Algebra

June 16, 2017

1 Commutative Algebra

1.1 ED, PID and UFD (week 9)

We shall consider R to be a 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 $f(x) \in Z[x]$ with f monic and $f(\alpha) = 0$, then we could write f(x) = q(x)g(x) + (ax + b). Since α 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, $g(x) \in Z[x]$, 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 add 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.

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

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

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

• 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 $|kq/p| = g_k$, and

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

So

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

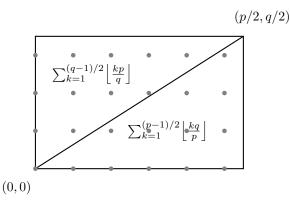
As in the previous proof, $\sum k = \sum |t_k|$, so $n \equiv \sum \lfloor qk/p \rfloor \pmod 2$, which proves the statement.

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

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. • α 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 α 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 α 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} :

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

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

• In A_{-3} : Let $\alpha = a + b\omega$, then $p = \alpha \bar{\alpha} \iff a^2 + b^2 - ab \iff 4p = (2a - b)^2 + 3b^2$ $(p = \alpha \beta \pm m)$? So if p is not a prime in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$, then $p \equiv x^2 \pmod{3}$, thus $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.

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

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

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 $p \mid 2$ (摸出來??????), which leads to an 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. $\sqrt{\langle 0 \rangle} = \bigcap_{P \in \text{Spec } R} P$, where 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 S is a prime ideal.

For each $x, y \notin Q$, we have $Q + Rx \supsetneq Q$ and $Q + Ry \supsetneq Q$. 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.

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

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 an 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.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} y \in (q:x) \\ x \notin p \end{array} \right. \implies \left\{ \begin{array}{l} xy \in (q:x) \\ x^n \notin q, \ \forall \ n \in \mathbb{N} \end{array} \right. \implies y \in q$$

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 $y^n \in q_k$. Since $\sqrt{q} = q_k$, $(y^n)^{m'} = y^m \in p \subset q$, thus q is p-primary. \square

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 ideal, 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 $q_i \subseteq \bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j$, 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. "\(\to\$": 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 $x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n \in \cap J_i \in p$ 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,
$$q_i \not\subseteq \bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j$$
 for each i , thus we could pick $x \in \bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j \setminus q_i$, then $\sqrt{(I:x)} = \bigcap_j \sqrt{(q_j:x)} = \sqrt{(q_i:x)} = p_i$.

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

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

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 a module finite and T/R is a ring finite, then S/R is a ring finite.

Proof. Let $T = R[a_1, \ldots, a_n] = S\omega_1 + \cdots + S\omega_m$. Then $a_i = \sum_j r_{i,k}\omega_k$ for some $r_{i,k}$ and $\omega_{i,j} = \sum_j t_{i,j,k}w_k$ for some $t_{i,j,k}$.

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

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 a module finite. By lemma $1, k(z_1, \ldots, z_t)$ is ring finite, which contradict 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 $\ref{eq:constraints}$, 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, 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 $\alpha \in \mathcal{V}(M) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(I)$.

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

Proof. "\to": $f \in \sqrt{I} \implies f^n \in I$, 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^{ρ} 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(f₁) \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 α . 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 α (other terms have multidegree less than α). 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 α 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 a expression with multidegree less than α , 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. .

- $\langle LT(G_i) \rangle \subsetneq \langle LT(G_{i+1}) \rangle$ if $G_i \neq G_{i+1}$ $G_i \neq G_{i+1} \implies \exists f, g \in G_i \text{ s.t. } S(f,g) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{G} \implies LT(S(s,g)) \notin \langle LT(G_i) \rangle$
- $\langle LT(G_0) \rangle \subsetneq \langle LT(G_1) \rangle \subsetneq \cdots$ 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., $\langle LT(G_i) \rangle = LT(I_i)$).

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 $I = \langle f_1, \dots, f_3 \rangle$ 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 $I \cap J = (t\tilde{I} + (1-t)\tilde{J}) \cap K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$.

Proof.

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

Proof.

Eg 1.5.5. Let $I = \langle xy^2 + 2y^2, x^4 - 2x^2 + 1 \rangle$, and we are 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. $V = V_1 \cap V_2 \cap \cdots \cap V_m$ with V_i irreducible and $V_i \not\subset V_j$.

Proof.

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

Proof.

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

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.

 \square

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.

1.6 Local Rings (week 12)

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

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

Prop 1.6.1.

- (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 1.6.2. 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 $M \in \text{Max } k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, 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 1.6.3. 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 $\operatorname{Ann}(x) \subsetneq R$ 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 an 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 1.6.4. 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) $0 \to M_Q \xrightarrow{\phi_Q} N_Q \xrightarrow{\psi_Q} L \to 0$ exact $\forall Q \in \operatorname{Max} R$

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 1.6.3, 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 1.6.5.

• 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

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

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

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

If 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 1.6.6. "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 $\forall Q \in \text{Max } R$

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 1.6.4,

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

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 1.6.7. 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

$$0 \to N \to N' \text{ exact} \implies 0 \to N \otimes_{R_1} M \to N' \otimes_{R_1} M \text{ exact}$$
$$\implies 0 \to N \otimes_{R_2} (R_2 \otimes_{R_1} M) \to N' \otimes_{R_2} (R_2 \otimes_{R_1} M) \text{ exact}$$

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

Prop 1.6.8. 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 $\forall Q \in \operatorname{Max} R$

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 1.6.4, $0 \to N_Q \to N_Q'$ 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 1.6.4, $0 \to N \otimes_R M \to N' \otimes_R M$ 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

$$R/p \longleftrightarrow S/p$$

$$r+p \longmapsto r+q$$

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, $q_P = q_P'$.

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 $q \cap R = p$.
- 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 $q_2 \cap R = p_2$.

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

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 $r_i \in \sqrt{I}$.

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 $q_2 \cap R = p_2$.

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

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

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.

"
$$\subseteq$$
" \forall $a \in \text{LHS}$, that is, $a^n = b + c$ with $b \in m_i^{n_i} \subseteq \sqrt{m_i^{n_i}}$ and $c \in m_j^{n_j} \subseteq m_j^{n_j}$ then $a \in \text{RHS}$. " \supseteq " \forall $a \in \text{RHS}$, that is, $a^n = b + c$ with $b^k \in m_i^{n_i}$ and $c^t \in m_j^{n_j}$. Then $(a^n)^{k+t} = (b+c)^{k+t} = b^{k+t} + \cdots + C_t^k b^k c^t + \cdots + c^{k+t}$. Every term either in $m_i^{n_i}$ or $m_j^{m_j}$, then $(a^n)^{k+t} = c + d$ with $c \in m_i^{n_i}$ $d \in m_i^{n_j} \Rightarrow a \in \text{LHS}$

• If m is prime, $\sqrt{m^n} = m$

Proof.

" ⊆ "
$$a \in \text{LHS} \Rightarrow a^k \in m^n$$
 and m is prime. $\Rightarrow a \in m$.
" ⊆ " $a \in \text{RHS} a \in m \Rightarrow a^n \in \text{LHS}$.

• 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
$$a_i \in m_i$$
 m . $b = a_1 \cdots a_n \in m_i \forall i. \rightsquigarrow b \in m_1 \cap \cdots \cap m_n \subseteq m$. But, m is prime, exist $a_i \in m$, a contradiction.

Prop 1.8.2. Let R be an Artinian ring

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

Proof.
$$\forall a \in R, \langle a \rangle \supseteq \langle a^2 \rangle \supseteq \cdots$$
 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 $a^l \neq 0$.

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

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

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

Proof. Consider the set $\left\{\bigcap_{\text{finite}} \mathfrak{m} \mid \mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R\right\} \neq \emptyset$. So there exists a minimal element in this set (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 $\Longrightarrow \mathfrak{m} \supseteq \mathfrak{m}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_k \rightsquigarrow \mathfrak{m} \supseteq \mathfrak{m}_i$ for some i, by Prop 1.8.1. $\leadsto m = m_i$, since 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.

• $\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}=\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\cap\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cap\cdots\cap\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}$. Recall I_i,I_j are coprime for $i\neq j \leadsto \prod_{i=1}^n I_i=\bigcap_{i=1}^n I_i$. And, by Prop 1.8.1

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

• $\langle 0 \rangle = \mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}$ for suitable $\{n_i\}$ that $\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i} = \mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i+1}$ Let $S = \{J \subseteq R \mid J\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} \neq 0\}$. If $\langle 0 \rangle \neq \mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}$, then $\mathfrak{m}_i \in S$. $\rightsquigarrow S \neq \varnothing$. Since R is Artinian, there exists a minimal element $J_0 \in S$. By definition of $S, \exists x \in J_0, x\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} \neq 0 \rightsquigarrow \langle x \rangle \in S$ and $\langle x \rangle \subseteq J_0 \Rightarrow \langle x \rangle = J_0$. Also, $x\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1+1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2+1} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k+1} = x\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} \neq 0 \rightsquigarrow I = x\mathfrak{m}_1 \dots \mathfrak{m}_k \in S$ and $I \subseteq J_0 = xR \rightsquigarrow I = xR$.

$$(\mathfrak{m}_1\mathfrak{m}_2\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k)xR = xR \leadsto (\mathfrak{m}_1\cap\mathfrak{m}_2\cap\cdots\cap\mathfrak{m}_k)xR = xR \leadsto (\operatorname{Jac} R)xR = xR$$

By Nakayama's lemma, $xR = 0 \implies x = 0$, which is a contradiction.

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

Proof. By (3), $\mathfrak{n}_R = \operatorname{Jac} R$. Let $n = \max\{n_1, \dots, n_k\}$ in (5), then $\mathfrak{n}_R^n = (\mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k)^n = 0$.

Goal 1: $R \cong R_1 \times R_k$ where R_i is Artinian local ring.

Proof. By Chinese Remainder theorem,

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

Let $R_i = R/\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}$, then $\bar{\mathfrak{m}} \in \operatorname{Max} R_i$ if $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$ and $\mathfrak{m} \supset \mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i} \leadsto \mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}_i$. So $\operatorname{Max} R_i = \{\bar{\mathfrak{m}}_i\} \Longrightarrow R_i$ 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, $(1) \Leftrightarrow (2)$.

Observation: If R is Northerian and dim R = 0, then $\langle 0 \rangle = \bigcap_{i=1}^k q_i$ (primary decomposition) and $\sqrt{q_i} = \mathfrak{m}_i \in \operatorname{Spec} R = \operatorname{Max} R$. Also, $\exists n_i \ \mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} = \langle 0 \rangle$

Since \mathfrak{m}_i is finitely generated, $\exists n_i$ s.t. $\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i} \subseteq q_i$. Hence

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

$$\implies \mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} = \langle 0 \rangle$$

Goal 2: In a ring R, let $\mathfrak{m}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{m}_n$ be, not necessarily different, maximal ideals in R s.t. $\mathfrak{m}_1\mathfrak{m}_2\cdots\mathfrak{m}_n=0$. Then R is Artinian $\iff R$ is Noetherian.

Proof. We have a chain of ideals in R: $\mathfrak{m}_0 = R \supset \mathfrak{m}_1 \supset \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \supset \cdots \supset \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_n = 0$.

Let $M_i = \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_{i-1}/\mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_i$ as R-module. Notice that $\mathfrak{m}_i M_i = 0$, we can treat M_i as R/\mathfrak{m}_i -module. But R/\mathfrak{m}_i is a field, so M_i can be regarded as a vector space. Hence, by lemma 5

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

By definition,

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

By Ex1,

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

Note: Goal 2 is accomplished by recongnizing that,

- R is Artinian $\implies \mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} = \langle 0 \rangle$ by prop 1.8.2 (4).
- R is Noetherian $+ \dim 0 \implies \mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} = \langle 0 \rangle$ by Observation.

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 ν is $R = \{x \in K \mid \nu(x) \geq 0\}$, called a DVR.
 - Fact $\nu(1) = 0 : \nu(1) = \nu(1) + \nu(1) \implies \nu(1) = 0$

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

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

Proof.

"
$$\Rightarrow$$
 " $\nu(x) = 0 \leadsto \nu(x^{-1}) = 0 \leadsto x^{-1} \in R$ " \Leftarrow " $\nu(x^{-1}), \nu(x) \ge 0$. And, $\nu(x) = -\nu(x) \le 0 \leadsto \nu(x) = 0$

- Let $t \in R$ with $\nu(t) = 1$, then $\mathfrak{m} = \langle t \rangle$. $\forall x \in \mathfrak{m}, \nu(x) = k > 0. \rightsquigarrow \nu(x(t^k)^-1) = \nu(x) - k\nu(t) = 0 \rightsquigarrow x = t^k u, u \text{ is unit in R.}$
- Let $I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$ and define $m = \min\{l \in \mathbb{N} \mid x = t^l u \quad \forall x \in I\}$. Then $I = \langle t^m \rangle$.

Prop 1.8.3. R is a DVR $\iff R$ is 1-dimensional normal, Noetherian local domain.

Proof.

"
$$\Rightarrow$$
": DVR \Longrightarrow PID \Longleftrightarrow UFD \Longrightarrow normal Noetherian

 $\forall\,P\neq0\in\mathrm{Spec}\,R,\,P=\langle t^k\rangle=m^k\text{ for some }k\in\mathbb{N}\leadsto P=\sqrt{P}=\sqrt{m^k}=m\leadsto P=m\leadsto\langle0\rangle\subset m\leadsto\dim R=1.$

- " \Leftarrow ":
 - m ≠ m²:
 If m = m² and m = Jac R, then m = ⟨0⟩ by Nakayama's lemma, which is a contradiction to dim R = 1.
 - Let $t \in \mathfrak{m} \mathfrak{m}^2$ and $\mathfrak{m} = \langle t \rangle$

Consider $M = \mathfrak{m}/\langle t \rangle$ and assume $M \neq 0$

<u>Fact</u>: $I = \operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x}) \ \bar{x} \in M \implies I \in \operatorname{Spec} R \ \operatorname{Since} \ ab \in I, \ a,b \notin I, \ \operatorname{then} \ ab\bar{x} = 0, \ \operatorname{and} \ b\bar{x} \neq 0.$ Suppose I is maximal, $\operatorname{Ann}(b\bar{x}) \supseteq \operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x}) \rightsquigarrow \operatorname{Ann}(b\bar{x}) = \operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x}) \ \operatorname{Then}, \ a \in \operatorname{Ann}(b\bar{x}) = \operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x}), \ \operatorname{which} \ \text{is a contradiction}.$

By the Fact, $\exists \bar{x} \neq 0 \in M$ s.t. $\operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x}) = \mathfrak{m} \leadsto x\mathfrak{m} = \langle t \rangle = tR \leadsto \frac{x}{t}\mathfrak{m} \subseteq R$.

- (1) If $\frac{x}{t} = R \leadsto \frac{xy}{t} = 1$ for some $y \in \mathfrak{m} \leadsto t = xy \in \mathfrak{m}$, which is a contratiction.
- (2) If $\frac{x}{t} \subset \mathfrak{m}$, let $\mathfrak{m} = \langle y_1, \cdots, y_n \rangle_R$ Write $\frac{x}{t}y_i = \sum_{j=1}^l a_{ij}y_j \forall i = 1, \cdots, l$ By using determinant

trick, we have $\frac{x}{t}$ is integral over R, but R is normal $\rightsquigarrow \frac{x}{t} \in R \rightsquigarrow x \in \langle t \rangle \leadsto \bar{x} = \bar{0}$, which is a contradiction.

Therefore, $\mathfrak{m} = \langle t \rangle$.

- By Ex3, $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} m^n = 0$. Thus, $\forall x \in R$, $\exists ! k \text{ s.t. } x \in m^k \text{ and } x \notin m^k + 1$. $\leadsto x = t^k u$, u is units.
- Define $\nu(x) = k$ and $\forall \frac{x}{y} \in \operatorname{Frac} R\nu(\frac{x}{y}) = \nu(x) \nu y$.

$$(1) \ \frac{x}{y} = \frac{x'}{y'} \rightsquigarrow xy' = x'y \rightsquigarrow \nu(xy') = \nu(x'y).$$

$$(2) \ \nu(\frac{a}{b}\frac{c}{d}) = \nu(ac) - \nu(bd) = \left[\nu(a) - \nu(b)\right] - \left[\nu(c) - \nu(d)\right] = \nu(\frac{a}{b}) - \nu(\frac{c}{d})$$

$$(3) \ \nu(\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d}), \ \nu(a) = v_a, \ \nu(b) = v_b, \ \nu(c) = v_c, \nu(d) = v_d. \ \nu(\frac{a}{b}) + \frac{c}{d} = \min\left\{\nu(\frac{a}{b}), \nu(\frac{c}{d})\right\} = \min\left\{\nu(\frac{ad}{bd}), \nu(\frac{bc}{bd})\right\} = \nu(\frac{ad+bd}{bd}).$$

Therefore, R is 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 $I = \langle f_1, \dots, f_n \rangle_R$ 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 1.8.4.

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.
$$J \subseteq (R:I) \subseteq (R:I)R \subseteq (R:I)IJ \subseteq RJ = J \leadsto J = (R:I)$$

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

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

3. 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 $\exists a \in R \leadsto aI \subseteq R$. And, $\mathfrak{m} = \langle t \rangle$, since R is not a field $t \neq 0$. $\leadsto a = t^k u$ where u is a unit in R. If aI = R, then $J = \langle a \rangle_R$. $\leadsto IJ = R$. If not, $aI \subseteq R \leadsto aI \subseteq \mathfrak{m} \leadsto aI = \langle t^l \rangle \leadsto I = \langle t^{l-k} \rangle_R$. Let $J = \langle t^{k-l} \rangle_R$, then IJ = R. " \Leftarrow ".

- R is Neotherian: $\forall I \subseteq R$ and I is invertible $\leadsto I$ is f.g. R-module.
- $\mathfrak{m} \neq \mathfrak{m}^2$, \mathfrak{m} is the unique maximal in R: $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}^2$ and $\mathfrak{m} = \operatorname{Jac} R \rightsquigarrow \mathfrak{m} = 0 \rightsquigarrow R$ is a field, which is a contradiction.
- $\mathfrak{m} = \langle t \rangle_R$: Pick $t \in \mathfrak{m} \mathfrak{m}^2$ and let $\mathfrak{m}\mathfrak{m}^{-1} = R \leadsto t\mathfrak{m}^{-1} \subseteq R$. If $t\mathfrak{m} \subseteq$, then $t\mathfrak{m}\mathfrak{m}^{-1} = tR \subseteq \mathfrak{m}^2$, a contradiction. Therefore, $\mathfrak{m} \subset t\mathfrak{m} \leadsto t\mathfrak{m} = R \leadsto t\mathfrak{m}\mathfrak{m}^{-1} = tR = \mathfrak{m} \leadsto \mathfrak{m} = \langle t \rangle_R$.
- Using the same construction ν in prop 1.8.3 we have the R is DVR.

Theorem 21. 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.

 $(a)\Leftrightarrow(b)$:

- R is normal $\iff R_P$ is normal for all $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$.
- $\dim R_P = 1 \quad \forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R \iff h(P) = 1 \quad \forall 0 \neq P \in \operatorname{Spec} R \iff \dim R = 1.$

(b)⇔(c):

- (b) and (c) $\implies R$ is Noetherian
- $I_P(R:I)_P = I_P(R_P:I_P)$ (Hint: I is f.g.)
- R_P is DVR $\forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R \iff \operatorname{Every}$ nonzero fractional ideal of R is invertable.

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

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

Existence:

- $I = q_1 \cap \cdots \cap q_n$ and $\sqrt{q_i} = P_i \in R$ by primary decomposition thm.
- $q_1 \cap \cdots \cap q_n = q_1 \cdots q_n$ Since $\dim R = 1$, $P_i \in \operatorname{Max} R$. And, R is Noetherian, $\exists n_i \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $m_i^{n_i} \subseteq q_i$. Then, $m_i^{n_i} + m_j^{n_j} = R \forall i \neq j \leadsto q_i + q_j = R \leadsto q_1 \cap \cdots \cap q_n = q_1 \cdots q_n$
- $I = m_i^{r_i} \cdots m_n^{r_n}$ Since R_{m_i} is DVR $\leadsto (q_i)_{m_i} = (m_i^{r_i})_{m_i} \leadsto q_i = m_i^{r_i}$ by prime ideals have 1-1 correspondence in localization. Therefore, $I = m_i^{r_i} \cdots m_n^{r_n}$.

Uniqueness:

• $P_1 \cdots P_k = Q_1 \cdots Q_r$ P_i, Q_i is prime. Then, $P_1 \cdots P_k \subseteq Q_1 \leadsto P_i \subseteq Q_1$, say i = 1 by prop 1.8.1. Since Q_1 is invertible, then $P_2 \cdots P_k = Q_2 \cdots Q_r$. By induction by hypothesis, we have the uniqueness result.

 $(d) \Rightarrow (c)$:

- Every invertible prime is maximal: If not, let $p + aR = P_1 \cdots P_k$ and $p + a^2R = Q_1 \cdots Q_r$. $\leadsto p \subseteq P_i$ and Q_j $\underline{\operatorname{Claim}} \ (p + aR)^2 = (p + a^2R)$: $\underline{\operatorname{In}} \ R/p, \langle \bar{a} \rangle = (P_1/p) \cdots (P_k/p)$ and $\langle \bar{a}^2 \rangle = (Q_1/p) (Q_r/p)$. And, $\langle \bar{a} \rangle = (P_1/p)^2 \cdots (P_k/p)^2 = (Q_1/p) \cdots (Q_r/p)$
- $P = P^2 + aP$

$$P \subseteq P + a^2 R = (P + aR)^2 \subseteq P^2 + aR$$

Then,

$$\forall \, x \in P, \quad \underset{\in P}{x} = \underset{\in P^2}{y} + a \underset{\in R}{z} \leadsto z \in P$$

Therefore, $P \subseteq P^2 + aP \rightsquigarrow P = P^2 + aP$. By invertibility of P, we have R = P + aR, which is a contradiction.

• Every nonzero prime is invertible: Let $0 \neq a \in P$, and $P \supseteq \langle a \rangle$ is invertible. $\langle a \rangle = P_1 \cdots P_n$ and P_i is invertible. And, $P \subseteq P_i \leadsto P = P_i$ since P_i is maximal.

- \forall ideal $0 \neq I \subseteq R, I = P_1 \cdots P_m \leadsto I$ is invertible.
- If I is fractional ideal of R, say $aI \subseteq R \leadsto \exists J$ ideal in $R \leadsto aIJ = R \leadsto I(aJ) = R$. 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 β 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

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

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

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

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

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

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 22 (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 immediate by the definition of injective module. " \Leftarrow : 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 μ' is well defined, and the existence of μ' contradicts the fact that (M^*, μ) 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 23. For any $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$, there exists an injective module N containing M.

Proof.

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

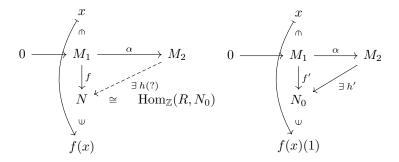
Let $X = \{x_i\}_{i \in \Lambda}$ be a generating set for M and F is free on X. Let f be the natural map from f to M, then $M \cong F/\ker f$.

Define $F' = \bigoplus_{i \in \lambda} \mathbb{Q}e_i \subset F$, 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 $rf(x) \triangleq x \mapsto f(xr)$.

We claim that N is injective. For any $f:M_1 \to N$, and a homomorphism $\alpha:M_1 \to M_2$, then α could be take as a \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism. Define $f':M_1 \to N_0$ by $x \mapsto f(x)(1)$. Since N_0 injective, exists h', a \mathbb{Z} module homomorphism 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_0 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 λ 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 λ 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 β :: $F \to M$ 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, λ' 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, μ exists in the following diagram:

$$0 \longrightarrow M \xrightarrow{\alpha} M_2$$

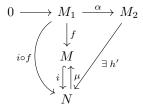
$$\downarrow^{\operatorname{Id}}_{\mathbb{K}} \exists \mu$$

$$M$$

So $M_2 = M \oplus M_3$.

 $(2) \Rightarrow (1)$: By theorem 23, 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. $f_n = \tilde{d}_{n+1} \circ s_n + s_{n-1} \circ d_n, \quad \forall n$.

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

$$\downarrow^{f_{n+1}} \underset{s_n}{\downarrow^{g_n}} \downarrow^{f_n} \underset{s_{n-1}}{\downarrow^{f_{n-1}}} \downarrow^{f_{n-1}}$$

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

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

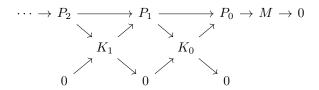
Proof.
$$f_*(x) = \tilde{d}_{n+1}s_n(x) + s_{n-1}d_n(x) = \tilde{d}_{n+1}s_n(x) \in B_n(\tilde{C}_{\bullet}) \implies f_*(\bar{x}) = 0.$$

- 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 24 (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.

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

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 $g_n - f_n - s_{n-1}d_n \in \text{Im } d'_{n+1} = \ker d'_n$, 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 25 (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 $\bar{}$ 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 (24), $\{f_i\}$, $\{g_i\}$ are homotopic, and we could write down the diagram below:

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

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

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

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

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

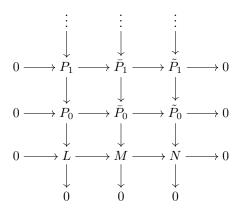
and \bar{f}_n, \bar{g}_n are homotopic. Thus by proposition 2.1.5, $\bar{f}_{\bullet}^* = \bar{g}_{\bullet}^*$.

Now, let P^{\bullet} , P'^{\bullet} be two projective resolution. Consider the diagram:

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.

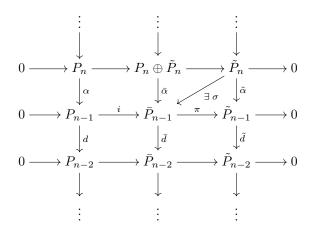
Theorem 26 (Horseshoe Lemma). Given $0 \to L \to M \to N \to 0$ and projective resolutions $P^{\bullet} \to L \to 0$, $\tilde{P}^{\bullet} \to N \to 0$. Then there is a projective resolution for M such that the following

diagram commutes:



Proof. Let $\bar{P}_n \triangleq P_n \oplus \tilde{P}_n$. \bar{P}_n is projective by the fact that sum of projective module 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.

By induction on n. Consider the following diagram:



 σ exists because \tilde{P}_n is projective. Define

$$\bar{\alpha}: \qquad P_n \otimes \tilde{P}_n \longrightarrow \bar{P}_{n-1}$$

$$(z,y) \longmapsto i\alpha(z) + \sigma(y)$$

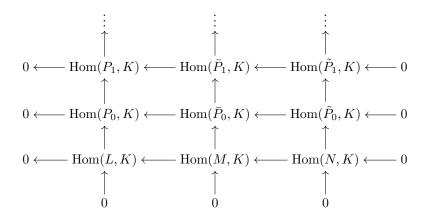
It easy to see that $\bar{\alpha}$ let the diagram commutes.

For any $x \in \ker d$, $\tilde{\pi}(x) = 0$, so $\pi(x) \in \ker \tilde{d} = \operatorname{Im} \tilde{\alpha}$, so exists y satisfy $\pi(x) = \tilde{\alpha}(y)$. Then $\tilde{\alpha}(y) = \pi\sigma(y) = \pi(x) \implies x - \sigma(y) \in \ker \pi = \operatorname{Im} i$. Let z' be the one so that $i(z') = x - \sigma(y)$, tracing the diagram again one would find out d(z') = 0, so exists z such that $\alpha(z) = z'$, and then $\bar{\alpha}(z,y) = i\alpha(z) + \sigma(y) = x$, thus $\operatorname{Im} \bar{\alpha} = \ker \bar{d}$.

Theorem 27 (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 Hom(-, K) in the diagram of Horseshoe' lemma (26), we get



Notice that $\operatorname{Hom}(M \oplus N, K) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(M, K) \otimes \operatorname{Hom}(N, K)$, so each row is indeed exact. By exercise 14.7, the long exact sequence in the statement exists.

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

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 6.

- 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 $n>0, M\in\operatorname{\mathbf{Mod}}_R.$

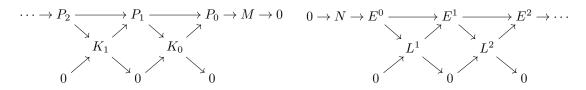
Proof. If M is projective, then $0 \to M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{1}_M} M \to 0$ is a projective resolution of M. Its deleted resolution is then $P_M: 0 \to M \to 0$. Hence for n > 0, $\operatorname{Ext}^n_{\operatorname{proj}}(M, N) = H^n(\operatorname{Hom}(P_M, N)) = 0$.

The argument applies similarly to injective case.

Theorem 28 (Equivalence of Ext_{proj} and Ext_{inj}).

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

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 Ext^1 !)

Since σ 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 29 (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 $A^* \neq 0$.

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}a \xrightarrow{i} A$$

$$\downarrow^g \qquad \exists f$$

$$\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$$

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. ⇐⇒ 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 ΛL is the exterior algebra of L, and x, y are any homogeneous elements of ΛL .

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

$$\begin{split} (d\otimes d')\circ (d\otimes d')(x\otimes y) &= (d\otimes d')(d(x)\otimes y + (-1)^{\deg x}\cdot x\otimes d'(y))\\ &= d\circ d(x)\otimes y + (-1)^{\deg x-1}\cdot d(x)\otimes d'(y)\\ &+ (-1)^{\deg x}\cdot d(x)\otimes d'(y) + x\otimes d'\circ d'(y)\\ &= 0 \end{split}$$

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}, ∂) be a chain complex of R-modules, then there exist ρ, π 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 ϕ_{*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 $d(z'', (-1)^i z''') = (\partial z'' + (-1)^{2i} x z'''), (-1)^i \partial z''') = (z, z'), \text{ i.e. } (z, z') \in \text{im } d_{i+1}.$ $(\partial z = x \partial z''' = (-1)^i x z', \text{ since } x \text{ is not a zero divisor, so } \partial z''' = (-1)^i z'.)$

Hence,
$$\phi_{*i}\left(\overline{(z_1,z_2)}\right) = \overline{0}$$
 implies $\overline{(z_1,z_2)} = \overline{0}$, so ϕ_{*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 30. 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

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

$$\downarrow^{\times 2} \downarrow^{\check{f}}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}$$

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

$$B \xrightarrow{f} C$$

$$Im f$$

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

Proof. Consider the following diagram:

$$\ker f \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{f} C \xrightarrow{p} \operatorname{coker} f$$

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

$$\operatorname{coker} i \xrightarrow{\exists !\sigma} \ker p$$

where μ, ν 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 σ letting the diagram commute.

By exercise, σ is both a monomorphism and epimorphism. In an abelian category, this implies that σ is actually an isomorphism (i.e., σ^{-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 31 (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.

- $\operatorname{Hom}_{K(\mathcal{A})}(I_A^{\bullet}, I_B^{\bullet}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(A, B)$ by comparison theorem (24).
- 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 $S \subset \operatorname{Mor}(\mathcal{B})$ is said to be **localizing** if

- 1. S is closed under composition with $\mathrm{Id}_X \in S$ for each object X in \mathcal{B} .
- 2. Extension condition holds: For each $f \in \text{Mor } \mathcal{B}$, $s \in S$, exists $g \in \text{Mor } \mathcal{B}$, $t \in S$ such that ft = sg. The dual version should hold as well.
- 3. For any $f, g \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$,

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

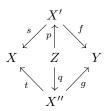
Theorem 32. If S is localizing, then exists a category $\mathcal{B}[S^{-1}]$ with a functor $Q: \mathcal{B} \to \mathcal{B}[S^{-1}]$ such that

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

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

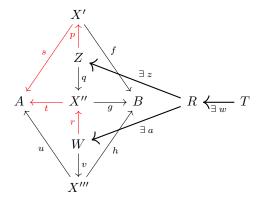
$$X \xrightarrow{S\ni s} X'$$
 $X \qquad Y$

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 $G([(s, f)]) = F(f)F(s)^{-1}$.

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

$$d_{\operatorname{cone}(f)}: \qquad \operatorname{cone}(f)^n = X^{n+1} \oplus Y^n \longrightarrow \operatorname{cone}(f)^{n+1} X^{n+2} \oplus Y^{n+1}$$

$$(x_{n+1}, y_n) \xrightarrow{\left(-d_X \quad 0 \atop f \quad d_Y \right)} \left(-d_X(x^{n+1}), f(x^{n+1}) + d_Y(y_n) \right)$$

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

$$0 \longrightarrow Y \longrightarrow \operatorname{cone}(f) \longrightarrow X[+1] \longrightarrow 0$$
$$d \longmapsto (0,d)$$
$$(c,d) \longmapsto -c$$

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) = (dx, -f(x)) with dx = 0, which implies $-f(x) :: Y^m \mapsto d(-x,0) :: X^{m+1} \oplus Y^m$, so $\delta = -f^*$ (Chu Wen Ti)...

Coro 2.4.2. cone(f) 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 $X[-k]^n = Z^{n-k}$ with $d_{X[-k]} = (-1)^k d_X$ below.

Theorem 33. 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:

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
\operatorname{cone}(\pi f)[-1] & \xrightarrow{k} & X^{\bullet} & \xrightarrow{\pi f} & \operatorname{cone}(g) \\
(x_{n}, z_{n}, y_{n-1}) \mapsto z_{n} & & & & & & \\
\downarrow^{f} & & & & & & \\
Z^{\bullet} & \xrightarrow{k} & & & & & & \\
& & z_{n} \mapsto g(z_{n}) & & & & & & \\
\end{array}$$

Where cone $(\pi f)^n \cong X^{n+1} \oplus \text{cone}(q)^n \cong X^{n+1}Z^{n+1}Y^n$

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

$$\varphi d_{C(\pi f)[-1]}(x_n, (z_n, y_{n-1})) = \varphi(d(x_n), -\pi f(x_n) - d(z_n, y_{n-1}))$$

$$= \varphi(d(x_n), -(0, f(x_n)) - (d(z_n), g(z_n) + d(y_{n-1})))$$

$$= \varphi(d(x_n), -d(z_n), -f(x_n) - g(z_n) - d(y_{n-1}))$$

$$= f(x_n) + g(z_n) + d(y_{n-1})$$

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

$$\exists s: Y^{\bullet} \to Z^{\bullet} \text{ s.t. } sf = 0 \iff \exists t: Y^{\bullet} \to Z^{\bullet} \text{ s.t. } ft = 0$$

Let $h^i: X^i \to Z^{i-1}$ be a homotopy bewteen sf and 0. Consider the diagram:

$$\operatorname{cone}(s)[-1] \xleftarrow{g} X^{\bullet} \xleftarrow{t} \operatorname{cone}(g)[-1] = W$$

$$\downarrow f$$

$$\operatorname{cone}(s)[-1] \xrightarrow{p[-1]} Y^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{s} Z^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\pi} \operatorname{cone}(s)$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} kd(x_n,y_{n-1},z_{n-2}) &= k(-(dx_n,g(x_n)+d(y_{n-1},z_{n-2}))) \\ &= k(-dx_n,-(f(x_n),-h(x_n))+(-dy_{n-1},g(y_{n-1})+dz_{n-2})) \\ &= (-f(x_n)-dy_{n-1},h(x_n)+g(y_{n-1})+dz_{n-2}) \end{aligned}$$

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 (???????, 山山門口是頁). Hence we've find t so that $ft \simeq 0$. (?????? h 在哪裡用??)

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 φ



Similarly this applies to φ' . Since rs = r's', we could define $\varphi + \varphi' = [(rs, g + g')]$.

Def 51. Let \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} be abelian categories, $F: A \to B$ be an additive functor.

- Define $D^+(A)$ as a subcategory of D(A) consist of all the objects (chains) X^{\bullet} in D(A) such that $X^i = 0$ for all $i \leq i_0(X^{\bullet})$. $K^+(A)$ 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

$$X^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f} Y^{\bullet} \longrightarrow Z^{\bullet} \longrightarrow X^{\bullet}[1]$$

$$\downarrow^{\wr} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\wr} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\wr}$$

$$\bar{X}^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\bar{f}} \bar{Y}^{\bullet} \longrightarrow \operatorname{cone}(\bar{f}) \longrightarrow \bar{X}^{\bullet}[1]$$

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 $\operatorname{cone}(f)$ acyclic by $\operatorname{corollary 2.4.2}$, and $F(\operatorname{cone}(f)) \cong \operatorname{cone}(F(f))$ acyclic by the discussion above, and finally F(f) acyclic by the same $\operatorname{corollary.}$ 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 object in Obj A is said to be adapted to a left exact functor F if

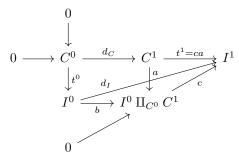
- 1. It is stable under finite direct sums
- 2. F sends acyclic chain in $\text{Kom}^+(R)$ to acyclic chain (in $\text{Kom}^+(B)$).
- 3. For each $X \in A$, exists $I \in R$ such that $0 \to X \to I$.

Theorem 34. Let F be a left exact functor, R be a class of object 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 $C^{\bullet} \in D^{+}(\mathcal{A})$ (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:

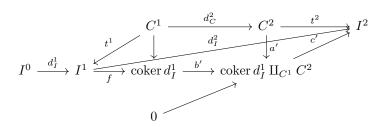
n=0: By the definition of adapting class we have $0 \to C^0 \xrightarrow{t^0} I^0$ for some I^0 . Consider the following diagram:



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 $y \in \ker d_I^2 = \ker b'p$ since c' 1-1. Then

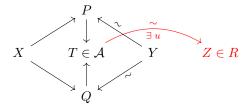
$$b'p(y) = 0 \implies (y + \operatorname{Im} d_I^1, 0) = (t'(x) + \operatorname{Im} d_I^1, -d_C^2(x)) \text{ for some } x \in C^1$$

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.

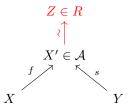
After proving this claim, we shall show that $\operatorname{Hom}_{K^+(R)[S_R^{-1}]}(X^{\bullet},Y^{\bullet}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{K^+(A)[S_A^{-1}]}(X^{\bullet},Y^{\bullet})$. We will use left roots instead of right roots defined before here.

• 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 root in A



We could find a root 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 $K^+(F): K^+(A) \to K^+(B)$ which sends acyclic chain in $K^+(R)$ to acyclic chain in $K^+(B)$. This implies that $K^+(F)$ sends quasi-isomorphism in $K^+(R)$ to quasi-isomorphism in $K^+(B)$. So we have the following diagram:

$$K^{+}(R) \xrightarrow{K^{+}(F)} K^{+}(B)$$

$$\downarrow^{Q_{R}} \qquad \downarrow^{Q_{R}}$$

$$I^{\bullet} \in K^{+}(R)[S_{R}^{-1}] \xrightarrow{\exists ! \bar{F}} D^{+}(B)$$

$$\downarrow^{Q_{R}}$$

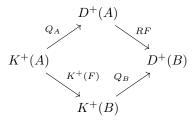
$$\downarrow^{Q_{R}}$$

$$\downarrow^{Q_{R}}$$

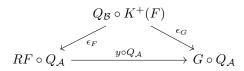
$$D^{+}(A)$$

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 $\epsilon_F: Q_B \circ K^+(F) \to RF \circ Q_A$ being a morphism of functors (???). Moreover, if $G: D^+(A) \to D^+(B)$ is another exact functor with $\epsilon_G: Q_B \circ K^+(F) \to G \circ Q_A$, 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...

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