

Commutative Algebra notes

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Abstract

Notes taken while studying Commutative Algebra, mostly from Atiyah & MacDonald book [1] and Reid's book [2].

Usually while reading books and papers I take handwritten notes in a notebook, this document contains some of them re-written to *LaTeX*.

The proofs may slightly differ from the ones from the books, since I try to extend them for a deeper understanding.

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1 Ideals

1.1 Definitions

Definition ideal. $I \subset R$ (R ring) such that $0 \in I$ and $\forall x \in I, r \in R, xr, rx \in I$.

ie. I absorbs products in R .

Definition prime ideal. if $a, b \in R$ with $ab \in P$ and $P \neq R$ (P a prime ideal), implies $a \in P$ or $b \in P$.

Definition principal ideal. generated by a single element, (a) .

(a) : principal ideal, the set of all multiples xa with $x \in R$.

Definition maximal ideal. $\mathfrak{m} \subset A$ (A ring) with $m \neq A$ and there is no ideal I strictly between \mathfrak{m} and A . ie. if \mathfrak{m} maximal and $\mathfrak{m} \subseteq I \subseteq A$, either $\mathfrak{m} = I$ or $I = A$.

Definition unit. $x \in A$ such that $xy = 1$ for some $y \in A$. ie. element which divides 1.

Definition zerodivisor. $x \in A$ such that $\exists 0 \neq y \in A$ such that $xy = 0 \in A$. ie. x divides 0..

If a ring does not have zerodivisors is an integral domain.

Definition prime spectrum - $Spec(A)$. set of prime ideals of A . ie.

$$Spec(A) = \{P \mid P \subset A \text{ is a prime ideal}\}$$

Definition integral domain. Ring in which the product of any two nonzero elements is nonzero.

ie. no zerodivisors.

ie. $\forall 0 \neq a, 0 \neq b \in A, ab \neq 0 \in A$.

Every field is an integral domain, not the converse.

Definition principal ideal domain - PID. integral domain in which every ideal is principal. ie. ie. $\forall I \subset R, \exists a \in I$ such that $I = (a) = \{ra \mid r \in R\}$.

Definition nilpotent. $a \in A$ such that $a^n = 0$ for some $n > 0$.

Definition nilrad A. set of all nilpotent elements of A ; is an ideal of A .
if $nilradA = 0 \implies A$ has no nonzero nilpotents.

$$nilradA = \bigcap_{P \in Spec(A)} P$$

Definition idempotent. $e \in A$ such that $e^2 = e$.

Definition radical of an ideal.

$$radI = \{f \in A \mid f^n \in I \text{ for some } n\}$$

$radI$ is an ideal.

$$nilradA = rad0$$

$$radI = \bigcap_{\substack{P \in Spec(A) \\ P \supset I}} P$$

Definition local ring. A local ring has a unique maximal ideal.

Notation: local ring A , its maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , residue field $K = A/\mathfrak{m}$:

$$A \supset \mathfrak{m} \text{ or } (A, \mathfrak{m}) \text{ or } (A, \mathfrak{m}, K)$$

1.2 Lemmas, propositions and corollaries

Theorem AM.1.X. Zorn's lemma TODO

Theorem AM.1.3. Every ring $A \neq 0$ has at least one maximal ideal.

Proof. By Zorn's lemma AM.1.X. \square

Corollary AM.1.4. if $I \neq (1)$ an ideal of A , \exists a maximal ideal of A containing I .

Corollary AM.1.5. Every non-unit of A is contained in a maximal ideal.

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

Denoted $Jac(A)$.

$Jac(A)$ is an ideal of A .

Proposition AM.1.9. $x \in Jac(A)$ iff $(1 - xy)$ is a unit in A , $\forall y \in A$.

Proof. Suppose $1 - xy$ not a unit.

By AM.1.5, $1 - xy \in \mathfrak{m}$ for \mathfrak{m} some maximal ideal.

But $x \in Jac(A) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$, since $Jac(A)$ is the intersection of all maximal ideals of A .

Hence $xy \in \mathfrak{m}$, and therefore $1 \in \mathfrak{m}$, which is absurd, thus $1 - xy$ is a unit.

Conversely:

Suppose $x \notin \mathfrak{m}$ for some maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} .

Then \mathfrak{m} and x generate the unit ideal (1) , so that we have $u + xy = 1$ for some $u \in \mathfrak{m}$ and some $y \in A$.

Hence $1 - xy \in \mathfrak{m}$, and is therefore not a unit. \square

2 Modules

2.1 Modules

Let A be a ring. An A -module is an Abelian group M with a multiplication map

$$\begin{aligned} A \times M &\longrightarrow M \\ (f, m) &\longmapsto fm \end{aligned}$$

satisfying $\forall f, g \in A, m, n \in M$.

- i. $f(m \pm n) = fm \pm fn$
- ii. $(f \pm g)m = fm \pm gm$
- iii. $(fg)m = f(gm)$
- iv. $1_A m = m$

Let $\psi : M \rightarrow M$ an A -linear endomorphism of M .
 $A[\psi] \subset \text{End}M$ is the subring generated by A and the action of ψ .

- since ψ is A -linear, $A[\psi]$ is a commutative ring.
- M is a module over $A[\psi]$, so ψ becomes multiplication by a ring element.

2.2 Cayley-Hamilton theorem, Nakayama lemma, and corollaries

Proposition AM.2.4. (Cayley-Hamilton Theorem) Let M a fingen A -module.
 Let \mathfrak{a} an ideal of A , let ψ an A -module endomorphism of M such that $\psi(M) \subseteq \mathfrak{a}M$.

Then ψ satisfies

$$\psi^n + a_1\psi^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1}\psi + a_n = 0$$

with $a_i \in \mathfrak{a}$.

Proof. Since M fingen, let $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be generators of M .

By hypothesis, $\psi(M) \subseteq \mathfrak{a}M$; so for any generator x_i , its image $\psi(x_i) \in \mathfrak{a}M$.

Any element in $\mathfrak{a}M$ is a linear combination of the generators with coefficients in the ideal \mathfrak{a} , thus

$$\psi(x_i) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j$$

with $a_{ij} \in \mathfrak{a}$.

Thus, for a module with n generators, we have n different $\psi(x_i)$ equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(x_1) &= a_{1,1}x_1 + a_{1,2}x_2 + \dots + a_{1,n}x_n \\ \psi(x_2) &= a_{2,1}x_1 + a_{2,2}x_2 + \dots + a_{2,n}x_n \\ &\dots \\ \psi(x_n) &= a_{n,1}x_1 + a_{n,2}x_2 + \dots + a_{n,n}x_n \end{aligned} \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{n elements } \psi(x_i) \in \mathfrak{a}M \text{ which} \\ \text{are linear combinations of the} \\ n \text{ generators of } M \end{array} \right\}$$

Next step: rearrange in order to use matrix algebra.

Observe that each row equals 0, and rearranging the elements at each row we get

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(x_1) - (a_{1,1}x_1 + a_{1,2}x_2 + \dots + a_{1,n}x_n) &= 0 \\ \psi(x_2) - (a_{2,1}x_1 + a_{2,2}x_2 + \dots + a_{2,n}x_n) &= 0 \\ &\dots \\ \psi(x_n) - (a_{n,1}x_1 + a_{n,2}x_2 + \dots + a_{n,n}x_n) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Then, group the x_i terms together; as example, take the row $i = 1$:

$$(\psi - a_{1,1})x_1 - a_{1,2}x_2 - \dots - a_{1,n}x_n = 0$$

for $i = 2$:

$$-a_{2,1}x_1 + (\psi - a_{2,2})x_2 - \dots - a_{2,n}x_n = 0$$

So, $\forall i \in [n]$, as a matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \psi - a_{1,1} & -a_{1,2} & \dots & -a_{1,n} \\ -a_{2,1} & \psi - a_{2,2} & \dots & -a_{2,n} \\ \vdots & & & \\ -a_{n,1} & -a_{n,2} & \dots & \psi - a_{n,n} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Kronecker delta: $\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

With the Kronecker delta, $\psi(x_i)$ can be expressed as

$$\psi(x_i) = \sum_{j=1}^n \delta_{ij} \psi(x_j)$$

so the previous matrix can be characterized as

$$\sum_{j=1}^n (\delta_{ij} \psi - a_{ij}) x_j = 0$$

The entries of the matrix are *endomorphisms* (elements of the ring $A[\psi]$)

- the term $(\psi - a_{11})$ is an operator that acts on x_1 ; as $(\psi(x_1) - a_{11} \cdot x_1)$
- the term $(-\alpha_{12})$ is an operator that acts on x_2 ; as multiplication by it, ie. $(-\alpha_{12} \cdot x_2)$

Since A is a commutative ring, and ψ commutes with any $a \in A$, the ring of operators $A[\psi]$ is a commutative ring.

\implies so we can treat the matrix as a matrix of real numbers and calculate its determinant.

We're interested in the determinant because it is the only way to turn a system of multiple equations in a single scalar-like equation that describes the endomorphism ψ .

\rightarrow Because in module theory, we lack of "division", so can not "solve for ψ " the system of equations.

\rightarrow The determinant provides a way to find a polynomial that *annihilates* the module; the *characteristic polynomial*, which related ψ to the ideal \mathfrak{a}

$$\det(M) \cdot x_i = 0 \quad \forall i$$

where x_i are the generators of M .

Since $\det(M)$ kills every generator, it must kill every element in M

$\implies \det(M)$ is the zero map.

Leibniz formula of the determinant of an $n \times n$ matrix:

$$\det(M) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \text{sign}(\sigma) \prod_{i=1}^n M_{i,\sigma(i)}$$

so,

$$(\psi - a_{11})(\psi - a_{22}) \dots (\psi - a_{nn})$$

expanding it,

- highest power is $1 \cdot \psi^n$
- coefficient of ψ^{n-1} is $-(\underbrace{a_{11} + a_{22} + \dots + a_{nn}}_{a_1})$,
where, since each $a_{ii} \in \mathfrak{a}$, $a_1 \in \mathfrak{a}$
- the rest of coefficients of ψ^k are also elements in \mathfrak{a}

So we have

$$p(\psi) = \psi^n + a_1\psi^{n-1} + a_2\psi^{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1}\psi + a_n$$

with $a_i \in \mathfrak{a}$.

Since this determinant annihilates the generators (ie. $\det(M)x_i = 0$), the resulting endomorphism $p(\psi)$ is the zero map on the entire module M , so:

$$\psi^n + a_1\psi^{n-1} + a_2\psi^{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1}\psi + a_n = 0$$

with $a_i \in \mathfrak{a}$, as stated in the Cayley-Hamilton theorem. \square

Corollary AM.2.5. Let M a fingen A -module, let \mathfrak{a} an ideal of A such that $\mathfrak{a}M = M$.

Then, $\exists x \equiv 1 \pmod{\mathfrak{a}}$ such that $xM = 0$.

Proof. take $\psi = \text{identity}$. Then in Cayley-Hamilton (AM.2.4):

$$\begin{aligned} & \psi^n + a_1\psi^{n-1} + a_2\psi^{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1}\psi + a_n = 0 \\ \implies & id_M + a_1id_M + a_2id_M + \dots + a_{n-1}id_M + a_n = 0 \\ \implies & (1 + a_1 + \dots + a_n)id_M = 0 \end{aligned}$$

apply it to $m \in M$, where since $id_M(m) = m$ (by definition of the identity), we then have

$$(1 + a_1 + \dots + a_n) \cdot m = 0$$

with $a_i \in \mathfrak{a}$.

part i. $xM = 0$:

Thus the scalar $x = (1 + a_1 + \dots + a_n)$ annihilates every $m \in M$, ie. the entire module M .

part ii. $x \equiv 1 \pmod{\mathfrak{a}}$:

$$\begin{aligned} x \equiv 1 \pmod{\mathfrak{a}} &\iff (x - 1) \in \mathfrak{a} \\ \text{then from } x = (1 + \underbrace{a_1 + \dots + a_n}_b) \in \mathfrak{a}, \text{ set } b &= a_1 + \dots + a_n, \\ \text{so that } x = (1 + b) &\in \mathfrak{a}. \end{aligned}$$

Then $x - 1 = (1 + b) - 1 = b \in \mathfrak{a}$
 $\text{so } x - 1 \in \mathfrak{a}$, thus $x \equiv 1 \pmod{\mathfrak{a}}$ as stated.

□

Proposition AM.2.6. Nakayama's lemma Let M a fingen A -module, let \mathfrak{a} an ideal of A such that $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \text{Jac}(A)$.

Then $\mathfrak{a}M = M$ implies $M = 0$.

Proof. By AM.2.5: since $\mathfrak{a}M = M$, we have $xM = 0$ for some $x \equiv 1 \pmod{\text{Jac}(A)}$.
 (notice that at AM.2.5 is $\pmod{\mathfrak{a}}$ but here we use $\pmod{\text{Jac}(A)}$, since we have $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \text{Jac}(A)$).

(recall AM.1.9: $x \in \text{Jac}(A)$ iff $(1 - xy)$ is a unit in A , $\forall y \in A$).

By AM.1.9, x is a unit in A (thus $x^{-1} \cdot x = 1$).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } M &= x^{-1} \cdot \underbrace{x \cdot M}_{=0 \text{ (by AM.2.5)}} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, if $\mathfrak{a}M = M$ then $M = 0$. □

Corollary AM.2.7. Let M a fingen A -module, let $N \subseteq M$ a submodule of M , let $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \text{Jac}(A)$ an ideal.

Then $M = \mathfrak{a}M + N \stackrel{\text{implies}}{\implies} M = N$.

Proof. The idea is to apply Nakayama (AM.2.6) to M/N .

Since M fingen $\implies M/N$ is fingen and an A -module.

Since $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \text{Jac}(A) \implies$ Nakayama applies to M/N too.

By definition,

$$\mathfrak{a}M = \left\{ \sum a_i \cdot m_i \mid a_i \in \mathfrak{a}, m_i \in M \right\}$$

where m_i are the generators of M .

Then, for M/N ,

$$\mathfrak{a}\left(\frac{M}{N}\right) = \left\{ \sum a_i \cdot (m_i + N) \mid a_i \in \mathfrak{a}, m_i \in M \right\}$$

observe that $a_i(m_i + N) = a_i m_i + N$, thus

$$\sum_i a_i \cdot (m_i + N) = (\underbrace{\sum_i a_i \cdot m_i}_{\in \mathfrak{a}M}) + N \in \mathfrak{a}M + N$$

Hence,

$$\mathfrak{a}\left(\frac{M}{N}\right) = \{x + N \mid x \in \mathfrak{a}M\} = \mathfrak{a}M + N \quad (1)$$

By definition, if we take $\frac{\mathfrak{a}M+N}{N}$, then

$$\frac{\mathfrak{a}M+N}{N} = \{y + N \mid y \in \mathfrak{a}M + N\} = \mathfrak{a}M + N$$

thus every $y \in \mathfrak{a}M + N$ can be written as

$$y = x + n, \text{ with } x \in \mathfrak{a}M, n \in N$$

which comes from (1).

Thus, $y + N = (x + n) + N = x + N$, since $n \in N$ is zero in the quotient.

Hence, every element of $\frac{\mathfrak{a}M+N}{N}$ has the form

$$\frac{\mathfrak{a}M+N}{N} = \{x + N \mid x \in \mathfrak{a}M\}$$

as in (1).

Thus

$$\mathfrak{a}\left(\frac{M}{N}\right) = \mathfrak{a}M + N = \frac{\mathfrak{a}M+N}{N} \quad (2)$$

By the Collorary assumption, $M = \mathfrak{a}M + N$; quotient it by N :

$$\frac{M}{N} = \frac{\mathfrak{a}M+N}{N} \quad (3)$$

So, from (2) and (3):

$$\mathfrak{a}\left(\frac{M}{N}\right) = \mathfrak{a}M + N = \frac{\mathfrak{a}M+N}{N} = \frac{M}{N}$$

thus, $\mathfrak{a}\left(\frac{M}{N}\right) = \frac{M}{N}$.

By Nakayama's lemma AM.2.6, if $\mathfrak{a}\left(\frac{M}{N}\right) = \frac{M}{N} \implies \frac{M}{N} = 0$

Note that

$$\frac{M}{N} = \{m + N \mid m \in M\}$$

(the zero element in $\frac{M}{N}$ is the coset $N = 0 + N$)

Then, $\frac{M}{N} = 0$ means that the quotient has exactly one element, the zero coset N .

Thus, every coset $m + N$ equals the zero coset N , so $m - 0 \in N \implies m \in N$. Hence every $m \in M$ lies in N , ie. $\forall m \in M, m \in N$.

So $M \subseteq N$. But notice that by the Corollary, we had $N \subseteq M$, therefore $M = N$.

Thus, if $M = \mathfrak{a}M + N \implies M = N$. □

Proposition AM.2.8. Let $x_i \forall i \in [n]$ be elements of M whose images $\frac{M}{mM}$ from a basis of this vecotor space. Then the x_i generate M .

Proof. Let N submodule M , generated by the x_i .

Then the composite map $N \rightarrow M \rightarrow \frac{M}{mM}$ maps N onto $\frac{M}{mM}$, hence $N + \mathfrak{a}M = M$, which by AM.2.7 implies $N = M$. \square

Proposition AM.2.10. Split exact sequence. TODO

3 Noetherean rings

Definition . Ascending Chain Condition A partially ordered set Σ has the *ascending chain condition* (a.c.c.) if every chain

$$s_1 \leq s_2 \leq \dots \leq s_k \leq \dots$$

eventually breaks off, that is, $s_k = s_{k+1} = \dots$ for some k .

$\implies \Sigma$ has the a.c.c. iff every non-empty subset $S \subset \Sigma$ has a maximal element.

if $\neq S \subset \Sigma$ does not have a maximal element, choose $s_1 \in S$, and for each s_k , an element s_{k+1} with $s_k < s_{k+1}$, thus contradicting the a.c.c.

Definition R.3.2. Noetherian ring Let A a ring; 3 equivalent conditions:

- i. the set Σ of ideals of A has the a.c.c.; in other words, every increasing chain of ideals

$$I_1 \subset I_2 \subset \dots \subset I_k \subset \dots$$

eventually stops, that is $I_k = I_{k+1} = \dots$ for some k .

- ii. every nonempty set S of ideals has a maximal element

- iii. every ideal $I \subset A$ is finitely generated

If these conditions hold, then A is *Noetherian*.

Proof. TODO \square

Definition R.3.4.D. Noetherian modules An A -module M is Noetherian if the submodules of M have the a.c.c., that is, any increasing chain

$$M_1 \subset M_2 \subset \dots \subset M_k \subset \dots$$

of submodules eventually stops.

As in with rings, it is equivalent to say that

- i. any nonempty set of modules of M has a maximal element
- ii. every submodule of M is finite

Proposition R.3.4.P. Let $0 \rightarrow L \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \xrightarrow{\beta} N \rightarrow 0$ be a s.e.s. (split exact sequence, AM.2.10).

Then, M is Noetherian $\iff L$ and N are Noetherian.

Proof. \implies : trivial, since ascending chains of submodules in L and N correspond one-to-one to certain chains in M .

\impliedby : suppose $M_1 \subset M_2 \subset \dots \subset M_k \subset \dots$ is an increasing chain of submodules of M .

Then identifying $\alpha(L)$ with L and taking intersection gives a chain

$$L \cap M_1 \subset L \cap M_2 \subset \dots \subset L \cap M_k \subset \dots$$

of submodules of L , and applying β gives a chain

$$\beta(M_1) \subset \beta(M_2) \subset \dots \subset \beta(M_k) \subset \dots$$

of submodules of N .

Each of these two chains eventually stop, by the assumption on L and N , so that we only need to prove the following lemma which completes the proof. \square

Lemma R.3.4.L. for submodules $M_1 \subset M_2 \subset M$,

$$L \cap M_1 = L \cap M_2 \text{ and } \beta(M_1) = \beta(M_2) \implies M_1 = M_2$$

Proof. if $m \in M_2$, then $\beta(m) \in \beta(M_1) = \beta(M_2)$, so that there is an $n \in M_1$ such that $\beta(m) = \beta(n)$.

Then $\beta(m - n) = 0$, so that

$$m - n \in M_2 \cap \ker(\beta) = M_1 \cap \ker(\beta)$$

Hence $m \in M_1$, thus $M_1 = M_2$. \square

4 Exercises

For the exercises, I follow the assignments listed at [3].

The exercises that start with **R** are the ones from the book [2], and the ones starting with **AM** are the ones from the book [1].

4.1 Exercises Chapter 1

Exercise R.1.1. Ring A and ideals I, J such that $I \cup J$ is not an ideal. What's the smallest ideal containing I and J ?

Proof. Take ring $A = \mathbb{Z}$. Set $I = 2\mathbb{Z}$, $J = 3\mathbb{Z}$.

I, J are ideals of $A (= \mathbb{Z})$. And $I \cup J = 2\mathbb{Z} \cup 3\mathbb{Z}$.

Observe that for $2 \in I$, $3 \in J \implies 2, 3 \in I \cup J$, but $2 + 3 = 5 \notin I \cup J$.

Thus $I \cup J$ is not closed under addition; thus is not an ideal.

Smallest ideal of $\mathbb{Z} (= A)$ containing I and J is their sum:

$$I + J = \{a + b \mid a \in I, b \in J\}$$

$\gcd(2, 3) = 1$, so $I + J = \mathbb{Z}$.

Therefore, smallest ideal containing I and J is the whole ring \mathbb{Z} . \square

Exercise R.1.5. let $\psi : A \rightarrow B$ a ring homomorphism. Prove that ψ^{-1} takes prime ideals of B to prime ideals of A .

In particular if $A \subset B$ and P a prime ideal of B , then $A \cap P$ is a prime ideal of A .

Proof. (Recall: prime ideal is if $a, b \in R$ and $a \cdot b \in P$ (with $R \neq P$), implies $a \in P$ or $b \in P$).

Let

$$\psi^{-1}(P) = \{a \in A \mid \psi(a) \in P\} = A \cap P$$

The claim is that $\psi^{-1}(P)$ is prime ideal of A .

i. show that $\psi^{-1}(P)$ is an ideal of A :

$0_A \in \psi^{-1}(P)$, since $\psi(0_A) = 0_B \in P$ (since every ideal contains 0).

If $a, b \in \psi^{-1}(P)$, then $\psi(a), \psi(b) \in P$, so

$$\psi(a - b) = \psi(a) - \psi(b) \in P$$

hence $a - b \in \psi^{-1}(P)$.

If $a \in \psi^{-1}(P)$ and $r \in A$, then $\psi(ra) = \psi(r)\psi(a) \in P$, since P is an ideal.

Thus $ra \in \psi^{-1}(P)$.

\implies so ψ^{-1} is an ideal of A .

ii. show that $\psi^{-1}(P)$ is prime:

$\psi^{-1}(P) \neq A$, since if $\psi^{-1}(P) = A$, then $1_A \in \psi^{-1}(P)$, so $\psi(1_A) = 1_B \in P$, which would mean that $P = B$, a contradiction since P is prime ideal of B .

Take $a, b \in A$ with $ab \in \psi^{-1}(P)$; then $\psi(ab) \in P$, and since ψ is a ring homomorphism, $\psi(ab) = \psi(a)\psi(b)$.

Since P prime ideal, then $\psi(a)\psi(b) \in P$ implies either $\psi(a) \in P$ or $\psi(b) \in P$. Thus $a \in \psi^{-1}(P)$ or $b \in \psi^{-1}(P)$.

Hence $\psi^{-1}(P)$ ($= A \cap P$) is a prime ideal of A .

□

Exercise R.1.6. prove or give a counter example:

- a. the intersection of two prime ideals is prime
- b. the ideal $P_1 + P_2$ generated by 2 prime ideals P_1, P_2 is prime
- c. if $\psi : A \rightarrow B$ ring homomorphism, then ψ^{-1} takes maximal ideals of B to maximal ideals of A

Proof. a. let $I = 2\mathbb{Z} = (2)$, $J = 3\mathbb{Z} = (3)$ be ideals of \mathbb{Z} , both prime.

Then $I \cap J = (2) \cap (3) = (6)$.

The ideal (6) is not prime in \mathbb{Z} , since $2 \cdot 3 \in (6)$, but $2 \neq (6)$ and $3 \neq (6)$.

Thus the intersection of two primes can not be prime.

- b. $P_1 = (2)$, $P_2 = (3)$, both prime.

Then,

$$P_1 + P_2 = (2) + (3) = \{a + b \mid a \in P_1, b \in P_2\}$$

→ in a principal ideal domain (like \mathbb{Z}), the sum of two principal ideals is again principal, and given by $(m) + (n) = (\gcd(m, n))$.

(recall: principal= generated by a single element)

So, $P_1 + P_2 = (2) + (3) = (\gcd(2, 3)) = (1) = \mathbb{Z}$.

The whole ring is not a prime ideal (by the definition of the prime ideal), so $P_1 + P_2$ is not a prime ideal.

Henceforth, the sum of two prime ideals is not necessarily prime.

- c. let $A = \mathbb{Z}$, $B = \mathbb{Q}$, $\psi : A \rightarrow B$.

Since \mathbb{Q} is a field, its only maximal ideal is (0) .

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \psi^{-1}((0)) &= (0) \subset \mathbb{Z} \\ \text{ie. } \psi^{-1}(m_B) &= (m_B) \subset A \end{aligned}$$

But (0) is not maximal in \mathbb{Z} , because $\mathbb{Z}/(0) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ is not a field.

Thus the preimages of maximal ideals under arbitrary ring homomorphisms need not be maximal.

□

4.2 Exercises Chapter 2

References

- [1] M. F. Atiyah and I. G. MacDonald. Introduction to Commutative Algebra, 1969.
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- [3] Steven Kleiman. Commutative Algebra - MIT OpenCourseWare, 2008. <https://ocw.mit.edu/courses/18-705-commutative-algebra-fall-2008/>.