

# Commutative Ring Theory

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# Part I

# Rings



# Chapter 1

## Rings and Homomorphisms

### Definition and Theorems

#### Rings

**Definition 1** (Ring). A ring is a set  $A$  equipped with two binary operations  $+$  (addition) and  $\cdot$  (multiplication) satisfying the following three sets of axioms, called the ring axioms.

1.  $(A, +)$  is an abelian group.
2.  $(A, \cdot)$  is a semigroup.
3. Multiplication is distributive with respect to addition, meaning that
  - $a \cdot (b + c) = (a \cdot b) + (a \cdot c)$  for all  $a, b, c \in A$  (left distributivity).
  - $(b + c) \cdot a = (b \cdot a) + (c \cdot a)$  for all  $a, b, c \in A$  (right distributivity).

A ring is called unitary if it contains the multiplicative identity and commutative if multiplication is commutative.

**Intuition.** A ring may be understood as the generalization of the integers. Another way to see rings is a less well behaved field where the theory of dividing is due to rings missing the multiplicative identity richer.

**Remark.** In this text, we will primarily be concerned with commutative unitary rings, and thus, for brevity sake, we simply write “ring” and mean a commutative unitary ring.

**Example 1.1.** Some important examples of rings include the following.

1. The prototypical example is the ring of integers  $\mathbb{Z}$  with the two operations being of addition and multiplication.
2. Any field is a ring. In particular, the rational numbers  $\mathbb{Q}$ , the real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$ , and the complex numbers  $\mathbb{C}$  are rings.
3. The zero ring or trivial ring is the unique ring consisting of one element  $0$  with the operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  defined such that  $0 + 0 = 0$  and  $0 \cdot 0 = 0$ . It is the unique ring in which the additive and the multiplicative identity coincide.
4. the set of polynomials
5. an example of a finite ring
6. If  $S$  is a set, then the power set  $\mathcal{P}(S)$  of  $S$  becomes a ring if we define addition to be the symmetric difference of sets and multiplication to be intersection.

**Example 1.2.** Moreover, we have some examples of rings that are non-commutative or non-unitary.

1. Matrix ring is non-commutative

**Example 1.3.** Counterexamples of rings include the following.

1. The set of natural numbers  $\mathbb{N}$  with the usual operations is not a ring, since  $(\mathbb{N}, +)$  is not even a group.
2. Trivially, the empty set regardless of the operations is not a ring.

**Definition 2** (Subring). A subset  $S$  of  $A$  is called a subring if any of the following equivalent conditions holds.

**Proposition 3.** Let  $A$  be a ring and  $R$  and  $S$  subrings of  $A$ .

1. (ANY?) intersection stable
2. cartesian product is again a ring

**Example 3.1.** 1. Complement, of course not.

2. union, of course not.
3. difference, of course not
4. symmetric difference, of course not

## Ring Homomorphisms

**Definition 4** (Ring Homomorphism). A homomorphism from ring  $(A, +, \cdot)$  to a ring  $(B, \boxplus, \boxtimes)$  is a map  $\varphi$  from  $A$  to  $B$  that preserves the ring operations.

**Example 4.1.** examples of ring homomorphism.



**Proposition 5.** Let  $f : A \rightarrow B$  be a ring homomorphism.

1. A ring homomorphism preserves the additive identity, i.e.  $f(0_A) = 0_B$ .

**Notes**

# Chapter 2

## Ideals

**Definition 6** (Ideal). Let  $A$  be a ring. A subset  $\mathfrak{a} \subset A$  is called an ideal if it satisfies the following two conditions.

1.  $(\mathfrak{a}, +)$  is a subgroup of  $(A, +)$ .
2. For every  $r \in A$  and every  $x \in \mathfrak{a}$ , it is  $rx \in \mathfrak{a}$ .

Given a subset  $S \subset A$ , by the ideal  $(S)$  that  $S$  generates, we mean the smallest ideal containing  $S$ . If an ideal is generated by a subset  $S \subset A$ , then the elements of this subset are called generators.

An ideal that is generated by a single element is called principal.

If an ideal  $\mathfrak{a}$  is not the whole ring  $A$ , then the ideal is called proper.

**Definition 7** (Ideal Operation). Let  $\mathfrak{a}$  and  $\mathfrak{b}$  be ideals of a ring  $A$ .

1. The sum of two ideals  $\mathfrak{a}$  and  $\mathfrak{b}$  is defined by

$$\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b} = \{ a + b \mid a \in \mathfrak{a} \text{ and } b \in \mathfrak{b} \} = (\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b})$$

which is again an ideal. It is the smallest ideal in  $A$  that contains  $\mathfrak{a}$  and  $\mathfrak{b}$ .

2. The product of an ideal
3. The intersection of
4. The radical of an ideal  $\mathfrak{a}$  is defined by

$$\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} = \{ x \in A \mid x^n \in \mathfrak{a} \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N}^+ \}$$

which is again an ideal.

5. The transporter

*Proof.* We verify the statements made in the definition.

1. (a) “ $\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b}$  is an ideal.”:

□

**Example 7.1.** The union of two ideals is **not** an ideal in general. Consider  $(2)$  and  $(3)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . If  $(2) \cup (3)$  was an ideal, then  $3 - 2 = 1$  would be contained in  $(2) \cup (3)$ . But  $1 \notin (2)$  and  $1 \notin (3)$ , thus  $1 \notin (2) \cup (3)$ .

**Proposition 8.** Let  $\mathfrak{a}$  be an ideal of  $A$ .

1.  $\mathfrak{a} = A$  if and only if  $1 \in \mathfrak{a}$  if and only if  $\mathfrak{a}$  contains an unit.
2.  $\mathfrak{a}^2 \subset \mathfrak{a}$ .
3.  $\mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b} \subset \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b} \subset \mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b}$ .
4.  $\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b}$  and  $\mathfrak{b} \subset \mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b}$ .

**Proposition 9.** Let  $\mathfrak{a}$  and  $\mathfrak{b}$  be two ideals of a ring  $A$ .

1.  $\mathfrak{a} \subset \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$ .
2.  $\sqrt{\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}} = \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$ .
3. If  $\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{b}$ , then  $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} \subset \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}$ .
4.  $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} = A$  if and only if  $\mathfrak{a} = A$ .
5.  $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b}} = \sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}} = \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} \cap \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}$ .
6.  $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b}} = \sqrt{\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} + \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}}$ .
7. If  $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{p}^n$  for some prime ideal  $\mathfrak{p}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ , then  $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} = \mathfrak{p}$ .

*Proof.* We verify each statement.

1. Let  $x \in \mathfrak{a}$ , then trivially,  $x^1 \in \mathfrak{a}$ , so  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$ .
2. Since  $\sqrt{\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}} \supset \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$  from above, it suffices to verify the other inclusion. Let  $x \in \sqrt{\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}}$ , then  $x^n \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$  and in turn,  $(x^n)^m \in \mathfrak{a}$ . Thus,  $x^{nm} \in \mathfrak{a}$ , therefore,  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$ .
3. Suppose  $\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{b}$  and let  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$ . Then,  $x^n \in \mathfrak{a}$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ , thus  $x^n \in \mathfrak{b}$ . It follows that  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}$ .
4. “ $\Rightarrow$ ”: Let  $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} = A$ , then for all  $x \in A$ , we have that  $x^n \in \mathfrak{a}$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . In particular,  $1^n \in \mathfrak{a}$ , but  $1^n = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . Thus,  $\mathfrak{a} = A$ .  
 “ $\Leftarrow$ ”: On the other hand, let  $\mathfrak{a} = A$ . In general, it is  $\mathfrak{a} \subset \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$ , therefore  $A \subset \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$  which immediately yields the desired equality  $A = \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$ .
5. “ $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b}} \subset \sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}}$ ”: If  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b}}$ , then  $x^n \in \mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b}$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . Since  $\mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b} \subset \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}$ , we have  $x^n \in \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}$ , and it follows that  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}}$ .  
 “ $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b}} \supset \sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}}$ ”: Let  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}}$ , then  $x^n \in \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . Hence it is  $x^n \in \mathfrak{a}$  and  $x^n \in \mathfrak{b}$ , therefore  $x^n \cdot x^n = x^{2n} \in \mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b}$ . Conclude  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b}}$ .  
 “ $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}} \subset \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} \cap \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}$ ”: If  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}}$ , then  $x^n \in \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}$ , thus  $x^n \in \mathfrak{a}$  and  $x^n \in \mathfrak{b}$ . We may write  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$  and  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}$ , therefore  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} \cap \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}$ .  
 “ $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}} \supset \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} \cap \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}$ ”: Finally, let  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} \cap \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}$ . Then,  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$  and  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}$ , so  $x^n \in \mathfrak{a}$  and  $x^m \in \mathfrak{b}$  for some  $n, m \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . Say  $n \geq m$ , then  $x^n \in \mathfrak{b}$ . This yields  $x^n \in \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}$ , thus  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}}$ .
6. “ $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b}} \subset \sqrt{\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} + \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}}$ ”: Let  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b}}$ , then  $x^n \in \mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b}$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . By definition of sum of ideals, we have that  $x^n = a + b$  for some  $a \in \mathfrak{a}$  and  $b \in \mathfrak{b}$ . Since  $\mathfrak{a} \subset \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$  and  $\mathfrak{b} \subset \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}$ , we have  $x^n \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} + \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}$ , thus  $x \in \sqrt{\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} + \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}}$ .  
 “ $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b}} \supset \sqrt{\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} + \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}}$ ”: Now let  $x \in \sqrt{\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} + \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}}$ , then  $x^n \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} + \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . Hence there exists  $a \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$  and  $b \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{b}}$  such that  $x^n = a + b$ . We have that  $a^p \in \mathfrak{a}$  and  $b^q \in \mathfrak{b}$

for some  $p, q \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . Consider

$$\begin{aligned} (x^n)^{(p+q-1)} &= (a+b)^{(p+q-1)} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{p+q-1} \binom{p+q-1}{k} a^k \cdot b^{p+q-1-k}. \end{aligned}$$

For each  $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, p+q-1\}$ , we have  $a^k \in \mathfrak{a}$  or  $b^{p+q-1-k} \in \mathfrak{b}$ . Thus, the whole sum lies in  $\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b}$  or in other words  $x^{n(p+q-1)} \in \mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b}$ . Conclude  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b}}$ .

7. “ $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} \subset \mathfrak{p}$ ”: Let  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$ , then  $x^m \in \mathfrak{a}$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . Because  $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{p}^n$ , we have  $x^m \in \mathfrak{p}^n$ . We also have  $\mathfrak{p}^n \subset \mathfrak{p}$ , thus  $x^m \in \mathfrak{p}$  and since  $\mathfrak{p}$  is prime,  $x \in \mathfrak{p}$ .

“ $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}} \supset \mathfrak{p}$ ”: On the other hand, if  $x \in \mathfrak{p}$ , then  $x^n \in \mathfrak{p}^n = \mathfrak{a}$ , therefore  $x \in \sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}$ .

□

**Proposition 10.** 1.  $\mathfrak{a} \subset (\mathfrak{a} : \mathfrak{b})$ .

**Example 10.1.** Does  $\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}^2} = \mathfrak{a}$  hold?

**Proposition 11.** Let  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  be rings for  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$  and denote  $A := A_1 \times \dots \times A_n$ . The ideals in  $A$  are exactly in the form  $\mathfrak{a}_1 \times \dots \times \mathfrak{a}_n$  where  $\mathfrak{a}_i$  is an ideal in  $A_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , i.e.

$$\{\text{ideals in } A\} = \prod_{i=1}^n \{\text{ideals in } A_i\}$$

Add stuff for spectrums XXX.

**Proposition 12.** In a finite ring, every prime ring is maximal, i.e. if  $A$  is a finite ring, then

$$\text{Spec}(A) = \text{Spm}(A).$$

*Proof.*

□



## Chapter 3

# Anatomy of Rings

**Definition 13** (Nilpotent Element and Nilradical). An element  $x$  of a ring  $A$  is called nilpotent if there exists some positive integer  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ , called the index or the degree, such that  $x^n = 0$ .

The set of all nilpotent elements is called the nilradical of the ring and is denoted by  $\text{Nil}(A)$ .

**Definition 14** (Reduced Ring). A ring  $A$  is called reduced ring if it has no non-zero nilpotent elements.

**Proposition 15.** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two rings and  $A' \subset A$  be a subring of  $A$ .

1. If  $A$  is reduced, then  $A'$  is also reduced.
2. If  $A$  and  $B$  are reduced, then  $A \times B$  is also reduced.

(XXX DOES THIS ALSO HOLD FOR ARBITRARY MANY PRODUCTS?)

### 3.1 Exercises and Notes

**Example 15.1.** Let  $K$  be a field and  $A = K[X, Y]/(X - XY^2, Y^3)$ .

1. Compute the nilradical  $\text{Nil}(A)$ .

*Solution.* Denote  $(X - XY^2, Y^3) =: \mathfrak{a}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} X + \mathfrak{a} &= XY^2 + \mathfrak{a} && \text{because } X - XY^2 \Rightarrow X \sim XY^2. \\ &= XY^2Y^2 + \mathfrak{a} && \text{because } XY^2 - XY^2Y^2 = Y^2(X - XY^2) = 0 \Rightarrow XY^2 \sim XY^2Y^2 \\ &= XY \cdot Y^3 + \mathfrak{a} \\ &= XY \cdot 0 + \mathfrak{a} \\ &= 0 + \mathfrak{a}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $X \in (X - XY^2, Y^3)$ . We have therefore the isomorphism  $K[X, Y]/(X - XY^2, Y^3) \simeq K[Y]/(Y^3)$ . [I WANT A ELEGANT REASON FOR THIS. PROBABLY ISOMORPHISM THEOREM.]

Clearly,  $Y \in \text{Nil}(A)$  or in other words  $(Y) \subset \text{Nil}(A)$ . But we also have that  $K[Y]/(Y) = K$  which is a field, therefore  $(Y)$  is a maximal ideal. Because  $1 \notin \text{Nil}(A)$  conclude  $\text{Nil}(A) = (Y)$ .  $\square$





## Chapter 4

# Polynomial Rings



## Chapter 5

# Quotient



# Chapter 6

## Localization

### Definition and Theorems

#### Multiplicative Subsets

**Definition 16** (Multiplicative Subset). A subset  $S$  of a ring  $A$  is called a multiplicative subset if the following conditions hold.

1.  $1 \in S$ .
2. For all  $x, y \in S$  it is  $xy \in S$ .

**Example 16.1.** Let  $A$  be a ring. Trivially, the following subsets of  $A$  are multiplicative subsets.

1.  $A$  itself is a multiplicative subset.
2.  $\{1\}$  is a multiplicative subset.
3.  $\{0, 1\}$  is a multiplicative subset.

**Example 16.2.** Let  $A$  be a ring. Important examples of a multiplicative subset include the following.

1. The set of units  $A^\times$  is a multiplicative subset.
2. The set of non-zero-divisors  $A \setminus \text{ZD}(A)$  is a multiplicative subset.

*Proof.* Let  $A$  be a ring.

1. We show  $A^\times$  is a multiplicative subset. Clearly,  $1$  is a unit and thus lies in  $A^\times$ . Let  $x$  and  $y$  be units in  $A$ , then there are some  $x^{-1}$  and  $y^{-1}$  in  $A$  with  $x \cdot x^{-1} = 1$  and  $y \cdot y^{-1} = 1$ . Then,  $xy \cdot x^{-1} \cdot y^{-1} = xx^{-1} \cdot yy^{-1} = 1$ , so  $xy$  is a unit and  $A^\times$  is multiplicatively closed.

□

**Example 16.3.** Let  $A$  be a ring. Other examples of multiplicative subsets are the following.

1. Let  $S$  be a multiplicative subset. Then,  $S \cup \{0\}$  is also a multiplicative subset.
2. For any element  $x \in A$ , the set generated by its powers  $\{1, x, x^2, x^3, \dots\}$  is a multiplicative subset.
3. For any ideal  $\mathfrak{a} \subset A$ , the set  $1 + \mathfrak{a}$  is a multiplicative subset.

**Lemma 17.** An ideal  $\mathfrak{p}$  of a ring  $A$  is prime if and only if its complement  $A \setminus \mathfrak{p}$  is a multiplicative subset.

*Proof.* Let  $A$  be a ring and  $\mathfrak{p}$  be an ideal in  $A$ .

“ $\Rightarrow$ ”: Suppose  $\mathfrak{p}$  is prime. By definition,  $1 \notin \mathfrak{p}$ , hence  $1$  lies in the complement  $A \setminus \mathfrak{p}$ . Now let  $x, y \in A \setminus \mathfrak{p}$  and assume  $xy \notin A \setminus \mathfrak{p}$ . In this case,  $xy \in \mathfrak{p}$  and since  $\mathfrak{p}$  is prime, we must have  $x \in \mathfrak{p}$  or  $y \in \mathfrak{p}$  both of which are contradictions.

“ $\Leftarrow$ ”: On the other hand, let  $A \setminus \mathfrak{p}$  be a multiplicative subset. Fix a  $xy \in \mathfrak{p}$  and assume  $x, y \notin \mathfrak{p}$ . We have that  $x, y \in A \setminus \mathfrak{p}$  and since  $A \setminus \mathfrak{p}$  is a multiplicative subset, it is  $xy \in A \setminus \mathfrak{p}$ . This implies  $xy \notin \mathfrak{p}$  which is a contradiction.  $\square$

**Remark.** The lemma does not imply that any complement of a multiplicative subset is a prime ideal. Only if the complement of a multiplicative subset is already an ideal it is prime. Thus, constructing multiplicative subsets through complements of primitive ideals are not exhaustive.

**Example 17.1.** Consider  $\mathbb{Z}$  and the multiplicative subset  $\{1\}$ . The complement  $\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{1\}$  is not an ideal.

**Proposition 18.** intersection is again multiplicative cartesian product?

**Example 18.1.** subsets? unions symmetric difference

## Localization

**Definition 19** (Localization).  $S^{-1}A$  is again a ring.

**Lemma 20** (Universal Property of Localization). Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two rings,  $S$  a multiplicative subset of  $A$ , and  $f : A \rightarrow B$  a ring homomorphism that maps every element of  $S$  to a unit in  $B$ . In this case, there exists a unique ring homomorphism  $g : S^{-1}A \rightarrow B$  such that  $f = g \circ \varphi$ .

**Lemma 21.** Let  $A$  be a ring and  $S$  a multiplicative subset, then the following are equivalent.

1.  $S^{-1}A = 0$ .
2.  $S$  contains a nilpotent element.
3.  $0 \in S$ .

*Proof.* “1.  $\Rightarrow$  2.”: Let  $S^{-1}A = 0$ , then for all  $x \in A$  and  $s \in S$  it is  $(x, s) \sim (0, 1)$ , thus  $x \cdot u = 0$  for some  $u \in S$ . In particular, this holds for  $x = 1$ , therefore  $1 \cdot u = 0$ . Since a unit can never be a zero divisor, we must have  $u = 0$  which is nilpotent and lies in  $S$ .

“1.  $\Leftarrow$  2.”: On the other hand, let  $x \in S$  be nilpotent, i.e.  $x^n = 0$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . Because  $S$  is multiplicatively closed  $x^n = 0$  lies in  $S$ . Fix an element  $(y, s) \in S^{-1}A$ , then  $y \cdot 1 \cdot 0 = 0 \cdot s \cdot 0$ . Hence  $(y, s) \sim (0, 1)$  and we have  $S^{-1}A = 0$ .

“2.  $\Rightarrow$  3.”: Again, let  $x \in S$  be nilpotent, thus  $x^n = 0$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ .  $S$  is multiplicatively closed and we have  $x^n = 0 \in S$ .

“2.  $\Leftarrow$  3.”: If  $0 \in S$ , then  $S$  simply contains a nilpotent element because 0 is nilpotent.  $\square$

**Example 21.1.** Some concrete examples of localization include the following.

1.

**Proposition 22.** Let  $A$  be a ring.  $A$  is reduced if and only if all its localizations  $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$  at  $\mathfrak{p} \in \text{Spec } A$  is reduced.

*Proof.* “ $\Rightarrow$ ”: We prove the statement by contrapositive. Let  $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$  be not reduced for all  $\mathfrak{p} \in \text{Spec } A$ . Thus, in all  $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$ , there is an element, say  $x/s$  that is nilpotent and not zero, i.e.  $(x/s)^n = 0$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . By the definition of localization, we get  $x^n \cdot u = 0$  for some  $u \in A \setminus \mathfrak{p}$ . Now,  $u \in A \setminus \mathfrak{p}$  cannot be zero, because if it was,  $A_{\mathfrak{p}} = 0$  which is reduced. Thus,  $x$  is nilpotent and  $A$  is not reduced.  $\square$

### Interactions

**Proposition 23.** Let  $A$  be a ring and  $S \subset A$  be a multiplicative subset that does not contain 0.

1.  $A$  is an integral domain if and only if  $S^{-1}A$  is an integral domain.
2.  $A$  is a unique factorization domain if and only if  $S^{-1}A$  is a unique factorization domain.

*Proof.* “ $\Rightarrow$ ”: Let  $A$  be an integral domain. Since  $S$  does not contain 0, the localization  $S^{-1}A$  is a nonzero ring (see EXAMPLE). Let  $(x, s) \in S^{-1}A \setminus \{0\}$  be a nonzero element and suppose there is a  $(y, t) \in S^{-1}A$  with  $(x, s) \cdot (y, t) = 0$ . It is  $(xy, st) = (0, 1)$  and thus  $xy \cdot u = 0$  for some  $u \in S$ . Because  $x$  was nonzero and  $S$  does not contain 0 we must have  $y = 0$ . Hence  $S^{-1}A$  is an integral domain.

“ $\Leftarrow$ ”: On the other hand, let  $S^{-1}A$  be an integral domain. JUST USE THE CANONIC MAPPING  $\varphi_S : A \rightarrow S^{-1}A$ .  $\square$

**Remark.** In the lemma above, the condition  $0 \notin S$  is required because if  $S$  contains 0, then  $S^{-1}A = 0$  and by definition, an integral domain is a nonzero ring.

**Proposition 24.** Let  $A$  be a ring,  $S$  a multiplicative subset, and  $\mathfrak{a}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{a}_n$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$  ideals in  $A$ . It is

$$\left( \bigcap_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{a}_i \right) A_S = \left( \bigcap_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{a}_i A_S \right)$$

or written differently

$$(\mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \dots \cap \mathfrak{a}_n) A_S = \mathfrak{a}_1 A_S \cap \dots \cap \mathfrak{a}_n A_S.$$

*Proof.* By induction, we reduce the case to  $n = 2$ , that is, we want to show  $(\mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \mathfrak{a}_2) A_S = \mathfrak{a}_1 A_S \cap \mathfrak{a}_2 A_S$ . The inclusion  $(\mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \mathfrak{a}_2) \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{a}_1$  induces a natural inclusion  $(\mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \mathfrak{a}_2) A_S \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{a}_1 A_S$

which can be extended to an injective map  $f : (\mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \mathfrak{a}_2)A_S \rightarrow \mathfrak{a}_1A_S \cap \mathfrak{a}_2A_S$ . It suffices to show  $f$  is surjective. Let  $y \in \mathfrak{a}_1A_S \cap \mathfrak{a}_2A_S$ . We have

$$y = \frac{a_1}{s} = \frac{a_2}{t}$$

with  $a_1 \in \mathfrak{a}_2$ ,  $a_2 \in \mathfrak{a}_1$ , and  $s, t \in S$ . Thus it is  $a_1tu = a_2su$  for some  $u \in S$ . Since  $a_1$  lies in  $\mathfrak{a}_1$ , we have  $a_1tu \in \mathfrak{a}_1$ , and similarly  $a_2su \in \mathfrak{a}_2$ , hence  $a_1tu \in \mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \mathfrak{a}_2$ . But  $t$  and  $u$  are invertible in  $A_S$ , therefore

$$\frac{a_1}{s} = \frac{a_1tu}{stu} \in (\mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \mathfrak{a}_2)A_S$$

thus  $f$  is surjective. □

**Example 24.1.** Consider  $\mathbb{Q}[X]$



## Exercises and Notes

**Example 24.2.** Let  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  be rings. Consider  $A = A_1 \times A_2$  and set  $S := \{(1, 1), (1, 0)\}$ . Prove  $A_1 \simeq S^{-1}A$ .

*Solution.* I don't understand the solution? □

**Example 24.3.** Find all intermediate rings  $\mathbb{Z} \subset A \subset \mathbb{Q}$ , and describe each  $A$  as a localization of  $\mathbb{Z}$ . As a starter, prove  $\mathbb{Z} \left[ \frac{2}{3} \right] = S_3^{-1}\mathbb{Z}$  where  $S_3 := \{3^i \mid i \in \mathbb{N}^+\}$ .



## Chapter 7

# Hierarchy of Rings

## 7.1 Integral Domains

### Definitions and Theorems

**Definition 25** (Integral Domains). An integral domain  $A$  is a nonzero ring satisfying the following equivalent conditions.

1. The product of two nonzero elements is nonzero, i.e. for all  $a$  and  $b$  in  $A$  it is  $ab \neq 0$ .
2. The zero ideal  $(0)$  is a prime ideal.
3. Every nonzero element is cancellable under multiplication, i.e.  $ab = ac$  implies  $b = c$ .

**Lemma 26.** Let  $A$  be a ring and  $\mathfrak{p}$  an ideal. Then,  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a prime ideal if and only if  $A/\mathfrak{p}$  is an integral domain.

**Proposition 27.** Any finite integral domain is a field.

*Proof.*

□

### Interactions

**Proposition 28.** If  $A$  is an integral domain, and  $S$  a multiplicative subset that does not contain 0, then its localization  $S^{-1}A$  is an integral domain.

*Proof.* Fix two elements  $x/s$  and  $y/t$  in  $S^{-1}A$ . If their product equals 0, we have

$$\frac{0}{1} = \frac{x}{s} \cdot \frac{y}{t} \iff xyu = 0 \text{ for some } u \in S$$

Since  $S$  does not contain 0, we must have  $x = 0$  or  $y = 0$ , thus  $S^{-1}A$  is an int domain. □

**Example 28.1.** The converse of the proposition above is not true, that is the localization  $S^{-1}A$  being an integral domain does not imply  $A$  is an integral domain.

### Notes

## **7.2 Unique Factorization Domains**

**Definitions and Theorems**

**Notes**

## 7.3 Principal Ideal Domains

### Definitions and Theorems

**Definition 29** (Principal Ideal Domains). A principal ideal domain is an integral domain in which every ideal is principal.

**Lemma 30.** In a principal ideal domain, all nonzero prime ideals are maximal and are generated by a prime element, i.e. if  $A$  is a principal ideal domain, then

$$\operatorname{Spec}(A) = \operatorname{Spm}(A) \cup \{(0)\} = \{ (p) \mid p \text{ is a prime element in } A \}.$$

**Lemma 31.** Let  $A$  be a principal ideal domain and  $\mathfrak{a}$  be an ideal in  $A$ . The quotient  $A/\mathfrak{a}$  is a principal ideal ring.

**Remark.** In the above lemma, the quotient  $A/\mathfrak{a}$  need not be an principal ideal domain because  $A/\mathfrak{a}$  is not even be an integral domain if  $\mathfrak{a}$  is not a prime ideal.

**Example 31.1.**  $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$  is a principal ideal ring, but not a principal ideal domain.

**Proposition 32.** Let  $A$  be a principal ideal domain and  $(x)$  an ideal in  $A$ . The proper ideals in  $A/(x)$  are in the form  $(a)$  where  $a \mid x$ .

### Notes

## 7.4 Euclidean Domains

Definitions and Theorems

Notes





## Chapter 8

# Classification of Rings

### 8.1 Definition and Theorems

#### 8.1.1 Noetherian Ring

**Lemma 33.** All principal ideal domains are Noetherian.

**Remark.** By the lemma above, it follows that any

1. Euclidean domains
2. fields

are Noetherian.

**Example 33.1.**

**Example 33.2.**

**Theorem 34** (Hilbert's Basis Theorem). If  $A$  is a Noetherian ring, then the polynomial ring with finitely many variables  $A[X_1, \dots, X_n]$  is Noetherian. In particular, if  $A$  is Noetherian, so is  $A[X]$ .

**Corollary 1.** If  $A$  is Noetherian, the power series ring  $A[[X]]$  is Noetherian.

**Remark.** The polynomial ring with infinitely many variables  $A[X_1, X_2, \dots]$  is never Noetherian.

## 8.2 Artinian Rings

### Definition and Theorems

**Definition 35** (Artinian Rings).

**Example 35.1.** 1. Any field is Artinian.  
2. Any finite ring is Artinian.

**Proposition 36.** 1. A quotient of an Artinian ring is Artinian.  
2. A localization of an Artinian ring is Artinian.

**Lemma 37.** An integral domain is Artinian if and only if it is a field.

*Proof.* Let  $A$  be an integral domain.

“ $\Rightarrow$ ”: Since  $A$  is an Artinian, the descending chain

$$(x) \supset (x^2) \supset \cdots \supset (x^n) \supset (x^{n+1}) \supset \cdots$$

becomes stationary, that is  $(x^n) = (x^{n+1})$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . It follows that there is a  $b \in A$  such that  $x^n = bx^{n+1}$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} x^n = bx^{n+1} &\iff 0 = bx^{n+1} - x^n \\ &\iff 0 = bx^n(x - 1) \end{aligned}$$

Since  $A$  is an integral domain,  $bx^n$  cannot be zero, thus  $x - 1 = 0$  or in other words  $x$  is a unit. Hence  $A$  is a field.

“ $\Leftarrow$ ”: All fields are already Artinian. □

**Proposition 38.** Let  $A$  be an Artinian ring. Then, we have the following

1. The spectrum  $\text{Spec}(A)$  of  $A$  and the maximal spectrum  $\text{Spm}(A)$  of  $A$  are both finite.
2. It is  $\text{Spec}(A) = \text{Spm}(A)$ .
3. For some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ , it is  $(\text{Jac}(A))^n = 0$ .
4. There are maximal ideals  $\mathfrak{m}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{m}_n$  in  $\text{Spm}(A)$  such that  $\prod_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{m}_i = 0$ .
5.  $A$  is Noetherian.
6.  $A$  has finite rank.

*Proof.* 1. Let  $(\mathfrak{m}_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}^+}$  be a sequence of maximal ideals and set

$$I_k = \prod_{i=1}^k \mathfrak{m}_i.$$

Since  $A$  is Artinian, the chain  $I_0 \supset I_1 \supset \cdots \supset I_k \supset I_{k+1} \supset \cdots$  becomes stationary. Hence  $I_k = I_{k+1}$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}^+$ .

2. Since  $\text{Spec}(A) \supset \text{Spm}(A)$  is immediately clear, we show the other direction of the inclusion. Let  $\mathfrak{p}$  be a prime ideal and consider  $A/\mathfrak{p}$ . It is an integral domain because  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a prime ideal and it is also Artinian because a quotient of an Artinian ring is Artinian. Therefore,  $A/\mathfrak{p}$  is a field, hence  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a maximal ideal.  $\square$

**Lemma 39.** A ring is Artinian if and only if it is Noetherian and  $\text{Spec}(A) = \text{Spm}(A)$ .

**Theorem 40.**

### Exercise and Notes

**Example 40.1.** Given a prime  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ , find all Artinian rings  $A$  with  $p^2$  elements (up to isomorphisms).

*Proof.* Let  $A$  be an Artinian ring with  $p^2$  elements where  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  is prime. By the structure theorem of Artinian rings, we have that  $A$  is a product of local Artinian rings. Since  $p^2$  has two prime factors, this product can involve at most two factors. Thus, we have two cases.

**Case 1:** In this case,  $A = A_1 \times A_2$  for two local Artinian rings  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  with both having exactly  $p$  elements. A ring with  $p$  elements is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . We may conclude  $A = \mathbb{F}_p \times \mathbb{F}_p$ .

**Case 2:** If  $A$  has only one factor,  $A$  must be a local ring, i.e. it has a unique maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$  with  $\mathfrak{m}^n = 0$  for some  $\mathbb{N}^+$ . Choose such  $n$  to be minimal and consider the chain  $R \supset \mathfrak{m} \supset \mathfrak{m}^2 \supset 0$ . Taking the quotient at each step we obtain  $\square$



# Part II

## Modules



# Chapter 9

## Modules

### Definition and Theorems

#### Introduction

**Definition 41** (Module).

**Example 41.1.** 1. If  $A$  is a field, then an  $A$ -module is a vector space.  
2. A  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module is just an abelian group.

**Definition 42** (Submodules). Let  $M$  be an  $A$ -module. A subset  $N$  of  $M$  is called a submodule if  $(N, +)$  is a subgroup of  $M$  and for all  $n \in N$  and for all  $a \in A$  it is  $a \cdot n \in N$ .

**Proposition 43.** Let  $A$  be a ring. If  $A$  is viewed as a module over itself, then its submodules are exactly its ideals, i.e.

$$\{ N \mid N \text{ is a submodule of } A \} = \{ \mathfrak{a} \mid \mathfrak{a} \text{ is an ideal of } A \}.$$

**Definition 44** (Homomorphism of Modules).

**Proposition 45.** Let  $M$  and  $N$  be an  $A$ -module, and  $\varphi : M \rightarrow N$  be an  $A$ -module homomorphism.

1.  $\text{im}(\varphi)$  is a submodule of  $N$ .
2.  $\ker(\varphi)$  is a submodule of  $M$ .
3. For any submodule  $N'$  of  $N$ , its preimage  $\varphi^{-1}(N')$  is a submodule of  $M$ .

#### Free and Finitely Generated

**Definition 46.** An  $A$ -module is finitely generated if there exists a finite set  $\{m_1, \dots, m_n\}$  with  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$  in  $M$  such that for any  $x$  in  $M$ , there exists  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  in  $A$  with

$$x = \lambda_1 m_1 + \dots + \lambda_n m_n$$

**Lemma 47.** An  $A$ -module is finitely generated if and only if there exists a surjective  $A$ -module homomorphism

$$A^n \longrightarrow M$$

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

**Definition 48.** Let  $M$  be an  $A$ -module. A set  $B \subset M$  is a basis of  $M$  if

1.  $B$  is a generating set for  $M$
2.  $B$  is linearly independent

A free module is a module with a basis.

**Remark.** An  $A$ -module being free does **not** imply the module being finitely generated. Similarly, an  $A$ -module being finitely generated does **not** imply the module being free.

**Example 48.1.** Two examples to illustrate the remark above.

1. As an  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module,  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  is finitely generated but is not free.
2. As an  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module,  $\bigoplus_{\mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Z}$  is free, but is not finitely generated.

*Proof.* 1.  $\{1\}$  is a generating set of  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  since  $1 \cdot 1 = 1$  and  $2 \cdot 1 = 0$ . However,  $\{1\}$  and ... □

### Torsion and Annihilator

**Definition 49.**

$$\text{Tor}(M) = \{ m \in M \mid \text{there is an } a \in A \setminus \{0\} \text{ such that } a \cdot m = 0 \}$$

**Example 49.1.** 1. Let  $\mathbb{Z}$  be a module over itself. It is  $\text{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}) = \{0\}$ .

2. Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$  and consider the  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module  $\mathbb{Z}^n$ . It is

**Lemma 50.** If  $M$  is a free  $A$ -module, then it is torsion-free, i.e.  $\text{Tor}(M) = \{0\}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $M$  be a free  $A$ -module and fix an element  $m \in M$ . Since  $M$  is free,  $m$  may be written as

$$m = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i m_i$$

where  $\lambda_i \in A$  and  $m_i \in M$  with  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . If  $m$  is a torsion element, then there is some  $a \in A$  such that  $am = 0$ , thus it is

$$0 = am = a \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i m_i = \sum_{i=1}^n a \lambda_i m_i$$

But  $m_i$  are linearly independent, therefore  $m = 0$ . □



**Definition 51** (Annihilator).

**Definition 52** (Radical).

**Definition 53** (Simple Modules). Let  $A$  be a ring. A nonzero  $A$ -module  $M$  is called simple if the only submodules are  $\{0\}$  and  $M$  itself.

**Example 53.1.** If  $M$  is a simple  $A$ -module, then any  $f \in \text{Hom}_A(M, M) \setminus \{0\}$  is an isomorphism.

*Proof.* Fix an  $f \in \text{Hom}_A(M, M) \setminus \{0\}$ . Since  $\ker(f)$  is a submodule of  $M$ , it must be either  $\{0\}$  or whole  $M$ . But  $\ker(f) = M$  would mean that  $f = 0$  which was explicitly excluded, thus  $\ker(f) = \{0\}$ . By the isomorphism theorem, we also have  $\text{im}(f) \cong M/\ker(f) \cong M$ . Therefore,  $f$  is bijective.  $\square$

**Definition 54** (Indecomposable). Let  $A$  be a ring. A nonzero  $A$ -module  $M$  is called indecomposable if it cannot be written as a direct sum of two non-zero submodules.

**Proposition 55.** Every simple module is indecomposable.

**Example 55.1.** Not all indecomposable modules are simple. For example,  $\mathbb{Z}$  is indecomposable, but is not simple.

## 9.1 Exercises and Notes

**Example 55.2.** Let  $f : M \rightarrow N$  be a surjective homomorphism of two finitely generated  $A$ -modules.

1. If  $N \cong A^n$  is a free  $A$ -module, show that  $M \cong \ker(f) \oplus N$ .

*Proof.* Since  $N$  is finitely generated, let  $(e_1, \dots, e_n)$  be a set of generators. □

**Example 55.3.** Let  $A$  be a ring,  $\mathfrak{a}$  and  $\mathfrak{b}$  ideals,  $M$  and  $N$   $A$ -modules. Set

$$\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M) := \left\{ m \in M \mid \mathfrak{a} \subset \sqrt{\text{Ann}(m)} \right\}.$$

Prove the following statements.

1. If  $\mathfrak{a} \supset \mathfrak{b}$ , then  $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M) \subset \Gamma_{\mathfrak{b}}(M)$ .

*Proof.* The proof is a matter of verification. Let  $m \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M)$ . It is

$$\begin{aligned} m \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M) &\Rightarrow \mathfrak{a} \subset \sqrt{\text{Ann}(m)} \\ &\Rightarrow \text{For all } a \in \mathfrak{a} \text{ there is a } n \in \mathbb{N}^+ \text{ such that } a^n \in \text{Ann}(m). \\ &\Rightarrow \text{For all } a \in \mathfrak{a} \text{ there is a } n \in \mathbb{N}^+ \text{ such that } a^n \cdot m = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\mathfrak{a} \supset \mathfrak{b}$ , the last statement is true for all  $a \in \mathfrak{b}$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} &\Rightarrow \text{For all } a \in \mathfrak{b} \text{ there is a } n \in \mathbb{N}^+ \text{ such that } a^n \cdot m = 0. \\ &\Rightarrow \text{For all } a \in \mathfrak{b} \text{ there is a } n \in \mathbb{N}^+ \text{ such that } a^n \in \text{Ann}(m). \\ &\Rightarrow \mathfrak{b} \subset \sqrt{\text{Ann}(m)} \\ &\Rightarrow m \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{b}}(M) \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M) \subset \Gamma_{\mathfrak{b}}(M)$ . □

2. If  $M \subset N$ , then  $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M) = \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(N) \cap M$ .

*Proof.* Again, the proof is a matter of verification.

“ $\subset$ ”:  $M \subset N$  implies  $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M) \subset \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(N)$ . Moreover, it is  $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M) \subset M$ . Thus,  $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M) \subset \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(N) \cap M$ .

“ $\supset$ ”: Let  $m \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(N) \cap M$ . It is

$$\begin{aligned} m \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(N) \cap M &\Rightarrow \mathfrak{a} \subset \sqrt{\text{Ann}(m)} \text{ and } m \in M. \\ &\Rightarrow m \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M). \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(N) \cap M \subset \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M)$ . □

3. In general, it is  $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(\Gamma_{\mathfrak{b}}(M)) = \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}+\mathfrak{b}}(M) = \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M) \cap \Gamma_{\mathfrak{b}}(M)$ .

4. In general, it is  $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M) = \Gamma_{\sqrt{\mathfrak{a}}}(M)$ .

5. If  $\mathfrak{a}$  is finitely generated, then

$$\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}(M) = \bigcup_{n \geq 1} \{ m \in M \mid \mathfrak{a}^n m = 0 \}.$$

**Example 55.4.** Let  $A$  be a ring,  $M$  a module,  $x \in \text{Rad}(M)$ , and  $m \in M$ . If  $(1+x)m = 0$ , then  $m = 0$ .

*Proof.* By definition of radical of a module, it is

$$\text{Rad}(A/\text{Ann}(M)) = \text{Rad}(M)/\text{Ann}(M).$$

Thus, if  $x \in \text{Rad}(M)$ , then its residue  $x' := x + \text{Ann}(M)$  lies in  $\text{Rad}(A/\text{Ann}(M))$  which means  $x'$  is nilpotent. SOME THEOREM yields  $(1+x')$  is an unit in  $A/\text{Ann}(M)$ . □

# Chapter 10

## Tensor Product

### 10.1 Definition and Theorems

**Definition 56.** Let  $M$  and  $N$  be  $A$ -modules. Their tensor product is a pair  $(M \otimes_A N, \theta)$  where

1.  $M \otimes_A N$  is an  $A$ -module.
2.  $\theta : M \times N \rightarrow M \otimes_A N$  is an  $A$ -bilinear mapping.

satisfying the universal property, for every pair  $(P, \omega)$  of an  $A$ -module and an  $A$ -bilinear mapping  $\omega : M \times N \rightarrow P$ , there exists a unique  $A$ -module homomorphism  $f : M \otimes_A N \rightarrow P$  with  $\omega = f \circ \theta$ .

**Definition 57.** Let  $M$  and  $N$  be  $A$ -modules. Their tensor product is the pair  $(M \otimes_A N, \theta)$ , where

1.  $M \otimes_A N$  is the quotient of the free  $A$ -module  $A^{M \times N}$  on the direct product  $M \times N$ , by the submodule generated by the set of elements of the form:

$$\begin{aligned} &(\lambda m_1 + m_2, n) - \lambda(m_1, n) - (m_2, n) \\ &(m, \lambda n_1 + n_2) - \lambda(m, n_1) - (m, n_2) \end{aligned}$$

for  $m, m_1, m_2 \in M$ ;  $n, n_1, n_2 \in N$ ; and  $\lambda \in A$ , where we denote  $(m, n)$  for its image under the canonical mapping  $M \times N \rightarrow A^{(M \times N)}$ .

2.  $\theta : M \times N \rightarrow M \otimes_A N$  is the composition of the canonical mapping  $M \times N \rightarrow A^{(M \times N)}$  with the quotient module homomorphism  $A^{(M \times N)} \rightarrow M \otimes_A N$ .

**Example 57.1.** It is  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} = 0$ .

*Proof.* Let's show this in multiple concrete ways.

**Method 1:** I want to do this concretely. First, we have

$$\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} = \{ (0, 0); (0, 1); (0, 2); (1, 0); (1, 1); (1, 2) \}.$$

Thus, the elements of  $\mathbb{Z}^{(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z})}$  are in the form

$$(x_{(0,0)}, x_{(0,1)}, x_{(0,2)}, x_{(1,0)}, x_{(1,1)}, x_{(1,2)})$$

where  $x_{(i,j)} \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $i \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $j \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ .

Now, we want to find the submodule generated by the rules in the definition.

1. Set  $m_1 = m_2 = n = \lambda = 0$ , then

$$(0 \cdot 0 + 0, 0) + 0 \cdot (0, 0) - (0, 0) = (0, 0) = 1 \cdot (0, 0) \rightarrow (1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0).$$

2. Set  $m = n_2 = 0$ ,  $n_1 = 1$ , and  $\lambda = 2$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} (0, 2 \cdot 1 + 0) - 2 \cdot (0, 1) - (0, 0) &= (0, 2) - (2 \cdot 0, 1) \\ &= (0, 2) - (0, 1) \\ &= (0, 1) \\ &= 1 \cdot (0, 1) \\ &\rightarrow (0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0) \end{aligned}$$

3. I think the rest is clear for now.

We may conclude that the submodule generated by the rules defined is the whole module, thus  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} = 0$ .

**Method 2:** <https://www.math.brown.edu/reschwar/M153/tensor.pdf>

□

**Proposition 58.** Let  $A$  be a ring, and  $M, N$  and  $P$  be  $A$ -modules.

1. (identity)  $A \otimes_A M = M$ .
2. (commutative law)  $M \otimes_A N = N \otimes_A M$ .

*Proof.* As in the proposition, let  $A$  be a ring, and  $M, N$  and  $P$  be  $A$ -modules.

1. Define  $\beta : A \times M \rightarrow M$  by  $\beta(x, m) := xm$ . Clearly,  $\beta$  is bilinear.

□

## 10.2 Exercises and Notes

**Example 58.1.** Let  $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$  be ring homomorphisms and  $M$  and  $N$  be  $A$ -modules. Show the following.

1.  $(M \otimes_A B) \otimes_B C \cong M \otimes_A C$

*Proof.* It is

$$\begin{aligned} (M \otimes_A B) \otimes_B C &\cong M \otimes_A (B \otimes_B C) \\ &\cong M \otimes_A C \end{aligned}$$

□

2.  $(M \otimes_A N) \otimes_A B \cong (M \otimes_A B) \otimes_B (N \otimes_A B)$

*Proof.* trivial

□

**Example 58.2.** Let  $A$  be a ring.

1. If  $M, N$  are  $A$ -modules, then  $\text{Hom}_A(M, N)$  may be viewed as an  $A$ -module via

$$a \cdot \varphi := (m \mapsto a \cdot \varphi(m))$$

for  $a \in A$  and  $\varphi \in \text{Hom}_A(M, N)$ .

*Proof.* this is trivial

□

2. If  $M, N, L$  are  $A$ -modules, then there exists a natural isomorphism of  $A$ -modules

$$\text{Hom}_A(L \otimes_A M, N) \cong \text{Hom}_A(L, \text{Hom}_A(M, N))$$

**Example 58.3.** Let  $A$  be a ring,  $\mathfrak{a}$  an ideal of  $A$ , and  $M$  an  $A$ -module.

1. Show that  $M/\mathfrak{a}M \cong M \otimes_A A/\mathfrak{a}$ .

*Proof.* Define  $\varphi : M \otimes_A A/\mathfrak{a} \rightarrow M/\mathfrak{a}M$  by

$$m \otimes_A \bar{x} \mapsto x \cdot m + \mathfrak{a}M.$$

$\varphi$  is an homomorphism because

$$(a) \quad \varphi((m_1 \otimes_A \bar{x}_1) + (m_2 \otimes_A \bar{x}_2)) =$$

□



# Chapter 11

## Exact Sequences

### 11.1 Definition and Theorems

**Definition 59.** Exact at, exact sequence, short exact sequence

**Example 59.1.** Let  $M$  and  $N$  be  $A$ -modules. Then, the sequence

$$0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow M \oplus N \rightarrow N \rightarrow 0$$

is short exact.

**Lemma 60.** If  $0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow N \rightarrow P \rightarrow 0$  is exact, and  $M$  and  $P$  are finitely presented, then  $N$  is finitely presented.

*Proof.*

□

**Proposition 61.** Let  $M$  be an  $A$ -module,  $m_\lambda$  with  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  a set of generators. Then there is an exact sequence  $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow A^{\oplus \Lambda} \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$

### 11.2 Notes and Exercises





## Chapter 12

# Noetherian Modules

**Definition 62.** An  $A$ -module  $M$  is called Noetherian if one of the following equivalent conditions hold.

1. Its submodules satisfies the asending chain condition, i.e. MISSING.
2. All submodules of  $M$  are finitely generated.

*Proof.* “ $\Rightarrow$ ”: Let  $M$  be an  $A$ -module that satisfies the ascending chain condition and assume a submodule  $N$  is not finitely generated. In this case, we may construct a chain of submodules

$$N_1 \subset N_2 \subset \cdots N_i \subset \cdots$$

where  $N_i = (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{i-1})$  with  $n_i \in N$  and  $n_i \notin N_i$  for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . This chain never stabilizes, thus  $N$  must be finitely generated.

“ $\Leftarrow$ ”:

□

**Lemma 63.** Let  $0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow N \rightarrow P \rightarrow 0$  be an exact sequence of  $A$ -modules. Then  $N$  is Noetherian if and only if  $M$  and  $P$  are Noetherian.

*Proof.* Let  $0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow N \rightarrow P \rightarrow 0$  be an exact sequence of  $A$ -modules.

“ $\Rightarrow$ ”: Let  $N$  be Noetherian.

1. We show that  $M$  is Noetherian by verifying all its submodules are finitely generated. Let  $M'$  be a submodule of  $M$ . In that case,  $\alpha(M')$  is a submodule of  $N$  and thus finitely generated.  $\alpha$  restricted
2. We show that  $P$  is Noetherian by verifying all its submodules are finitely generated. Let  $P'$  be a submodule of  $P$ . Since  $\beta$  is surjective, we have  $P' = \beta(\beta^{-1}(P'))$ .  $\beta^{-1}(P')$  is a submodule of  $N$  and it is finitely generated because  $N$  is Noetherian.

□

**Proposition 64.** The property Noetherian is stable under intersection, direct sum, addition, and localization. Let  $M$  be an  $A$ -module,  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  submodules of  $M$ .

1. If  $N_1$  and  $N_1$  are Noetherian, so is  $N_1 \cap N_2$ ,  $N_1 \oplus N_2$ , and  $N_1 + N_2$ .

*Proof.* 1. Since all submodules of a Noetherian module is again Noetherian,  $N_1 \cap N_2$  is Noetherian because it is a submodule of  $M$  which is Noetherian.

2. Consider the sequence  $0 \rightarrow N_1 \rightarrow N_1 \oplus N_2 \rightarrow N_2 \rightarrow 0$ .
- 3.

□

**Example 64.1.** Let  $M$  be an  $A$ -module, and  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  submodules of  $M$ . In general,  $N_1 \otimes N_2$  is not Noetherian.

## Chapter 13

# Artinian Modules

### 13.1 Definition and Theorems

**Definition 65** (Artinian Module).

**Example 65.1** (Examples of Artinian Modules). 1. For  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is Artinian.

**Example 65.2** (Counterexamples of Artinian Modules). 1.  $\mathbb{Z}$  is not Artinian.

**Lemma 66.** Let  $0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow N \rightarrow P \rightarrow 0$  be an exact sequence of  $A$ -modules. Then  $N$  is Artinian if and only if  $M$  and  $P$  are Artinian.

**Proposition 67.** The property of Artinian is stable under intersection, direct sum, addition, localization,



Unorganized



**Example 67.1.** Let  $A$  be a local ring with maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$ .

1. What do the simple  $A$ -module look like?

*Proof.* Let  $M$  be a simple  $A$ -module. Since  $M$  is simple, the only proper submodule is the zero-module.  $\square$

### Length

**Example 67.2.** Let  $M$  be an  $A$ -module.

1. If  $M$  is simple, then any nonzero element  $m \in M$  generates  $M$ .

*Proof.* Fix an element  $m \in M$  and assume  $m$  does not generate whole  $M$ . In that case, there must be a  $m' \in M$  such that  $m \neq \lambda m'$  for all  $\lambda \in A$ . Then,  $(m)$  is non-zero, but also not whole  $M$  which is a contradiction.  $\square$

2.  $M$  is simple if and only if  $M \cong A/\mathfrak{m}$  for some maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$ , and if so, then  $\mathfrak{m} = \text{Ann}(M)$ .

*Proof.* We first show that  $M$  is simple if and only if  $M \cong A/\mathfrak{m}$  for some maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$ . “ $\Rightarrow$ ”: Let  $M$  be simple. By the statement above,  $M$  is cyclic.  $\square$

**Example 67.3.** Let  $k$  be a field. Is  $X = \text{Spec}(k[X, Y]/(xy - 1))$  with the Zariski-topology connected?

**Example 67.4.** If  $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$  is reduced at all  $\mathfrak{p} \in \text{Spec}(A)$ , then  $A$  is reduced.

*Proof.* THIS IS A WRONG PROOF!

Denote the canonic  $\varphi_{\mathfrak{p}} : A \rightarrow A_{\mathfrak{p}}$ . Assume  $x \in A$  with  $x^n = 0$ . It is

$$0 = \varphi(0) = \varphi(x^n) = (\varphi(x))^n$$

but since  $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$  is reduced, conclude  $\varphi(x) = 0$ , so  $x = 0$ .

The issue with this proof is that for example  $\varphi(x) \cdot \varphi(x)^2 = 0$  because  $\varphi(x)$  and  $\varphi(x)^2$  are zero divisors.  $\square$

**Proposition 68.** Let  $A$  be a ring. Then, the following are equivalent.

1.  $A$  is reduced.
2.  $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$  is reduced for all prime ideals  $\mathfrak{p} \in \text{Spec}(A)$ .
3.  $A_{\mathfrak{m}}$  is reduced for all maximal ideals  $\mathfrak{m} \in \text{Spm}(A)$ .

*Proof.* “ $2 \Rightarrow 1$ ”: Assume  $x \in A$  is nilpotent and nonzero.  $\square$