Algebra

June 18, 2017

# 1 Commutative Algebra

## 1.1 ED, PID and UFD (week 9)

We shall consider R to be an integral domain below.

**Def 1.** A function  $N: R \to \mathbb{N}$  with N(0) = 0 is called a norm on R.

**Def 2.** R is called a Euclidean domain if exists a norm N on R satisfying

$$\forall a, b \in R, \exists q, r \in R \text{ s.t. } a = qb + r \text{ with } r = 0 \text{ or } N(r) < N(b)$$

## Eg 1.1.1.

- $\mathbb{Z}$  is a ED with N(n) = |n|.
- K[x] is a ED with  $N(f) = \deg f, \forall f \in K[x]$ .

**Def 3.**  $A_d$  is defined to be the ring of integers in the quadratic field  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$  with  $d \neq 1$  and d is square-free. That is,

$$A_d \triangleq \{\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}) \mid \alpha \text{ is integral over } \mathbb{Z}\}\$$

#### Theorem 1.

• If  $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , then

$$A_d = \left\{ a + b \frac{1 + \sqrt{d}}{2} : a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

• Else,  $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$ , then

$$A_d = \{a + b\sqrt{d} : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}\$$

Proof. Let  $\alpha = p + q\sqrt{d} \in A_d$  for  $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}$  with  $q \neq 0$ . We have  $\alpha - p = q\sqrt{d}$ , then  $(\alpha - p)^2 = q^2d$  and thus  $\alpha^2 - 2p\alpha + (p^2 - q^2d) = 0$ . Let  $g(x) \triangleq x^2 - 2px + (p^2 - q^2d)$ . Assume  $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  with f monic and  $f(\alpha) = 0$ , then we could write f(x) = q(x)g(x) + (ax + b). Since  $\alpha$  is not rational,  $a\alpha + b = 0 \implies a = b = 0$ , so f(x) = q(x)g(x) in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ . By gauss lemma,  $g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , so  $2p \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $p^2 - q^2d \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

If 2p is even, then  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and  $p^2 - q^2 d \in \mathbb{Z}$  implies q is also an integer since d is square free.

If 2p is odd, say 2p=2m+1, then  $(2p)^2\equiv (2m+1)^2\equiv 1\pmod 4$ . Also,  $4(p^2-q^2d)\equiv 0\pmod 4$ , so  $4q^2d\equiv 4p^2\equiv 1\pmod 4$ . Since d is square free, so  $4\nmid d$ , thus q has to be of the form q=(2n+1)/2. Plug in the equation we get  $d\equiv 1\pmod 4$ . Thus in this case, p,q are half integer and  $d\equiv 1\pmod 4$ .

**Theorem 2.**  $A_d$  is a ED if d = 2, 3, 5, -1, -2, -3, -7, -11. Hence  $A_d$  is also PID and UFD for these value.

*Proof.* Let  $N'(p+q\sqrt{d})=(p+q\sqrt{d})(p-q\sqrt{d})=p^2-q^2d$ . Define  $N(\alpha)\triangleq |N'(\alpha)|$  which is positive since  $p^2-q^2d=0\iff p=q=0$ . Notice also N is multiplicative.

Now, for  $\alpha, \beta \in A_d$ , write  $\alpha/\beta = x + y\sqrt{d}$ . If we could find  $\lambda = a + b\sqrt{d}$  such that  $|\alpha/\beta - \lambda| < 1$ , then  $\alpha = \beta\lambda + \gamma$  with  $N(\gamma) < N(\beta)$  which proves that  $A_d$  is an ED.

• d=2,3,-2,-1: Choose  $a,b\in\mathbb{Z}$  such that  $|x-a|,|y-b|\leq 1/2$ . Then  $N\triangleq N(\alpha/\beta-\lambda)=|(x-a)^2-(y-b)^2d|$ .

- If 
$$d = 2, 3$$
, then  $N \le \max(|(x - a)^2|, |(y - b)^2 d|) \le \max(1/4, d/4) < 1$ .  
- If  $d = -2, -1$ , then  $N \le |(x - a)^2| + |(y - b)^2 d| \le 1/4 + |d|/4 < 1$ .

• d=5,-3,-7,-11: Similarly, but now  $d\equiv 1\pmod 4$ , so we could choose  $\lambda=a+b(1+\sqrt{d})/2=(a+b/2)+b/2\sqrt{d}$ . Thus let b be the one such that  $|2y-b|\leq 1/2$ , and then choose a so that  $x-a-b/2\leq 1/2$ . We have  $N(\alpha/\beta-\lambda)=|(x-a-b/2)^2-d(y-b/2)^2|\leq 1/4+d/16<1$ .

**Eg 1.1.2.**  $A_{-5}$  is not a ED.

Proof. Consider  $6=2\cdot 3=(1+\sqrt{-5})(1-\sqrt{-5})$ . Notice that  $1+\sqrt{-5}$  is irreducible, since if  $1+\sqrt{-5}=\alpha\beta$ , then  $6=N(1+\sqrt{-5})=N(\alpha)N(\beta)$ . But this implies  $a^2+5b^2=2$  or 3 which has no integer solution. Also  $1+\sqrt{-5}\nmid 2,3$ . Since if  $(1+\sqrt{-5})\alpha=2$ , then  $N(1+\sqrt{-5})N(\alpha)=N(2)=4$ , but  $N(1+\sqrt{-5})=6$ . Similarly  $1+\sqrt{-5}\nmid 3$ . So  $A_{-5}$  is not an UFD thus not an ED.

1.1.1  $A_{-1}$  and  $A_{-3}$ 

**Def 4.** If p is odd and  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , then

- If  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  is solvable, then define  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1$ .
- Else  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  is not solvable and define  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1$ .

Prop 1.1.1.

- $a \equiv b \pmod{p} \implies \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$ .
- $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = a^{(p-1)/2}$ :

*Proof.* Consider the sequence:

$$1 \longrightarrow (\mathbb{F}_p^{\times})^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{F}_p^{\times} \stackrel{\varphi}{\longrightarrow} \{\pm 1\} \longrightarrow 1$$
$$y^2 \longmapsto y^2 = x \longmapsto (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \longmapsto 1$$

which is exact since  $y^2 \mapsto y^2 \mapsto y^{2(p-1)/2} \equiv 1$ . And since  $\mathbb{F}_p^{\times}$  is cyclic with even elements,  $\left[\mathbb{F}_p^{\times}: (\mathbb{F}_p^{\times})^2\right] = 2$ , and  $(\mathbb{F}_p^{\times})^2 = \ker \varphi$ .

- $\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$ .
- Let  $t_k \equiv ka \pmod{p}$  with  $0 \le t_k < p$ , for  $1 \le k \le (p-1)/2$ . Assume that  $n = \#\{t_i \mid t_i > p/2\}$ , then  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^n$ .

Proof. Define

$$|t_i| = \begin{cases} t_j & \text{If } 1 \le t_j < p/2 & (t_j \equiv |t_j|) \\ p - t_j & \text{If } p/2 < t_j < p & (t_j \equiv -|t_j|) \end{cases}$$

Notice that  $|t_i|$  takes value between 1 and (p-1)/2, and  $|ra| \equiv |sa| \pmod{p} \implies ra \equiv \pm sa \pmod{p} \implies r \equiv \pm s \pmod{p}$  since  $\gcd(a,p) = 1$ . So  $|t_k|$  would have distinct value for  $1 \le k \le (p-1)/2$ . Thus

$$\prod t_k \equiv \frac{p-1}{2}! a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (-1)^n \frac{p-1}{2}! \implies a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (-1)^n$$

• If p, q are odd primes, then we have:

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\left(\sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} \left\lfloor \frac{kq}{p} \right\rfloor\right)}$$

*Proof.* Write  $kq = g_k p + t_k$  with  $0 \le t_k < p$  consistent with the previous definition. Then we have  $\lfloor kq/p \rfloor = g_k$ , and

if 
$$|t_k| = t_k$$
  $\longrightarrow qk = g_k p + |t_k|$   $\longrightarrow k \equiv g_k + |t_k| \pmod{2}$   
if  $|t_k| = p - t_k$   $\longrightarrow qk = (g_k + 1)p - |t_k|$   $\longrightarrow k \equiv g_k + 1 + |t_k| \pmod{2}$ 

So

$$\sum_{i=1}^{(p-1)/2} k \equiv n + \sum_{i=1}^{(p-1)/2} \left\lfloor \frac{qk}{p} \right\rfloor + \sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} |t_k| \pmod{2}$$

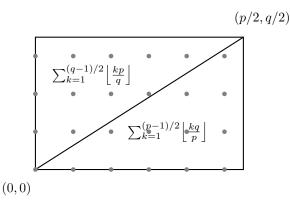
As in the previous proof,  $\sum k = \sum |t_k|$ , so  $n \equiv \sum \lfloor qk/p \rfloor \pmod 2$ , which proves the statement.

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{q-1}{2}\right)}$$

By above,

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\left(\sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} \left\lfloor \frac{kq}{p} \right\rfloor\right)} (-1)^{\left(\sum_{k=1}^{(q-1)/2} \left\lfloor \frac{kp}{q} \right\rfloor\right)}$$

Which is the number of integer points in the rectangle:



And we know that there are  $\frac{p-1}{2}\frac{q-1}{2}$  points in the rectangle.

## Prop 1.1.2.

•  $\alpha$  is a unit  $\iff N(\alpha) = 1$ .

Proof. "
$$\Rightarrow$$
": If  $\alpha\beta = 1$ ,  $N(\alpha)N(\beta) = 1$  so  $N(\alpha) = 1$ .
" $\Leftarrow$ ": Immediately by  $\alpha\bar{\alpha} = N(\alpha) = 1$ .

• If  $\alpha$  is a prime in  $A_d$ , then  $N(\alpha) = p$  or  $p^2$  for some prime integer p. Also  $N(\alpha) = p^2 \implies \alpha \sim p$ .

Proof.  $\alpha \bar{\alpha} = N(\alpha) = p_1 \cdots p_n$  where  $p_i$  are primes in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Continue using the fact that "If  $\alpha$  is a prime and  $\alpha \mid xy$ , then  $\alpha \mid x$  or  $\alpha \mid y$ ", we will get  $\alpha \mid p_i$  for an i. Say  $\alpha \beta = p_i$ , then  $\bar{\alpha} \bar{\beta} = \bar{p}_i = p_i$ , so  $N(\alpha)N(\beta) = p_i^2$  which means that  $N(\alpha) = p_i$  or  $p_i^2$ . Also, if  $N(\alpha) = p_i^2$ , then  $N(\beta) = 1 \implies \beta$  is a unit.

By the proposition above we identify the unit in  $A_{-1}$ ,  $A_{-3}$ .

- $A_{-1}$ :  $\pm 1, \pm i$ .
- $A_{-3}$ :  $\pm 1, \pm \omega, \pm \omega^2$ .

Now, notice that  $2 = (1 + \sqrt{-1})(1 - \sqrt{-1})$ ,  $3 = (1 - \omega)(1 - \omega^2)$ , so 2, 3 are not prime in  $A_{-1}$ ,  $A_{-3}$  respectively.

Let p be a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

• In  $A_{-1}$ :

$$\begin{array}{l} p \text{ is a prime in } \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-1}] \\ \iff \langle p \rangle \text{ is maximal ideal} \\ \iff \frac{\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-1}]}{\langle p \rangle} \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{\langle p, x^2 + 1 \rangle} \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]/\langle p \rangle}{\langle p, x^2 + 1 \rangle/\langle p \rangle} \cong \frac{\mathbb{F}_p[x]}{\langle x^2 + 1 \rangle} \text{ is a field} \\ \iff x^2 + 1 \text{ irreducible in } \mathbb{F}_p[x] \\ \iff x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p} \text{ is not solvable} \\ \iff \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \neq 1 \\ \iff p \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4} \end{array}$$

So p is **not** a prime in  $A_{-1} \iff p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

• In  $A_{-3}$ : If a prime  $p \neq 3$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$  is not a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ , then it has a nontrivial factor  $\alpha \mid p$ . But  $N(p) = p^2$ , so we must have  $N(\alpha) = p$ , i.e.  $\alpha \bar{\alpha} = p$ . Let  $\alpha = a + b\omega$ , then  $p = \alpha \bar{\alpha} = a^2 + b^2 - ab \implies 4p = (2a - b)^2 + 3b^2$ , so  $p \equiv (2a - b)^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ .  $(p \not\equiv 0 \text{ since } p \neq 3)$ 

Conversely, if  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ , then

$$\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2}\left(\frac{p}{3}\right)(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}\cdot\frac{3-1}{2}} = \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = 1$$

So exists  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a^2 \equiv -3 \pmod{p}$ , say  $pb = a^2 + 3 = (a + \sqrt{-3})(a - \sqrt{-3}) = (a + 1 + 2\omega)(a - 1 - 2\omega)$ .

If p is a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ , then  $p \mid (a+1+2\omega)$  or  $p \mod (a-1-2\omega)$ , which implies that  $p \mid 2$  (since  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $p \mid a+b\omega \implies p \mid a,p \mid b$ ), which leads to a contradiction, thus p is not a prime.

Hence  $p \neq 3$  is not a prime in  $A_{-3} \iff p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ .

## 1.2 Primary decomposition

Def 5.

- The radical of an ideal I is defined by  $\sqrt{I} = \{a \in R \mid a^n \in I \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$
- I is radical if  $\sqrt{I} = I$ .

**Def 6.** The **nilradical** is defined as  $\sqrt{\langle 0 \rangle} \triangleq \{ a \in R \mid a^n = 0 \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N} \}$ . Elements in it are called nilpotent.

**Prop 1.2.1.**  $\sqrt{\langle 0 \rangle} = \bigcap_{P \in \operatorname{Spec} R} P$ , where  $\operatorname{Spec} R$  is the set of prime ideals in R.

*Proof.* " $\subset$ ": Notice that  $a^n = 0 \in P$  for any prime ideal P. By the definition of prime ideal, either  $a \in P$  or  $a^{n-1} \in P$ . No matter which, eventually we would get  $a \in P$ .

" $\supset$ ": Let  $S \triangleq \{I : \text{ ideal in } R \mid a^n \notin I, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . By the routine argument of Zorn's lemma, exists maximal element Q in S. We claim that Q is a prime ideal.

For each  $x, y \notin Q$ , we have  $Q + Rx \supseteq Q$  and  $Q + Ry \supseteq Q$ . By the maximality of Q, these two ideals are not in S. So exists n, m such that  $a^n \in Q + Rx$ ,  $a^m \in Q + Ry$  which implies  $a^{n+m} \in Q + Rxy$ , so  $Q + Rxy \notin S$ , thus  $xy \notin Q$ , hence Q is prime.

#### Coro 1.2.1.

$$\sqrt{I} = \bigcap_{\substack{P \supset I \\ P \in \operatorname{Spec} R}} P$$

*Proof.* Notice that Spec  $R/I = \{P \in \operatorname{Spec} R \mid R \subset I\}$ . By the proposition above,

$$\sqrt{\langle \bar{0} \rangle} = \bigcap_{\bar{P} \in \operatorname{Spec} R/I} \bar{P} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \sqrt{I} = \bigcap_{\substack{P \supset I \\ P \in \operatorname{Spec} R}} P \qquad \Box$$

**Def 7.** An ideal q of R is called primary if  $q \neq R$  and " $xy \in q$  and  $x \notin q$ " implies  $y^n \in q$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

#### Prop 1.2.2.

- prime  $\implies$  primary.
- $\sqrt{\text{primary}} \implies \text{prime}$ . Also, if q is primary, then  $p = \sqrt{q}$  is the smallest prime ideal containing q, we say q is p-primary.

*Proof.* The first one is obvious.

If q is primary and  $\sqrt{q} = p$ . For any  $xy \in p$  and  $x \notin p$ , there exists n so that  $x^ny^n \in q$ , and for this  $n, x^n \notin q$ . Thus  $(y^n)^m \in q$  for some m, hence  $y \in p$ . We conclude that p is a prime ideal. Finally, by corollary 1.2.1,

$$p = \sqrt{q} = \bigcap_{\substack{P \supset q \\ P \in \operatorname{Spec} R}} P \subset P, \quad \forall \, P \text{ prime },$$

thus p is indeed the smallest.

**Eg 1.2.1.** The primary ideals in  $\mathbb{Z}$  are  $\langle 0 \rangle$  and  $\langle p^m \rangle$  where p is a prime.

*Proof.* If  $q = \langle a \rangle$  is primary, then  $\sqrt{q} = \langle p \rangle$  is prime, and  $p^n \in \langle a \rangle$ . So  $ab = p^n$  which implies  $a = p^m$  for some m.

**Def 8.** An ideal I is said to be **irreducible** if  $I = q_1 \cap q_2 \implies I = q_1 \vee I = q_2$ .

**Def 9.** Define  $(I : x) = \{a \in R \mid ax \in I\}.$ 

**Theorem 3.** In a Noetherian ring R, every irreducible ideal I is primary.

*Proof.* Let  $xy \in I$  and  $x \notin I$ . Consider  $(I : y) \subseteq (I : y^2) \subseteq \cdots$ . Since R is Noetherian, exists n such that  $(I : y^n) = (I : y^m)$  for any  $m \ge n$ .

We claim that  $I = (I + Ry^n) \cap (I + Rx)$ .

- "⊂": Obvious.
- " $\supset$ ": For any  $b \in (I + Ry^n) \cap (I + Rx)$ , write  $b = a_1 + r_1y^n = a_2 + r_2x$ . Then  $r_1y^{n+1} = a_2y a_1y + r_2xy \in I$  since  $a_1, a_2, xy \in I$ . So  $r_1 \in (I : y^{n+1}) = (I : y^n) \implies r_1y^n \in I$ . Thus  $b = a_1 + r_1y^n \in I$ .

Now by the fact that I is irreducible and  $I \neq I + Rx$  since  $x \notin I$ , thus  $I = I + Ry^n \implies y^n \in I$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 4.** In a Noetherian ring R, every ideal is a finite intersection of irreducible ideals.

Proof. If not, let  $\mathcal{I} \triangleq \{I : \text{ ideal in } R \mid I \text{ is not a finite intersection of irreducible ideals } \}$  and  $\mathcal{I}$  is not an empty set. Since R is Noetherian, the set has a maximal element  $I_0$ . Then  $I_0$  is not irreducible (or else it is an intersection of itself, which is irreducible). Write  $I_0 = I_1 \cap I_2$ , with  $I_1, I_2 \neq I_0$ . Then  $I_1, I_2 \notin \mathcal{I}$ , so these two ideals could be written as a finite intersection of irreducible ideals, implying that  $I_0$  could also be written as a finite intersection of irreducible ideals, which is a contradiction.

## **Prop 1.2.3.** Let q be a p-primary ideal and $x \in R$ .

1. If  $x \in q$ , then (q : x) = R.

*Proof.* In this case  $1 \in (q:x)$ , thus (q:x) = R.

2. If  $x \notin q$ , then (q:x) is p-primary.

*Proof.* For any  $y \in (q:x)$ ,  $xy \in q$  but  $x \notin q$ , thus  $y^n \in q \implies y \in p$ . Hence

$$q\subset (q:x)\subset p\implies p=\sqrt{q}\subset \sqrt{(q:x)}\subset \sqrt{p}=p$$

and thus (q:x) is p-primary.

For any y, z with  $yz \in (q:x)$  but  $y \notin (q:x)$ , which is equivalent to  $xyz \in q$  but  $xy \notin q$ . Since q primary,  $z^n \in q \subset (q:x)$ .

3. If  $x \notin p$ , then (q:x) = q.

Proof.

**Prop 1.2.4.** If each  $q_i$  are *p*-primary, then  $q \triangleq \bigcap_{i=1}^n q_i$  is *p*-primary.

*Proof.* We check that  $\sqrt{q} = \bigcap_{i=1}^n \sqrt{q_i} = \bigcap_{i=1}^n p = p$ .

Also, if  $xy \in q$  with  $x \notin q$ , then  $x \notin q_k$  for some k. But  $xy \in q_k$ , thus  $y^n \in q_k$ . But  $q_k \subseteq \sqrt{q_k} = p = \sqrt{q}$ , so  $(y^n)^{m'} = y^m \in q$ , thus q is p-primary.

**Def 10.** A primary decomposition of  $I = q_1 \cap \cdots \cap q_n$  is minimal if  $\sqrt{q_1}, \dots, \sqrt{q_n}$  are distinct and  $q_i \not\supseteq \bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j$ .

A minimal primary decomposition of an ideal always exists in Noetherian ring since by theorem 4, the ideal could be written as a finite intersection of irreducible ideals, and then by theorem 3, these ideals are primary. Now If  $\sqrt{q_i} = \sqrt{q_j}$  happen in these ideals, we could remove these two ideals and add  $q' = \sqrt{q_i} \cap \sqrt{q_j}$ . By proposition 1.2.4, q' is also primary. And if  $q_i \supseteq \bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j$ , we could simply remove  $q_i$ .

**Theorem 5** (Uniqueness of primary decomposition). Let  $I = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} q_i$  be a minimal decomposition of I. If  $p_i = \sqrt{q_i}$ ,  $\forall i$ , then we have

$$\{p_i\} = \left\{\sqrt{(I:x)} \mid x \in R \land \sqrt{(I:x)} \in \operatorname{Spec} R\right\}$$

which is independent of the decomposition.

*Proof.* "\( )": Let 
$$x \in R \setminus I$$
, then  $(I:x) = \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n q_i:x\right) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n (q_i:x)$ . By proposition 1.2.3, we have  $\sqrt{(I:x)} = \bigcap \sqrt{(q_i:x)} = \bigcap_{x \notin q_i} p_i$ .

Now, we have the following observation. "If  $p \in \operatorname{Spec} R$  with  $p = \bigcap_{i=1}^n J_i$ , then  $p = J_j$  for some j." If not, then  $J_i \not\subset p$  for all i, so we could pick  $x_i \in J_i \setminus p$ . But then  $x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n \in \cap J_i = p$  since  $J_i$  are ideals, which leads to a contradiction since p is prime.

So if  $\sqrt{(I:x)}$  is a prime, then it is equal to some  $p_i$ .

"C": By assumption, 
$$q_i \not\supseteq \bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j$$
 for each  $i$ , thus we could pick  $x \in \bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j \setminus q_i$ , then  $\sqrt{(I:x)} = \bigcap_i \sqrt{(q_i:x)} = \sqrt{(q_i:x)} = p_i$ .

**Def 11.** If  $\{p_i\}$  is the unique prime ideals from the minimal primary decomposition of I.

- $\{p_i\}$  is said to be associated with I or to belong to I.
- The minimal elements in  $\{p_i\}$  are called isolated primes.
- The other are called embedded primes.

**Eg 1.2.2.** Let R = k[x, y] and  $I = \langle x^2, xy \rangle$ . If  $P_1 = \langle x \rangle, P_2 = \langle x, y \rangle$ , then  $I = P_1 \cap P_2^2$ .  $P_1$  is isolated, while  $P_2$  is embedded.

## 1.3 The equivalence of algebra and geometry (week 10)

In the following, k will be an algebraically closed field.

**Def 12.** The category of affine algebraic sets  $\mathcal{G}$  and its objects and morphisms are defined as following:

**objects:** The objects are affine algebraic sets in  $k^n$ .

An **affine algebraic set** is the common zero set of  $\{F_i\}_{i\in\Lambda}\subset k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$  in  $k^n$ . We denote it by  $V=\mathcal{V}(\{F_i\}_{i\in\Lambda})\subset k^n$ . (In fact,  $I=\langle F_i:i\in\Lambda\rangle$  is Noetherian, so  $I=\langle F_1,\ldots,F_n\rangle$  and  $V=\mathcal{V}(I)$ .) **morphisms:** The morphisms are the polynomial map from  $k^n$  to  $k^m$ .

A **polynomial map** is a mapping as following:

$$k^n \longrightarrow k^m$$
  
 $\alpha \longmapsto (F_1(\alpha), \dots, F_m(\alpha))$ 

where each  $F_i$  is a polynomial in  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ .

Given two affine algebraic sets  $V \subset k^n$  and  $W \subset k^m$ , if a map  $F: V \to W$  is the restriction of a polynomial map from  $k^n$  to  $k^m$ , then F is a morphism from V to W.

Moreover, if  $F: V \to W$  and  $G: W \to V$  satisfy  $F \circ G = \mathrm{Id}$  and  $G \circ F = \mathrm{Id}$ , then we say  $V \cong W$ .

**Def 13.** The category of finitely generated reduced k-algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  and its objects and morphisms are defined as following:

**objects:** The objects are the reduced finitely generated k-algebra R.

A finitely generated k-algebra R is reduced if R has no non-zero nilpotent elements. **morphisms:** The morphisms are the k-algebra homomorphisms.

**Eg 1.3.1.** It is easy to see that  $\mathcal{V}(0) = k^n$  and  $\mathcal{V}(1) = \emptyset$ .

#### 1.3.1 One-one correspondence between affine algebraic sets and radical ideals

**Def 14.** Define 
$$\mathcal{I}(V) = \{ f \in k[x_1, ..., x_n] \mid f(\alpha) = 0, \forall \alpha \in V \}.$$

The one-one correspondence is given by

{affine algebraic sets in 
$$\mathbb{A}^n_k$$
}  $\longleftrightarrow$  { radical ideals in  $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ }
$$V \longmapsto \mathcal{I}(V)$$

$$\mathcal{V}(I) \longleftarrow I$$

## Prop 1.3.1.

•  $\sqrt{\mathcal{I}(V)} = \mathcal{I}(V)$ .

*Proof.* For all 
$$f^n \in \mathcal{I}(V)$$
,  $f^n(\alpha) = 0, \forall \alpha \in V \implies f(\alpha) = 0, \forall \alpha \in V$ . Thus  $f \in \mathcal{I}(V)$ .

• If V is an affine set, then  $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(V)) = V$ .

Proof. "\( \times \)": 
$$\forall \alpha \in V, f \in \mathcal{I}(V), f(\alpha) = 0 \implies \alpha \in \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(V)).$$
"\( \times \)": Since  $V$  is an affine set,  $V = \mathcal{V}(I)$ , then  $I \subset \mathcal{I}(V)$ , so  $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(V)) \subset \mathcal{V}(I) = V.$ 

**Lemma 1.** Given T/S/R, a tower of rings. If R is Noetherian, T/S is module finite and T/R is ring finite, then S/R is ring finite.

*Proof.* Let  $T = R[a_1, \ldots, a_n] = Sw_1 + \cdots + Sw_m$ . Then  $a_i = \sum r_{i,j}w_j$  for some  $r_{i,j}$  and  $w_iw_j = \sum t_{i,j,k}w_k$  for some  $t_{i,j,k}$ .

Let  $S' = R[\{r_{i,j}\}, \{t_{i,j,k}\}] \subseteq S$ , which is Noetherian by the Hilbert basis theorem (R Notherian  $\Longrightarrow R[x]$  Notherian). Thus  $T = S'\omega_1 + \cdots + S'\omega_m$  is a Noetherian S'-module by the fact that finitely generated module over a Noetherian ring is a Noetherian module.

Since  $S \subset T$ , S is a finitely generated S' submodule, so

$$S = S'v_1 + \dots + S'v_r = R[\{r_{i,k}\}, \{t_{i,j,k}\}, \{v_i\}].$$

**Lemma 2.** If  $S = k(z_1, \ldots, z_p)$ , p > 0 with each  $z_i$  transcendental, then S/k is not ring finite.

*Proof.* If not, say  $S = k[f_1, \ldots, f_n]$  with  $f_i = g_i/h_i$ ,  $g_i, h_i \in k[z_1, \ldots, z_p]$ . Then for any irreducible polynomial p such that  $p \nmid h_i$  for each  $h_i$  (This polynomial exists since for each  $h_i$  there are only finite degree 1 factors). Then  $1/p \notin k[f_1, \ldots, f_n]$  by checking the divisibility of the denominator under addition and multiplication, which leads to a contradiction.

**Lemma 3.** If A/k is an extension of fields and ring finite, then A/k is algebraic.

*Proof.* If A/k is transcendental and let  $\{z_1, \ldots, z_t\}$  be a transcendental base. Then  $A/k(z_1, \ldots, z_t)$  is algebraic, thus module finite (note that A/k is ring finite). By lemma 1,  $k(z_1, \ldots, z_t)$  is ring finite, which contradicts with lemma 2.

Theorem 6 (Weak form of Hilbert Nullstellensatz).

$$I \subseteq k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \implies v(I) \neq \emptyset$$

*Proof.* Since I proper, by lemma  $\ref{eq:constraints}$ , there exists a maximal ideal M such that  $I \subseteq M$ . Consider  $K \triangleq k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]/M = k[\bar{x}_1,\ldots,\bar{x}_n]$ . By proposition  $\ref{eq:constraints}$ , K is a field, and by lemma  $\ref{eq:constraints}$ , K/k is algebraic. Since k is already algebraically closed, K = k and hence each  $\bar{x}_i \in k$ . Let  $\alpha \triangleq (\bar{x}_1,\ldots,\bar{x}_n) \in A_k^n$ , then for any  $f \in M$ ,  $f(\alpha) = f(\bar{x}_1,\ldots,\bar{x}_n) = \bar{f} = 0$ , thus  $\alpha \in \mathcal{V}(M) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(I)$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 7** (Strong form of Hilbert Nullstellensatz).  $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I)) = \sqrt{I}$ 

*Proof.* "\(\tilde{\gamma}\)":  $f \in \sqrt{I} \implies f^n \in I$ , then  $f^n(\alpha) = 0, \forall \alpha \in \mathcal{V}(I) \implies f(\alpha) = 0, \forall \alpha \in \mathcal{V}(I)$ , thus  $f \in \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I))$ .

"C": If  $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I)) = 0$ , then  $I \subseteq \sqrt{I} \subseteq \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I)) = 0$ , thus I = 0.

Otherwise, exists  $0 \neq f \in \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I))$ , Let  $J = \langle I, ft-1 \rangle \subset k[x_1, \dots, x_n, t]$ . If  $(a_1, \dots, a_n, t_0)$  is a zero of J, then  $ft-1 \in J \implies -1 = f(a_1, \dots, a_n)t_0 - 1 = 0$ , which is a contradiction, so by theorem 6,  $J = k[x_1, \dots, x_n, t]$ .

Write  $1 = \sum h_i f_i + s(ft-1)$ , where each  $f_i \in I$  and  $h_i, s \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n, t]$ . This is a equation of variables, so if we set t = 1/f, the equation still holds. Now each  $h_i$  would be the form  $\sum p_i/f^{k_i}$ , so we could multiply each side by a suitable  $f^{\rho}$  and get  $f^{\rho} = \sum c_i f_i$  with each  $c_i \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ . This implies  $f^{\rho} \in I$ , thus  $f \in \sqrt{I}$ .

**Def 15.** Let  $V \in \mathcal{G}$ , the coordinate ring of V is  $k[V] \triangleq k[x_1, \dots, x_n]/\mathcal{I}(V)$ .

## 1.3.2 Equivalence of $\mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{A}$

We define a functor F from  $\mathcal{G}$  to  $\mathcal{A}$  by

$$F: \quad \mathcal{G} \longrightarrow \mathcal{A}$$

$$V \longmapsto k[V]$$

And For a polynomial map  $f: V \to W$ , define

$$F(f) = f^*: \quad k[W] \longrightarrow k[V]$$
$$g \longmapsto g \circ f$$

Conversely, define a functor G by

$$G: \quad \mathcal{A} \longrightarrow \mathcal{G}$$

$$k[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I \longmapsto \mathcal{V}(I)$$

Then if

$$\varphi: \quad k[\ldots]/I \longrightarrow k[\ldots]/J$$

$$\bar{x}_i \longmapsto \bar{f}_i$$

Define

$$G(\varphi) = \psi:$$
  $\mathcal{V}(J) \longrightarrow \mathcal{V}(I)$   $\alpha = (a_1, \dots, a_m) \longmapsto (f_1(\alpha), \dots, f_n(\alpha))$ 

## 1.4 Gröbner basis (week 11)

## **1.4.1** Division algorithm in $K[X_1, ..., X_n]$

**Eg 1.4.1.**  $I = \langle xy - 1, y^2 - 1 \rangle \subseteq K[x, y], f_1 = xy - 1 \text{ and } f_2 = y^2 - 1 \ G = \{f_1, f_2\}.$  Does  $f = x^2y + xy^2 + y^2 \in I$ ?

- Choose a lexicographic monomial ordering: x > y
- The multidegree  $\partial(f) = (2,1), \, \partial(f_1) = (1,1), \, \partial(f_2) = (0,2)$
- The leading term  $LT(f) = x^2y$ ,  $LT(f_1) = xy$ ,  $LT(f_2) = y^2$
- LT(f) = xLT(f<sub>1</sub>)  $\Rightarrow$  f =  $xf_1 + xy^2 + y^2 + x \Rightarrow$  f =  $(x+y)f_1 + (1)f_2 + (x+y+1)$  or  $f = \underset{h_1}{x} f_1 + (x+1)f_2 + (2x+1)$ .

Note: Divisor  $h_1$ ,  $h_2$  and remainder  $\bar{f}^G$  are not unique!!

**Def 16.** Fix a monomial ordering and let I be an ideal of  $K[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$ . The ideal of leading terms in I is defined to be  $LT(I) = \langle LT(f) | f \in I \rangle$ .

**Remark 1.** Let  $I = \langle f_1, \dots, f_n \rangle$ . In general,  $\langle LT(f_1), \dots, LT(f_n) \rangle \subsetneq LT(I)$ .

**Eg 1.4.2.** Let  $f_1 = xy^2 + y$ ,  $f_2 = x^2y$ . And,  $xf_1 - yf_2 = xy \in \langle f_1, f_2 \rangle$  but  $xy \notin \langle xy^2, x^2y \rangle$ .

**Def 17.**  $G = \{g_1, \ldots, g_m\}$  is called a Gröbner basis of I if  $I = \langle g_1, \ldots, g_m \rangle$  and  $LT(I) = \langle LT(g_1), \ldots, LT(g_m) \rangle$ .

**Prop 1.4.1.** Let  $g_1, \ldots, g_m \in I$ , then  $LT(I) = \langle LT(g_1), \ldots, LT(g_m) \rangle \implies I = \langle g_1, \ldots, g_m \rangle$ .

Proof.  $\forall f \in I$ , do the division process. Then  $f = \sum_{i=1}^{m} h_i g_i + r$ , either r = 0 or  $\bigstar = \text{no term of } r$  is divisible by any of  $LT(g_1), \ldots, LT(g_m)$ . Assume  $r \neq 0$ , then  $r = f - \sum_{i=1}^{m} h_i g_i \in I \Rightarrow LT(r) \in LT(I) = \langle LT(g_1), \ldots, LT(g_m) \rangle$ , which is a contradiction. Hence, r = 0 (i.e.  $f \in \langle g_1, \ldots, g_m \rangle$ ).  $\square$ 

**Theorem 8.** Each ideal *I* has a Gröbner basis.

*Proof.* By Hilbert basis thm,  $LT(I) = \langle f_1, \dots, f_m \rangle$  for some  $f_i$ 's. Write  $f_i = \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} h_{ij} LT(g_{ij})$  with  $h_{ij} \in K[X_1, \dots, X_n], g_{ij} \in I$ . Then  $LT(I) = \langle LT(g_{ij}) | i = 1, \dots, m, j = 1, \dots, m_i \rangle$ . By prop 1.4.1, This is Gröbner basis.

**Theorem 9.** Let  $G = \{g_1, \dots, g_m\}$  be a Gröbner basis of I, then

- $\forall f \in K[X_1, \dots, X_n], f = f_I + r$  where  $f_I \in I, r = \bigstar$  are unique.

  Proof. By division algorithm,  $f = f_I + r = f'_I + r'$ , then  $r r' = f_I f'_I$ . But if  $r r' \neq 0$ , then  $LT(r r') \in LT(I) = \langle LT(g_1), \dots, LT(g_m) \rangle$ , which is a contradiction. Hence,  $r r' = 0 \Rightarrow f_I = f'_I$ .
- $f \in I \iff r = 0$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $f \in I$ , then  $f = f_I + r$ , and if  $r \neq 0$ ,  $r = f - f_I \in I$ , which is a contradiction. Hence, r = 0. Conversly, if r = 0,  $f = f_I \in I$ .

### 1.4.2 Buchberger's algorithm

**Def 18.** Let  $f, g \in K[x_1, ..., x_n]$  and M be the monic least common multiple of LT(f) and LT(g).  $S(f,g) = \frac{M}{LT(f)}f - \frac{M}{LT(g)}g$  is called an S-polynomial of f,g.

Let  $I = \langle g_1, \ldots, g_m \rangle$  and  $G = \{g_1, \ldots, g_m\}$ . A Gröbner basis of I can be constructed by the following algorithm:

- 1. Initially let  $G_0 \leftarrow G$ .
- 2. Repeatly construct  $G_{i+1} \leftarrow G_i \cup (\{S(f,g) \mod G_i \mid f,g \in G_i\} \setminus \{0\})$ , until once  $G_{i+1} = G_i$ , then  $G_i$  is a Gröbner basis of I.

**Lemma 4.** Let  $f_1, \ldots, f_m \in K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  with  $a_1, \ldots, a_m \in K$  satisfying  $\partial(f_1) = \partial(f_2) = \cdots = \partial(f_m) = \alpha$  and  $h = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i f_i$  with  $\partial(h) < \alpha$ . Then  $h = \sum_{i=2}^m b_i S(f_{i-1}, f_i)$  for some  $b_i \in K$ .

*Proof.* Write  $f_i = c_i f'_i$  with  $c_i \in K$  and  $f'_i$  being monic of multidegree  $\alpha$ . Note:  $S(f_i, f_j) = f'_i - f'_j$  since all multidegree are equal. Then,

$$h = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (a_i c_i f_i')$$

$$= a_1 c_1 (f_1' - f_2') + (a_1 c_1 + a_2 c_2) (f_2' - f_3') + \dots + (a_1 c_1 + \dots + a_{m-1} c_{m-1}) (f_{m-1}' - f_m')$$

$$+ (a_1 c_1 + \dots + a_m c_m) f_m'$$

$$= \sum_{i=2}^{m} b_i S(f_{i-1}, f_i) + b_{m+1} f_m' \text{ with } b_i = \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_j c_j.$$

Also, in this equality,  $f'_m$  is the only term that has multidegree  $\alpha$  (other terms have multidegree less than  $\alpha$ ). So  $b_{m+1}=0$  must hold. Then, we have  $h=\sum_{i=2}^m b_i S(f_{i-1},f_i)$ .

**Theorem 10** (Buchberger's criterion). Assume  $I = \langle g_1, \ldots, g_m \rangle$ , then  $G = \{g_1, \ldots, g_m\}$  is a Gröbner basis of  $I \iff S(g_i, g_j) \equiv 0 \pmod{G}$  for each i, j.

Proof.

- Suppose G is a Gröbner basis of I.  $S(g_i, g_j) \in I \Rightarrow S(g_i, g_j) = 0$  by thm 9.
- Converely, suppose  $S(g_i, g_j) \equiv 0 \pmod{G} \forall i, j$ . For  $f \in I$ ,  $f = \sum_{not \ division} \sum_{i=1}^m h_i g_i$  for some  $h_i \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ . Define  $\alpha = \max\{\partial(h_1 g_1), \dots, \partial(h_m g_m)\}$ . We have  $\partial(f) \leq \alpha$  and we can select an expression  $f = \sum_{i=1}^m h_i g_i$  for f s.t  $\alpha$  is minimal.
- Claim:  $\partial(f) = \alpha$ .
- (pf) If not, we rewrite f

$$\begin{split} f &= \sum_{i=1}^m h_i g_i \\ &= \sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) = \alpha} h_i g_i + \sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) < \alpha} h_i g_i \qquad \text{(the first term } \neq 0 \text{ since } \alpha \text{ is minimal.)} \\ &= \sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) = \alpha} \operatorname{LT}(h_i) g_i + \sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) = \alpha} (h_i - \operatorname{LT}(h_i) g_i) + \sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) < \alpha} h_i g_i \end{split}$$

Let  $LT(h_i) = a_i h_i^0$  with  $h_i^0$  being a monic monomial. Comparing the multidegree on both side,  $\partial \left( \sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) = \alpha} a_i h_i^0 g_i \right) < \alpha$  By lemma 4,  $\sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) = \alpha} \left( a_i h_i^0 g_i \right) = c_{12} S(h_{i_1}^0 g_{i_1}, h_{i_2}^0 g_{i_2}) + \dots$  (finite)

where  $\partial(h_{i_1}g_{i_1}) = \partial(h_{i_2}g_{i_2}) = \cdots = \alpha$ . By def, if we set  $M_{st} = X_{st}^{\beta}$  = the monic LCM of  $LT(g_{i_s}), LT(g_{i_t})$ , then

$$\begin{split} S(h_{i_s}^0g_{i_s},h_{i_t}^0g_{i_t}) &= \frac{X^\alpha}{\mathrm{LT}(h_{i_s}^0g_{i_s})}h_{i_s}^0g_{i_s} - \frac{X^\alpha}{\mathrm{LT}(h_{i_t}g_{i_t})}h_{i_t}^0g_{i_t} \\ &= X^{\alpha-\beta_{st}}\left(\frac{X^{\beta_{st}}}{\sum_{k=1}^0\mathrm{LT}(g_{i_s})}h_{i_k}^0g_{i_s} - \frac{X^{\beta_{st}}}{\sum_{k=1}^0\mathrm{LT}(g_{i_t})}h_{i_k}^0g_{i_t}\right) \\ &= X^{\alpha-\beta_{st}}S\left(g_{i_s},g_{i_t}\right) \\ &= X^{\alpha-\beta_{st}}\sum_{j=1}^m l_jg_j \text{ (by division)} \end{split}$$

• Then,  $\partial(l_j g_j) < \beta_{st} \implies$  we found an expression with multidegree less than  $\alpha$ , which is a contradiction. Therefore,  $\partial(f) = \alpha \implies \operatorname{LT}(f) = \sum_{\partial(h_i g_i) = \alpha} \operatorname{LT}(h_i) \operatorname{LT}(g_i) \implies \operatorname{LT}(f) \in \langle \operatorname{LT}(g_1), \dots, \operatorname{LT}(g_m) \rangle$ .

**Theorem 11.** The Buchberger's algorithm will terminate

Proof. .

- $\langle \operatorname{LT}(G_i) \rangle \subsetneq \langle \operatorname{LT}(G_{i+1}) \rangle$  if  $G_i \neq G_{i+1}$  $G_i \neq G_{i+1} \implies \exists f, g \in G_i \text{ s.t. } S(f,g) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{G} \implies \operatorname{LT}(S(s,g)) \notin \langle \operatorname{LT}(G_i) \rangle$
- $\langle LT(G_0) \rangle \subsetneq \langle LT(G_1) \rangle \subsetneq \cdots$  is not possible since  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  is a Noetherian ring. (Noetherian ACC condition).

## 1.5 Applications of Gröbner basis

**Def 19.** Let  $I \subseteq K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  and  $x_1 > x_2 > \cdots > x_n$ .  $I_i \triangleq I \cap K[x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n]$  is called the *i*-th elimination ideal of I.

**Theorem 12** (Elimination theorem). Let  $G = \{g_1, \ldots, g_m\}$  be a Gröbner basis of  $I \neq 0$  with ordering  $x_1 > \cdots > x_n$ . Then  $G_i \triangleq G \cap K[x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n]$  is a Gröbner basis of  $I_i$  (i.e.,  $\langle LT(G_i) \rangle = LT(I_i)$ ).

*Proof.* " $\subseteq$ ": Obvious.

"\geq": Let  $f \in I_i$ . Write

$$LT(f) = \sum h_i LT(g_i) = \sum a_k x^{\alpha_k} LT(g_{i_k})$$

Since LT(f) involves only the variables  $x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n$ , and each terms of  $x^{\alpha_k} LT(g_{i_k})$  which uses variables  $x_k$  with  $k \leq i$  must sum to zero. Remove those term we could write LT(f) as a combination of  $LT(g_i)$  with  $LT(g_i) \in K[x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n]$ . But by the definition of leading term and the ordering  $x_1 > \cdots > x_n$ , we have  $g_i \in K[x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n] \implies g_i \in G_i$ . Thus  $LT(f) \in \langle LT(G_i) \rangle$ .

Eg 1.5.1. Find  $V = \mathcal{V}(x+y-z, x^2+y^2-z^3, x^3+y^3-z^5)$ .

We compute a Gröbner basis of  $I=\langle f_1,\ldots,f_3\rangle$  with respect to the ordering x>y>z. The Gröbner basis is  $\{x+y-z,2y^2-2yz-z^3+z^2,2z^5-3z^4+z^3\}$ .

#### Eg 1.5.2.

$$f: \quad \mathbb{A}^1 \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^3$$

$$t \longmapsto (t^4, t^3, t^2)$$

We compute a Gröbner basis of  $I = \langle t^4 - x, t^3 - y, t^2 - z \rangle$  with respect to t > x > y > z. The Gröbner basis is  $\{-t^2 + z, ty - z^2, tz - y, x - z^2, y^2 - z^3\}$ .

#### Eg 1.5.3.

$$f: V = \mathcal{V}(x^3 - x^2z - y^z) \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^3$$
$$(x, y, z) \longmapsto (x^2z - y^2z, 2xyz, -z^3)$$

The ideal is  $\langle x^3-x^2z-y^2z,u-x^2z+y^2z,v-2xyz,w+z^3\rangle$  has a Gröbner basis  $\langle \dots,u^2+v^2-w^2\rangle$ .

**Theorem 13.** Let I, J be two ideals of  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ , then  $I \cap J = (t\tilde{I} + (1-t)\tilde{J}) \cap K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ , where  $\tilde{I} \triangleq K[x_1, \ldots, x_n, t]I$ .

*Proof.* " $\subseteq$ ": If  $f \in I \cap J$ , then  $f = tf + (1-t)f \in RHS$ .

"\(\text{\text{"}}\)": If  $f \in \text{RHS}$ , then  $f = t\tilde{f}_1 + (1-t)\tilde{f}_2$ . with  $\tilde{f}_1 \in \tilde{I}$ ,  $\tilde{f}_2 \in \tilde{J}$ . Write

$$\tilde{f}_1 = \sum (h_i t + r_i) f_i, \quad \tilde{f}_2 = \sum (h'_j t + r'_j) f_j$$

with each  $r_i, r'_j \in K[x_1, ..., x_n], \ h_i, h'_j \in K[t, x_1, ..., x_n].$  Take  $t = 0, \ f = \sum r'_j f_j \in J.$  Then take  $t = 1, \ f = \sum (h_i(1, x_1, ..., x_n) + r_i) f_i \in J.$  Thus  $f \in I \cap J.$ 

**Eg 1.5.4.**  $I = \langle y^2, x - yz \rangle$ ,  $J = \langle x, z \rangle$ . We shall find  $I \cap J$ .  $tI + (1-t)J = \langle tx - tyz, ty^2, (1-t)x, (1-t)z \rangle$  has a Gröbner basis  $\{f_1, f_2, f_3, f_4, xy, x - yz\}$ , so  $I \cap J = \langle xy, x - yz \rangle$ .

**Theorem 14.** Let  $L = \langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle \subsetneq K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ , then  $f \in \sqrt{I} \iff \langle f_1, \dots, f_s, 1 - tf \rangle = K[x_1, \dots, x_n, t]$ .

*Proof.* " $\Leftarrow$ ": By theorem 6,  $\langle f_1, \ldots, f_s, 1-tf \rangle = K[x_1, \ldots, x_n, t]$  if and only if  $\mathcal{V}(f_1, \ldots, f_s, 1-tf) = \emptyset$ . Notice that 1-tf has no zero if f=0, which means that If x is a common zero of  $f_1, \ldots, f_s$ , then f(x)=0. So  $f\in \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I))\implies f\in \sqrt{I}$  by theorem 7.

"⇒": 
$$f^m \in I \implies 1 = t^m f^m + 1 - t^m f^m = t^m f^m + (1 - tf)(1 + tf + \dots + t^{m-1} f^{m-1}) \in \langle f_1, \dots, f_s, 1 - tf \rangle.$$

**Eg 1.5.5.** Let  $I = \langle xy^2 + 2y^2, x^4 - 2x^2 + 1 \rangle$ , and we want to determine  $f = y - x^2 + 1$  is in  $\sqrt{I}$  or not.

**Prop 1.5.1.** An affine algebraic set V in  $\mathbb{A}^n_k$  has a unique minimal decomposition.  $V = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \cdots \cup V_m$  with  $V_i$  irreducible and  $V_i \not\subset V_j$ .

Proof.

Existence: If not, then  $V = V_1 \cup V_1'$ , and one of  $V_1, V_1'$ , say  $V_1 = V_2 \cup V_2'$ , ... So we would find

$$V \supseteq V_1 \supseteq V_2 \subseteq \cdots \implies \mathcal{I}(V) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(V_1) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(V_2) \subseteq \text{ in } k[x_1, \dots, x_n],$$

which contradicts that  $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  is Noetherian.

• Uniqueness: If

$$V = V_1 \cup \cdots \cup V_m = V_1' \cup \cdots \cup V_m'$$

then  $V_i = (V_i \cap V_1') \cup \cdots \cup (V_i \cap V_m')$ . But  $V_i$  irreducible, so  $V_i = V_i \cap V_j' \implies V_i \subset V_j'$ . By symmetry we would find  $V_j' \subset V_k$ , then  $V_i \subset V_j' \subset V_k \implies V_i = V_k$ . Thus these two decompositions are equal.

**Theorem 15** (Decomposition). Assume  $\sqrt{I} = I$  and  $I \subset J$ , then  $\mathcal{V}(I:J) = \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I) \setminus \mathcal{V}(J)))$ . and  $\mathcal{V}(I) = \mathcal{V}(J) \cup \mathcal{V}(I:J)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $f \in \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I) \setminus \mathcal{V}(J))$  and  $g \in J$ , then  $fg = \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I)) = \sqrt{I} = I$  since  $f(\alpha) = 0$  for each  $\alpha \in \mathcal{V}(I) \setminus \mathcal{I}(J)$  and  $g(\alpha) = 0$  for each  $\alpha \in \mathcal{V}(J)$ . Thus  $f \in (I:J)$ .

**Eg 1.5.6.** Let  $I = \langle xz - y^2, x^3 - yz \rangle$  and  $V = \mathcal{V}(I)$ .

Notice that  $\langle xz-y^2,x^3-yz\rangle\subseteq\langle x,y\rangle=J,$  so  $(I:J)=(I:\langle x\rangle)\cap(I:\langle y\rangle).$ 

First we calculate (I:x). Notice that we know how to calculate  $I \cap \langle x \rangle$  now. After a calculation,  $I \cap \langle x \rangle = \{x^2z - xy^2, x^4 - xyz, x^3y - xz^2\}$ , so  $(I:x) = \langle f_1/x, f_2/x, f_3/x \rangle = I + \langle x^2y - z^3 \rangle$ . Simarly one could find that (I:y) = (I:x), thus (I:J) = (I:x).

Hence  $V = V(x, y) \cap V(xz - y^2, x^3 - yz, x^2y - z^2)$ .

**Prop 1.5.2.** Let  $f: V \to W$ , then  $\overline{f(V)} = \mathcal{V}(\ker f^*)$  where  $f^*: k[W] \to k[V]$ .

*Proof.* We claim that ker  $f^* = \mathcal{I}(f(V))$ , since

$$\bar{g} \in \mathcal{I}(f(V)) \iff \bar{g}(f(\alpha)) = 0, \ \forall \ \alpha \in V \iff \bar{g} \circ f \in \mathcal{I}(V) \iff f^*(\bar{g}) = \overline{g \circ f} = \bar{0} \iff \bar{g} \in \ker f^*$$
  
Thus  $\mathcal{V}(\ker f^*) = \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(f(V))) = \overline{f(V)}$ .

**Remark 2.** In general, if  $W \subseteq \mathbb{A}_k^n$  is an affine algebraic set defined by  $x_i = f_i(t_1, \dots, t_m)$ , then W is irreducible.

*Proof.*  $f: \mathbb{A}_k^m \to W$  is onto, so  $\overline{f(\mathbb{A}_k^m)} = W = \mathcal{V}(0)$ . By the previous proposition,  $\ker f^* = 0$ , thus  $f^*: K[W] \cong k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]/\mathcal{I}(W) \hookrightarrow k[t_1, \ldots, t_m]$ . But  $k[t_1, \ldots, t_m]$  is an integral domain, so  $\mathcal{I}(W)$  is a prime ideal, thus W is irreducible.

## 1.6 Local Rings (week 12)

From now on, R is a commutative ring with 1.

We list some facts about localization.

**Prop 1.6.1.** Let p be a prime ideal in R,  $R_p$  be the localization about p.

- Extension and contraction gives a bijective correspondence between { prime ideal  $q \subset p$ } and { prime ideal in  $R_p$  }.
- Extension and contraction gives a bijective correspondence between  $\{p\text{-primary ideal }q\}$  and  $\{\text{ primary ideal in }R_p\}.$
- Localization commutes with intersection.
- Localization preserves exact sequence.
- If R is Noetherian (Artinian), then  $R_p$  is Noetherian (Artinian).

**Def 20.** R is called a local ring if it has a unique maximal ideal.

## **Prop 1.6.2.** TFAE

- (1) R is a local ring.
- (2) The set of non-units forms an ideal.
- (3)  $\exists M \in \text{Max } R \text{ s.t. } 1+m \text{ is a unit } \forall m \in M.$

Proof.

- (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2): Let M be the unique maximal ideal of R. Then M couldn't contain any unit. For each non-unit x,  $\langle x \rangle \neq R$  and is contained in a maximal ideal by lemma ??, thus  $x \in M$ . Hence  $M = \{\text{non-units}\}$ .
- (2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3): This ideal must be a maximal ideal M since it can't be extended. Now,  $1 \notin M \rightsquigarrow 1 + m \notin M$ . So 1 + m is a unit.
- (3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): If there exists another maximal ideal N, then M+N=R. Say  $m\in M, n\in N$  s.t. m+n=1, then n=1-m is a unit  $\implies N=R$ , which is a contradiction.

**Eg 1.6.1.** k[[x]] is a local ring with the unique maximal ideal  $\langle x \rangle$ .

*Proof.* For each  $f = \sum a_n x^n \in k[[x]]$ , one could see that f is an unit if and only if  $a_n \neq 0$ , and the leftovers form an ideal  $\langle x \rangle$ .

**Eg 1.6.2.** Let  $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ . If  $S = R \setminus P$ , then S is a multiplicatively closed set with  $1 \in S$  and  $R_P \triangleq R_S$  is a local ring.

*Proof.* S is a multiplicatively closed set simply follow from the definition of prime ideal. One could then easily see that  $P_P \triangleq \left\{ \frac{x}{s} \mid x \in P, s \in S \right\}$  contains all non-unit, thus  $R_P$  is local.

**Prop 1.6.3.** The following sets are correspondent (k is algebraically closed):

- (1)  $\mathbb{A}^n_k$
- (2)  $\text{Max } k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$
- (3)  $\operatorname{Hom}_{k}(k[x_{1},\ldots,x_{n}],k)$

*Proof.* (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2): For any  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \mathbb{A}^n_k$ ,  $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]/\langle x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n \rangle \cong k$  is a field, hence  $\langle x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n \rangle$  is a maximal ideal.

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): Let  $M \in \operatorname{Max} k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ , by theorem 6,  $\mathcal{V}(M) \neq \emptyset$ , so exists  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \mathcal{V}(M)$ . Now  $M = \sqrt{M} = \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(M)) \subseteq \mathcal{I}((a_1, \ldots, a_n)) = \langle \ldots, x_i - a_i, \ldots \rangle$  which is maximal, We conclude that  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  is the only element in  $\mathcal{V}(M)$  and  $M = \langle \ldots, x_i - a_i, \ldots \rangle$ .

(1)  $\Rightarrow$  (3): For each  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ , define  $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(\cdots)$  by evaluation:

$$\varphi: \quad k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \longrightarrow k$$
$$x_i \longmapsto a_i$$

 $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$ : Similarly, for each  $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(\cdots)$ , recover  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  by  $(\varphi(x_1), \ldots, \varphi(x_n))$ .

Remark 3. Inspired by the correspondence,

**Def 21.** A property of an R-module M is said to be a local property if

M has this property  $\iff M_P$  (as an  $R_P$ -module) has this property  $\forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ 

### **Prop 1.6.4.** TFAE

- (1) M = 0
- (2)  $M_P = 0 \quad \forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$
- (3)  $M_Q = 0 \quad \forall Q \in \operatorname{Max} R$

*Proof.* (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) and (2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3) are clear.

(3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): If  $M \neq 0$ , let  $x \in M$  such that  $x \neq 0$ , then  $\operatorname{Ann}(x) \subseteq R$  since  $1 \notin \operatorname{Ann}(x)$ . Let  $\operatorname{Ann}(x) \subset Q \in \operatorname{Max} R$ . By assumption,  $M_Q = 0$  implies  $\frac{x}{1} = \frac{0}{1}$ . By the definition of equal in localization,  $\exists r \notin Q$  such that rx = 0, thus  $r \in \operatorname{Ann}(x)$  which leads to a contradiction.

Coro 1.6.1. Let  $N \subseteq M$ , TFAE (consider M/N)

- (1) N = M
- (2)  $N_P = M_P \quad \forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$
- (3)  $N_Q = M_Q \quad \forall Q \in \operatorname{Max} R$

### **Prop 1.6.5.** TFAE

- (1)  $0 \to M \xrightarrow{\phi} N \xrightarrow{\psi} L \to 0$  exact
- (2)  $0 \to M_P \xrightarrow{\phi_P} N_P \xrightarrow{\psi_P} L \to 0 \text{ exact } \forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$
- (3)  $0 \to M_Q \xrightarrow{\phi_Q} N_Q \xrightarrow{\psi_Q} L \to 0 \text{ exact } \forall Q \in \text{Max } R$

*Proof.* (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2): By the fact that localization preserves exact sequence.

- $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$ : Obvious.
- (3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): Let  $K = \ker \phi$ , then  $0 \to K \to M \to N$  exact. Since we just proved (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (3),  $0 \to K_Q \to M_Q \to N_Q$  exact, but  $K_Q = 0$ , by proposition 1.6.4, K = 0.

We could prove the other half similarly by letting K to be the cokernel.

## Def 22.

- Let  $R \subseteq S$ .  $\bar{R} = \{x \in S \mid x \text{ is integral over } R\}$  is called the integral closure of R in S.
- R is integrally closed in S if  $R = \bar{R}$ .
- An integral domain R is called normal if R is integrally closed in its field of fractions.

#### **Theorem 16.** UFD is normal.

*Proof.* Let R be a UFD and K be its field of fractions. If  $a \in K$  is integral over R and  $a^n + r_1a^{n-1} + \cdots + r_n = 0$ . Write a = u/s with gcd(u,s) = 1. Then  $u^n + r_1su^{n-1} + \cdots + r_ns^n = 0$ . Now if s is a non-unit, says  $p \mid s$  with p is a prime. Then  $p \mid u$  obviously  $\leadsto p \mid gcd(u,s) = 1$ , which is a contradiction. So s is a unit  $\implies a \in R$ .

#### Prop 1.6.6.

• Let S/R is an integral extension and  $T \subset R$  be a m.c. set with  $1 \in T$ . Then  $S_T$  is also integral over  $R_T$ .

*Proof.* Let  $a/t \in S_T$  with  $a^n + r_1 a^{n-1} + \cdots + r_n = 0$ , then we have

$$\left(\frac{a}{t}\right)^n + \frac{r_1}{t} \left(\frac{a}{t}\right)^{n-1} + \dots + \frac{r_n}{t^n} = 0.$$

Thus a/t is integral over  $R_T$ .

• Let S/R be an arbitrary extension and  $T \subset R$  be m.c. with  $1 \in T$ . Then  $(\bar{R})_T = \overline{(R_T)}$  in  $S_T$ .

*Proof.* By 1.,  $(\overline{R})_T$  is integral over  $R_T$ . If  $a/t \in S_T$  is integral over  $R_T$ , say

$$\left(\frac{a}{t}\right)^n + \frac{r_1}{t_1} \left(\frac{a}{t}\right)^{n-1} + \dots + \frac{r_n}{t_n} = 0.$$

Then we let  $v = t_1 t_2 \cdots t_n$ , multiply the equation by  $(tv)^n$ , we get

$$(va)^n + (r_1tt_2\cdots t_n)(va)^{n-1} + \cdots = 0 \implies va \in \overline{R}$$

So  $a/t = va/(vt) \in \overline{R}_T$ .

Prop 1.6.7. "Being normal" is a local property. TFAE

- (1) R is normal
- (2)  $R_P$  is normal  $\forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$
- (3)  $R_Q$  is normal  $\forall Q \in \operatorname{Max} R$

*Proof.* The key is to realize that if K is the field of fraction of R, then K is also the field of fraction of any  $R_P$ . Then by lemma 1.6.5,

$$0 \to R \to \overline{R} \to 0 \iff 0 \to R_P \to (\overline{R})_P \to 0, \forall P$$

By the previous proposition,  $(\overline{R})_P = \overline{R_P}$  in  $S_P$ , this proves all.

**Def 23.** An R-module F is flat if the functor  $-\otimes_R M$  is exact (i.e., it preserves exact sequence).

**Prop 1.6.8.** Given an homomorphism  $R_1 \to R_2$ . If M is a flat  $R_1$ -module, then  $R_2 \otimes_{R_1} M$  is a flat  $R_2$  module.

*Proof.* Notice that  $N \otimes_{R_1} M \cong N \otimes_{R_2} (R_2 \otimes_{R_1} M)$ , so

$$\begin{array}{ll} 0 \to N \to N' \text{ exact} & \Longrightarrow & 0 \to N \otimes_{R_1} M \to N' \otimes_{R_1} M \text{ exact} \\ & \Longrightarrow & 0 \to N \otimes_{R_2} (R_2 \otimes_{R_1} M) \to N' \otimes_{R_2} (R_2 \otimes_{R_1} M) \text{ exact} \end{array}$$

Which is to say that  $R_2 \otimes_{R_1} M$  flat.

#### **Prop 1.6.9.** TFAE

- (1) M is a flat R-module
- (2)  $M_P$  is a flat R-module  $\forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$
- (3)  $M_Q$  is a flat R-module  $\forall Q \in \text{Max } R$

*Proof.* (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2): By the previous proposition combined with the property of localization,  $M_P \cong R_P \otimes_R M$  is a flat module.

- $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$ : Obvious.
- (3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): If  $0 \to N \to N'$  exact, then by prop 1.6.5,  $0 \to N_Q \to N_Q'$  exact, so

$$0 \to N_Q \otimes_{R_Q} M_Q \to N_Q' \otimes_{R_Q} M_Q$$

is also exact. By the property of localization,  $N_Q \otimes_{R_Q} M_Q \cong (N \otimes_R M)_Q$ . Using prop 1.6.5,  $0 \to N \otimes_R M \to N' \otimes_R M$  exact.

## 1.7 Krull dimension

### Def 24.

- The Krull dimension of a topological space X is the supremum of the lengths n of all chains  $X_0 \subsetneq X_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq X_n$ , where  $X_i$  are closed irreducible subset of X.
- The Krull dimension of a commutative ring R with 1 is the supremum of the lengths n of all chains  $P_0 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq P_n$  where  $P_i \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ .

**Prop 1.7.1.** Let  $R \subseteq S$  be two integral domains and S/R be integral. Then S is a field if and only if R is a field.

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": For each  $a \neq 0$  in R,  $a^{-1} \in S$ , so we could write

$$(a^{-1})^n + r_1(a^{-1})^{n-1} + \dots + r_n = 0, \ r_i \in R$$

Which implies

$$a^{-1} = -(r_1 + \dots + r_n a^{n-1}) \in R$$

"\( = \)": For each  $a \neq 0$  is S, write

$$a^n + r_1 a^{n-1} + \dots + r_n = 0, \ r_i \in R$$

Notice that we could assume  $r_n \neq 0$ , or else  $a(a^{n-1} + r_1 a^{n-2} + \cdots + r_{n-1}) = 0$  and hence  $a^{n-1} + r_1 a^{n-2} + \cdots + r_{n-1} = 0$  because R is an integral domain. Then

$$a^{-1} = -r_n^{-1}(a^{n-1} + r_1a^{n-2} + \dots + r_{n-2})$$

## **Prop 1.7.2.** Let S/R be integral.

1. If  $q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  and  $p = q \cap R \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ , then  $q \in \operatorname{Max} S \iff p \in \operatorname{Max} R$ .

*Proof.* It is easy to see that S/q is integral over R/p by the identification

$$R/p \longleftrightarrow S/q$$
  
 $r+p \longmapsto r+q$ 

So

 $q \in \operatorname{Max} S \iff S/q \text{ is a field } \iff R/p \text{ is a field } \iff p \in \operatorname{Max} R$ 

2. If  $q, q' \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  with  $q \subseteq q'$  and  $q \cap R = p = q' \cap R$ . Then q = q'.

Proof. We know that  $S_p \triangleq S_{R \setminus p}$  is integral over  $R_p$ . Since  $q_p \subseteq q'_p$  and both  $q_p \cap R_p$  and  $q'_p \cap R_p$  equal  $p_p$  is maximal in  $R_p$ . Using 1.,  $q_p, q'_p$  are maximal in  $S_p$ , but  $q_p \subseteq q'_p \implies q_p = q'_p$ . By corollary 1.6.1, q = q'.

**Theorem 17** (Going-up theorem). Let S/R be integral, then

• If  $p \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ , then  $\exists q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  such that  $q \cap R = p$ .

*Proof.* We have the diagram:

Pick  $q_p = N \in \operatorname{Max} S_p$ , then  $N \cap R_p \in \operatorname{Max} R_p = \{p_p\}$  by 1. of proposition 1.7.2, so  $N \cap R_p = p_p$ , and  $(q \cap R)_p = q_p \cap R_p = p_p$ , thus  $q \cap R = p$ .

• If  $p_1 \subset p_2$  in Spec R and  $q_1 \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  with  $q_1 \cap R = p_1$ , then  $\exists q_2 \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  with  $q_1 \subset q_2$  and  $q_2 \cap R = p_2$ .

*Proof.* Let  $R' = R/p_1$  and  $S' = S/q_1$ . Then again, S'/R' is integral. By the previous statement, exists  $q_2/q_1 \in \operatorname{Spec} S'$  so that  $q_2/q_1 \cap R' = p_2/p_1$ , thus  $q_2 \cap R = p_2$  and  $q_2 \supseteq q_1$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 18.** If S/R is integral, then dim  $S = \dim R$ .

*Proof.* For any chain  $q_0 \subsetneq q_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq q_n$  in Spec S, by prop 2.,  $q_0 \cap R \subsetneq q_1 \cap R \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq a_n \cap R$ . Conversely, given  $p_0 \subsetneq p_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq p_n$  in Spec R, there is  $q_0 \subsetneq q_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq q_n$  by the going up theorem (17).

**Prop 1.7.3.** Let S,R be integral domains and S/R be integral, assume R is normal with the field of fractions K. If  $a \in S$  is integral over  $I \subseteq R$ , then  $f = m_{\alpha,K} = x^n + r_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + r_n$  with  $r_i \in \sqrt{I}$ .

Proof. Assume deg f = n and  $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \overline{K}$  are the zeros of f. By assumption,  $a^m + t_1 a^{m-1} + \cdots + t_m = 0$  with  $t_i \in I \subset R \subset K$ . For each i, exists  $\varphi \in \operatorname{Aut}(\overline{K}/K)$  such that  $\varphi(a) = a_i$ . Then  $0 = \varphi(a^m + t_1 a^{m-1} + \cdots + t_m) = a_i^m + t_1 a_i^{m-1} + \cdots + t_m$ , so  $a_i$  is integral over I. Moveover, the coefficients of f are the elementary symmetry symmetric polynomial of  $a_i$ , hence they are integral over I and lie in  $\sqrt{IR} = \sqrt{IR} = \sqrt{I}$ .

**Theorem 19** (Going-down theorem). Let S, R be integral domains and S/R be integral, assume R is normal with the field of fractions K. If  $p_1 \supset p_2$  in Spec R and  $q_1 \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  with  $q_1 \cap R = p_1$ , then  $\exists q_2 \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  such that  $q_1 \supset q_2$  and  $q_2 \cap R = p_2$ .

*Proof.* First we claim that  $p_2S_{q_1} \cap R = p_2$ .

"⊃": Obvious.

" $\subseteq$ ": For  $b/t \in p_2S_{q_1} \cap R$ ,  $b \in p_2S \subset \sqrt{p_2S} = \sqrt{p_2\overline{R}}$ , which means that b is integral over  $p_2$  and  $t \in S \setminus q_1$ . By proposition 1.7.3, if  $m_{b,K} = x^l + r_1x^{l-1} + \cdots + r_l$ , then  $r_i \in \sqrt{p_2} = p_2$ .

Now,  $a = b/t \in R$ , so  $t = b/a \in S_{R \setminus \{0\}} = SK$ , so

$$\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{l} + \left(\frac{r_1}{a}\right)\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{l-1} + \dots + \left(\frac{r_l}{a^l}\right) \leftrightarrow b^l + r_1b^{l-1} + \dots + r_l = 0$$

is a correspondence. Thus we know that  $m_{t,K} = x^l + (r_1/a)x^{l-1} + \cdots + (r_l/a^l)$ .

Again by proposition 1.7.3, since t is integral over R,  $u_i \triangleq r_i/a^i \in R$ , and  $u_i a^i = r_i$  for each i.

If  $a \notin p_2$ , then  $u_i a^i = r_i \in p_2$ , so  $u_i \in p_2$ . But with  $m_{t,K}$  we will find that  $t^l \in p_2 S \subseteq p_1 S \subseteq q_1$ , so  $t \in q_1$ , which leads to a contradiction. Thus  $a \in p_2$ .

Now we've proved  $p_2S_{q_1}\cap R=p_2$ , by exercise 12.4,  $p_2=Q\cap R$  for some  $Q\in S_{q_1}$ . Letting  $q=Q\cap S$  and we're done.

**Theorem 20.** All maximal chain in Spec  $K[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$  have the same length n, and thus

$$\dim K[x_1,\ldots,x_n]=n.$$

*Proof.* Let  $P_0 \subset P_1 \subset \cdots \subset P_m$  in Spec  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  We shall use induction on n to prove m = n. n = 0: Then  $\langle 0 \rangle$  is a max chain in Spec K, so m = 0 = n.

n > 0: Let  $K[y_1, \ldots, y_n] \hookrightarrow K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  be a strong Noether normalization with  $P_1 \cap K[y_1, \ldots, y_n] = \langle y_{d+1}, \ldots, y_n \rangle$ , then  $h(P_1) = 1 \implies h(P_1 \cap K[y_1, \ldots, y_n]) = 1$  by the going down theorem (19). Then we can say  $P_1 \cap K[y_1, \ldots, y_n] = \langle y_n \rangle$ . Then we can consider  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]/P_1$  and  $K[y_1, \ldots, y_n]/\langle y_n \rangle \cong K[y_1, \ldots, y_{n-1}]$ .

## 1.8 Artinian rings and DVR (week 13)

## 1.8.1 Artinian rings

**Def 25.** R is called an Artinian ring if one of the followings holds:

- any non-empty set of ideals has a minimal element.
- any descending chain of ideals is stationary (DCC).

## Goal:

- 1.  $R \cong R_1 \times \cdots \times R_l$  where  $R_i$  is an Artinian local rings.
- 2. Artinian  $\iff$  Noetherian  $+ \dim = 0$ .

## Prop 1.8.1.

$$\bullet \quad \sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}+\mathfrak{m}_j^{n_j}}=\sqrt{\sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}}+\sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_j^{n_j}}}$$

Proof.

" $\subseteq$ ": Obvious.

• If m is prime,  $\sqrt{m^n} = m$ 

Proof.

"
$$\subseteq$$
": If  $a \in LHS$ , then  $a^k \in m^n \subset m$  and m is prime.  $\Rightarrow a \in m$ .

" 
$$\supset$$
 ": If  $a \in \text{RHS}$ , then  $a^n \in m^n \implies a^n \in \text{LHS}$ .

• If  $m, m_i, i = 1, \dots, n$  are prime and  $m \supseteq m_1 \cap \dots \cap m_n$ , then  $m \supseteq m_i$  for some i.

Proof

Suppose not, then we pick  $a_i \in m_i \setminus m$ . Then  $b \triangleq a_1 \cdots a_n \in m_i$ ,  $\forall i$ . So  $b \in m_1 \cap \cdots \cap m_n \subseteq m$ . But m is prime, so exist  $a_i \in m$ , which is a contradiction.

#### **Prop 1.8.2.** Let R be an Artinian ring

- (1) If  $I \subseteq R$ , then R/I is also Artinian.
- (2) If R is an integral domain, then R is a field.

*Proof.* 
$$\forall a \neq 0 \in R, \langle a \rangle \supseteq \langle a^2 \rangle \supseteq \cdots$$
 is a descending chain of ideals  $\implies \langle a^l \rangle = \langle a^{l+1} \rangle = \cdots$  for some  $l \in \mathbb{N} \implies a^l = ba^{l+1} \implies a^l(1-ab) = 0 \implies ab = 1$  since cancellation works in integral domain.

(3) Spec  $R = \operatorname{Max} R$ .  $(\Longrightarrow \dim R = 0)$ 

*Proof.* 
$$\forall p \in \operatorname{Spec} R, R/p$$
 is an integral domain  $\implies R/p$  is a field  $\implies p \in \operatorname{Max} R$ .

(4)  $|\operatorname{Max} R| < \infty$ .

*Proof.* Consider the set  $\left\{\bigcap_{\text{finite}} \mathfrak{m} \middle| \mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R\right\} \neq \emptyset$ . So there exists a minimal element in this set since R is Artinian, say  $\mathfrak{m}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_k$ . Now, for  $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$ , we have  $\mathfrak{m} \cap \mathfrak{m}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_k = \mathfrak{m}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_k$  since the latter is minimal, so  $\mathfrak{m} \supseteq \mathfrak{m}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_k \Longrightarrow \mathfrak{m} \supseteq \mathfrak{m}_i$  for some i, by 3. of proposition 1.8.1. Then  $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}_i$ , since  $\mathfrak{m}_i$  is max. So  $\operatorname{Max} R = \{\mathfrak{m}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{m}_k\}$ .

(5)  $\exists n_1, \dots, n_k \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \langle 0 \rangle = \mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} = \mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \cap \mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}.$ 

*Proof.* First we claim that  $\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}=\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\cap\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cap\cdots\cap\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}$ . Recall that if  $I_i,I_j$  are coprime for  $i\neq j$ , then  $\prod_{i=1}^n I_i=\bigcap_{i=1}^n I_i$ . By Prop 1.8.1

$$\sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}+\mathfrak{m}_j^{n_j}}=\sqrt{\sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}}+\sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_j^{n_j}}}=\sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_i+\mathfrak{m}_j}=\sqrt{R}=R\implies \mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}+\mathfrak{m}_j^{n_j}=R.$$

Now, let  $n_i$  be the one so that  $\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i} = \mathfrak{m}_{i+1}^{n_{i+1}}$ . We claim that  $\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} = \langle 0 \rangle$ .

If not, let  $S = \{J \subseteq R \mid J\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} \neq 0\} \neq \emptyset$  since  $\mathfrak{m}_i \in S$ . By the fact that R is Artinian, there exists a minimal element  $J_0 \in S$ . By definition of S, Exists  $x \in J_0$  so that  $x\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} \neq 0$ . Then  $\langle x \rangle \in S \langle x \rangle \subseteq J_0$  which by the minimality we must have  $\langle x \rangle = J_0$ .

Also,  $x\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1+1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2+1}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k+1}=x\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}\neq\langle 0\rangle$ , so  $I=x\mathfrak{m}_1\ldots\mathfrak{m}_k\in S$  and  $I\subseteq xR=J_0\Longrightarrow I=xR$ . Then we have  $\mathfrak{m}_1\mathfrak{m}_2\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k=\mathfrak{m}_1\cap\mathfrak{m}_2\cap\cdots\cap\mathfrak{m}_k=\operatorname{Jac} R$  with  $\operatorname{Jac} R(xR)=xR$  since  $\operatorname{Max} R=\operatorname{Spec} R$ . By Nakayama's lemma,  $xR=0\Longrightarrow x=0$  which leads to an contradiction.

(6) The nilradical  $\mathfrak{n}_R$  of R is nilpotent.

*Proof.* Again, 
$$\mathfrak{n}_R = \mathfrak{m}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_k = \operatorname{Jac} R$$
. Let  $n = \max\{n_1, \ldots, n_k\}$  in (5), then  $\mathfrak{n}_R^n = (\mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k)^n = 0$ .

**Theorem 21.** If R is an Artinian ring, then  $R \cong R_1 \times \cdots \times R_k$  where each  $R_i$  is Artinian local ring.

*Proof.* By Chinese Remainder theorem,

$$R \cong R/\langle 0 \rangle = R/\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} \cong R/\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \times R/\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \times \cdots \times R/\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}$$

Let  $R_i = R/\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}$ , which is Artinian since it is the quotient of an Artinian ring. Since quotient preserves maximality,  $\bar{\mathfrak{m}} \in \operatorname{Max} R_i \iff \mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$ . But then  $\mathfrak{m} \supset \mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i} \implies \mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}_i$ . Since  $\mathfrak{m}_i = \sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}}$  is the smallest prime containing  $\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}$  by proposition 1.2.2. So  $\operatorname{Max} R_i = \{\bar{\mathfrak{m}}_i\} \implies R_i$  is a local ring.

**Lemma 5.** Let V be a K-vector space, TFAE

- (1)  $\dim_k V < \infty$
- (2) V has DCC on subspaces.
- (3) V has ACC on subspaces.

Proof.

<u>Fact</u>: If  $V_1 \subseteq V_2$  is finite dimensional vector space over K, then  $V_1 = V_2 \iff \dim_k V_1 = \dim_k V_2$ . Otherwise,  $\dim_k V_1 < \dim_k V_2$ .

$$(1) \Leftrightarrow (3)$$

"  $\Rightarrow$  " Suppose there exists a chain in vector space V with strictly increasing and infinite length,

$$V_1 \subset V_2 \subset \cdots \subseteq V \Rightarrow \dim_k V_1 < \dim_k V_2 < \cdots \leq \dim_k V$$

Then,  $\dim_k V$  must be infinite.

"  $\Leftarrow$  " If  $\dim_k V$  is infinite, let  $S = \{b_1, b_2, \dots\}$  be basis of V.

$$\langle b_1 \rangle_K \subset \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle_K \subset \cdots$$

is a infinite ascending chain.

Similarly,  $(1) \Leftrightarrow (2)$ .

**Lemma 6.** If R is Northerian and dim R = 0, then there exist  $\mathfrak{m}_i, n_i$  so that  $\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} = \langle 0 \rangle$ .

*Proof.* By primary decomposition,  $\langle 0 \rangle = \bigcap_{i=1}^k q_i$  for some primary ideals  $q_i$ . Let  $\mathfrak{m}_i = \sqrt{q_i}$ , since  $\mathfrak{m}_i$  finitely generated, say  $\mathfrak{m}_i = \langle x_1, \dots, x_k \rangle$ . Since  $\mathfrak{m}_i = \sqrt{q_i}$ , for each  $x_i$ , exists  $r_i$  so that  $x_i^{r_i} \in q_i$ . Let  $n_i = \max\{r_i\}$  and one could easily see that  $\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i} \subset q_i$ . Thus

$$\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}=\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\cap\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cap\cdots\cap\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}\subseteq q_1\cap q_2\cap\cdots\cap q_k=\langle 0\rangle$$

**Theorem 22.** R is Artinian  $\iff$  R is Noetherian with dimension 0.

*Proof.* In both case we could find maximal ideals  $\mathfrak{m}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{m}_n$  not necessarily different in R such that  $\mathfrak{m}_1\mathfrak{m}_2\cdots\mathfrak{m}_n=0$ . So we shall prove that this implies Artinian  $\iff$  Noetherian.

Observe that we have a chain of ideals in  $R: R \supset \mathfrak{m}_1 \supset \mathfrak{m}_1\mathfrak{m}_2 \supset \cdots \supset \mathfrak{m}_1\mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_n = 0$ . Let  $M_i = \mathfrak{m}_1\mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_{i-1}/\mathfrak{m}_1\mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_i$  which could be see as an R-module. Moreover, notice that  $\mathfrak{m}_i M_i = 0$ , so we  $M_i$  could be regard as  $R/\mathfrak{m}_i$ -module. But  $R/\mathfrak{m}_i$  is a field, so  $M_i$  can be further regarded as a vector space. Hence we could use lemma 5 now:

 $M_i$  is Artinian  $\iff$   $M_i$  is Noetherian.

By definition,

$$0 \to \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_i \to \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_{i-1} \to M_i \to 0$$

exact. By exercise, given  $0 \to K \to M \to L$  exact, then M Noetherian (Artinian)  $\iff K, M$  Noetherian (Artinian). Thus

$$\begin{split} \mathfrak{m}_0 &= R \text{ Artinian } \iff \mathfrak{m}_1, M_1 \text{ Artinian} \\ &\iff \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2, M_1, M_2 \text{ Artinian} \\ &\vdots \\ &\iff \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_n = \langle 0 \rangle, \ M_1, \ldots, M_n \text{ Artinian} \\ &\iff \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_n = \langle 0 \rangle, \ M_1, \ldots, M_n \text{ Noetherian} \\ &\vdots \\ &\iff \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2, M_1, M_2 \text{ Noetherian} \\ &\iff \mathfrak{m}_1, M_1 \text{ Noetherian } \iff \mathfrak{m}_0 = R \text{ Noetherian} \end{split}$$

### 1.8.2 DVR (Discrete Valuation Ring)

#### Def 26.

- (1) Let K be a field. A discrete valuation of K is  $\nu: K^{\times} \to \mathbb{Z}$   $(\nu(0) = \infty)$  s.t.
  - $\nu(xy) = \nu(x) + \nu(y)$ .
  - $\nu(x \pm y) = \min{\{\nu(x), \nu(y)\}}.$
- (2) The valuation ring of  $\nu$  is  $R = \{x \in K \mid \nu(x) \ge 0\}$ , called a DVR.

## Prop 1.8.3.

1.  $\nu(1) = 0$ :

*Proof.* 
$$\nu(1) = \nu(1) + \nu(1) \implies \nu(1) = 0$$

2.  $\nu(x) = -\nu(x^{-1})$ :

Proof. 
$$0 = \nu(xx^{-1}) = \nu(x) + \nu(x^{-1})$$

3.  $\nu(x) = 0 \iff x \text{ is a unit, so } \mathfrak{m} = \{x \in R \mid \nu(x) > 0\} \text{ is the unique maximal ideal}$ 

Proof. "
$$\Rightarrow$$
":  $\nu(x) = 0 \implies \nu(x^{-1}) = 0 \implies x^{-1} \in R$ 
" $\Leftarrow$ ": Then  $\nu(x^{-1}), \nu(x) \ge 0$ , so  $\nu(x) = -\nu(x) \le 0 \implies \nu(x) = 0$ .

4. Let  $t \in R$  with  $\nu(t) = 1$ , then  $\mathfrak{m} = \langle t \rangle$ . More over, each element  $x \in \mathfrak{m}$  could be uniquely written as  $x = t^k u$  where u is an unit.

*Proof.* 
$$\forall x \in \mathfrak{m}, \nu(x) = k > 0$$
, so  $\nu(x(t^k)^{-1}) = \nu(x) - k\nu(t) = 0 \implies x = t^k u$ , where  $u$  is unit in  $R$ .

5. Let  $I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$  and define  $m = \min\{l \in \mathbb{N} \mid x = t^l u, \forall x \in I\}$ . Then  $I = \langle t^m \rangle$ .

*Proof.* " $\subseteq$ ": Immediately by the previous statement. " $\supseteq$ ": Let  $x = t^m u$  be the one letting l = m, then  $t^m = xu'$  for some u' since where u is a unit.

**Prop 1.8.4.** R is a DVR  $\iff$  R is 1-dimensional normal, Noetherian local integral domain.

Proof.

$$\text{``$\Rightarrow$":} \ \ DVR \Longrightarrow PID \bigotimes^{} UFD \Longrightarrow normal \\ Noetherian$$

Where UFD  $\implies$  normal by theorem 16.

Now if P is a prime ideal in R, then by 5. of proposition 1.8.3,  $P = \langle t^k \rangle = \mathfrak{m}^k$  where  $\mathfrak{m}$  is the maximal ideal. Then  $P = \sqrt{P} = \sqrt{\mathfrak{m}^k} = \mathfrak{m}$  since  $\mathfrak{m}$  maximal. Thus the only prime ideals are  $\{0,\mathfrak{m}\}$  and thus R has dimension 1.

"  $\Leftarrow$  ": Let  $\mathfrak{m}$  be the unique maximal ideal. Then  $\operatorname{Spec} R = \{0, \mathfrak{m}\}$ . If  $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}^2$  then since  $\operatorname{Jac} R = \mathfrak{m}$ ,  $\mathfrak{m} = 0$  by Nakayama's lemma, so  $\mathfrak{m}^2 \neq \mathfrak{m}$ . Pick  $t \in \mathfrak{m}^2 \setminus \mathfrak{m}$ . We claim that  $\langle t \rangle = \mathfrak{m}$ . If not, then  $M \triangleq \mathfrak{m}/\langle t \rangle \neq 0$ . See M as an R-module and consider  $S \triangleq \{\operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x}) \mid \bar{x} \neq 0 \in M\}$ . Since R Noetherian, there is a maximal element, say  $I = \operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x})$ .

We shall prove that I is prime. If not, then there are  $ab \in I$  but  $a, b \notin I$ , which is to say that  $ab\bar{x} = 0$  but  $b\bar{x} \neq 0$ . Notice the obvious fact  $Ann(\bar{x}) \subseteq Ann(b\bar{x})$ , but  $b\bar{x} \neq 0$  and by the maximality

of  $\operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x})$ ,  $\operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x}) = \operatorname{Ann}(b\bar{x})$ , then  $a \in \operatorname{Ann}(b\bar{x}) = \operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x}) \implies ax = 0$ , which is a contradiction, thus I is prime.

So, if  $M \neq 0$ , then we could pick  $\bar{x}$  such that  $\mathrm{Ann}(\bar{x})$  is a prime, and thus  $\mathrm{Ann}(\bar{x}) = \mathfrak{m}$ . Now,  $x\mathfrak{m} \subset \langle t \rangle = tR$ , so  $J \triangleq (x/t)\mathfrak{m} \subset R$  in the field of fraction.

- If J = R, then there exists  $y \in \mathfrak{m}$  so that  $xy/t = 1 \implies t = xy \in M^2$ , which is a contradiction the definition of t.
- If  $J \neq R$ , then J is contained in the maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$ , so  $(x/t)\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}$ . Since  $\mathfrak{m}$  finitely generated,  $\mathfrak{m} = \langle y_1, \ldots, y_k \rangle$ . Then  $(x/t)y_i = \sum a_{i,j}y_j$ . Using the routine determinant trick,  $f(x/t)m = 0, \forall m \in M \implies f(x/t) = 0$  for some monic polynomial  $f \in R[x]$ . Then x/t is integral over R. But then  $x/t \in R$  since R normal, and thus  $x \in Rt$ , which contradict how we picked x.

Thus  $\mathfrak{m} = \langle t \rangle$  is principle. Now, by exercise problem,  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathfrak{m}^n = 0$ , so for each  $x \in R$ , exists an unique k so  $x \in \mathfrak{m}^k$  but  $x \notin \mathfrak{m}^{k+1}$ . Write  $x = t^k u$ , then  $u \notin \mathfrak{m}$  implies that u is an unit. One could easily see that this representation is actually unique.

Finally, define  $\nu(x) = k$ , one could easily checked that this definition extends well to the field of fraction, so R is a DVR.

#### 1.8.3 Dedekind domains

**Def 27.** A Dedekind domain is a Noetherian normal domain of dim 1.

**Def 28.** Let R be an integral domain and  $K = \operatorname{Frac}(R)$ . A nonzero R-submodule I of K is called a fractional ideal of R if  $\exists 0 \neq a \in R$  s.t.  $aI \subset R$ .

**Eg 1.8.1.** If  $I = \langle f_1, \dots, f_n \rangle_R$ , a finitely generated R-module with  $f_i = \frac{a_i}{b_i} \in K$ , then  $a = b_1 b_2 \cdots b_n$  and  $aI \subset R \implies I$  is fractional.

In general, if R is a Noetherian, then every fractional ideal I of R is finitely generated.

**Def 29.** A fractional ideal I of R is invertible if  $\exists J$ : a fractional ideal of R s.t. IJ = R.

#### Prop 1.8.5.

1. If I is invertible, then  $J = I^{-1}$  is unique and equals  $J = (R : I) \triangleq \{a \in K \mid aI \subset R\}$ .

*Proof.* 
$$J \subseteq (R:I) \subseteq (R:I)R \subseteq (R:I)IJ \subseteq RJ = J \implies J = (R:I)$$

2. If I is invertible, then I is a finitely generated R-module.

Proof. If 
$$I(R:I) = R$$
 then  $1 = \sum_{i=0}^{k} x_i y_i$ , for some  $x_i \in I$  and  $y_i \in (R:I)$ . Then,  $\forall x \in I$ ,  $x = \sum_{i=0}^{k} \underbrace{(xy_i)}_{\in R} x_i$  Thus  $I = \langle x_0, \dots, x_k \rangle_R$ .

**Prop 1.8.6.** Let R be a local domain but not a field,  $K = \operatorname{Frac}(R)$ . Then R is a DVR  $\iff$  every nonzero fractional ideal I of R is invertible.

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": Let I be fractional ideal of R, then  $\exists a \in R$  s.t.  $aI \subseteq R$ . Since R is a DVR which is not a field, the maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m} = \langle t \rangle$  for some  $t \neq 0$ . We know from proposition 1.8.3 that  $a = t^k u$  where u is a unit in R.

- If aI = R, then let  $J \triangleq \langle a \rangle_R$  and JI = R.
- If  $aI \neq R$ , then  $aI = \langle t^l \rangle$  again since R is DVR. Then  $I = \langle t^{l-k} \rangle$ , let  $J = \langle t^{k-l} \rangle$  and we have IJ = R.

"  $\Leftarrow$ ": First, for any  $I \subset R$ , which is obvious a fractional ideal, so I is invertible, and hence by proposition 1.8.5, I is finitely generated, thus R is Noetherian.

Let  $\mathfrak{m}$  be the unique maximal ideal, then if  $\mathfrak{m}^2 = \mathfrak{m}$ , since R Noetherian, by Nakayama's lemma,  $\mathfrak{m} = 0$ , which contradicts the fact that R is not a field.

Thus pick  $t \in \mathfrak{m} \setminus \mathfrak{m}^2$ . Consider  $t\mathfrak{m}^{-1}$  which is in R since  $t \in \mathfrak{m}$ . If  $t\mathfrak{m}^{-1} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$ , then  $t\mathfrak{m}^{-1}\mathfrak{m} = tR \subseteq \mathfrak{m}^2 \implies t \in \mathfrak{m}^2$ , which is a contradiction. So  $t\mathfrak{m}^{-1} = R \implies tR = \mathfrak{m}$ . Using the same construction  $\nu$  in proposition 1.8.4, R is a DVR.

#### **Theorem 23.** Let R be an integral domain and $K = \operatorname{Frac}(R)$ . TFAE

- (a) R is a Dedekind domain.
- (b) R is Noetherian and  $R_P$  is a DVR for all  $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ .
- (c) Every nonzero fractional ideal of R is invertible.
- (d) Every nonzero proper ideal of R can be written (uniquely) as a product of powers of prime ideals.

Proof.

- (a) $\Leftrightarrow$ (b): Recall that R is a Dedekind domain if R is (1) Noetherian, (2) normal, (3) integral domain with (4) Dimension 1. And  $R_p$  is a DVR if it is a local Dedekind domain. All of these are guaranteed by proposition 1.6.1, where (4) is by the correspondence of prime ideals.
- (b) $\Leftrightarrow$ (c): We need a small lemma:

**Lemma 7.** If I is finitely generated, then  $(R_P:I_P)=(R:I)_P$ .

*Proof.* Notice that  $I_P$  is then a finitely generated  $R_P$ -module, and thus by example 1.8.1  $(R_P:I_P)$  is a fractional ideal. Then  $(R:I)_P=\{x\mid xI\subset R\}_P=\{x\mid xI_P\subset R_P\}=(R_P:I_P)$ .

Now,

$$\forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R, \ R_P = I_P(R_P : I_P) = I_P(R : I)_P = (I(R : I))_P \iff I(R : I) = R$$

by corollary 1.6.1.

 $(a)(b)(c) \Rightarrow (d)$ :

**Existence:** Since R is Noetherian,  $I = q_1 \cap \cdots \cap q_n = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_n$  Where the intersection equals product is because if we let  $P_i \triangleq \sqrt{q_i}$ , then  $P_i \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ , and  $P_i \neq 0$  is always maximal, so  $P_i + P_j = R$ , which implies  $q_i + q_j = R$  (as in proposition 1.8.1).

Now, we shall prove that  $q_i = P_i^{k_i}$  for some  $k_i$ . By (b), each  $R_{P_i}$  is a DVR, which has primary ideals of the form  $\{\mathfrak{m}^k\}$ . By proposition 1.6.1, primary ideals are correspondent in localization, so  $(q_i)_{P_i} = \mathfrak{m}^k \iff q_i = P_i^k$ . Thus  $k_i = k$  is what we want. Then we could write  $I = P_1^{k_1} \cdots P_n^{k_n}$ .

**Uniqueness:** Actually, the factorization into product of invertible prime ideal is unique in any integral domain.

If  $P_1P_2\cdots P_k=Q_1Q_2\cdots Q_r$ , then  $P_1P_2\cdots P_k=P_1\cap\cdots\cap P_k\in Q_1$ , so there is one, say  $P_1\subset Q_1$ . Assume  $Q_1$  is the minimal among  $Q_i$ . Similarly we could find  $Q_i\subset P_1$ . But then

 $Q_i \subseteq Q_1$ . Since  $Q_i$  minimal,  $Q_i = Q_1$ . Now, since these ideals are invertible,  $P_2P_3 \cdots P_k = Q_2Q_3 \cdots Q_r$ . By induction, the proof is completed.

 $(d)\Rightarrow(c)$ :

**Lemma 8.** Let  $P_i$  be fractional ideals. If  $P_1P_2\cdots P_n=\langle a\rangle$  is principle, then  $P_i$  are invertible.

*Proof.* 
$$P_i^{-1}$$
 is actually  $a^{-1}P_1P_2\cdots P_{i-1}P_{i+1}\cdots P_n$ .

First we prove that p is maximal if p is prime and invertible.

If not, let  $p+aR=P_1\cdots P_k$  and  $p+a^2R=Q_1\cdots Q_r$  with  $a\not\in p$ . Since  $P_i,Q_j\subset p$ , passing to the quotient R/p, we have  $\bar a=P_1\cdots P_k, \,\bar a^2=Q_1\cdots Q_r$ . Using the uniqueness of factorization, which only requires R/p to be an integral domain (which is the case) and  $P_i,Q_j$  be invertible (by lemma above), by  $\bar a^2=P_1^2\cdots P_k^2=Q_1\cdots Q_r$ , we have 2k=r and we could assume  $Q_{2i-1}=Q_{2i}=P_i$ . This shows that  $p+a^2R=(p+aR)^2\subseteq p^2+aR$ . So  $p\subseteq p+a^2R\subseteq p^2+aR$ . Now, if  $x\in p, x=y+az$  for some  $y\in p^2, z\in R$ . Then  $az=x-y\in p$  but  $a\not\in p$ , so  $z\in p$ . Thus we could refine the relation to  $p\subseteq p^2+ap$ . But then  $p\subseteq p(p+aR)$ , since p invertible,  $R\subseteq p+aR$  which implies that p+aR=R. Thus p is maximal.

Now, we show that every prime ideal p is invertible. By assumption, let  $a \in p$ , then  $Ra = P_1 \cdots P_k$ , so by the lemma above, each  $P_i$  is invertible and thus maximal by the previous paragraph. Then  $P_1 \cdots P_k \subset p$ , so again  $P_i \subset p$ , which implies  $P_i = p$ . Thus p is invertible.

Finally, since each ideal is the product of prime ideals, and we've just prove that priome ideals are invertible, any ideal are invertible. For a fractional ideal I,  $aI \subseteq R \implies \exists J$ ,  $aIJ = R \implies I(aJ) = R$ , which is to say that I is invertible.

# 2 Introduction to Homological Algebra

## 2.1 Projective, Injective and Flat modules (week 14)

Def 30.

- $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$  is **projective** if  $\mathrm{Hom}(M,\cdot)$  preserves the *right* exactness.
- $N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$  is **injective** if  $\mathrm{Hom}(\cdot, N)$  preserves the *right* exactness.
- $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$  is flat if  $M \otimes \cdot$  preserves the *left* exactness.

## Fact 2.1.1.

 $\bullet \ \ M \ \text{is projective} \iff \underbrace{\begin{array}{c} \exists \ \tilde{f} \\ \downarrow f \\ M_2 \longrightarrow M_3 \longrightarrow 0 \\ 0 \longrightarrow M_1 \longrightarrow M_2 \\ \\ \bullet \ \ N \ \text{is injective} \iff \underbrace{\begin{array}{c} M \\ M_2 \longrightarrow M_3 \longrightarrow 0 \\ 0 \longrightarrow M_1 \longrightarrow M_2 \\ \\ g \downarrow \\ N \end{array}}_{\sharp \ \tilde{g}}$ 

• free  $\implies$  projective: If  $X = \{x_i \mid i \in \Lambda\}$  and  $f: x_i \mapsto a_i$ . Since  $\beta$  onto, exists  $b_i$  so that  $\beta(b_i) = a_i$ . we can then set  $\tilde{f}: x_i \mapsto b_i$  by the universal property of free module.

$$F(X)$$

$$\downarrow^{\tilde{f}} \qquad \downarrow^{f}$$

$$M_2 \xrightarrow{\beta} M_3 \longrightarrow 0$$

• free  $\Longrightarrow$  flat: Let  $F \cong R^{\oplus \Lambda}$  be a free module, and  $M_1, M_2$  be two modules such that  $0 \to M_1 \to M_2$ . Since  $R \otimes_R M \cong M$ , we have

$$0 \to M_1 \to M_2 \qquad \text{exact}$$

$$\Longrightarrow 0 \to R \otimes M_1 \to R \otimes M_2 \qquad \text{exact}$$

$$\Longrightarrow 0 \to \bigoplus_{i \in \Lambda} R \otimes M_1 \to \bigoplus_{i \in \Lambda} R \otimes M_2 \quad \text{exact}$$

$$\stackrel{(a)}{\Longrightarrow} 0 \to R^{\oplus \Lambda} \otimes M_1 \to R^{\oplus \Lambda} \otimes M_2 \qquad \text{exact}$$

$$\Longrightarrow 0 \to F \otimes M_1 \to F \otimes M_2 \qquad \text{exact}$$

Where (a) is by the fact that  $(A \oplus B) \otimes C \cong (A \otimes C) \oplus (B \otimes C)$ . Thus F flat.

• If S is a multiplication closed set in R with  $1 \in S$ , then

$$0 \to M \to N \to L \to 0 \implies 0 \to M_S \to N_S \to L_S \to 0.$$

We know that  $M_S \cong R_S \otimes_R M$ . So  $R_S$  is a flat R-module. e.g.  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a flat  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.

For any  $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ , a projective module N such that  $N \to M \to 0$  could be easily found: Simply let N = F, a free module on the generating set of M.

Now we shall ask for any module M, does there exist  $N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$  such that N is injective and  $0 \to M \to N$ ?

**Theorem 24** (Baer's criterion). N is injective  $\iff \forall I \subset R$ , and a homomorphism f, there exists a homomorphism h such that the following diagram commutes:

$$0 \longrightarrow I \longrightarrow R$$

$$f \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \\ N$$

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": See I as an R module, then it is obvious by the definition of injective module.

"⇐: Consider the following diagram:

$$0 \longrightarrow M_1 \longrightarrow M_2$$

$$\downarrow^g$$

$$N$$

Let  $S \triangleq \{(M, \rho) \mid M_1 \subseteq M \subseteq M_2 \text{ and } \rho : M \to N \text{ extends } g\} \neq \emptyset \text{ since } (M_1, g) \in S.$ 

By the routinely proof using Zorn's lemma, exists a maximal element  $(M^*, \mu) \in S$ .

We claim that  $M^* = M_2$ . If not, pick  $a \in M_2 \setminus M^*$  and let  $M' \triangleq M^* + Ra \supseteq M^*$ ,  $I \triangleq \{r \in R \mid ra \in M^*\}$ . Define  $f: I \to N$  with  $r \mapsto \mu(ra)$ . Then we have an extension  $h: R \to N$  of f.

Now, let  $\mu': M' \to N = x + ra \mapsto \mu(x) + h(r)$ . We shall prove that this map is well-defined: If  $x_1 + r_1a = x_2 + r_2a$ , then  $(r_1 - r_2)a = x_2 - x_1 \in M \implies r_1 - r_2 \in I$ . So  $h(r_1) - h(r_2) = f(r_1 - r_2) = \mu((r_1 - r_2)a) = \mu(x_2) - \mu(x_1)$ , which prove  $\mu'$  is well defined, and the existence of  $\mu'$  contradicts the fact that  $(M^*, \mu)$  is maximal.

**Def 31.** M is **divisible** if  $\forall x \in M, r \in R \setminus \{0\}$ , there exists  $y \in M$  such that x = ry, i.e.  $rM = M \quad \forall r \in R \setminus \{0\}$ .

## Prop 2.1.1.

1. Every injective module N over an integral domain is divisible.

*Proof.* For any  $x_0 \in N$  and  $r_0 \in R \setminus \{0\}$ . Let  $I = \langle r_0 \rangle \subset R$ . As long as R is an integral domain,  $I \cong R$  as an R-module, so the R-module homomorphism  $f: I \to N = rr_0 \mapsto rx_0$  is well-defined. Since N injective, this map extends to  $h: R \to N$ . Let  $y_0 \triangleq h(1)$ , then  $r_0y_0 = r_0h(1) = h(r_0) = x_0$ . Thus N injective.

2. Every divisible module N over an PID is injective.

*Proof.* For any  $I \subseteq R$  and a homomorphism  $f: I \to N$ , if I = 0 then  $h = x \mapsto 0$  is always an extension of f. So assume  $I \neq 0$ . Since R is a PID,  $I = \langle r_0 \rangle$  for some  $r_0 \neq 0 \in R$ . By the fact that N divisible, exists  $y_0 \in N$  such that  $r_0 y_0 = x_0 \triangleq f(r_0)$ .

Now we could define  $h: R \to N$  by  $1 \mapsto y_0$ . Then  $h(r_0) = r_0 h(1) = r_0 y_0 = x_0$ , thus h is an extension of f and N injective.

3. If R is a PID, then any quotient N of a injective R-module M is injective.

*Proof.* By 2., rM = M for any  $r \neq 0$ , thus rN = N for any  $r \neq 0$ , and hence N injective.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 25.** For any  $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ , there exists an injective module N containing M.

Proof.

Case 1:  $R = \mathbb{Z}$ .

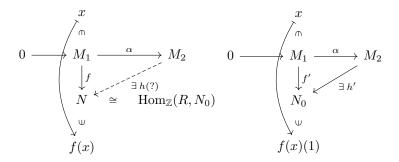
Let  $X = \{x_i\}_{i \in \Lambda}$  be a generating set for M and F is free on X. Let f be the natural map from F to M, then  $M \cong F/\ker f$ .

Define  $F' = \bigoplus_{i \in \Lambda} \mathbb{Q}e_i \supset F$ , which is obviously a divisible  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module. Then  $M \subseteq F' / \ker f \triangleq M'$ , where M' is injective by proposition 2.1.1.

#### Case 2: R arbitrary.

We can regard any M as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module, then there exists an injective module  $N_0 \supset M$ . Now, we have an R-module  $N \triangleq \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, N_0)$  with multiplication  $rf \triangleq x \mapsto f(xr)$ .

We claim that N is injective. For any  $f: M_1 \to N$ , and a homomorphism  $\alpha: M_1 \to M_2$ , first we can regard  $\alpha$  as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module homomorphism, then we define  $f': M_1 \to N_0$  as  $x \mapsto f(x)(1)$ . Since  $N_0$  injective (in  $\mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}}$ ), there exists a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module homomorphism h' from  $M_2$  to  $N_0$ .



Now, define

$$h: M_2 \longrightarrow N$$

$$y \longmapsto h(y): R \longrightarrow N_0$$

$$1 \longmapsto h'(y)$$

$$r \longmapsto h'(ry)$$

We check that h is well-defined.

- $h(y) \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, N_0)$  $h(y)(r_1 + r_2) = h'((r_1 + r_2)y) = h'(r_1y + r_2y) = h'(r_1y) + h'(r_2y) = h(y)(r_1) + h(y)(r_1)$
- $h \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M_2, N)$

$$h(r_1y_1 + y_2)(r) = h'(r(r_1y_1 + y_2)) = h'(rr_1y_1 + ry_2)$$

$$= h'(rr_1y_1) + h'(ry_2)$$

$$= h(y)(rr_1) + h(y_2)(r)$$

$$= (r_1h(y))(r) + h(y_2)(r)$$

• Show diagram commute  $f = h \circ \alpha$ . Fix  $y \in M_1$ , then  $\forall r \in R$ :

$$(h \circ \alpha)(y)(r) = h(\alpha(y))(r) = h'(r\alpha(y))$$
$$= h'(\alpha(ry)) = f'(ry)$$
$$= f(ry)(1) = rf(y)(1)$$
$$= f(y)(r)$$

Thus N injective.

Now, notice that  $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,\cdot)$  is a left exact functor, so  $M \hookrightarrow N_0$  implies  $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,M) \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,N_0)$ , thus  $M \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(R,M) \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,M) \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,N_0) = N$ .

## **Prop 2.1.2.** TFAE

- 1. M is projective.
- 2. Every exact sequence  $0 \to M_1 \to M_2 \to M \to 0$  split.

3.  $\exists M'$  s.t.  $M \oplus M' \cong F$ : free.

Proof.

 $(1) \Rightarrow (2)$ : Since M projective, the map  $\lambda$  with  $\beta \circ \lambda = \text{Id}$  exists in the following diagram:

$$M_2 \xrightarrow{\exists \lambda \qquad \qquad \downarrow \text{Id}} M \longrightarrow 0$$

Then  $\lambda$  is a lifting, so  $M_2 \cong M_1 \oplus M$  and  $0 \to M_1 \to M_2 \to M \to 0$  split.

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3): Let F be a free module on a generating set of M, and  $\beta$  ::  $F \to M$  be the natural map, then  $0 \to \ker \beta \to F \to M \to 0$  split, so  $F \cong \ker \beta \oplus M$ .

(3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): For any  $M_2 \to M_3 \to 0$ , since  $M' \oplus M$  free and thus projective,  $\lambda'$  exists in the following diagram:

$$0 \longrightarrow M' \longrightarrow M' \oplus M \xrightarrow{\mu} M \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\exists \lambda'} \qquad \downarrow^{f}$$

$$M_{2} \xrightarrow{\beta} M_{3} \longrightarrow 0$$

Define  $\lambda = \lambda' \circ \mu$ . Then  $\beta \circ \lambda = \beta \circ \lambda' \circ \mu = f \circ \pi \circ \mu = f$ .

## **Prop 2.1.3.** TFAE

- 1. M is injective.
- 2. Each exact sequence  $0 \to M \to M_2 \to M_3 \to 0$  split.

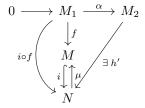
*Proof.* (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2): Similar to the projective case,  $\mu$  exists in the following diagram:

$$0 \longrightarrow M \xrightarrow{\alpha} M_2$$
 
$$\downarrow^{\operatorname{Id}}_{\mathbb{K}} \exists \mu$$
 
$$M$$

So  $M_2 = M \oplus M_3$ .

 $(2) \Rightarrow (1)$ : By theorem 25, there is a module  $N \subset M$  so that N is injective.

Consider  $0 \longrightarrow M \xrightarrow{i \atop \exists \mu} N \longrightarrow \operatorname{coker} i \longrightarrow 0$  split exact and  $\mu \circ i = \operatorname{Id}_M$ . Since N injective, h' exists in the following diagram:



Let  $h = \mu \circ h'$ , then  $h \circ \alpha = \mu \circ h' \circ \alpha = \mu \circ i \circ f = f$ .

**Prop 2.1.4.** projective  $\implies$  flat.

*Proof.* Observe that  $\bigoplus_{i \in \Lambda} M_i$  is flat if and only if  $M_i$  is flat for each i, since if  $0 \to N_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha} N_2$  exact, then

$$0 \longrightarrow (\bigoplus M_i) \otimes N_1 \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \alpha} (\bigoplus M_i) \otimes N_2$$

$$\parallel \qquad \qquad \parallel$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \bigoplus (M_i \otimes N_1) \xrightarrow{\oplus (1 \otimes \alpha)} \bigoplus (M_i \otimes N_2)$$

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

$$0 \longrightarrow M_i \otimes N_1 \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \alpha} M_i \otimes N_2 \qquad \forall i \in \Lambda$$

If M is projective, then by proposition  $2.1.2 \exists M'$  such that  $M \oplus M' \cong F$  is free. Since free implies flat, by above, M is flat.

#### Def 32.

• A chain complex  $C_{\bullet}$  of R-modules is a sequence and maps:

$$C_{\bullet}: \cdots \to C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} C_n \xrightarrow{d_n} C_{n-1} \to \cdots \to C_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} C_0 \to 0$$

with  $d_n \circ d_{n+1} = 0$ ,  $\forall n$ . (i.e.  $\operatorname{Im} d_{n+1} \subseteq \ker d_n$ )

Then define

- $-Z_n(C_{\bullet}) \triangleq \ker d_n$  is the *n*-cycle.
- $-B_n(C_{\bullet}) \triangleq \operatorname{Im} d_{n+1}$  is the *n*-boundary.
- $-H_n(C_{\bullet}) \triangleq Z_n(C_{\bullet})/B_n(C_{\bullet})$  is called the *n*-th homology.
- A cochain complex  $C^{\bullet}$  of R-modules is a sequence and maps:

$$C^{\bullet}: 0 \to C^0 \xrightarrow{d^1} C^1 \to \cdots \to C^{n-1} \xrightarrow{d^n} C^n \xrightarrow{d^{n+1}} C^{n+1} \to \cdots$$

with  $d^{n+1} \circ d^n = 0$ ,  $\forall n$ . (i.e. Im  $d^n \subseteq \ker d^{n+1}$ )

Then define

- $-Z^n(C^{\bullet}) \triangleq \ker d^{n+1}$  is the *n*-cocycle.
- $-B^n(C^{\bullet}) \triangleq \operatorname{Im} d^n$  is the *n*-coboundary.
- $-H^n(C^{\bullet}) \triangleq Z^n(C^{\bullet})/B^n(C^{\bullet})$  is called the *n*-th cohomology.
- $\varphi: C_{\bullet} \to \tilde{C}_{\bullet}$  is a chain map if the following diagram commutes:

$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} C_n \xrightarrow{d_n} C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots$$

$$\downarrow^{\varphi_{n+1}} \qquad \downarrow^{\varphi_n} \qquad \downarrow^{\varphi_{n-1}}$$

$$\cdots \longrightarrow \tilde{C}_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\tilde{d}_{n+1}} \tilde{C}_n \xrightarrow{\tilde{d}_n} \tilde{C}_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots$$

Observe that  $\varphi_n(\ker d_n) \subseteq \ker \tilde{d}_n$  and  $\varphi_n(\operatorname{Im} d_{n+1}) \subseteq \operatorname{Im} \tilde{d}_{n+1}$ . This will induce the following maps:

$$\varphi_*: H_n(C_{\bullet}) \to H_n(\tilde{C}_{\bullet})$$
  
 $x + B_n(C_{\bullet}) \mapsto \varphi_n(x) + B_n(\tilde{C}_{\bullet})$ 

•  $f: C_{\bullet} \to \tilde{C}_{\bullet}$  is null homotopic if  $\exists s_n: C_n \to \tilde{C}_{n+1}$  s.t.  $f_n = \tilde{d}_{n+1} \circ s_n + s_{n-1} \circ d_n, \quad \forall n$ .

$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} C_n \xrightarrow{d_n} C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots$$

$$\downarrow^{f_{n+1}} \searrow^{s_n} \downarrow^{f_n} \downarrow^{f_{n-1}} \downarrow^{f_{n-1}}$$

$$\cdots \longrightarrow \tilde{C}_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} \tilde{C}_n \xrightarrow{d_n} \tilde{C}_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots$$

**Prop 2.1.5.** If f is null homotopic, then  $f_* = 0$ .

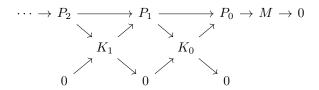
Proof. 
$$f_*(x) = \tilde{d}_{n+1}s_n(x) + s_{n-1}d_n(x) = \tilde{d}_{n+1}s_n(x) \in B_n(\tilde{C}_{\bullet}) \implies f_*(\bar{x}) = 0.$$

- Two chain map  $f, g: C_{\bullet} \to \tilde{C}_{\bullet}$  are homotopic if f-g is null homotopic.  $(f_* = g_*)$
- Let  $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ . A projection resolution of M is an exact sequence:

$$\cdots \to P_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} P_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \to 0$$

where  $P_i$  is projective for all i.

For any M, projection resolution always exists. Let  $P_0$  be a free module on the generators of M. We get  $P_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \to 0$ . Similarly, let  $P_1$  be free on  $\ker \alpha$ , then we could extend the map to  $P_1 \to P_0 \to M \to 0$ . Continue the process we would get a diagram as below, where  $K_i$  are the kernels:



**Theorem 26** (Comparison theorem). Given two chain as following:

$$\cdots \longrightarrow P_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} P_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \longrightarrow 0 \qquad \text{(projective resolution)}$$

$$\downarrow \exists f_2 \qquad \downarrow \exists f_1 \qquad \downarrow \exists f_0 \qquad \downarrow f$$

$$\cdots \longrightarrow \tilde{C}_2 \xrightarrow{d'_2} \tilde{C}_1 \xrightarrow{d'_1} \tilde{C}_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha'} N \longrightarrow 0 \qquad \text{(exact sequence)}$$

Then  $\exists f_i : P_i \to C_i$  s.t.  $\{f_i\}$  forms a chain map making the completed diagram commutes. And any two such chain maps are homotopic.

*Proof.* Using induction on n.

For n = 0, the existence of  $f_0$  is guaranteed by the definition of projective module.

$$P_0$$

$$\downarrow f \circ \alpha$$

$$C_0 \longrightarrow N \longrightarrow 0$$

For n > 0, we claim that  $f_{n-1}d_n(P_n) \subseteq \operatorname{Im} d'_n$ , since  $d'_{n-1}f_{n-1}d_n(x) = f_{n-2}d_{n-1}d_n(x) = 0$  and by the fact that C is exact,  $f_{n-1}d_n(x) \in \ker d'_{n-1} = \operatorname{Im} d'_n$ . So using the diagram and again by the definition of projective module,  $f_n$  exists.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
P_n \\
\downarrow^{f_{n-1} \circ d_n} \\
C_n & \longrightarrow \operatorname{Im} d'_n & \longrightarrow 0
\end{array}$$

Now, for another chain map  $\{g_i: P_i \to C_i\}$ , we shall construct suitable  $\{s_n\}$  to prove they are homotopic. For  $s_{-1}: M \to C_0$  we could simply pick the zero map. Again, if we could prove that  $\operatorname{Im}(g_n - f_n - s_{n-1}d_n) \subset \ker d'_n$ , then by the definition of projective module, we would obtain  $s_n$  with

$$d_{n+1}s_n = g_n - f_n - s_{n-1}d_n \implies g_n - f_n = d_{n+1}s_n + s_{n-1}d_n$$

immediately. For this we calculate  $d'_n(g_n - f_n - s_{n-1}d_n) = g_{n-1}d_n - f_{n-1}d_n - d'_ns_{n-1}d_n$ . Notice that  $d'_ns_{n-1} = g_{n-1} - f_{n-1} - s_{n-2}d_{n-1}$ , and with  $d_{n-1}d_n = 0$ , we get  $d'_n(g_n - f_n - s_{n-1}d_n) = 0$ .  $\square$ 

**Def 33.** Let  $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$  and  $\cdots \to P_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} P_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \to 0$  be a projective resolution of M. Fix  $N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ . Applying  $\mathrm{Hom}_R(\cdot, N)$  will get a complex:

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N) \xrightarrow{\bar{\alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(P_0,N) \xrightarrow{\bar{d}_1} \operatorname{Hom}_R(P_1,N) \to \cdots$$

Define

- $\operatorname{Ext}_R^0(M,N) = \ker \bar{d}_1 = \operatorname{Im} \bar{\alpha} \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N).$
- $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M, N) = H^{n}(\operatorname{Hom}(P_{\bullet}, N)), \quad \forall n \geq 1.$

**Theorem 27** (Indenpedency of the choice of projective resolutions).  $\operatorname{Ext}^n(M,N)$  is independent of the choice of the projective resolution used.

*Proof.* First, consider two projective resolutions of  $M, \tilde{M}$ , and map  $f: M \to \tilde{M}$ , and two liftings  $\{f_i\}, \{g_i\}$ . Use  $\bar{\cdot}$  to denote the natural transformation from  $X \to Y$  to  $\text{Hom}(Y, N) \to \text{Hom}(X, N)$  by  $\bar{f} \triangleq g \mapsto g \circ f$ . Then we shall prove that  $\bar{f_{\bullet}}^* = \bar{g_{\bullet}}^*$ , which is to say  $\bar{f_{\bullet}}^*$  is independent of the lifting used.

By comparison theorem (26),  $\{f_i\}, \{g_i\}$  are homotopic, and we could write down the diagram below:

$$\cdots \longrightarrow P_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} P_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow f_2 \downarrow g_2 \qquad \downarrow f_1 \downarrow g_1 \qquad \downarrow f_0 \downarrow g_0 \qquad \downarrow f$$

$$\cdots \longrightarrow \tilde{P}_2 \xrightarrow{\tilde{d}_2} \tilde{P}_1 \xrightarrow{\tilde{d}_1} \tilde{P}_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\alpha}} \tilde{M} \longrightarrow 0$$

Notice that  $\bar{f}$  act linearly, that is,  $\overline{f+g} = \bar{f} + \bar{g}$ , and  $\overline{fg} = \bar{g}\bar{f}$ . So we have

$$g_n - f_n = s_{n-1}d_n + \tilde{d}_{n+1}s_n \implies \bar{g}_n - \bar{f}_n = \bar{d}_n\bar{s}_{n-1} + \bar{s}_n\bar{d}_{n+1}$$

and  $\bar{f}_n, \bar{g}_n$  are homotopic. Thus by proposition 2.1.5,  $\bar{f}_{\bullet}^* = \bar{g}_{\bullet}^*$ .

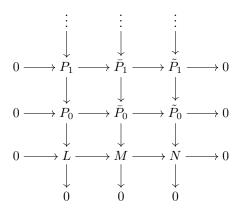
Now, let  $P_{\bullet}, P'_{\bullet}$  be two projective resolutions. Consider the diagram:

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
& \cdots \longrightarrow P_1 \longrightarrow P_0 \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0 \\
& & \operatorname{Id} \left\langle \downarrow f_1 & \operatorname{Id} \left\langle \downarrow f_0 & \downarrow \operatorname{Id} \right. \\
& \cdots \longrightarrow P'_1 \longrightarrow P'_0 \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0 \\
& & \downarrow g_0 & \downarrow \operatorname{Id} \\
& \cdots \longrightarrow P_1 \longrightarrow P_0 \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0
\end{array}$$

Then  $g_i \circ f_i$  and Id are two liftings, and thus by previous we have  $\bar{g}_i^* \circ \bar{f}_i^* = \text{Id}^*$ . By symmetry,  $\bar{f}_i^* \circ \bar{g}_i^* = \text{Id}^*$ , which means that the homology calculated using different resolution are isomorphic.

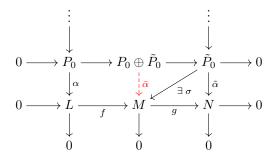
**Theorem 28** (Horseshoe Lemma). Given  $0 \to L \to M \to N \to 0$  and projective resolutions  $P_{\bullet} \to L \to 0$ ,  $\tilde{P}_{\bullet} \to N \to 0$ . Then there is a projective resolution for M such that the following

diagram commutes:



*Proof.* Let  $\bar{P}_n \triangleq P_n \oplus \tilde{P}_n$ .  $\bar{P}_n$  is projective by the fact that direct sum of projective modules are projective. Also  $0 \to P_n \to P_n \oplus \tilde{P}_n \to \tilde{P}_n \to 0$  by injection and projection. It remains to show that the maps in the middle column exists.

Consider the following diagram:



 $\sigma$  exists because  $\tilde{P}_0$  is projective. Define

$$\bar{\alpha}: P_0 \oplus \tilde{P}_0 \longrightarrow M$$

$$(z,y) \longmapsto f \circ \alpha(z) + \sigma(y)$$

It easy to see that  $\bar{\alpha}$  let the diagram commutes. So we show that  $P_0 \oplus \tilde{P}_0 \xrightarrow{\bar{\alpha}} M \to 0$ :

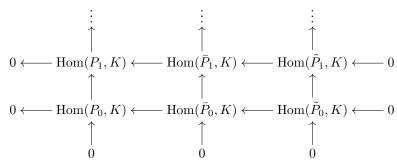
For any  $x \in M$ , consider  $g(x) \in N$ . Since  $\tilde{P}_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\alpha}} N \to 0$ , there exists  $y \in \tilde{P}_0$  such that  $\tilde{\alpha}(y) = g(x) \implies g \circ \sigma(y) = g(x)$ . Then  $x - \sigma(y) = \ker g = \operatorname{Im} f$ , so there exists  $w \in L$  such that  $f(w) + \sigma(y) = x$ . Now, since  $P_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\alpha}} L \to 0$ , there exists  $z \in P_0$  such that  $\alpha(z) = w$ . Then we have  $\bar{\alpha}(z,y) = x$ . So  $P_0 \oplus \tilde{P}_0 \xrightarrow{\bar{\alpha}} M \to 0$ .

By induction on n, but we use  $\ker d_{n-1}$ ,  $\ker \bar{d}_{n-1}$ ,  $\ker \tilde{d}_{n-1}$  to replace L, M, N ( $d_{-1} = \alpha$  and so on). Then we are done.

**Theorem 29** (Long exact sequence for Ext). If  $0 \to L \to M \to N \to 0$  exact, then there is a long exact sequence:

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(N,K) \to \operatorname{Hom}(M,K) \to \operatorname{Hom}(L,K)$$
  
$$\to \operatorname{Ext}^1(N,K) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1(M,K) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1(L,K) \to \operatorname{Ext}^2(N,K) \to \dots$$

*Proof.* Taking  $\operatorname{Hom}(-,K)$  in the diagram of Horseshoe' lemma (28) and delete the first row, we get



Notice that  $\operatorname{Hom}(M \oplus N, K) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(M, K) \oplus \operatorname{Hom}(N, K)$ , so each row is indeed exact.

By exercise 14.7, the long exact sequence in the statement exists. (one can check the kernels of the first row are indeed Hom(N,K), Hom(M,K), Hom(L,K).)

# 2.2 Ext and Tor (week 15)

Given  $M, N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ , there are two ways to define  $\mathrm{Ext}^n(M, N)$ :

Def 34 (Ext functor).

- Find any projective resolution  $P_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \to 0$ , and let  $P_M : P_{\bullet} \to 0$  (called a deleted resolution). We can define  $\operatorname{Ext}^n_{\operatorname{proj}}(M,N) = H^n(\operatorname{Hom}(P_M,N))$ .
- Find any injective resolution  $0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} N \to E^{\bullet}$ , and let  $E_N : 0 \to E^{\bullet}$ . We can define  $\operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{inj}}^n(M,N) = H^n(\operatorname{Hom}(M,E_N))$ .

**Prop 2.2.1.**  $\operatorname{Ext}^0_{\operatorname{proj}}(M,N) \cong \operatorname{Ext}^0_{\operatorname{inj}}(M,N) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(M,N).$ 

Proof.

$$\operatorname{Hom}(P_M,N): 0 \xrightarrow{\overline{d_0}} \operatorname{Hom}(P_0,N) \xrightarrow{\overline{d_1}} \operatorname{Hom}(P_1,N) \to \cdots$$
so  $\operatorname{Ext}^0_{\operatorname{proj}}(M,N) = \ker \overline{d_1} / \operatorname{im} \overline{d_0} = \ker \overline{d_1} = \operatorname{im} \alpha = \operatorname{Hom}(M,N).$ 

Similarly,  $\operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{inj}}^0(M, N) = \operatorname{Hom}(M, N)$ .

#### Lemma 9.

- If M is projective, then  $\operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{proj}}^n(M,N)=0$  for all  $n>0, N\in\operatorname{\mathbf{Mod}}_R$ .
- If N is injective, then  $\operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{inj}}^n(M,N)=0$  for all  $n>0, M\in\operatorname{\mathbf{Mod}}_R.$

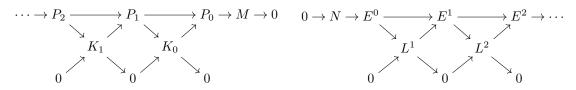
*Proof.* If M is projective, then  $0 \to M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{1}_M} M \to 0$  is a projective resolution of M. Its deleted resolution is then  $P_M: 0 \to M \to 0$ . Hence for n > 0,  $\operatorname{Ext}^n_{\operatorname{proj}}(M, N) = H^n(\operatorname{Hom}(P_M, N)) = 0$ .

The argument applies similarly to injective case.

Theorem 30 (Equivalence of Ext<sub>proj</sub> and Ext<sub>inj</sub>).

$$\operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{proj}}^n(M,N) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{inj}}^n(M,N).$$

*Proof.* Let  $P_{\bullet} \to M \to 0$  and  $0 \to N \to E^{\bullet}$  be projective and injective resolutions, then we have  $0 \to K_0 \to P_0 \to M \to 0$  and  $0 \to N \to E^0 \to L^1 \to 0$  exact.



We can construct long exact sequences of homology of  $\operatorname{Hom}(\cdot, E_N)$ :

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(M,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}(M,E^0) \to \operatorname{Hom}(M,L^1) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{inj}}(M,N) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{inj}}(M,E^0) = 0$$
 
$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(P_0,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}(P_0,E^0) \to \operatorname{Hom}(P_0,L^1) \to 0$$
 
$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(K_0,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}(K_0,E^0) \to \operatorname{Hom}(K_0,L^1) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{inj}}(K_0,N) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{inj}}(K_0,E^0) = 0$$

The second sequence is short because  $P_0$  is projective (so  $\text{Hom}(P_0,\cdot)$  preserves exactness). Similarly, for  $\text{Hom}(P_M,\cdot)$  we have:

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(M,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}(P_0,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}(K_0,N) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{proj}}(M,N) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{proj}}(P_0,N) = 0$$

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(M, E^0) \to \operatorname{Hom}(P_0, E^0) \to \operatorname{Hom}(K_0, E^0) \to 0$$
$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(M, L^1) \to \operatorname{Hom}(P_0, L^1) \to \operatorname{Hom}(K_0, L^1) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{proj}}(M, L^1) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{proj}}(P_0, L^1) = 0$$

Combining these sequences together, we got the following 2D diagram:

By Snake lemma, there is an exact sequence

$$(\ker \alpha \to) \ker \beta \to \ker \gamma \to \operatorname{coker} \alpha \to \operatorname{coker} \beta (\to \operatorname{coker} \gamma)$$

and this reads

$$\operatorname{Hom}(M, E^0) \xrightarrow{\phi} \operatorname{Hom}(M, L^1) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{proj}}(M, N) \to 0$$

Thus  $\operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{proj}}(M,N) \cong \operatorname{coker} \phi \cong \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{inj}}(M,N)$ . (From now on, we don't need to distinguish proj/inj for  $\operatorname{Ext}^1$ !)

Since  $\sigma$  is onto, im  $\gamma = \operatorname{im}(\gamma \circ \sigma)$ . Similarly, im  $\tau = \operatorname{im}(\tau \circ \beta)$ .

By the commutativity of the diagram, im  $\gamma = \text{im } \tau$ , so

$$\operatorname{Ext}^1(K_0, N) \cong \operatorname{coker} \gamma = \operatorname{Hom}(K_0, L^1) / \operatorname{im} \gamma \cong \operatorname{coker} \tau \cong \operatorname{Ext}^1(M, L^1).$$

Write  $K_{-1} := M, L^0 := N$ , then  $\operatorname{Ext}^1(K_0, L^0) = \operatorname{Ext}^1(K_{-1}, L^1)$  (\*).

$$0 \to K_i \to P_i \to K_{i-1} \to 0$$

$$0 \to L^i \to E^i \to L^{i+1} \to 0$$

, we can obtain  $\operatorname{Ext}^1(K_i, L^i) \cong \operatorname{Ext}^1(K_{i-1}, L^{i+1})$  for  $i, j \geq 0$ .

Now, observe that

Similarly, from the exact sequences

$$0 \to L^{n-1} \to E^{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}} E^n \xrightarrow{d_n} \cdots$$

is an injective resolution of  $L^{n-1}$ , and  $\operatorname{Ext}^1(M, L^{n-1}) \cong \ker \overline{d_n} / \operatorname{im} \overline{d_{n-1}} \cong \operatorname{Ext}^n_{\operatorname{inj}}(M, N)$ . Similarly, for projective resolution we have  $\operatorname{Ext}^1(K_{n-2}, N) \cong \operatorname{Ext}^n_{\operatorname{proj}}(M, N)$ . Finally, by  $(\star)$ ,

$$\operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{inj}}^n(M,N) \cong \operatorname{Ext}^1(K_{-1},L^{n-1}) \cong \operatorname{Ext}^1(K_0,L^{n-2}) \cong \cdots \cong \operatorname{Ext}^1(K_{n-2},L^0) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{proj}}^n(M,N).$$

**Def 35** (Tor functor). Let  $M, N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ , and  $P_{\bullet} \to M \to 0$  be a projective resolution of M, similar to the Ext case, for  $n \geq 0$  we can define

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n(M,N) = H_n(P_M \otimes N).$$

**Fact 2.2.1.** By Horseshoe lemma, short exact sequence  $0 \to M_1 \to M_2 \to M_3 \to 0$  induces a long exact sequence:

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(M_1, N) \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(M_2, N) \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(M_3, N) \to M_1 \otimes N \to M_2 \otimes N \to M_3 \otimes N \to 0$$

**Prop 2.2.2.** If M is flat, then  $\operatorname{Tor}_n(M,N)=0$  for  $n>0, N\in\operatorname{\mathbf{Mod}}_R$ .

*Proof.* M is flat  $\Longrightarrow M \otimes \cdot$  is an exact functor. If  $Q_{\bullet} \to N \to 0$  is a projective resolution of N, then  $\cdots \to M \otimes Q_1 \to M \otimes Q_0 \to M \otimes N \to 0$  is also exact. By Exercise 15-1, we have

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n(M,N) \cong H_n(M \otimes Q_N) = 0.$$

**Theorem 31** (Tor for flat resolutions). Let  $U_{\bullet} \to M \to 0$  be a flat resolution of M, then for  $n \geq 0$ ,

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n(M,N) \cong H_n(U_M \otimes N).$$

Proof.

$$\cdots \to U_2 \xrightarrow{\qquad} U_1 \xrightarrow{\qquad} U_0 \to M \to 0$$

$$W_1 \xrightarrow{\qquad} W_0$$

$$0$$

$$H_{\bullet}(U_M \otimes N) : \cdots \to U_2 \otimes N \xrightarrow{d_2 \otimes \mathbf{1}} U_1 \otimes N \xrightarrow{d_1 \otimes \mathbf{1}} U_0 \otimes N \to 0$$

• n = 0: Since tensor is right exact,  $U_1 \otimes N \xrightarrow{d_1 \otimes 1} U_0 \otimes N \xrightarrow{\alpha \otimes 1} M \otimes N \to 0$  is exact. Hence

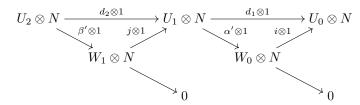
$$H_0(U_M \otimes N) = (U_0 \otimes N) / \operatorname{im}(d_1 \otimes \mathbf{1}) = (U_0 \otimes N) / \ker(\alpha \otimes \mathbf{1}) \cong M \otimes N$$

Any projective resolution also has this property, so  $Tor_0(M, N) = H_0(U_M \otimes N)$ .

• n=1:  $0 \to W_0 \to U_0 \to M \to 0$  induces a long exact sequence:

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(W_0,N) \to 0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(M,N) \to W_0 \otimes N \xrightarrow{i \otimes 1} U_0 \otimes N \to M \otimes N \to 0$$

where  $\operatorname{Tor}_1(U_0, N) = 0$  because  $U_0$  is flat. We can see that  $\operatorname{Tor}_1(M, N) \cong \ker(i \otimes 1)$ .



Since  $\alpha' \otimes 1$  is onto,  $W_0 \otimes N \cong (U_1 \otimes N) / \ker(\alpha' \otimes 1)$ . Also,  $x \in \ker(d_1 \otimes 1) \iff (d_1 \otimes 1)(x) = 0 \iff (\alpha' \otimes 1)(x) \in \ker(i \otimes 1)$ , so  $\ker(i \otimes 1) = (\alpha' \otimes 1)(\ker(d_1 \otimes 1)) \cong \ker(d_1 \otimes 1) / \ker(\alpha' \otimes 1)$ .  $(\alpha' \otimes 1)$  can be considered a quotient map, then  $\ker(d_1 \otimes 1)$  descends to  $\ker(d_1 \otimes 1) / \ker(\alpha' \otimes 1)$ .

Now, in the diagram  $W_1 \otimes N \to U_1 \otimes N \to W_0 \otimes N \to 0$  exact, so  $\ker(\alpha' \otimes 1) = \operatorname{im}(j \otimes 1)$ . But  $\beta' \otimes 1$  is onto, thus  $\operatorname{im}(j \otimes 1) = \operatorname{im}(d_2 \otimes 1)$ .

Finally,

 $\operatorname{Tor}_1(M,N) \cong \ker(i \otimes 1) \cong \ker(d_1 \otimes 1) / \ker(\alpha' \otimes 1) = \ker(d_1 \otimes 1) / \operatorname{im}(d_2 \otimes 1) = H_1(U_M \otimes N).$ 

•  $n \ge 2$ :

Let's see further in the previous long exact sequences:

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_2(W_0, N) \to 0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_2(M, N) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Tor}_1(W_0, N) \to 0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(M, N) \to \cdots$$

we can see that  $\operatorname{Tor}_n(M,N) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{n-1}(W_0,N)$  for  $n \geq 2$ .

Now,

$$\cdots U_3 \xrightarrow{d_3} U_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} U_1 \to W_0 \to 0$$

is a flat resolution of  $W_0$ , and its homology is  $H_{n-1}(U_{W_0} \otimes N) = \ker(d_n \otimes 1)/\operatorname{im}(d_{n-1} \otimes 1) = H_n(U_M \otimes N)$ .

By induction, assume it's true for n-1, then

$$H_n(U_M \otimes N) = H_{n-1}(U_{W_0} \otimes N) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{n-1}(W_0, N) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_n(M, N).$$

Eg 2.2.1.  $R = \mathbb{Z}, M = \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  with  $m \geq 2$ . Then

$$P: 0 \to \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{m} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{/m\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} \to 0$$

is a projective resolution of  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ . So for any  $N \in \mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}}$ ,

$$H^n(\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(P_{\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}},N)):0\to\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z},N)\xrightarrow{\overline{m}}\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z},N)\to 0,$$

$$\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{0}(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, N) = \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, N) \cong {}_{m}N := \{a \in N \mid ma = 0\}$$

$$\operatorname{Ext}^1_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, N) \cong N/mN$$

$$\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{n}(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, N) = 0 \text{ (for } n \geq 2)$$

**Eg 2.2.2.**  $\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Z}_{(0)}$  is a localization, thus a flat  $\mathbb{Z}$  module. Then

$$U: 0 \to \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{i} \mathbb{O} \to \mathbb{O}/\mathbb{Z} \to 0$$

is a flat resolution of  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$ . For  $G \in \mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}}$  (i.e. an abelian group),

$$H_n(G \otimes U_{\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}}) : 0 \to G \otimes \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{1} \otimes i} G \otimes \mathbb{Q} \to 0$$

$$\operatorname{Tor}_0(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \cong G \otimes \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$$

$$\operatorname{Tor}_1(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = \ker(\mathbf{1} \otimes i) \cong t(G) := \{ a \in G \mid ma = 0 \text{ for some } m \in \mathbb{N} \}$$

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = 0 \text{ (for } n \ge 2)$$

**Def 36.** Let M be a left R-module, then define  $M^* := \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$  as a right R-module by

$$fr: M \to \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$$
  
 $x \mapsto f(rx)$ 

# Fact 2.2.2.

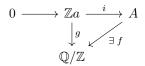
- 1.  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  is injective.
- 2.  $A = 0 \iff A^* = 0$ .
- 3.  $B \hookrightarrow C \iff C^* \twoheadrightarrow B^*$ .

#### Proof.

- 1. For  $m \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ ,  $m(\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  by  $m(\frac{a}{mb} + \mathbb{Z}) \leftarrow \frac{a}{b} + \mathbb{Z}$ , so  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  is divisible. But  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a PID, so  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  is injective.
- 2.  $(\Rightarrow)$   $A^* = \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(0, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = 0$ .
  - $(\Leftarrow)$  If  $A \neq 0$ , then  $\exists a \in A, a \neq 0$ , so  $0 \to \mathbb{Z}a \xrightarrow{i} A$  is an inclusion.

Since  $\mathbb{Z}a$  is a cyclic abelian group, there is a nonzero  $g: \mathbb{Z}a \to \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$ . (If  $\mathbb{Z}a \cong \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ , let  $g: a \mapsto \frac{1}{m}$ ; if  $\mathbb{Z}a \cong \mathbb{Z}$ , let  $g: a \mapsto \frac{1}{2}$ .)

But  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  is injective, so  $\exists f: A \to \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  (i.e.  $f \in A^*$ ), and  $f \circ i = g \neq 0$  so  $f \neq 0$ , thus  $A^* \neq 0$ .



3. Since  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  is injective,  $\operatorname{Hom}(\cdot,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$  is exact. Let  $0 \to \ker f \to B \xrightarrow{f} C$  exact, applying  $\operatorname{Hom}(\cdot,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$  results in  $C^* \xrightarrow{f^*} B^* \to (\ker f)^* \to 0$  exact. Thus  $\operatorname{coker} f^* = (\ker f)^*$ .

By 2.,  $B \hookrightarrow C \iff \ker f = 0 \iff (\ker f)^* = 0 \iff \operatorname{coker} f^* = 0 \iff C^* \twoheadrightarrow B^*$ .

# **Prop 2.2.3.** Let M be an R-module, then TFAE

- 1. M is flat.
- 2.  $M^*$  is injective (as a R-module).
- 3.  $\operatorname{Tor}_1(R/I, M) = 0$  for all ideal  $I \subseteq R$ .
- 4.  $I \otimes_R M \cong IM$  for all ideal  $I \subseteq R$ .

#### Proof.

• 3.  $\iff$  4.

For any ideal  $I \subseteq R$ ,  $0 \to I \xrightarrow{i} R \xrightarrow{q} R/I \to 0$  is exact. This induces a long exact sequence:

$$\operatorname{Tor}_1(R,M) \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(R/I,M) \to I \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{i \otimes \mathbf{1}} R \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{q \otimes \mathbf{1}} R/I \otimes_R M \to 0$$

- $Tor_1(R, M) = 0$  since R is a flat R-module.
- $-R\otimes_R M\cong M.$
- $-R/I \otimes_R M \cong M/IM$  by  $(r+I) \otimes a \mapsto (ra+IM)$ .

So we have

$$0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(R/I, M) \to I \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{i'} M \xrightarrow{q'} M/IM \to 0$$

exact, with  $q': M \to M/IM$  being exactly the quotient map (one can check that  $q \otimes \mathbf{1} \cong q'$ ).

Now it's clear that  $\operatorname{Tor}_1(R/I, M) = 0 \iff I \otimes_R M \cong \ker(q') \cong IM$ .

(The reverse direction requires  $I \otimes_R M \cong IM$  being the natural isomorphism  $r \otimes b \mapsto rb$ , so  $i': IM \to M$  can then be the natural inclusion.)

• 1.  $\iff$  2. Let  $0 \to N' \xrightarrow{f} N$ , then  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(N, M^*) \xrightarrow{\overline{f}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(N', M^*)$ . By the adjoint relation,

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(N, M^*) = \operatorname{Hom}_R(N, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(N \otimes_R M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = (N \otimes_R M)^*,$$

we have another map  $(N \otimes_R M)^* \xrightarrow{(f \otimes 1)^*} (N' \otimes_R M)^*$  isomorphic to the previous one, with its unstarred map  $N' \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{f \otimes 1} N \otimes_R M$ .

Now,  $M^*$  is injective  $\iff \overline{f}$  is surjective  $\forall N, N' \iff (f \otimes \mathbf{1})^*$  is surjective  $\forall N, N' \iff f \otimes \mathbf{1}$  is injective  $\forall N, N' \iff M$  is flat.

• 2.  $\iff$  4. Similar to the previous section, by Baer's criterion,

$$\begin{array}{ll} M^* \text{ is injective} & \Longleftrightarrow & \operatorname{Hom}_R(R,M^*) \twoheadrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_R(I,M^*), \forall \ I \subseteq R \\ & \Longleftrightarrow & (R \otimes_R M)^* \twoheadrightarrow (I \otimes_R M)^*, \forall \ I \subseteq R \\ & \Longleftrightarrow & I \otimes_R M \hookrightarrow R \otimes_R M \cong M, \forall \ I \subseteq R \\ & \Longleftrightarrow & I \otimes_R M \cong IM, \forall \ I \subseteq R. \end{array}$$

Similarly, this requires the isomorphism of  $I \otimes_R M \cong IM$  be natural (the following f).

The map  $f: I \otimes_R M \to IM$  is always onto, but may not be 1-1. If it is,  $I \otimes_R M \cong IM$ .

**Prop 2.2.4.** For  $I, J \subseteq R$  being ideals, then  $Tor_1(R/I, R/J) \cong (I \cap J)/IJ$ .

*Proof.*  $0 \to I \xrightarrow{i} R \to R/I \to 0$  induces a long exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(R/I, R/J) \to I \otimes_R R/J \xrightarrow{i \otimes 1} R \otimes_R R/J \to R/I \otimes_R R/J \to 0,$$

where  $Tor_1(R, R/J) = 0$  since R is flat.

Also  $I \otimes_R R/J \cong I/IJ$ ,  $R \otimes_R R/J \cong R/J$ , so we have  $I/IJ \xrightarrow{i'} R/J$  with  $\operatorname{Tor}_1(R/I, R/J) \cong \ker(i \otimes 1) \cong \ker i'$ .

But  $i': I/IJ \to R/J \atop x+IJ \mapsto x+J$ , so  $\overline{x} \in \ker i' \iff x \in I$  and  $x \in J \iff x \in I \cap J$ , hence  $\ker i' \cong (I \cap J)/IJ$ .

# 2.3 Koszul complex (week 16)

In this section, we assume that R is commutative with 1.

**Def 37.** Let  $L \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ , with  $f: L \to R$  an R-linear map, define

$$d_f: \quad \Lambda^n L \to \quad \Lambda^{n-1} L$$
$$x_1 \wedge \dots \wedge x_n \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+1} f(x_i) x_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \hat{x}_i \wedge \dots \wedge x_n$$

where  $\Lambda^n L$  is the *n*-th exterior power of L, and  $\hat{x}_i$  means omitting  $x_i$ .

Then we can define a chain complex called **Koszul complex**:

$$K_{\bullet}(f): \cdots \to \Lambda^n L \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}_f} \Lambda^{n-1} L \to \cdots \to \Lambda^2 L \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}_f} L \xrightarrow{f} R$$

Also,  $d_f$  can be considered as a graded R-homomorphism of degree -1:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{d}_f : \; \Lambda L \; &\to \; \quad \Lambda L \\ x \wedge y &\mapsto \mathrm{d}_f(x) \wedge y + (-1)^{\deg x} \cdot x \wedge \mathrm{d}_f(y) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Lambda L$  is the exterior algebra of L, and x, y are any homogeneous elements of  $\Lambda L$ .

**Def 38.** Let  $(C_{\bullet}, d), (C'_{\bullet}, d')$  be chain complexes of R-modules, define their tensor product to be a chain complex  $C_{\bullet} \otimes C'_{\bullet}$  with

$$(C_{\bullet} \otimes C'_{\bullet})_n = \bigoplus_{i=0}^n (C_i \otimes_R C'_{n-i})$$

with the boundary maps being

$$d \otimes d' : (C_{\bullet} \otimes C'_{\bullet})_{n} \to (C_{\bullet} \otimes C'_{\bullet})_{n-1}$$
$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} x_{i} \otimes y_{n-i} \mapsto \sum_{i=0}^{n} (d(x_{i}) \otimes y_{n-i} + (-1)^{i} \cdot x_{i} \otimes d'(y_{n-i}))$$

One can verify that

$$(d \otimes d') \circ (d \otimes d')(x \otimes y) = (d \otimes d')(d(x) \otimes y + (-1)^{\deg x} \cdot x \otimes d'(y))$$

$$= d \circ d(x) \otimes y + (-1)^{\deg x - 1} \cdot d(x) \otimes d'(y)$$

$$+ (-1)^{\deg x} \cdot d(x) \otimes d'(y) + x \otimes d' \circ d'(y)$$

$$= 0$$

**Prop 2.3.1.** Let  $L_1, L_2 \in \mathbf{Mod}_R, f_1 \in \mathrm{Hom}_R(L_1, R), f_2 \in \mathrm{Hom}_R(L_2, R)$ . Define

$$f = f_1 + f_2 : L_1 \oplus L_2 \to R$$
  
 $(x, y) \mapsto f_1(x) + f_2(y)$ 

then

$$K_{\bullet}(f_1) \otimes K_{\bullet}(f_2) \cong K_{\bullet}(f)$$

$$\bigoplus_{i=0}^{n} (\Lambda^i L_1 \otimes_R \Lambda^{n-i} L_2) \cong \Lambda^n(L_1 \oplus L_2)$$

with  $d_{f_1} \otimes d_{f_2} = d_f$ .

*Proof.* Exercise 16-1(2).

**Def 39.** Let  $L = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n Re_i$  be a free R-module, and  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  with  $x_i \in R$ , define

$$K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}) := K_{\bullet}(f), \text{ with } \begin{array}{c} f : L \to R \\ e_i \mapsto x_i. \end{array}$$

Coro 2.3.1.  $K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}) \cong K_{\bullet}(x_1) \otimes \cdots \otimes K_{\bullet}(x_n)$  with  $K_{\bullet}(x_i) : 0 \to R \xrightarrow{x_i} R$ .

**Prop 2.3.2.** Let  $x \in R$  and  $(C_{\bullet}, \partial)$  be a chain complex of R-modules, then there exist  $\rho, \pi$  s.t.

$$0 \to C_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\rho} C_{\bullet} \otimes K_{\bullet}(x) \xrightarrow{\pi} C_{\bullet}(-1) \to 0$$

is exact, where  $(C_{\bullet}(-1))_n = C_{n-1}$ .

*Proof.* Since  $K_{\bullet}(x): 0 \to R \xrightarrow{x} R$ , so

$$(C_{\bullet} \otimes K_{\bullet}(x))_n = (C_i \otimes_R R) \oplus (C_{i-1} \otimes_R R),$$

and the boundary map is

$$d: (C_i \otimes_R R) \oplus (C_{i-1} \otimes_R R) \to (C_{i-1} \otimes_R R) \oplus (C_{i-2} \otimes_R R) (z_1 \otimes r_1, z_2 \otimes r_2) \mapsto (\partial z_1 \otimes r_1 + (-1)^{i-1} z_2 \otimes xr_2, \partial z_2 \otimes r_2).$$

Under the isomorphism  $C_i \otimes_r R \cong C_i$ , the boundary map become

$$d: C_{i} \oplus C_{i-1} \to C_{i-1} \oplus C_{i-2}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} r_{1}z_{1} \\ r_{2}z_{2} \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \partial & (-1)^{i-1}x \\ 0 & \partial \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} r_{1}z_{1} \\ r_{2}z_{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Let

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \rho_i:C_i\to C_i\oplus C_{i-1} & \text{and} & \pi_i:C_i\oplus C_{i-1}\to C_{i-1}\\ z_1\mapsto & (z_1,0) & (z_1,z_2) \mapsto & z_2 \end{array}$$

then

$$0 \longrightarrow C_{i} \xrightarrow{\rho_{i}} C_{i} \oplus C_{i-1} \xrightarrow{\pi_{i}} C_{i-1} \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \partial \qquad \qquad \downarrow d \qquad \qquad \downarrow \partial$$

$$0 \longrightarrow C_{i-1} \xrightarrow{\rho_{i-1}} C_{i-1} \oplus C_{i-2} \xrightarrow{\pi_{i-1}} C_{i-2} \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes and exact:

- $d \circ \rho(z_1) = d(z_1, 0) = (\partial z_1, 0)$
- $\rho \circ \partial(z_1) = \rho(\partial z_1) = (\partial z_1, 0)$
- $\partial \circ \pi(z_1, z_2) = \partial(z_2) = \partial z_2$
- $\pi \circ d(z_1, z_2) = \pi(\partial z_1 + (-1)^{i-1}xz_2, \partial z_2) = \partial z_2$

Coro 2.3.2. This induces a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \to H_i(C_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\rho_*} H_i(C_{\bullet} \otimes K_{\bullet}(x)) \xrightarrow{\pi_*} H_i(C_{\bullet}(-1)) \xrightarrow{\pm x} H_{i-1}(C_{\bullet}) \to \cdots$$

*Proof.* We only need to show the connection homomorphism is indeed  $\pm x$ .

Given  $z \in C_{i-1}$  with  $\partial z = 0$ ,

$$z \xrightarrow{\pi^{-1}} (0, z) \xrightarrow{d} ((-1)^{i-1}xz, 0) \xrightarrow{\rho^{-1}} (-1)^{i-1}xz.$$

**Def 40.** We call x to be  $C_{\bullet}$ -regular, if x is not a zero divisor of  $C_i$  and  $C_i/xC_i \neq 0$ , for all  $i \geq 0$ .

**Prop 2.3.3.** If x is  $C_{\bullet}$ -regular, then  $H_i(C_{\bullet} \otimes K_{\bullet}(x)) \cong H_i(C_{\bullet}/xC_{\bullet})$  for all  $i \geq 0$ .

Proof. Let

$$\phi_i: C_i \oplus C_{i-1} \to C_i/xC_i$$

$$(z_1, z_2) \mapsto \overline{z_1}$$

then

$$C_{i} \oplus C_{i-1} \xrightarrow{\phi_{i}} C_{i}/xC_{i}$$

$$\downarrow^{d_{i}} \qquad \downarrow^{\overline{\partial}_{i}}$$

$$C_{i-1} \oplus C_{i-2} \xrightarrow{\phi_{i-1}} C_{i-1}/xC_{i-1}$$

commutes.

- $\overline{\partial} \circ \phi_i(z_1, z_2) = \overline{\partial}(z_1) = \overline{\partial}z_1$ .
- $\phi_{i-1} \circ d(z_1, z_2) = \phi_{i-1}(\partial z_1 + (-1)^{i-1}xz_2, \partial z_2) = \overline{\partial z_1}$ , since  $xz_2 \in xC_{i-1}$ .

Now we need to show the induced maps

$$\phi_{*i} : \ker \underline{\mathbf{d}_i / \operatorname{im} \mathbf{d}_{i+1}} \to \ker \overline{\partial}_i / \operatorname{im} \overline{\partial}_{i+1}$$
$$(z_1, z_2) \mapsto \overline{\overline{z_1}} = \overline{z_1} + \operatorname{im} \overline{\partial}_{i+1}$$

are isomorphisms.

• Onto:

For  $\overline{z} \in \ker \overline{\partial}_i$  with  $\partial z = xz' \in xC_{i-1}$ ,  $z' \in C_{i-1}$ . Then  $\phi_i(z, (-1)^i z') = \overline{z}$ , and  $d(z, (-1)^i z') = (\partial z - xz', (-1)^i \partial z') = (0, 0)$ , so  $(z, (-1)^i z') \in \ker d_i$ . (Since  $x\partial z' = \partial(xz') = \partial^2 z = 0$ , and x is not a zero divisor of  $C_i$ , so  $\partial z' = 0$ .)

Now, 
$$\phi_{*i}\left(\overline{(z,(-1)^iz')}\right) = \overline{\overline{z}}$$
, so  $\phi_{*i}$  is onto.

• 1-1

Let  $(z, z') \in \ker d_i$  with  $\phi_i(z, z') = \overline{z} \in \operatorname{im} \overline{\partial}_{i+1}$ , i.e.  $\overline{z} = \partial \overline{z''}$  with  $z'' \in C_{i+1}$ . This means  $z - \partial z'' = xz'''$  with  $z''' \in C_i$ , so  $\partial (z - \partial z'') = \partial z = x \partial z'''$ .

On the other hand,  $d(z,z')=(\partial z+(-1)^{i-1}xz',\partial z')=(0,0),$  so  $\partial z=(-1)^ixz',\partial z'=0.$ 

So  $d(z'', (-1)^i z''') = (\partial z'' + (-1)^{2i} x z'''), (-1)^i \partial z''') = (z, z')$ , i.e.  $(z, z') \in \text{im } d_{i+1}$ .  $(\partial z = x \partial z''' = (-1)^i x z'$ , since x is not a zero divisor, so  $\partial z''' = (-1)^i z'$ .)

Hence, 
$$\phi_{*i}\left(\overline{(z_1,z_2)}\right) = \overline{0}$$
 implies  $\overline{(z_1,z_2)} = \overline{0}$ , so  $\phi_{*i}$  is 1-1.

**Def 41.** Let  $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ . A sequence  $\{a_1, \dots, a_m\}, m \geq 0$  is said to be M-regular if

- $M/\langle a_1, \cdots, a_m \rangle M \neq 0$ .
- $a_{i+1}$  is not a zero divisor of  $M/\langle a_1, \cdots, a_i \rangle M$  for  $0 \le i \le m-1$ .

**Theorem 32.** If  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is an R-regular sequence, then  $K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}) \to R/\langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle \to 0$  is a free resolution of  $R/\langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle$ .

*Proof.* Since its modules are  $K_i(\mathbf{x}) = \Lambda^i R^n \cong R^{\binom{n}{i}}$ , i.e. free *R*-modules, so we only need to show the exactness.

By induction on n,

• n = 1:  $K_{\bullet}(x_1) : 0 \to R \xrightarrow{x_1} R \to R/\langle x_1 \rangle \to 0$  exact.

• n > 1: Assume that  $\mathbf{x}' = (x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$  and  $K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}') \to R/\langle x_1, \dots, x_{n-1} \rangle \to 0$  exact, i.e.  $H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')) = 0$  for i > 0.

Since we have  $K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}) \cong K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}') \otimes K_{\bullet}(x_n)$  and a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \to H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')) \to H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})) \to H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')(-1)) \xrightarrow{\pm x_n} H_{i-1}(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')) \to \cdots$$

where  $H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')(-1)) = H_{i-1}(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')).$ 

For i > 1, the sequence becomes

$$\cdots \to 0 \to H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})) \to 0 \xrightarrow{\pm x_n} \cdots$$

so  $H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})) = 0$ .

For i = 1, we have  $H_0(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')) \cong R/\langle x_1, \cdots, x_{n-1} \rangle$ , so

$$0 \to H_1(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})) \to R/\langle x_1, \cdots, x_{n-1} \rangle \xrightarrow{\pm x_n} R/\langle x_1, \cdots, x_{n-1} \rangle$$

But  $x_n$  is not a zero divisor of  $R/\langle x_1, \dots, x_{n-1} \rangle$ , so the map  $\pm x_n$  is 1-1, then  $H_1(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})) \cong \ker(\pm x_n) = 0$ .

**Eg 2.3.1.** Let  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)$ , then

$$K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}): 0 \to R \xrightarrow{\alpha} R^2 \xrightarrow{\beta} R \xrightarrow{q} R/\langle x_1, x_2 \rangle \to 0$$

with  $\alpha: r \mapsto (-x_2r, x_1r)$  and  $\beta: (r_1, r_2) \mapsto x_1r_1 + x_2r_2$ .

**Coro 2.3.3.** Let  $I = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle \subset R$  be an ideal with  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  be R-regular, then R/I has projective dimension pd(R/I) = n, i.e. the shortest projective resolution of R/I has length n.

*Proof.*  $K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})$  is already a projective resolution of length N, so we only need to show that there's no shorter ones.

The left side of  $K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})$  reads

$$0 \to \Lambda^n R^n \xrightarrow{d_n} \Lambda^{n-1} R^n \to \cdots$$

But

$$\Lambda^n R^n = R(e_1 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n) \cong R, \quad \Lambda^{n-1} R^n = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n R(e_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \hat{e_i} \wedge \dots \wedge e^n) \cong R^n$$

so

$$d_n: R \to R^n$$
  
$$r \mapsto (x_1 r, -x_2 r, \cdots, (-1)^{n-1} x_n r)$$

Taking tensor with R/I, we get

$$0 \to R \otimes_R R/I \xrightarrow{d_n \otimes 1} R^n \otimes_R R/I \to \cdots$$

but  $R \otimes_R R/I \cong R/I, R^n \otimes_R R/I \cong (R/I)^n$ , so

$$d_n \otimes \mathbf{1}: R/I \to \underbrace{(R/I)^n}_{\overline{r}} \mapsto (\overline{x_1 r}, \overline{-x_2 r}, \cdots, \overline{(-1)^{n-1} x_n r})$$

Now,

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n(R/I,R/I) = H_n(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}) \otimes R/I) = \ker(d_n \otimes \mathbf{1}) = \operatorname{Ann}_{R/I} I = \{\overline{r} \in R/I \mid rI = I\} = R/I \neq 0.$$

 $(R/I \neq 0 \text{ is because } \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \text{ is } R\text{-regular.})$  Thus, any projective resolution can't have length shorter than n since that will imply  $\operatorname{Tor}_n(R/I, R/I) = 0$ .

**Remark 4.** Let  $I = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle$  generated by R-regular sequence  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ , then

- $\operatorname{Tor}_n(R/I, M) \cong \operatorname{Ann}_M I$ .
- $\operatorname{Ext}^n(R/I, M) \cong M/IM$ .

# 2.4 Derived category

#### Def 42.

•  $\mathcal{C}$  is a pre-additive category if  $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X,Y)$  is an abelian group  $\forall X,Y \in \mathcal{C}$  s.t.

$$X \xrightarrow{u} Y \xrightarrow{f} Z \xrightarrow{v} T$$

with (f+g)u = fu + gu and v(f+g) = vf + vg.

- addivitve category: a pre-additive category  $\mathcal C$  s.t.
  - There exists a zero object 0 s.t.  $\forall X$ ,  $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(0,X) = \{0\} = \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X,0)$ .
  - Finite sum and finite products exist.

## Def 43.

- $f \in \text{Hom}(B,C)$  is called a monomorphism if  $\forall X \xrightarrow{g} B \xrightarrow{f} C$  with  $f \circ g = 0 \implies g = 0$ .
- $f \in \text{Hom}(B,C)$  is called a epimorphism if  $\forall B \xrightarrow{f} C \xrightarrow{h} D$  with  $h \circ f = 0 \implies h = 0$ .
- a kernel of  $f \in \text{Hom}(B,C)$  is a morphism  $i:A \to B$  s.t.  $f \circ i = 0$  and  $\forall g:X \to B$  with  $f \circ g = 0$ , we have

$$A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{f} C$$

$$\exists ! \qquad X$$

• a cokernel of  $f \in \text{Hom}(B,C)$  is a morphism  $p:C \to D$  s.t.  $p \circ f = 0$  and  $\forall h:C \to Y$  with  $h \circ f = 0$ , we have

$$B \xrightarrow{f} C \xrightarrow{p} D$$

$$\downarrow h$$

$$Y$$

$$Y$$

# Remark 5.

- If i is a kernel of f, then i is a monomorphism.
- If p is a cokernel of f, then p is a epimorphism.

**Remark 6.** An epimorphism may not be a cokernel. Consider  $\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\times 3} \mathbb{Z}$  which is an epimorphism in the category of f.g. free  $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules. If  $\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\times 3} \mathbb{Z}$  is the cokernel of  $G \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{Z}$ , then

$$G \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\times 3} \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \mathbb{Z}$$

This implies  $\tilde{f}: 1 \mapsto \frac{2}{3}$ , which is impossible.

**Def 44.**  $\mathcal{A}$  is an abelian category if it is an additive category s.t.

- kernels and cokernels always exist in A.
- every monomorphism is a kernel and every epimorphism is a cokernel.

## **Fact 2.4.1.** If A is an abelian category, then:

• every morphism is expressible as the composite of an epimorphism and a monomorphism. Given  $f: B \to C$ , we have

$$B \xrightarrow{f} C$$

$$\text{Im } f$$

where  $\operatorname{Im} f$  is unique up to isomorphism.

*Proof.* Consider the following diagram:

$$\ker f \stackrel{i}{\longleftarrow} B \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} C \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} \operatorname{coker} f$$

$$\downarrow p' \qquad \downarrow i'$$

$$\operatorname{coker} i \stackrel{-}{=} \stackrel{1}{=} \stackrel{1}{i\sigma} \stackrel{}{\triangleright} \ker p$$

where  $\mu, \nu$  exist because i', p' are kernel and cokernel. Now,  $i'\mu i = fi = 0$ , and since i' is a monomorphism,  $\mu i = 0$ . Moreover, since p' is the cokernel of i, there exists a unique  $\sigma$  letting the diagram commute.

By exercise,  $\sigma$  is both a monomorphism and epimorphism. In an abelian category, this implies that  $\sigma$  is actually an isomorphism (i.e.,  $\sigma^{-1}$  exists).

•  $0 \to A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \to 0$  is exact if f is monomorphism, g is epimorphism and  $\operatorname{Im} f = \ker g$ .

**Theorem 33** (Freyd-Mitchell theorem). A small abelian category is equivalent to a full subcategory of a category of R-modules.

#### Def 45.

- $I \in \text{Obj } A$  is injective if the functor Hom(-, I) is exact.
- An abelian category is said to be **enough injectives** if for any  $A \in \text{Obj } A$ , there exists an injective object I such that  $A \hookrightarrow I$ .

#### **Def 46.** Given a functor $F: A \to B$ satisfy:

- 1. F is additive, which is to say F is a group homomorphism  $\operatorname{Hom}(A, A') \to \operatorname{Hom}(FA, FA')$ .
- 2. F is left exact. If  $0 \to A' \to A \to A'' \to 0$ , then  $0 \to FA' \to FA \to FA''$ .

Then the derived functor  $R^iF: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}$  is defined as

$$R^{i}F(A) = \begin{cases} F(A), & \text{if } i = 0\\ H^{i}(F(I^{\bullet})), & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

Our goal is to construct the derived category  $D^+(A)$  and  $D^+(B)$  letting RF be a exact functor.

#### **Def 47.** Let A be an abelian category.

• Kom(A) is the category of complexes over A.

• K(A) is the homotopy category of A, defined by Obj(K(A)) = Obj(Kom(A)) and

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{K(\mathcal{A})}(A^{\bullet}, B^{\bullet}) = \operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Kom}(\mathcal{A})}(A^{\bullet}, B^{\bullet}) / \sim,$$

where  $\sim$  indicates homotopy equivalences.

#### Remark 7.

- $\operatorname{Hom}_{K(A)}(I_A^{\bullet}, I_B^{\bullet}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(A, B)$  by comparison theorem (26).
- It could be shown that K(A) is additive but may not be abelian.

**Def 48.**  $f \in \text{Hom}_{K(\mathcal{A})}(A^{\bullet}, B^{\bullet})$  is called a quasi-isomorphism if  $H^n(f)$  is an isomorphism between  $H^n(A^{\bullet})$  and  $H^n(B^{\bullet})$  for each n.

**Eg 2.4.1.** • A quasi-isomorphism is often not invertible. For example:

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\times 2} \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \cdots$$

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

$$0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \cdots$$

• Given  $0 \to A \to I^{\bullet}$ ,

$$0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \cdots$$

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

$$0 \longrightarrow I^0 \longrightarrow I^1 \longrightarrow I^2 \longrightarrow \cdots$$

are two quasi-isomorphic complexes.

**Def 49.** Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a category. A class of morphism  $S \subset \text{Mor}(\mathcal{B})$  is said to be **localizing** if

- 1. S is closed under composition with  $Id_X \in S$  for each object X in  $\mathcal{B}$ .
- 2. Extension condition holds: For each  $f \in \text{Mor } \mathcal{B}$ ,  $s \in S$  as in the following diagram, exists  $g \in \text{Mor } \mathcal{B}$ ,  $t \in S$  such that ft = sg. The dual version should hold as well.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
A & \xrightarrow{g} & B \\
\downarrow^t & & \downarrow^s \\
C & \xrightarrow{f} & D
\end{array}$$

3. For any  $f, g \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$ ,

$$\exists s \in S \text{ s.t. } sf = sg \iff \exists t \in S \text{ s.t. } ft = gt.$$

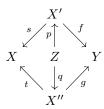
**Theorem 34.** If S is localizing, then there exists a category  $\mathcal{B}[S^{-1}]$  with a functor  $Q: \mathcal{B} \to \mathcal{B}[S^{-1}]$  such that

- 1. Q(s) is an isomorphism for each  $s \in S$ .
- 2. Given another functor  $F: \mathcal{B} \to \mathcal{B}'$  satisfy condition 1, there exists a unique functor  $G: \mathcal{B}[S^{-1}] \to \mathcal{B}'$  such that  $F = G \circ Q$ .

*Proof.* Define a roof to be a pair (s,t) with

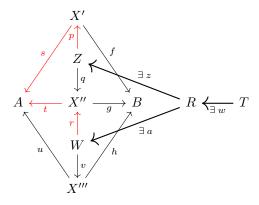
$$X \qquad Y \qquad X \qquad Y$$

Also, define  $(s, f) \sim (t, g)$  if there exists Z such that



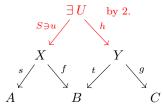
with  $sp = tq \in S$  and fp = gq.

First we check that " $\sim$ " is indeed an equivalence relation.  $(s, f) \sim (s, f)$  and  $(s, f) \sim (t, g) \implies (t, g) \sim (s, f)$  are trivial. If  $(s, f) \sim (t, g)$  and  $(t, g) \sim (u, h)$ , then we have the following diagram:



Using definition 2. on  $tr \in S$  and sp, there are morphism z,a with  $z \in S$  and spz = tra. Moreover, tqz = spz = tra, if we let b = qz, c = ra, then by 3., morphism  $w \in S$  exists with bw = cw. Define x = pzw, y = vaw, we have sx = spzw = tqzw = tbw = tcw = traw = uvaw = uy and  $sx \in S$  since sx = spzw and sp, z, w are all in S. Similarly, fx = hy, thus  $(s, f) \sim (u, h)$ . Hence we've just proved that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

Now we could construct the localized category as following: The objects are  $\mathrm{Obj}(\mathcal{B}[S^{-1}]) = \mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathrm{Mor}(\mathcal{B}[S^{-1}]) = \{$  equivalence classes under  $\sim \}$ .  $[(t,g)] \circ [(s,f)] = [(su,gh)]$  could be defined as in the following diagram:



Finally, define functor Q by Q(X) = X,  $\forall X \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{B})$  and  $Q(f) = [(\text{Id}_X, f)]$ . For the universal property, if F is another functor making every morphism in S be invertible, then the functor G exists uniquely by  $G([(s, f)]) = F(f)F(s)^{-1}$ . By induction hypothesis, we can say m - 1 = n - 1. Done.

**Def 50.** The mapping cone of a chain map f between two chain  $X^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f} Y^{\bullet}$  is defined as a chain with cone $(f)^n = X^{n+1} \oplus Y^n$ , and the chain map is defined as

$$d_{\operatorname{cone}(f)} : \operatorname{cone}(f)^n = X^{n+1} \oplus Y^n \longrightarrow \operatorname{cone}(f)^{n+1} = X^{n+2} \oplus Y^{n+1}$$

$$(x_{n+1}, y_n) \xrightarrow{\begin{pmatrix} -d_X & 0 \\ f & d_Y \end{pmatrix}} \begin{pmatrix} -d_X(x^{n+1}), f(x^{n+1}) + d_Y(y_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

It is easy to see that  $d_{\text{cone}(f)}^2 = 0$ .

**Prop 2.4.1.** Suppose that  $f: X^{\bullet} \to Y^{\bullet}$  is a chain map, then there is a short exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow Y \longrightarrow \operatorname{cone}(f) \longrightarrow X[+1] \longrightarrow 0$$
$$y \longmapsto (0, y)$$
$$(x, y) \longmapsto x$$

*Proof.* It is easy to see that the rows are exact. Tracing the diagram shows that the diagram commutes.  $\Box$ 

Coro 2.4.1. There exists a long exact sequence of homology:

$$\cdots \to H^m(Y^{\bullet}) \to H^m(\operatorname{cone}(f)) \to H^{m+1}(X^{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\delta} H^{m+1}(Y^{\bullet}) \to H^{m+1}(\operatorname{cone}(f)) \to \cdots$$

Where the connecting homomorphism  $\delta = f^*$ .

*Proof.* Tracing the diagram below as in the snake lemma,

$$X^m \oplus Y^{m-1} \longrightarrow X^m \\ \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \\ Y^m \longrightarrow X^{m+1} \oplus Y^m \longrightarrow X^{m+1}$$

Suppose  $\bar{x} \in H^m(X^{\bullet})$ , then  $d_X(x) = 0$ , so  $d(x, 0) = (-d_X(x), f(x)) = (0, f(x))$ , which implies  $f(x) :: Y^m \mapsto d(x, 0) :: X^{m+1} \oplus Y^m$ , then  $\delta(\bar{x}) = \overline{f(x)}$ , so  $\delta = f^*$ .

Coro 2.4.2. cone(f) acyclic (exact)  $\iff$  f quasi-isomorphic.

*Proof.* Directly by the exact sequence

$$H^{m-1}(\operatorname{cone}(f)) \to H^m(X^\bullet) \to H^m(Y^\bullet) \to H^m(\operatorname{cone}(f))$$

Notice that X[-k] is defined as  $X[-k]^n = X^{n-k}$  with  $d_{X[-k]} = (-1)^k d_X$  below.

**Theorem 35.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an abelian category and  $K(\mathcal{A})$  be the homotopy category. Then the class of quasi-isomorphisms are localizing.

*Proof.* We check that:

1. It is closed under composition: If f, g are quasi-isomorphic, then  $(fg)^* = f^*g^*$  is a isomorphism since both  $f^*, g^*$  are, thus fg is quasi-isomorphic.

2. The diagram could be completed:

$$\exists W^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{----} Z^{\bullet}$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow g: \text{q-iso}$$

$$X^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f} Y^{\bullet}$$

Consider the following diagram:

Where cone $(\pi f)^n \cong X^{n+1} \oplus \text{cone}(g)^n \cong X^{n+1}Z^{n+1}Y^n$ 

We claim that  $fk \simeq gh[-1]$ . Since  $(fk - gh[-1])(x_n, z_n, y_{n-1}) = f(x_n) + g(z_n)$ . Define

$$\varphi : \operatorname{cone}(\pi f)[-1]^n = \operatorname{cone}(\pi f)^{n-1} \longrightarrow Y^{n-1}$$
$$(x_n, z_n, y_{n-1}) \longmapsto -y_{n-1}$$

Then

$$\begin{split} \varphi d_{C(\pi f)[-1]}(x_n,(z_n,y_{n-1})) &= \varphi(d(x_n),-\pi f(x_n)-d(z_n,y_{n-1})) \\ &= \varphi(d(x_n),-(0,f(x_n))-(d(z_n),g(z_n)+d(y_{n-1}))) \\ &= \varphi(d(x_n),-d(z_n),-f(x_n)-g(z_n)-d(y_{n-1})) \\ &= f(x_n)+g(z_n)+d(y_{n-1}) \end{split}$$

and  $d_Y \varphi(x_n, z_n, y_{n-1}) = -d(y_{n-1})$ , so  $\varphi d_{C(\pi f)[-1]} + d_Y \varphi = fk - gh[-1]$ , thus  $fk \simeq gh[-1]$ .

3. Let  $f: X^{\bullet} \to Y^{\bullet}$  in  $K(\mathcal{A})$ . We shall prove that

$$\exists\, s: Y^\bullet \to Z^\bullet \text{ s.t. } sf=0 \iff \exists\, t: W^\bullet \to X^\bullet \text{ s.t. } ft=0$$

Let  $h^i: X^i \to Z^{i-1}$  be a homotopy bewteen sf and 0. Consider the diagram:

$$\operatorname{cone}(s)[-1] \xleftarrow{g} X^{\bullet} \to \operatorname{E}^{\bullet} \quad \operatorname{be a homotopy bewteen } sf \text{ and } 0. \text{ Consider the diagram:}$$

$$\operatorname{cone}(s)[-1] \xleftarrow{g} X^{\bullet} \xleftarrow{t} \operatorname{cone}(g)[-1] = W^{\bullet}$$

$$\downarrow f$$

$$\operatorname{cone}(s)[-1] \xrightarrow{p[-1]} Y^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{s} Z^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\pi} \operatorname{cone}(s)$$

One can easily check that g is a chain map, which congruent with the boundary map (because of  $h^i$ ). Now, we have ft = p[-1]gt, but  $gt \simeq 0$  by

$$k_n:$$
  $W^n = X^n \oplus Y^{n-1} \oplus Z^{n-2} \longrightarrow C(s)[-1]^{n-1} = Y^{n-1} \oplus Z^{n-2}$   $(x_n, y_{n-1}, z_{n-2}) \longmapsto (y_{n-1}, z_{n-2})$ 

since

$$kd(x_n, y_{n-1}, z_{n-2}) = k(-(dx_n, g(x_n) + d(y_{n-1}, z_{n-2})))$$

$$= k(-dx_n, -(f(x_n), -h(x_n)) + (-dy_{n-1}, g(y_{n-1}) + dz_{n-2}))$$

$$= (-f(x_n) - dy_{n-1}, h(x_n) + g(y_{n-1}) + dz_{n-2})$$

and 
$$dk(x_n, y_{n-1}, z_{n-2}) = d(y_{n-1}, z_{n-2}) = (dy_{n-1}, -g(y_{n-1}) - dz_{n-2})$$
. Thus  $dk + kd = -gt \implies gt \simeq 0$ .

Now, since s is quasi-isomorphic, by corollary 2.4.2, cone(s) is acyclic, and thus t is quasi-isomorphic. Hence we've find t so that  $ft \simeq 0$ .

We could then define the derived category as  $D(A) = K(A)[S^{-1}]$  now.

#### **Prop 2.4.2.** The derived category is additive.

*Proof.* Let  $\varphi, \varphi': X \to Y$  in D(A) with  $\varphi = [(s, f)], \varphi' = [(s', f')]$ , that is, we have the following two diagram



using 2. in the definition of localizing, exists U so that

$$\exists U \xrightarrow{r'} Z'$$

$$\downarrow^r \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{s'}$$

$$Z \xrightarrow{s} X$$

with one of r, r' is guaranteed to be quasi-isomorphic, say r. But then  $H^n(U) \cong H^n(Z) \cong H^n(X) \cong H^n(Z')$  since r, s, s' are all quasi-isomorphic. This implies r' is also quasi-isomorphic, so we'll have the new roof for  $\varphi$ 



Similarly, this applies to  $\varphi'$ . Since rs = r's', we could define  $\varphi + \varphi' = [(rs, g + g')]$ .

**Def 51.** Let A, B be abelian categories,  $F : A \to B$  be an additive functor.

- Define  $D^+(\mathcal{A})$  as a subcategory of  $D(\mathcal{A})$  consist of all the objects (chains)  $X^{\bullet}$  in  $D(\mathcal{A})$  such that  $X^i = 0$  for all  $i \leq i_0(X^{\bullet})$ .  $K^+(\mathcal{A})$  is defined similarly.
- Assume that F act on complexes component wise.  $K^+(F): K^+(A) \to K^+(B)$ .
- A triangle in  $K^+(\mathcal{A})$  is a diagram of the form  $\Delta: X^{\bullet} \to Y^{\bullet} \to Z^{\bullet} \to X^{\bullet}[1]$
- $\triangle$  is said to be distinguished if

In this case, we denote it as  $\triangle$ .

Recall that  $\bar{Y}^{\bullet} \to \text{cone}(\bar{f}) \to \bar{X}^{\bullet}$  induces a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \to H^i(\bar{Y}) \to H^i(\operatorname{cone}(\bar{f})) \to H^i(\bar{X}[1]) \to H^{i+1}(\bar{Y}) \to \cdots$$

**Prop 2.4.3.** Let  $F: A \to B$  be an exact functor, then

1. The exact functor  $D^+(F): D^+(A) \to D^+(B)$  exists.

2.  $D^+(F)$  preserves distinguished triangle, (i.e.,  $\triangle \mapsto \triangle$ .)

*Proof.* First, we have the following observation:

• F sends acyclic chain to acyclic chain: If  $X^{\bullet}$  acyclic, then  $X^{\bullet}$  could be decomposed to many short exact sequence:

$$0 \to \ker d_X^i \to X^i \to \ker d_X^{i+1} \to 0$$

Apply F we would then get

$$0 \to F(\ker d_X^i) \to F(X^i) \to \ker d_X^{i+1} \to 0$$

which we could connect them and get the desired exact sequence

$$\cdots \to F(X^{i-1}) \to F(X^i) \to F(X^{i+1}) \to \cdots$$

• If  $f: X^{\bullet} \to Y^{\bullet}$ , then  $F(f): F(X)^{\bullet} \to F(Y)^{\bullet}$ , and we have  $F(\operatorname{cone}(f)) \cong \operatorname{cone}(F(f))$ , since  $F(\operatorname{cone}(f))^n = F(X^{n+1} \oplus Y^n) \cong F(X^{n+1}) \oplus F(Y^n) = \operatorname{cone}(F(f))^n$  because F is additive. Moreover, the boundary map  $d_{\operatorname{cone}(F(f))}$  is

$$\begin{pmatrix} -F(d_X) & 0 \\ F(f) & F(d_Y) \end{pmatrix} = F \begin{pmatrix} d_X & 0 \\ f & d_Y \end{pmatrix} = d_{F(\text{cone}(f))}$$

Since F transform the object and morphisms consistently, thus  $F(\operatorname{cone}(f)) \cong \operatorname{cone}(F(f))$ . Similarly we have  $F(\operatorname{cyl}(f)) \cong \operatorname{cyl}(F(f))$ .

Now, return to our proof:

1. If f quasi-isomorphic, then cone(f) acyclic by corollary 2.4.2, and  $F(cone(f)) \cong cone(F(f))$  acyclic by the discussion above, and finally F(f) acyclic by the same corollary. Thus F preserves quasi-isomorphisms.

Moreover, we could complete the following diagram

$$K^{+}(\mathcal{A}) \xrightarrow{K^{+}(F)} K^{+}(\mathcal{B})$$

$$\downarrow^{Q_{A}} \qquad \downarrow^{Q_{B}}$$

$$K^{+}(\mathcal{A})[S_{A}^{-1}] \xrightarrow{\exists !D^{+}(F)} K^{+}(\mathcal{B})[S_{B}^{-1}]$$

since F send quasi-isomorphisms to quasi-isomorphism and by the universal property of the localized category. Thus  $D^+(f)$  exists.

2. Apply  $D^+(F)$  to the diagram

We get

Where the quasi-isomorphisms are preserved by the discussion above.

**Def 52.** A class R of objects in Obj  $\mathcal{A}$  is said to be adapted to a left exact functor F if

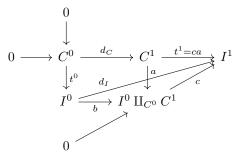
- 1. It is stable under finite direct sums
- 2. F sends acyclic chain in  $\text{Kom}^+(R)$  to acyclic chain (in  $\text{Kom}^+(\mathcal{B})$ ).
- 3. For each  $X \in \text{Obj } \mathcal{A}$ , exists  $I \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 \to X \to I$ .

**Theorem 36.** Let F be a left exact functor, R be a class of objects adpated to F. Define  $S_R$  to be the class of quasi-isomorphisms on  $K^+(R)$  which is localizing since it is stable with the construction of mapping cones. Then  $D^+(A) \cong K^+(R)[S_R^{-1}]$ .

*Proof.* First we claim that for all  $C^{\bullet} \in D^{+}(A)$  (which we assume  $C^{i} = 0, \forall i < 0$ ), There exists  $I^{\bullet} \in K^{+}(R)$  such that  $C^{\bullet} \cong I^{\bullet}$ .

We shall construct quasi-isomorphism  $t^n: C^n \to I^n$ . Using induction on n:

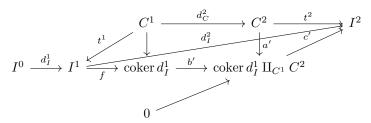
n=0: By the definition of adapting class we have  $0 \to C^0 \xrightarrow{t^0} I^0$  for some  $I^0$ . Consider the following diagram:



Where  $I^0 \coprod_{C^0} C^1 \triangleq (I^0 \oplus C^1) / \{(t^0(x), -d_C(x)) \mid x \in C^0\}.$ 

We shall prove that  $t^0$  is an isomorphism between  $H^0(C^{\bullet}) = \ker d_C^1$  and  $H^0(I^{\bullet}) = \ker d_I^1$ . It is obviously 1-1 since  $0 \to C^0 \xrightarrow{t^0} I^0$ , so we need to check it is onto. For any  $y \in \ker d_I^1 = \ker b$  since c is monomorphism. Then  $b(y) = 0 \implies (y,0) = (t^0(x), -d_C^1(x))$  for some  $x \in C^0$ . So  $y = t^0(x)$  with  $d_C^1(x) = 0 \implies x \in \ker d_C^1$ .

n=1: Consider the diagram now:



Similarly, we shall prove that

$$H^1(t): \xrightarrow{\ker d_C^2} \xrightarrow{\sim} \xrightarrow{\ker d_I^2} \xrightarrow{\Gamma}$$

is an isomorphism.

- 1-1: Let  $t^1(x) \in \operatorname{Im} d_I^1$ . Since  $t^1 = ca$  and  $d_I^1 = cb$ , there is y such that ca(x) = cb(y). Since c 1-1,  $a(x) = b(y) \implies (0,x) = (y,0)$ . in the pushout, so  $(y,-x) = (t^0(z), -d_C^1(z))$  for some  $z \in C^0$ . Thus  $x = d_c^1(z) \in \operatorname{Im} d_C^1$ .
- onto: For each  $y \in \ker d^2_I = \ker b'p$  since c' 1-1. Then

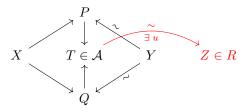
$$b'p(y) = 0 \implies (y + \operatorname{Im} d_I^1, 0) = (t'(x) + \operatorname{Im} d_I^1, -d_C^2(x))$$
 for some  $x \in C^1$ 

in the pushout, so we have  $y - t'(x) \in \operatorname{Im} d_I^1$  and  $x \in \ker d_C^2$  and thus  $H^1(t)(\bar{x}) = \bar{y}$ .

n > 1: Similar as n = 1.

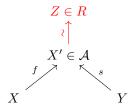
After proving this claim, we shall show that  $\operatorname{Hom}_{K^+(R)[S_R^{-1}]}(X^{\bullet},Y^{\bullet}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{K^+(A)[S_A^{-1}]}(X^{\bullet},Y^{\bullet})$ . We will use left roofs instead of right roofs defined before here.

• 1-1: If  $(f, s) \cong (g, t)$  in  $K^+(A)[S_A^{-1}]$ , then



where u exists by the previous claim.

• onto: Given a roof in A



We could find a roof in R which is equivalent to it again by the previous claim.

Finally, if  $F: A \to \mathcal{B}$  is an additive left exact functor, then we will have  $K^+(F): K^+(A) \to K^+(\mathcal{B})$  which sends acyclic chain in  $K^+(R)$  to acyclic chain in  $K^+(\mathcal{B})$ . This implies that  $K^+(F)$  sends quasi-isomorphism in  $K^+(R)$  to quasi-isomorphism in  $K^+(\mathcal{B})$ . So we have the following diagram:

$$K^{+}(R) \xrightarrow{K^{+}(F)} K^{+}(\mathcal{B})$$

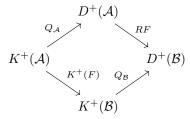
$$\downarrow_{Q_{R}} \qquad \downarrow_{Q_{\mathcal{B}}}$$

$$I^{\bullet} \in K^{+}(R)[S_{R}^{-1}] \xrightarrow{\exists ! F} D^{+}(\mathcal{B})$$

$$\downarrow_{Q_{R}} D^{+}(\mathcal{A})$$

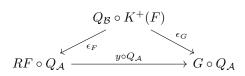
Where  $\bar{F}$  exists by the universal property of localization. Then the derived functor RF could be defined with  $R^iF(C^{\bullet}) = H^i(RF(C^{\bullet}))$ .

The universal property of RF is as following:  $RF: D^+(A) \to D^+(B)$  is exact and the diagram commutes:



with  $\epsilon_F: Q_{\mathcal{B}} \circ K^+(F) \to RF \circ Q_{\mathcal{A}}$  being a morphism of functors (???). Moreover, if  $G: D^+(\mathcal{A}) \to D^+(\mathcal{B})$  is another exact functor with  $\epsilon_G: Q_{\mathcal{B}} \circ K^+(F) \to G \circ Q_{\mathcal{A}}$ , then

there is an unique  $y:RF\to G$  such that



Now, one may ask that whether  $RG \circ RF \cong R(G \circ F)$ , the answer is no in generally, but there are spectral sequences so that ... Which is another story then...

# Index

		Module		
ldeal		flat module	e	18
irreducible		5		
			N	
	M	nilradical		5