EXERCISE 15.4.21. (Nagata's Theorem) Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain with field of fractions K. Let $W \subseteq R - \{0\}$ be a multiplicative set. Modify the proof of Theorem 15.4.16 to show that there is an epimorphism of groups $\gamma: \operatorname{Cl}(R) \to \operatorname{Cl}(W^{-1}R)$ and that the kernel of γ is generated by the classes of those prime divisors $P \in X_1(R) - X_1(W^{-1}R)$.

EXERCISE 15.4.22. This exercise is a continuation of Exercise 15.4.19. Let k be a field and $n \geq 2$ an integer which is invertible in k. Let $f \in k[x,y,z]$ be the polynomial $z^n - xy$ and let R be the quotient k[x,y,z]/(f). Let \mathfrak{m} be the maximal ideal (x,y,z) in R, and \hat{R} the \mathfrak{m} -adic completion of R.

- (1) Show that $\hat{R} \cong k[[x,y]][z]/(f)$.
- (2) Follow the procedure outlined in Exercise 15.4.19 to show that \hat{R} is a noetherian normal integral domain and $Cl(\hat{R})$ is a cyclic group of order n generated by the class of the prime ideal P = (x, z).

In Algebraic Geometry, the ring R is the affine coordinate ring of the surface $X = Z(z^n - xy)$ in \mathbb{A}^3_k and the point p = (0,0,0) is called a singular point of X. It follows from [19, A5] and [37] that p is a rational double point of type A_{n-1} .

EXERCISE 15.4.23. Let k be a field such that char $k \neq 2$. For the ring

$$R = \frac{k[x, y, z]}{(z^2 - (y^2 - x^2)(x+1))}$$

follow the method of Example 15.4.17 to prove the following:

- (1) $R[x^{-1}, (y^2 x^2)^{-1}]$ is a UFD.
- (2) The group of invertible elements in $R[x^{-1}, (y^2 x^2)^{-1}]$ is generated by x, y x, y + x.
- (3) $\mathfrak{q}_1 = (x, z y), \, \mathfrak{q}_2 = (x, z + y), \, \mathfrak{p}_1 = (y x, z), \, \mathfrak{p}_2 = (y + x, z), \, \text{are height one prime ideals in } R.$
- (4) $\operatorname{Div}(x) = \mathfrak{q}_1 + \mathfrak{q}_2$, $\operatorname{Div}(y x) = 2\mathfrak{p}_1$, $\operatorname{Div}(y + x) = 2\mathfrak{p}_2$.
- (5) $Cl(R) \cong \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}/2$.

EXERCISE 15.4.24. Let k be a field and n > 1 an integer that is invertible in k. Assume moreover that k contains a primitive nth root of unity, say ζ . Let a_1, \ldots, a_n be distinct elements of k. For $1 \le i \le n$, define linear polynomials $\ell_i(x, y) = y - a_i x$ in k[x, y], and set $f(x, y) = \ell_1(x, y) \cdots \ell_n(x, y)$. For the ring

$$R = \frac{k[x, y, z]}{(z^n - f(x, y)(x+1))}$$

follow the method of Example 15.4.17 to prove the following:

- (1) $R[x^{-1}, f(x, y)^{-1}]$ is a UFD.
- (2) The group of invertible elements in $R[x^{-1}, f(x, y)^{-1}]$ is generated by $x, \ell_1, \ldots, \ell_n$.
- (3) Let $\mathfrak{q}_i = (x, z \zeta^i y)$, for $i = 0, \dots, n-1$. Let $\mathfrak{p}_j = (\ell_j, z)$, for $j = 1, \dots, n$. Then $\mathfrak{q}_0, \dots, \mathfrak{q}_{n-1}, \mathfrak{p}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_n$ are height one prime ideals in R.
- (4) $\operatorname{Div}(x) = \mathfrak{q}_0 + \cdots + \mathfrak{q}_{n-1}$, and $\operatorname{Div}(\ell_j) = n\mathfrak{p}_j$, for $j = 1, \dots, n$.
- (5) $\operatorname{Cl}(R) \cong (\mathbb{Z})^{(n-1)} \oplus (\mathbb{Z}/n)^{(n)}$.

Notice that for n=2, this agrees with computation carried out in Exercise 15.4.23. The ring R was the focus of the article [21] where many other interesting properties of R were studied.

EXERCISE 15.4.25. Let k be a field and n > 2 an integer that is invertible in k. Let a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1} be distinct elements of k. For $1 \le i \le n-1$, define linear polynomials $\ell_i(x,y) = y - a_i x$ in k[x,y], and set $f(x,y) = \ell_1(x,y) \cdots \ell_{n-1}(x,y)$. For the ring

$$R = \frac{k[x, y, z]}{(z^n - f(x, y)(x+1))}$$

follow the method of Example 15.4.17 to prove the following:

- (1) $R[x^{-1}, f(x, y)^{-1}]$ is a UFD.
- (2) The group of invertible elements in $R[x^{-1}, f(x, y)^{-1}]$ is generated by $x, \ell_1, \ldots, \ell_{n-1}$.
- (3) Let $\mathfrak{p}_0 = (x)$, and for $i = 1, \ldots, n-1$, let $\mathfrak{p}_i = (\ell_i, z)$. Then $\mathfrak{p}_0, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_{n-1}$, are height one prime ideals in R.
- (4) $\operatorname{Div}(x) = \mathfrak{p}_0$, and $\operatorname{Div}(\ell_j) = n\mathfrak{p}_j$, for $j = 1, \dots, n-1$.
- (5) $\operatorname{Cl}(R) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/n)^{(n-1)}$.

Notice that for n = 3, this agrees with computation carried out in Example 15.4.17.

5. Fibers of a Faithfully Flat Morphism

Throughout this section R and S will be commutative rings. Usually R and S will be noetherian. Let $f: R \to S$ be a homomorphism of rings, and $f^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ the continuous map of Exercise 7.3.20. Let $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. The residue field at P is $k(P) = R_P/PR_P$. The fiber over P of the map f^{\sharp} is $\operatorname{Spec}(S \otimes_R k(P))$, which is homeomorphic to $(f^{\sharp})^{-1}(P)$, by Exercise 7.4.11. By Exercise 7.4.10, if Q is a prime ideal of S lying over P, then the corresponding prime ideal of $S \otimes_R k(P)$ is $Q \otimes_R k(P)$ and the local ring is $S_Q \otimes_R k(P) = S_Q/PS_Q$.

5.1. Flat Algebras and Depth.

Theorem 15.5.1. Assume all of the following are satisfied.

- (1) R is a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} .
- (2) S is a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{n} .
- (3) $f: R \to S$ is a local homomorphism of local rings.
- (4) A is a finitely generated R-module and B is a finitely generated S-module which is a flat R-module.

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{depth}_S(A \otimes_R B) &= \operatorname{depth}_R(A) + \operatorname{depth}_{S \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m}}(B \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m}) \\ &= \operatorname{depth}_R(A) + \operatorname{depth}_{S/\mathfrak{m}S}(B/\mathfrak{m}B). \end{aligned}$$

PROOF. The proof is by induction on $n = \operatorname{depth}_R(A) + \operatorname{depth}_S(B/\mathfrak{m}B)$. If n = 0, then by Exercise 15.3.15 we have $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(A)$ and $\mathfrak{n} \in \operatorname{Assoc}_S(B/\mathfrak{m}B)$. By Theorem 13.3.11,

$$\operatorname{Assoc}_{S}(A \otimes_{R} B) = \bigcup_{P \in \operatorname{Assoc}_{R}(A)} \operatorname{Assoc}_{S}(B \otimes_{R} R/P).$$

We have \mathfrak{n} in the right hand side, hence \mathfrak{n} is in $\mathrm{Assoc}_S(A \otimes_R B)$. By Exercise 15.3.15, $\mathrm{depth}_S(A \otimes_R B) = 0$. Now assume n > 0 and that the equation holds for modules A', B' such that $\mathrm{depth}_R(A') + \mathrm{depth}_S(B'/\mathfrak{m}B') < n$.

Case 1: Suppose $\operatorname{depth}_R(A) > 0$. Let α be a regular element for A in \mathfrak{m} . Since B is R-flat, $f(\alpha)$ is a regular element for $A \otimes_R B$ in \mathfrak{n} . By our Induction Hypothesis, the equation $\operatorname{depth}_S(A/\alpha A \otimes_R B) = \operatorname{depth}_R(A/\alpha A) + \operatorname{depth}_{S/\mathfrak{m}S}(B/\mathfrak{m}B)$ holds for $A/\alpha A$ and B. Adding 1 to both sides shows the equation holds for A and B.

Case 2: Assume $\operatorname{depth}_R(A) = 0$ and $\operatorname{depth}_S(B/\mathfrak{m}B) > 0$. Let β be a regular element for $B/\mathfrak{m}B = B \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m}$ in \mathfrak{n} . Start with the sequence of S-modules

$$(5.1) 0 \to B \xrightarrow{\ell_{\beta}} B \to B/\beta B \to 0$$

where ℓ_{β} is the "left multiplication by β " homomorphism. Applying the functor () $\otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m}$ to (5.1), we get the sequence

$$(5.2) 0 \to B \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m} \xrightarrow{\ell_{\beta} \otimes 1} B \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m} \to (B/\beta B) \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m} \to 0.$$

By choice of β , (5.2) is exact. By Proposition 14.4.14, (5.1) is exact and $B/\beta B$ is a flat R-module. Upon tensoring (5.1) with $A \otimes_R ($) we get

$$(5.3) 0 \to A \otimes_R B \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \ell_\beta} A \otimes_R B \to A \otimes_R (B/\beta B) \to 0$$

which is an exact sequence, by Lemma 12.3.2. This means β is a regular element for $A \otimes_R B$ in $\mathfrak n$. Therefore $\operatorname{depth}_S(A \otimes_R (B/\beta B)) = \operatorname{depth}_S(A \otimes_R B) - 1$. Since (5.2) is an exact sequence of $S/\mathfrak m S$ -modules, β is a regular element for $B/\mathfrak m B$ in $\mathfrak n S/\mathfrak m S$. Therefore $\operatorname{depth}_{S/\mathfrak m S}((B/\beta B) \otimes_R R/\mathfrak m) = \operatorname{depth}_{S/\mathfrak m S}(B \otimes_R R/\mathfrak m) - 1$. By our Induction Hypothesis, the equation

$$\operatorname{depth}_{S}(A \otimes_{R} (B/\beta B)) = \operatorname{depth}_{R}(A) + \operatorname{depth}_{S/\mathfrak{m}S}((B/\beta B) \otimes_{R} R/\mathfrak{m})$$

holds for A and $B/\beta B$. Adding 1 to both sides shows the equation holds for A and B

COROLLARY 15.5.2. Assume $f: R \to S$ is a local homomorphism of noetherian local rings making S into a flat R-algebra. If the maximal ideal of R is \mathfrak{m} , then the following are true.

- (1) $\operatorname{depth}(S) = \operatorname{depth}(R) + \operatorname{depth}(S/\mathfrak{m}S)$.
- (2) S is Cohen-Macaulay if and only if R and $S/\mathfrak{m}S$ are both Cohen-Macaulay.

PROOF. (1): Follows straight from Theorem 15.5.1.

(2): By Theorems 10.3.6 and 13.6.21, $\dim(S) = \dim(R) + \dim(S/\mathfrak{m}S)$. By Corollary 15.3.12, the depth of a noetherian local ring is always less than or equal to its Krull dimension. Part (2) follows from these facts and Part (1).

COROLLARY 15.5.3. Assume $f: R \to S$ is a faithfully flat homomorphism of commutative noetherian rings. Let i be a positive integer. Then the following are true.

- (1) If S satisfies property (S_i) of Definition 15.4.5, then so does R.
- (2) If R satisfies property (S_i) and for each $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, $S \otimes_R k(P)$ satisfies (S_i) , then S satisfies property (S_i) .

PROOF. (1): Let $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. By Lemma 7.5.4, $f^{\sharp} : \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is onto. By Exercise 7.3.25 there exists $Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ which is a minimal prime over-ideal of PS and $f^{\sharp}(Q) = P$. Then $\dim(S_Q \otimes_R k(P)) = \operatorname{depth}(S_Q \otimes_R k(P)) = 0$. By

Theorem 15.5.1, $depth(S_Q) = depth(R_P)$. It follows that

$$depth(R_P) = depth(S_Q)$$

$$\geq \inf(i, \dim(S_Q))$$

$$= \inf(i, \dim(R_P))$$

which shows R has property (S_i) .

(2): Let $Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ and set $P = Q \cap R$. Applying Theorems 15.5.1 and 13.6.21, we get

$$depth(S_Q) = depth(R_P) + depth(S_Q \otimes_R k(P))$$

$$\geq \inf(i, \dim(R_P)) + \inf(i, \dim(S_Q \otimes_R k(P)))$$

$$\geq \inf(i, \dim(R_P) + \dim(S_Q \otimes_R k(P)))$$

$$= \inf(i, \dim(S_Q))$$

which shows S has property (S_i) .

Theorem 15.5.4. Let R be a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , S a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{n} , and $f:R\to S$ a local homomorphism of local rings. Then the following are true.

- (1) If S is a flat R-algebra and regular, then R is regular.
- (2) Ij
 - (a) $\dim(S) = \dim(R) + \dim(S/\mathfrak{m}S),$
 - (b) R is regular, and
 - (c) $S/\mathfrak{m}S$ is regular,

then S is a flat R-algebra and S is regular.

PROOF. (1): This is Exercise 15.3.41. To prove it, apply Proposition 12.4.16 and Theorem 15.3.37.

(2): By (b), there exists $\{a_1, \ldots, a_m\} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$ which is a regular system of parameters for R. By (c), there exists $\{b_1, \ldots, b_n\} \subseteq \mathfrak{n}$ which maps onto a regular system of parameters for $S/\mathfrak{m}S$. Then $\{f(a_1), \ldots, f(a_m), b_1, \ldots, b_n\}$ generate the ideal \mathfrak{n} . By (a), $\dim(S) = m + n$. Therefore, S is regular.

To prove that S is a flat R-algebra, we utilize (5) implies (1) of Theorem 14.4.13. It suffices to show that $\operatorname{gr}_{\mathfrak{m}}(R) \otimes_{R/\mathfrak{m}} S/\mathfrak{m}S \cong \operatorname{gr}_{\mathfrak{m}S}(S)$. In the notation from above, there is a regular system of parameters $\{a_1,\ldots,a_m\}\subseteq\mathfrak{m}$ for R such that $\{f(a_1),\ldots,f(a_m)\}$ is a regular sequence for S in \mathfrak{n} . By Theorem 15.3.6 (2),

$$\operatorname{gr}_{\mathfrak{m}S}(S) = (S/\mathfrak{m}S)[t_1, \dots, t_m] = (R/\mathfrak{m})[t_1, \dots, t_m] \otimes_{R/\mathfrak{m}} S/\mathfrak{m}S = \operatorname{gr}_{\mathfrak{m}}(R) \otimes_{R/\mathfrak{m}} S/\mathfrak{m}S$$
 which completes the proof.

COROLLARY 15.5.5. Assume $f: R \to S$ is a faithfully flat homomorphism of commutative noetherian rings. Let $i \geq 0$ be a natural number. Then the following are true.

- (1) If S satisfies property (R_i) of Definition 15.4.5, then so does R.
- (2) If R satisfies property (R_i) and for each $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, $S \otimes_R k(P)$ satisfies (R_i) , then S satisfies property (R_i) .

Corollary 15.5.6. Assume $f: R \to S$ is a faithfully flat homomorphism of commutative noetherian rings.

- (1) If S is a normal ring, then R is a normal ring. Conversely, if R is a normal ring and for each $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, $S \otimes_R k(P)$ is a normal ring, then S is a normal ring.
- (2) Part (1) is true if "normal ring" is replaced with "Cohen-Macaulay ring".
- (3) Part (1) is true if "normal ring" is replaced with "reduced ring".
- PROOF. (1): If S is a normal ring, then R is a normal ring, by Exercise 10.1.18 (3). Notice that this is true without the hypothesis that the rings R and S are noetherian. By Theorem 15.4.8, a commutative noetherian ring is normal if and only if the properties (R_1) and (S_2) are satisfied. Therefore, the "conversely" statement in (1) follows from Corollaries 15.5.5 and 15.5.3.
- (2): By Example 15.4.6 (3), a commutative noetherian ring is Cohen-Macaulay if and only if the properties (S_i) are satisfied for all $i \geq 1$. Therefore, (2) follows from Corollary 15.5.3.
- (3): By Proposition 15.4.7, a commutative noetherian ring is reduced if and only if the properties (R_0) and (S_1) are satisfied. Therefore, (3) follows from Corollaries 15.5.5 and 15.5.3.
- **5.2. Existence of a Flat Extension.** Let R be a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$. Let K/k be an extension of fields. The purpose of this section is to prove that there exists a noetherian local ring S and a faithfully flat local homomorphism $\theta: R \to S$ such that $S/\mathfrak{m}S = K$. This result appears as Theorem 15.5.7 below. All of the results in this section are based on [23, Proposition 10.3.1] and its proof.

Theorem 15.5.7. Let R be a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$. Let K/k be an extension of fields. Then there exists a noetherian local ring S and a local homomorphism of local rings $\theta: R \to S$ such that $S/\mathfrak{m}S = K$ and S is a faithfully flat R-algebra.

PROOF. The method of proof is to reduce to the case where K is a simple extension of k. To accomplish this, we write K as a direct limit of subfields over a well ordered index set.

Step 1: Assume K = k(t) is a transcendental extension of k of degree one. Let Q be the kernel of the natural map $R[t] \to R[t] \otimes_R k = k[t]$. Then Q is equal to the ideal $\mathfrak{m}[t]$. Let S be the local ring of R[t] at the prime ideal Q. By Exercise 7.1.17, the residue field S/QS is equal to the quotient field of R[t]/Q, which we identify with K = k(t). Since Q is generated by \mathfrak{m} , we have $R \to S$ is a local homomorphism of local rings and $\mathfrak{m}S = QS$. Since S is flat over S is flat over S, we have S is faithfully flat over S. Since S is noetherian, by Theorem 10.2.1 and Corollary 7.6.13, the ring S is noetherian.

Step 2: Assume K = k(t) is a finite dimensional algebraic extension of k generated by the primitive element t. Let $f = \min$ poly $_k(t)$ be the minimal polynomial of t in k[x]. Let $F \in R[x]$ be a monic polynomial which maps onto f under the natural map $R[x] \to R[x] \otimes_R k$. Let S = R[x]/(F). By Corollary 9.6.3, S is a local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}S$, residue field $S/\mathfrak{m}S = K$, and S is finitely generated and free as an R-module. Therefore, S is a faithfully flat R-algebra. Since R is noetherian, by Theorem 10.2.1, the ring S is noetherian.

Step 3: We will omit the details, but the reader should verify that the proof of Proposition 2.10.17 can be modified to show that there exists a well ordered set I and a family $\{K_{\xi} \mid \xi \in I\}$ of subfields of K indexed by I satisfying the following.

- (1) If 1 is the least element of I, then $K_1 = k$.
- (2) If α and β are in I and $\alpha \leq \beta$, then $k \subseteq K_{\alpha} \subseteq K_{\beta} \subseteq K$.
- (3) For each $\beta \in I$, if β has an immediate predecessor, say α , then there exists $x_{\beta} \in K_{\beta}$ such that $K_{\beta} = K_{\alpha}(x_{\beta})$ is a simple extension. If β has no immediate predecessor, then $K_{\beta} = \bigcup_{\xi \in (-\infty, \beta)} K_{\xi}$.
- (4) $K = \bigcup_{\xi \in I} K_{\xi}$.

By Transfinite Induction, Proposition 1.3.2, we define a direct limit system of local rings $\{S_{\xi} \mid \xi \in I\}$ over the index set I. First we set $S_1 = R$. Inductively, assume $\delta \in I$, $1 < \delta$. Assume for the well ordered set $(-\infty, \delta)$ that there is a direct limit system $\{S_{\xi}, \phi_{\beta}^{\alpha}\}$ where

- (A) $S_1 = R$.
- (B) Each S_{ξ} is a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m}_{ξ} and residue field $S_{\xi}/\mathfrak{m}_{\xi} = K_{\xi}$.
- (C) If $\alpha \leq \beta < \delta$, then $\phi_{\beta}^{\alpha} : S_{\alpha} \to S_{\beta}$ is a local homomorphism of local rings, $\mathfrak{m}_{\beta} = \mathfrak{m}_{\alpha} S_{\beta}$, and S_{β} is a faithfully flat S_{α} -algebra.

To define S_{δ} there are two cases. If δ has an immediate predecessor, say β , then K_{δ} is a simple extension of K_{β} . By Step 1 or Step 2 there exists a noetherian local ring S_{δ} which is a faithfully flat S_{α} -algebra with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m}_{δ} and residue field K_{δ} . For any $\alpha \leq \beta$ the homomorphism ϕ_{δ}^{α} is taken to be $\phi_{\delta}^{\beta} \circ \phi_{\beta}^{\alpha}$. If δ has no immediate predecessor, then $K_{\delta} = \bigcup_{\xi \in (-\infty,\delta)} K_{\xi}$. In this case we define S_{δ} to be the direct limit over the well ordered index set $(-\infty,\delta)$. By Exercise 6.8.30 and Corollary 14.5.4, $S_{\delta} = \varinjlim_{\xi \in (-\infty,\delta)} S_{\xi}$ is a noetherian local ring which is a faithfully flat R-algebra with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}_{\delta} = \varinjlim_{\xi} \mathfrak{m}_{\xi} = \mathfrak{m}_{\xi} S_{\delta}$, and residue field K_{δ} . Definition 6.8.2, the natural homomorphisms $\phi_{\delta}^{\alpha} : S_{\alpha} \to S_{\delta}$ exist and we have $\phi_{\delta}^{\alpha} = \phi_{\delta}^{\beta} \circ \phi_{\beta}^{\alpha}$ whenever $\alpha \leq \beta < \delta$. By Transfinite Induction, the direct limit system $\{S_{\xi}, \phi_{\beta}^{\alpha}\}$ exists over the index set I. By Exercise 6.8.30 and Corollary 14.5.4, if we define S to be the limit $S_{\delta} = \varinjlim_{\xi \in I} S_{\xi}$, then S is a noetherian local ring which is a faithfully flat R-algebra with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}_{\delta} = \varinjlim_{\xi} \mathfrak{m}_{\xi} = \mathfrak{m}_{\xi} S$, and residue field $K = \bigcup_{\xi \in I} K_{\xi}$.

COROLLARY 15.5.8. Let R be a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$. Let \mathfrak{C} be the category whose objects are the noetherian local faithfully flat R-algebras S such that $S \otimes_R R/\mathfrak{m}$ is a field. The morphisms of \mathfrak{C} are R-algebra homomorphisms. Let \mathfrak{D} be the category whose objects are field extensions of k and whose morphisms are k-algebra homomorphisms. Then the functor $() \otimes_R k : \mathfrak{C} \to \mathfrak{D}$ is essentially surjective.

Proof. This is a restatement of Theorem 15.5.7.

COROLLARY 15.5.9. Let R be a noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field $k=R/\mathfrak{m}$. Let K/k be a finite dimensional extension of fields. Then there exists a noetherian local ring S and a local homomorphism of local rings $\theta:R\to S$ such that $S/\mathfrak{m}S=K$ and S is a finitely generated faithfully flat R-module.

PROOF. In Step 3 of the proof of Theorem 15.5.7, the index set I can be taken to be finite. For the induction step, Step 2 is applied to get the ring S_{δ} , hence S_{δ} is a finitely generated free R-module.

COROLLARY 15.5.10. Let R be a local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$. Let K/k be an extension of fields. Then there exists a local ring S and a local homomorphism of local rings $\theta: R \to S$ such that $S/\mathfrak{m}S = K$ and S is a faithfully flat R-algebra.

PROOF. Notice that in Steps 1 and 2 of Theorem 15.5.7 the hypothesis that R is noetherian was only used to prove that S is noetherian. In Step 3 the hypothesis that each S_{ξ} is noetherian was only used when Corollary 14.5.4 was applied to prove that the direct limit is noetherian.

5.3. Ramified Radical Extensions. As another application of Theorem 15.5.1, we study the important class of finite extensions of commutative rings defined by adjoining an nth root of an element. Let R be a commutative ring, $n \geq 2$, $a \in R$, and set $S = R[x]/(x^n - a)$. We say S/R is a radical extension of degree n. In this section, the emphasis is on radical extensions which are not separable over R. Such an extension is also said to be a ramified extension. Our goal is to derive necessary and sufficient conditions on n and a such that if R is a noetherian normal integral domain, then so is S. Necessary conditions are provided by Lemma 15.5.12 (2). Sufficient conditions are stated in Lemma 15.5.13 and Theorem 15.5.14. For reference, we state sufficient conditions for S to be a separable R-algebra. The results of this section are based on [20, Section 9.4].

LEMMA 15.5.11. Let R be a commutative ring, $n \ge 2$, and $a \in R$. Then the following are true for the radical extension $S = R[x]/(x^n - a)$.

- (1) S is an R-algebra which is a finitely generated free R-module of rank n with basis $1, x, \ldots, x^{n-1}$.
- (2) S is separable over R if and only if a and n are both invertible in R.
- (3) Let $\theta: R \to S$ be the structure homomorphism. Then $\theta^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is onto and the closed set $V(x) \subseteq \operatorname{Spec} S$ is mapped homeomorphically onto the closed set $V(a) \subseteq \operatorname{Spec} R$.
- (4) If $Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$ and $P = Q \cap R$, then
 - (a) ht(Q) = ht(P),
 - (b) $\dim(S_Q/PS_Q) = 0$, and
 - (c) $depth(S_Q) = depth(R_P)$.
- (5) For $i \geq 1$, S satisfies property (S_i) of Definition 15.4.5 if and only if R does.

PROOF. (1) and (2): These follow from Exercises 4.2.26 and 9.5.17 respectively. (3): By (1), S is faithfully flat and integral over R. By Lemma 7.5.4, θ^{\sharp} is onto. Let $\eta: S \to S/(x)$ be the natural map. Then $\eta\theta(a) = 0$, so there is a commutative diagram

$$R \xrightarrow{\theta} S = R[x]/(x^n - a)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \eta$$

$$R/(a) \xrightarrow{\bar{\theta}} S/(x)$$

and the reader should verify that $\bar{\theta}$ is an isomorphism. By Exercise 7.3.22, there is a commutative diagram

$$V(x) \xrightarrow{\bar{\theta}^{\sharp}} V(a)$$

$$\downarrow \subseteq \qquad \qquad \downarrow \subseteq$$

$$\operatorname{Spec} S \xrightarrow{\theta^{\sharp}} \operatorname{Spec} R$$

and $\bar{\theta}^{\sharp}$ is a homeomorphism.

(4) and (5): Part (4) follows from Theorems 10.3.6, 13.6.22, and Corollary 15.5.2. Part (5) follows from Part (4). \Box

LEMMA 15.5.12. Let R be a commutative ring and a an element of R that is not a zero divisor. If $n \geq 2$ and $e \geq 1$, then the following are true for the radical extension $S = R[x]/(x^n - a^e)$.

- (1) a and x are not zero divisors in S.
- (2) If a is not a unit in R and $e \ge 2$, then S is not integrally closed in Q(S), the total ring of quotients of S.

PROOF. (1): Since S is a free R-module (Lemma 15.5.11), a is not a zero divisor of S. Suppose a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1} are elements of R and $(a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1})x = 0$. Then $a_0x + a_1x^2 + \cdots + a_{n-2}x^{n-1} + a_{n-1}a = 0$ implies $0 = a_0 = \cdots = a_{n-1}$. Therefore, x is not a zero divisor in S.

(2): Let $w = ax^{-1}$ and $v = xa^{-1}$, which are elements of Q(S). If $n \ge e$, then $w^n = a^n(x^n)^{-1} = a^{n-e} \in S$. Therefore, w is integral over S. For contradiction's sake, assume $w \in S$. Then there are elements a_i of R such that $a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} = ax^{-1}$. Then $a_0x + a_1x^2 + \cdots + a_{n-2}x^{n-1} + a_{n-1}x^n = a$, which implies $0 = a_0 = \cdots = a_{n-2}$, and $a_{n-1}a^e = a$. This is a contradiction, since a is not a zero divisor and not invertible. If n < e, then a similar argument shows v is integral over S, and $v \notin S$.

Now we derive sufficient conditions for a radical extension of a noetherian normal integral domain R to be a noetherian normal integral domain. Let a be a nonzero element of R and assume the divisor of a is

$$Div(a) = n_1 P_1 + \dots + n_v P_v$$

(Definition 15.4.13). If P_1, \ldots, P_v are distinct height one primes in $X_1(R)$ and $n_1 = n_2 = \cdots = n_v = 1$, then we say that Div(a) is a reduced effective divisor.

LEMMA 15.5.13. Let R be a DVR with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}=(\pi)$. Let $S=R[x]/(x^n-\pi)$, where $n\geq 2$. Then S is a DVR with maximal ideal M=(x).

PROOF. Since R is a UFD, so is R[x]. By Eisenstein's Criterion (Corollary 3.7.7), $x^n - \pi$ is irreducible in R[x]. Therefore, S is an integral domain. By the Hilbert Basis Theorem (Theorem 10.2.1), S is noetherian. Since $S/(x) = R/(\pi)$ is a field, M = (x) is a maximal ideal in S. By Theorem 10.3.7 (4) every maximal ideal of S contains π . Since $x^n = \pi$, this implies M is the unique maximal ideal, so S is a local ring. By Krull's Hauptidealsatz (Corollary 13.6.12 (2)), ht(M) = 1. Therefore, dim(S) = 1 and by Theorem 15.2.10, S is a DVR.

Theorem 15.5.14. Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain with quotient field K. Let a be a nonzero element of R and assume Div(a) is a reduced effective

divisor and $n \ge 2$ is invertible in R. If $S = R[x]/(x^n - a)$ and $L = K[x]/(x^n - a)$, then the following are true.

- (1) L is a field.
- (2) S is a noetherian integral domain.
- (3) L is the quotient field of S.
- (4) Let $Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$, $P = Q \cap R$, and assume that $a \notin P$. Then R_P is regular if and only if S_Q is regular.
- (5) S is a noetherian normal integral domain.
- (6) S is the integral closure of R in L.
- PROOF. (1): By Section 15.4.1, for each $P \in X_1(R)$, R_P is a DVR with valuation ν_P . Let $\mathrm{Div}(a) = P_1 + \cdots + P_v$, where P_1, \ldots, P_v are the distinct minimal primes of a in $X_1(R)$. For each i, $\nu_{P_i}(a) = 1$, so a is a local parameter for R_{P_i} . By Lemma 15.5.13, $x^n a$ is irreducible in $R_{P_i}[x]$. By Gauss' Lemma (Theorem 3.7.3), $x^n a$ is irreducible in K[x], which implies L is a field.
- (2): By Lemma 15.5.11, S is a free R-module of rank n and $1, x, \ldots, x^{n-1}$ is a basis. The natural mapping $S = S \otimes_R R \to S \otimes_R K = L$ is one-to-one since S is a flat R-module. Hence S is a subring of L and consequently an integral domain. By Theorem 10.2.1, S is noetherian.
- (3): Let Q(S) denote the quotient field of S. By Corollary 3.5.6 there is a homomorphism $Q(S) \to L$ which is onto since the natural mapping $S \to L$ is a localization of S.
- (4): Since $a \notin P$, the image of a in k(P) is invertible. By Lemma 15.5.11, $S \otimes_R R_P$ is separable over R_P . By Exercise 9.4.8, S_Q is separable over R_P . By Exercise 9.5.16, if k(P) is the residue field of R_P , then $S_Q \otimes_R k(P)$ is a separable field extension of k(P). By Theorem 15.5.4, R_P is regular if and only if S_Q is regular.
- (5): We apply the Serre Criteria, Theorem 15.4.8. By Lemma 15.5.11 (5) it suffices to show S has property (R_1) . Let $Q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$. Assume $\operatorname{ht}(Q) = 1$ and set $P = Q \cap R$. By Part (4) we can assume $a \in P$. By Lemma 15.5.11 (3), the prime ideals of S containing x correspond bijectively with the prime ideals of S containing S. Under this correspondence, a prime ideal S0 corresponds to S1 corresponds to S2 corresponds to S3 prime ideals of height one in S4 that contain S5 are S6. For S7 corresponds to S8 prime ideals of height one prime ideals of S8 lying over S9 is S9. We have S9 is S9 is a local parameter for S9 is a local parameter for S9. Lemma 15.5.13 shows that S9 is a DVR with local parameter S9. We have shown that S9 is regular in codimension one.
 - (6): S is integral over R and S is integrally closed in L. \Box

For more results related to ramified radical extensions, see Corollaries 16.5.11 and 16.5.16, and Example 15.6.6.

6. Tests for Regularity

In this section, all rings are commutative. Suppose R is a local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and residue field $k=R/\mathfrak{m}$. If R is noetherian and has Krull dimension $\dim(R)=d$, then R is regular if and only if $\mathfrak{m}=Rx_1+\cdots+Rx_d$ for a regular system of parameters x_1,\ldots,x_d . By Exercise 13.6.17, R is a regular local ring if and only if $\dim_k(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2)=d$.

6.1. A Differential Criterion for Regularity. As above, let R be a local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . A coefficient field of R is a subfield k of R which is mapped onto R/\mathfrak{m} under the natural map $R \to R/\mathfrak{m}$. In this case, R is a k-algebra, and $k \to R/\mathfrak{m}$ is a k-algebra isomorphism. The reader should verify that if k is a coefficient field of R, then every $x \in R$ has a unique representation in the form x = y + z, where $y \in k$ and $z \in \mathfrak{m}$.

Proposition 15.6.1. Let R be a local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak m$ and assume R contains a coefficient field k. Then the k-linear map

$$\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2 \xrightarrow{\gamma} \Omega_{R/k} \otimes_R k$$

of Theorem 14.2.4 is an isomorphism.

PROOF. The cokernel of γ is $\Omega_{k/k}$ which is 0, so γ is onto. To show γ is one-to-one, it is enough to apply the exact functor $\operatorname{Hom}_k(\cdot, k)$ and show that

$$\operatorname{Hom}_k(\Omega_{R/k} \otimes_R k, k) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}_{\gamma}} \operatorname{Hom}_k(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2, k)$$

is onto. As in the proof of Theorem 14.2.4, the map H_{γ} is isomorphic to

$$\operatorname{Der}_k(R,k) \xrightarrow{\rho} \operatorname{Hom}_R(\mathfrak{m},k)$$

where ρ is defined by $\partial \mapsto \partial|_{\mathfrak{m}}$. It suffices to show ρ is onto. Let $h \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(\mathfrak{m}, k)$. Given $x \in R$, write x = y + z, where $y \in k$ and $z \in \mathfrak{m}$. This representation is unique. Define $\partial : R \to k$ by $\partial(x) = h(z)$. It is easy to see that ∂ is a well defined function that extends h, and $\partial(k) = 0$. The reader should verify that ∂ is a k-derivation on R

Theorem 15.6.2. Let R be a local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and assume R contains a coefficient field k which is a perfect field. Assume R is a localization of a finitely generated k-algebra. The following are equivalent.

- (1) R is regular.
- (2) $\Omega_{R/k}$ is a free R-module of rank $d = \dim(R)$.

PROOF. By Theorem 10.2.1 and Corollary 7.6.13, R is noetherian. By Theorem 14.3.1 and Lemma 13.6.2, R is of finite Krull dimension.

- (2) implies (1): By Proposition 15.6.1, $\dim_k(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2) = d$ and R is regular.
- (1) implies (2): Assume $\dim_k(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2)=d$. By Proposition 15.6.1, it follows that $\dim_k(\Omega_{R/k}\otimes_R k)=d$. By Corollary 15.1.9, R is a normal integral domain. Let K be the quotient field of R. By Exercise 14.2.12, $\Omega_{R/k}\otimes_R K=\Omega_{K/k}$. By Theorem 14.3.9 and Theorem 14.3.6, $\dim_K(\Omega_{K/k})=\operatorname{tr.deg}_k(K)$. By Noether's Normalization Lemma (Corollary 14.3.3), $d=\operatorname{tr.deg}_k(K)$. By Proposition 14.2.2 and Exercise 14.2.12, $\Omega_{R/k}$ is a finitely generated R-module. By Corollary 7.7.3, $\Omega_{R/k}$ is a free R-module of rank d.

COROLLARY 15.6.3. Let k be an algebraically closed field and R an integral domain that is a finitely generated k-algebra. Let $n = \dim(R)$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) R is regular.
- (2) $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a regular local ring for every $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$.
- (3) $\Omega_{R_{\mathfrak{m}}/k}$ is a free $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ -module of rank n for every $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$.
- (4) $\Omega_{R/k}$ is a finitely generated projective R-module of rank n.

PROOF. By Theorem 10.2.1, R is noetherian. By Proposition 14.2.2, $\Omega_{R/k}$ is a finitely generated R-module. By Exercise 14.2.12, $\Omega_{R_{\mathfrak{m}}/k} = \Omega_{R/k} \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}}$. (1) and (2) are equivalent by Exercise 15.3.42. (2) and (3) are equivalent by Theorem 15.6.2. (3) and (4) are equivalent, by Proposition 7.7.2.

Corollary 15.6.4. Let k be an algebraically closed field and R an integral domain that is a finitely generated k-algebra. If

$$\operatorname{Reg} R = \{ \mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R \mid R_{\mathfrak{p}} \text{ is a regular local ring} \}$$

is the subset of Spec R consisting of all prime ideals $\mathfrak p$ for which the local ring $R_{\mathfrak p}$ is regular, then

- (1) $\operatorname{Reg} R \cap \operatorname{Max} R \neq \emptyset$, and
- (2) for every $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Reg} R \cap \operatorname{Max} R$, there exists an open dense $U \subseteq \operatorname{Spec} R$ such that $\mathfrak{m} \in U \subseteq \operatorname{Reg} R$.

PROOF. Let K be the quotient field of R. By Theorem 14.3.9, K is separably generated over k. By Corollary 14.3.3, if $n = \dim R$, then $n = \operatorname{tr.deg}_k(K)$. By Theorem 14.3.6, $\dim_K \Omega_{K/k} = n$. By Exercise 14.2.12, $\Omega_{K/k} = \Omega_{R/k} \otimes_R K$. By Proposition 14.2.2, $\Omega_{R/k}$ is a finitely generated R-module and by Lemma 7.1.11, there exists $\alpha \in R - (0)$ such that $\Omega_{R/k} \otimes_R R_{\alpha}$ is a free R_{α} -module. By Corollary 15.6.3, R_{α} is regular and the basic open set $U(\alpha)$ is a subset of Reg R. It follows from Hilbert's Nullstellensatz that the Jacobson radical of R is (0) (see Corollary 10.2.16). Consequently, there exists $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$ such that α is not in \mathfrak{m} . Thus $\mathfrak{m} \in U(\alpha) \cap \operatorname{Max} R$, which proves (1).

To prove (2), let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal of R and assume $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a regular local ring. Then $\Omega_{R_{\mathfrak{m}}/k} = \Omega_{R/k} \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is free of rank n, by Theorem 15.6.2. By Lemma 7.1.11, there exists $\beta \in R - \mathfrak{m}$ such that $\Omega_{R/k} \otimes_R R_{\beta}$ is a free R_{β} -module. By Corollary 15.6.3, R_{β} is regular and the basic open set $U(\beta)$ is a subset of Reg R. The open set $U(\beta)$ is dense in Spec R since it contains the generic point (0).

6.2. A Jacobian Criterion for Regularity. Throughout this section, k is an algebraically closed field, and all rings are commutative. From a utilitarian point of view, the jacobian criterion of Theorem 15.6.5 is one of the most useful and powerful methods for showing that a finitely generated k-algebra R is regular.

First we review some terminology and notation from Section 10.2.2. Affine n-space over k is denoted \mathbb{A}^n_k and is equal to the set $\{(a_1,\ldots,a_n)\mid a_i\in k\}$. For any subset $Y\subseteq\mathbb{A}^n_k$, the ideal of Y in $A=k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ is defined by

$$I(Y) = \{ f \in A \mid f(P) = 0, \text{ for all } P \in Y \}.$$

If $T \subseteq A$ is a set of polynomials, then the set of zeros of T

$$Z(T) = \{ P \in \mathbb{A}_k^n \mid f(P) = 0, \text{ for all } f \in T \}$$

is an affine algebraic set. By Hilbert's Nullstellensatz (Corollary 10.2.11), there is a one-to-one correspondence between the algebraic sets in \mathbb{A}^n_k and the radical ideals in A defined by the assignments $Y \mapsto I(Y)$ and $I \mapsto Z(I)$.

If $Y \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n_k$ is a affine algebraic set, then the affine coordinate ring of Y is $\mathcal{O}(Y) = A/I(Y)$. Now assume I is a radical ideal in A, and Y = Z(I) is the associated affine algebraic set. Then I = I(Y) and $\mathcal{O}(Y) = A/I$. By Hilbert's Nullstellensatz (see Example 10.2.15), the maximal ideals in $\mathcal{O}(Y) = A/I$ are in one-to-one correspondence with the points $P \in Y$. A point $P = (a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in Y$, corresponds to the maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} in $\mathcal{O}(Y)$ generated by $x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n$. The localization of $\mathcal{O}(Y)$ at the maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} is called the local ring at P on Y and is denoted $\mathcal{O}_{P,Y}$. Theorem 15.6.5 is a jacobian criterion for $\mathcal{O}_{P,Y}$ to be a regular local ring.

Theorem 15.6.5. Let k be an algebraically closed field, $Y \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n_k$ an affine algebraic set and f_1, \ldots, f_t a set of generators for I(Y). Let $P \in Y$ and assume the Krull dimension of the local ring $\mathcal{O}_{P,Y}$ is r. Then the jacobian matrix

$$J = \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(P)\right)$$

has rank n-r if and only if $\mathcal{O}_{P,Y}$ is a regular local ring.

PROOF. Let $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, $I = I(Y) = (f_1, \ldots, x_t)$, and $R = \mathcal{O}(Y) = A/I$. Let \mathfrak{p} denote the maximal ideal of R corresponding to the point $P \in Y$. Then $\mathcal{O}_{P,Y} = R_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Let $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{p}R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ be the maximal ideal of $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Since k is algebraically closed, the residue field $R_{\mathfrak{p}}/\mathfrak{m}$ is equal to k. Start with the exact sequence

$$I/I^2 \xrightarrow{\gamma} \Omega_{A/k} \otimes_A R \xrightarrow{a} \Omega_{R/k} \to 0$$

of Theorem 14.2.4. Tensoring with the residue field, () $\otimes_R k$, the sequence

$$I/I^2 \otimes_R k \xrightarrow{\gamma} \Omega_{A/k} \otimes_A k \xrightarrow{a} \Omega_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}/k} \otimes_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}} k \to 0$$

is exact. As in the proof of Proposition 14.2.7, the image of γ is the column space of the jacobian matrix J and $\Omega_{A/k} \otimes_A k \cong k^{(n)}$. From the exact sequence, the dimension of $\Omega_{R/k} \otimes_R k$ over k is equal to $n - \operatorname{Rank}(J)$. By Proposition 15.6.1, $\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2 \cong \Omega_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}/k} \otimes_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}} k$. Therefore, $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a regular local ring if and only if $\operatorname{Rank}(J) = n - r$.

EXAMPLE 15.6.6. In the above context, let F = Z(f) be an algebraic set in \mathbb{A}^n_k defined by a square free polynomial f in $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Using Corollaries 13.6.12 and 14.3.4 we see that $\dim(\mathcal{O}(F)) = n-1$. Let $d \geq 2$ be an integer that is invertible in k. Consider the algebraic set $Y = Z(z^d - f)$ in \mathbb{A}^{n+1}_k . The affine coordinate ring of Y, $\mathcal{O}(Y) = A[z]/(z^d - f)$, is a ramified radical extension of A. We are in the context of Theorem 15.5.14. Then Y is irreducible, $\mathcal{O}(Y)$ is a normal integral domain, the quotient field of $\mathcal{O}(Y)$ is a finite algebraic extension of $k(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$, and the Krull dimension of $\mathcal{O}(Y)$ is equal to n. If $\pi:\mathbb{A}^{n+1}_k \to \mathbb{A}^n_k$ is the projection along the z-axis defined by $(a_1,\ldots,a_n,b) \mapsto (a_1,\ldots,a_n)$, then $\pi^{-1}(F)$ is the algebraic subset of Y equal to $Y \cap Z(z)$. Let $\mathrm{Sing}(Y)$ denote the set of points in Y where the local ring $\mathcal{O}_{P,Y}$ is not a regular local ring. The set $\mathrm{Sing}(Y)$ is called the singular locus of Y. For any point $Q \in Y$ such that $\pi(Q)$ is not in F, it follows from Theorem 15.5.14 (4) that $\mathcal{O}_{Q,Y}$ is a regular local ring. This implies $\mathrm{Sing}(Y) \subseteq \pi^{-1}(F)$. Applying Theorem 15.6.5, we can say more. The

jacobian of $z^d - f$ is $(f_{x_1}, \ldots, f_{x_n}, dz^{d-1})$. From Theorem 15.6.5, we see at once that $P \in \operatorname{Sing}(Y)$ if and only if $P = (a_1, \ldots, a_n, 0)$ and $\pi(P) = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ is in $\operatorname{Sing}(F)$. In other words, the singular locus of Y corresponds under π to the singular locus of F. By Exercise 15.3.42, $\mathcal{O}(Y)$ is a regular integral domain if and only if $\mathcal{O}(F)$ is a regular ring.

EXAMPLE 15.6.7. Although the field in Theorem 15.6.5 is required to be algebraically closed, it is sometimes possible to work around this obstacle. In this paragraph, one such method is presented. Let k be a field and in this example do not assume k is algebraically closed. Let \bar{k} be an algebraic closure of k. Let I be an ideal in $k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ and $T=k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]/I$. If $\bar{T}=T\otimes_k\bar{k}$, then the natural map $T\to\bar{T}$ is faithfully flat (Exercise 7.5.18). By Exercise 15.3.41, if \bar{T} is regular, then T is regular. By Exercise 10.1.18 (2), if \bar{T} is an integrally closed integral domain, then T is an integrally closed integral domain. By Exercise 10.1.18 (3), if \bar{T} is a normal ring, then T is a normal ring.

COROLLARY 15.6.8. Let k be an algebraically closed field and Y an irreducible algebraic subset of \mathbb{A}^n_k . Then the singular locus of Y, Sing (Y), is a proper closed subset of Y.

PROOF. As in Example 15.6.6, Sing (Y) consists of those points P in Y such that $\mathcal{O}_{P,Y}$ is not a regular local ring. There is a one-to-one correspondence between the points P in Y and the maximal ideals \mathfrak{m} in $\operatorname{Max} \mathcal{O}(Y)$ (Example 10.2.15). The finitely generated k-algebra $\mathcal{O}(Y)$ is an integral domain since Y is irreducible. Therefore, this follows from Corollary 15.6.4.

CHAPTER 16

Divisor Class Groups

1. Lattices

Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. If V is a finite dimensional K-vector space, and M is an R-submodule of V, then the K-subspace of V spanned by M is denoted KM. Notice that KM is finite dimensional over K, but M is not necessarily finitely generated as an R-module. If M is any finitely generated torsion free R-module, the natural mapping $R \otimes_R M \to K \otimes_R M$ is one-to-one (Lemma 7.1.1). In this case we can identify M with the R-submodule $1 \otimes M$ of $K \otimes_R M$. In this case, we write KM instead of $K \otimes_R M$.

1.1. Definition and First Properties. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K and V a finite dimensional K-vector space. The definition of an R-lattice in V follows Proposition 16.1.1. If M is an R-submodule of V, then the proposition establishes five equivalent conditions, any one of which can be taken as the definition for an R-lattice in V. Of the five, the one with a particularly straightforward interpretation is Property (1). It states that to be an R-lattice it is necessary and sufficient that M has two key properties. The first is that M contains a spanning set for V as a K-vector space and the second is that M is either finitely generated as an R-module, or is contained in a finitely generated R-submodule of V

Proposition 16.1.1. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K and V a finite dimensional K-vector space. The following are equivalent for an R-submodule M of V.

- (1) There is a finitely generated R-submodule N of V such that $M \subseteq N$, and KM = V, where KM denotes the K-subspace of V spanned by M.
- (2) There is a free R-submodule F in V with $\operatorname{Rank}_R(F) = \dim_K(V)$ and a nonzero element $r \in R$ such that $rF \subseteq M \subseteq F$.
- (3) There are free R-submodules F_1, F_2 in V with $F_1 \subseteq M \subseteq F_2$ and $\operatorname{Rank}_R(F_1) = \operatorname{Rank}_R(F_2) = \dim_K(V)$.
- (4) There is a chain of R-submodules $L \subseteq M \subseteq N$ where KL = V and N is finitely generated.
- (5) Given any free R-submodule F of V with $\operatorname{Rank}_R(F) = \dim_K(V)$, there are nonzero elements $r, s \in R$ such that $rF \subseteq M \subseteq s^{-1}F$.

PROOF. Assume $\dim_K(V) = n$. We prove that (4) implies (5). The rest is left to the reader. Assume we are given $F = Ru_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Ru_n$ a free R-submodule of V. Also, let $L \subseteq M \subseteq N$, where KL = V and N is a finitely generated R-submodule of V. Since KL = V we can pick a K-basis for V in L, say $\{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n\}$ (Theorem 4.2.34). For each j there are $k_{j,i} \in K$ such that $u_j = \sum_{i=1}^n k_{j,i} \lambda_i$. Pick a nonzero $r \in R$ such that $rk_{j,i} \in R$ for all pairs j,i. Then $ru_j = \sum_{i=1}^n rk_{j,i} \lambda_i \in R$

 $\sum_i R\lambda_i \subseteq L$, hence $rF = \sum_j Rru_j \subseteq L \subseteq M$. Let ν_1, \ldots, ν_t be a generating set for N. For each j there are $\kappa_{j,i} \in K$ such that $\nu_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \kappa_{j,i} u_i$. Pick a nonzero $s \in R$ such that $s\kappa_{j,i} \in R$ for all pairs j,i. Then $s\nu_j = \sum_{i=1}^n s\kappa_{j,i} u_i \in \sum_{i=1}^n Ru_i = F$. Therefore, $M \subseteq N = \sum_{i=1}^t R\nu_j \subseteq s^{-1}F$.

DEFINITION 16.1.2. Let R be an integral domain, K the field of fractions of R, and V a finite dimensional K-vector space. An R-submodule M of V that satisfies any of the equivalent conditions of Proposition 16.1.1 is said to be an R-lattice in V. The rank of an R-lattice M in V is defined to be $\dim_K V$.

Example 16.1.3. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K.

- (1) If M is a finitely generated R-module, then the image of $M \to K \otimes_R M$ is a finitely generated R-lattice.
- (2) Let R be a noetherian integral domain and M and N finitely generated R-modules such that N is torsion free. Then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is a finitely generated torsion free R-module (Exercises 7.6.25 and 13.2.24). By Proposition 7.5.8, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ embeds as an R-lattice in $K \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N) = \operatorname{Hom}_K(K \otimes_R M,KN)$. This is a special case of Proposition 16.1.6 (3).
- (3) Assume R is integrally closed in K, L/K is a finite separable field extension, and S is the integral closure of R in L. By Theorem 10.1.13, S is an R-lattice in L.

Proposition 16.1.4. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let V be a finite dimensional K-vector space and M an R-lattice in V.

- (1) If R is noetherian, then M is a finitely presented R-module.
- (2) If R is a principal ideal domain, then M is a finitely generated free R-module and $\operatorname{Rank}_R(M) = \dim_K(V)$.

PROOF. (1): Apply Proposition 16.1.1 and Corollary 7.6.12.

(2): Apply (1) and Proposition 4.3.5. By Theorem 6.4.23, an R-basis for M is also a K-basis for V, so the rank of M is equal to the dimension of V.

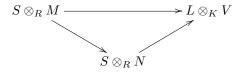
PROPOSITION 16.1.5. Let R be an integral domain and K the field of fractions of R. In the following, U, V, V_1, \ldots, V_r , W denote finite dimensional K-vector spaces.

- (1) If M and N are R-lattices in V, then M+N and $M\cap N$ are R-lattices in V.
- (2) If U is a K-subspace of V, and M is an R-lattice in V, then $M \cap U$ is an R-lattice in U.
- (3) Let M_1, \ldots, M_m be R-lattices in V_1, \ldots, V_m respectively. If $\phi: V_1 \times \cdots \times V_m \to U$ is a multilinear form, then the R-module generated by $\phi(M_1 \times \cdots \times M_m)$ is an R-lattice in the subspace spanned by $\phi(V_1 \times \cdots \times V_m)$.
- (4) Let L/K be an extension of fields. Let S be an R-subalgebra of L such that L is the field of fractions of S. If M is an R-lattice in V, then the image of $S \otimes_R M \to L \otimes_K V$ is an S-lattice in $L \otimes_K V$.

PROOF. (1): We apply Proposition 16.1.1 (5). Let F be a free R-submodule of V with rank $n = \dim_K(V)$. There exist nonzero elements a, b, c, d in R such that $aF \subseteq M$, $bF \subseteq N$, $M \subseteq c^{-1}F$, $N \subseteq d^{-1}F$. Then $(ab)F \subseteq M \cap N \subseteq M + N \subseteq (cd)^{-1}F$.

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- (2): Start with a K-basis, say u_1, \ldots, u_m , for U. Extend to a K-basis $u_1, \ldots, u_m, \ldots, u_r$ for V. Let $E = Ru_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Ru_m$ and $F = Ru_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Ru_n$. Then $E = F \cap U$. Also, for any $\alpha \in K$, $(\alpha F) \cap U = (\sum_{i=1}^n R\alpha u_i) \cap U = \sum_{i=1}^m R\alpha u_i = \alpha E$. We apply Proposition 16.1.1 (5). Let r, s be nonzero elements in R such that $rF \subseteq M \subseteq s^{-1}F$. Then $rE \subseteq M \cap U \subseteq s^{-1}E$.
- (3): For each j, M_j contains a K-spanning set for V_j . From this is follows that $\phi(M_1 \times \cdots \times M_m)$ contains a spanning set for the subspace of U spanned by $\phi(V_1 \times \cdots \times V_m)$. For each j, let N_j be a finitely generated R-submodule of V_j containing M_j . Then $\phi(N_1 \times \cdots \times N_m)$ is contained in a finitely generated R-submodule of U.
- (4): Since $K \otimes_R M = K \otimes_R V = V$, we have $L \otimes_S S \otimes_R M = L \otimes_K K \otimes_R M = L \otimes_K V$. If $M \subseteq N \subseteq V$ with N a finitely generated R-module, then the diagram of S-module homomorphisms



commutes. Therefore, the image of $S \otimes_R M$ in $L \otimes_K V$ is contained in the image of $S \otimes_R N$ which is a finitely generated S-module.

PROPOSITION 16.1.6. Let R be an integral domain and K the field of fractions of R. Let V and W be finite dimensional K-vector spaces. In the following, M_0, M_1, M denote R-lattices in V and N_0, N_1, N denote R-lattices in W. Using the module quotient notation, N:M is defined to be

$$N: M = \{ f \in \operatorname{Hom}_K(V, W) \mid f(M) \subseteq N \}.$$

Then

- (1) If $M_0 \subseteq M_1$, and $N_0 \subseteq N_1$, then $N_0 : M_1 \subseteq N_1 : M_0$.
- (2) The restriction mapping $\rho:(N:M)\to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is an isomorphism of R-modules.
- (3) N: M is an R-lattice in $Hom_K(V, W)$.
- (4) Let $Z \subseteq R \{0\}$ be a multiplicative set and $Z^{-1}R$ the localization of R in K. Then $Z^{-1}(N:M) = Z^{-1}N:Z^{-1}M$.

PROOF. (1): Is left to the reader.

(2): The reader should verify that restriction defines an R-module homomorphism $\rho:(N:M)\to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$. Because M contains a K-basis for $V,\ \rho$ is one-to-one. Because M and N are torsion free R-modules, the maps $M\to K\otimes_R M=KM$ and $N\to K\otimes_R N=KN$ are one-to-one. If $\theta\in\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$, then the diagram

$$M \xrightarrow{\theta} N$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$K \otimes_R M = V \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \theta} K \otimes_R N = W$$

commutes. Therefore, $1 \otimes \theta : V \to W$ is an extension of θ and belongs to N : M. In other words, θ is in the image of ρ .

(3): Let $E_0 \subseteq M \subseteq E_1$ be R-lattices in V with E_0 and E_1 free. Let $F_0 \subseteq N \subseteq F_1$ be R-lattices in W with F_0 and F_1 free. By (1), $F_0 : E_1 \subseteq N : M \subseteq F_1 : E_0$. By

Proposition 16.1.1 (4), it suffices to prove (4) when M and N are free R-lattices. In this case, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is free over R and $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N) \to K \otimes_R \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is one-to-one. By Corollary 6.5.13, the assignment $\theta \mapsto 1 \otimes \theta$ embeds $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ as an R-submodule of $\operatorname{Hom}_K(KM,KN) = \operatorname{Hom}_K(V,W)$. By (2), the image of $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ under this embedding is equal to N:M. This proves N:M is an R-lattice in $\operatorname{Hom}_K(V,W)$, when M and N are free R-lattices.

- (4): If $f \in (N : M)$ and $z \in Z$, then $f(z^{-1}x) = z^{-1}f(x) \in z^{-1}N$ for all $x \in M$. Conversely, suppose $f \in Z^{-1}N : Z^{-1}M$. Let y_1, \ldots, y_n be a generating set for M. There exists $z \in Z$ such that $f(x_i) \in z^{-1}N$ for $1 \le i \le n$. Therefore, $zf \in N : M$.
- **1.2. Reflexive Lattices.** In the context of Proposition 16.1.6, we identify R:M with the dual module $M^*=\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,R)$. By Exercise 6.5.20 the assignment $m\mapsto \varphi_m$ is an R-module homomorphism $M\to M^{**}=R:(R:M)$, where φ_m is the "evaluation at m" homomorphism. That is, $\varphi_m(f)=f(m)$. The diagram

$$(1.1) \qquad M^{**} = R : (R : M)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$V \longrightarrow V^{**}$$

commutes and the bottom horizontal arrow is an isomorphism (Theorem 4.4.23). Since the vertical maps are one-to-one, the top horizontal arrow is one-to-one. We say M is a reflexive R-lattice in case $M \to R : (R:M)$ is onto. For instance, a finitely generated projective R-lattice is reflexive (Exercise 6.5.21). If M is an R-lattice, then Lemma 16.1.7 shows that R:M, the dual of M, is reflexive.

Lemma 16.1.7. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let V be a finite dimensional K-vector space and M an R-lattice in V. Then R:M=R:(R:(R:M)), or equivalently, R:M is a reflexive R-lattice in V^* .

PROOF. By Proposition 16.1.6 (1) applied to $M \subseteq R : (R : M)$, we get the set inclusion $R : M \supseteq R : (R : M)$. The reverse inclusion follows from the commutative diagram (1.1).

PROPOSITION 16.1.8. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let V be a finite dimensional K-vector space and M an R-lattice in V. Let $M \subseteq F \subseteq V$, where F is a free R-lattice (Proposition 16.1.1). Then M is a reflexive R-lattice if and only if

$$M = \bigcap_{\alpha \in (R:M)} \left(\alpha^{-1}(R) \cap F \right).$$

Proof. It suffices to prove

(1.2)
$$R: (R:M) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in (R:M)} (\alpha^{-1}(R) \cap F).$$

Let $v \in V$ and assume v is in the right hand side of (1.2). Then $v \in R : (R : M)$ if and only if $\alpha(v) \in R$, for all $\alpha \in R : M$. Notice that if $\alpha \in R : M$, then $\alpha \in R : (\alpha^{-1}(R) \cap F)$. Therefore, $\alpha(v) \in R$, which shows $v \in R : (R : M)$.

For the reverse inclusion, let $\alpha \in R : M$. Then $\alpha(M) \subseteq R$, hence $M \subseteq \alpha^{-1}(R) \cap F \subseteq F$. By Proposition 16.1.1 (4), this implies $\alpha^{-1}(R) \cap F$ is an R-lattice in V. Let $v \in R : (R : (\alpha^{-1}(R) \cap F))$. Under the identification $V = V^{**}$,

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we identify v with a vector in V. As mentioned above, $\alpha \in R : (\alpha^{-1}(R) \cap F)$, $\alpha(v) \in R$, hence $v \in \alpha^{-1}(R)$. Since F is free, F is reflexive (Exercise 6.5.21) and we see that $R : (R : (\alpha^{-1}(R) \cap F)) \subseteq R : (R : F) = F$. Combined, this shows $R : (R : (\alpha^{-1}(R) \cap F)) \subseteq \alpha^{-1}(R) \cap F$. That is, $\alpha^{-1}(R) \cap F$ is reflexive. This shows $R : (R : M) \subseteq \alpha^{-1}(R) \cap F$ for each α . In (1.2), the left hand side is a subset of the right hand side.

Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let U, V, W be finite dimensional K-vector spaces. Let

$$\operatorname{Hom}_K(V,W) \otimes_K U \xrightarrow{\alpha} \operatorname{Hom}_K(\operatorname{Hom}_K(U,V),W)$$

be the isomorphism of Lemma 6.5.11 which is defined by $\alpha(f \otimes a)(h) = f(h(a))$. Let

$$\operatorname{Hom}_K(U \otimes_K V, W) \xrightarrow{\phi} \operatorname{Hom}_K(U, \operatorname{Hom}_K(V, W))$$

be the Adjoint Isomorphism (Theorem 6.5.10) which is defined by $\phi(\theta)(u) = \theta(u \otimes \cdot)$.

Lemma 16.1.9. In the above context, let L, M, N be R-lattices in U, V, W respectively.

- (1) Let (N:M)L denote the image of $(N:M) \otimes_R L \to \operatorname{Hom}_K(V,W) \otimes_K U$. Then $\alpha((N:M)L) \subseteq N:(M:L)$.
- (2) Let LM denote the image of $L \otimes_R M \to U \otimes_K V$. Then $\phi(N:LM) \subseteq (N:M):L$, and $\phi^{-1}((N:M):L) \subseteq N:LM$.

PROOF. (1): Let $f \in N: M, \ \ell \in L, \ h \in M: L.$ Then $\alpha(f \otimes \ell)(h) = f(h(\ell)) \in N.$

(2): Assume $\theta \in \operatorname{Hom}_K(U \otimes_K V, W)$ and $\theta(LM) \subseteq N$. For all $m \in M$ and $\ell \in L$, $\phi(\theta)(\ell)(m) = \theta(\ell \otimes m) \in N$. Therefore, $\phi(\theta)(L) \subseteq N : M$, hence $\phi(\theta) \in (N : M) : L$. For the second part, suppose $\phi(\theta)(\ell) \in N : M$ for all $\ell \in L$. Then $\phi(\theta)(\ell)(m) = \theta(\ell \otimes m) \in N$, and $\theta \in N : LM$.

PROPOSITION 16.1.10. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let N be an R-lattice in the finite dimensional K-vector space W. Let M be a reflexive R-lattice in the finite dimensional K-vector space V. Then M:N is a reflexive R-lattice in $\operatorname{Hom}_K(W,V)$.

Proof. In this context,

$$\operatorname{Hom}_K(W,V) \xrightarrow{\alpha^*} \operatorname{Hom}_K(W \otimes_K V^*,K) \xrightarrow{\phi} \operatorname{Hom}_K(W,V)$$

is the identity map. Under this identification, ϕ is the inverse of the dual of α . By Lemma 16.1.9 (2),

$$\phi(R:(R:M)N) \subseteq (R:(R:M)):N=M:N$$

where the last equality is because M is reflexive. By Lemma 16.1.9(1),

$$\alpha((R:M)N) \subseteq R:(M:N)$$

taking duals,

$$R:(R:(M:N))\subseteq R:\alpha((R:M)N).$$

By the identification mentioned above, $R:(R:(M:N))\subseteq M:N$.

Theorem 16.1.11. Let R be a noetherian integrally closed integral domain with field of fractions K. Let V be a finite dimensional K-vector space and M an R-lattice in V.

- (1) If L is another R-lattice in V, then $L_{\mathfrak{p}} = M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for all but finitely many $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$.
- (2) Suppose for each $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$ that $N(\mathfrak{p})$ is an $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -lattice in V such that $N(\mathfrak{p}) = M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for all but finitely many $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$. For $N = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} N(\mathfrak{p})$, the following are true.
 - (a) N is an R-lattice in V.
 - (b) $N_{\mathfrak{p}} = N(\mathfrak{p})$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$.
 - (c) If N' is an R-lattice in V such that $N'_{\mathfrak{p}} = N(\mathfrak{p})$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$, then $N' \subset N$.

PROOF. (1): Using Proposition 16.1.1, the reader should verify that there exist $r, s \in R$ such that $rM \subseteq L \subseteq s^{-1}M$. Let $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$ such that $\nu_{\mathfrak{p}}(r) = \nu_{\mathfrak{p}}(s) = 0$. Then $rM \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{p}} = s^{-1}M \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{p}}$. By Corollary 15.4.4, this proves (1).

- (2): For each $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$, $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a discrete valuation ring. By Proposition 16.1.4, $N(\mathfrak{p})$ is a finitely generated free $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -module.
- (a): Let F be a free R-lattice in V. By (1), $M_{\mathfrak{p}} = F_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for all but finitely many $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$. Assume $\mathfrak{q}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{q}_t$ are those height one primes in $X_1(R)$ where $F_{\mathfrak{q}_j} \neq N(\mathfrak{q}_j)$. Let u_1, \ldots, u_n be a free R-basis for F. Let $\{v_{j,1}, \ldots, v_{j,n}\}$ be a free $R_{\mathfrak{q}_j}$ -basis for $N(\mathfrak{q}_j)$. There are elements $\kappa_{k,j,i}$ in K such that $u_k = \sum_{i=1}^n \kappa_{k,j,i} v_{j,i}$. For some $r \in R (0)$, $ru_k \in \sum_{i=1}^n Rv_{j,i} \subseteq N(\mathfrak{q}_j)$ for all k,j. For $1 \leq j \leq t$ this implies $rF \subseteq N(\mathfrak{q}_j)$. Also, if $F_{\mathfrak{p}} = N(\mathfrak{p})$, then $rF \subseteq rF_{\mathfrak{p}} = rN(\mathfrak{p}) \subseteq N(\mathfrak{p})$. Therefore, $rF \subseteq N = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} N(\mathfrak{p})$.

There are elements $\lambda_{k,j,i}$ in K such that $v_{j,i} = \sum_{k=1}^n \lambda_{k,j,i} u_k$. For some $s \in R - (0)$, $sv_{j,i} \in \sum_{k=1}^n Ru_k = F$ for all j,i. This implies $sN(\mathfrak{q}_j) \subseteq F_{\mathfrak{q}_j}$, hence $N(\mathfrak{q}_j) \subseteq (s^{-1}F)_{\mathfrak{q}_j}$ for all j. Also, if $N(\mathfrak{p}) = F_{\mathfrak{p}}$, then $sN(\mathfrak{p}) \subseteq N(\mathfrak{p}) = F_{\mathfrak{p}}$, hence $N(\mathfrak{p}) \subseteq (s^{-1}F)_{\mathfrak{p}}$. If necessary, replace F with $s^{-1}F$, and assume $N(\mathfrak{p}) \subseteq F_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$. By taking direct sums in Corollary 15.4.4 (4) we see that $F = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} F_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Then $N = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} N(\mathfrak{p}) \subseteq F$. By Proposition 16.1.1, N is an R-lattice in V.

(b): By the last part of the proof of Part (a), $N(\mathfrak{p}) \subseteq F_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$ with equality for all but finitely many $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$. Assume $\mathfrak{p}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_w$ are those height one primes in $X_1(R)$ where $F_{\mathfrak{p}_i} \neq N(\mathfrak{p}_i)$. (Note: we do not assume this list is equal to $\mathfrak{q}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{q}_t$.) Then

$$N = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} N(\mathfrak{p})$$

$$= N(\mathfrak{p}_1) \cap \dots \cap N(\mathfrak{p}_w) \cap \left(\bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} F_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)$$

$$= N(\mathfrak{p}_1) \cap \dots \cap N(\mathfrak{p}_w) \cap F.$$

It follows from the definition of localization that

$$N_{\mathfrak{p}} = N(\mathfrak{p}_1)_{\mathfrak{p}} \cap \cdots \cap N(\mathfrak{p}_w)_{\mathfrak{p}} \cap F_{\mathfrak{p}}.$$

If \mathfrak{p} is not one of $\mathfrak{p}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_w$, then by Lemma 16.1.12, $N(\mathfrak{p}_j)_{\mathfrak{p}} = KN(\mathfrak{p}_j) = V$, for $1 \leq j \leq w$. In this case, $N_{\mathfrak{p}} = F_{\mathfrak{p}} = N(\mathfrak{p})$. On the other hand, if $i \neq j$, then $N(\mathfrak{p}_i)_{\mathfrak{p}_j} = KN(\mathfrak{p}_i) = V$. Thus $N_{\mathfrak{p}_j} = N(\mathfrak{p}_j)_{\mathfrak{p}_j} \cap F_{\mathfrak{p}_j}$. But $N(\mathfrak{p}_j)_{\mathfrak{p}_j} = N(\mathfrak{p}_j) \subseteq F_{\mathfrak{p}_j}$, so $N_{\mathfrak{p}_j} = N(\mathfrak{p}_j)$ for $1 \leq j \leq w$.

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(c): Suppose N' is an R-lattice in V such that $N'_{\mathfrak{p}} = N(\mathfrak{p})$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$. Then $N' \subseteq \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} N'_{\mathfrak{p}} = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} N(\mathfrak{p}) = N$.

LEMMA 16.1.12. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let \mathfrak{p} , \mathfrak{q} be prime ideals in R with $\mathfrak{p} \not\subseteq \mathfrak{q}$. Assume $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a discrete valuation ring. Then

- (1) $(R_{\mathfrak{p}})_{\mathfrak{q}} = K$.
- (2) If M is an $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -module, then $M_{\mathfrak{q}} = M \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{q}} = M \otimes_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}} K$.

PROOF. Let $a \in \mathfrak{p} - \mathfrak{q}$. Then $a \in \mathfrak{p}R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ and $a^{-1} \in R_{\mathfrak{q}}$, so the only maximal ideal in $(R_{\mathfrak{p}})_{\mathfrak{q}}$ is the zero ideal.

LEMMA 16.1.13. Let R be an integrally closed integral domain with field of fractions K. Let V be a finite dimensional K-vector space and M an R-lattice in V. Then the following are true.

- (1) $R: M = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} R_{\mathfrak{p}} : M_{\mathfrak{p}}.$ (2) For any $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R), (R:M)_{\mathfrak{p}} = R_{\mathfrak{p}} : M_{\mathfrak{p}}.$

PROOF. Let $F \subseteq M$ be a free R-lattice. For every $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$, the diagram

$$(R:M)_{\mathfrak{p}} \xrightarrow{\alpha} (R:F)_{\mathfrak{p}}$$

$$\beta \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma}$$

$$R_{\mathfrak{p}}: M_{\mathfrak{p}} \xrightarrow{\delta} R_{\mathfrak{p}}: F_{\mathfrak{p}}$$

commutes where β and γ are the natural maps induced by change of base. Since F is free, γ is an isomorphism (Corollary 6.5.13). By Proposition 16.1.6(1), α and δ are one-to-one. We have

$$R:M\subseteq \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p}\in X_1(R)}(R:M)_{\mathfrak{p}}\subseteq \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p}\in X_1(R)}R_{\mathfrak{p}}:M_{\mathfrak{p}}$$

where the intersection takes place in $V^* = K : V$. Let $f \in \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} R_{\mathfrak{p}} : M_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Then for every $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$, $f(M) \subseteq f(M_{\mathfrak{p}}) \subseteq R_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Then $f(M) \subseteq R = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} R_{\mathfrak{p}}$, hence $f \in R : M$. This proves (1). Part (2) follows from Theorem 16.1.11 (2) and Part (1).

Theorem 16.1.14. Let R be a noetherian integrally closed integral domain with field of fractions K. Let V be a finite dimensional K-vector space and M an Rlattice in V. If we set $M = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} M_{\mathfrak{p}}$, then the following are true.

- (1) R:(R:M)=M.
- (2) M is a reflexive R-lattice if and only if $M = \tilde{M}$.
- (3) For each $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$, $\tilde{M}_{\mathfrak{p}} = M_{\mathfrak{p}}$.
- (4) \tilde{M} is a reflexive R-lattice in V containing M.

PROOF. (1): Each $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a free $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -lattice, so by Lemma 16.1.13,

$$\begin{split} R:(R:M) &= \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} R_{\mathfrak{p}} : (R:M)_{\mathfrak{p}} \\ &= \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} R_{\mathfrak{p}} : (R_{\mathfrak{p}}:M_{\mathfrak{p}}) \\ &= \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} M_{\mathfrak{p}} \\ &= \tilde{M}. \end{split}$$

The rest is left to the reader.

COROLLARY 16.1.15. Let R be a noetherian integrally closed integral domain with field of fractions K and let V be a finite dimensional K-vector space. Let M and N be two R-lattices in V such that N is reflexive. In order for $M \subseteq N$ it is necessary and sufficient that $M_{\mathfrak{p}} \subseteq N_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$.

PROOF. If $M \subseteq N$, then $M_{\mathfrak{p}} \subseteq N_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$. Conversely, we have

$$M\subseteq R:(R:M)=\bigcap_{\mathfrak{p}\in X_1(R)}M_{\mathfrak{p}}\subseteq \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p}\in X_1(R)}N_{\mathfrak{p}}=R:(R:N)=N.$$

Proposition 16.1.16. Let R be a noetherian integrally closed integral domain. Let M and N be finitely generated torsion free R-modules. Then there are R-module isomorphisms

 $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)^{**} \cong (N^* \otimes_R M)^* \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N^{**}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(N^*,M^*)$

where we write $(\cdot)^*$ for the dual $\operatorname{Hom}_R(\cdot, R)$. In particular,

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)^{**} \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M^*, M^*) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M^{**}, M^{**}).$$

PROOF. The homomorphism

$$N^* \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{\alpha} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)^*$$

of Lemma 6.5.11 is defined by $\alpha(f \otimes x)(g) = f(g(x))$. The dual of α is

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)^{**} \xrightarrow{\alpha^*} (N^* \otimes_R M)^*.$$

For each $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$, $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a DVR and $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a free $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -module (Proposition 16.1.4). By Proposition 7.5.8 and Lemma 6.5.11,

$$N^* \otimes_R M \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{p}} \xrightarrow{\alpha \otimes 1} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, N)^* \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{p}}$$

is an isomorphism. Taking duals and applying the same argument,

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)^{**} \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{p}} \xrightarrow{\alpha^* \otimes 1} (N^* \otimes_R M)^* \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{p}}$$

is also an isomorphism. By Theorem 16.1.14, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)^{**}$ is a reflexive R-lattice. Without explicitly doing so, we view all of the modules as lattices in suitable vector spaces over the field of fractions of R. Applying Corollary 16.1.15, we see that α^* is an isomorphism. The second and third isomorphisms follow from the first and the Adjoint Isomorphisms (Theorem 6.5.10).

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By the first part, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)^{**} \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M^*,M^*)$. Then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)^{**} \cong (\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)^{**})^{**} \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M^*,M^*)^{**} \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M^{**},M^{**})$.

1.2.1. A Local to Global Theorem for Reflexive Lattices. Constructing nontrivial examples of reflexive lattices of rank greater than or equal to two is generally a difficult task. Theorem 16.1.17 provides a globalization method for constructing reflexive lattices from locally defined projective lattices. A version of Theorem 16.1.17 for sheaves of modules on a ringed space was proved by B. Auslander in [6, Theorem VI.5]. A partial converse is [6, Theorem VI.6]. In the language of schemes, it says that if U is an open subset of Spec R which contains $X_1(R)$, and M is a sheaf of \mathcal{O}_U -modules which is locally projective of finite rank, then M comes from a finitely generated reflexive R-module N.

Before stating Theorem 16.1.17 we establish some notation. Let R be a noetherian integrally closed integral domain with quotient field K. Let f_1, \ldots, f_n be a set of nonzero elements of R. Let $f_0 = f_1 \cdots f_n$. Write R_i for the localization R_{f_i} , and U_i for the basic open set $U(f_i) = \operatorname{Spec} R_i = \{\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R \mid f_i \notin \mathfrak{p}\}$. Then $U_0 \subseteq U_1 \cap \cdots \cap U_n$. Assume f_1, \ldots, f_n are chosen so that the open set $U_1 \cup \cdots \cup U_n$ contains $X_1(R)$. Let V be a finite dimensional K-vector space. Suppose for each i that M_i is a locally free R_i -lattice in V such that for each pair i, j we have $M_i \otimes_{R_i} R_{ij} = M_j \otimes_{R_j} R_{ij}$, where $R_{ij} = R_{f_i f_j}$. Let $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$. If \mathfrak{p} is in U_i , then $(M_i)_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is an $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -lattice in V. Moreover, if \mathfrak{p} is in $U_i \cap U_j$, then $(M_i)_{\mathfrak{p}} = (M_j)_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Let U be a free U0-lattice in U1 which contains U1 is in U2 in U3. Let U4 be a free U3-lattice in U4 which contains U4 is a free U5-lattice in U5 be a free U6-lattice in U6. Then U6-lattice in U8-lattice in U8-lattice in U8-lattice in U8-lattice in U8-lattice in U9-lattice in U

THEOREM 16.1.17. Let $R, K, V, f_1, \ldots, f_n, M_1, \ldots, M_n, F$ be as above. For each $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$, define $N(\mathfrak{p})$ to be $(M_i)_{\mathfrak{p}}$, for any i such that \mathfrak{p} is in U_i . If

$$N = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} N(\mathfrak{p}),$$

then

- (1) N is an R-lattice in V and $N_{\mathfrak{p}} = N(\mathfrak{p})$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$.
- (2) N is a reflexive R-lattice in V.
- (3) $N \otimes_R R_{f_i} = M_i \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n.$
- $(4) N = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} M_i.$

PROOF. (1): By Corollary 13.6.12, a minimal prime of f_0 has height one. By Corollary 7.6.15, f_0 is contained in only finitely many height one primes of R. Therefore, U_0 contains all but finitely many height one primes of R. By Theorem 16.1.11 (1), $(M_i)_{\mathfrak{p}} = F_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for all but finitely many $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R_0)$. Taken together, this implies that $N(\mathfrak{p}) = F_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for all but finitely many $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$. Part (1) follows from Theorem 16.1.11 (2).

- (2): Follows from Theorem 16.1.14 (4).
- (3): For each $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R_i)$, $(N \otimes_R R_i)_{\mathfrak{p}} = N_{\mathfrak{p}} = N(\mathfrak{p}) = (M_i)_{\mathfrak{p}}$. By Exercise 16.1.20 and Corollary 16.1.15, $N \otimes_R R_i = M_i$.

(4): Follows from:
$$N = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} N(\mathfrak{p}) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R_i)} (M_i)_{\mathfrak{p}} = \bigcap_{i=1}^n M_i$$
.

1.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 16.1.18. Let R be an integral domain and M a finitely generated torsion free R-module. Let S be a submodule of M and consider $\bar{S} = KS \cap M$.

- (1) Prove that M/\bar{S} is a finitely generated torsion free R-module.
- (2) Prove that $KS = K\bar{S}$.

EXERCISE 16.1.19. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let V be a finite dimensional K-vector space and M an R-lattice in V. Then M is a reflexive R-lattice if and only if there is an R-lattice N (in some K-vector space) such that M is isomorphic as an R-module to R:N.

EXERCISE 16.1.20. Let R be a noetherian integrally closed integral domain with field of fractions K. Let V be a finite dimensional K-vector space.

- (1) If M and N are reflexive R-lattices in V, then $M\cap N$ is a reflexive R-lattice in V.
- (2) If U is a K-subspace of V, and M is a reflexive R-lattice in V, then $M \cap U$ is a reflexive R-lattice in U.
- (3) If M is a reflexive R-lattice in V and $Z \subseteq R \{0\}$ is a multiplicative set, then $Z^{-1}M$ is a reflexive $Z^{-1}R$ -lattice in V.

2. The Class Group of Rank One Projective Modules

Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. A fractional ideal of R is a nonzero R-submodule F of K such that there exists a finitely generated R-submodule N of K and $F \subseteq N \subseteq K$. In the terminology of Definition 16.1.2, a fractional ideal of R is an R-lattice in K, where we view K as a vector space over itself.

Lemma 16.2.1. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. If F is a nonzero R-submodule of K, then the following are equivalent.

- (1) F is a fractional ideal of R in K. That is, there exists a finitely generated R-submodule N such that $F \subseteq N \subseteq K$.
- (2) There are nonzero elements a, b in K such that $aR \subseteq F \subseteq bR$.
- (3) There exists a nonzero c in R such that $cF \subseteq R$.
- (4) There exists a nonzero d in K such that $dF \subseteq R$.

PROOF. This is a special case of Proposition 16.1.1, so we only sketch the proof.

- (1) implies (3): Write $N = Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_n$ where x_1, \ldots, x_n are elements of K. If c is the product of the denominators of x_1, \ldots, x_n , then for each i we have $cx_i \in R$. Therefore $cF \subseteq cN \subseteq Rcx_1 + \cdots + Rcx_n \subseteq R$.
 - (3) implies (4): Is trivial.
- (4) implies (2): Suppose $dF \subseteq R$ and $d \in K (0)$. If $b = d^{-1}$ and $a \in F (0)$, then we have $aR \subseteq F = bdF \subseteq bR$.
 - (2) implies (1): Take N = bR.

EXAMPLE 16.2.2. It follows immediately from Lemma 16.2.1 that a nonzero ideal I of R is a fractional ideal.

Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. If E and F are fractional ideals of R, the product EF is defined to be the R-submodule of K generated by the set $\{xy \mid x \in E \text{ and } y \in F\}$.

LEMMA 16.2.3. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. If E and F are fractional ideals of R, then E + F, $E \cap F$ and EF are fractional ideals of R.

PROOF. By definition, E and F are nonzero. Thus E+F is nonzero. Also by definition there are finitely generated R-submodules M and N of K such that $E\subseteq M$ and $F\subseteq N$. Then E+F is a submodule of the finitely generated R-submodule M+N of K. This proves E+F is a fractional ideal of R. By Lemma 16.2.1 (2) there are nonzero elements a,b,c,d in K such that $aR\subseteq E\subseteq bR$ and $cR\subseteq F\subseteq dR$. Then $acR\subseteq EF\subseteq bdR$, which shows EF is a fractional ideal. Now we show $E\cap F$ is a fractional ideal. Since $E\cap F\subseteq E\subseteq M$, it remains to show $E\cap F$ is nonzero. There exist r,s,u,v in R such that a=s/t and c=u/v. Then $us=uta\in E$ and $us=svc\in F$, hence $us\in E\cap F$.

If F is a fractional ideal, let

$$F^{-1} = R : F = \{ x \in K \mid xF \subseteq R \}.$$

Lemma 16.2.4. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. If F is a fractional ideal of R, then the following are true.

- (1) F^{-1} is a fractional ideal of R.
- (2) $F^{-1}F \subseteq R$ and $F^{-1}F$ is an ideal of R.

PROOF. (1): The proof that F^{-1} is a nonzero R-submodule of K is left to the reader. Let $a \in F - (0)$ and $x \in F^{-1}$. Then $xa \in R$ says $x \in a^{-1}R$. Since x was arbitrary, this implies $F^{-1} \subseteq a^{-1}R$ and by Lemma 16.2.1 (1), we are done.

The proof of (2) is left to the reader.

DEFINITION 16.2.5. A fractional ideal F is called an *invertible ideal* of R in case $F^{-1}F = R$.

Lemma 16.2.6. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K.

- (1) If $\alpha \in K^*$, then the principal fractional ideal $I = R\alpha$ is invertible and $I^{-1} = R\alpha^{-1}$.
- (2) If F is a fractional ideal of R and $f \in \text{Hom}_R(F,R)$, then for all $a,b \in F$ it is true that af(b) = bf(a).
- (3) Let F be a fractional ideal of R. For any $\alpha \in F^{-1}$, let $\ell_{\alpha} : F \to R$ be "left multiplication by α ". The mapping $\alpha \mapsto \ell_{\alpha}$ is an isomorphism of R-modules $\ell : F^{-1} \to F^* = \operatorname{Hom}_R(F, R)$.

PROOF. (2): Let a and b be arbitrary elements of F. There exist some elements $r, s, t, u \in R$ such that $a = rs^{-1}$ and $b = tu^{-1}$. Then as = r and bu = t are both in R. Also, bas = br and abu = at are both in F. For any $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(F, R)$ we have

$$sf(abu) = f(sabu) = uf(abs).$$

Combining these, we get $af(b) = saf(b)s^{-1} = f(abs)s^{-1} = f(abu)u^{-1} = buf(a)u^{-1} = bf(a)$.

(3): The reader should verify that the mapping $\ell: F^{-1} \to F^*$ is a one-to-one homomorphism of R-modules. Let $f \in F^*$. Fix an arbitrary $a \in F - (0)$. By (2),

if $x \in F$, then af(x) = xf(a). Let $\alpha = a^{-1}f(a)$. Then $f(x) = a^{-1}xf(a) = \alpha x = \ell_{\alpha}(x)$. This shows $f = \ell_{\alpha}$.

The proof of (1) is left to the reader.

Theorem 16.2.7. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K and let F be a fractional ideal of R. The following are equivalent.

- (1) F is a projective R-module.
- (2) F is an invertible fractional ideal.
- (3) F is a rank one R-progenerator. That is, F is an invertible R-module (Definition 7.7.6).

(4) There exists a fractional ideal E of R such that EF = aR is a principal ideal.

Proof. (3) implies (1): Is trivial.

- (2) implies (4): Take $E = F^{-1}$.
- (4) implies (3): There exist elements x_1,\ldots,x_n in $E,\ y_1,\ldots,y_n$ in F, and a_1,\ldots,a_n in R such that $a=\sum_{i=1}^n a_ix_iy_i$. Since EF is nonzero, we know $a\neq 0$. For any $x\in E$ and $y\in F$, we have $xy\in aR$. Then $a^{-1}xy\in R$. This implies $a^{-1}x\in F^{-1}$. By Lemma 16.2.6 (3), $\ell_{a^{-1}x}\in F^*$. For each i, let $\phi_i=\ell_{a^{-1}a_ix_i}$. Consider $\{(y_i,\phi_i)\mid 1\leq i\leq n\}$. Given any $y\in F$ we have $ay=\sum_{i=1}^n a_ix_iyy_i$. Therefore, $y=\sum_{i=1}^n a^{-1}a_ix_iyy_i=\sum_{i=1}^n\phi_i(y)y_i$, which shows $\{(y_i,\phi_i)\mid 1\leq i\leq n\}$ is a dual basis for F. By Lemma 6.2.9, F is a finitely generated projective F-module. Since F is an integral domain, by Corollary 6.3.4, F is an F-progenerator and by Corollary 7.4.8, F-Rank
- (1) implies (2): By Lemma 6.2.9, F has a dual basis $\{(x_i, f_i) \mid i \in I\}$. It follows from Lemma 16.2.6 (3) that for each $i \in I$ there is $\alpha_i \in F^{-1}$ such that $f_i = \ell_{\alpha_i}$. If $x \in F (0)$, then $f_i(x) = \alpha_i x$ is zero for all but finitely many $i \in I$. Since $\alpha_i \in K$, this implies I is a finite set. In particular, this implies F is finitely generated as an R-module. Then $x = \sum_{i \in I} f_i(x) x_i = \sum_{i \in I} \alpha_i x x_i$. This equation holds in the field K, so we cancel x to get $1 = \sum_{i \in I} \alpha_i x_i$. Since each α_i is in F^{-1} , this shows $F^{-1}F$ is equal to the unit ideal R.

Lemma 16.2.8. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K.

- (1) If F_1, \ldots, F_n are fractional ideals of R, then $F = F_1 F_2 \cdots F_n$ is invertible if and only if each F_i is invertible.
- (2) If P_1, \ldots, P_r are invertible prime ideals in R, and Q_1, \ldots, Q_s are prime ideals in R such that $P_1P_2\cdots P_r=Q_1Q_2\cdots Q_s$, then r=s and after re-labeling, $P_i=Q_i$.

PROOF. (1): Is left to the reader.

(2): The proof is by induction on r. The reader should verify the basis step. Assume r>1 and that the claim is true for r-1 prime factors. Choose a minimal member of the set P_1,\ldots,P_r and for simplicity's sake, assume it is P_1 . Since $Q_1\cdots Q_s\subseteq P_1$, by Definition 10.3.1, there exists i such that $Q_i\subseteq P_1$. Re-label and assume $Q_1\subseteq P_1$. Likewise, $P_1\cdots P_r\subseteq Q_1$ so there exists i such that $P_i\subseteq Q_1\subseteq P_1$. Since P_1 is minimal, $P_1=Q_1$. Multiply by P_1^{-1} to get $P_2\cdots P_r=Q_2\cdots Q_s$. Apply the induction hypothesis.

Lemma 16.2.9. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let M be a nonzero finitely generated torsion free R-module.

- (1) If $\dim_K(KM) = 1$, then M is isomorphic as an R-module to a fractional ideal of R in K.
- (2) If R is a noetherian integrally closed integral domain and there exists $\alpha \in K$ such that $\alpha M \subseteq M$, then $\alpha \in R$.
- PROOF. (1): Choose any nonzero element m_0 of M and let $F = \{\alpha \in K \mid \alpha m_0 \in M\}$. Then F is an R-submodule of K. The assignment $\alpha \mapsto \alpha m_0$ defines a one-to-one R-module homomorphism $\theta : F \to M$. Since the K-vector space KM has dimension one, m_0 is a generator. Given any $m \in M$, there exists $\alpha \in K$ such that $\alpha m_0 = m$. Therefore θ is an isomorphism, and F is a nonzero finitely generated R-submodule of K. This means F is a fractional ideal of R.
- (2): Begin as in Part (1). For any $m_0 \in M (0)$, set $F = \{\alpha \in K \mid \alpha m_0 \in M\}$. Then there is a one-to-one R-module homomorphism $\theta : F \to M$ defined by $\alpha \mapsto \alpha m_0$. It follows from Corollary 7.6.12 that F is finitely generated as an R-module. Since F is nonzero, F is a fractional ideal of R. Clearly $R \subseteq F$ and $\alpha \in F$. It follows that $\alpha^n \in F$ for all $n \geq 0$. Then $R[\alpha] \subseteq F$ and Proposition 10.1.2 implies that α is integral over R. But R is integrally closed, so $\alpha \in R$.

2.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 16.2.10. Let R be an integral domain. Let E and F be fractional ideals of R. If EF = R, then $E = F^{-1}$ and F is an invertible fractional ideal.

EXERCISE 16.2.11. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let E and F be fractional ideals of R. If E is invertible, then the multiplication mapping $\alpha \otimes \beta \mapsto \alpha \beta$ is an isomorphism $E \otimes_R F \cong EF$ of R-modules.

EXERCISE 16.2.12. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let E and F be fractional ideals of R in K.

- (1) KF = K.
- (2) $K \otimes_R F \cong KF$ by the multiplication mapping $\alpha \otimes x \mapsto \alpha x$.
- (3) If $\phi: E \to F$ is an R-module isomorphism, then ϕ extends to a K-module isomorphism $\psi: K \to K$ and ψ is "left multiplication by $\psi(1)$ ".
- (4) E and F are isomorphic as R-modules if and only if there exists $\alpha \in K$ such that $\alpha E = F$.

EXERCISE 16.2.13. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let Invert(R) denote the set of all invertible fractional ideals of R in K. Let Prin(R) denote the subset of Invert(R) consisting of all principal fractional ideals of R in K.

- (1) Prove that Invert(R) is a group under multiplication and contains Prin(R) as a subgroup.
- (2) Every invertible ideal $I \in \text{Invert}(R)$ is an invertible R-module, hence I represents a class in the Picard group of R (Definition 7.7.6). Show that this assignment defines a homomorphism $\theta : \text{Invert}(R) \to \text{Pic}(R)$.
- (3) Show that θ induces an isomorphism $\operatorname{Invert}(R)/\operatorname{Prin}(R) \cong \operatorname{Pic}(R)$. The group $\operatorname{Invert}(R)/\operatorname{Prin}(R)$ is called the class group of rank one projective R-modules.

EXERCISE 16.2.14. Let k be a field, A = k[x] and $R = k[x^2, x^3]$. From Exercises 7.7.16 and 10.1.21, we know that the quotient field of R is K = k(x), A is the integral closure of R in K, and the conductor ideal from A to R is $\mathfrak{m} = (x^2, x^3)$,

which is a maximal ideal in R. For each $\alpha \in k$, $P_{\alpha} = R(1 - \alpha x) + \mathfrak{m}$ is a fractional ideal of R in K. Notice that P_{α} is an R-submodule of A. Prove:

- (1) P_{α} is isomorphic to R if and only if $\alpha=0$. (2) $P_{\alpha}P_{\beta}=P_{\alpha+\beta}$. (Hints: $x^4\in\mathfrak{m}^2,\ x^3\in P_{\alpha}\mathfrak{m},\ x^2\in P_{\alpha}\mathfrak{m},\ 1-(\alpha+\beta)x\in P_{\alpha}\mathfrak{m}$)
- (3) Pic R contains a subgroup isomorphic to the additive group k.
- (4) Pic R is generated by the classes of the modules P_{α} , which implies Pic $R \cong$ k. (See [26, Example II.6.11.4].) This proof may involve methods not yet proved in this text. Here is an outline of a proof which uses a Mayer-Vietoris exact sequence of Milnor (see [20, Exercise 14.2.19]). First show that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R \longrightarrow R/\mathfrak{m} \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ A \longrightarrow A/\mathfrak{m} \end{array}$$

is a cartesian square of commutative rings (Example 6.8.17). There is an exact sequence

$$1 \to R^* \to A^* \times (R/\mathfrak{m})^* \to (A/\mathfrak{m})^* \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{Pic} R \to \operatorname{Pic} A \times \operatorname{Pic}(R/\mathfrak{m}) \to \operatorname{Pic}(A/\mathfrak{m}).$$
 of abelian groups from which Pic R can be computed.

EXERCISE 16.2.15. Let k be a field and A = k[x, y] the polynomial ring over k in two variables. Consider the subring $R = k[x^2, xy, y^2, x^3, x^2y, xy^2, y^3]$ of A. The ideal $\mathfrak{m}=(x^2,xy,y^2,x^3,x^2y,xy^2,y^3)$ in R is maximal ideal. We know from Exercises 15.3.29 and 11.3.9 that the quotient field of R is K = k(x, y), A is the integral closure of R in K, and the conductor ideal from A to R is \mathfrak{m} . For each pair $(\alpha,\beta) \in k^2$, $P_{\alpha,\beta} = R(1-\alpha x - \beta y) + \mathfrak{m}$ is a fractional ideal of R in K. Notice that $P_{\alpha,\beta}$ is an R-submodule of A. Prove:

- (1) $P_{\alpha,\beta}$ is isomorphic to R if and only if $\alpha = \beta = 0$.
- (2) $P_{\alpha,\beta}P_{\gamma,\delta} = P_{\alpha+\gamma,\beta+\delta}$. (Hints: \mathfrak{m}^2 contains every monomial of degree 4, $P_{\alpha,\beta}\mathfrak{m}$ contains every monomial of degree 3 or 2, $P_{\alpha,\beta}\mathfrak{m}$ contains \mathfrak{m} , $1 - (\alpha + \gamma)x - (\beta + \delta)y \in P_{\alpha,\beta}P_{\gamma,\delta}.$
- (3) Pic R contains a subgroup isomorphic to the additive group k^2 .
- (4) Pic R is generated by the classes of the modules $P_{\alpha,\beta}$, which implies Pic $R \cong k^2$. As in Exercise 16.2.14(4), apply the Mayer-Vietoris sequence of Milnor. Use Corollary 15.4.15 and Exercise 16.4.16 to show that ∂ is onto. Now show the image of ∂ contains each class of the form $P_{\alpha,\beta}$.

EXERCISE 16.2.16. Let k be a field, R = k[x,y]/(xy), $A = R/(x) \oplus R/(y)$. Let \mathfrak{m} be the maximal ideal of R generated by x, y.

- (1) Show that the natural map $\theta: R \to A$ is one-to-one, hence R can be viewed as a subring of A.
- (2) Show that the conductor ideal from A to R is \mathfrak{m} .
- (3) As in Exercise 16.2.14(4), apply the Mayer-Vietoris sequence of Milnor to show that $R^* = k^*$ and Pic $R = \langle 0 \rangle$.

EXERCISE 16.2.17. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let S be another subring of K such that $R \subseteq S \subseteq K$ is a tower of subrings. Prove that R:S, the conductor ideal from S to R, is nonzero if and only if S is a fractional ideal of R in K.

3. Dedekind Domains

PROPOSITION 16.3.1. Let R be a commutative noetherian integral domain of Krull dimension one. For any proper ideal I of R, there exist unique primary ideals I_1, \ldots, I_n such that

- (1) Rad $I_1, \ldots, \text{Rad } I_n$ are distinct maximal ideals of R, and
- (2) $I = I_1 I_2 \cdots I_n$.

PROOF. (Existence.) By Theorem 13.3.8, I has a reduced primary decomposition $I = I_1 \cap I_2 \cap \cdots \cap I_n$. In a reduced primary decomposition the primes $\operatorname{Rad} I_1, \ldots, \operatorname{Rad} I_n$ are distinct. Because I is nonzero and $\dim R = 1$, each $\operatorname{Rad} I_i$ is a maximal ideal of R. Two distinct maximal ideals are necessarily comaximal. By Exercise 7.3.21, the ideals I_i are pairwise comaximal. By Exercise 2.3.21, $I = I_1 I_2 \cdots I_n$.

(Uniqueness.) Suppose I_1, \ldots, I_n are primary ideals such that Rad $I_1, \ldots, \operatorname{Rad} I_n$ are distinct maximal ideals of R, and $I = I_1 I_2 \cdots I_n$. By the same argument as above, $I = I_1 \cap I_2 \cap \cdots \cap I_n$ is a reduced primary decomposition of I. By Lemma 13.3.5, the primary ideals I_i are uniquely determined by I.

Theorem 16.3.2. Let R be an integral domain. The following are equivalent.

- (1) R is a noetherian normal integral domain with Krull dimension one.
- (2) R is a noetherian integral domain and for every prime ideal P of height greater than or equal to one, the local ring R_P is a DVR.
- (3) Every proper ideal in R has a unique representation as a product of a finite number of prime ideals.
- (4) Every nonzero ideal in R is invertible. By Theorem 16.2.7, this is equivalent to each of the following statements.
 - (a) Every nonzero ideal of R is R-projective.
 - (b) Every nonzero ideal of R is an invertible R-module.
- (5) Every fractional ideal of R is invertible. By Theorem 16.2.7, this is equivalent to each of the following statements.
 - (a) Every fractional ideal of R is R-projective.
 - (b) Every fractional ideal of R is an invertible R-module.
- (6) Let Frac(R) denote the set of all fractional ideals of R. Then Frac(R) is a group under multiplication.

An integral domain satisfying the equivalent conditions of Theorem 16.3.2 is called a $Dedekind\ domain$.

PROOF. (1) is equivalent to (2): Is left to the reader.

- (5) is equivalent to (6): Is left to the reader.
- (5) implies (4): Is trivial.
- (1) implies (3): Let I be a proper ideal of R. By Proposition 16.3.1, $I = I_1 \cdots I_n$ where I_1, \ldots, I_n are unique primary ideals. If $P_i = \operatorname{Rad} I_i$, then P_i is a maximal ideal of R. By Theorem 15.4.3, I_i is equal to the symbolic power $P_i^{(\nu_i)}$, for some unique $\nu_i > 0$. By Proposition 13.1.2 (3), $P_i^{\nu_i}$ is a P_i -primary ideal. By Exercise 13.3.9, it follows that $I_i = P_i^{\nu_i}$.

- (4) implies (5): If F is a fractional ideal, then $F^{-1}F$ is invertible. By Lemma 16.2.8, F is invertible.
- (4) implies (2): Let I be a nonzero ideal of R. By Theorem 16.2.7, I is a rank one projective R-module. Then I is finitely generated and by Corollary 7.6.7, R is noetherian. Let P be a nonzero prime ideal of R and let \mathfrak{m} denote the maximal ideal PR_P in R_P . By Proposition 7.4.2, \mathfrak{m} is a free R_P -module of rank one. In other words, \mathfrak{m} is a principal ideal and Corollary 13.6.13 says dim R = 1. Theorem 15.2.10 implies R_P is a DVR.
- (3) implies (4): By Lemma 16.2.8, it suffices to show every nonzero prime ideal of R is invertible. The proof is split into two steps.

Step 1: If P is an invertible prime ideal in R, then P is maximal. The proof is by contradiction. Assume $a \in R - P$ and $P + Ra \neq R$. By assumption,

$$P + Ra = P_1 \cdots P_m$$
$$P + Ra^2 = Q_1 \cdots Q_n$$

for some prime ideals $P_1, \ldots, P_m, Q_1, \ldots, Q_n$. Since P is prime, R/P is an integral domain. Let $\eta: R \to R/P$ be the natural map.

$$\eta(P + Ra) = \eta(P_1) \cdots \eta(P_m)$$
$$\eta(P + Ra^2) = \eta(Q_1) \cdots \eta(Q_n)$$

The two ideals on the left-hand side are the principal ideals in R/P generated by $\eta(a)$ and $\eta(a^2)$ respectively. By Lemma 16.2.6 (1), $\eta(P+Ra)$ and $\eta(P+Ra^2)$ are invertible. Since $P \subseteq P_i$ and $P \subseteq Q_j$ for each i and j, the ideals $\eta(P_i)$ and $\eta(Q_j)$ are prime ideals in R/P. By Lemma 16.2.8 (1), for all i and j, the ideals $\eta(P_i)$ and $\eta(Q_j)$ are invertible prime ideals in R/P. Apply Lemma 16.2.8 (2) to the two factorizations

$$\eta(Q_1)\cdots\eta(Q_n)=\eta(P_1)^2\cdots\eta(P_m)^2$$

of the principal ideal $\eta(P+Ra^2)=\eta(P+Ra)^2$. Then n=2m and upon relabeling, $\eta(P_i)=\eta(Q_{2i-1})=\eta(Q_{2i})$ for $i=1,\ldots,m$. By Proposition 3.2.12, $P_i=Q_{2i-1}=Q_{2i}$ for $i=1,\ldots,m$, which implies

$$P + Ra^2 = Q_1 \cdots Q_n = P_1^2 \cdots P_m^2 = (P + Ra)^2.$$

We see that

$$P \subseteq P + Ra^2 \subseteq (P + Ra)^2 \subseteq P^2 + Ra.$$

Suppose $x \in P^2$, $r \in R$, and $x + ra \in P$. Since P is prime and $a \notin P$, we conclude $r \in P$. Hence $P \subseteq P^2 + Pa \subseteq P$. But P is invertible, so $R = P^{-1}(P^2 + Pa) = P + Ra$, a contradiction.

Step 2: If P is a nonzero prime ideal in R, then P is invertible. Let $x \in P-(0)$. By assumption, $Rx=P_1\cdots P_m$ for some prime ideals P_1,\ldots,P_m . Then $P_1\cdots P_m\subseteq P$. By Lemma 16.2.6 (1), Rx is invertible. By Lemma 16.2.8, each P_i in the product is invertible. By Definition 10.3.1, there exists i such that $P_i\subseteq P$. By Step 1, P_i is a maximal ideal in R. This shows $P=P_i$, hence P is invertible (and maximal).

Proposition 16.3.3 is a generalization of Proposition 4.3.1.

Proposition 16.3.3. Let R be a Dedekind domain.

(1) Let P be a nonzero prime ideal in R, e>0 and $A=R/(P^e)$. The following are true.

- (a) Every ideal in A is principal.
- (b) A is a field if and only if e = 1.
- (c) A is a local ring with maximal ideal P/P^e .
- (d) A has exactly e+1 ideals, namely: $(0) \subseteq P^{e-1}/P^e \subseteq \cdots \subseteq P^2/P^e \subseteq P/P^e \subseteq A$.
- (2) Let P_1, \ldots, P_n be distinct nonzero prime ideals of R, e_1, \ldots, e_n positive integers, $I = P_1^{e_1} P_2^{e_2} \cdots P_n^{e_n}$, and A = S/I. The following are true.
 - (a) A is isomorphic to the direct sum of the local rings $\bigoplus_i S/P_i^{e_i}$.
 - (b) Every ideal in A is principal.
 - (c) Including the two trivial ideals (0) and A, there are exactly $(e_1 + 1)(e_2 + 1)\cdots(e_n + 1)$ ideals in A.
 - (d) A has exactly n maximal ideals, namely $P_1/I, \ldots, P_n/I$.

PROOF. (1): The only maximal ideal of R that contains P^e is P, which is (c). By Theorem 16.3.2 (3), the ideals of R that contain P^e are $P^e, P^{e-1}, \ldots, P, R$, which is (d) and (b). If $1 \leq i < e$ and $\alpha \in P^i - P^{i+1}$, then $P^e + R\alpha$ is not a subset of P^{i+1} . Hence $P^e + R\alpha = P^i$, which proves (a).

(2): This follows from Theorems 3.3.8, 3.3.5, Exercise 3.3.22, and Part (1). \Box

COROLLARY 16.3.4. Let I be an ideal in the Dedekind domain R. If I is not principal, then I is generated by two elements. That is, there exist α, β in I such that $I = R\alpha + R\beta$.

PROOF. Assume I is not principal and pick any nonzero element α in I. By Proposition 16.3.3, the ideal $I/R\alpha$ is a principal ideal in $R/R\alpha$. There exists $\beta \in I$ such that $R\alpha + R\beta = I$.

If I is an ideal in a Dedekind domain R, by Corollary 16.3.4, $I = R\alpha + R\beta$, where $\alpha \in I - (0)$ is arbitrary. For this reason, a Dedekind domain is said to have the "one and a half generator property for ideals".

COROLLARY 16.3.5. Let I and J be proper ideals in the Dedekind domain R. Then there exist an element α in R and an ideal C in R satisfying J+C=R and $IC=R\alpha$.

PROOF. By Proposition 16.3.3, the ideal I/IJ is a principal ideal in R/IJ. There exists $\alpha \in I$ such that $R\alpha + IJ = I$. By Exercise 16.3.13, there exists an ideal C in R such that $R\alpha = IC$. Multiplying IC + IJ = I by I^{-1} yields C + J = R.

THEOREM 16.3.6. Let R be a Dedekind domain with quotient field K and M a finitely generated torsion free R-module. If $n = \dim_K (KM)$, then there exist fractional ideals F_1, \ldots, F_n of R such that $M \cong F_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus F_n$.

PROOF. Let x be any nonzero element of M. Let S = Rx be the principal submodule of M generated by x. Let $\bar{S} = KS \cap M$. By Exercise 16.1.18, M/\bar{S} is torsion free and $K\bar{S} = KS$. Since $\dim_K K\bar{S} = 1$, by Lemma 16.2.9, there exists a fractional ideal F_1 of R such that $\bar{S} \cong F_1$. Since $\dim_K (K \otimes_R (M/\bar{S})) = n - 1$, by induction on n, there exist fractional ideals F_2, \ldots, F_n of R such that $M/\bar{S} \cong F_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus F_n$. By Theorem 16.3.2, each F_i is projective. Therefore the sequence $0 \to \bar{S} \to M \to M/\bar{S} \to 0$ is split exact.

We now prove that the integral closure of a Dedekind domain in a finite extension of its quotient field is a Dedekind domain. Theorem 16.3.7 is a corollary to the Krull-Akizuki Theorem (Theorem 13.7.5).

Theorem 16.3.7. Let R be a noetherian integral domain with $\dim(R) = 1$. Let K be the quotient field of R, L a finitely generated algebraic field extension of K, and S the integral closure of R in L. Then S is a Dedekind domain.

PROOF. By Theorem 13.7.5, S is noetherian and has Krull dimension one. By Corollary 10.1.8, L is the quotient field of S. Since S is integrally closed in L, by Theorem 16.3.2(1), S is a Dedekind domain.

3.1. Exercises.

EXERCISE 16.3.8. Let R be a Dedekind domain and $\operatorname{Frac}(R)$ the group of fractional ideals of R.

- (1) Frac(R) is a free abelian group on the set Max(R), where the binary operation is multiplication.
- (2) There is an isomorphism $\operatorname{Frac}(R) \cong \operatorname{Div}(R)$ which maps a maximal ideal P to the corresponding generator of $\operatorname{Div}(R)$.

EXERCISE 16.3.9. Let R be a Dedekind domain and $\operatorname{Frac}(R)$ the group of fractional ideals of R. Let $\operatorname{Prin}(R) = \{R\alpha \mid \alpha \in K^*\}$ denote the subset of $\operatorname{Frac}(R)$ consisting of all principal fractional ideals.

- (1) Prin(R) is a subgroup of Frac(R).
- (2) The quotient $\operatorname{Frac}(R)/\operatorname{Prin}(R)$ is isomorphic to $\operatorname{Cl}(R)$.
- (3) The following are equivalent.
 - (a) R is a PID.
 - (b) R is a UFD.
 - (c) Cl(R) = (0).

EXERCISE 16.3.10. Let R be a Dedekind domain and M a finitely generated R-module. The following are equivalent.

- (1) M is torsion free.
- (2) M is flat.
- (3) M is projective.

EXERCISE 16.3.11. Show that if R is a Dedekind domain, then Pic(R) and Cl(R) are isomorphic.

EXERCISE 16.3.12. Let R be a Dedekind domain. Let $P_1, \ldots, P_m, Q_1, \ldots, Q_n$ be nonzero prime ideals of R satisfying $\prod_{i=1}^m P_i \supseteq \prod_{j=1}^n Q_j$. Then $m \le n$ and upon relabeling, $P_i = Q_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, m$.

EXERCISE 16.3.13. Let R be a Dedekind domain. If A and B are ideals of R such that $A \supseteq B$, then there exists an ideal C such that AC = B

EXERCISE 16.3.14. Let R be a Dedekind domain. Let P_1, \ldots, P_n be distinct nonzero prime ideals of R and let $e_1, \ldots, e_n, f_1, \ldots, f_n$ nonnegative integers. Let $I = \prod P_i^{e_i}$ and $J = \prod P_i^{f_i}$. Let $m_i = \min(e_i, f_i)$ and $M_i = \max(e_i, f_i)$. Then $I + J = \prod P_i^{m_i}$ and $I \cap J = \prod P_i^{M_i}$.

EXERCISE 16.3.15. Suppose I and J are proper ideals in a Dedekind domain R such that I+J=R. Then there exists an isomorphism of R-modules $I\oplus J\cong R\oplus IJ$.

EXERCISE 16.3.16. Let R be a Dedekind domain. If F_1 and F_2 are fractional ideals of R, then there exists an isomorphism of R-modules $F_1 \oplus F_2 \cong R \oplus F_1F_2$.

EXERCISE 16.3.17. Let R be a Dedekind domain and assume I_1, \ldots, I_m and J_1, \ldots, J_n are fractional ideals of R. The following are equivalent.

- (1) There exists an isomorphism of R-modules $I_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus I_m \cong J_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus J_n$.
- (2) m = n and there exists an isomorphism of R-modules $I_1 \cdots I_m \cong J_1 \cdots J_n$.

4. The Class Group of Rank One Reflexive Modules

4.1. Reflexive Fractional Ideals. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. In this section we study fractional ideals of R in K which are reflexive R-lattices. Such fractional ideals are called *reflexive fractional ideals*. For instance, any invertible fractional ideal is projective (Theorem 16.2.7), hence reflexive. If F is a fractional ideal of R in K, then $F \subseteq (F^{-1})^{-1}$. By Lemma 16.2.6 (3), the assignment $\alpha \mapsto \ell_{\alpha}$ defines an isomorphism $F^{-1} \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(F,R)$. The reader should verify that $F \to F^{**}$ is an isomorphism (that is, F is reflexive) if and only if $F = (F^{-1})^{-1}$. If E and F are two fractional ideals of R in K, then

$$E: F = \{ \alpha \in K \mid \alpha F \subseteq E \}.$$

We call E: F either the ideal quotient, or module quotient (Definition 15.3.5). Notice that $F^{-1} = R: F$.

LEMMA 16.4.1. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K.

- (1) If E and F are fractional ideals of R, then E: F is a fractional ideal of R.
- (2) Given fractional ideals $I_1 \subseteq I_2$ and $J_1 \subseteq J_2$, $J_1 : I_2 \subseteq J_2 : I_1$.
- (3) If F is a fractional ideal, then

$$F^{-1} = R : F = R : (R : (R : F)).$$

That is, F^{-1} is a reflexive fractional ideal and $F^{-1} \cong (F^{-1})^{**}$.

(4) If F is a fractional ideal, then

$$(F^{-1})^{-1} = \bigcap_{\alpha \in F^{-1}} \alpha^{-1} R.$$

That is, F is a reflexive fractional ideal if and only if

$$F = \bigcap_{\alpha \in F^{-1}} \alpha^{-1} R.$$

- (5) If D, E and F are fractional ideals, then
 - (a) D: EF = (D:E): F, and
 - (b) $(D:E)F \subseteq D:(E:F)$.
- (6) If F is a fractional ideal, then $(F^{-1}F)^{-1} = F^{-1} : F^{-1}$.
- (7) If F is a fractional ideal and E is a reflexive fractional ideal, then E: F is a reflexive ideal.

PROOF. The reader should verify that (1), (2), (3), (4), (5) and (7) are special cases of Proposition 16.1.6, Lemma 16.1.7, Proposition 16.1.8, Lemma 16.1.9, and Proposition 16.1.10. (6): By Part (5) (a), $R: F^{-1}F = (R:F): F^{-1} = (R:F): (R:F)$.

Let $\operatorname{Reflex}(R)$ denote the set of all reflexive fractional ideals of R in K. If E and F are reflexive fractional ideals of R, then EF is not necessarily reflexive. Define a binary operation on $\operatorname{Reflex}(R)$ by the formula E*F=R:(R:EF). By Exercise 16.4.12, this operation turns $\operatorname{Reflex}(R)$ into an abelian monoid with identity R. If R is a noetherian normal integral domain, then Lemma 15.1.2 (3) implies that R is completely normal and Proposition 16.4.2 implies that $\operatorname{Reflex}(R)$ is an abelian group.

PROPOSITION 16.4.2. If R is an integral domain with field of fractions K, then Reflex(R) is an abelian group if and only if R is completely normal (see Definition 15.1.1).

PROOF. Assume Reflex(R) is an abelian group. Let I be a fractional ideal of R in K. By Exercise 16.4.11, it is enough to show R = I : I. Let $J = (I^{-1})^{-1}$. By Lemma 16.4.1 (3), J is a reflexive fractional ideal. By Lemma 16.4.1 (7), J:J is a reflexive fractional ideal. By Exercise 16.4.9, J:J is an intermediate ring $R \subseteq J:J \subseteq K$, so $(J:J)^2 = J:J$. Then $R:(R:(J:J)^2) = R:(R:(J:J)) = J:J$ says J:J is the idempotent of the group Reflex(R). That is, R=J:J. Again by Exercise 16.4.9,

$$R\subseteq I:I\subseteq I^{-1}:I^{-1}\subseteq J:J=R.$$

Conversely, if $I \in \text{Reflex}(R)$, then so is I^{-1} by Lemma 16.4.1 (3). By Lemma 16.4.1 (6), $R: II^{-1} = I^{-1}: I^{-1} = R$. Then $R: (R: II^{-1}) = R$, so I^{-1} is the inverse of I in Reflex(R).

Lemma 16.4.3. Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain with field of fractions K.

- (1) Suppose I is an ideal in R that is maximal among all proper reflexive ideals in R. Then there exists an element $x \in K$ such that I = R : (Rx + R) and I is a prime ideal.
- (2) If P is a prime ideal of R and P is a reflexive ideal, then ht(P) = 1.
- (3) If $P \in X_1(R)$, then P is reflexive.

PROOF. (1): Since I is a proper reflexive ideal, $I^{-1} \neq R$. Pick $x \in I^{-1} - R$. Then $I \subseteq R : (Rx + R) \subseteq R$ and since $x \notin R$, $1 \notin R : (Rx + R)$. The ideal R : (Rx+R) is reflexive, by Lemma 16.4.1 (3). By the maximality of I, I = R : (Rx+R). Now suppose $a,b \in R$ and $ab \in I$. Let A = Ra + I and B = Rb + I. Suppose $b \notin I$. Since $AB \subseteq I$, it follows that $I \subseteq B \subseteq I : A$. Also, $I : A \subseteq I : I = R$. By Lemma 16.4.1 (7), I : A is a reflexive ideal in R. By maximality of I we conclude that I : A = R. Since $1 \in I : A$, we conclude that $a \in I$.

- (2): Since $P \neq R$, $R \neq R$: P. Suppose $Q \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ and $(0) \subsetneq Q \subsetneq P$. Let $x \in P Q$. Then $(R:P)x \subseteq R$, so $(R:P)xQ \subseteq Q$. But $x \notin Q$ and Q is prime, so $(R:P)Q \subseteq Q$. Thus $R:P \subseteq Q:Q$. Since R is normal, R=Q:Q. This is a contradiction.
 - (3): If $x \in P (0)$, then Rx is free, hence reflexive. The set
 - $S = \{I \in \text{Reflex}(R) \mid I \subseteq P \text{ and there exists } \alpha \in K^* \text{ such that } I = R\alpha^{-1} \cap R\}$

is nonempty. Since R is noetherian, S has a maximal member, $M = R\alpha^{-1} \cap R$. It suffices to show that M is prime. Let a, b be elements of R such that $ab \in M$. Then $R(a\alpha)^{-1} \cap R \supseteq R\alpha^{-1} \cap R = M$. By Exercise 16.4.15, $R(a\alpha)^{-1} \cap R$ is in Reflex(R).

Case 1: Assume $R(a\alpha)^{-1} \cap R \subseteq P$. By the choice of M, $R(a\alpha)^{-1} \cap R = M$. Thus $ab \in R(a\alpha)^{-1} \cap R$, so there exists $r \in R$ such that $ab = r(a\alpha)^{-1} \in R$. This shows that $b = r(a\alpha)^{-1}a^{-1} \in R\alpha^{-1} \cap R = M$.

Case 2: Assume $R(a\alpha)^{-1} \cap R \not\subseteq P$. There exists $y \in R(a\alpha)^{-1} \cap R$ such that $y \not\in P$. Given $w = r(y\alpha)^{-1} \in R(y\alpha)^{-1} \cap R$, $yw = r\alpha^{-1} \in M \subseteq P$. Since $y \not\in P$, this proves $R(y\alpha)^{-1} \cap R \subseteq P$. We have $M = R\alpha^{-1} \cap R \subseteq R(y\alpha)^{-1} \cap R \subseteq P$. By the choice of M, this means $M = R(y\alpha)^{-1} \cap R$. Hence $a \in R(y\alpha)^{-1} \cap R = M$.

This proves that M is prime. Since ht(P) = 1, we conclude M = P. Thus P is reflexive. \Box

Theorem 16.4.4. Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain with field of fractions K.

- (1) If I is an ideal in R, then I is reflexive if and only if there exist $P_1, \ldots, P_n \in X_1(R)$ such that $I = R : (R : (P_1 \cdots P_n))$.
- (2) If I is a reflexive ideal in R, then there are only finitely many $P \in X_1(R)$ such that $I \subseteq P$.
- (3) The factorization in Part (1) is unique up to the order of the factors.
- (4) Reflex(R) is a free \mathbb{Z} -module and $X_1(R)$ is a basis. The group Reflex(R) is isomorphic to Div(R), the group of Weil divisors of R.

PROOF. (1): Suppose I is a proper ideal of R and I is reflexive. If $I \in X_1(R)$, then I has the desired factorization. The proof is by contradiction. Since R is noetherian, there exists a maximal counterexample, say M. That is, M is a reflexive proper ideal in R and M does not have a factorization in the form $M = R : (R : (P_1 \cdots P_n))$, where each P_i is in $X_1(R)$. By Lemma 16.4.3, there is a maximal reflexive ideal P_1 that properly contains M. In fact, P_1 is in $X_1(R)$. Since $R \subseteq P_1^{-1}$, it follows that $M \neq P_1^{-1} * M$, hence $M \subseteq (R : P_1)M$. Take double duals, $M \subseteq R : (R : (R : P_1)M)$. Also, $M \subseteq P_1 \subseteq R$, so $(R : P_1)M \subseteq (R : P_1)P_1 \subseteq R$. That is, $R : (R : (R : P_1)M)$ is a reflexive ideal in R that properly contains M. By the choice of M, this ideal has a factorization in the desired form:

$$R:(R:(R:P_1)M)=R:(R:(P_2\cdots P_n))$$

where $P_2, \ldots, P_n \in X_1(R)$. Use Exercise 16.4.12 and Proposition 16.4.2 to show that $P_1^{-1} * M = P_2 * \cdots * P_n$ and $M = P_1 * P_2 * \cdots * P_n = R : (R : (P_1 \cdots P_n))$. The converse follows from Lemma 16.4.1 (3).

- (2): Suppose $I = R : (R : (P_1 \cdots P_m))$ and each $P_i \in X_1(R)$. Then $P_1 \cdots P_m \subseteq I$. Suppose $P \in X_1(R)$ such that $I \subseteq P$. By Proposition 3.2.14, there must be some i in $1, \ldots, m$ such that $P_i \subseteq P$. Since $\operatorname{ht}(P) = 1$, $P_i = P$. There are only finitely many choices for P.
- (3): Suppose $I = R : (R : (P_1 \cdots P_m))$ and each $P_i \in X_1(R)$. If m = 1, then $I = P_1$ so the claim is trivially true. Proceed by induction on m. By Part (2), we can assume $I \subseteq P_1$. It follows that $I : P_1 \subseteq P_1 : P_1 = R$. By Lemma 16.4.1, $I : P_1$ is a reflexive ideal in R. By Exercise 16.4.13, $I : P_1 = I * P_1^{-1}$. By Exercise 16.4.12, $I : P_1 = P_2 * \cdots * P_m = R : (R : (P_2 \cdots P_m))$ and by induction we are done.
- (4): By Parts (2) and (3) it suffices to show Reflex(R) is generated by those ideals in $X_1(R)$. Let $I \in \text{Reflex}(R)$. There exists $a \in R$ such that $aI \subseteq R$. By Part (1) there are primes Q_i and P_j in $X_1(R)$ such that $aR = Q_1 * \cdots * Q_n$ and $aI = P_1 * \cdots * P_m$. Therefore, in the group Reflex(R) we have

$$I * Q_1 * \cdots * Q_n = P_1 * \cdots * P_m.$$

The last claim follows from the fact that the group of Weil divisors, Div(R), is the free \mathbb{Z} -module on $X_1(R)$ (Definition 15.4.13).

4.2. A Nodal Cubic Curve. This section is devoted to an example of an algebraic plane curve that is nonnormal and birational to the affine line \mathbb{A}^1 . Assume that the characteristic of k, the base field, is not 2. Consider the polynomial $y^2 - x^2(x+1)$ in k[x][y]. By Eisenstein's Criterion (Corollary 3.7.7) with prime p = x+1, $y^2 - x^2(x+1)$ is irreducible in k[x][y]. Let $R = k[x,y]/(y^2 - x^2(x+1))$. In the following we show that R is a nonnormal integral domain, the Krull dimension of R is one, every maximal ideal of R is reflexive, and there is exactly one maximal ideal of R that is not projective,

First we show that R is isomorphic to the ring of Exercises 7.7.18 and 10.1.23. Let A=k[z] be the polynomial ring over k in the variable z. Define $\theta:k[x,y]\to k[z]$ by assigning $\theta(x)=z^2-1$, $\theta(y)=z(z^2-1)$, and applying Theorem 3.6.3. The image of θ is the ring $k[z^2-1,z(z^2-1)]$. It is routine to see that $\theta(y^2-x^2(x+1))=0$. Therefore, θ factors through R and the diagram

commutes. Since θ is onto, $\bar{\theta}$ is onto. Since $k[z^2-1,z(z^2-1)]$ is an integral domain, $\ker \bar{\theta}$ is a prime ideal in R. By Theorem 14.3.1 and Corollaries 13.6.12, and 14.3.4, $\dim(R)=1$. By Theorem 13.6.22, $\dim(k[z^2-1,z(z^2-1)])=\dim(k[z])=1$. Another application of Corollary 14.3.4 shows $\bar{\theta}$ is one-to-one.

PROPOSITION 16.4.5. Let k be a field with characteristic different from 2 and $R = k[x,y]/(y^2 - x^2(x+1))$. Then the following are true.

- (1) R is a noetherian integral domain with Krull dimension 1.
- (2) If K denotes the quotient field of R, then y/x is transcendental over k and K = k(y/x) is the field of rational functions in one variable over k.
- (3) R is equal to the k-subalgebra of K generated by the two elements $x = (y/x)^2 1$ and $y = (y/x)((y/x)^2 1)$. The integral closure of R in K is R[y/x] = k[y/x].
- (4) The conductor ideal from k[y/x] to R is equal to the ideal $\mathfrak{m} = (x, y)$. The ideal \mathfrak{m} is a maximal ideal in R and a principal ideal (x) in k[y/x].

PROOF. We already proved Part (1). From Exercises 7.7.18 and 10.1.23, the quotient field of $k[z^2-1,z(z^2-1)]$ is equal to k(z), the integral closure is equal to k[z], and the conductor ideal from k[z] to $k[z^2-1,z(z^2-1)]$ is $(z^2-1,z(z^2-1))$. Parts (2) – (4) follow from this and the isomorphism $\bar{\theta}$ derived above. To see this, note that the identity $y^2=x^2(x+1)$ implies $x=(y/x)^2-1$. Starting with the isomorphism $\bar{\theta}$, there is a commutative diagram

$$k[y/x] \xrightarrow{\cong} A = k[z]$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow$$

$$R = \frac{k[x,y]}{(y^2 - x^2(x+1))} \xrightarrow{\cong} k[z^2 - 1, z(z^2 - 1)]$$

of k-algebras. The left vertical arrow is defined by $x \mapsto (y/x)^2 - 1$ and $y \mapsto (y/x)x$ and is one-to-one. The right vertical arrow is set containment. The top horizontal arrow is the isomorphism defined by $y/x \mapsto z$.

PROPOSITION 16.4.6. Let k be a field with characteristic different from 2 and $R = k[x,y]/(y^2-x^2(x+1))$. Let K denote the quotient field of R and \bar{R} the integral closure of R in K. Then the following are true.

- (1) In R, the ideal $\mathfrak{m} = (x, y)$ has the following properties:
 - (a) \mathfrak{m} is a maximal ideal of R and \mathfrak{m} is the only prime ideal of R that contains x.
 - (b) As R-modules, \mathfrak{m} is isomorphic to \bar{R} .
 - (c) \mathfrak{m} and \bar{R} are reflexive fractional ideals of R.
 - (d) \mathfrak{m} and \bar{R} are not invertible fractional ideals. That is, \mathfrak{m} and \bar{R} are not projective R-modules.
 - (e) $R: \bar{R} = \bar{R}^{-1} = \mathfrak{m}, \ R: \mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}^{-1} = \bar{R}, \ and \ \mathfrak{m}: \mathfrak{m} = \bar{R}.$
- (2) If P is a maximal ideal of R and x is not in P, then P is a projective R-module. That is, P is an invertible fractional ideal.
- PROOF. (1): Since R/(x,y)=k, this proves $\mathfrak{m}=(x,y)$ is maximal. Any prime ideal that contains x contains $x^2(x+1)=y^2$, hence contains y. From Proposition 16.4.5, \bar{R} is generated as an R-module by 1 and y/x. Since $(y/x)^2=x+1$, we have $\bar{R}=R+R(y/x)$. Therefore, \bar{R} is a fractional ideal of R in K. Then \bar{R}^{-1} is equal to the conductor ideal $R:\bar{R}$, which is $\mathfrak{m}=(x,y)$. As an \bar{R} -module, $\mathfrak{m}=\bar{R}x=\bar{R}((y/x)^2-1)$ is cyclic. Therefore, left multiplication by $x=(y/x)^2-1$ is an R-module isomorphism $\ell_x:\bar{R}\to\mathfrak{m}$. By Lemma 16.4.1, $\mathfrak{m}=R:\bar{R}$ is a reflexive fractional ideal of R. By the isomorphism $\bar{R}\cong\mathfrak{m}$, this implies \bar{R} is a reflexive fractional ideal of R. Since $\bar{R}^{-1}\bar{R}=\mathfrak{m}\neq R$, by Theorem 16.2.7 we see that \bar{R} and \mathfrak{m} are not invertible fractional ideals. Since \bar{R} is reflexive, we have $\bar{R}=R:(R:\bar{R})=R:\mathfrak{m}$. The last identity in (e) follows from $\bar{R}\subseteq\mathfrak{m}:\mathfrak{m}\subseteq R:\mathfrak{m}=\bar{R}$.
- (2): Let P be a maximal ideal in R and assume x is not in P. Since $P \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is the unit ideal, it is free of rank 1 over the local ring $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$. By Exercise 7.3.27, $P \otimes_R R[1/x]$ is a maximal ideal in R[1/x]. By Exercise 7.7.18, $R[1/x] = \overline{R}[1/x]$. Since \overline{R} is a PID, $P \otimes_R R[1/x]$ is a principal ideal, hence free of rank 1 over R[1/x]. From this it follows that P satisfies Proposition 7.7.2 (4). Therefore, P is locally free of rank 1. By Theorem 16.2.7, P is an invertible fractional ideal.

See Exercise 16.4.18 for a continuation of this example.

4.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 16.4.7. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let E and F be fractional ideals of R in K. For any $\alpha \in E : F$, let $\ell_{\alpha} : F \to E$ be "left multiplication by α ". The mapping $\alpha \mapsto \ell_{\alpha}$ is an isomorphism of R-modules $E : F \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(F, E)$.

EXERCISE 16.4.8. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K.

- (1) If M is a reflexive R-module, then M is torsion free.
- (2) If M is a finitely generated reflexive R-module and $\dim_K(K \otimes_R M) = 1$, then M is isomorphic to a reflexive fractional ideal of R in K.

EXERCISE 16.4.9. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let F be a fractional ideal of R in K.

- (1) F:F is a ring, and $R\subseteq F:F\subseteq K$ is a tower of subrings. (2) $F:F\subseteq F^{-1}:F^{-1}\subseteq (F^{-1})^{-1}:(F^{-1})^{-1}$.

EXERCISE 16.4.10. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K and let $\alpha \in K$. The following are equivalent.

- (1) α is almost integral over R.
- (2) $R[\alpha]$ is a fractional ideal of R in K.
- (3) There exists a fractional ideal F of R in K such that $\alpha F \subseteq F$.

EXERCISE 16.4.11. If R is an integral domain with field of fractions K, then R is completely normal if and only if R = F : F for all fractional ideals F of R in K.

EXERCISE 16.4.12. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let D, E, F be fractional ideals of R in K.

- (1) Show that $(D^{-1}:E):F=(E^{-1}:F):D$.
- (2) Show that $(D((EF)^{-1})^{-1})^{-1} = (((DE)^{-1})^{-1}F)^{-1} = (DEF)^{-1}$.
- (3) Show that with the binary operation $E*F = R: (R:EF) = ((EF)^{-1})^{-1}$, Reflex(R) is an abelian monoid.

Exercise 16.4.13. Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain with field of fractions K. Let E and F be elements of the group Reflex(R). Prove that $E: F = E * F^{-1}$ and $F: E = F * E^{-1}$.

EXERCISE 16.4.14. Let R be an integral domain with field of fractions K. Let E and F be elements of the group Reflex(R). Prove that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(E,F)$ is a free R-module of rank one if and only if E is isomorphic to F.

Exercise 16.4.15. Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain with field of fractions K. Let E and F be reflexive fractional ideals. Prove that $E \cap F$ is a reflexive fractional ideal.

EXERCISE 16.4.16. Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain with field of fractions K.

- (1) Invert(R) is a subgroup of Reflex(R).
- (2) Prin(R) is a subgroup of Reflex(R).
- (3) The quotient Reflex(R)/Prin(R) is called the class group of rank one reflexive R-modules. Show that this group is isomorphic to the class group of Weil divisors Cl(R).
- (4) Show that there is a one-to-one homomorphism

$$\operatorname{Invert}(R)/\operatorname{Prin}(R) \to \operatorname{Reflex}(R)/\operatorname{Prin}(R)$$

from the class group of rank one projectives into the class group of rank one reflexives.

(5) There is a one-to-one homomorphism $Pic(R) \to Cl(R)$.

EXERCISE 16.4.17. Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain and Sing(R)the set of all maximal ideals $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max}(R)$ such that $\operatorname{Cl}(R_{\mathfrak{m}}) \neq (0)$. Show that the natural maps induce an exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Pic}(R) \to \operatorname{Cl}(R) \to \prod_{\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Sing}(R)} \operatorname{Cl}(R_{\mathfrak{m}})$$

of abelian groups. (Hint: Exercise 15.4.21.)

EXERCISE 16.4.18. Let k be a field with characteristic different from 2. Let $R = k[x,y]/(y^2 - x^2(x+1))$ be the ring of Section 16.4.2. Let K denote the quotient field of R and \bar{R} the integral closure of R in K. Consider the tower of rings $k[x] \subseteq R \subseteq \bar{R}$. Prove the following:

- (1) R is free of rank 2 over k[x].
- (2) \bar{R} is free of rank 2 over k[x].
- (3) \bar{R} is not free over R.
- (4) R is not separable over k[x].
- (5) \overline{R} is not separable over k[x].
- (6) R is separable over R. (Hint: Theorem 14.1.19.)

5. Functorial Properties of the Class Group

Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain with field of fractions K. Let S be a noetherian normal integral domain with field of fractions L. The class group is not a functor. That is, a homomorphism $R \to S$ does not necessarily induce a homomorphism of groups $\operatorname{Cl}(R) \to \operatorname{Cl}(S)$. There are three important cases where a homomorphism on class groups does exist. The first case is when S is a localization of R in K and K = L. This is the context of Nagata's Theorem and the reader is referred to Theorem 15.4.16 and Exercise 15.4.21. Secondly, if S is a flat R-algebra, we show that there is an induced homomorphism $\gamma:\operatorname{Cl}(R)\to\operatorname{Cl}(S)$. This is the subject of Section 16.5.1. The third scenario is when S is a faithful R-algebra which is finitely generated as an R-module. In this context, we show in Section 16.5.2 that there is a homomorphism $\gamma:\operatorname{Cl}(R)\to\operatorname{Cl}(S)$. The special case where L/K is a finite Galois extension of fields is investigated in Section 16.5.3.

5.1. Flat Extensions. Now assume S/R is an extension of noetherian normal integral domains and L/K is the corresponding extension of the fields of fractions. Assume S is a flat R-algebra. Then in this context, Proposition 16.5.2 shows that there is a homomorphism of divisor groups $\beta: \operatorname{Div}(R) \to \operatorname{Div}(S)$ which induces a homomorphism of class groups $\gamma: \operatorname{Cl}(R) \to \operatorname{Cl}(S)$.

Lemma 16.5.1. Let R be a noetherian integral domain with field of fractions K. Let M be a reflexive R-lattice in the finite dimensional K-vector space V. Let $\theta: R \to S$ be a flat homomorphism of commutative rings. The following are true.

- (1) $S \otimes_R M$ is a reflexive S-module.
- (2) If θ is one-to-one and S is an integral domain with field of fractions L, then the image of $S \otimes_R M$ is a reflexive S-lattice in $L \otimes_K V$.

PROOF. (1): Since R is noetherian, both M and $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,R)$ are finitely presented R-modules. Applying Proposition 7.5.8, we see that $S \otimes_R M$ is a reflexive S-module.

(2): By Proposition 16.1.5, $S \otimes_R M$ is an S-lattice in $L \otimes_K V$.

Proposition 16.5.2. Let S/R be an extension of noetherian normal integral domains and L/K the corresponding extension of the fields of fractions. Assume S is a flat R-algebra. Let I be a reflexive fractional ideal of R in K. The following are true.

(1) IS is a reflexive fractional ideal of S in L.

- (2) $I \otimes_R S \cong IS$ by the multiplication map $a \otimes b \mapsto ab$.
- (3) The action $I \mapsto IS$ induces a homomorphism $Cl(R) \to Cl(S)$ of abelian groups.
- PROOF. (2): There is $\alpha \in R$ such that $\alpha I \subseteq R$. Since S is flat over R, the multiplication map $\alpha I \otimes_R S \to \alpha IS$ is an isomorphism, by Corollary 7.8.4. From this we get $I \otimes_R S \to IS$ is an isomorphism.
 - (1): This follows from (2) and Lemma 16.5.1.
- (3): By (1) and (2), the assignment $I \mapsto IS$ induces a homomorphism Reflex $(R) \to \text{Reflex}(S)$. If I is a principal ideal of R, then IS is a principal ideal of S, hence under this homomorphism Prin(R) is mapped to Prin(S). By Exercise 16.4.16, this induces a homomorphism of groups $\text{Cl}(R) \to \text{Cl}(S)$.

COROLLARY 16.5.3. Let S/R be an extension of noetherian normal integral domains and L/K the corresponding extension of the fields of fractions. Assume S is a faithfully flat R-algebra.

- (1) Let I be a fractional ideal of R in K. Then I is a projective fractional ideal if and only if IS is a projective fractional ideal of S in L.
- (2) If Pic(R) = 0, then $Cl(R) \to Cl(S)$ is one-to-one.

PROOF. (1): This follows from Proposition 16.5.2 and Lemma 7.5.12.

(2): If I is a reflexive fractional ideal of R in K and IS is principal, then I is an invertible fractional ideal, by (1). Since Pic(R) = 0, I is principal.

COROLLARY 16.5.4. (Mori's Theorem) Let R be a commutative noetherian ring, I an ideal contained in the Jacobson radical of R, and \hat{R} the I-adic completion of R. If \hat{R} is an integrally closed integral domain, then R is an integrally closed integral domain and $Cl(R) \to Cl(\hat{R})$ is one-to-one.

PROOF. By Theorem 11.3.7, the ring R and ideal I make up a Zariski pair and \hat{R} is a faithfully flat R-algebra. By Corollary 11.3.18, \hat{R} is noetherian. If \hat{R} is an integrally closed integral domain, then R is also, by Exercise 10.1.18. Given a reflexive fractional ideal \mathfrak{a} of R, by Proposition 16.5.2 the assignment $\mathfrak{a} \mapsto \mathfrak{a} \hat{R}$ induces a homomorphism $\mathrm{Cl}(R) \to \mathrm{Cl}(\hat{R})$. There exists a nonzero element $c \in R$ such that $c\mathfrak{a} \subseteq R$. By Corollary 11.3.20, if $c\mathfrak{a} \hat{R}$ is a principal ideal, then $c\mathfrak{a}$ is a principal ideal. It follows that the map on class groups is one-to-one.

Polynomial rings are an important special case of the above. Let R be a commutative ring and x an indeterminate. By Exercise 7.5.23, R[x] is a faithfully flat extension of R. If R is a normal ring, then so is R[x], by Lemma 15.1.6.

Theorem 16.5.5. Let R be a noetherian commutative ring.

- (1) If R is an integrally closed integral domain, then the natural homomorphism $Cl(R) \to Cl(R[x])$ is an isomorphism.
- (2) If R is a normal ring, then the natural homomorphism $Pic(R) \to Pic(R[x])$ is an isomorphism.

PROOF. (1): Let K be the quotient field of R. Since K[x] is a unique factorization domain, Cl(K[x]) = 0 (Corollary 15.4.15). By Nagata's Theorem (Exercise 15.4.21), Cl(R[x]) is generated by the prime divisors $P \in X_1(R[x])$ such that $P \cap R \neq (0)$. Let S = R[x] and $P \in X_1(S)$. Since S/R is faithfully flat, going down holds and Theorem 13.6.21 says $ht(P) = ht(P \cap R) + ht(P/(P \cap R)S)$. If $P \cap R \neq (0)$,

this means $P \cap R \in X_1(R)$, and $P = (P \cap R)S$. Therefore, $Cl(R) \to Cl(R[x])$ is onto. Consider the commutative diagram

$$\operatorname{Pic}(R) \xrightarrow{\alpha} \operatorname{Pic}(R[x])$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\operatorname{Cl}(R) \xrightarrow{\beta} \operatorname{Cl}(R[x])$$

in which β is onto and the vertical maps are one-to-one (Exercise 16.4.16). If $R[x] \to R$ is the homomorphism defined by $x \mapsto 0$, then $R \to R[x] \to R$ is an isomorphism of rings. Since Pic() is a functor, Pic(R) \to Pic(R[x]) \to Pic(R) is an isomorphism of abelian groups, hence α is one-to-one. By Corollary 16.5.3(1) it follows that α is onto and β is one-to-one.

- (2): By the proof of (1), this is true when R is an integral domain. It follows from Lemma 15.1.5 that R is a finite direct sum of normal integral domains. By Exercise 7.7.12, the Picard group distributes across direct sums.
- **5.2. Finite Extensions.** We begin by establishing some notation that will be in effect throughout this section. Let S/R be an extension of noetherian normal integral domains and L/K the corresponding extension of the fields of fractions. Assume S is a finitely generated R-module. Then S is equal to the integral closure of R in L. Since $S \otimes_R K$ is the localization of S in L with respect to the multiplicative set $R \{0\}$, $S \otimes_R K$ is an integral domain. By Theorem 6.4.23, $S \otimes_R K$ is a finitely generated K-vector space. Thus $S \otimes_R K$ is a field, by Exercise 4.5.15. Therefore, $S \otimes_R K = L$ which implies $\dim_K(L) = m$ is finite.

In this context, we show that there is a homomorphism of divisor groups β : $\operatorname{Div}(R) \to \operatorname{Div}(S)$ which induces a homomorphism of class groups γ : $\operatorname{Cl}(R) \to \operatorname{Cl}(S)$. By Parts (1) and (5) of Theorem 10.3.7, the continuous map $\operatorname{Spec} S \to \operatorname{Spec} R$ is onto and going down holds for $R \to S$. Assume $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$ and $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Spec}(S)$ such that $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{q} \cap \mathfrak{p}$. By Theorem 13.6.22, $\mathfrak{q} \in X_1(S)$. By Theorem 15.2.10, $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a discrete valuation ring. By Corollary 10.3.8, $S_{\mathfrak{p}} = S \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a semilocal ring whose maximal ideals correspond to the prime ideals $\mathfrak{q} \in X_1(S)$ lying over \mathfrak{p} . Before defining the homomorphism β : $\operatorname{Div} R \to \operatorname{Div} S$, we define for every prime $\mathfrak{q} \in X_1(S)$ such that $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{q} \cap \mathfrak{p}$ two important numbers $e(\mathfrak{q})$, $e(\mathfrak{q})$. These numbers are significant in their own right, hence Proposition 16.5.6 is stated in the special case where R is a discrete valuation ring with quotient field K and K is the integral closure of K in a finite algebraic extension field of K.

PROPOSITION 16.5.6. Let R be a DVR with quotient field K, maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , residue field $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$, and local parameter π . Let L/K be a finite algebraic extension of fields with $\dim_K(L) = m$ and let S be the integral closure of R in L. Then the following are true.

- (1) The ring S satisfies the following:
 - (a) S is a noetherian normal integral domain with Krull dimension one. In other words, S is a Dedekind domain (see Theorem 16.3.2).
 - (b) The quotient field of S is L.
 - (c) S is a torsion free R-module and $S \otimes_R K = L$. If S is a finitely generated R-module, then S is a free R-module of rank m.
 - (d) $X_1(S)$ is a finite set, say $\{\mathfrak{q}_1,\ldots,\mathfrak{q}_t\}$.
 - (e) S is semilocal.

- (f) Pic S = Cl S = (0).
- (g) S is a PID and hence a UFD.
- (2) For each 1 ≤ i ≤ t, S_{qi} is a DVR and R → S_{qi} is a local homomorphism of local rings. Denote the maximal ideal of S_{qi} by m(q_i) and the residue field by k(q_i). There exist unique positive integers e_i and f_i satisfying:
 (a) mS_{qi} = m(q_i)^{e_i}.
 - (b) $k(\mathfrak{q}_i)$ is a finite dimensional extension field of k and $\dim_k k(\mathfrak{q}_i) = f_i$.
- (3) The numbers t, e_i , f_i satisfy the identity: $\dim_k S \otimes_R k = \sum_{i=1}^t e_i f_i$. If S is a finitely generated R-module, then $\dim_k S \otimes_R k = \operatorname{Rank}_R(S) = \dim_K(L)$.

PROOF. (1): By Theorem 16.3.7, S is a Dedekind domain and L is the quotient field of S. By Lemma 13.7.1, $S \otimes_R K = L$. Therefore S is a torsion free R-module of rank $\dim_K(L) = m$. By Corollary 13.7.6, S is semilocal and the maximal ideals of S are precisely the minimal prime over-ideals of \mathfrak{m} . For some $t \geq 1$ we have $X_1(S) = \{\mathfrak{q}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{q}_t\}$. Over a semilocal integral domain a finitely generated projective module is free, by Exercise 8.1.12. By Exercises 16.3.11 and 16.3.9, Pic $S = \operatorname{Cl} S = (0)$ and S is a PID. This proves (1).

(2): Fix $1 \leq i \leq t$. By Theorem 15.2.10, $S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}$ is a discrete valuation ring for L. Let $\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)$ be the maximal ideal and $k(q_i)$ the residue field of $S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}$. Since $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{q}_i \cap R$, the ideal $\mathfrak{m}S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}$ is contained in $\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)$. By Lemma 15.2.9, $\mathfrak{m}S_{\mathfrak{q}_i} = \mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)^{e_i}$ for a unique $e_i \geq 1$, which is (a). By Theorem 13.7.5, $S \otimes_R k$ is a finite dimensional k-vector space. By Exercise 7.6.35 and Theorem 8.4.6, $S \otimes_R k$ decomposes into the direct sum of local rings

$$(5.1) S \otimes_R k = \bigoplus_{i=1}^t S_{\mathfrak{q}_i} / \mathfrak{m} S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}.$$

Each local ring $S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}/\mathfrak{m}S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}$ is finite dimensional over k. Therefore, the residue field $k(\mathfrak{q}_i)$ is finite dimensional over k. Then $\dim_k k(\mathfrak{q}_i) = f_i$ is finite, which is (b).

(3): Fix $1 \le i \le t$. By (2) we have the identity

$$\mathfrak{m}S_{\mathfrak{q}_i} = \mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)^{e_i}.$$

The local ring $S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}/\mathfrak{m}S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}=S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}/\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)^{e_i}$ is a k-vector space with filtration by subspaces

$$\frac{\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)^{e_i}}{\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)^{e_i}} \subseteq \frac{\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)^{e_i-1}}{\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)^{e_i}} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \frac{\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)^2}{\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)^{e_i}} \subseteq \frac{\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)}{\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)^{e_i}} \subseteq \frac{S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}}{\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)^{e_i}}.$$

Since $S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}$ is a DVR, for $1 \leq j \leq e_i$, the factor $\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)^{j-1}/\mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)^j$ is isomorphic to $k(\mathfrak{q}_i)$ as a k-vector space. Thus the dimension of each factor of the filtration is equal to f_i . There are e_i factors in the filtration, so $\dim_k S_{\mathfrak{q}_i}/\mathfrak{m}S_{\mathfrak{q}_i} = e_i f_i$. Combining this with the direct sum in (5.1), we have $\dim_k S \otimes_R k = \sum_{i=1}^t e_i f_i$, which completes the proof.

DEFINITION 16.5.7. In Proposition 16.5.6 (2), the number e_i is called the ramification index of \mathfrak{q}_i over \mathfrak{p} and the number f_i is called the degree of the residue field extension of \mathfrak{q}_i over \mathfrak{p} . Notice that $e_i = 1$ if and only if $\mathfrak{m}S_{\mathfrak{q}_i} = \mathfrak{m}(\mathfrak{q}_i)$. In this case we say \mathfrak{q}_i is unramified over \mathfrak{p} .

COROLLARY 16.5.8. In the context of Proposition 16.5.6, $S \otimes_R k$ is separable over k if and only if for each i, $e_i = 1$ and the extension of residue fields $k(\mathfrak{q}_i)/k$ is separable.

PROOF. This follows from Corollary 9.5.9 and Proposition 16.5.6.

Now let S/R be an extension of noetherian normal integral domains and L/K the corresponding extension of the fields of fractions. Assume S is a finitely generated R-module. Let $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$. By Theorem 15.2.10, $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a discrete valuation ring. Since $S_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is the localization of S in L with respect to the multiplicative set $R - \mathfrak{p}$, by Lemma 10.1.7, $S_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is the integral closure of $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ in L and $S_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is an integrally closed integral domain by Theorem 10.1.3. Then $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$, with quotient field K and $S_{\mathfrak{p}}$, with quotient field L are in the context of Proposition 16.5.6. Then $X_1(S_{\mathfrak{p}})$ is a finite set. If \mathfrak{q} is in $X_1(S_{\mathfrak{p}})$, the ramification index of \mathfrak{q} over \mathfrak{p} is denoted $e_{\mathfrak{q}}$ and the degree of the residue field extension is denoted $f_{\mathfrak{q}}$. A prime \mathfrak{q} in $X_1(S_{\mathfrak{p}})$ corresponds to a minimal prime over-ideal of $\mathfrak{p}S$ in Spec S, which will also be denoted \mathfrak{q} . The local ring of $S_{\mathfrak{p}}$ at \mathfrak{q} is equal to the local ring $S_{\mathfrak{q}}$. The homomorphism

$$\beta: \operatorname{Div} R \to \operatorname{Div} S$$

is defined by sending the prime divisor $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$ to the divisor $\sum_{\mathfrak{q} \cap R = \mathfrak{p}} e_{\mathfrak{q}} \mathfrak{q}$, where the sum runs over the set of primes in $X_1(S)$ lying over \mathfrak{p} , which is equal to the set $X_1(S_{\mathfrak{p}})$. Thus,

$$eta(\mathfrak{p}) = \sum_{\mathfrak{q} \cap R = \mathfrak{p}} e_{\mathfrak{q}} \mathfrak{q}$$

$$= \sum_{\mathfrak{q} \in X_1(S_{\mathfrak{p}})} e_{\mathfrak{q}} \mathfrak{q}.$$

Proposition 16.5.9. Let S/R be an extension of noetherian normal integral domains and L/K the corresponding extension of the fields of fractions. Assume S is a finitely generated R-module. Then there is a homomorphism $\gamma: \mathrm{Cl}(R) \to \mathrm{Cl}(S)$ which is induced on divisors by the homomorphism β defined above.

PROOF. Let $\alpha \in K^*$. Let $\mathfrak{q} \in X_1(S)$ and $\mathfrak{q} \cap R = \mathfrak{p}$. By definition of ramification index, $\nu_{\mathfrak{q}}(\alpha) = e_{\mathfrak{q}}\nu_{\mathfrak{p}}(\alpha)$. Therefore, β maps a principal divisor to a principal divisor, the diagram

commutes and the rows are exact.

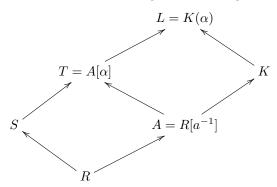
In the context of Proposition 16.5.9, the ramification divisor on Spec S is the subset of $X_1(S)$ consisting of all primes \mathfrak{q} of height one such that $e_{\mathfrak{q}} > 1$. In Proposition 16.5.10 we show that the ramification divisor is a finite set if the extension of fields L/K is separable.

Proposition 16.5.10. Let R be a noetherian integrally closed integral domain with field of fractions K. Let L/K be a finite separable extension of fields and S the integral closure of R in L. The ramification divisor,

$$\{\mathfrak{q}\in X_1(S)\mid e_{\mathfrak{q}}>1\}\,,$$

is a finite set.

PROOF. By the Primitive Element Theorem, Theorem 5.4.7, there exists $\alpha \in L$ such that $L = K(\alpha)$ is a simple extension. Let $f = \operatorname{Irr.poly}_K(\alpha)$ be the irreducible polynomial of α in K[x]. So f is separable and the ideal in K[x] generated by f and f' contains 1. There exist $g, h \in K[x]$ such that gf + hf' = 1. The polynomials f, g, h, f' have coefficients in K. Let K0 be a nonzero element of K1 such that the polynomials K1 and K2 formed by inverting K2. Then the polynomials K3 formed by inverting K4. Then the polynomials K5 formed by inverting K6. Then the polynomials K6 formed by inverting K7 and K8 formed by K9 for and K9 for and K9 for another exists in K9 and the ideal in K1 is a free K2-module of rank K3 for each K4 such that K5 for exists K6 for exists K8 for exists K8 for exists K8 for exists K9. The quotient field of K9 for exists K1 for exists K2 for exist



commutes where each arrow is set inclusion. By change of base (Corollary 9.3.2), given any $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec}(A)$, we have $T \otimes_A k(\mathfrak{p})$ is separable over $k(\mathfrak{p})$. By Corollary 16.5.8, every $\mathfrak{q} \in X_1(T)$ is unramified over $\mathfrak{q} \cap A$. For each $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec}(A)$, we have $T \otimes_A k(\mathfrak{p})$ is a direct sum of fields by Corollary 9.5.9. Therefore, $T \otimes_A k(\mathfrak{p})$ is a regular ring. So T is normal by Corollary 15.5.6. This means T is the integral closure of A in L. By Lemma 10.1.7, $S[a^{-1}]$ is the integral closure of A in L. This proves $T = S[a^{-1}]$. As in the proof of Theorem 15.4.16, we can view $\operatorname{Div}(R[a^{-1}])$ as the free \mathbb{Z} -submodule of $\operatorname{Div}(R)$ generated by the primes in $X_1(R[a^{-1}])$. Let $\operatorname{Div}(a) = \nu_1 \mathfrak{p}_1 + \dots + \nu_n \mathfrak{p}_n$. Then $X_1(R) = X_1(R[a^{-1}]) \cup \{\mathfrak{p}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_n\}$. Let \mathfrak{q} be a ramified height one prime in $X_1(S)$ and set $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{q} \cap R$. Then \mathfrak{p} is not in $X_1(R[a^{-1}])$, so \mathfrak{p} is in the finite set $\{\mathfrak{p}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_n\}$. By Proposition 16.5.6, there are only finitely many primes of S that lie over each \mathfrak{p}_i .

We apply the results of this section to a ramified radical extension (see Section 15.5.3).

COROLLARY 16.5.11. Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain and a a nonzero element of R such that $\mathrm{Div}(a) = P_1 + \cdots + P_v$ is a reduced effective divisor. If $n \geq 2$ is invertible in R and $S = R[x]/(x^n - a)$, then the following are true.

- (1) There are unique primes Q_1, \ldots, Q_v in $X_1(S)$ such that $P_i = Q_i \cap R$ and $Div(x) = Q_1 + \cdots + Q_v$.
- (2) For each i, the ramification index e_{Q_i} is equal to n.
- (3) The ramification divisor of the extension S/R is equal to $\{Q_1, \ldots, Q_v\}$.

PROOF. This follows from the proofs of Parts (4) and (5) of Theorem 15.5.14.

5.3. Galois Descent of Divisor Classes. References for the material in this section are [22], [49], and [53]. Let R be a noetherian integrally closed integral domain with quotient field K. Let L/K be a finite dimensional extension of fields which is Galois with group G. The degree of the extension is denoted n. Let S be the integral closure of R in L. Then L is the quotient field of S and S is finitely generated as an R-module (Theorem 10.1.13). We are in the context of Proposition 16.5.9. The reader should verify that that G acts on S as a group of R-algebra automorphisms, and $S^G = R$. If $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Spec} S$, then it is clear that for every $\sigma \in G$, $\sigma(\mathfrak{q})$ is in $\operatorname{Spec} S$. Moreover, if $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$, then $S_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is the integral closure of $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ in L and G acts as a group of permutations of $X_1(S_{\mathfrak{p}})$. The prime ideals in $X_1(S_{\mathfrak{p}})$ correspond to height one primes in S lying over \mathfrak{p} . By Theorem 10.3.6 (6), any two primes in $X_1(S)$, are conjugate to each other. Therefore, G acts as a group of permutations on $X_1(S)$. Since $\operatorname{Div}(S)$ is the free abelian group on $X_1(S)$, this makes $\operatorname{Div}(S)$ into a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module. In Proposition 16.5.12, we employ the notation of Section 12.5.

Proposition 16.5.12. In the above context, the following are true.

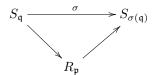
- (1) There is a monomorphism $\beta : \text{Div}(R) \to \text{Div}(S)^G$ of abelian groups.
- (2) $\operatorname{Cl}(S)$ is a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module and there is a homomorphism of groups $\gamma:\operatorname{Cl}(R)\to\operatorname{Cl}(S)^G$.
- (3) There is a natural exact sequence

$$0 \to \ker \gamma \to \operatorname{H}^1(G, S^*) \to \operatorname{Div}(S)^G / \operatorname{Div}(R)$$

of abelian groups.

(4) If each $\mathfrak{q} \in X_1(S)$ is unramified over $\mathfrak{q} \cap R$, then $\beta : \operatorname{Div}(R) \to \operatorname{Div}(S)^G$ is an isomorphism.

PROOF. (1): Clearly β is one-to-one. Given $\mathfrak{q} \in X_1(S)$, let $\mathfrak{p} = R \cap \mathfrak{q}$. Each $\sigma \in G$ induces a commutative diagram



where the top row is an isomorphism. From this we see that the ramification index of \mathfrak{q} is equal to the ramification index of $\sigma(\mathfrak{q})$. Hence the image of β is fixed by σ .

- (2): If $\alpha \in L^*$, then $\nu_{\mathfrak{q}}(\alpha) = \nu_{\sigma(\mathfrak{q})}(\sigma(\alpha))$, so σ maps a principal divisor to a principal divisor and $\mathrm{Cl}(S)$ is a $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module. The rest follows from (1).
 - (3): The long exact sequence of cohomology associated to

$$(5.2) 1 \to S^* \to L^* \to \operatorname{Prin} S \to 0$$

and Hilbert's Theorem 90 (Theorem 12.5.25) yield the exact sequence

$$(5.3) \quad 1 \to R^* \to K^* \to \operatorname{Prin}(S)^G \to \operatorname{H}^1(G, S^*) \to 0$$
$$\to \operatorname{H}^1(G, \operatorname{Prin}S) \xrightarrow{\delta^1} \operatorname{H}^2(G, S^*) \xrightarrow{\epsilon} \operatorname{H}^2(G, L^*).$$

By definition, $K^*/R^* = \operatorname{Prin} R$. The diagram

commutes and the rows are exact. To finish (3), combine (5.3) and (5.4) with the Snake Lemma (Theorem 6.6.2).

(4): For each $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$, let $P(\mathfrak{p}) = \{\mathfrak{q} \in X_1(S) \mid \mathfrak{q} \cap R = \mathfrak{p}\}$ be the set of those prime divisors in $X_1(S)$ lying over \mathfrak{p} . Then $\beta(\mathfrak{p}) = \sum_{\mathfrak{q} \in P(\mathfrak{p})} e_{\mathfrak{q}} \mathfrak{q} = \sum_{\mathfrak{q} \in P(\mathfrak{p})} \mathfrak{q}$ because each ramification index is assumed to be 1. By Theorem 10.3.7 (6), if $\mathfrak{q} \cap R = \mathfrak{p}$, then the set $P(\mathfrak{p})$ is equal to the orbit of \mathfrak{q} under the action of G on $\mathrm{Div}(S)$. Let $D = \sum_{\mathfrak{q} \in X_1(S)} a_{\mathfrak{q}} \mathfrak{q}$ be a divisor in $\mathrm{Div}(S)^G$. Since D is fixed by each $\sigma \in G$, the coefficients $a_{\mathfrak{q}}$ are constant as \mathfrak{q} runs through $P(\mathfrak{p})$. If we denote this constant by $a_{\mathfrak{p}}$, then

$$D = \sum_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} \left(a_{\mathfrak{p}} \sum_{\mathfrak{q} \in P(\mathfrak{p})} \mathfrak{q} \right) = \sum_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} a_{\mathfrak{p}} \beta(\mathfrak{p})$$

which shows D is in the image of β .

PROPOSITION 16.5.13. In the above context, $H^1(G, \text{Div } S) = (0)$.

PROOF. For each $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)$ fix a prime $Q_{\mathfrak{p}} \in X_1(S)$ lying above \mathfrak{p} . Let $G_{\mathfrak{p}}$ be the subgroup of G fixing $Q_{\mathfrak{p}}$. The reader should verify that

$$\mathrm{Div}(S) = \bigoplus_{\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R)} \mathbb{Z}G \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}G_{\mathfrak{p}}} \mathbb{Z}$$

as G-modules. Since G is finite, $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G_{\mathfrak{p}}}(\mathbb{Z}G,\mathbb{Z})$ and $\mathbb{Z}G\otimes_{\mathbb{Z}G_{\mathfrak{p}}}\mathbb{Z}$ are isomorphic as G-modules (Lemma 12.5.20). From Theorem 12.5.15, for each $\mathfrak{p}\in X_1(R)$ we have the identity $\operatorname{H}^1(G,\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}G_{\mathfrak{p}}}(\mathbb{Z}G,\mathbb{Z}))=\operatorname{H}^1(G_{\mathfrak{p}},\mathbb{Z})$. But \mathbb{Z} is a trivial $G_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -module and by Proposition 12.5.11 we see that $\operatorname{H}^1(G_{\mathfrak{p}},\mathbb{Z})=\operatorname{Hom}(G_{\mathfrak{p}},\mathbb{Z})$. But G is finite, so the last group is the trivial group (0). It follows from Exercise 12.5.31 that $\operatorname{H}^1(G,\operatorname{Div}(S))=(0)$.

The exact sequence that we derive in Theorem 16.5.14 is a special case of the main theorem of $[\mathbf{49}]$.

THEOREM 16.5.14. (D. S. Rim) In the above context, there is an exact sequence

$$(5.5) \quad 0 \to \operatorname{Cl}(S/R) \xrightarrow{\gamma_0} \operatorname{H}^1(G, S^*) \xrightarrow{\gamma_1} \operatorname{Div}(S)^G / \operatorname{Div}(R)$$
$$\xrightarrow{\gamma_2} \operatorname{Cl}(S)^G / \operatorname{Cl}(R) \xrightarrow{\gamma_3} \operatorname{H}^2(G, S^*) \xrightarrow{\gamma_4} \operatorname{H}^2(G, L^*)$$

of abelian groups where Cl(S/R) is the kernel of $Cl(R) \to Cl(S)$.

Proof. The long exact sequence of cohomology associated to the short exact sequence

$$(5.6) 0 \to \operatorname{Prin} S \to \operatorname{Div} S \to \operatorname{Cl} S \to 0$$

is

$$(5.7) \quad 0 \to \operatorname{Prin}(S)^G \to \operatorname{Div}(S)^G \to \operatorname{Cl}(S)^G \xrightarrow{\delta^0} \operatorname{H}^1(G, \operatorname{Prin}S) \to \operatorname{H}^1(G, \operatorname{Div}S).$$

By Proposition 16.5.13, δ^0 is onto. Combine (5.3) with (5.7) to get

$$(5.8) \quad 0 \to \operatorname{Cl}(S/R) \xrightarrow{\gamma_0} \operatorname{H}^1(G, S^*) \xrightarrow{\gamma_1} \operatorname{Div}(S)^G$$

$$\xrightarrow{\gamma_2} \operatorname{Cl}(S)^G \xrightarrow{\delta^1 \delta^0} \operatorname{H}^2(G, S^*) \xrightarrow{\gamma_4} \operatorname{H}^2(G, L^*).$$

Using Diagram (5.4) it is straightforward to derive (5.5) from (5.8).

In Proposition 16.5.12 we saw that the group $\mathrm{Div}(S)^G/\mathrm{Div}(R)$ is trivial whenever S/R is unramfied at every height one prime. We end this section with a description of this group for another important class of examples. In Proposition 16.5.15 we assume that for every prime $\mathfrak{q} \in X_1(S)$, if \mathfrak{q} is ramified, then \mathfrak{q} is fixed by the Galois group. That is, $e_{\mathfrak{q}}f_{\mathfrak{q}}=n$.

PROPOSITION 16.5.15. In the context of Section 16.5.3, assume that for every height one prime \mathfrak{q} of S, if \mathfrak{q} is ramified, then \mathfrak{q} is fixed by the Galois group. Let $\mathfrak{q}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{q}_v$ be those primes in $X_1(S)$ with ramification index $e_{\mathfrak{q}_i} > 1$. The case v = 0 is allowed. In the context of Theorem 16.5.14,

$$\operatorname{Div}(S)^{G}/\operatorname{Div}(R) \cong \begin{cases} (0) & \text{if } v = 0\\ \bigoplus_{i=1}^{v} (\mathbb{Z}/e_{\mathfrak{q}_{i}})\mathfrak{q}_{i} & \text{if } v > 0. \end{cases}$$

PROOF. Let $\mathfrak{p}_i = \mathfrak{q}_i \cap R$, $U = X_1(R) - \{\mathfrak{p}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_v\}$ and $V = X_1(S) - \{\mathfrak{q}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{q}_v\}$. Start with the commutative diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{i=1}^{v} \mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{p}_{i} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Div}(R) \xrightarrow{\pi} \bigoplus_{\mathfrak{p} \in U} \mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{p} \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\beta} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{i=1}^{v} \mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{q}_{i} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Div}(S)^{G} \xrightarrow{\theta} \left(\bigoplus_{\mathfrak{q} \in V} \mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{q}\right)^{G}$$

where the map π is the projection onto the submodule spanned by U and θ is the projection onto the submodule spanned by V. The vertical maps α and γ are induced by β . The map α is defined by $\mathfrak{p}_i \mapsto e_{\mathfrak{q}_i}\mathfrak{q}_i$. The proof of Proposition 16.5.12 (4) shows γ is an isomorphism. The rest follows from the Snake Lemma (Theorem 6.6.2).

We apply the results of this section to a ramified radical extension (see Section 15.5.3).

COROLLARY 16.5.16. Let R be a noetherian normal integral domain with quotient field K. Assume R is a $\mathbb{Z}[n^{-1},\zeta]$ -algebra, where ζ is a primitive nth root of unity in \mathbb{C} . Let a be a nonzero element of R and assume $\mathrm{Div}(a)$ is a reduced effective divisor. If $S = R[x]/(x^n - a)$ and $L = K[x]/(x^n - a)$, then the following are true.

- (1) L/K is a cyclic Galois extension with group $G = \langle \sigma \rangle$, and $\sigma(x) = \zeta x$.
- (2) If $Div(x) = Q_1 + \cdots + Q_v$, then in the context of Theorem 16.5.14,

$$\bigoplus_{i=1}^{v} (\mathbb{Z}/n)Q_i = \operatorname{Div}(S)^G/\operatorname{Div}(R)$$

is a free \mathbb{Z}/n -module of rank v.

PROOF. By Theorem 5.8.4, L/K is a Kummer extension of degree n. By Corollary 16.5.11, the ramification divisor of the extension S/R is equal to $\{Q_1, \ldots, Q_v\}$. For each i, the action by G on $\mathrm{Div}(S)$ fixes each ramified prime divisor $Q_i = P_i S + (x)$. The ramification index e_{Q_i} is equal to n. The rest follows from Proposition 16.5.15.

5.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 16.5.17. Let $n \ge 2$ be an integer and k a field in which 2n is invertible. Also assume k contains a primitive 2nth root of unity, ζ . For $T = k[x, y, z]/(z^n - x^{n-1}y + 1)$, prove the following.

- (1) T is an integrally closed integral domain.
- (2) If $\alpha: T[x^{-1}] \to k[x, z, x^{-1}]$ is the function defined by $y \mapsto (z^n + 1)x^{1-n}$, $x \mapsto x, z \mapsto z$, then α is an isomorphism of k-algebras.
- (3) For i = 1, ..., n, the ideal $Q_i = (x, z + \zeta^{2i-1})$ is a height one prime ideal of T.
- (4) The divisor of x is Div $x = Q_1 + \cdots + Q_n$.
- (5) $Cl(T) = \mathbb{Z}Q_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}Q_{n-1}$.
- (6) Let σ be the k[x,y]-algebra automorphism of T defined by $z\mapsto \zeta^2 z$ (see Exercise 3.6.34). Let $G=\langle \sigma \rangle$ and A=k[x,y].
 - (a) G is a cyclic group of order n which acts on Cl(T) by $\sigma Q_1 = -Q_1 Q_2 \cdots Q_{n-1}$, $\sigma Q_2 = Q_1, \ldots, \sigma Q_{n-1} = Q_{n-2}$.
 - (b) $\mathfrak{p} = \langle x^{n-1}y 1 \rangle$ is a height one prime in A and $\mathfrak{q} = \langle z, x^{n-1}y 1 \rangle$ is a height one prime in T.
 - (c) For the extension $A \to T$, the ramification index of \mathfrak{q} over \mathfrak{p} is n.
 - (d) $\operatorname{Div}(T)^G/\operatorname{Div}(A)$ is a cyclic group of order n generated by \mathfrak{q} .
 - (e) $Cl(T)^G = \langle 0 \rangle$ (Hint: Exercise 12.5.36).
 - (f) In the exact sequence of Theorem 16.5.14 for the extension $A \to T$, the homomorphism $\gamma_1 : \mathrm{H}^1(G, T^*) \to \mathrm{Div}(T)^G/\mathrm{Div}(A)$ is an isomorphism between cyclic groups of order n.

EXERCISE 16.5.18. Let $n \ge 2$ be an integer and k a field in which 2n is invertible. Also assume k contains a primitive 2nth root of unity, ζ . For $T = k[x, y, z]/(z^n - x^{n-1} + y^n)$, prove the following.

- (1) T is an integrally closed integral domain.
- (2) Let

$$T[x^{-1}] \xrightarrow{\alpha} k[u,v][(u^n+v^n)^{-1}]$$

be the function defined by $x \mapsto (u^n + v^n)^{-1}$, $y \mapsto u(u^n + v^n)^{-1}$, $z \mapsto v(u^n + v^n)^{-1}$. Then α is an isomorphism of k-algebras.

- (3) For i = 1, ..., n, let $\ell = z + \zeta^{2i-1}y$. Then the ideal $P_i = (x, \ell_i)$ is a height one prime ideal of T.
- (4) In Div(T) we have $Div x = P_1 + \cdots + P_n$, and $Div \ell_i = (n-1)P_i$.
- (5) Cl(T) is isomorphic to the free $\mathbb{Z}/(n-1)$ module of rank n-1, and is generated by P_1, \ldots, P_{n-1} .
- (6) Let σ be the k[x, y]-algebra automorphism of T defined by $z \mapsto \zeta^2 z$ (see Exercise 3.6.34). Let $G = \langle \sigma \rangle$ and A = k[x, y].
 - (a) G is a cyclic group of order n which acts on Cl(T) by $\sigma P_1 = -P_1 P_2 \cdots P_{n-1}$, $\sigma P_2 = P_1, \ldots, \sigma P_{n-1} = P_{n-2}$.
 - (b) $\mathfrak{p} = \langle x^{n-1} y^n \rangle$ is a height one prime in A and $\mathfrak{q} = \langle z, x^{n-1} y^n \rangle$ is a height one prime in T.

- (c) For the extension $A \to T$, the ramification index of \mathfrak{q} over \mathfrak{p} is n.
- (d) $\operatorname{Div}(T)^G/\operatorname{Div}(A)$ is a cyclic group of order n generated by \mathfrak{q} . (e) $\operatorname{Cl}(T)^G = \langle 0 \rangle$ (Hint: Exercise 12.5.36).
- (f) In the exact sequence of Theorem 16.5.14 for the extension $A \to T$, the homomorphism $\gamma_1: H^1(G, T^*) \to Div(T)^G/Div(A)$ is an isomorphism between cyclic groups of order n.

6. Reflexive Lattices over Regular Domains

In this section R denotes a noetherian regular integral domain with field of fractions K.

6.1. A Theorem of Auslander and Goldman. The goal of this section is to prove that if a reflexive R-lattice M has a projective ring of endomorphisms, then M is projective (Theorem 16.6.8). The proof given here is essentially the original proof by Auslander and Goldman in [8].

Theorem 16.6.1. Let R be a noetherian regular integral domain and assume the Krull dimension of R is less than or equal to two. Let M be a finitely generated R-lattice. Then M is reflexive if and only if M is projective.

Proof. By Exercise 6.5.21, if M is projective, then M is reflexive. Assume M is a reflexive R-lattice. By Proposition 7.7.2, it suffices to show this when Ris a regular local ring. If $\dim(R) = 0$, then R is a field and every R-module is projective. If $\dim(R) = 1$, then R is a DVR (Theorem 15.2.10), and M is free by Proposition 16.1.4. Assume $\dim(R) = 2$. By Proposition 16.1.6, $M^* = R : M$ is an R-lattice. Let

$$0 \to K_0 \xrightarrow{d_1} F_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} M^* \to 0$$

be an exact sequence, where F_0 is a finitely generated free R-module. Apply the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_R(\cdot, R)$ to get the exact sequence

$$0 \to M^{**} \xrightarrow{\epsilon^*} F_0^* \xrightarrow{d_1^*} K_0^*.$$

By hypothesis, $M = M^{**}$. Since K_0 is an R-submodule of F_0 , K_0 is an R-lattice. By Proposition 16.1.6, K_0^* is an R-lattice and we can embed K_0^* in a free R-lattice F_1 . If we define N to be the cokernel of $F_0^* \to F_1$, then the sequence

$$(6.1) 0 \to M \xrightarrow{\epsilon^*} F_0^* \xrightarrow{d_1^*} F_1 \to N \to 0$$

is exact. Since F_0 is free, so is F_0^* (Proposition 4.4.20). By Theorem 15.3.31, $\operatorname{coh.dim}(R) = \operatorname{dim}(R) = 2$. By Theorem 12.4.5, M is projective because it is the first syzygy of (6.1).

Proposition 16.6.2. Let R be a noetherian integrally closed local integral domain with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . If M is a finitely generated R-module such that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ is reflexive and $\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,M)=0$, then $M=M^{**}$.

PROOF. By Exercise 13.2.24, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M) = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M)^{**}$ is torsion free. By Exercise 13.2.22, M is torsion free. In particular, M is an R-lattice. If ν is the natural map and C denotes the cokernel of ν , then

$$(6.2) 0 \to M \xrightarrow{\nu} M^{**} \to C \to 0$$

is an exact sequence. If $\dim(R) \leq 1$, then M is a finitely generated free R-module, hence is reflexive (Exercise 6.5.21). Inductively, assume $d = \dim(R) > 1$ and that the proposition is true for all noetherian integrally closed local integral domains of Krull dimension less than d. For any $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, if $\operatorname{ht}(\mathfrak{p}) < d$, then by the induction hypothesis, $C_{\mathfrak{p}} = 0$. Therefore, $\operatorname{Supp}_R(C) \subseteq \{\mathfrak{m}\}$ and by Exercise 13.2.23, to show C = 0, it suffices to show $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,C) = 0$. The long exact sequence of Ext modules associated to (6.2) is (6.3)

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M) \xrightarrow{\nu^*} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M^{**}) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,C) \xrightarrow{\delta^0} \operatorname{Ext}_R^1(M,M) \to \dots$$

(Proposition 12.3.12). Since $\operatorname{Ext}_R^1(M,M)=0$ by assumption, it suffices to show ν^* is an isomorphism. The reader should verify that the diagram

(6.4)
$$\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, M) \xrightarrow{\nu^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, M^{**})$$

$$= \bigvee_{\downarrow} \qquad \qquad \uparrow \beta^{*}$$

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, M)^{**} \xrightarrow{\alpha^{*}} (M^{*} \otimes_{R} M)^{*}$$

commutes where α^* and β^* are the isomorphisms of Proposition 16.1.16.

LEMMA 16.6.3. Let R be a noetherian commutative local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} . Let M and N be finitely generated R-modules such that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is nonzero.

- (1) If $depth(N) \ge 1$, then $depth(Hom_R(M, N)) \ge 1$.
- (2) If $depth(N) \geq 2$, then $depth(Hom_R(M, N)) \geq 2$.

PROOF. (1): Let x be a regular element for N in \mathfrak{m} . Applying the left exact covariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,\cdot)$ to the short exact sequence

$$0 \to N \xrightarrow{\ell_x} N \to N/xN \to 0$$

yields the exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}(\ell_x)} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N/xN).$$

The module $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is finitely generated (Exercise 7.6.25). By Nakayama's Lemma (Corollary 6.3.5), the cokernel of $\operatorname{H}(\ell_x)$ is a nonzero submodule of $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N/xN)$. This shows x is a regular element for $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$.

(2): Let y be a regular element for N/xN in \mathfrak{m} . It follows from (1) that y is a regular element for $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N/xN)$ and (x,y) is a regular sequence for $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ in \mathfrak{m} .

Lemma 16.6.4. Let R be a regular local ring of dimension greater than or equal to three. Let M and N be nonzero finitely generated R-modules satisfying

- (1) $\operatorname{depth}(N) \geq 2$,
- (2) $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ is R-projective, and
- (3) $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M, N) \neq 0$.

Then depth($\operatorname{Ext}_R^1(M,N)$) > 0.

PROOF. Let $n = \dim(R)$, \mathfrak{m} the maximal ideal, and $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$ the residue field. Let $x \in \mathfrak{m}$ a regular element for N. The long exact Ext sequence associated to

$$0 \to N \xrightarrow{\ell_x} N \to N/xN \to 0$$

is

$$(6.5) \quad 0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M,N) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}(\ell_{x})} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M,N/xN) \to \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M,N) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}^{1}(\ell_{x})} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M,N) \to \dots$$

(Proposition 12.3.12). Write E for $\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,N)$ and assume for contradiction's sake that the depth of E is equal to zero. Since R is noetherian, and M and N are finitely generated, we know that E is finitely generated (Lemma 12.3.13 (2)). Let $\Psi = \{\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(E) \mid x \notin \mathfrak{p}\}$. Let K denote the kernel of the localization map $\theta: E \to R[x^{-1}] \otimes_R E$. By Proposition 13.2.6, K is the unique submodule of E such that $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(K) = \operatorname{Assoc}_R(E) - \Psi$ and $\operatorname{Assoc}_R(E/K) = \Psi$. By Exercise 15.3.15, \mathfrak{m} is an associated prime of E. Since $x \in \mathfrak{m}$, $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(K)$. Since K is a finitely generated R-module, the reader should verify that for some j > 0, the kernel of the left multiplication map $\ell_{x^j}: E \to E$ is equal to K. Since $R[x^{-1}] = R[x^{-j}]$, if necessary we replace x with x^j and assume K is equal to the kernel of $\operatorname{H}^1(\ell_{x^j})$ in (6.5). Since $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Assoc}_R(K)$, by Exercise 15.3.15, depth(K) = 0. Write H for $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ and Q for $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N/xN)$. The short exact sequence

$$(6.6) 0 \to H/xH \to Q \to C \to 0$$

of R-modules gives rise to the long exact sequence of the modules $\operatorname{Tor}_{i}^{R}(\cdot,k)$

(6.7)
$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}(Q,k) \to \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}(K,k) \to \operatorname{Tor}_n(H/xH,k)$$

 $\to \operatorname{Tor}_n(Q,k) \to \operatorname{Tor}_n(K,k) \to \operatorname{Tor}_{n-1}(H/xH,k) \to \dots$

(Lemma 12.3.2). Because H is projective and the sequence $H \to H \to H/xH \to 0$ is exact, proj. $\dim(H/xH) \le 1$. By Proposition 12.4.10, we have $\operatorname{Tor}_i(H/xH,k) = 0$ for $i \ge 2$. Because $n-1 \ge 2$, the sequence (6.7) produces two isomorphisms

(6.8)
$$\operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}(Q,k) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}(K,k)$$
$$\operatorname{Tor}_{n}(Q,k) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{n}(K,k)$$

Since R is a regular local ring with dimension n, by Proposition 15.3.39, proj. $\dim(K) = \dim(R) - \operatorname{depth}(K) = n$. By Proposition 12.4.10, we have $\operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}(K,k) = 0$ and $\operatorname{Tor}_n(K,k)$ is nonzero. By Eq. (6.8) and Proposition 12.4.10, proj. $\dim(Q) = n$. By Proposition 15.3.39, $\operatorname{depth}(Q) = \operatorname{depth}(\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N/xN) = 0$. This is a contradiction to Lemma 16.6.3 (2).

LEMMA 16.6.5. Let R be a regular local ring. If M is a finitely generated reflexive R-module such that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ is free, then $\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,M)=0$.

PROOF. The proof is by induction on $n=\dim(R)$. If $\dim(R)\leq 2$, then M is projective, by Theorem 16.6.1, and $\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,M)=0$, by Proposition 12.3.12. Assume $n\geq 3$ and that the proposition is true for all rings of dimension less than n. Let $\mathfrak m$ be the maximal ideal in R. Let $\mathfrak p$ be a prime ideal in $\operatorname{Spec} R-\{\mathfrak m\}$. By Corollary 15.3.38, $R_{\mathfrak p}$ is a regular local ring and $\dim(R_{\mathfrak p})=\operatorname{ht}(\mathfrak p)< n$. Applying Proposition 7.5.8, the reader should verify that $R_{\mathfrak p}$ together with the module $M_{\mathfrak p}=M\otimes_R R_{\mathfrak p}$ satisfy the hypotheses of the proposition. By Lemma 12.3.13 (3) and the induction hypothesis, $\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,M)_{\mathfrak p}=\operatorname{Ext}^1_{R_{\mathfrak p}}(M_{\mathfrak p},M_{\mathfrak p})=0$. This proves $\operatorname{Supp}(\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,M))\subseteq\{\mathfrak m\}$. For contradiction's sake, assume $\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,M)\neq 0$. By Theorem 13.2.7, $\mathfrak m$ is the only associated prime of $\operatorname{Ext}^1(M,M)$. By Exercise 15.3.15, this implies $\operatorname{depth}(\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,M))=0$, which contradicts Lemma 16.6.4. \square

LEMMA 16.6.6. Let R be a noetherian commutative local ring. Let M and N be finitely generated R-modules such that $\operatorname{proj.dim}(M) = n$ is finite. Then $\operatorname{Ext}_R^n(M,N) \neq 0$.

PROOF. By Theorem 12.4.5 and Exercise 12.4.21, there exists a resolution

$$0 \to F_n \xrightarrow{d_n} \cdots \xrightarrow{d_3} F_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} F_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} F_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} M \to 0$$

such that for all $i \geq 0$, F_i is a finitely generated free R-module and im $d_{i+1} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}F_i$. By Theorem 12.2.19, there is an exact sequence

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(F_{n-1}, N) \xrightarrow{H(d_n)} \operatorname{Hom}_R(F_n, N) \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^n(M, N) \to 0.$$

If we write $\operatorname{Rank}_R(F_i) = r_i$, then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(F_i, N) \cong N^{r_i}$. Since the image of d_n is contained in $\mathfrak{m}F_{n-1}$, the image of $H(d_n): N^{r_{n-1}} \to N^{r_n}$ is contained in $\mathfrak{m}N^{r_n}$. By Nakayama's Lemma (Corollary 6.3.2), $H(d_n)$ is not onto.

Proposition 16.6.7. Let R be a regular local ring. Let M be a nonzero finitely generated R-module. Then the following are true.

- (1) If $\dim(R) \leq 2$, then $M^* = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,R)$ is a finitely generated free Rmodule.
- (2) If $\dim(R) \leq 2$, and $M = M^{**}$, then M is free.
- (3) If $M = M^{**}$ and $\text{Hom}_R(M, M)$ is free, then M is free.

PROOF. (1) and (2): Follow directly from Proposition 15.3.39 and Lemma 16.6.3 (or Example 16.1.3 (2), Exercise 16.1.19 and Theorem 16.6.1).

(3): The proof is by induction on $n=\dim(R)$. Part (2) covers the cases $n\leq 2$. We now prove the n=3 case. By Proposition 15.3.39, $\operatorname{depth}(R)=\dim(R)=3$. Lemma 16.6.3 applied to $M=M^{**}$ gives $\operatorname{depth}(M)\geq 2$. By Proposition 15.3.39, $\operatorname{proj.dim}_R(M)\leq 1$. By Lemma 16.6.5, $\operatorname{Ext}_R^1(M,M)=0$. Lemma 16.6.6 implies $\operatorname{proj.dim}_R(M)\neq 1$, so we conclude that $\operatorname{proj.dim}_R(M)=0$, which proves that M is free.

Inductively, assume $n \geq 4$ and that (3) is true for any ring of dimension less than n. Let \mathfrak{m} be the maximal ideal of R. Let a_1,\ldots,a_n be a regular system of parameters for R, and take a to be a_1 . Since $M=M^{**}$ is torsion free, $\mathrm{Assoc}_R(M)=(0)$ and a is a regular element for M in \mathfrak{m} . By Theorem 15.3.31, $\bar{R}=R/aR$ is a regular local ring with Krull dimension $\dim(\bar{R})=n-1$. Let $\bar{M}=M/aM$. The short exact sequence $0\to M\xrightarrow{\ell_a} M\to \bar{M}\to 0$ gives rise to the long exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{H}(\ell_a)} \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,\bar{M}) \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,M)$$

(Proposition 12.3.12). By Lemma 16.6.5, $\operatorname{Ext}_R^1(M,M)=0$, so we have the isomorphism of \bar{R} -modules $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)\otimes_R \bar{R}\cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,\bar{M})$. Since $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ is a free R-module, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,\bar{M})$ is a free \bar{R} -module. By Theorem 6.5.10 (the Adjoint Isomorphism),

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\bar{R}}(\bar{M}, \bar{M}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, \bar{M})$$

hence both modules are \bar{R} -free. By Exercise 13.2.22, \bar{M} is torsion free. By Proposition 16.1.16,

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\bar{R}}(\bar{M},\bar{M}) = \operatorname{Hom}_{\bar{R}}(\bar{M},\bar{M})^{**} \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{\bar{R}}(\bar{M}^*,\bar{M}^*)$$

is \bar{R} -free. By Lemma 16.1.9, \bar{M}^* is reflexive. By our induction hypothesis applied to \bar{R} and \bar{M}^* , we conclude that \bar{M}^* is \bar{R} -free.

Now depth(\bar{R}) = dim(\bar{R}) = $n-1 \ge 3$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{\bar{R}}(\bar{M}, \bar{R}) = \bar{M}^*$ is \bar{R} -free. If follows from Lemma 16.6.4, that the statement:

(6.9) If
$$\operatorname{Ext}_{\bar{R}}^{i}(\bar{M}, \bar{R}) \neq 0$$
, then $\operatorname{depth}(\operatorname{Ext}_{\bar{R}}^{i}(\bar{M}, \bar{R})) > 0$.

is true. The Adjoint Isomorphism (Lemma 12.3.14) induces isomorphisms

(6.10)
$$\operatorname{Ext}_{\bar{R}}^{i}(\bar{M}, \bar{R}) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{i}(M, \bar{R})$$

for all $i \geq 0$. Therefore, the statement:

(6.11) If
$$\operatorname{Ext}_R^i(M, \bar{R}) \neq 0$$
, then $\operatorname{depth}(\operatorname{Ext}_R^i(M, \bar{R})) > 0$.

is equivalent to (6.9). The short exact sequence

$$(6.12) 0 \to R \xrightarrow{\ell_a} R \to \bar{R} \to 0$$

gives rise to the long exact sequence

$$0 \to M^* \xrightarrow{\ell_a^*} M^* \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, \bar{R}) \xrightarrow{\partial} \operatorname{Ext}_R^1(M, R) \xrightarrow{\ell_a^*} \operatorname{Ext}_R^1(M, R) \to \operatorname{Ext}_R^1(M, \bar{R})$$

(Proposition 12.3.12). Let $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R - \{\mathfrak{m}\}$. By Lemma 12.3.13,

(6.13)
$$\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M, R)_{\mathfrak{p}} \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}}^{1}(M_{\mathfrak{p}}, R_{\mathfrak{p}}).$$

Our induction hypothesis applied to $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ and $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ implies that $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a free $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -module. By Proposition 12.3.12, both groups in (6.13) are trivial. This proves that $\operatorname{Supp}(\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,R)) \subseteq \{\mathfrak{m}\}$. For contradiction's sake assume that $\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,R)) \neq (0)$. Since $a \in \mathfrak{m}$, the image of

$$\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,R) \xrightarrow{\ell_a^*} \operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,R)$$

is contained in $\mathfrak{m}\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,R)$. By Lemma 12.3.13 the module $\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,R)$ is finitely generated. By Nakayama's Lemma, $\operatorname{coker}(\ell_a^*)$ is a nontrivial submodule of $\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M,\bar{R})$. Since

$$\operatorname{Supp}(\operatorname{coker}(\ell_a^*)) \subseteq \operatorname{Supp}(\operatorname{Ext}_R^1(M,R)) \subseteq \{\mathfrak{m}\}\$$

it follows from Theorem 13.2.7 that \mathfrak{m} is the only associated prime of $\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M, \bar{R})$. By Exercise 15.3.15, this implies $\operatorname{depth}(\operatorname{Ext}^1_R(M, \bar{R})) = 0$, which is a contradiction to the statement in (6.11). This shows that $\operatorname{Ext}^1(M, R) = 0$, so the sequence

$$0 \to M^* \xrightarrow{\ell_a^*} M^* \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, \bar{R}) \to 0$$

is exact. As mentioned in (6.10), $\operatorname{Hom}_{\bar{R}}(\bar{M},\bar{R})\cong \operatorname{Hom}_{\bar{R}}(M,\bar{R})$. Since \bar{M}^* is \bar{R} -free, this proves M^*/aM^* , which is isomorphic to $\operatorname{Hom}_{\bar{R}}(M,\bar{R})$, is also \bar{R} -free. We know that $\operatorname{proj.dim}_{\bar{R}}(\bar{R})=1$ (for instance, by the exact sequence (6.12)), hence $\operatorname{proj.dim}_{\bar{R}}(M^*/aM^*)=1$. By Proposition 12.4.10, $\operatorname{proj.dim}_{\bar{R}}(M^*)=0$, hence M^* is \bar{R} -free. Therefore, $\bar{M}=M^{**}$ is \bar{R} -free. \Box

Theorem 16.6.8. Let R be a noetherian regular integral domain with field of fractions K. Let V be a finite dimensional K-vector space and M an R-lattice in V. If M is R-reflexive and $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$ is R-projective, then M is R-projective.

PROOF. Let $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$. Then $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a regular local ring (Corollary 15.3.38). By Proposition 7.5.8 we see that $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -reflexive and $\operatorname{Hom}_{R_{\mathfrak{p}}}(M_{\mathfrak{p}}, M_{\mathfrak{p}})$ is $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -free. By Proposition 16.6.7, $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ -free.

6.2. The Class Group of a Regular Domain.

Theorem 16.6.9. Let R be a noetherian regular integral domain with field of fractions K. Then the following are true.

- (1) $\operatorname{Pic}(R) = \operatorname{Cl}(R)$.
- (2) If R is a local ring, then Cl(R) = (0) and R is a unique factorization domain.
- (3) If R is a semilocal ring, then Cl(R) = (0) and R is a unique factorization domain.

PROOF. (1): Let F be a reflexive fractional ideal of R in K. It follows from Exercise 16.4.13 that F: F = R is free of rank one. By Theorem 16.6.8, F is projective. The equality Pic(R) = Cl(R) follows from Exercise 16.4.16.

(2) and (3): For any local ring the Picard group is trivial since a finitely generated projective module is free, by Proposition 7.4.2. The same is true for finitely generated projective modules of constant rank over a semilocal ring, by Exercise 8.1.12. By (1), the class group, Cl(R), is trivial. By Corollary 15.4.15, R is a UFD.

Example 16.6.10. In this example we show how to construct a regular integral domain R such that $\operatorname{Pic}(R)$ is a finite cyclic group of order n. The example comes from Algebraic Geometry and is based on the fact that if k is a field, then the class group of the projective plane \mathbb{P}^2_k is an infinite cyclic group and is generated by a line. For simplicity's sake we construct our example using the projective plane. However, the same ideas apply in higher dimensions. Start with any field k and any integer n > 1. Let

$$S = k[x, y, z] = S_0 \oplus S_1 \oplus S_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus S_n \oplus \cdots$$

be the polynomial ring in three variables, with the usual grading (Example 11.2.1). Let $f \in S_n$ be a homogeneous irreducible polynomial of degree n. The localized ring $S[f^{-1}]$ has a \mathbb{Z} -grading: $S[f^{-1}] = \bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} S[f^{-1}]_i$. If $p \in S_m$ is homogeneous of degree m, then pf^{-d} is a typical homogeneous element of degree $m - dn \in S[f^{-1}]_i$. Let $R = S[f^{-1}]_0$ be the subring of homogeneous elements in $S[f^{-1}]$ of degree 0. We will show the following.

- (1) R is a finitely generated k-algebra, a regular noetherian integral domain, and the Krull dimension of R is $\dim(R) = 2$.
- (2) $\operatorname{Pic}(R) = \operatorname{Cl}(R) \cong \mathbb{Z}/n$.
- (3) $R^* = k^*$.

A typical element of R is a fraction pf^{-d} where $p \in S_{dn}$. Since R is a subring of the field k(x,y,z), R is an integral domain. Since f is irreducible and has degree $n \geq 2$, f(0,y,z) is a homogeneous polynomial in k[y,z] of degree n. Therefore, the homomorphism $k[x,y,z] \rightarrow k[y,z]$ defined by $x \mapsto 0$ induces

$$R = S[f^{-1}]_0 \xrightarrow{\theta} k[y, z][(f(0, y, z))^{-1}]_0.$$

Notice that θ is onto, and since the image is an integral domain, $\mathfrak{p} = \ker(\theta)$ is a prime ideal in R. Consider the local ring $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$. We will now show that $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a DVR and x/y is a local parameter. If h+i+j=dn, then the monomial $x^hy^iz^jf^{-d}$ is in the kernel of θ if and only if $h \geq 1$. Then

$$\frac{x^h y^i z^j}{f^d} \frac{f^d}{y^{h+i} z^j} = \frac{x^h}{y^h}$$

shows $\mathfrak{p}R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is generated by x/y. This also proves that $\operatorname{ht}(\mathfrak{p})=1$. Notice that in $S[f^{-1}]$, which is a UFD, the element x^nf^{-1} belongs to the unique minimal prime ideal $(x)=(xf^{-1})$. Viewing R as a subring of $S[f^{-1}]$, we see that x^nf^{-1} is irreducible in R, and \mathfrak{p} is the unique minimal prime of R containing x^nf^{-1} . Using (6.14) we compute

(6.15)
$$\nu_{\mathfrak{p}}(x^n f^{-1}) = n.$$

Consider the localized ring $R[fx^{-n}]$. Given $p \in S_{dn}$ we multiply and divide by $(x^n f^{-1})^d$ to get

$$pf^{-d} = (px^{-dn}f^d)(fx^{-n})^{-d}f^{-d}$$
$$= p(1, y/x, z/x) (f(1, y/x, z/x))^{-d}.$$

Therefore, the assignments $x\mapsto 1,\ y\mapsto u,\ z\mapsto v$ induce an isomorphism of k-algebras

(6.16)
$$R[fx^{-n}] \to k[u,v][(f(1,u,v))^{-1}].$$

The homomorphism in (6.16) is usually specified by saying "dehomogenize with respect to x". Notice that the ring on the right hand side of (6.16) is a finitely generated k-algebra, a regular integral domain, and has Krull dimension two. By the same argument used in (6.16), but dehomogenizing with respect to y and z, the reader should verify that $R[fy^{-n}]$ and $R[fz^{-n}]$ are finitely generated regular integral k-algebras of Krull dimension two. For some N>0, f^N is a sum of monomials of the form $x^hy^iz^j$ where at least one of h,i,j is greater than n. Therefore, $1=f^Nf^{-N}$ is in the ideal of R generated by $x^nf^{-1},y^nf^{-1},z^nf^{-1}$. This shows that $R[fx^{-n}] \oplus R[fy^{-n}] \oplus R[fz^{-n}]$ is a faithfully flat extension of R (Exercise 7.5.28) By Proposition 7.5.36, R is finitely generated as a k-algebra. For each prime ideal $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$, the local ring R_P is regular and has dimension two. This proves (1). Since $f(x,y,z)x^{-n}=f(1,yx^{-1},zx^{-1})$, we see that f(1,u,v) is irreducible because f(x,y,z) is irreducible. Applying Nagata's Theorem (Theorem 15.4.16) to the ring R, the sequence

$$(6.17) 1 \to R^* \to (R[fx^{-n}])^* \xrightarrow{\text{Div}} \mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{p} \to \text{Cl}(R) \to \text{Cl}(R[fx^{-n}]) \to 0$$

is exact. By the isomorphism in (6.16), we see that $R[fx^{-n}]$ is a UFD. Hence $Cl(R[fx^{-n}])$ is equal to (0) by Corollary 15.4.15. Using (6.16) and the fact that k[u,v] is a UFD, we see that

$$(R[fx^{-n}])^* = k^* \times \langle x^n f^{-1} \rangle$$

is an internal direct sum. This and (6.15) shows that the image of Div in (6.17) is $n\mathbb{Z}\mathfrak{p}$. Therefore, $\mathrm{Cl}(R)$ is generated by \mathfrak{p} and has order n. Part (2) follows from Theorem 16.6.9, and the reader is asked to prove Part (3) in Exercise 16.6.11.

6.3. Exercise.

EXERCISE 16.6.11. If R is the ring of Example 16.6.10, prove the following.

- (1) $R^* = k^*$.
- (2) \mathfrak{p}^n is equal to the principal ideal generated by $x^n f^{-1}$.

7. The Class Group of a Graded Ring

Most of the results in this section were originally published in [53]. For additional results on this subject, the interested reader is referred to [53], [22, § 10], and [45, § B.II.1]. Throughout this section all rings are commutative. The reader is referred to Section 11.2 for the definitions of graded rings and modules. Let $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ be a graded integral domain and $W = R^h - \{0\}$ the set of nonzero homogeneous elements. The localization $W^{-1}R$ is viewed as a subring of the quotient field K of R. An element aw^{-1} in $W^{-1}R$ is said to be homogeneous if $a \in R^h$ and $w \in W$. The degree of a homogeneous element aw^{-1} is defined to be deg $a - \deg w$. The reader should verify:

- (1) The degree function is well defined on homogeneous elements.
- (2) The sum of two homogeneous elements of the same degree d is homogeneous of degree d.
- (3) The product of a homogeneous element of degree d with a homogeneous element of degree e is homogeneous of degree d + e.
- (4) Every element of $W^{-1}R$ can be written uniquely as a finite sum of homogeneous elements of different degrees.

LEMMA 16.7.1. Let $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ be a graded integral domain and $W = R^h - \{0\}$. Then the following are true.

- (1) $W^{-1}R$ is a \mathbb{Z} -graded ring, a graded R-module and contains R as a graded subring. If $K_0 = (W^{-1}R)_0$ is the subring consisting of all homogeneous elements of degree zero, then K_0 is a field.
- (2) If $R \neq R_0$, then $W^{-1}R$ is isomorphic to the Laurent polynomial ring $K_0[t, t^{-1}]$.

PROOF. (1): Is left to the reader.

(2): Since $R \neq R_0$, K_0 is not equal to $W^{-1}R$. Therefore, the set

$$\{\deg a - \deg w \mid a \in R^h, w \in W\}$$

contains nonzero integers. Let $t = aw^{-1} \in W^{-1}R$, be a homogeneous element of minimal positive degree. That is, $\deg a > \deg w$ and $d = \deg a - \deg w$ is minimal. The proof is a series of three steps.

Step 1: Show that $t = aw^{-1}$ is transcendental over K_0 . Suppose we have an integral relation

(7.1)
$$\alpha_0 t^r + \alpha_1 t^{r-1} + \dots + \alpha_{r-1} t + \alpha_r = 0$$

where each $\alpha_i \in K_0$. Write $\alpha_i = a_i w_i^{-1}$, where $\deg a_i = \deg w_i$. Let $y = w_0 w_1 \cdots w_r$ and set $y_i = y w_i^{-1}$. Then $\alpha_i = a_i y_i y^{-1}$. If we set $b_i = a_i y_i$, then $\deg b_i = \deg y$ for each i. Upon multiplying both sides of (7.1) by $y w^r$, we get

$$(7.2) b_0 a^r + b_1 w a^{r-1} + \dots + b_{r-1} w^{r-1} a + b_r w^r = 0$$

which is a relation in R. The left hand side of (7.2) is a sum of homogeneous elements. Since $\deg a^r > \deg wa^{r-1} > \cdots > \deg w^{r-1}a > \deg w^r$, no two terms in (7.2) have the same degree. Therefore, $b_i = 0$ for all i. This implies $\alpha_i = 0$ for all i.

Step 2: Since t is transcendental over K_0 , we have $K_0[t] \subseteq W^{-1}R$. In the quotient field of R we have the chain of subrings: $K_0 \subseteq K_0[t] \subseteq K_0[t, t^{-1}] \subseteq K_0(t)$. Since deg a > 0, it follows that $a \in W$. Hence $t^{-1} = wa^{-1} \in W^{-1}R$. Therefore, we have $K_0[t, t^{-1}] \subseteq W^{-1}R$.

Step 3: Show that $W^{-1}R = K_0[t, t^{-1}]$. Suppose $x \in R^h$, $y \in W$, and $\deg x - \deg y = m$. By the division algorithm, there exist integers q, r, such that m = qd + r and $0 \le r < d$. Then

$$(\deg x - \deg y) - q(\deg a - \deg w) = m - qd = r.$$

Since t was chosen so that d is minimal, this implies the homogeneous element $xy^{-1}t^{-q}$ is of degree zero. That is, $z = xy^{-1}t^{-q} \in K_0$, which implies $xy^{-1} = t^qz \in K_0[t,t^{-1}]$. Since every element of $W^{-1}R$ is a sum of homogeneous terms of the form xy^{-1} , this shows $W^{-1}R \subseteq K_0[t,t^{-1}]$.

PROPOSITION 16.7.2. If $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ is a graded noetherian integrally closed integral domain, then the natural map $\operatorname{Div}_h(R) \to \operatorname{Cl}(R)$ is onto, where $\operatorname{Div}_h(R)$ is the subgroup of $\operatorname{Div}(R)$ generated by those prime ideals in $X_1(R)$ which are homogeneous.

PROOF. Let $W = R^h - \{0\}$. By Lemma 16.7.1, $W^{-1}R = K_0[t, t^{-1}]$. Since $K_0[t]$ is factorial, so is the localization $W^{-1}R = K_0[t, t^{-1}]$. By Exercise 15.4.21, $\operatorname{Cl}(R)$ is generated by the classes of those prime divisors $\mathfrak{p} \in X_1(R) - X_1(W^{-1}R)$. Let \mathfrak{p} be a prime ideal in R of height one and assume $\mathfrak{p} \cap W \neq \emptyset$. Then \mathfrak{p} is homogeneous, by Lemma 13.5.2 (4).

LEMMA 16.7.3. Let $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ be a graded noetherian integral domain with field of fractions K. Let F be a fractional ideal of R in K which is a graded R-submodule of $W^{-1}R$. Then the following are true.

- (1) There is a nonzero homogeneous $r \in \mathbb{R}^h$ such that $rF \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.
- (2) $F^{-1} = R : F$ is a fractional ideal of R in K and a graded R-submodule of $W^{-1}R$.

PROOF. (1): By Lemma 16.2.1, there exists $c \in R - (0)$ such that $cF \subseteq R$. Write $c = c_0 + c_1 + \cdots + c_d$ as a sum of homogeneous elements, and assume $c_d \neq 0$. Let $y \in F^h - (0)$ be a nonzero homogeneous element of F. By Lemma 16.7.1, R is a graded subring of $W^{-1}R$. Since $cy = (c_0 + c_1 + \cdots + c_d)y$ is in R, it follows that $c_d y \in R$. If we set $r = c_d$, then $rF \subseteq R$.

 $c_dy \in R$. If we set $r = c_d$, then $rF \subseteq R$.

(2): By Proposition 16.1.6, F^{-1} is a fractional ideal of R in K. By (1), there is $r \in R^h - \{0\}$ such that $rF \subseteq F \cap R$. Then there exists $s \in F \cap R^h$, $s \neq 0$. If $t \in F^{-1}$, then ts = x is an element of R. Since $s \in W$, we see that $t = xs^{-1}$ is in $W^{-1}R$. This shows F^{-1} is an R-submodule of $W^{-1}R$. Write $t = t_1 + t_2 + \cdots + t_d$ as a sum of homogeneous elements in $W^{-1}R$, where $\deg t_i = d_i$. Then for each homogeneous element $y \in F^h$, we have $ty = t_1y + t_2y + \cdots + t_dy$ is in R. By Lemma 16.7.1, R is a graded subring of $W^{-1}R$. Therefore, $t_iy \in R$, for each i. Since y was arbitrary, this implies $t_i \in F^{-1}$, for each i. Therefore, F^{-1} is a graded R-submodule of $W^{-1}R$.

COROLLARY 16.7.4. Let $R = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} R_n$ be a graded noetherian integrally closed integral domain. If R_0 is a field and hence, the exceptional ideal $\mathfrak{m} = R_+ = \bigoplus_{n=1}^{\infty} R_n$ is maximal, then the natural homomorphism $\mathrm{Cl}(R) \to \mathrm{Cl}(R_{\mathfrak{m}})$ is an isomorphism.

PROOF. The natural map $\gamma: \operatorname{Cl}(R) \to \operatorname{Cl}(R_{\mathfrak{m}})$ is onto, by Exercise 15.4.21. Let K be the field of fractions of R and I a reflexive fractional ideal of R in K. To show that γ is one-to-one, we prove that if $I_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is principal, then I is principal. By Proposition 16.7.2, we can assume I is in the subgroup of $\operatorname{Reflex}(R)$ generated

by the homogeneous prime ideals of R in $X_1(R)$. The reader should verify that the product of two fractional ideals of R which are graded R-submodules of $W^{-1}R$ is again a graded R-submodule of $W^{-1}R$. Using this, and Lemma 16.7.3(2), we see that if I is in the subgroup of Reflex(R) generated by the homogeneous prime divisors, then I is a graded R-submodule of $W^{-1}R$. By

Now let I be a reflexive fractional ideal of R which is a graded R-submodule of $W^{-1}R$ and assume $I_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is principal. We show that I is principal. By Lemma 16.7.3 (1), we can assume $I\subseteq R$. If ξ_1,\ldots,ξ_s is a set of homogeneous elements of I which generate I as an R-module, then the vector space $I_{\mathfrak{m}}\otimes R/\mathfrak{m}$ has dimension one and is generated by the image of one of the elements ξ_i . By Proposition 7.4.2, $I_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is generated by the image of the same element ξ_i . Let $\xi\in I$ be a homogeneous element such that $I_{\mathfrak{m}}=\xi R_{\mathfrak{m}}$. Let x be any nonzero homogeneous element of I. Then $x=\xi(yz^{-1})$ for some $y\in R-\{0\}, z\in R-\mathfrak{m}$. Write $y=y_q+y_{q+1}+\cdots+y_{q+d}$ and $z=z_0+z_1+\cdots+z_e$ as sums of homogeneous elements. Since $y\neq 0$, assume $y_q\neq 0$. Since $z\in R-R_+$, we know that $z_0\neq 0$. Then $xz=\xi y$ implies that the relation

$$xz_0 + xz_1 + \dots + xz_e = \xi y_q + \xi y_{q+1} + \dots + \xi y_{q+d}$$

holds in the graded module I. Therefore, $xz_0 = \xi y_q$. Since R_0 is a field, z_0 is invertible in R. Therefore, $x = \xi(y_q z_0^{-1})$ is an element of ξR . Since I is generated by homogeneous elements, this shows $I = \xi R$.

8. The Ring of Integers in a Global Field

In this section we prove two main results from classical Algebraic Number Theory. A field L is said to be a *global field*, if one of the following is true:

- (1) L is a finitely generated algebraic extension field of \mathbb{Q} and B is the integral closure of \mathbb{Z} in K. In this case we also say L is an algebraic number field and B is the ring of algebraic integers in L.
- (2) k[t] is the ring of polynomials in one variable over a finite field k, k(t) is the field of rational functions, L is a finitely generated separable extension field of k(t), and B is the integral closure of k[t] in L. In this case we also say L is the function field of an algebraic curve over the finite field k and B is called the ring of integers in L.

Notice that in (2) the ring of integers B depends not only on the field L but also on the choice of t.

Let L be a global field and B the ring of integers in L. By Corollary 10.1.8, L is the quotient field of B. In Section 8.1 we show that the class group of the ring B is finite. This is proved in Theorem 16.8.8. In Section 8.2 we assume B is the ring of integers in an algebraic number field. In this case, we show that B^* , the group of units in B, is a finitely generated abelian group. The torsion subgroup of B^* is a cyclic group.

This is half of the Dirichlet Units Theorem. The second half of Dirichlet's theorem, which we do not prove here, describes the rank of the torsion free part of B^* .

8.1. The Class Group of a Global Field is Finite. In this section we show that if R is the ring of integers in a global field, then R is a Dedekind domain (Proposition 16.8.3) and the class group of R is a finite abelian group (Theorem 16.8.8). The proof we give is based on [59] and [16, §20]. For the remainder of this section,

let A be either \mathbb{Z} or k[t], where k is a fixed finite field of order q. Let K be the quotient field of A, L a global field which is a finitely generated separable extension field of K, and B the ring of integers in L. The ring A is a UFD, hence is integrally closed in K (Proposition 10.1.5). Hence K is itself a global field with ring of integers A.

LEMMA 16.8.1. In the above context, let V be a finite dimensional K-vector space, and $M_1 \subseteq M_2$ a tower of A-lattices in V. Then the following are true.

- (1) Each M_i is a finitely generated free A-module and $Rank_A(M_i) = \dim_K(V)$.
- (2) The index $[M_2: M_1]$ is finite. The group M_2/M_1 is a finite abelian group.
- (3) There are only finitely many A-lattices M such that $M_1 \subseteq M \subseteq M_2$.

PROOF. (1): Since A is a PID, this follows from Proposition 16.1.4.

- (2): By Proposition 16.1.1 there exists an element $\alpha \in A (0)$ such that $\alpha M_2 \subseteq M_1 \subseteq M_2$. By (1), $M_2/\alpha M_2$ is isomorphic to the direct sum of $\dim_K(V)$ copies of the cyclic A-module $A/\alpha A$. If $A = \mathbb{Z}$, then the group $A/\alpha A$ is finite of order $|\alpha|$. If A = k[t], then by Exercise 4.2.26, $A/\alpha A$ is a k-vector space of dimension $\deg \alpha$. The group $A/\alpha A$ has order $q^{\deg \alpha}$. The rest follows from Theorem 2.2.11.
- (3): By Proposition 16.1.1, any A-module M such that $M_1 \subseteq M \subseteq M_2$ is an A-lattice in V. This follows from (2) and Theorem 4.1.19.

In the above context, if I is a nonzero ideal in A, then as seen in Lemma 16.8.1 (2), the index [A:I] is finite. Let $N_A:A\to\mathbb{N}\cup\{0\}$ be the function defined by

$$N_A(\alpha) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \alpha = 0\\ [A : \alpha A] & \text{if } \alpha \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Suppose $\alpha \neq 0$. The proof of Lemma 16.8.1 (2) shows that

$$N_A(\alpha) = \begin{cases} |\alpha| & \text{if } A = \mathbb{Z} \\ q^{\deg \alpha} & \text{if } A = k[t]. \end{cases}$$

LEMMA 16.8.2. In the above context, the function $N_A: A \to \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ satisfies:

- (1) If $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\Xi = \{\alpha \in A \mid N_A(\alpha) \leq m\}$, then Ξ is a finite set and $|\Xi| \geq m$.
- (2) If $\alpha, \beta \in A$, then $N_A(\alpha\beta) = N_A(\alpha)N_A(\beta)$ and $N_A(\alpha + \beta) \leq N_A(\alpha) + N_A(\beta)$.
- (3) If $\alpha \in A^*$, then $N_A(\alpha) = [A : \alpha A] = 1$.

PROOF. Part (3) is left to the reader. The proofs of (1) and (2) are split into two cases.

First assume $A = \mathbb{Z}$. The set $\Xi = \{\alpha \in \mathbb{Z} \mid |\alpha| \le m\}$ has cardinality 2m + 1, which proves (1). Part (2) follows from the fact that on \mathbb{Z} the absolute value function satisfies $|\alpha\beta| = |\alpha||\beta|$ and $|\alpha + \beta| \le |\alpha| + |\beta|$.

If A = k[t] and $\alpha \in A$, then $N_A(\alpha) = q^{\deg \alpha} \le m$ if and only if $\deg \alpha \le \log_q(m)$. If i is the unique integer such that $q^i \le m < q^{i+1}$, then $i \le \log_q(m) < i+1$ and the set $\Xi = \{\alpha \in A \mid \deg(\alpha) < i+1\}$ has cardinality q^{i+1} . Since $q^{i+1} \ge m$, this proves (1). Part (2) is obviously true if one or more of α , β , or $\alpha + \beta$ is equal to 0. Otherwise,

$$N_A(\alpha\beta) = q^{\deg(\alpha\beta)} = q^{\deg(\alpha) + \deg(\beta)} = q^{\deg(\alpha)}q^{\deg(\beta)} = N_A(\alpha)N_A(\beta)$$

and

$$N_A(\alpha + \beta) = q^{\deg(\alpha + \beta)} \le q^{\max(\deg(\alpha), \deg(\beta))} \le q^{\deg(\alpha)} + q^{\deg(\beta)} = N_A(\alpha) + N_A(\beta).$$

Proposition 16.8.3. In the above context, let L be a global field and B the ring of integers in L. Then the following are true.

- (1) B is a Dedekind domain with quotient field L.
- (2) B is a finitely generated A-lattice in L, hence is a free A-module of rank $\dim_K(L)$.
- (3) If A = k[t], then B is a finitely generated k-algebra.

PROOF. Part (1) follows from Theorem 16.3.7. Parts (2) and (3) follow from Theorem 10.1.13, Lemma 16.8.1, and Exercise 4.1.24. \Box

As above, A is either $\mathbb Z$ or k[t], where k is a fixed finite field of order q. The quotient field of A is denoted K. Let Λ be a finite dimensional K-algebra. Assume Λ is a domain. By Exercise 4.5.15, this is equivalent to assuming Λ is a division ring. We say Λ is a finite dimensional K-division algebra. Let B be an A-subalgebra of Λ which is also an A-lattice in Λ . We call the ring B an A-order in Λ .

By Lemma 16.8.1, B is a free A-module of rank $n = \dim_K(\Lambda)$. If u_1, \ldots, u_n is an A-basis for B, then u_1, \ldots, u_n is also a K-basis for Λ . As in Example 10.2.13, the norm $N_K^{\Lambda}: \Lambda \to K$ is a homogeneous polynomial function on Λ of degree n. With respect to the basis u_1, \ldots, u_n we can identify Λ with affine n-space over K. Under this identification, the norm $N_K^{\Lambda}: \Lambda \to K$ corresponds to a homogeneous polynomial $F(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ in $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ of degree n. Given a point (s_1, \ldots, s_n) in K^n , we have the element $\beta = s_1u_1 + \cdots + s_nu_n$ in Λ , and ℓ_{β} is the "left multiplication by β " map on Λ . Then $F(s_1, \ldots, s_n)$ is equal to $N_K^{\Lambda}(\beta)$, which is the determinant $\det(\ell_{\beta})$. The norm $N_K^{\Lambda}: \Lambda \to K$ restricts to a norm $N_K^{\Lambda}: B \to A$ (Exercise 4.7.26).

The formula derived in Lemma 16.8.4 below bears an interesting resemblance to that of Exercise 4.7.41(2).

LEMMA 16.8.4. In the above context, let β be a nonzero element in B. Then the right ideal βB is an A-submodule of B of finite index and $[B:\beta B]=N_A(N_A^B(\beta))=|\det(\ell_\beta)|$.

PROOF. By Lemma 16.8.1, the index $[B:\beta B]$ is finite. By the Simultaneous Bases Theorem (Corollary 4.6.26), there is a basis u_1, \ldots, u_n for B over A and elements $\delta_1, \ldots, \delta_n$ in A - (0) such that $\beta u_i = \delta_i u_i$ for each i and $\delta_1 \mid \delta_2 \mid \cdots \mid \delta_n$. Then $\det(\ell_\beta) = \delta_1 \delta_2 \cdots \delta_n$. The sequence of A-modules

$$0 \to B \xrightarrow{\beta} B \to B/\beta B \to 0$$

is exact and $B/\beta B$ is isomorphic to the direct sum $A/\delta_1 A \oplus \cdots \oplus A/\delta_n A$ of cyclic A-modules. The group $A/\delta_i A$ has order $N_A(\delta_i)$. By Lemma 16.8.2, N_A is multiplicative. Therefore $[B:\beta B]=N_A(\delta_1)\cdots N_A(\delta_n)=N_A(\delta_1\cdots\delta_n)=N_A(\det(\ell_\beta))=N_A(N_A^B(\beta))$

LEMMA 16.8.5. In the above context, let u_1, \ldots, u_n be an A-basis for B and $F(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ the homogeneous polynomial of degree n in $A[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ associated to the norm map $N_A^B: B \to A$. Then there is a constant $U \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for every $\epsilon \in \mathbb{N}$, if $0 \le s_i \le \epsilon$ for each $1 \le i \le n$ and $\beta = s_1u_1 + \cdots + s_nu_n$, then $[B:\beta B] \le \epsilon^n U$.

PROOF. As in Section 3.6.1, write F as a linear combination of monomials of degree n: $F(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=\sum_{i=1}^r a_i x_1^{e_{i,1}}\cdots x_n^{e_{i,n}}$, where $a_i\in A,\ e_{i,j}\in\mathbb{N}\cup\{0\}$, and $e_{i,1}+\cdots+e_{i,n}=n$ for every i. Let $U=\sum_{i=1}^r N_A(a_i)$ and assume $\epsilon\in\mathbb{N}$, $(s_1,\ldots,s_n)\in A^n,\ N_A(s_i)\leq \epsilon$ for each $1\leq i\leq n$, and $\beta=s_1u_1+\cdots+s_nu_n$. Using Lemmas 16.8.4 and 16.8.2, we have

$$[B:\beta B] = N_A(N_A^B(\beta))$$

$$= N_A(F(s_1, \dots, s_n))$$

$$= N_A\left(\sum_{i=1}^r a_i s_1^{e_{i,1}} \cdots s_n^{e_{i,n}}\right)$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^r (N_A(a_i) N_A(s_1)^{e_{i,1}} \cdots N_A(s_n)^{e_{i,n}})$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^r N_A(a_i) \epsilon^n$$

$$\leq \epsilon^n U.$$

LEMMA 16.8.6. As above, let A be either \mathbb{Z} or k[t], where k is a fixed finite field of order q. Let K be the quotient field of A, Λ a finite dimensional K-division algebra, B an A-order in Λ . Then there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for every right ideal J of B that is also an A-lattice in Λ , the following are true.

- (1) There exists an element ξ in J-(0) such that $[B:\xi B]=N_A(N_A^B(\xi))\leq [B:J]N$.
- (2) $\xi^{-1}J$ is a right B-submodule and A-lattice in Λ such that $B \subseteq \xi^{-1}J$ and $[\xi^{-1}J:B] \leq N$.

PROOF. (1): Let $\{u_1,\ldots,u_n\}$ be an A-basis for B. Let r be the maximum integer in $\{r\in\mathbb{N}\mid r^n\leq [B:J]\}$. Then r is well defined, by Lemma 16.8.1, and $(r+1)^n>[B:J]$. By Lemma 16.8.2, the set $\Xi=\{\alpha\in A\mid N_A(\alpha)\leq 2r\}$ has at least 2r elements. Since $2r\geq r+1$, the subset $X=\{s_1u_1+\cdots+s_nu_n\mid s_i\in\Xi\}$ of B has at least $(r+1)^n$ elements. Since $(r+1)^n>[B:J]$, there are two distinct elements ξ_1,ξ_2 in X such that $\xi=\xi_1-\xi_2=s_1u_1+\cdots+s_nu_n$ is in J. If s,t are in Ξ , then by Lemma 16.8.2, $N_A(s-t)\leq N_A(s)+N_A(t)\leq 2(2r)$. Therefore, $N_A(s_i)\leq 4r$, for each i. By Lemma 16.8.5, there exists $U\in\mathbb{N}$ such that $[B:\xi B]=N_A(N_A^B(\xi))\leq (4r)^nU\leq 4^nU[B:J]$. Taking $N=4^nU$, Part (1) follows.

(2): Since $\xi \in J$, we have $\xi B \subseteq J$. Multiplying by $\xi^{-1} \in K$, it follows that $B \subseteq \xi^{-1}J$. The diagram of right B-modules

$$0 \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow \xi^{-1}J \longrightarrow \xi^{-1}J/B \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\xi} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\xi} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\xi}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \xi B \longrightarrow J \longrightarrow J/\xi B \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes. The rows are exact sequences. The vertical arrows are left multiplication by ξ and are isomorphisms. The groups in the right hand column are finite, by Lemma 16.8.1. Combining all of this with Part (1) and Theorem 2.2.11 applied to

 $\xi B \subseteq J \subseteq B$, we have

$$[\xi^{-1}J : B] = [J : \xi B]$$

= $[B : \xi B]/[B : J]$
 $\leq N$.

LEMMA 16.8.7. As above, let A be either \mathbb{Z} or k[t], where k is a fixed finite field of order q. Let K be the quotient field of A, Λ a finite dimensional K-division algebra, B an A-order in Λ . For any $N \in \mathbb{N}$, let S be the set of all right B-submodules of Λ such that $B \subseteq M$, M is an A-lattice in Λ , and $[M:B] \leq N$. Then S is a finite set.

PROOF. Let $M \in \mathcal{S}$. By Lemma 16.8.1, M/B is a finitely generated torsion A-module. By Theorem 4.3.15, M/B is isomorphic as an A-module to $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\ell} A/\alpha_i A$, where $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_\ell$ are the invariant factors of M/B. Then α_ℓ annihilates M/B, hence $\alpha_\ell M \subseteq B$. We have $\alpha_\ell B \subseteq \alpha_\ell M \subseteq B$. For each i, the order of $A/\alpha_i A$ is equal to $N_A(\alpha_i)$, hence α_i belongs to the finite set $\Xi = \{\alpha \in A - (0) \mid N_A(\alpha) \leq N\}$. Since Ξ is a finite subset of A - (0), there exists $\gamma \in A - (0)$ such that for every $\alpha \in \Xi$, α divides γ . Therefore, $\gamma B \subseteq \gamma M \subseteq B$ for every M in \mathcal{S} . By Lemma 16.8.1, there are only finitely many choices for γM . Therefore, there are only finitely many M in \mathcal{S} .

Theorem 16.8.8. If B is the ring of integers in the global field L, then Cl(B) is a finite abelian group.

PROOF. By Proposition 16.8.3, B is a Dedekind domain and an A-lattice in L, where A is \mathbb{Z} if $\operatorname{char}(L)=0$ and A=k[t] otherwise. The class group of B is the group of fractional ideals modulo the group of principal fractional ideals. If F is a fractional ideal, then for some $d \in L$, J=dF is a nonzero ideal in B. By Lemma 16.8.6, there is an upper bound $N \in \mathbb{N}$ that depends only on B, an element ξ in J such that $\xi^{-1}J$ is a fractional ideal of B containing B and $[\xi^{-1}J:B] \leq N$. By Lemma 16.8.7, there are only finitely many such fractional ideals $\xi^{-1}J$. Therefore, there are only finitely many ideal classes.

COROLLARY 16.8.9. If B is the ring of integers in the global field L, then there exists $\beta \in B$ such that the localization $B[\beta^{-1}]$ is a principal ideal domain.

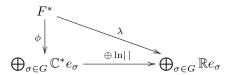
PROOF. Assume B is not a principal ideal domain. Let $\{\mathfrak{p}_1,\ldots,\mathfrak{p}_t\}$ be a set of maximal ideals in B that generate $\mathrm{Cl}(B)$ (Theorem 16.8.8). Then $U=\mathrm{Spec}\,B-\{\mathfrak{p}_1,\ldots,\mathfrak{p}_t\}$ is a nonempty open. By Lemma 7.3.12, there is $\beta\in B$ such that the basic open subset $U(\beta)$ is a nonempty open subset of U. By Theorem 15.4.16, $\mathrm{Cl}(B[\beta^{-1}])=(0)$. By Exercise 16.3.9, $B[\beta^{-1}]$ is a unique factorization domain and a principal ideal domain.

8.2. The Dirichlet Units Theorem. The following proof of the Dirichlet Units Theorem is based on Chapter 6 of [4].

Let F be a Galois extension of \mathbb{Q} with finite group $G = \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(F)$. As in Proposition 9.6.13, $F \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{C} = \bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} \mathbb{C} e_{\sigma}$ is isomorphic to the trivial G-Galois extension of \mathbb{C} . The change of base function

$$\phi: F \to F \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{C} = \bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} \mathbb{C} e_{\sigma}$$

is a homomorphism of \mathbb{Q} -algebras and the composite map is defined by $\phi(\alpha) = \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(\alpha) e_{\sigma}$. As defined in Section 1.5, the absolute value of a complex number is $|a+bi| = \sqrt{a^2+b^2}$. The absolute value followed by the logarithm defines a homomorphism $\ln |\cdot| : \mathbb{C}^* \to \mathbb{R}$ from the multiplicative group of \mathbb{C} to the additive group of \mathbb{R} . Define $\lambda : F^* \to \bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} \mathbb{R} e_{\sigma}$



to be ϕ followed by the logarithm function applied coordinate-wise. On an element $\alpha \in F^*$, λ is defined by $\lambda(\alpha) = \sum_{\sigma \in G} \ln |\sigma(\alpha)| e_{\sigma}$. If n = [G:1], then in Lemma 16.8.10 we identify $\bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} \mathbb{R} e_{\sigma}$ with \mathbb{R}^n together with the usual euclidean metric space.

LEMMA 16.8.10. In the above context, let F/\mathbb{Q} be a Galois extension of fields with finite group G of order n. Let B be the integral closure of \mathbb{Z} in F. If X is a bounded subset of $\bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} \mathbb{R} e_{\sigma}$ then the preimage of X under $\lambda : B^* \to \bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} \mathbb{R} e_{\sigma}$ is a finite set.

PROOF. In this proof for convenience we use interval notation for subsets of \mathbb{R} . The logarithm is a monotonic increasing function $(0,\infty) \to (-\infty,\infty)$ Since X is bounded, there is a real number U>0 such that $X\subseteq \prod_{\sigma\in G} [-U,U]e_{\sigma}$. Then there is a real number V>1 such that $V^{-1}\le y\le V$ whenever $\ln y\in X$. If $\alpha\in B^*$ and $\lambda(\alpha)\in X$, then for each $\sigma\in G$, $V^{-1}\le |\sigma(\alpha)|\le V$. The characteristic polynomial of α is

$$\operatorname{char.poly}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \prod_{\sigma \in G} (x - \sigma(\alpha))$$

by Exercise 5.7.9. Therefore, the coefficients of char. $\operatorname{poly}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)$ are elementary symmetric polynomials (see Section 5.10.1) in $\{\sigma(\alpha) \mid \sigma \in G\}$. By Exercise 4.7.29, char. $\operatorname{poly}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)$ is equal to $(\operatorname{Irr.poly}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha))^t$ for some t>0. By Theorem 10.1.11, Gauss' Lemma, the coefficients of char. $\operatorname{poly}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)$ are in \mathbb{Z} . The elementary symmetric polynomials are continuous functions from $\prod_{\sigma \in G} \mathbb{R}^*$ to \mathbb{R} . By choosing V larger if necessary, we may assume the coefficients of char. $\operatorname{poly}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)$ are integers in [-V,V]. This means the set of polynomials $\{\operatorname{char.poly}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) \mid \alpha \in B^* \text{ and } \lambda(\alpha) \in X\}$ is finite. Consequently, the set of polynomials $\{\operatorname{Irr.poly}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) \mid \alpha \in B^* \text{ and } \lambda(\alpha) \in X\}$ is finite. Therefore, the set $\{\alpha \mid \alpha \in B^* \text{ and } \lambda(\alpha) \in X\}$ is finite. \square

COROLLARY 16.8.11. In the context of Lemma 16.8.10, let F be a finite Galois extension of \mathbb{Q} with group G and let B be the ring of integers in F. If T denotes the kernel of the homomorphism $\lambda: B^* \to \bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} \mathbb{R}e_{\sigma}$, then

- (1) T is a finite cyclic group, and
- (2) T is equal to the group of all roots of unity in F.

PROOF. We know T is a finite group by Lemma 16.8.10 applied to $X = \{0\}$. We know T is cyclic by Proposition 5.4.6. Suppose $\zeta \in F^*$ and $\zeta^m = 1$ for some m > 1. Then ζ is integral over \mathbb{Z} , hence $\zeta \in B$. For each $\sigma \in G$, $|\sigma(\zeta)|^m = |\sigma(\zeta)^m| = |\sigma(\zeta^m)| = 1$. So $|\sigma(\zeta)| = 1$. By the definition of λ , this shows $\zeta \in T$. \square

LEMMA 16.8.12. Fix n > 0 and let \mathbb{R}^n be the n-dimensional real vector space with the usual euclidean metric. Let M be a nontrivial \mathbb{Z} -submodule of \mathbb{R}^n with the property that $X \cap M$ is a finite set whenever X is a bounded subset of \mathbb{R}^n . Then there exist vectors $\{e_1, \ldots, e_r\}$ in M satisfying the following:

- $(1) \ 1 \le r \le n$
- (2) $\sum_{i=1}^{r} \mathbb{R}e_i$ is an r-dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^n , and contains M,
- (3) M is a free \mathbb{Z} -module of rank r,
- (4) M is a \mathbb{Z} -lattice in $\sum_{i=1}^r \mathbb{Q}e_i$.

PROOF. Let V be the subspace of \mathbb{R}^n spanned by M. Let $r = \dim_{\mathbb{R}}(V)$ and let $\{e_1, \ldots, e_r\}$ be an \mathbb{R} -basis for V contained in M. Let

$$X = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{r} a_i e_i \mid a_i \in \mathbb{R}, \, 0 \le a_i \le 1 \right\}.$$

Then X is a bounded subset of \mathbb{R}^n . By hypothesis on M, $X \cap M$ is a finite set. Notice that $X \cap M$ contains $\{e_1, \dots, e_r\}$. Let y be an arbitrary element of M. There are unique $r_i \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $y = \sum_{i=1}^r r_i e_i$. Define $\rho(y)$ by the rule

$$\rho(y) = y - \sum_{i=1}^{r} \lfloor r_i \rfloor e_i$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{r} (r_i - \lfloor r_i \rfloor) e_i$$

where $\lfloor \rfloor : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{Z}$ is the floor function (see Exercise 1.1.17). Since $0 \leq x - \lfloor x \rfloor < 1$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, it follows that $\rho(y) \in X$. Since $y \in M$ and $\sum_{i=1}^r \lfloor r_i \rfloor e_i \in M$, we see that $\rho(y) \in M \cap X$. This shows M is generated as a \mathbb{Z} -module by the finite set $M \cap X$. Therefore M is a finitely generated torsion free \mathbb{Z} -module, hence free of finite rank by Proposition 4.3.5. Since M contains $\{e_1, \ldots, e_r\}$, the rank of M is at least r. The set $\{\rho(jy) \mid j \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a subset of the finite set $M \cap X$. For some pair of integers j < k we have $\rho(jy) = \rho(ky)$. For $1 \leq i \leq r$ we have $(jr_i - \lfloor jr_i \rfloor)e_i = (kr_i - \lfloor kr_i \rfloor)e_i$. Thus $(k-j)r_i = \lfloor kr_i \rfloor - \lfloor jr_i \rfloor$. This proves $r_i \in \mathbb{Q}$ for each i, hence $M \subseteq \sum_{i=1}^r \mathbb{Q}e_i$. By Proposition 16.1.1 (1), M is a \mathbb{Z} -lattice in $\sum_{i=1}^r \mathbb{Q}e_i$. By Proposition 16.1.4, M is has rank r.

LEMMA 16.8.13. In the context of Lemma 16.8.10, let F be a finite Galois extension of \mathbb{Q} with group G and let B be the ring of integers in F. Then

- (1) B^* is a finitely generated abelian group.
- (2) The torsion subgroup of B^* is equal to the group of all roots of unity in F and is a finite cyclic group.

PROOF. By Lemma 16.8.12, the image of $\lambda: B^* \to \bigoplus_{\sigma \in G} \mathbb{R}e_{\sigma}$ is a finitely generated free \mathbb{Z} -module of rank $r \leq [G:1]$. By Corollary 16.8.11, the kernel of λ is equal to the group $T = \langle \zeta \rangle$ of all roots of unity in F and is a finite cyclic group. The sequence

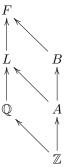
$$\langle 1 \rangle \to \langle \zeta \rangle \to B^* \xrightarrow{\lambda} \mathbb{Z}^r \to \langle 0 \rangle$$

is split exact.

Lemma 16.8.14. Let L be an algebraic number field with ring of integers A. Then

- (1) A^* is a finitely generated abelian group.
- (2) The torsion subgroup of A* is equal to the group of all roots of unity in L and is a finite cyclic group.

PROOF. By Corollary 5.4.3, there is a finite dimensional Galois extension F/\mathbb{Q} containing L as an intermediate field. If B is the ring of integers in F, then A is a subring of B.



The group of units in A is a subgroup of the group of units in B. By Lemma 16.8.13 and Corollary 4.3.3, A^* is finitely generated and if T denotes the torsion subgroup of A^* , then T is a finite cyclic group. The proof of Corollary 16.8.11 shows that T is equal to the group of all roots of unity in L.

We end this section with a statement of the Dirichlet Units Theorem. First we establish some notation. Let L be an algebraic number field with ring of integers A. By Theorem 5.4.7, $L = \mathbb{Q}(u)$ for some element $u \in L$. Let $f = \text{Irr. poly}_{\mathbb{Q}}(u)$. Since f is separable, the unique factorization of f as a polynomial in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ has the form

$$f = (x - u_1) \cdots (x - u_{r_1}) q_1(x) \cdots q_{r_2}(x)$$

where u_1, \ldots, u_{r_1} are the distinct real roots of $f, r_1 \geq 0, q_1(x), \ldots, q_{r_2}(x)$ are the irreducible monic quadratic factors of f in $\mathbb{R}[x]$, and $r_2 \geq 0$ (Theorem 5.6.8). Then

$$L \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{R} = \frac{\mathbb{Q}[x]}{(f)} \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{R}$$

$$= \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^{r_1} \frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{(x - u_i)}\right) \oplus \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^{r_2} \frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{(q_i(x))}\right)$$

$$\cong \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^{r_1} \mathbb{R}\right) \oplus \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^{r_2} \mathbb{C}\right).$$

That is, $L \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{R}$ is the ring direct sum of r_1 copies of the field \mathbb{R} and r_2 copies of the field \mathbb{C} .

THEOREM 16.8.15. (The Dirichlet Units Theorem) Let L be an algebraic number field with ring of integers A. In the above notation, the group of units in A is a finitely generated abelian group isomorphic to $\langle \zeta \rangle \oplus \mathbb{Z}^r$, where $r = r_1 + r_2 - 1$ and $\langle \zeta \rangle$ is the group of all roots of unity in L.

PROOF. By Lemma 16.8.14, A^* is finitely generated and the torsion subgroup is cyclic. The only part that has not been proved is the formula for the rank. See [4] for a proof that is based on an application of Minkowski's Convex Body Theorem.

Acronyms

\mathbf{ACC}	ascending chain condition	18
\mathbf{DCC}	descending chain condition	18
PID	principal ideal domain	104
GCD	greatest common divisor	116
\mathbf{UFD}	unique factorization domain	117
DVR	discrete valuation ring	643

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