# Solution to Atiyah and MacDonald
## Chapter 1. Rings and Ideals

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This is a solution to Exercise problems in Chapter 1 of "Introduction to Commutative Algebra" written by M. F. Atiyah and I. G. MacDonald. You can find the updated version and solutions to other chapters on my personal website: [https://ijhlee0511.github.io].

**WARNNING** This solution is written for self-study purposes and to consolidate my understanding. **I do not take responsibility for any disadvantages resulting from the use of this solution. It is at your own risk.** If you find any typos or errors in this solution, please feel free to contact me via email at [ijhlee0511@gmail.com] or [ijhlee0511@kaist.ac.kr].

## Exercises and Solutions

**1.1.** Let $x$ be a nilpotent element of a ring $A$. Show that $1 + x$ is a unit of $A$. Deduce that the sum of a nilpotent element and a unit is a unit.

***Solution.*** There exists some $n > 0$ such that $x^n = 0$. Then $(1+x) \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-x)^k = 1 + (-x)^n = 1$. Moreover, if $u$ is a unit and $x$ is nilpotent, then $u^{-1}(u + x) = 1 + (u^{-1}x)$ is a sum of 1 and a nilpotent element, so $u + x$ is also unit. □

**1.2.** Let $A$ be a ring and let $A[x]$ be the ring of polynomials in an indeterminate $x$, with coefficients in $A$. Let $f = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_n x_n \in A[x]$. Prove that

  i) $f$ is a unit in $A[x] \Leftrightarrow a_0$ is a unit in $A$ and $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ are nilpotent.
  ii) $f$ is nilpotent $\Leftrightarrow a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n$ are nilpotent.
  iii) $f$ is a zero-divisor $\Leftrightarrow$ there exists $a \neq 0$ in $A$ such that $af = 0$.
  iv) $f$ is said to be *primitive* if $(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) = (1)$. Prove that if $f, g \in A[x]$, then $fg$ is primitive $\Leftrightarrow f$ and $g$ are primitive.

***Solution.*** i) Assume $g(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + \cdots + b_m x^m$ is the inverse of $x$. We claim that $a_n^{r+1} b_{m-r} = 0$ for $0 \leq r \leq m$. Induction on $r$. When $r = 0$, it is clear that $a_n b_m = 0$. For $r > 0$, consider $f^{r+1}g$. Observe the coefficient of $x^{n(r+1)+m-r}$ is $\sum_{i=0}^{r} a_n^{i+1} a_{n-1}^{r-i} b_{m-i}$, which is $a_n^{r+1} b_{m-r}$ by the induction hypothesis. But $f^{r+1}g = f^r = (a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_n x^n)^r$, so $a_n^{r+1} b_{m-r}$ is zero. We get $a_n^m g = 0$ by the claim, so $a_n$ is nilpotent since $g$ is a unit. Then $f - a_n x^n$ is a unit in $A[x]$ by Exercise 1.1. Repeating this process, $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ are all nilpotent, and $a_0$ is a unit in $A$. The opposite direction is a direct consequence of Exercise 1.1.

ii) Assume $f$ is nilpotent. In fact, a sum of any tow nilpotent elements is nilpotent; if $a^n = 0$ and $b^m = 0$ for some $n, m > 0$, $(a + b)^{n+m} = 0$. Notice $a_0$ must be nilpotent, since the constant term of $f^j$ is $a_0^j$ for all $j > 0$. Then $f - a_0$ is also nilpotent. Repeating the same argument repeatedly, $a_{n-r}$ is nilpotent for all $0 \le r \le n$. The opposite direction is clear due to the the fact that a sum of two nilpotent elements is nilpotent. Then $f - a_n x^n$ is a unit in $A[x]$ by Exercise 1.1. Repeating this process, $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ are all nilpotent, and $a_0$ is a unit in $A$. The opposite direction is a direct consequence of Exercise 1.1.

iii) Choose a nonzero polynomial $g = b_0 + b_1 x + \cdots + b_m x^m$ of least degree $m$ such that $fg = 0$ and $b_m \ne 0$. We claim that $a_{n-r} g = 0$ for $0 \le r \le n$ by induction on $r$. For $r = 0$, clearly $a_n b_m = 0$; hence, $a_n g = 0$ because $(a_n g)f = 0$ while $\deg a_n g < m$. In particular, $b_m a_n = 0$. Observe $gf = g(f - a_n x^n) = 0$, so by repeating this process we get $b_m a_n = b_m a_{n-1} = \cdots = b_m a_0 = 0$. Therefore, $b_m g = 0$ where $b_m$ is nonzero by the assumption. The converse direction is obvious.

iv) Let $f = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_n x_n$, $g = b_0 + b_1 x + \cdots + b_m x^m$, and $fg = c_0 + c_1 x + \cdots + c_l x^l$. Since $(c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_l) \subseteq (a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ and $(c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_l) \subseteq (b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_m)$, if $fg$ is primitive, then $f$ and $g$ are primitive. Conversely, suppose $f$ and $g$ are primitive. Since $(c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_l) \subseteq (a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ and $(c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_l) \subseteq (b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_m)$,

$$(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n)(b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_m) \subseteq (c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_l).$$

But $(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n)(b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_m) = (1)(1) = (1)$. $\square$

**1.3.** Generalize the results of Exercise 2 to a polynomial ring $A[x_1, \ldots, x_r]$ in several indeterminates.

*Solution.* We claim following generalized results of Exercise 1.2.

**Claim.** *Let $A$ be a ring and let $A[x_1, \ldots, x_r]$ be the ring of polynomials in an indeterminate $x_1, \ldots, x_r$, with coefficients in $A$. Let*

$$f = \sum_{\underline{i} \in \mathbf{Z}_{\ge 0}^r} a_{\underline{i}} \underline{x} \in A[x_1, \ldots, x_r].$$

*Here, we set $\underline{x}^{\underline{i}} = x_1^{i_1} \cdots x_r^{i_r}$ and $\underline{i} = (i_1, \cdots, i_r)$. Then*

*i) $f$ is a unit in $A[x_1, \ldots, x_r] \Leftrightarrow a_{\underline{0}}$ is a unit in $A$ and $a_{\underline{i}}$ are nilpotent where $\underline{0} = (0, \cdots, 0)$ and $\underline{i} \in \mathbf{Z}_{\ge 0}^r \setminus \{\underline{0}\}$.*

*ii) $f$ is nilpotent $\Leftrightarrow a_{\underline{i}}$ is nilpotent for all $\underline{i} \in \mathbf{Z}_{\ge 0}^r$.*

*iii) $f$ is a zero-divisor $\Leftrightarrow$ there exists $a \ne 0$ in $A$ such that $af = 0$.*

*iv) $f$ is said to be primitive if $(a_{\underline{i}} : \underline{i} \in \mathbf{Z}_{\ge 0}^r) = (1)$. If $f, g \in A[x_1, \ldots, x_r]$, then $fg$ is primitive $\Leftrightarrow f$ and $g$ are primitive.*

Statement (i), (ii), and (iii) of the claim can be shown by tedious repetitions of induction on $r$, identifying $f$ as a polynomial in $A[x_1, \ldots, x_{r-1}][x_r]$; i.e., polynomial ring in an indeterminate $x_r$, with coefficients in $A[x_1, \ldots, x_{r-1}]$. Proof of iv) is just a simple adaptation of the proof of (iv) in Exercise 1.2. $\square$

**1.4.** In the ring $A[x]$, the Jacobson radical is equal to the nilradical.

***Solution.*** Let $\mathfrak{N}$ be the nilradical of $A[x]$ and $\mathfrak{R}$ be the Jacobson radical of $A[x]$. Since every maximal ideal is prime, $\mathfrak{N} \subseteq \mathfrak{R}$. Now consider $f \in \mathfrak{R}$. Then by Proposition 1.9, $1 + fx$ is a unit, so $a_0, a_1, \cdots, a_n$ are all nilpotent, implying $f \in \mathfrak{N}$ by Exercise 1.2. $\qquad\square$

**1.5.** Let $A$ be a ring and let $A[[x]]$ be the ring of formal power series $f = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ with coefficients in $A$. Show that

i) $f$ is a unit in $A[[x]] \Leftrightarrow a_0$ is a unit in $A$.

ii) If $f$ is nilpotent, then $a_n$ is nilpotent for all $n \geqslant 0$. Is the converse true?
(See Chapter 7, Exercise 2.)

iii) $f$ belongs to the Jacobson radical of $A[[x]] \Leftrightarrow a_0$ belongs to the Jacobson radical of $A$.

iv) The contraction of a maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ of $A[[x]]$ is a maximal ideal of $A$, and $\mathfrak{m}$ is generated by $\mathfrak{m}^c$ and $x$.

v) Every prime ideal of $A$ is the contraction of a prime ideal of $A[[x]]$.

***Solution.*** i) Suppose $f$ is a unit, and $g = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} b_m x^m$ is the multiplicative inverse of $f$. Then $a_0 b_0 = 1$, so $a_0$ is a unit in $A$. Conversely, suppose $a_0$ is a unit. Let

$$b_n = \begin{cases} a_0^{-1}, & \text{if } n = 0; \\ -a_0^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j b_{n-j}, & \text{if } n > 0. \end{cases}$$

Then $g = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} b_m x^m$ is the multiplicative inverse of $f$, so $f$ is a unit in $A[[x]]$.

ii) Induction on $n$. Assume $f^m = 0$ for some $m > 0$. Then $a_0^m = 0$, so $a_0$ is nilpotent. For $n > 0$, $f - a_0 - a_1 x - \cdots - a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$ is nilpotent by the induction hypothesis and Exercise 1.2, so $a_n$ is also nilpotent.

The converse is not true in general. Let $A = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbf{Z}/2^i\mathbf{Z}$ and consider the projection $\pi_i : A \twoheadrightarrow \mathbf{Z}/2^i\mathbf{Z}$. There is an element $a_i \in A$ such that $\pi_i(a_i) = 2 \in \mathbf{Z}/2^i\mathbf{Z}$ for each $i$, and $p_j(a_i) = 0 \in \mathbf{Z}/2^j\mathbf{Z}$ for every $j \neq i$. Then $a_i^i = 0$ for all $i > 0$, so $a_i$ is nilpotent. However, the formal power series $f = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i$ is not nilpotent, since there is no finite $m > 0$ such that $f^m = 0$.

iii) If $f$ belongs to the Jacobson radical of $A[[x]]$, then $1 + bf$ is a unit in $A[[x]]$ for any $b \in A$. By $(i)$, it implies $1 + ba_0$ is a unit in $A$ for any $b \in A$, so $a_0$ is in the Jacobson radical of $A$. Conversely, suppose $a_0$ belongs to the Jacobson radical of $A$. Then for any $g = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} b_m x^m \in A[[x]]$, $1 + gf$ is a unit in $A[[x]]$; equivalently, $1 + b_0 a_0$ is a unit in $A$ by (i). Because the choice of $g$ is arbitrary, this completes the proof.

iv) For any $f \in A[[x]]$, $1 + xf$ is a unit by (i), so $(x)$ is contained by every maximal ideal of $A[[x]]$. Let $\pi : A[[x]] \twoheadrightarrow A[[x]]/(x)$ be the natural projection. Notice there is a natural isomorphism $A[[x]]/(x) \xrightarrow{\sim} A$ given by $a_0 + (x) \mapsto a_0$ for each $a_0 \in A$, and the composition $A \hookrightarrow A[[x]] \twoheadrightarrow A[[x]]/(x) \xrightarrow{\sim} A$ is actually the identity map on $A$. Let $\mathfrak{m}$ be a maximal ideal of $A[[x]]$. Since $\mathfrak{m}$. contains $(x)$, the projection $\pi' : A[[x]] \twoheadrightarrow A[[x]]/(x) \xrightarrow{\sim} A$ sends it to a maximal ideal of $A$. However, it is the image of $\mathfrak{m}^c$ via the identity on $A$, so $\mathfrak{m}^c$ is a maximal ideal of $A$. The preimage of $\mathfrak{m}^c \subseteq A$ via $\pi'$ is $\mathfrak{m}^c + (x)$. However, $\pi'(\mathfrak{m})$ is $\mathfrak{m}^c$, so $\mathfrak{m} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}^c + (x)$. Since $\mathfrak{m}^c \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$ and $(x) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$, this shows $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}^c + (x)$.

v) Under the same setting with the solution of (iv), recall $A \hookrightarrow A[[x]] \twoheadrightarrow A[[x]]/(x) \xrightarrow{\sim} A$ is the identity map on $A$. Let $\mathfrak{p}$ be a prime ideal of $A$. Then the preimage of $\mathfrak{p}$ via the projection $\pi' : A[[x]] \twoheadrightarrow A[[x]]/(x) \xrightarrow{\sim} A$ is also prime in $A[[x]]$. Then $\mathfrak{p}$ is the contraction of $(\pi')^{-1}(\mathfrak{p})$. $\qquad\square$

**1.6.** A ring $A$ is such that every ideal not contained in the nilradical contains a nonzero idempotent (that is, an element $e$ such that $e^2 = e \neq 0$). Prove that the nilradical and Jacobson radical of $A$ are equal.

***Solution.*** Since every maximal ideal is prime, the Jacobson radical $\mathfrak{R}$ of $A$ always contains the nilradical $\mathfrak{N}$ of $A$. If $A$ is a zero ring, then the statement holds vacuously, so assume $1 \neq 0$. If $\mathfrak{R} \not\subseteq \mathfrak{N}$, then there exists a nonzero idempotent element $e$ in $\mathfrak{R}$. Since $e(1 - e)$, $1 - e$ is a zero divisor; however, $1 - e$ must be a unit in $A$ by Proposition 1.9, a contradiction. $\square$

**1.7.** Let $A$ be a ring in which every element $x$ satisfies $x^n = x$ for some $n > 1$ (depending on $x$). Show that every prime ideal in $A$ is maximal.

***Solution.*** Let $\mathfrak{p}$ be a prime ideal of $A$. It suffices to show that $(y) + \mathfrak{p} = A$ for any $y \in A \setminus \mathfrak{p}$. For some $m > 1$, we have $y^m = y$, so $y(y^{m-1} - 1) = 0$. Since $\mathfrak{p}$ contains 0, it follows $y^{m-1} - 1 = x$ for some $x \in \mathfrak{p}$. Therefore, $1 = y^{m-1} - x \in (y) + \mathfrak{p}$. This ends the proof. $\square$

**1.8.** Let $A$ be a ring $\neq 0$. Show that the set of prime ideals of $A$ has minimal elements with respect to inclusion.

***Solution.*** Let $\mathscr{P}$ be a collection of all prime ideals of $A$, and suppose $\mathscr{C}$ is a totally ordered collection of prime ideals in $A$ with respect to inclusion. Assume $xy \in \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \mathscr{C}} \mathfrak{p}$ for some $x, y \in A$. We claim that either $x \in \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \mathscr{C}} \mathfrak{p}$ or $y \in \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \mathscr{C}} \mathfrak{p}$. If not, then there are some $\mathfrak{p}_1, \mathfrak{p}_2 \in \mathscr{C}$ such that $x \notin \mathfrak{p}_1$ and $y \notin \mathfrak{p}_2$. Since $\mathscr{C}$ is totally ordered with respect to inclusion, we may say $\mathfrak{p}_1 \subseteq \mathfrak{p}_2$. If follows that $y \notin \mathfrak{p}_1$, a contradiction since $xy \in \mathfrak{p}_1$. Therefore, $\bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \mathscr{C}} \mathfrak{p}$ is a prime ideal in $A$, and it is the lower bound for $\mathscr{C}$ in $\mathscr{P}$. As a result, assuming Zorn's lemma, $\mathscr{P}$ has a minimal element. $\square$

**1.9.** Let $\mathfrak{a}$ be an ideal $\neq (1)$ in a ring $A$. Show that $\mathfrak{a} = r(\mathfrak{a}) \Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{a}$ is an intersection of prime ideals.

***Solution.*** If $\mathfrak{a} = r(\mathfrak{a})$, then $\mathfrak{a}$ is the intersection of prime ideals containing $\mathfrak{a}$ by Proposition 1.14. Conversely, suppose $\mathfrak{a} = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \mathscr{C}} \mathfrak{p}$ for some collection $\mathscr{C}$ of prime ideals. Observe $r\left(\bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \mathscr{C}} \mathfrak{p}\right) = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \mathscr{C}} \mathfrak{p}$; $x^n \in \mathfrak{p}$ implies $x \in \mathfrak{p}$ for each $\mathfrak{p} \in \mathscr{C}$. This completes the proof. $\square$

**1.10.** Let $A$ be a ring, $\mathfrak{N}$ its nilradical. Show that the following are equivalent:

i) $A$ has exactly one prime ideal;
ii) every element of $A$ is either a unit or nilpotent;
iii) $A/\mathfrak{N}$ is a field.

***Solution.*** [i) $\Rightarrow$ ii)] Let $\mathfrak{m}$ be the unique prime (hence, maximal) ideal of $A$. If $x \in A$ is not a unit, then there is some maximal ideal containing $x$; however, the maximal ideal must be $\mathfrak{m}$. Since $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{N}$ by the assumption, it follows that every element of $A$ is either a unit or nilpotent.

[ii) $\Rightarrow$ iii)] By the assumption, $\mathfrak{N}$ is maximal, because any ideal containing $\mathfrak{N}$ is either $\mathfrak{N}$ or $A$.

[iii) $\Rightarrow$ i)] Since $\mathfrak{N}$ is the intersection of all prime ideals, $\mathfrak{N}$ becomes the unique prime ideal of $A$. $\square$

**1.11.** A ring $A$ is *Boolean* if $x^2 = x$ for all $x \in A$. In a Boolean ring $A$, show that

  i) $2x = 0$ for all $x \in A$;
  ii) every prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$ is maximal, and $A/\mathfrak{p}$ is a field with two elements;
  iii) every finitely generated ideal in $A$ is principal.

***Solution.*** i) For any $x \in A$, $2x = (2x)^2 = 2x^2 + 2x = 4x$, so $2x = 0$.

ii) By Exercise 7, every prime ideal is maximal. Suppose $y \in A$ is not in $\mathfrak{p}$. Since $y(y-1) = 0$ and $\mathfrak{p}$ contains 0, $\mathfrak{p}$ contains $y - 1$. Therefore, $y = 1 + x$ for some $x \in \mathfrak{p}$, implying that $A/\mathfrak{p}$ consists of $\mathfrak{p}$ and $1 + \mathfrak{p}$.

iii) It suffices to show every ideal generated by two elements is principal. Consider $(x, y)$ for $x, y \in A$. Surprisingly, for any $a, b \in A$, we have $ax + by = (ax + by)(x + y + xy)$, so $(x, y) = (x + y + xy)$. □

**1.12.** A local ring contains no idempotent $\neq 0, 1$

***Solution.*** Suppose a local ring $A$ with the maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ has an idempotent $e$, which is neither 0 nor 1 (implying $A$ is nonzero). Notice $e$ is a zero divisor, for $e(1 - e) = 0$. Therefore the unique maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ must contains $e$. By Proposition 1.9, $1 - e$ must be a unit in $A$, since the Jacobson radical of $A$ is just $\mathfrak{m}$. However, it is a contradiction for a zero divisor to be a unit. □

**1.13.** Let $K$ be a field and let $\Sigma$ be the set of all irreducible monic polynomials $f$ in one indeterminate with coefficients in $K$. Let $A$ be the polynomial ring over $K$ generated by indeterminates $x_f$, one for each $f \in \Sigma$. Let $\mathfrak{a}$ be the ideal of $A$ generated by the polynomials $f(x_f)$ for all $f \in \Sigma$. Show that $\mathfrak{a} \neq (1)$.

Let $\mathfrak{m}$ be a maximal ideal of $A$ containing $\mathfrak{a}$, and let $K_1 = A/\mathfrak{m}$. Then $K_1$ is an extension field of $K$ in which each $f \in \Sigma$ has a root. Repeat the construction with $K_1$ in place of $K$, obtaining a field $K_2$, and so on. Let $L = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$. Then $L$ is a field in which each $f \in \Sigma$ splits completely into linear factors. Let $\bar{K}$ be the set of all elements of $L$ which are algebraic over $K$. Then $\bar{K}$ is an algebraic closure of $K$.

***Solution.*** Suppose $\mathfrak{a} = (1)$. There there exist some $f_1, \ldots, f_n \in \Sigma$ and $g_1, \ldots, g_n \in A$ such that

$$g_1 f_1(x_{f_1}) + \cdots + g_n f_n(x_{f_n}) = 1.$$

Write $x_i$ instead of $x_{f_i}$. The polynomials $g_i$'s involve only finitely many variables, so we can regard them as polynomials of $x_1, \ldots, x_N$ for some sufficiently large $N \geq n$. Now we have

$$g_1(x_1, \ldots, x_N) f_1(x_1) + \cdots + g_n(x_1, \ldots, x_N) f_n(x_n) = 1$$

By the basic field theory, there is a finite field extension $K'$ so that $\alpha_i \in K'$ is a root for each $f_i$. Let $x_i = \alpha_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $x_{n+1} = \cdots = x_N = 0$. Then we get a contradiction; $0 = 1$. □

**1.14.** In a ring $A$, let $\Sigma$ be the set of all ideals in which every element is a zero-divisor. Show that the set $\Sigma$ has maximal elements and that every maximal element of $\Sigma$ is a prime ideal. Hence the set of zero-divisors in $A$ is a union of prime ideals[1].

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[1]In Antiyah-Macdonald, 0 is also a zero divisor.

***Solution.*** For any given $\mathfrak{b} \in \Sigma$, let $\Pi$ be a totally ordered subset of $\Sigma$ with respect to inclusion, in which every element contains $\mathfrak{b}$. Then $\bigcup_{\mathfrak{a} \in \Pi} \mathfrak{a}$ is clearly an ideal consisting of zero divisors, which is an upper bound for every element in $\Pi$. Assuming Zorn's lemma, $\Sigma$ has a maximal element containing $\mathfrak{b}$.

We claim that maximal elements of $\Sigma$ are prime. Firstly, observe product of non-zero divisors is also non-zero divisor. Suppose $ab$ is a zero divisor for some non-zero divisors $a, b \in A$. Then there exists some non-zero $c$ so that $abc = 0$. Since $a$ is a non-zero divisor, $bc = 0$, which is a contradiction since $b$ is a non-zero divisor. Now, let $\mathfrak{p}$ be a maximal element of $\Sigma$, and suppose there exist $x, y \in A \setminus \mathfrak{p}$ such that $xy$ is in $\mathfrak{p}$. By the maximality of $\mathfrak{p}$, there are some $p, q \in \mathfrak{p}$ and $a, b \in A$ so that both $p + ax$ and $q + by$ are non-zero divisor. However, $(p + ax)(q + by)$ is in $\mathfrak{p}$, which contradicts the previous observation that non-zero divisors are multiplicatively closed. $\qquad\square$

**1.15.** Let $A$ be a ring and let $X$ be the set of all prime ideals of $A$. For each subset $E$ of $A$, let $V(E)$ denote the set of all prime ideals of $A$ which contain $E$. Prove that

   i) if $\mathfrak{a}$ is the ideal generated by $E$, then $V(E) = V(\mathfrak{a}) = V(r(\mathfrak{a}))$.

   ii) $V(0) = X, V(1) = \emptyset$.

   iii) if $(E_i)_{i \in I}$ is any family of subsets of $A$, then

$$V\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} E_i\right) = \bigcap_{i \in I} V(E_i).$$

   iv) $V(\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}) = V(\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}) = V(\mathfrak{a}) \cup V(\mathfrak{b})$ for any ideals $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b}$ of $A$.

These results show that the sets $V(E)$ satisfy the axioms for closed sets in a topological space. The resulting topology is called the *Zariski topology*. The topological space $X$ is called the *prime spectrum* of $A$, and is written $\mathrm{Spec}(A)$.

***Solution.*** i) Clearly, $V(E) \supseteq V(\mathfrak{a}) \supseteq V(r(\mathfrak{a}))$, because $E \subseteq \mathfrak{a} \subseteq r(\mathfrak{a})$. Suppose $\mathfrak{p} \in V(E)$. Then, $E \subseteq \mathfrak{p}$ implies $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{p}$, so $\mathfrak{p} \in V(\mathfrak{a})$. Assume $\mathfrak{q} \in V(\mathfrak{a})$. Since $\mathfrak{q} \supseteq \mathfrak{a}$, $\mathfrak{q} = r(\mathfrak{q}) \supseteq r(\mathfrak{a})$. As a result, $V(E) \subseteq V(\mathfrak{a}) \subseteq V(r(\mathfrak{a}))$.

ii) It is trivial.

iii) Suppose $\mathfrak{p} \in V\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} E_i\right)$. Then, $E_i \subseteq \mathfrak{p}$ for each $i \in I$, so $\mathfrak{p} \in \bigcap_{i \in I} V(E_i)$. Conversely, suppose $\mathfrak{q} \in \bigcap_{i \in I} V(E_i)$. Since $\mathfrak{q} \supseteq E_i$ for each $i \in I$, $\mathfrak{q} \supseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} E_i$, so $\mathfrak{q} \in V\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} E_i\right)$.

iv) Since $r(\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}) = r(\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b})$, $V(\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}) = V(r(\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b})) = V(r(\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b})) = V(\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b})$ by Exercise 1.13 of the main text. Suppose $\mathfrak{a} \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p}$ and $\mathfrak{b} \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p}$ for some prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$. By Proposition 1.11, $\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}$ is not contained in $\mathfrak{p}$. Therefore, $V(\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}) = V(\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}) \subseteq V(\mathfrak{a}) \cup V(\mathfrak{b})$. The reverse inclusion is trivial. $\qquad\square$

**1.16.** Draw pictures of $\mathrm{Spec}(\mathbf{Z})$, $\mathrm{Spec}(\mathbf{R})$, $\mathrm{Spec}(\mathbf{C}[x])$, $\mathrm{Spec}(\mathbf{R}[x])$, $\mathrm{Spec}(\mathbf{Z}[x])$.

***Solution.*** Omitted. $\qquad\square$

**1.17.** For each $f \in A$, let $X_f$ denote the complement of $V(f)$ in $X = \mathrm{Spec}(A)$. The sets $X_f$ are open. Show that they form a basis of open sets for the Zariski topology, and that

   i) $X_f \cap X_g = X_{fg}$;

ii) $X_f = \emptyset \iff f$ is nilpotent;

iii) $X_f = X \iff f$ is a unit;

iv) $X_f = X_g \iff r\big((f)\big) = r\big((g)\big)$;

v) $X$ is quasi-compact (that is, every open covering of $X$ has a finite sub-covering).

vi) More generally, each $X_f$ is quasi-compact.

vii) An open subset of $X$ is quasi-compact if and only if it is a finite union of sets $X_f$.

***Solution.*** For any $\mathfrak{p} \in \mathrm{Spec}(A)$, $\mathfrak{p}$ is a proper ideal of $A$, so there exists some $f \in A$ not in $\mathfrak{p}$, and hence $\mathfrak{p} \in X_f$. Now suppose $\mathfrak{q} \in X_f \cap X_g$ for $f, g \in A$. Since $f \notin \mathfrak{q}$ and $g \notin \mathfrak{q}$, $fg \notin \mathfrak{q}$, so $\mathfrak{q} \in X_{fg}$. Moreover, for any $\mathfrak{p} \in X_{fg}$, $fg \notin \mathfrak{p}$, and therefore $f \notin \mathfrak{p}$ and $g \notin \mathfrak{q}$. As a result, $\mathfrak{q} \in X_{fg} = X_f \cap X_g$, and $\{X_f : f \in A\}$ forms a basis of open sets for the Zariski topology.

i) We have proven it already.

ii) By Proposition 1.8, it is obvious.

iii) $X_f = X$ if and only if every prime ideal does not contain $f$. By (1.5), every non-unit of $A$ is contained in a maximal ideal, so $X_f = X$ if and only if $f$ is a unit.

iv) $X_f = X_g$ if and only if $V(f) = V(g)$. By Proposition 1.14, the radicals of $(f)$ and $(g)$ are the intersections of the prime ideals which contain $f$ and $g$, respectively, implying $r((f)) = r((g))$. Conversely, suppose $r(f) = r(g)$. Then,

$$V(f) = V(r(f)) = V(r(g)) = V(g),$$

by Exercise 1.15, so $X_f = X_g$.

v) Suppose $X = \bigcup_{i \in I}(X \setminus V(E_i))$ for some family of subsets $\{E_i\}_{i \in I}$ of $A$. Then,

$$\bigcap_{i \in I} V(E_i) = V\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} E_i\right) = \emptyset,$$

by Exercise 1.15. Therefore, $A \bigcup_{i \in I} E_i = (1)$ (that is, the ideal generated by $\bigcup_{i \in I} E_i$ is $A$); otherwise, there exists some maximal ideal containing $\bigcup_{i \in I} E_i$ by Proposition 1.4. As a result, we can choose elements $E_1, E_2, \cdots, E_n$ of $\{E_i\}_{i \in I}$ such that

$$x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2 + \cdots + x_m e_m = 1$$

where $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_m \in A$ and $e_1, \ldots, e_m \in \bigcup_{j=1}^n E_j$ for $1 \leq j \leq n$. Now $\{X \setminus V(E_j)\}_{j=1}^n$ is a finite sub-covering of $X$.

vi) First we claim that $V(E) \subseteq V(F)$ if and only if $r(AE) \supseteq r(AF)$ for subsets $E, F$ of $A$. Since the radicals of $AE$ and $AF$ are the intersections of the prime ideals which contain $E$ and $F$ respectively, the forward direction is obvious. The opposite direction is also clear, since $V(E) = V(r(AE)) \subseteq V(r(AF)) = V(F)$ by Exercise 1.15.

Assume $X_f \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I}(X \setminus V(E_i))$ for some family of subsets $\{E_i\}_{i \in I}$ of $A$. Equivalently,

$$V(f) \supseteq \bigcap_{i \in I} V(E_i) = V\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} E_i\right);$$

that is,

$$(f) \subseteq r(f) \subseteq r\left(A \bigcup_{i \in I} E_i\right).$$

Then we can choose elements $E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_n$ of $\{E_i\}_{i \in I}$ such that $f^l = x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2 + \cdots + x_m e_m$ for some $l > 0, x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_m \in A$ and $e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_m \in \bigcup_{j=1}^{n} E_j$, so that $(f) \subseteq r(A \bigcup_j^n E_j)$. Therefore $X_f \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^{n}(X \setminus V(E_j))$.

vii) Since $X_f$ is quasi-compact, if an open subset $U$ of $X$ is a finite union of sets of the form $X_f$, then clearly $U$ is quasi-compact. Conversely, assume $U$ is quasi-compact. Since $X_f$ forms a basis for the Zariski topology, $U$ can be expressed as the union of some subfamily of $\{X_f\}_{f \in A}$. Consequently, $U$ is a finite union of sets of the form $X_f$. $\qquad\square$

**1.18.** For psychological reasons it is sometimes convenient to denote a prime ideal of $A$ by a letter such as $x$ or $y$ when thinking of it as a point of $X = \text{Spec}(A)$. When thinking of $x$ as a prime ideal of $A$, we denote it by $\mathfrak{p}_x$ (logically, of course, it is the same thing). Show that

   i) the set $\{x\}$ is closed (we say that $x$ is a "closed point") in $\text{Spec}(A) \Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{p}_x$ is maximal;

   ii) $\overline{\{x\}} = V(\mathfrak{p}_x)$;

   iii) $y \in \overline{\{x\}} \iff \mathfrak{p}_x \subseteq \mathfrak{p}_y$;

   iv) $X$ is a $T_0$-space (this means that if $x, y$ are distinct points of $X$, then either there is a neighborhood of $x$ which does not contain $y$, or else there is a neighborhood of $y$ which does not contain $x$).

***Solution.*** i) Suppose $\{x\}$ is closed. Then there exists some maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ of $A$ containing $\mathfrak{p}_x$. However, $\{x\}$ is singleton, so $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{p}_x$. Conversely, if $\mathfrak{p}_x$ is maximal, then trivially $\{x\} = V(\mathfrak{p}_x)$.

ii) If $x \in V(E)$ for some $E \subseteq A$, then any prime ideal containing $\mathfrak{p}_x$ also belongs to $V(E)$; therefore $V(\mathfrak{p}_x) \subseteq V(E)$. Since $V(\mathfrak{p}_x)$ is contained by every closed set containing $x$ and it is closed itself, we get $\overline{\{x\}} = V(\mathfrak{p}_x)$.

iii) $y \in \overline{\{x\}} = V(\mathfrak{p}_x)$ if and only if $\mathfrak{p}_y \supseteq \mathfrak{p}_x$ by the definition.

iv) Without loss of generality, assume $\mathfrak{p}_x \subsetneq \mathfrak{p}_y$. Then $\mathfrak{p}_y \notin V(\mathfrak{p}_x)$, so $\mathfrak{p}_y \in X \setminus V(\mathfrak{p}_x)$ and $\mathfrak{p}_x \notin X \setminus V(\mathfrak{p}_x)$. $\qquad\square$

**1.19.** A topological space $X$ is said to be *irreducible* if $X \neq \emptyset$ and if every pair of non-empty open sets in $X$ intersect, or equivalently if every non-empty open set is dense in $X$. Show that $\text{Spec}(A)$ is irreducible if and only if the nilradical of $A$ is a prime ideal.

***Solution.*** For any ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ and $\mathfrak{b}$ of $A$, if $X \setminus V(\mathfrak{a}) \neq \emptyset$ and $X \setminus V(\mathfrak{b}) \neq \emptyset$, then $(X \setminus V(\mathfrak{a})) \cap (X \setminus V(\mathfrak{b})) = \emptyset \Leftrightarrow$ if $V(\mathfrak{a}) \neq \text{Spec}(A)$ and $V(\mathfrak{b}) \neq \text{Spec}(A)$, then $V(\mathfrak{a}) \cup V(\mathfrak{b}) = V(\mathfrak{ab}) \neq \text{Spec}(A) \Leftrightarrow$ if $\mathfrak{a} \nsubseteq \mathfrak{N}$ and $\mathfrak{b} \nsubseteq \mathfrak{N}$, then $\mathfrak{ab} \nsubseteq \mathfrak{N} \Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{N}$ is prime. $\qquad\square$

**1.20.** Let $X$ be a topological space.

   i) If $Y$ is an irreducible (Exercise 19) subspace of $X$, then the closure $\overline{Y}$ of $Y$ in $X$ is irreducible.

   ii) Every irreducible subspace of $X$ is contained in a maximal irreducible subspace.

   iii) The maximal irreducible subspaces of $X$ are closed and cover $X$. They are called the *irreducible components* of $X$. What are the irreducible components of a Hausdorff space?

   iv) If $A$ is a ring and $X = \text{Spec}(A)$, then the irreducible components of $X$ are the closed sets $V(\mathfrak{p})$, where $\mathfrak{p}$ is a minimal prime ideal of $A$ (Exercise 8).

**Solution.** i) Let $U_1$, $U_2$ be open set of $X$. If $Y \cap U_1 = \emptyset$, then $U_1$ contains no limit point of $Y$; hence, $\overline{Y} \cap U_1 = \emptyset$. Therefore, if $\overline{Y} \cap U_1 \neq \emptyset$ and $\overline{Y} \cap U_2 \neq \emptyset$, then $Y \cap U_1 \neq \emptyset$ and $Y \cap U_2 \neq \emptyset$. Since $Y$ is irreducible, we get $Y \cap (U_1 \cap U_2) \neq \emptyset$, so $\overline{Y} \cap (U_1 \cap U_2) \neq \emptyset$. This shows $\overline{Y}$ is also irreducible.

ii) Let $\mathscr{I}$ be a collection of all irreducible subspaces of $X$ containing an irreducible subspace $I \subseteq X$, and $\mathscr{C}$ be a totally ordered collection of irreducible subspaces in $\mathscr{I}$ with respect to inclusion. Suppose there are two disjoint nonempty open sets $U_1$ and $U_2$ of $\bigcup_{Y \in \mathscr{C}} Y$. Since $U_1$ is nonempty, there is some $Y_1 \in \mathscr{C}$ so that $U_1 \cap Y_1 \neq \emptyset$. Similarly, there exists $Y_2 \in \mathscr{C}$ such that $U_2 \cap Y_2 \neq \emptyset$. Because $\mathscr{C}$ is totally ordered, we may say $Y_1 \subseteq Y_2$. Then $Y_2 \cap U_1$ and $Y_2 \cap U_2$ are two disjoint nonempty open sets of $Y_2$, a contradiction for $Y_2$ to be irreducible. Therefore, $\bigcup_{Y \in \mathscr{C}} Y$ is also irreducible, and hence it is an upper bound for $\mathscr{C}$. Assuming Zorn's lemma, this shows $I$ is contained in a maximal irreducible subspace.

iii) By (i), maximal irreducible subspaces of $X$ are closed. Since one-point sets are clearly irreducible, every single point of $X$ is contained in some maximal irreducible subspace by (ii); hence, it covers $X$. Now suppose $X$ is Hausdorff. For any given subset $Y \subseteq X$, if $Y$ has at least two points $x_1$ and $x_2$, then there are two disjoint open sets $U_1$ and $U_2$ of $X$ so that $x_1 \in U_1 \cap Y$ and $x_2 \in U_2 \cap Y$. Therefore, the irreducible components of a Hausdorff space are singletons.

iv) We claim that closed irreducible subspaces of $X$ are exactly the closed sets $V(\mathfrak{q})$, where $\mathfrak{q}$ is a prime ideal of $A$. Since $\{\mathfrak{q}\}$ is a singleton subset of $\mathrm{Spec}(A)$, it is irreducible; hence, its closure $\overline{\{\mathfrak{q}\}} = V(\mathfrak{q})$ is also irreducible by (i) and Exercise 1.18. Conversely, suppose $V(\mathfrak{a})$ is irreducible for given ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ of $A$. We may say $\mathfrak{a} = r(\mathfrak{a})$. If $\mathfrak{a}$ is not prime, then there are $b, c \in A \setminus \mathfrak{a}$ such that $bc \in \mathfrak{a}$. Then, $V(\mathfrak{a}) \supsetneq V(\mathfrak{a} + (b))$ and $V(\mathfrak{a}) \supsetneq V(\mathfrak{a} + (c))$, since $r(\mathfrak{a}) \neq r(\mathfrak{a} + (b))$ and $r(\mathfrak{a}) \neq r(\mathfrak{a} + (c))$. However, $V(\mathfrak{a}) \subseteq V(\mathfrak{a} + (b)) \cup V(\mathfrak{a} + (c))$, and hence $V(\mathfrak{a}) \setminus V(\mathfrak{a} + (b))$ and $V(\mathfrak{a}) \setminus V(\mathfrak{a} + (c))$ are two nonempty disjoin open sets of $V(\mathfrak{a})$, a contradiction. As a result, the claim implies the irreducible components of $X$ are exactly $V(\mathfrak{p})$, where $\mathfrak{p}$ is a minimal prime ideal of $A$. $\qquad\square$

**1.21.** Let $\phi : A \to B$ be a ring homomorphism. Let $X = \mathrm{Spec}(A)$ and $Y = \mathrm{Spec}(B)$. If $\mathfrak{q} \in Y$, then $\phi^{-1}(\mathfrak{q})$ is a prime ideal of $A$, i.e., a point of $X$. Hence $\phi$ induces a mapping $\phi^* : Y \to X$. Show that

i) If $f \in A$ then $\phi^{*-1}(X_f) = Y_{\phi(f)}$, and hence that $\phi^*$ is continuous.

ii) If $\mathfrak{a}$ is an ideal of $A$, then $\phi^{*-1}(V(\mathfrak{a})) = V(\mathfrak{a}^e)$

iii) If $\mathfrak{b}$ is an ideal of $B$, then $\overline{\phi^*(V(\mathfrak{b}))} = V(\mathfrak{b}^c)$.

iv) If $\phi$ is surjective, then $\phi^*$ is a homeomorphism of $Y$ onto the closed subset $V(\mathrm{Ker}(\phi))$ of $X$. (In particular, $\mathrm{Spec}(A)$ and $\mathrm{Spec}(A/\mathfrak{N})$ (where $\mathfrak{N}$ is the nilradical of $A$) are naturally homeomorphic.)

v) If $\phi$ is injective, then $\phi^*(Y)$ is dense in $X$. More precisely, $\phi^*(Y)$ is dense in $X \Leftrightarrow \mathrm{Ker}(\phi) \subseteq \mathfrak{N}$.

vi) Let $\psi : B \to C$ be another ring homomorphism. Then $(\psi \circ \phi)^* = \phi^* \circ \psi^*$.

vii) Let $A$ be an integral domain with just one non-zero prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$, and let $K$ be the field of fractions of $A$. Let $B = (A/\mathfrak{p}) \times K$. Define $\phi : A \to B$ by $\phi(x) = (\bar{x}, x)$, where $\bar{x}$ is the image of $x$ in $A/\mathfrak{p}$. Show that $\phi^*$ is bijective but not a homeomorphism.

***Solution.*** i) Notice $\mathfrak{q} \in \phi^{*-1}(X_f) \Leftrightarrow \phi^*(\mathfrak{q}) \in X_f \Leftrightarrow \phi^{-1}(\mathfrak{q}) \in X_f \Leftrightarrow f \notin \phi^{-1}(\mathfrak{q}) \Leftrightarrow \phi(f) \notin \mathfrak{q} \Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{q} \in Y_{\phi(f)}$, so $\phi^{*-1}(X_f) = Y_{\phi(f)}$. Because $X_f$ forms a basis for the Zariski topology, $\phi^*$ is continuous.

ii) Observe $\mathfrak{p} \in \phi^{*-1}(V(\mathfrak{a})) \Leftrightarrow \phi^*(\mathfrak{p}) \in V(\mathfrak{a}) \Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{a} \subseteq \phi^*(\mathfrak{p}) \Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{a} \subseteq \phi^{-1}(\mathfrak{p}) \Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{a}^e \subseteq \mathfrak{p} \Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{p} \in V(\mathfrak{a}^e)$.

iii) Notice $\phi^*(V(\mathfrak{b}))$ consists of $\mathfrak{q}^c$ where $\mathfrak{q} \subseteq B$ is a prime ideal containing $\mathfrak{b}$. Since $\mathfrak{b} \subseteq \mathfrak{q}$ implies $\mathfrak{b}^c \subseteq \mathfrak{q}^c$, we get $\phi^*(V(\mathfrak{b})) \subseteq V(\mathfrak{b}^c)$. To show $V(\mathfrak{b}^c)$ is actually the smallest closed set containing $\phi^*(V(\mathfrak{b}))$, suppose $\phi^*(V(\mathfrak{b})) \subseteq V(\mathfrak{a})$ for some ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ of $A$. Then $V(\mathfrak{b}) \subseteq \phi^{*-1}(V(\mathfrak{a})) = V(\mathfrak{a}^e)$, so $r(\mathfrak{b}) \supseteq r(\mathfrak{a}^e)$. However, $r(\mathfrak{b}^c) = r(\mathfrak{b})^c \supseteq r(\mathfrak{a}^e)^c = r(\mathfrak{a}^{ec}) \supseteq r(\mathfrak{a})$, and hence $V(\mathfrak{b}^c) \subseteq V(\mathfrak{a})$.

iv) For $\mathfrak{p}, \mathfrak{q} \in Y$, suppose $\phi^*(\mathfrak{p}) = \phi^*(\mathfrak{q})$. Then $\phi^{-1}(\mathfrak{p}) = \phi^{-1}(\mathfrak{q})$, and hence $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{q}$ by the surjectivity of $\phi$. Therefore, $\phi^*$ is injective. Now prove the following claim.

**Claim.** *Let $\phi : A \to B$ be a surjective ring homomorphism. If $\mathfrak{a}$ is an ideal of $A$, then $\phi(\mathfrak{a})$ is also an ideal of $B$. Moreover, if $\mathfrak{a}$ is a prime containing $\mathrm{Ker}(\phi)$, then $\phi(\mathfrak{a})$ is also prime.*

*Proof.* For any $y \in B$, $\phi(x) = y$ for some $x \in A$. Then $y\phi(\mathfrak{a}) = \phi(x)\phi(\mathfrak{a}) = \phi(x\mathfrak{a}) \subseteq \phi(\mathfrak{a})$. Now assume $\mathfrak{a}$ is a prime ideal of $A$. Then $\bar{\phi} : A/\mathfrak{a} \to B/\phi(\mathfrak{a})$ defined by $x + \mathfrak{a} \mapsto \phi(x) + \phi(\mathfrak{a})$ is a ring isomorphism, for it is clearly surjective, and $\phi(x) \in \phi(\mathfrak{p})$ implies $x \in \mathfrak{a} + \mathrm{Ker}(\phi) = \mathfrak{a}$. Therefore, $B/\phi(\mathfrak{p})$ is an integral domain, so $\phi(\mathfrak{a})$ is prime in $B$. $\square$

Assume $\mathfrak{p}$ is a prime ideal of $A$ containing $\mathrm{Ker}(\phi)$; that is, $\mathfrak{p} \in V(\mathrm{Ker}(\phi))$. Then $\phi(\mathfrak{p})$ is prime in $B$ by the claim, so $\mathfrak{p}$ is a preimage of some prime in $Y$, implying $V(\mathrm{Ker}(\phi)) \subseteq \phi^*(Y)$. Since every prime ideal contains $0$, the opposite inclusion is trivial.

Finally, let's show $\phi^* : Y \to V(\mathrm{Ker}(\phi))$ is a closed map. For any ideal $\mathfrak{b}$ of $Y$, we claim that $\phi^*(V(\mathfrak{b})) = V(\mathrm{Ker}(\phi)) \cap V(\mathfrak{b}^c)$. If a prime ideal $\mathfrak{q}$ in $B$ contains $\mathfrak{b}$, then clearly $\mathfrak{q}^c$ contains $\mathfrak{b}^c$ and $\mathrm{Ker}(\phi)$, so $\phi^*(V(\mathfrak{b})) \subseteq V(\mathrm{Ker}(\phi)) \cap V(\mathfrak{b}^c)$. For the opposite inclusion, notice $V(\mathrm{Ker}(\phi)) \cap V(\mathfrak{b}^c) = V(\mathrm{Ker}(\phi) + \mathfrak{b}^c) = V(\mathfrak{b}^c)$. By the claim, if a prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$ of $A$ contains $\mathfrak{b}^c$, then $\phi(\mathfrak{p})$ is a prime containing $\mathfrak{b}$. This shows $\phi^* : Y \to V(\mathrm{Ker}(\phi))$ is a closed map, so is a homeomorphism of $Y$ onto $V(\mathrm{Ker}(\phi))$. Since $\mathfrak{p} \supseteq \mathrm{Ker}(\phi)$, $\phi^{-1}(\phi(\mathfrak{p})) = \mathfrak{p} + \mathrm{Ker}(\phi) = \mathfrak{p}$; hence, $\mathfrak{p} \in \phi^*(V(\mathfrak{b}))$ and $\phi^*(V(\mathfrak{b})) = V(\phi^{-1}(\mathfrak{b}))$. This shows that $\phi^*$ is a homeomorphism from $Y$ to $V(\mathrm{Ker}(\phi))$.

In particular, natural surjective homomorphism $\pi : A \to A/\mathfrak{N}$ induces homeomorphism $\pi^*$ from $\mathrm{Spec}(A)$ to $\mathrm{Spec}(A/\mathfrak{N})$ for the Zariski topology, observing $V(\mathfrak{N}) = \mathrm{Spec}(A)$.

v) By (iii), $X = \overline{\phi^*(Y)} = \overline{\phi^*(V(0))} = V(\mathrm{Ker}(\phi))$ if and only if $\mathrm{Ker}(\phi) \subseteq \mathfrak{N}$. In particular, if $\phi$ is injective, then $\phi^*(Y)$ is dense in $X$.

vi) Let $\mathfrak{q}$ be a prime ideal of $C$. Then $(\psi \circ \phi)^*(\mathfrak{q}) = (\psi \circ \phi)^{-1}(\mathfrak{q}) = \phi^{-1}(\psi^{-1}(\mathfrak{q})) = (\phi^* \circ \psi^*)(\mathfrak{q})$.

vii) $\mathrm{Spec}(A)$ is the Sierpiński space on $\{0, \mathfrak{p}\}$. It is easy to show that for any nonzero commutative rings $A, B$, prime ideals of the direct product $A \times B$ are of the form $\mathfrak{p} \times B$ or $A \times \mathfrak{q}$ where $\mathfrak{p}$ and $\mathfrak{q}$ are prime ideals of $A$ and $B$ respectively. Therefore, $\mathrm{Spec}(B)$ is the discrete topology on $\{\bar{0} \times K, A/\mathfrak{p} \times 0\}$. Since $\phi^*(\bar{0} \times K) = \mathfrak{p}$ and $\phi^*(A/\mathfrak{p} \times 0) = 0$, $\phi^*$ is a bijective continuous function, but clearly not a homeomorphism. $\square$

**1.22.** Let $A = \prod_{i=1}^{n} A_i$ be the direct product of rings $A_i$. Show that $\mathrm{Spec}(A)$ is the disjoint union of open (and closed) subspaces $X_i$, where $X_i$ is canonically homeomorphic with $\mathrm{Spec}(A_i)$.

Conversely, let $A$ be any ring. Show that the following statements are equivalent:

i) $X = \operatorname{Spec}(A)$ is disconnected.
ii) $A \cong A_1 \times A_2$ where neither of the rings $A_1, A_2$ is the zero ring.
iii) $A$ contains an idempotent $\neq 0, 1$.

In particular, the spectrum of a local ring is always connected (Exercise 12)

***Solution.*** It is easy to show that every ideals of $A$ is of the form $\mathfrak{a}_1 \times \cdots \times \mathfrak{a}_n$ where each $\mathfrak{a}_i$ is an ideal of $A_i$, and every prime ideal of $A$ is of the form $A_1 \times \cdots \times A_{i-1} \times \mathfrak{p} \times A_{i+1} \times \cdots \times A_n$ where $\mathfrak{p}$ is a prime ideal of $A_i$. Let

$$X_i := V(A_1 \times \cdots \times A_{i-1} \times 0 \times A_{i+1} \times \cdots \times A_n)$$

for each $1 \leq i \leq n$. Clearly, $A = \coprod_{i=1}^n X_i$ as a set. Since

$$X_i = A \setminus \left( X_1 \cup \cdots \cup X_{i-1} \cup X_{i+1} \cup \cdots \cup X_n \right),$$

each $X_i$ is both open and closed. Let $S$ be subset of $A$. Then,

$$S \cap X_i = V(A_1 \times \cdots \times A_{i-1} \times \mathfrak{a}_i \times A_{i+1} \times \cdots \times A_n)$$

for an ideal $a_i \subseteq A_i$ for each $1 \leq i \leq n$ if and only if $S = V(\mathfrak{a}_1 \times \cdots \times \mathfrak{a}_n)$. Therefore, $A = \coprod_{i=1}^n X_i$ as a topology. Consider the canonical projection $\pi_i : A \to A_i$. Since $\operatorname{Ker}(\pi) = A_1 \times \cdots \times A_{i-1} \times 0 \times A_{i+1} \times \cdots \times A_n$, the induced continuous map $\pi^* : \operatorname{Spec}(A_i) \to \operatorname{Spec}(A)$ is a homeomorphism of $\operatorname{Spec}(A_i)$ into $X_i$ by Exercise 1.22.

By the previous discussion, (ii) clearly implies (i). Since $(1, 0) \in A_1 \times A_2$ is an idempotent, (ii) also implies (iii). Conversely, if $A$ contains an idempotent $e \neq 0, 1$, then by the Chines Remainder Theorem (Proposition 1.10), we get

$$A \cong A/(e(e-1)) = A/(e)(e-1) \cong A/(e) \times A/(e-1),$$

since $(e) + (e-1) = (1)$. This shows that (ii) and (iii) are equivalent. The remaining part, which is actually the hardest one, is to show (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) or (iii). Firstly, we shall prove a lemma.

**Lemma.** *Let $A$ be a ring. For $a, b \in A$, if $(a) + (b) = (1)$, then $(a^k) + (b) = (1)$ for any integer $k \geq 1$.*

*Proof.* Induction on $k$. The case for $k = 1$ is trivial; there are $c_1, d_1 \in A$ satisfying $c_1 a + d_1 b = 1$. For $k > 1$, by the induction hypothesis, there exist $c_{k-1}, d_{k-1} \in A$ so that $c_{k-1} a^{k-1} + d_{k-1} b = 1$. Then,

$$1 = (c_1 a + d_1 b)(c_{k-1} a^{k-1} + d_{k-1} b) = c_1 c_{k-1} a^k + (c_1 d_{k-1} + d_1 c_{k-1} a^{k-1} + d_1 d_{k-1} b) b.$$

$\square$

Now, suppose $\operatorname{Spec}(A)$ is disconnected. There exist two ideals $\mathfrak{a}_1, \mathfrak{a}_2$ of $A$ so that $\operatorname{Spec}(A) = V(\mathfrak{a}_1) \cup V(\mathfrak{a}_2)$ and $V(\mathfrak{a}_1) \cap V(\mathfrak{a}_2) = \varnothing$. There is no harm assuming $r(\mathfrak{a}_1) = \mathfrak{a}_1$ and $r(\mathfrak{a}_2) = \mathfrak{a}_2$ (Exercise 1.15). Let $\mathfrak{N}$ be the nilradical of $A$. Since $V(\mathfrak{a}_1) \cup V(\mathfrak{a}_2) = V(\mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \mathfrak{a}_2)$, we get $\mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \mathfrak{a}_2 \subseteq \mathfrak{N}$.

However, $r(\mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \mathfrak{a}_2) = r(\mathfrak{a}_1) \cap r(\mathfrak{a}_2) = \mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \mathfrak{a}_2$, so $\mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \mathfrak{a}_2 = \mathfrak{N}$, for $\mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \mathfrak{a}_2$ is itself the intersection of all prime ideals in $A$. Moreover, because $V(\mathfrak{a}_1) \cap V(\mathfrak{a}_2) = V(\mathfrak{a}_1 + \mathfrak{a}_2) = \emptyset$, we have $\mathfrak{a}_1 + \mathfrak{a}_2 = (1)$. Therefore, due to the Chinese Remainder Theorem,

$$A/\mathfrak{N} = A/\mathfrak{a}_1\mathfrak{a}_2 \cong A/\mathfrak{a}_1 \times A/\mathfrak{a}_2.$$

Hence, $A/\mathfrak{N}$ has an idempotent $(\bar{1}, \bar{0})$, so there exists $e \in A$ so that $e^2 - e = n$ for some $n \in \mathfrak{N}$. Since $n$ is nilpotent, there is some positive integer $k$ so that $n^k = 0$, implying $e^k(e-1)^k = 0$. However, by the lemma, $(e)^k + (1-e)^k = (1)$, so by the Chinese Remainder Theorem again,

$$A \cong A/(e)^k(1-e)^k \cong A/(e)^k \times A/(1-e)^k.$$

In particular, a local ring contains no idempotent (Exercise 1.12), so the spectrum of a local ring must be connected. $\qquad\square$

**1.23.** Let $A$ be a Boolean ring (Exercise 11), and let $X = \mathrm{Spec}(A)$.

   i) For each $f \in A$, the set $X_f$ (Exercise 17) is both open and closed in $X$.
  ii) Let $f_1, \dots, f_n \in A$. Show that $X_{f_1} \cup \cdots \cup X_{f_n} = X_f$ for some $f \in A$.
  iii) The sets $X_f$ are the only subsets of $X$ which are both open and closed.
  iv) $X$ is a compact Hausdorff space.

**Solution.** i) We only need to show $X_f$ is closed. Since $f(f-1) = 0$ and $(f) + (f-1) = (1)$, every prime ideal of $A$ contains only one of $f$ and $f-1$. Therefore, $X_f = V(f-1)$.

   ii) By Exercise 1.11, every finitely generated ideal in $A$ is principal. Therefore, there exists some $f$ such that $(f_1, \dots, f_n) = (f)$, so $X_{f_1} \cup \cdots \cup X_{f_n} = X_f$.

   iii) Suppose $V(\mathfrak{a})$ is a set which are both open and closed. Since $X_f$ forms a basis for $\mathrm{Spec}(A)$, there are family of sets $\{X_f\}_{f \in S}$ for some subset $S$ of $A$ such that $V(\mathfrak{a}) = \bigcup_{f \in S} X_f$. However, closed subspace of quasi-compact space is also quasi-compact, so there are finitely many $f_1, \dots, f_n$ so that $V(\mathfrak{a}) = X_{f_1} \cup \cdots \cup X_{f_n}$. By (ii), we get $V(\mathfrak{a}) = X_g$ for some $g \in A$.

   iv) We already know $X$ is quasi-compact (Exercise 1.17). To show $X$ is Hausdorff, consider two distinct primes $\mathfrak{p}$ and $\mathfrak{q}$ of $A$. Choose some $f \in \mathfrak{p} \setminus \mathfrak{q}$. Then $\mathfrak{q}$ must contain $f-1$, since $0 = f(f-1)$. Because every prime ideal must contain one of $f$ and $f-1$, open sets $X_f$ and $X_{f-1}$ are disjoint, while satisfying $\mathfrak{q} \in X_f$ and $\mathfrak{q} \in X_{f-1}$. $\qquad\square$

**1.24.** Let $L$ be a lattice, in which the sup and inf of two elements $a$, $b$ are denoted by $a \vee b$ and $a \wedge b$ respectively. $L$ is a *Boolean lattice* (or *Boolean algebra*) if

   i) $L$ has a least element and a greatest element (denoted by 0, 1 respectively).
  ii) Each of $\vee$, $\wedge$ is distributive over the other.
  iii) Each $a \in L$ has a unique "complement" $a' \in L$ such that $a \vee a' = 1$ and $a \wedge a' = 0$.

(For example, the set of all subsets of a set, ordered by inclusion, is a Boolean lattice.)

   Let $L$ be a Boolean lattice. Define addition and multiplication in $L$ by the rules

$$a + b = (a \wedge b') \vee (a' \wedge b), \quad ab = a \wedge b.$$

Verify that in this way $L$ becomes a Boolean ring, say $A(L)$.

   Conversely, starting from a Boolean ring $A$, define an ordering on $A$ as follows: $a \leqslant b$ means that $a = ab$. Show that, with respect to this ordering, $A$ is a Boolean lattice.

**Solution.** Let $a, b, c$ be arbitrary elements of $L$. Clearly, $a \wedge b = b \wedge a$ and $a \vee b = b \vee a$, so the addition and multiplication of $A(L)$ are commutative. Notice $0' = 1$ and $1' = 0$. Using the definition of supremum and infimum, it is easy to show that the associativity laws for $\wedge$ and $\vee$ hold; $a \vee (b \vee c) = (a \vee b) \vee c$ and $a \wedge (b \wedge c) = (a \wedge b) \wedge c$. Now, we shall prove two lemmas.

**Lemma 1** (De Morgan's Law). *Let $L$ be a Boolean lattice. Then $(a \vee b)' = a' \wedge b'$ and $(a \wedge b)' = a' \vee b'$ for any $a, b \in L$.*

*Proof.* $(a \vee b) \vee (a' \wedge b') = [(a \vee a') \vee b] \wedge [a \vee (b \vee b')] = (1 \vee b) \wedge (a \vee 1) = 1 \wedge 1 = 1$, and $(a \vee b) \wedge (a' \wedge b') = [(a \wedge a') \vee (b \wedge a')] \wedge [(a \wedge b') \vee (b \wedge b')] = [0 \vee (b \wedge a')] \wedge [(a \wedge b') \vee 0] = (b \wedge a') \wedge (a \wedge b') = (a \wedge a') \wedge (b \wedge b') = 0 \wedge 0 = 0$. Therefore, by the uniqueness of complement, we have $(a \vee b)' = a' \wedge b'$. By switching the position of $a'$ with $a'$, and $b'$ with $b$ in $(a \vee b)' = a' \wedge b'$, we get $(a \wedge b)' = a' \vee b'$. □

**Lemma 2.** *Let $L$ be a Boolean lattice. Then $(a \wedge b') \vee (a' \wedge b) = (a \vee b) \wedge (a \wedge b)'$.*

*Proof.* Using Lemma 1, $(a \wedge b') \vee (a' \wedge b) = (a \vee (a' \wedge b)) \wedge (b' \vee (a' \wedge b)) = (a \vee b) \wedge (b' \vee a') = (a \vee b) \wedge (a \wedge b)'$. □

We claim the addition '+' is associative. Using the lemmas, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(a + b) + c &= ((a + b) \wedge c') \vee ((a + b)' \wedge c) \\
&= (((a \wedge b') \vee (a' \wedge b)) \wedge c') \vee (((a \vee b)' \vee (a \wedge b)) \wedge c) \\
&= (a \wedge b' \wedge c') \vee (a' \wedge b \wedge c') \vee (a' \wedge b' \wedge c) \vee (a \vee b \vee c).
\end{aligned}
$$

Observe the last expression is independent of the order of $a, b, c$, so the addition is associative. The additive identity is the least element 0, since

$$
a + 0 = (a \wedge 1) \vee (a' \wedge 0) = a \vee 0 = a.
$$

Similarly, the multiplicative identity is the greatest element 1; $a1 = a \wedge 1 = a$. Lastly, the distributive law holds, because

$$
\begin{aligned}
ab + ac &= (a \wedge b \wedge (a \wedge c)') \vee ((a \wedge b)' \wedge a \wedge c) \\
&= (a \wedge b \wedge (a' \vee c')) \vee ((a' \vee b') \wedge a \wedge c) \\
&= (b \wedge (a \wedge c')) \vee ((b' \wedge a) \wedge c) \\
&= a \wedge ((b \wedge c') \vee (b' \wedge c)) \\
&= a(b + c).
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $a^2 = a \wedge a = a$, this shows that $A(L)$ is a Boolean ring.

Conversely, assume $A$ is a Boolean ring. Then 1 is the greatest element since $a = a1$ for any $a \in A$. Because $0 = 0a$ for all $a \in A$, 0 is the least element. Notice $a(a + b + ab) = a$ and $b(a + b + ab) = b$ (Exercise 1.11). Moreover, if $c \in A$ satisfies $a = ac$ and $b = bc$, then $(a + b + ab)c = a + b + ab$. Similarly, it is easy to see that $(ab)a = (ab)b = ab$, and if $d \in A$ satisfies $d = da = db$, then $d = (ab)d$. Therefore, $a \vee b = a + b + ab$ and $a \wedge b = ab$. Using

this fact,

$$
\begin{aligned}
a \wedge (b \vee c) &= a(b + c + bc) \\
&= ab + ac + abc \\
&= ab + ac + a^2 bc \\
&= ab + ac + (ab)(ac) \\
&= (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge c),
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
(a \vee b) \wedge (a \vee c) &= (a + b + ab)(a + c + ac) \\
&= a + bc + abc \\
&= a \vee (b \wedge c).
\end{aligned}
$$

The complement of $a$ is $a' := 1 - a$, since $a \vee a' = a + (1 - a) + a(1 - a) = 1$ and $a(1 - a) = 0$. This shows that $A$ is a Boolean lattice. $\qquad\square$

**1.25.** From the last two exercises deduce Stone's theorem, that every Boolean lattice is isomorphic to the lattice of open-and-closed subsets of some compact Hausdorff topological space.

***Solution***. Let $L$ be a Boolean lattice. Then by Exercise 24, we can view $L$ as a Boolean ring $A(L)$ where the order is given by $a \leqslant b \Leftrightarrow a = ab$. Recall $\text{Spec}(A(L))$ is a compact Hausdorff topological space, and $X_a := \text{Spec}(A(L)) \setminus V(a)$ is an open-and-closed subset for each $a \in A$. Let $\mathscr{B} := \{X_a \subseteq \text{Spec}(A(L)) : a \in A\}$, and endow order on $\mathscr{B}$ with respect to inclusion. Then $\mathscr{B}$ becomes a Boolean lattice, since

- $X_1 = \text{Spec}(A(L))$ is the greatest, $X_0 = \varnothing$ is the least element,
- $X_a \vee X_b = X_a \cup X_b = X_{a+b+ab}$ ($\because$ Exercise 1.11),
- $X_a \wedge X_b = X_a \cap X_b = X_{ab}$,
- Each $\wedge, \vee$ is distributive, for each $\cap, \cup$ is,
- $X_a' = X_{(1-a)}$.

We claim that $X_a \subseteq X_b$ if and only if $a \leq b$. In particular, $X_a = X_b$ if and only if $a = b$. Only the forward direction is non-trivial. If $X_a \subseteq X_b$, then $r(a) \subseteq r(b)$. But $A(L)$ is boolean, so $(a) \subseteq (b)$. Therefore, there is some $x \in A(L)$ so that $a = xb$. Because $a = a^2 = xab$ and $ab = (xab)b = xab$, we finally get $a = ab$. Therefore, a map $\psi : L \to \mathscr{B}$ defined by $a \mapsto X_a$ is a well-defined bijection, since it is clearly surjective. Actually, it is a lattice isomorphism; observe

$$
\begin{aligned}
\psi(a \wedge b) &= \psi(ab) = X_{ab} = X_a \wedge X_b, \text{ and} \\
\psi(a \vee b) &= \psi(a + b + ab) = X_{a+b+ab} = X_a \vee X_b.
\end{aligned}
$$

This ends the proof. $\qquad\square$

**1.26.** Let $A$ be a ring. The subspace of $\text{Spec}(A)$ consisting of the maximal ideals of $A$, with the induced topology, is called the *maximal spectrum* of $A$ and is denoted by $\text{Max}(A)$. For arbitrary

commutative rings it does not have the nice functorial properties of $\text{Spec}(A)$ (see Exercise 21), because the inverse image of a maximal ideal under a ring homomorphism need not be maximal.

Let $X$ be a compact Hausdorff space and let $C(X)$ denote the ring of all real-valued continuous functions on $X$ (add and multiply functions by adding and multiplying their values). For each $x \in X$, let $\mathfrak{m}_x$ be the set of all $f \in C(X)$ such that $f(x) = 0$. The ideal $\mathfrak{m}_x$ is maximal, because it is the kernel of the (surjective) homomorphism $C(X) \to \mathbf{R}$ which takes $f$ to $f(x)$. If $\widetilde{X}$ denotes $\text{Max}(C(X))$, we have therefore defined a mapping $\mu : X \to \widetilde{X}$, namely $x \mapsto \mathfrak{m}_x$.

We shall show that $\mu$ is a homeomorphism of $X$ onto $\widetilde{X}$.

i) Let $\mathfrak{m}$ be any maximal ideal of $C(X)$, and let $V = V(\mathfrak{m})$ be the set of common zeros of the functions in $\mathfrak{m}$: that is,

$$V = \{x \in X : f(x) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in \mathfrak{m}\}.$$

Suppose that $V$ is empty. Then for each $x \in X$ there exists $f_x \in \mathfrak{m}$ such that $f_x(x) \neq 0$. Since $f_x$ is continuous, there is an open neighborhood $U_x$ of $x$ in $X$ on which $f_x$ does not vanish. By compactness a finite number of the neighborhoods, say $U_{x_i}, \ldots, U_{x_n}$ cover $X$. Let

$$f = f_{x_1}^2 + \cdots + f_{x_n}^2.$$

Then $f$ does not vanish at any point of $X$, hence is a unit in $C(X)$. But this contradicts $f \in \mathfrak{m}$, hence $V$ is not empty.

Let $x$ be a point of $V$. Then $\mathfrak{m} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_x$, hence $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}_x$ because $\mathfrak{m}$ is maximal. Hence $\mu$ is surjective.

ii) By Urysohn's lemma (this is the only non-trivial fact required in the argument) the continuous functions separate the points of $X$. Hence $x \neq y \implies \mathfrak{m}_x \neq \mathfrak{m}_y$, and therefore $\mu$ is injective.

iii) Let $f \in C(X)$; let

$$U_f = \{x \in X : f(x) \neq 0\}$$

and let

$$\widetilde{U}_f = \{\mathfrak{m} \in \check{X} : f \notin \mathfrak{m}\}$$

Show that $\mu(U_f) = \widetilde{U}_f$. The open sets $U_f$ (resp. $\widetilde{U}_f$) form a basis of the topology of $X$ (resp. $\widetilde{X}$) and therefore $\mu$ is a homeomorphism.

Thus $X$ can be reconstructed from the ring of functions $C(X)$.

***Solution.*** Suppose $\mathfrak{m}$ is in $\mu(U_f)$. Then $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}_x$ for some $x \in X$ such that $f(x) \neq 0$. Hence, $f \notin \mathfrak{m}_x$, so $\mu(U_f) \subseteq \widetilde{U}_f$. Conversely, suppose $\mathfrak{n} \in \widetilde{U}_f$. Since $\mu$ is surjective, there is some $y \in X$ so that $\mathfrak{n} = \mathfrak{m}_y$. Then $f(y) \neq 0$, so $y$ is in $U_f$. This shows $\mu(U_f) = \widetilde{U}_f$.

Let $Y := \text{Spec}(C(X))$. For each $f \in C(X)$, notice $\widetilde{U}_f = \widetilde{X} \cap Y_f$. Since the open sets $Y_f$ of $Y$ form a basis for the topology of $Y$ by Exercise 1.17, the open sets $\widetilde{U}_f$ form a basis for the subspace $\widetilde{X}$ of $Y$. For each $x \in X$, $x \in U_g$ for any constant function $g$, so open sets $U_f$ cover $X$. Also, for any $f, g \in C(X)$, observe $U_{fg} = U_f \cap U_g$. Therefore, open sets $U_f$ form a basis for $X$. $\qquad\square$

**1.27.** Let $k$ be an algebraically closed field and let

$$f_\alpha(t_1, \dots, t_n) = 0$$

be a set of polynomial equations in $n$ variables with coefficients in $k$. The set $X$ of all points $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in k^n$ which satisfy these equations is an *affine algebraic variety*.

Consider the set of all polynomials $g \in k[t_1, \dots, t_n]$ with the property that $g(x) = 0$ for all $x \in X$. This set is an ideal $I(X)$ in the polynomial ring, and is called the *ideal of the variety $X$*. The quotient ring

$$P(X) = k[t_1, \dots, t_n]/I(X)$$

is the ring of polynomial functions on $X$, because two polynomials $g, h$ define the same polynomial function on $X$ if and only if $g - h$ vanishes at every point of $X$, that is, if and only if $g - h \in I(X)$.

Let $\xi_i$ be the image of $t_i$ in $P(X)$. The $\xi_i$ ($1 \leqslant i \leqslant n$) are the *coordinate functions* on $X$: if $x \in X$, then $\xi_i(x)$ is the $i$th coordinate of $x$. $P(X)$ is generated as a $k$-algebra by the coordinate functions, and is called the *coordinate ring* (or affine algebra) of $X$.

As in Exercise 26, for each $x \in X$ let $\mathfrak{m}_x$ be the ideal of all $f \in P(X)$ such that $f(x) = 0$; it is a maximal ideal of $P(X)$. Hence, if $\widetilde{X} = \mathrm{Max}(P(X))$, we have defined a mapping $\mu : X \to \widetilde{X}$, namely $x \mapsto \mathfrak{m}_x$.

It is easy to show that $\mu$ is injective: if $x \neq y$, we must have $x_i \neq y_i$ for for some $i$ ($1 \leqslant i \leqslant n$), and hence $\xi_i - x_i$ is in $\mathfrak{m}_x$, but not in $\mathfrak{m}_y$, so that $\mathfrak{m}_x \neq \mathfrak{m}_y$. What is less obvious (but still true) is that $\mu$ is *surjective*. This is one form of Hilbert's Nullstellensatz (see Chapter 7).

**Solution.** (It is too hard to solve this problem without assuming any result in Chapter 7) Assume Corollary 7.10. Then for any $\mathfrak{m} \in \widetilde{X}$, we have $P(X)/\mathfrak{m} \cong k$ since $P(X)$ is a finitely generated $k$-algebra generated by $\xi_1, \dots \xi_n$. Let $a_i$ be the image of $\xi_i$ in $k$ by the homomorphism $P(X) \twoheadrightarrow P(X)/\mathfrak{m} \cong k$, and $a := (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in k^n$. It is easy to see that $(\xi_1 - a_1, \dots, \xi_n - a_n)$ is a maximal ideal of $P(X)$. Since $\mathfrak{m}_a$ contains $(\xi_1 - a_1, \dots, \xi_n - a_n)$, we get $\mathfrak{m}_a = (\xi_1 - a_1, \dots, \xi_n - a_n)$. Then $\mathfrak{m}$ is a maximal ideal which contains $\mathfrak{m}_a = (\xi_1 - a_1, \dots, \xi_n - a_n)$. Therefore, $\mathfrak{m} = \mu(a)$. $\square$

**1.28.** Let $f_1, \dots, f_m$ be elements of $k[t_1, \dots, t_n]$. They determine a *polynomial mapping* $\phi : k^n \to k^m$: if $x \in k^n$, the coordinates of $\phi(x)$ are $f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x)$.

Let $X, Y$ be affine algebraic varieties in $k^n$, $k^m$ respectively. A mapping $\phi : X \to Y$ is said to be *regular* if $\phi$ is the restriction to $X$ of a polynomial mapping from $k^n$ to $k^m$.

If $\eta$ is a polynomial function on $Y$, then $\eta \circ \phi$ is a polynomial function on $X$. Hence $\phi$ induces a $k$-algebra homomorphism $P(Y) \to P(X)$, namely $\eta \mapsto \eta \circ \phi$. Show that in this way we obtain a one-to-one correspondence between the regular mappings $X \to Y$ and the $k$-algebra homomorphisms $P(Y) \to P(X)$.

**Solution.** For a given regular map $\phi : X \to Y$, let $\phi_\star : P(Y) \to P(X)$ be the induced $k$-algebra homomorphism given by $\eta \mapsto \eta \circ \phi$. Then $\phi \mapsto \phi_\star$ is a map from the set of regular maps $X \to Y$ to the set of $k$-algebra homomorphisms $P(Y) \to P(X)$. Now, we construct an inverse of $\phi \mapsto \phi_\star$. Suppose $\varphi : P(Y) \to P(X)$ is a $k$-algebra homomorphism. Then we can

find a $k$-algebra homomorphism $\tilde{\varphi} : k[t'_1, \ldots, t'_m] \to k[t_1, \ldots, t_n]$ so that the following diagram commutes[2]

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
k[t'_1, \ldots, t'_m] & \xrightarrow{\ \tilde{\varphi}\ } & k[t_1, \ldots, t_n] \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow \\
P(Y) & \xrightarrow{\ \varphi\ } & P(X).
\end{array}
$$

Define a polynomial map $\varphi^* : k^n \to k^m$ by

$$
\varphi^*(x) := (\tilde{\varphi}(t'_1)(x), \ldots, \tilde{\varphi}(t'_m)(x)).
$$

For any $f \in k[t'_1, \ldots, t'_m]$, notice $\tilde{\varphi}(f) = f(\tilde{\varphi}(t'_1), \ldots, \tilde{\varphi}(t'_m))$. Since the previous diagram commutes, if $f \in I(Y)$ then $f(\tilde{\varphi}(t'_1), \ldots, \tilde{\varphi}(t'_m))$ is in $I(X)$. Therefore, for $x \in X$, we have $f(\varphi^*(x)) = 0$ for any $f \in I(Y)$, so $\varphi^*(X) \subseteq Y$. This shows $\varphi^* : X \to Y$ is regular, and we get a map $\varphi \mapsto \varphi^*$ from the set of $k$-algebra homomorphisms $P(Y) \to P(X)$ to the set of regular maps $X \to Y$.

We claim that $\varphi \mapsto \varphi^*$ is the two-sided inverse of $\phi \mapsto \phi_\star$. For any $k$-algebra homomorphism $\varphi : P(Y) \to P(X)$, $g \in P(Y)$, and $x \in X$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\varphi^*)_\star(g)(x) &= (g \circ \varphi^*)(x) \\
&= g(\tilde{\varphi}(t'_1)(x), \ldots, \tilde{\varphi}(t'_m)(x)) \\
&= \varphi(g)(x),
\end{aligned}
$$

observing $\tilde{\varphi}(\tilde{g}) = \tilde{g}(\tilde{\varphi}(t'_1), \ldots, \tilde{\varphi}(t'_m))$ where $\tilde{g} \in k[t'_1, \ldots, t'_n]$ is a preimage of $g$. Therefore, $(\varphi^*)_\star = \varphi$. Conversely, suppose $\phi : X \to Y$ is a regular map. Then $\phi(x) = (f_1(x), \ldots, f_m(x))$ where $f_i \in k[t_1, \ldots, t_m]$. For $x \in X$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\phi_\star)^*(x) &= (\tilde{\phi}_\star(t'_1)(x), \ldots, \tilde{\phi}_\star(t'_m)(x)) \\
&= (f_1(x), \ldots, f_m(x)) \\
&= \phi(x),
\end{aligned}
$$

observing $\phi_\star(g) = g \circ \phi = g(f_1, \ldots, f_m)$ for any $g \in P(Y)$ and hence $\tilde{\phi}_\star(t'_i) = f_i$. Therefore, $(\phi_\star)^* = \phi$ This shows that $\phi \mapsto \phi_\star$ and $\varphi \mapsto \varphi^*$ are bijections. $\qquad\square$

---

[2]One may construct $\tilde{\varphi}$ as follows. Let $\xi_i$ be the image of $t'_i$ in $P(Y)$ and $\zeta_j$ be the image of $t_j$ in $P(X)$. Then $\varphi(\xi_i) = p_i(\zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_n)$ for some polynomial $p_i \in k[t_1, \ldots, t_n]$. By letting $t'_i \mapsto p_i(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$, we get a desired $k$-algebra homomorphism.