

Algebra II

Instructor: Olivier Bernardi

Scribe: Alan Hou

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Part I

Representation Theory

Algebras and Representation

1.1 Basic Definitions

Definition 1.1.1. Let K be a ring, then a K -**algebra** $(A, +, \cdot, \times)$ is a K -module $(A, +, \cdot)$ together with a bilinear operation multiplication $\times : A \times A \rightarrow A$ such that

$$\exists 1 \in A, 1 \times x = x \times 1 = x, \forall x \in A,$$

$$x \times (y \times z) = (x \times y) \times z.$$

Equivalently, $(A, +, \cdot)$ is K -module, $(A, +, \times)$ is a ring, and \times is bilinear, $(k \cdot x) \cdot y = x \times (k \cdot y) = k \cdot (x \times y)$.

From now on, K is a field, so the K -algebras are K -vector spaces (in particular, have basis).

Example 1.1.2. (1). Let $K = \mathbb{R}$, $A = \mathbb{R}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ polynomials in n commuting variables.

(2). Let $K = \mathbb{R}$, $A = \mathbb{R}\langle X_1, \dots, X_n \rangle$ polynomials in n non-commuting variables.

(3). For V a K -vector space, $A = (\text{End}(V), +, \cdot, \circ)$ is a K -algebra, where $\text{End}(V)$ is linear maps from V to V .

(4). Let $B = (\text{Mat}_n(K), +, \cdot, \times)$ is a K -algebra, where Mat_n is $n \times n$ matrices and is isomorphic to $(\text{End}(K^n), +, \cdot, \circ)$ as representation of linear map of matrices.

Definition 1.1.3. Let A, B be K -algebra, $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an **algebra homomorphism** if respects the operations $+, \cdot, \times$. Equivalently, f is K -linear map and ring homomorphism.

Note that f is isomorphism if bijective and homomorphism and $A \simeq B$ means “isomorphic”: $\exists f : A \rightarrow B$ isomorphism.

Remark 1.1.4. The ring-quotient construction gives an algebra quotient: if I is a (two-sided) ideal of A then $A/I = \{x+I, x \in A\}$ has structure of algebra ($k(x+I) = kx + I$).

Example 1.1.5. We see $\mathbb{R}[X]/X^n$ and $\mathbb{R}[X]/(X^n - 1)$ are algebras.

Remark 1.1.6. The fundamental isomorphism theorems for rings hold for algebras. In particular, if $f : A \rightarrow B$ is algebra homomorphism then $\text{Im}(f) \simeq A/\ker(f)$ as algebras.

Definition 1.1.7. Let G be a group. The **group algebra** $K[G]$ is the K -vector space with basis G and multiplication in $K[G]$ obtained by extending multiplication in G K -linearly.

Example 1.1.8. Let $G = S_3$, $K = \mathbb{C}$ and $x = 2\text{Id} + 5(1, 3)$, $y = \text{Id} - (1, 2, 3) \in \mathbb{C}[S_3]$. Then $x \times y = (2\text{Id} + 5(1, 3)) \times (\text{Id} - (1, 2, 3)) = 2\text{Id} - 2(1, 2, 3) + 5(1, 3) - 5(1, 2)$.

Remark 1.1.9. We see $K[G]$ is a natural setting to do computations about G .

Example 1.1.10. We take $x = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} (i, j) \in \mathbb{C}[S_n]$ sum of all transpositions. Then $x^k = \sum_{\pi \in S_n} c_\pi \pi$ where c_π = number of ways of getting π as product of K -transpositions.

Definition 1.1.11. Let A be a K -algebra, a **representation** of A is (V, ρ) where V is a nonzero K -vector space and ρ is a homomorphism of algebra $A \rightarrow \text{End}(V)$.

This is $\forall a \in A, \rho(a) \in \text{End}(V)$ is a linear map, that is, $\forall a, b \in A, \rho(a + b) = \rho(a) + \rho(b)$, $\rho(a \times b) = \rho(a) \circ \rho(b)$, $\rho(1) = \text{Id}$ and $\rho(ka) = k\rho(a)$.

Equivalently, upon denoting $a \cdot v$ for $\rho(a)(v)$ where $a \in A, v \in V$, we must have this action is bilinear and associative: $(a \times b) \cdot v = a \cdot (b \cdot v)$, $1 \cdot v = v$.

Definition 1.1.12. The **dimension** of (V, ρ) is $\dim_K(V)$. Also (V, ρ) is **finite dimensional** (f.d.) if $\dim_K(V)$ is finite.

Remark 1.1.13. If $\dim V = n$, then $V \simeq K^n$ as vector spaces and we can view $\rho(a)$ as a matrix.

Example 1.1.14. Let $A = \mathbb{R}[X]$, given $f \in \text{End}(K^n)$, we can define a representation (V, ρ) by $V = K^n$, $\rho(P) = P(f)$ where $P = \sum c_i x^i$ and $P(f) = \sum c_i \underbrace{f \circ \cdots \circ f}_i$. In matrix term, $\rho(P) = P(M) = \sum c_i M^i$ where M is matrix representing f .

Remark 1.1.15. If $\{g_i\}$ are generators of A , then a representation of A is determined by $\{\rho(g_i)\}$. The linear maps $\rho(g_i)$ must satisfy the same relations as g_i .

Example 1.1.16. A representation for $\mathbb{R}[X]/(X^n - 1)$ is determined by $\rho(X)$ satisfying $\rho(X)^n = \text{Id}$.

Remark 1.1.17. For $A = K[G]$ a group algebra representations are uniquely determined by a group homomorphism

$$\rho : G \longrightarrow \text{GL}(V),$$

where $\text{GL}(V)$ are invertible matrices (for all $g \in G, \rho(g) \in \text{GL}(V)$ since $\rho(g^{-1}) = \rho(g)^{-1}$). The representations (V, ρ) of $K[G]$ is then determined by linear extension $\rho(\sum c_g g) = \sum c_g \rho(g)$.

Example 1.1.18. (1). Let $G = C_n = \langle x \rangle / \langle \langle x^n = 1 \rangle \rangle$ cyclic group with n elements. For $M \in \text{Mat}_n(K)$ such that $M^n = \text{Id}$ we can define $\rho(x) = M$ (Here $K[C_n] \simeq \mathbb{R}[X]/(X^n - 1)$).

(2). For instance, for $K = \mathbb{C}, M = [\omega], \omega = e^{2i\pi/m}$ the m -th root of unity gives a 1-dimensional representation $\rho(x^m) = [\omega^m]$.

Definition 1.1.19. The **regular representation** of A is $(V_{\text{reg}}, \rho_{\text{reg}})$ where $V_{\text{reg}} = A$ as K -vector space, $\rho_{\text{reg}}(a)$ is left multiplication by a , i.e., $\forall a \in A, v \in V_{\text{reg}} = A$, we have $a \cdot v = \rho(a)(v) = a \times v$ where \cdot is action and \times is multiplication in A .

Goal of Representation Theory:

- (1). Describe all the A representations (in particular, ρ_{reg}) - decomposition into "irreducible representations".
- (2). Use this description to simplify computation in A .

Remark 1.1.20. For G a group, the representation of the group algebra is specified by endomorphisms $\rho(g), g \in G$ such that $\rho(1) = \text{Id}$, and

$$\rho(gh) = \rho(g) \circ \rho(h), \forall g, h \in G. \quad (\star)$$

Observe that $\forall g \in G, \rho(g)\rho(g^{-1}) = \rho(1) = \text{Id}$. Hence $\forall g \in G, \rho(g) \in \text{Aut}(V)$ which are invertible linear maps $V \rightarrow V$. Note that (\star) means that $\rho : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(V)$ is group homomorphism.

In summary, for a group G , the K -representations of the group algebra $K[G]$ are uniquely determined by the group homomorphism $\rho : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(V)$, where V is K -vector space.

The representation (V, ρ) is then extended to $K[G]$ by linearity, i.e., $\rho(\sum c_g g) = \sum c_g \rho(g)$. In terms of operations: $(\sum c_g g) \cdot v = \sum c_g (g \cdot v)$.

Example 1.1.21. (1). Let $A = K[G], V = k, \rho(g) = \text{Id}_K$ for g , the trivial representation with dimension 1.

(2). Let $A = \mathbb{C}[c_m], c_m = \langle g \rangle / \langle \langle g^m = 1 \rangle \rangle = \{g^0 = 1, g^1, \dots, g^{m-1}\}$. Then $V = \mathbb{C}, \rho(g^k) = \omega^k \text{Id}_K$ where $\omega^m = 1$.

(3). Let $A = K[S_m], V = K^m, \forall \pi \in S_m, \rho(\pi) = \text{"permutation matrices"}$. $\pi \cdot e_j = e_{\pi(j)}, e_j = (0, \dots, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$ where the only 1 is at the j -th coordinate as e_j basis of K^m . Then $\pi \cdot (x_1, \dots, x_m) = (x_{\pi^{-1}(1)}, \dots, x_{\pi^{-1}(m)})$.

(4). Let $A = K[G]$, for any G -set S , we can define K^S = vector space with basis S and representation given by $\rho(g) \cdot s = g \cdot s$ where the latter \cdot is g action. (Hence $\rho(g)(\sum c_S S) = \sum c_S(g \cdot S)$, $\rho(g)$ is a representation in basis S).

Remark 1.1.22. The regular representation $K[G]$ is of this form (action $G \curvearrowright G$ by left translation).

Definition 1.1.23. Let $(V, \rho), (V', \rho')$ be representation of K -algebra A , a **homomorphism of representation** is $\phi : V \rightarrow V'$ linear such that

$$\forall a \in A, \forall v \in V, \phi(a \cdot v) = a \cdot \phi(v),$$

where the first \cdot is the action on ρ and the second \cdot is the action on ρ' .

For notation, $\text{Hom}_A(V, V')$ is the vector space of representation homomorphism $V \rightarrow V'$ (ρ, ρ' are implicit).

Definition 1.1.24. The **isomorphism of representations** is bijective homomorphism of representations.

We say $V \simeq V'$ if there exists isomorphism $V \rightarrow V'$.

Remark 1.1.25. If $(V, \rho) \simeq (V', \rho')$, then there exists matrix P such that $\forall a \in A, P\rho(a)P^{-1} = \rho'(a)$ (Indeed, if P represents the isomorphism $V \rightarrow V'$, then $P\rho(a) = \rho'(a)P$). Equivalently, the matrices $\rho(a)$ and $\rho(a')$ are equal up to a change of basis.

Example 1.1.26 (Toy model). Let $A = \mathbb{C}[c_m], c_m = \langle g \rangle / \langle \langle g^m = 1 \rangle \rangle$, then

(1). In the basis $\{g^0, \dots, g^{m-1}\}$ we have

$$\rho_{\text{reg}}(g^j) = \begin{pmatrix} & & & m-j & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \vdots \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} j.$$

Hence $\rho_{\text{reg}}(\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} k_i g^i)$ is the matrix with all 1 entries. Let $\omega = e^{2\pi i/m}$ and consider basis h_0, \dots, h_{m-1} where $h_j = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \omega^{jd} g^i$. In this basis, we have

$$\rho_{\text{reg}}(g^j) = \begin{pmatrix} \omega^{-(1-1)j} = 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \omega^{-(m-1)j} \end{pmatrix},$$

the diagonal matrix.

(2) The change of basis (g^0, \dots, g^{m-1}) to (h_0, \dots, h_{n-1}) simplifies computation. Actually this is equivalent to discrete Fourier transform (DFT). That is, regard $\sum k_i g^i$ as “function with value k_i ” and h_i pointwise waves. Change of basis: write functions as linear combination of waves.

Convolution of function \xleftrightarrow{DFT} pointwise multiplication.

Useful for fast multiplication of polynomial or numbers.

1.2 Decomposition of Representation and Schur's Lemma

Definition 1.2.1. Let (V, ρ) be a A –representation, then

- a **subrepresentation** is a subspace $0 \neq W$ of V such that $\forall a \in A, a \cdot W \subseteq W$. In this case, $(W, \rho|_W)$ is a A –representation; and
- the representation (V, ρ) is **irreducible** if it has no proper subrepresentation.

Remark 1.2.2. For all $v \in V, A \cdot v = \langle a \cdot v, a \in A \rangle$ is a subrepresentation of V . Hence V is irreducible if and only if $\forall v \in V, Av = V$.

Lemma 1.2.3. If A is finite dimensional (e.g., $A = K[G]$ where G is finite), then any irreducible representation of A is also finite dimensional.

Proof. We have V irreducible $\implies Av = V$ where $\dim Av \leq \dim A < \infty$. \square

We say “irreps” to mean finite dimensional irreducible representations.

Remark 1.2.4. If $\phi \in \text{Hom}_A(V, W)$, then $\text{Im}(\phi), \ker(\phi)$ are subrepresentations.

Lemma 1.2.5 (1st Isomorphism Theorem). *We have that*

- if V is A –representation, and $W \subseteq V$ subrepresentation, then $V/W = \{v + W, v \in V\}$ has structure of A –representation: $a \cdot \bar{v} = \overline{a \cdot v}$ where $\bar{v} = v + W$; and
- if $\phi \in \text{Hom}_A(V, W)$ then $\text{Im}(\phi) = V / \ker(\phi)$.

Definition 1.2.6. Let V_1, \dots, V_k be A –representations, the **direct sum** is the representation $V_1 \oplus \dots \oplus V_k$ with A –action $a \cdot (v_1, \dots, v_k) = (a \cdot v_1, \dots, a \cdot v_k)$. The direct sum can be viewed as vector spaces $\{(v_1, \dots, v_k)\}$ where $v_i \in V_i$. In terms of matrices we have

$$\rho(a) = \begin{pmatrix} \rho_1(a) & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \rho_n(a) \end{pmatrix},$$

where each $\rho_i(a)$ is a block instead of just an entry.

For notation, we use mV to denote $V \oplus \cdots \oplus V$ for m times.

Lemma 1.2.7. *If $W, W' \subseteq V$ subrepresentations such that $W + W' = V, W \cap W' = \{0\}$, then $V \simeq W \oplus W'$ as A -representations.*

Proof. It suffices to consider the homomorphism:

$$\begin{aligned}\phi : W \oplus W' &\longrightarrow V, \\ (w, w') &\longmapsto w + w' .\end{aligned}$$

Then the statement follows. □

Example 1.2.8. (1). Let $A = K[S_m]$ and (V, ρ) representation defined by $\pi \cdot \rho_i = \rho_{\pi(i)}$, then $W = \{(x, \cdots, x), x \in K\}$, which is isomorphic to the trivial representation, is subrepresentation. Also consider $W' = \{(x_1, \cdots, x_n), \sum x_i = 0\}$ is a subrepresentation.

(2). Let $A = \mathbb{C}[S_3], \pi \cdot \rho_i = \rho_{\pi(i)}$. In basis $\{(1, 1, 1), (1, -1, 0), (1, 0, -1)\}$ where the first term is from W and the latter two are from W' , we get

$$\rho((1, 2)) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \rho((1, 3)) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix},$$

and we have $\rho(a) = \begin{pmatrix} \star & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \star & \star \\ 0 & \star & \star \end{pmatrix}.$

Lemma 1.2.9 (Matschke). *Let G be a finite group, suppose $\text{char}(k)$ does not divide $|G|$. Then any finite representation of G is isomorphic to a sum of irreps.*

Proof. It suffices to show that $\forall W \subseteq V$ subrepresentations W , there exists $\overline{W} \subseteq V$ subrepresentations such that $V \simeq W \oplus \overline{W}$. That is, it suffices to show $W + \overline{W} = V$ and $W \cap \overline{W} = \{0\}$. We start with $W' \subseteq V$ subspace such that $W + W' = V$ and $W \cap W' = \{0\}$.

Let $\phi : V \rightarrow V$ linear such that $\phi|_W = \text{Id}_W$ and $\phi|_{W'} = 0$. We have $W' = \ker \phi$ but $\phi \notin \text{End}_{K[G]}(V)$ and W' not subrepresentation a priori.

Let $\psi = \sum_{g \in G} \rho(g^{-1}) \circ \phi \circ \rho(g)$ (i.e., $\psi(v) = \sum_{g \in G} g^{-1} \phi(gv)$). Thus we have

- $\psi \in \text{End}_{K[G]}(V)$ because $\forall h \in G, \forall v \in V$, we have

$$\psi(hv) = \sum_{g \in G} g^{-1} \phi(ghv) = h \sum_{g \in G} h^{-1} g^{-1} \phi(ghv) = h \sum_{g \in G} g^{-1} \phi(gv) = h\psi(v).$$

Hence $\overline{W} = \ker \psi$ is a subspace. We have

- $\text{Im}\psi = W$ because first $\text{Im}\psi \subseteq \sum_g g^{-1}\text{Im}\phi = \sum_g g^{-1}w \subseteq \sum w = W$. Second, we have $\forall w \in W, \psi(w) = \sum g^{-1}\phi(gw) = \sum_g g^{-1}gw = |G|w \neq 0$ in k (this is why we need the condition for $\text{char}(k)$). Thus $w = \psi(\frac{w}{|G|})$ and $w \in \text{Im}\psi$. We have
- $\text{Im}\psi \cap \ker \psi = \{0\}$ because $\forall v \in \text{Im}\psi \cap \ker \psi$ we have $v = \psi(\frac{v}{|G|}) = 0$. We have
- $\text{Im}\psi + \ker \psi = V'$ because $v = \psi(\frac{v}{|G|}) + (v - \psi(\frac{v}{|G|}))$.

Hence the lemma. \square

Lemma 1.2.10 (Schur's Lemma). *Let K be algebraically closed, let A be a K -algebra, let V, W be irreducible representations of A , then*

$$\dim(\text{Hom}_A(V, W)) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } V \simeq W, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Proof. Let $\phi \in \text{Hom}_A(V, W), \phi \neq 0$ and $\ker(\phi)$ is subspace of V irreducible, then $\ker \phi = 0$. Similarly, $\text{Im}\phi$ is subspaces of W irreducible, thus $\text{Im}\phi = W$. Hence ϕ is isomorphism. Thus if $V \not\simeq W$ then $\text{Hom}_A(V, W) = \{0\}$.

Suppose now $V \simeq W$. Then up to composing by an isomorphism, we can assume $W = V$. We want to show $\dim(\text{End}_A(V)) = 1$. We claim $\text{End}_A(V) = \{\lambda \text{Id}_V, \lambda \in k\}$. Now for one direction \supseteq , it is obvious. For the other direction \subseteq , let $\phi \in \text{End}_A(V), \forall \lambda \in k$, we have $\phi - \lambda \text{Id} \in \text{End}_A(V) = \text{Aut}_A(V) \cup \{0\}$. Since k is algebraically closed, $\exists \lambda \in k$ eigenvalue of ϕ (root of characteristic polynomial), then $\ker(\phi - \lambda \text{Id}) \neq 0$. Therefore $\phi - \lambda \text{Id}$ is not isomorphism thus $\phi - \lambda \text{Id} = 0$. \square

Corollary 1.2.11. *Let K be algebraically closed, let V_1, \dots, V_k be non-isomorphic irreps of A , then*

$$\dim(\text{Hom}_A(\bigoplus_{i=1}^k n_i V_i, \bigoplus_{j=1}^k m_j V_j)) = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i m_i.$$

In particular, if $U \simeq \bigoplus m_i V_i$, then $m_i = \dim(\text{Hom}_A(V_i, U))$. So the multiplicities of irreps in a representation are uniquely defined.

Before proving this corollary, we first claim and prove some lemma.

Lemma 1.2.12. *Let V, V_1, \dots, V_k be A -representations, then*

(1). $\text{Hom}_A(V, \bigoplus_i V_i) \simeq \bigoplus_i \text{Hom}_A(V, V_i)$ as vector spaces; and

(2). $\text{Hom}_A(\bigoplus_i V_i, V) \simeq \bigoplus_i \text{Hom}_A(V_i, V)$ as vector spaces.

Hence, $\text{Hom}_A(\bigoplus_i V_i, \bigoplus_j W_j) \simeq \bigoplus_{i,j} \text{Hom}_A(V_i, W_j)$.

Proof of Lemma 1.2.12. (1). Consider isomorphism given by

$$\begin{aligned} \bigoplus_i \operatorname{Hom}_A(V, V_i) &\longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_A(V, \bigoplus_i V_i), \\ (\phi_1, \dots, \phi_k) &\longmapsto (\phi : v \mapsto (\phi_1(v), \dots, \phi_k(v))). \end{aligned}$$

(2). Consider isomorphism given by

$$\begin{aligned} \bigoplus_i \operatorname{Hom}_A(V_i, V) &\longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_A(\bigoplus_i V_i, V), \\ (\phi_1, \dots, \phi_k) &\longmapsto (\phi : (v_1, \dots, v_k) \mapsto \sum_i \phi_i(v_i)). \end{aligned}$$

Hence the lemma. □

Then we can prove the corollary.

Proof of Corollary 1.2.11. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \dim(\operatorname{Hom}_A(\bigoplus_i n_i V_i, \bigoplus_j m_j V_j)) &= \dim(\bigoplus_{i,j} n_i m_j \operatorname{Hom}_A(V_i, V_j)) \\ &= \sum_{i,j} n_i m_j \dim(\operatorname{Hom}_A(V_i, V_j)) \\ &= \sum_{i,j} n_i m_j \delta_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i m_i, \end{aligned}$$

where δ_{ij} is Kronecker delta by Schur's Lemma. □

Representations of Finite Groups

2.1 Fundamental Isomorphisms

Assumptions: Let G be a finite group, K be algebraically closed, $\text{char}(K) \nmid |G|$ (so Matschke's and Schur's Lemmas hold). "Irreps of G " is the irreps of $K[G]$.

Theorem 2.1.1. *Group G has finitely many (non-isomorphic) irreducible representations V_1, \dots, V_r . Moreover $V_{\text{reg}} \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^r \dim(V_i) V_i$ as G -representations.*

Example 2.1.2. Let $K = \mathbb{C}$, $G = S_3$. We know 3 irreps already. They are

$V_1 =$ trivial representation. ($\rho_1(\pi) = \text{Id}_{\mathbb{C}}$),

$V_2 =$ sign representation. ($\rho_2(\pi) = \text{sgn}(\pi) \text{Id}_{\mathbb{C}}$),

V_3 of dimension 2 determined by

$$\rho((1, 2)) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \rho((1, 3)) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

There are no other irreps and

$$\mathbb{C}[S_3] \simeq V_1 \oplus V_2 \oplus 2V_3$$

as S_3 -representations.

Equivalently, there exists basis of $\mathbb{C}[S_3]$ in which

$$\rho_{\text{reg}}((1, 2)) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & & \\ & -1 & & & & \\ & & -1 & -1 & & \\ & & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & & & -1 & -1 \\ & & & & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

and

$$\rho_{\text{reg}}((1, 3)) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & -1 & & & \\ & & 1 & 0 & \\ & & -1 & -1 & \\ & & & & 1 & 0 \\ & & & & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proof of Theorem 2.1.1. By Matschke's Lemma, we have $V_{\text{reg}} \simeq \bigoplus_i m_i V_i$ for some $m_i \geq 0$, V_i irreps. By Schur's Lemma, we have $m_i = \dim(\text{Hom}_G(V_{\text{reg}}, V_i))$.

For (V, ρ) , G -representations, let $H_V = \text{Hom}_G(V_{\text{reg}}, V)$. We claim that

$$H_V = \{\epsilon_v, v \in V\}, \text{ where } \epsilon_v : V_{\text{reg}} = K[G] \longrightarrow V,$$

$$x \longmapsto x \cdot v.$$

For one direction (\supseteq) : we have for all $v \in V$, that $\epsilon_v \in H_V$ since $\forall a \in K[G]$, we have $\epsilon_v(a \cdot x) = (a \cdot x) \cdot v = (a \times x) \cdot v = a \cdot (x \cdot v) = a \cdot \epsilon_v(x)$.

For the other direction (\subseteq) : for all $\phi \in H_V$, we have $\phi = \epsilon_{\phi(1_G)}$, indeed, $\forall x \in V_{\text{reg}}$, we have $\phi(x) = \phi(x \cdot 1_G) = x \cdot \phi(1_G) = \epsilon_{\phi(1_G)}(x)$.

Conclusion:

$$\epsilon : V \longrightarrow H_V,$$

$$v \longmapsto \epsilon_v,$$

is a surjective linear map. Also, ϵ is injective since $v \in \ker(\epsilon)$ implies $\epsilon_v(1_G) = 0$, which means $1_G \cdot v = 0$ so $v = 0$.

Hence ϵ is bijective linear map. Hence $\dim(H_V) = \dim(V)$. This concludes the proof. \square

Theorem 2.1.3 (Fundamental Isomorphism for Group Algebra). *Let V_1, \dots, V_R be the non-isomorphic irreps of V . Then*

$$\Gamma : K[G] \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{i=1}^R \text{End}(V_i),$$

$$x \longmapsto (\rho_1(x), \dots, \rho_R(x)),$$

is an isomorphism of algebras.

Example 2.1.4. (1). Let $G = S_3$, $K = \mathbb{C}$, $R = 3$, we have

$$\rho((1, 2)) = ([1], [-1], \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}), \rho((1, 3)) = ([1], [-1], \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}),$$

and $\mathbb{C}[S_3]$ isomorphic to algebra of matrix in $\text{Mat}_4(\mathbb{C})$ of form $\begin{pmatrix} \star & & & \\ & \star & & \\ & & \star & \star \\ & & \star & \star \end{pmatrix}$.

(2). Let $G = C_n$, $K = \mathbb{C}$, Γ is given by DFT, we have

$$\rho_{\text{reg}}(g^k) = \begin{pmatrix} \omega^{-(1-1)k} = 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \omega^{-(n-1)k} \end{pmatrix}.$$

We have $\mathbb{C}[S_n] \xrightarrow{\Gamma=DFT} \text{algebra of diagonal matrices}$.

Proof of Theorem 2.1.3. By definition of G -representations, for all i , ρ_i is a homomorphism of algebra, hence Γ is a homomorphism of algebra.

We have $\dim(K[G]) = |G|$. We see $\dim(\bigoplus \text{End}(V_i)) = \sum \dim(\text{End}(V_i)) = \sum \dim(V_i)^2$. Moreover, by Theorem 1.3.1., we have

$$\dim(K[G]) = \dim(\bigoplus \dim(V_i)V_i) = \sum \dim(V_i) \dim(V_i).$$

We have Γ is injective since $x \in \ker(\Gamma)$, which implies $\forall i, \rho_i(x) = 0$. This means that $\rho_{\text{reg}}(x) = 0$ and hence $x = x \cdot 1_G = \rho_{\text{reg}}(x)(1) = 0$. \square

Corollary 2.1.5. *We have number of non-isomorphic irreps of G = number of conjugacy classes.*

Example 2.1.6. For S_n , we have number of irreps = number of “cyclic types” = number of partitions of n .

Proof of Corollary 2.1.5. Theorem 2.1.3 implies $Z(K[G]) \xrightarrow{\Gamma} Z(\bigoplus_{i=1}^R \text{End}(V_i))$, we take dimension on both sides, then $Z(\bigoplus \text{End}(V_i)) = \bigoplus Z(\text{End}(V_i))$. Moreover, $Z(\text{End}(V_i)) = \{\lambda \text{Id}_{V_i}, \lambda \in k\}$ has $\dim = 1$. This implies that $\dim(\bigoplus_{i=1}^R \text{End}(V_i)) = \sum_{i=1}^R \dim(\text{End}(V_i)) = R$.

Also $x \in Z(K[G])$ if and only if $\forall h \in G, h x h^{-1} = x$. Hence $x = \sum_{g \in G} C_g g \in Z$ if and only if $\forall g, g'$ conjugate, we have $C_g = C_{g'}$ (i.e., coefficients are constant over conjugate class).

Together we see that basis of Z is C_1, \dots, C_k where $C_i = \sum_{g \in G_i} g$, where G_i are conjugacy class of G . Hence $\dim(Z) = \text{number of conjugacy classes}$ and hence $\sum_{i=1}^n \dim(\text{End}(V_i)) = R = \text{number of irreps}$. \square

Consider $x = \sum_{i < j} (i, j) \in Z(\mathbb{C}[S_n])$. What is x^k ? Let V_1, \dots, V_R be irreps of G , and let $P_i = \Gamma^{-1}(0, \dots, \text{Id}_{V_i}, \dots, 0)$. Since $(0, \dots, \text{Id}_{V_i}, \dots, 0)$ form a basis of $Z(\bigoplus \text{End}(V_i))$, we have $\{P_1, \dots, P_R\}$ is a basis of $Z(K[G])$. Then we have the following definition:

Definition 2.1.7. This basis satisfies $P_i P_j = \delta_{ij} P_i$ where the δ_{ij} is the Kronecker delta. These are the **idempotents** of the group algebra.

They make computation in $Z(K[G])$ easy. For instance, if $x = \sum c_i P_i$ then $x^k = \sum c_i^k P_i$. In the C_n example, P_i are the pointwise waves and multiplication in $\mathbb{C}[C_n]$ is “simplified” by DFT.

2.2 Characters

Definition 2.2.1. Let A be a K -algebra, let (V, ρ) be A -representations, the **character** of (V, ρ) is

$$\begin{aligned}\chi_V : A &\longrightarrow K, \\ a &\longmapsto \text{Tr}(\rho(a)),\end{aligned}$$

where Tr is the trace of the matrices.

This is well-defined, that is, does not depend on basis used to write $\rho(a)$ because the trace of $\text{Tr}(P^{-1}MP) = \text{Tr}(PP^{-1}M) = \text{Tr}(M)$.

Example 2.2.2. If (V, ρ) is the G -representations associated to a G -set S , then $\forall g \in G$, we have $\chi(g) = \text{number of elements of } S \text{ fixed by } g$.

Remark 2.2.3. We have

- $\chi_V(1_A) = \text{Tr}(\text{Id}_V) = \dim(V)$.
- We have $\chi_V \in A^* = \text{Hom}(A, K)$ the dual space.
- If $V \simeq W$, then $\chi_V = \chi_W$ because V, W are equal up to change of basis and $\text{Tr}(PMP^{-1}) = \text{Tr}(M)$.

Notation: Let G be a finite group, then we say

$$\mathcal{F}(G) = K[G]^* (\overset{\text{bijective}}{\longleftrightarrow} \{f : G \rightarrow K\}).$$

Also we define

$$\mathcal{CF}(G) = \{\phi \in \mathcal{F}(G) \mid \phi(g) = \phi(g'), \forall g, g' \text{ conjugate in } G\}$$

$$(\overset{\text{bijective}}{\longleftrightarrow} \{f : G \rightarrow K \text{ such that } f \text{ is constant on conjugacy class}\}).$$

Vector space of **class functions** on G .

Remark 2.2.4. We have $\mathcal{F}(G) = K[G]^* \simeq K[G]$ as vector spaces and $\mathcal{CF}(G) \simeq Z(K[G])^* \simeq Z(K[G])$ as vector spaces.

In fact, we have that $\chi_V \in \mathcal{CF}(G)$.

Theorem 2.2.5. *Let G be finite group, let V_1, \dots, V_R be the irreps, the characters χ_1, \dots, χ_R of the irreps form a basis of $\mathcal{CF}(G)$.*

Example 2.2.6. Let $G = S_3$, $K = \mathbb{C}$, denote V_1 trivial representation, V_2 sign representation, V_3 defining trivial, then we have the table

Character			
	χ_1	χ_2	χ_3
$C_1 = \{\text{Id}\}$	1	1	2
$C_2 = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (1, 3)\}$	1	-1	0
$C_3 = \{(1, 2, 3), (3, 2, 1)\}$	1	1	-1

and we have $\chi_3 = \text{number of fixed points} - 1$. Theorem 1.4.5 says χ_1, χ_2, χ_3 form a basis of $\mathcal{CF}(S_3) \equiv \mathbb{C}^3$ (i.e., columns are basis of \mathbb{C}^3).

Proof of Theorem 2.2.5. First we have $\dim(\mathcal{CF}(G)) = \text{number of conjugacy classes} = \text{number of irreps} = R$. This means that it suffices to show χ_1, \dots, χ_R are independent. Now we show this claim.

Indeed, consider $P_i = \Gamma^{-1}(0, \dots, \text{Id}_{V_i}, \dots, 0)$ idempotents. We have

$$\chi_j(P_i) = \text{Tr}(\rho_j(P_i)) = \text{Tr}(\delta_{ij} \text{Id}_{V_i}) = \delta_{ij} \dim(V_i).$$

In particular, we have $\sum_{j=0}^n k_j \chi_j = 0$ thus $\forall j, \sum k_j \chi_j(P_i) = 0$. Hence for any i , we have $k_i = 0$. \square

Remark 2.2.7. Recall that $\{P_1, \dots, P_R\}$ forms a basis of $Z(K[G])$. Proof shows that $\{\frac{\chi_1}{\dim(V_1)}, \dots, \frac{\chi_R}{\dim(V_R)}\}$ is the dual basis $\{P_1^* \dots P_R^*\}$ of $Z(K[G])^* \simeq \mathcal{CF}(G)$.

2.3 Frobenius Formula and Orthogonality

Notation:

- Let C_1, \dots, C_R be the conjugacy classes of G , let χ_1, \dots, χ_R be the characters of irreps of G , let $\chi_i(C_j) = \chi_i(g)$ for any $g \in C_j$.
- For $\mathcal{D}_1, \dots, \mathcal{D}_k$ be conjugacy classes ($\mathcal{D}_i \in \{C_1, \dots, C_R\}$), we denote

$$F(\mathcal{D}_1, \dots, \mathcal{D}_k) = \text{cardinality of } \{(g_1, \dots, g_k) | g_i \in \mathcal{D}_i, g_1, \dots, g_k = 1_G\}.$$

Then we have the theorem:

Theorem 2.3.1 (Frobenius Formula). *For any $k \geq 1$ and for any $\mathcal{D}_1, \dots, \mathcal{D}_k$, we have*

$$F(\mathcal{D}_1, \dots, \mathcal{D}_k) = \frac{|\mathcal{D}_1| \cdots |\mathcal{D}_k|}{|G|} \sum_{i=1}^R \frac{\chi_i(\mathcal{D}_1) \cdots \chi_i(\mathcal{D}_k)}{\dim(V_i)^{k-2}}.$$

Proof. Let $D_i = \sum_{g \in \mathcal{D}_i} g \in Z(K[G])$, note that $F(\mathcal{D}_1, \dots, \mathcal{D}_n) =$ coefficients of 1_G in $D_1 \cdots D_k$. Then observe that

$$\chi_{\text{reg}}(g) = \begin{cases} |G| & \text{if } g \in 1_G, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise (because } gh \neq h, \forall h \in G) \end{cases}.$$

Thus $\chi_{\text{reg}}(x) = |G|$ multiplies the coefficient of 1_G in x . Hence $F(\mathcal{D}_1, \dots, \mathcal{D}_n) = \frac{1}{|G|} \chi_{\text{reg}}(D_1 \cdots D_k)$. Moreover, $V_{\text{reg}} \simeq \bigoplus \dim(V_i) V_i$ thus $\chi_{\text{reg}} = \sum (V_i) \chi_i$. Therefore, we have

$$F(\mathcal{D}_1, \dots, \mathcal{D}_n) = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{i=1}^R \dim(V_i) \chi_i(D_1 \cdots D_n).$$

By fundamental isomorphism $\Gamma : K[G] \rightarrow \text{End}(V_i)$, we have $D_j \in Z(K[G])$ which implies that for any i , $\rho_i(D_j) = k_{ij} \text{Id}_{V_i}$ for some $k_{ij} \in k$. Moreover, $\chi_i(D_j) = k_{ij} \dim(V_i)$ thus we see

$$\begin{aligned} k_{ij} &= \frac{\chi_i(D_j)}{\dim(V_i)} = \frac{|\mathcal{D}_j| \chi_i(\mathcal{D}_j)}{\dim(V_i)} \\ \implies \forall i, \rho_i(D_1 \cdots D_j) &= \rho_i(D_1) \cdots \rho_i(D_k) = \prod_{j=1}^k \left(\frac{\mathcal{D}_j \chi_i(\mathcal{D}_j) \text{Id}_{V_i}}{\dim(V_i)} \right) \\ \implies \forall i, \chi_i(D_1 \cdots D_j) &= \frac{\prod_{j=1}^k |\mathcal{D}_j| \chi_i(\mathcal{D}_j)}{\dim(V_i)^{k-1}} \\ \implies F(\mathcal{D}_1 \cdots \mathcal{D}_n) &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{i=1}^R \frac{\prod_{j=1}^k |\mathcal{D}_j| \chi_i(\mathcal{D}_j)}{\dim(V_i)^{k-2}}. \end{aligned}$$

□

From now on we take $K = \mathbb{C}$.

Definition 2.3.2. We define an **inner product** \langle, \rangle on $\mathcal{F}(G) = K[G]^*$ by such that for all $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{F}(G)$, we have

$$\langle \phi, \psi \rangle = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \phi(g) \overline{\psi(g)},$$

where $\bar{\cdot}$ is complex conjugate.

Theorem 2.3.3 (Orthogonal Relations). *Let χ_1, \dots, χ_R be the characters of irreps. We have*

(1). *For all i, j , $\langle \chi_i, \chi_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$. In other words, χ_1, \dots, χ_R forms an orthogonal basis of $\mathcal{CF}(G)$.*

(2). *For all i, j , we have*

$$\sum_{k=1}^R \chi_k(C_i) \overline{\chi_k(C_j)} = \delta_{i,j} \frac{|G|}{|C_i|},$$

where C_1, \dots, C_R are the conjugacy classes.

Lemma 2.3.4. *Let χ be a character of G , then we have*

$$\chi(g^{-1}) = \overline{\chi(g)}, \forall g \in G.$$

Proof. Exercise. □

Proof of Theorem 2.3.3. For (2), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^R \chi_k(C_i) \overline{\chi_k(C_j)} &= \sum_{k=1}^R \chi_k(C_i) \chi_k(C_j^{-1}) = \frac{|G|}{|C_i||C_j|} F(C_i, C_j^{-1}) \\ &= \frac{|G|}{|C_i||C_j|} \delta_{ij} |C_i| = \frac{|G|}{|C_i|} \delta_{ij}. \end{aligned}$$

For (1), let $M = (\frac{\sqrt{|C_i|} \chi_j(C_i)}{\sqrt{|G|}})$, then we have

$$\begin{aligned} (2) &\implies M \cdot \overline{M^T} = \text{Id} \implies M^T \cdot \overline{M} = \text{Id} \\ &\implies \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_k |C_k| \chi_i(C_k) \overline{\chi_j(C_k)} = \delta_{ij} \iff \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_i(g) \overline{\chi_j(g)} = \delta_{ij}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence the corollary. □

Corollary 2.3.5. *Let V, V' be finite dimensional G -representations and let χ, χ' be their characters. Then we have*

$$V \simeq V' \iff \chi = \chi'.$$

Proof. (\implies): If $V \simeq V'$, then there exists an invertible matrix P such that

$$\forall x \in K[G], \rho'(x) = P^{-1} \rho(x) P.$$

Hence

$$\forall x \in K[G], \chi'(x) = \text{Tr}(\rho'(x)) = \text{Tr}(P^{-1} \rho(x) P) = \text{Tr}(\rho(x)) = \chi(x).$$

(\Longleftarrow): Suppose $\chi = \chi'$, we can decompose V, V' into irreps:

$$V \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^r m_i V_i \text{ and } V' \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^r m'_i V_i.$$

This gives $\chi = \sum_{i=1}^r m_i \chi_i = \chi' = \sum_{i=1}^r m'_i \chi_i$. Hence by Theorem 2.2.5, we have $m_i = m'_i$ for all i . Thus $V \simeq V'$. \square

Corollary 2.3.6. *Suppose $K = \mathbb{C}$. Let V, V' be G -representations and let χ, χ' be their characters. Let χ_1, \dots, χ_r be the characters of the irreps V_1, \dots, V_r of G . Then*

- (a). *The multiplicity m_k of V_k in V is $\langle \chi, \chi_k \rangle$.*
- (b). *We have $\langle \chi, \chi' \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^r m_k m'_k = \dim(\text{Hom}_G(V, V'))$ where we have m_k, m'_k multiplicities of V_k in V, V' .*

Proof. The characters χ_1, χ_r are orthonormal for the inner product, so

- (a). We have $V \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^r m_i V_i \implies \chi = \sum_{i=1}^r m_i \chi_i \implies \langle \chi, \chi_k \rangle = \langle \sum_i m_i \chi_i, \chi_k \rangle = m_k$.
- (b). We have $\langle \chi, \chi' \rangle = \langle \sum_i m_i \chi_i, \sum_j m'_j \chi_j \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^r m_k m'_k = \dim(\text{Hom}_G(V, V'))$ where the last equality is by the corollary of Schur's Lemma.

Hence the corollary. \square

Exercise: Let $G = S_n$ and let V be the representation given by $V = C^n$ and $\pi \cdot e_i = e_{\pi(i)}$ for all i in $[n]$. Multiplicity of trivial representation in $V = ?$

We see $\langle \chi_V, \chi_{\text{trivial}} \rangle = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi \in S_n} \text{fix}(\pi) = \text{average number of fixed points} = 1$ where $\text{fix}(\pi)$ is the number of fixed points of π .

Note that V is the sum of 2 irreps $\iff \langle \chi_V, \chi_V \rangle = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi \in S_n} \text{fix}(\pi)^2 = 2$.

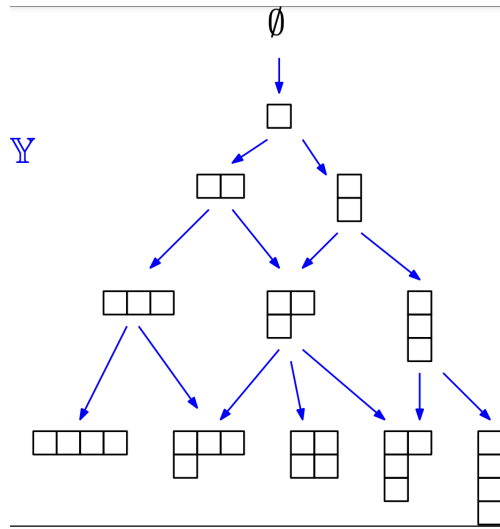
2.4 Restricted and Induced Representations

Definition 2.4.1. Let H be a subgroup of G . Any representation (V, ρ) of G gives a representation of H by taking the restriction $\rho|_H : H \rightarrow \text{End}(V)$. We denote by $V_{G \rightarrow H}$ this **restricted representation** of H .

Remark 2.4.2. For an irreducible repres of G , the restriction may not be irreducible.

Example 2.4.3. Irreps of symmetric group (not proved in this class).

Recall conjugacy classes of $S_n \iff$ cyclic types \iff “partitions of n ” = ways of writing n as a sum of positive integers $n = n_1 + \cdots + n_k$ (with n_i arranged in weakly decreasing order) \iff “Young diagram”,



Hence the number of irreps of S_n = number of partitions of n = Young diagrams with n boxes.

Fact: one can index the irreps of S_n by the Young diagram in such a way that the set of irreps of S_n is V_λ , λ Young diagram of size n and

$$(V_\lambda)_{S_n \rightarrow S_{n-1}} = \bigoplus_{\mu \subset \lambda \text{ obtained by deleting one corner box}} V_\mu.$$

Corollary 2.4.4. *We have $\dim(V_\lambda)$ = number of paths from \emptyset to λ in the Young lattice.*

Question: For $H \triangleleft G$, how can we get a repres of G from a repres of H ?

Reminder: We have G acts on G/H by left-translation: If $G/H = \{a_1H, \cdots, a_kH\}$, this action is

$$\alpha : G \longrightarrow \text{Perm}(G/H),$$

$$\alpha(g) : a_iH \longmapsto ga_iH.$$

This action gives a representation (W, τ) where the matrices $\tau(g) = (t_{i,j})_{i,j \in [k]}$ are permutation matrices: $t_{i,j} = 1$ if $ga_jH = a_iH$ and 0 otherwise.

Definition 2.4.5. Let H be a subgroup of G . Let a_1, \cdots, a_k in G be representatives of left-cosets: $G/H = \{a_1H, \cdots, a_kH\}$. Let (V, ρ) be a H -representation. The **induced representation** $(V_{H \rightarrow G}, \rho_{H \rightarrow G})$ (for our choice a_1, \cdots, a_k) is the

G -representation with matrices

$$\forall g \in G, \rho_{H \rightarrow G}(g) = \begin{pmatrix} M_{1,1}(g) & & M_{1,k}(g) \\ & \ddots & \\ M_{k,1}(g) & & M_{k,k}(g) \end{pmatrix},$$

where $M_{i,j}(g) = \begin{cases} \rho(a_i^{-1}ga_j) & \text{if } ga_jH = a_iH \text{ (equivalently } a_i^{-1}ga_j \in H), \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

Lemma 2.4.6. *We have the following:*

- (1). *The tuple $(V_{H \rightarrow G}, \rho_{H \rightarrow G})$ is indeed a representation: this means that for all g, g' , we have $\rho_{H \rightarrow G}(gg') = \rho_{H \rightarrow G}(g) \circ \rho_{H \rightarrow G}(g')$.*
- (2). *Changing the representatives a_i gives an isomorphic representation.*
- (3). *The character $\chi_{H \rightarrow G}$ of $V_{H \rightarrow G}$ is related to the character χ of V as follows:*

$$\forall g \in G, \chi_{H \rightarrow G}(g) = \frac{1}{|H|} \sum_{f \in G | f^{-1}gf \in H} \chi(f^{-1}gf).$$

Proof. We prove (1), (3), and (2) respectively.

(1). Multiplying by blocks we get

$$\rho_{H \rightarrow G}(g)\rho_{H \rightarrow G}(g') = \begin{pmatrix} B_{i,j} \\ \\ \end{pmatrix}, B_{i,j} = \sum_{d=1}^k M_{i,d}(g)M_{d,j}(g'),$$

with $B_{i,j} = 0$ unless there exists d in $[k]$ such that $g'a_jH = a_dH$ and $ga_dH = a_iH$ (and this occurs if and only if $gg'a_jH = a_iH$). In this case, we have

$$B_{i,j} = M_{i,d}(g)M_{d,j}(g') = \rho(a_i^{-1}ga_d)\rho(a_d^{-1}g'a_j) = \rho(a_i^{-1}gg'a_j) = M_{i,j}(gg').$$

Hence $\rho_{H \rightarrow G}(g) \circ \rho_{H \rightarrow G}(g') = \rho_{H \rightarrow G}(gg')$.

(3). We have

$$\begin{aligned} \chi_{H \rightarrow G}(g) &= \sum_{i | a_i^{-1}ga_i \in H} \chi(a_i^{-1}ga_i) = \sum_{i | a_i^{-1}ga_i \in H} \frac{1}{|H|} \sum_{h \in H} \chi(h^{-1}a_i^{-1}ga_ih) \\ &= \frac{1}{|H|} \sum_{f \in G | f^{-1}gf \in H} \chi(f^{-1}gf), \end{aligned}$$

where $f = a_ih$ and the last equality is from if $aH = bH$, then $a^{-1}ga \in H$ if and only if $b^{-1}gb \in H$.

(2). By (3), character does not depend on a_1, \dots, a_k . Since a different choice of a_1, \dots, a_k gives the same character, the corresponding repres are isomorphic (by a previous corollary). \square

Corollary 2.4.7 (Frobenius Reciprocity). *Suppose $K = \mathbb{C}$, let H be a subgroup of G , let V be a representation of H with character χ and let V' be a representation of G with character χ' . Then we have*

$$\langle \chi_{H \rightarrow G}, \chi' \rangle = \langle \chi, \chi'_{G \rightarrow H} \rangle \text{ (inner product of } C[G]^* \text{ and } C[H]^* \text{)}.$$

Proof. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \chi_{H \rightarrow G}, \chi' \rangle &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_{H \rightarrow G}(g) \overline{\chi'(g)} = \frac{1}{|G||H|} \sum_{g, f \in G | f^{-1}gf \in H} \chi(f^{-1}gf) \overline{\chi'(g)} \\ &= \frac{1}{|G||H|} \sum_{g, f \in G | f^{-1}gf \in H} \chi(f^{-1}gf) \overline{\chi'(f^{-1}gf)}, \end{aligned}$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \chi_{H \rightarrow G}, \chi' \rangle &= \frac{1}{|G||H|} \sum_{h \in H} \sum_{g, f \in G | f^{-1}gf = h} \chi(h) \overline{\chi'(h)} = \frac{1}{|G||H|} \sum_{h \in H} |G| \chi(h) \overline{\chi'(h)} \\ &= \langle \chi, \chi'_{G \rightarrow H} \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Hence the proof. \square

Remark 2.4.8. For V, V' irreps of H and G respectively, this means that (via a previous corollary) multiplicity of V' in $V_{H \rightarrow G} =$ multiplicity of V in $V'_{H \rightarrow G}$.

Example 2.4.9. Consider $S_{n-1} \triangleleft S_n$. For any Young diagram λ we have

$$(V_\lambda)_{S_{n-1} \rightarrow S_n} = \bigoplus_{\mu \supset \lambda \text{ obtained by adding one box}} V_\mu.$$

Finite Dimensional Algebras

3.1 Fundamental Isomorphism

Throughout this subsection, we assume k algebraically closed, A is finite dimensional K -algebra (we do not have the Matschke Lemma).

Theorem 3.1.1 (Density Theorem). *Let $(V_1, \rho_1), \dots, (V_R, \rho_R)$ be non-isomorphic irreps of A , that is, for $v \in V_i$, $A \cdot v = V_i$. Let*

$$\Gamma : A \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{i=1}^R \text{End}(V_i),$$

$$x \longmapsto (\rho_1(x), \dots, \rho_R(x)).$$

Then Γ is a surjective algebra homomorphism.

Lemma 3.1.2. *Any subrepresentations of a sum of irreps is isomorphic to a sum of irreps.*

Proof. (1). Claim: Let $\phi : V \rightarrow W$ be representation homomorphism such that there exists $\psi : W \rightarrow V$ representation homomorphism and $\phi \circ \psi = \text{Id}_W$. Then $V \simeq \ker \phi \oplus \text{Im} \phi$. Proof of claim as exercise.

(2). Let W be subrepresentations of $V = \bigoplus m_i V_i$, and V_i are irreps, we show $W \simeq$ sum of V_i by induction on $\sum m_i$.

Base case $\sum m_i = 0$ trivial.

Induction step: Let $W \xrightarrow{\phi} \bigoplus m_i V_i$ inclusion map, let U be irreducible subrepresentation of W , then ϕ decomposes: there exists $\phi_{k,j} : W \rightarrow V_k, k \in [R], j \in [m_k]$ representation homomorphism such that

$$\phi(x) = (\phi_{k,j}(x))_{k \in [R], j \in [m_k]}.$$

We have $\phi_{k,j}|_U : U \rightarrow V_k$ is 0 as isomorphism since U, V_k irreducible. Also there exists k, j such that $\phi_{k,j}|_U$ is isomorphism. Thus $U \simeq V_k$ and there exists $\psi := (\phi_{k,j}|_U)^{-1}$ such that $\phi_{k,j} \circ \psi = \text{Id}_{V_k}$. By previous choice $W \simeq \text{Im}(\phi_{k,j}) \oplus \ker(\phi_{k,j})$ where the first component is V_k and the second component is isomorphic to $\bigoplus m'_i V_i$ where $m'_k = m_k - 1, m_i = m_i, \forall i \neq k$. By the induction hypothesis, $\ker(\phi_{k,j}) \simeq \text{sum of irreps}$ and hence $W \simeq \text{sum of irreps}$.

Hence the lemma. \square

Proof of Theorem 3.1.1. Let $n_k = \dim(V_k)$, let $(e_{k,1}, \dots, e_{k,n_k})$, let

$$\psi : A \longrightarrow \bigoplus m_k V_k,$$

$$x \longmapsto (x \cdot e_{k,j})_{k \in [R], j \in [n_k]}.$$

Note that $x \cdot e_{k,j} = \rho_k(x)(e_{k,j}) = "j\text{-th column of } \rho_k(x)"$. Therefore Γ surjective $\iff \psi$ surjective. Now we want to show ψ is surjective.

Since $\text{Im} \psi \subseteq \bigoplus n_k V_k$, $\text{Im} \psi \simeq \bigoplus n_k V_k$ by lemma. To prove surjectivity, it suffices to show $m_k = n_k$ for all k (by dimension argument). Consider the map

$$\phi : \bigoplus m_k V_k \simeq \text{Im}(\psi) \hookrightarrow \bigoplus n_k V_k,$$

where ϕ from the first term on the left to the last term with ϕ being representation homomorphism. Decomposition of homomorphism ϕ : there is $\phi_{l,i,k,j} : V_l \rightarrow V_k$ with

$$\phi((V)_{l,i})_{l \in [R], i \in [m_l]} = \left(\sum_{l,i} \phi_{l,i,k,j}(V_{l,i}) \right)_{k \in [R], j \in [m_k]}.$$

By Schur Lemma, $\phi_{l,i,k,j} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } l \neq k, \\ c_{ij}^{(k)} \text{Id}_{V_k} & \text{if } l = k, c_{ij}^{(k)} \in k. \end{cases}$

Note that $(e_{k,j})_{k \in [R], j \in [n_k]} = \psi(1_A) \in \text{Im}(\phi)$. Therefore we have for all $k \in [R]$, $\exists V_{k,1}, \dots, V_{k,m_k} \in V_k$ such that

$$\begin{pmatrix} c_{ij}^{(a)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V_{k,1} \\ V_{k,2} \\ \vdots \\ V_{k,m_k} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} e_{k,1} \\ e_{k,2} \\ \vdots \\ e_{k,m_k} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence $V_{k,1}, \dots, V_{k,m_k}$ generates the basis $e_{k,1}, \dots, e_{k,n_k}$. Therefore $m_k \geq n_k, \forall k$. \square

Definition 3.1.3. Let $\text{rad}(A) = \{x \in A \mid \forall (V, \rho) \text{ irreps } \rho(x) = 0\}$ be the **Jacobson radical** of A .

Theorem 3.1.4 (Fundamental Isomorphism). *Let A be finite dimensional algebra over algebraically closed field k . There are finitely many (non-isomorphic) irreps of A . They are $(V_1, \rho_1), \dots, (V_R, \rho_R)$ and*

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma : A/\text{rad}(A) &\longrightarrow \bigoplus \text{End}(V_i), \\ x + \text{rad}(A) &\longmapsto (\rho_1(x), \dots, \rho_R(x)),\end{aligned}$$

is isomorphism of algebra.

Proof. We have

- By density theorem, if V_1, \dots, V_k non-isomorphism irreps of A , then $A \rightarrow \bigoplus \text{End}(V_i)$ is surjective. Hence $\dim(A) \geq \sum \dim(\bigoplus \text{End}(V_i)) \geq k$. Hence at most $\dim(A)$ irreps.
- By density theorem, the map

$$\begin{aligned}\Lambda : A &\longrightarrow \bigoplus \text{End}(V_i), \\ x &\longmapsto (\rho_1(x), \dots, \rho_R(x))\end{aligned}$$

is surjective. Hence by basis isomorphism, $A/\ker(\Lambda) \simeq \bigoplus \text{End}(V_i)$.

- We have $\ker \Gamma = \{a \in A \mid \rho_1(a) = 0, \dots, \rho_R(a) = 0\} = \text{rad}(A)$.

Hence the theorem. □

Theorem 3.1.5. *Let A be finite dimensional algebra, then*

$$\text{rad}(A) \stackrel{(1)}{=} \{x \in A \mid \exists n > 0, (x)^n = \{0\}\} \stackrel{(2)}{=} \bigcap_{M \text{ maximized left-ideal of } A} M,$$

where (x) is two-sided ideal generated by x . Then $I \times J = \{\sum_{i=1}^k xy, x_i \in I, y_i \in J\}$ product of ideal which implies $I^n = \{\sum_{i=1}^k x_{i1}, \dots, x_{im} \mid x_{i,k} \in I\}$.

Lemma 3.1.6. *For any finite dimensional representations A , there is **filtration** $0 = V_0 \subseteq V_1 \subseteq \dots \subseteq V_n = V$ subrepresentations such that V_i/V_{i-1} is irreducible.*

Proof. Induction on $\dim(V)$.

Let V_1 be an irreducible subrepresentation, by induction hypothesis V/V_1 has a filtration, then

$$U_0 \subset U_1 \subset \dots \subset U_k = V/V_1 \cdots V_i/V_{i-1} \text{ irreducible.}$$

By basic isomorphism,

$$\{\text{subrepresentation of } V/V_1\} \xleftrightarrow{\text{bijection}} \{\text{subrepresentations of } V \text{ containing } V_1\},$$

$$W/W_1 \longleftarrow W.$$

Hence there exists $W_0 \subseteq W_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq W_k \subseteq V$ such that $U_i = \frac{W_i}{V_1}$ and $W_i/W_{i-1} \simeq (W_i/V_1)/(W_{i-1}/V_1) = U_i/U_{i-1}$ irreducible. Thus $0 \subseteq W_0 = V_1 \subseteq W_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq W_k = V$ is a filtration for V . \square

Proof of Theorem 3.1.5. For part (1):

Suppose $x \notin \text{rad}(A)$, then there is (V, ρ) irreps such that $\rho(x) \neq 0$. Since $(x) \cdot V$ is a nondegenerate subrepresentation, we get $(x) \cdot V = V$. Hence for all m , $(x)^m V = V$ implies that for all m , $(x)^m \neq 0$.

Let $0 = V_0 \subseteq V_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq V_m = V_{\text{reg}}$ subrepresentation such that V_i/V_{i-1} irreducible. For all $x \in \text{rad}(A)$, for all i , we have $xV_i/V_{i-1} = 0$ hence $xV_i \subseteq V_{i-1}$. Therefore for all $x \in (\text{rad}(A))^m$, $xV_m \subseteq V_0 = 0$. Hence $(\text{rad}(A))^m = 0$ and $\forall x \in \text{rad}(A)$, $(x)^m \subseteq (\text{rad}(A))^m = 0$ therefore $x \cdot 1_A = 0$ thus $x = 0$.

For part (2):

Remark: We have I is left ideal of A if and only if I is subrepresentation of $V_{\text{reg}} = A$. Also M is maximal left ideal of A if and only if V_{reg}/M are irreducible representations.

(\subseteq): Let $x \in \text{rad}(A)$. By (1), there is m , $(x)^m = 0$ hence for all $a \in A$, $(ax)^m = 0$. Therefore $\forall a \in A$, $1 - ax$ is invertible become $(1 - ax)(1 + ax + (ax)^2 + \cdots + (ax)^{m-1}) = 1 - (ax)^m = 1$. Hence $x \in \bigcap_{M \text{ max left ideal}} M$. Indeed if $x \notin M$ on maximal left ideal, then $Ax + M = A$ where Ax is left ideal. Hence $\exists m \in M, a \in A$ such that $ax + m = 1_A$. Therefore $m = 1 - ax$ invertible by above and contradicts $M \neq A$.

(\supseteq): Homework: $x \in \bigcap M \implies x \in \bigcap_{i, v \in V_i} \text{Ann}_{\rho_i}(v) = \text{rad}(A)$. \square

3.2 Semisimplicity

Definition 3.2.1. An A -representation is **semisimple** if it is isomorphic to a sum of irreducible.

Example 3.2.2. If $A = K[G]$ is a group algebra over k of $\text{char}(k) \nmid |G|$. Then any A -representation is semisimple by Matsuoka lemma.

Theorem 3.2.3. Let k be algebraically closed field, and let A be a finite dimensional K -algebra, the following are equivalent:

- (1). Any finite dimensional A -representation is semisimple (= decomposable into irreps);
- (2). The regular representation is semisimple;
- (3). The radical $\text{rad}(A) = 0$;

(4). There is finite dimensional vector spaces V_1, \dots, V_R such that $A \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^R \text{End}(V_i)$ as algebra.

We call A **semisimple** in this case. In this case, V_1, \dots, V_R can be given the structure of A -representations as follows: if

$$\Gamma : A \longrightarrow \bigoplus \text{End}(V_i),$$

$$a \longmapsto (\rho_1(a), \dots, \rho_R(a)),$$

is isomorphism of algebra, then (V_i, ρ_i) is A -representation for all i . Moreover

(a). The spaces V_1, \dots, V_R be all the irreps of A up to isomorphism.

(b). The regular $V_{\text{reg}} \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^R \dim(V_i)V_i$ as A -representations.

Proof. (1) \implies (2) is trivial.

(2) \implies (3): suppose $V_{\text{reg}} \simeq \bigoplus m_i V_i$ are irreps, there is $1_a \in V_{\text{reg}}$ implies that there is $v = (v_{i,j})_{i \in [n], j \in [m_i]} \in \bigoplus m_i V_i$ such that for all $a \in A \setminus \{0\}$, $a \cdot v \neq 0$ since $a \cdot 1_A \neq 0$. Let $a \in A \setminus \{0\}$ and let $a \cdot v = (a \cdot V_{ij})$, there is i, j , $a \cdot V_{ij} \neq 0 \implies \rho_i(a)(V_{ij}) \neq 0 \implies \rho_i(a) \neq a \implies a \notin \text{rad}(A)$.

(3) \implies (4): Proved as corollary of the density theorem.

It remains to show (4) \implies (1), (a), (b).

(4) \implies (b): Sketch: The representation $V_{\text{reg}} \stackrel{\Gamma}{\simeq} \bigoplus \text{End}(V_i) \simeq \bigoplus \dim(V_i)V_i$. We give $\text{End}(V_i)$ the structure of A -representations as follows. For any $a \in A$, for all $f \in \text{End}(V_i)$, we have $a \cdot f = \rho_i(a) \circ f$. The map Γ is a homomorphism of A representation since

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot \Gamma(x) &= a(\rho_1(x), \dots, \rho_R(x)) = (a\rho_1(x), \dots, a\rho_R(x)) \\ &= (\rho_1(a) \circ \rho_1(x), \dots, \rho_R(a) \circ \rho_R(x)). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\Gamma(a \cdot x) = (\rho_1(ax), \dots, \rho_R(ax)) = (\rho_1(a) \circ \rho_1(x), \dots, \rho_R(a) \circ \rho_R(x)).$$

Hence $V_{\text{reg}} \stackrel{\Gamma}{\simeq} \bigoplus \text{End}(V_i)$. Hence $\text{End}(V_1) \simeq \dim(V_1)V_1$. Indeed, if $\{e_1, \dots, e_d\}$ is a basis of V_i , then an isomorphism is given by

$$\rho : \text{End}(V_1) \longrightarrow \dim(V_1)V_1,$$

$$f \longmapsto (f(e_1), \dots, f(e_d)).$$

(check this!) Lastly V_i is irreducible since for all $v \in V_i \setminus \{0\}$ we have $A \cdot v = \text{End}(V_i) \cdot V = V_i$.

(4) \implies (1) + (a): It actually suffices to show that any finite dimensional A -representation is isomorphic to subrepresentation of mV_{reg} for some m (since subrepresentations of sum of irreps is isomorphic to sum of irreps).

We give the dual vector space A^* the structure of A -representations: for all $a \in A$, for all $f \in A^*$, we have

$$a \cdot f = \begin{cases} A \rightarrow K \\ x \rightarrow f(xa) \end{cases}.$$

[Check A^* is an A -representation].

We have the following claim:

Claim 1: Any A -representations (V, ρ) of $\dim d$ is isomorphic to a subrepresentation of aA^* .

Claim 2: We have (4) $\implies A \simeq A^*$ as representations where the left hand side is V_{reg} .

Proof of Claim 1: For $f \in V^*$ and $v \in V$ we define

$$f^v : A \longrightarrow K,$$

$$x \longmapsto f(x \cdot v).$$

Clearly $f^v \in A^*$, moreover $f^{av} = af^v$ ($f^{av}(x) = f(xav) = (af^v)(x)$). Hence

$$V \longrightarrow A^*,$$

$$v \longmapsto f^v,$$

is a homomorphism of A representations. Let f_1, \dots, f_d be a basis of V^* , by above

$$\phi \cdot v \longrightarrow dA^*,$$

$$v \longmapsto (f_1^v, \dots, f_d^v),$$

is A -representations homomorphism. Moreover ϕ is injective since $\phi(v) = 0 \implies \forall i, f_1^v(1_A) = 0 \implies \forall i, f_i(v) = 0 \implies v = 0$. Hence $V \simeq \text{Im}(\phi) \subseteq dA^*$.

Proof of Claim 2: Let $A = \bigoplus \text{End}(V_i)$, let

$$\phi : A \longrightarrow A^*,$$

$$(\rho_1, \dots, \rho_R) = a \longmapsto \left(\begin{array}{c} A \rightarrow K \\ (f_1, \dots, f_R) \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^R T_R(f_i \circ \rho_i) \end{array} \right).$$

This is isomorphism of A -representations. Thus we see homomorphism (check, $\dim(A) = \dim(A^*)$ checked, how about injectivity?

We see ϕ is injective because $\phi(\rho_1, \dots, \rho_R) = 0$ implies that all the coefficients in the matrices of ρ_1, \dots, ρ_R are 0. Hence $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_R = 0$. \square

Theorem 3.2.4 (Wedderburn's Theorem). *We have*

- *Radical $\text{rad}(A) = 0$ implies that $A \simeq \bigoplus \text{Mat}_{M_i}(k)$ if k is algebraically closed.*
- *Radical $\text{rad}(A) = 0$ implies that $A \simeq \bigoplus \text{Mat}_{M_i}(D_i)$ division algebra over k in general.*

Part II

Commutative Algebra

We are studying the correspondence

Geometry \longleftrightarrow Algebra,

$$p(a) = 0 \longleftrightarrow p \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n], a \in \mathbb{C}^n,$$

a belong to locus of 0 of $p \longleftrightarrow p$ belong to the ideal $\ker(p_{V^{\mathbb{C}}})$.

Throughout we assume all rings are commutative unless otherwise stated.

Preliminaries on Ideals

4.1 Basic Operations

Definition 4.1.1. Let R be a commutative ring, $I \subseteq R$ is **ideal** if it is closed under $+$, $-$ and $RI \subseteq I$.

Remark 4.1.2. If I, J are ideals, then $I \cap J$ is an ideal.

Definition 4.1.3. For $S \subseteq R$, we say $(S) = \bigcap_{S \subseteq I \text{ ideal}} I$ is the **ideal generated by S** .

Remark 4.1.4. Ideal $I \neq R$ if and only if I does not contain a unit (invertible element).

Definition 4.1.5. Let I, J ideals, then we define the **sum of ideals** $I + J = \{x + y | x \in I, y \in J\} = (I \cup J)$.

We define the **product of ideals** $IJ = (\{xy | x \in I, y \in J\}) = \{\sum_{i=1}^m x_i y_i | m \geq 0, x_i \in I, y_i \in J\}$.

We define the **ideal quotient** $(I : J) = \{r \in R | rJ \subseteq I\}$.

Definition 4.1.6. We say ideal I is **prime** if $R \setminus I$ is closed under multiplication ($\forall x_1, \dots, x_n \notin I \implies x_1 \cdots x_n \notin I$).

Remark 4.1.7. Let $x \notin I$ prime ideal, for all m we have $x^m \notin I$.

Definition 4.1.8. Let $I \subseteq R$ be ideal, the **radical of I** is $r(I) = \{x \in R | \exists m > 0, x^m \in I\}$. The **nilradical** of R is $r(0) = \{x \in R | \exists m > 0, x^m = 0\}$.

Example 4.1.9. Take $R = \mathbb{Z}, I = (m)$, then we have $r(I) = (p_1 \cdots p_k)$ where $p_1 \cdots p_k$ be distinct primes of $m = \bigcap_{i=1}^k (p_i)$.

Proposition 4.1.10. For all $I \subseteq R$ ideal, we have $r(I) = \bigcap_{I \subseteq P \text{ prime}} P$ (in particular, $r(I)$ is an ideal).

Proof. (\subseteq) : Consider $x \in r(I)$ we have $\exists m > 0, x^m \in I \implies \forall I \subseteq P$ prime, $x^m \in P \implies \forall I \subseteq P$ prime, $x \in P \implies x \in \bigcap_{I \subseteq P \text{ prime}} P$.

(\supseteq) : Let $x \notin r(I)$, let $\Omega = \{J \subseteq R \mid I \subseteq J, J \cap \{x, x^2, x^3, \dots\} = \emptyset\}$. Note $I \in \Omega$ hence $\Omega \neq \emptyset$. Let P be a maximal element of Ω for inclusion (such a maximal element exists by Zorn's Lemma). We claim that P is prime.

Let $a, b \notin P \implies P + (a), P + (b) \notin \Omega \implies \exists m, n > 0$ such that $x^m \in P + (a), x^n \in P + (b) \implies x^{m+n} \in (P + (a))(P + (b)) = P + (ab) \implies P + (ab) \notin \Omega \implies ab \notin P$. Therefore $x \in P \implies x \in \bigcap_{I \subseteq Q \text{ prime}} Q$. \square

Lemma 4.1.11. *We have*

- $I \subseteq r(I)$,
- $r(r(I)) = r(I)$,
- $r(I) = R \iff I = R$,
- $r(IJ) = r(I \cap J) = r(I) \cap r(J)$,
- I prime $\implies r(I) = I \implies \forall m > 0, r(I^m) = I$.

Proof. Easy check. \square

4.2 Extension and Contraction of Ideals

Definition 4.2.1. Let $f : R \rightarrow T$ be a ring homomorphism, then we define

- For I ideal of R , the f -**extension** of I is $I^e = (f(I))$ the ideal generated by $f(x), x \in I$.
- For J ideal of T , the f -**contraction** of J is $J^c = f^{-1}(J) = \{x \in I \mid f(x) \in J\}$.

Remark 4.2.2. We have J^c is an ideal since $f(x), f(y) \in J \implies f(x + y) \in J, f(rx) \in J$. This gives

$$\{\text{ideals of } R\} \xrightleftharpoons[c]{e} \{\text{ideals of } T\}.$$

Remark 4.2.3. We have $J \subset T$ prime $\implies J^c$ prime. Note that $I \subseteq R$ prime does not imply I^e is prime ($f(x), f(y) \notin J \implies f(xy) = f(x)f(y) \in J$).

Example 4.2.4 (Example of I prime, I^e not prime.). Let

$$f : \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}[i],$$

$$n \longmapsto n,$$

and let $I = 5\mathbb{Z}$. We see I prime but $I^e = 5\mathbb{Z}[i]$ not prime since $(2 + i)(2 - i) = 5$ since the left hand side terms are not in I^e and the right hand side term is in I^e .

Definition 4.2.5. Given $f : R \rightarrow T$, and ideal I of R is called **contracted** if there is J , such that $I = J^c$. Similarly, an ideal J of T is called **extended** if there is I such that $J = I^e$.

Lemma 4.2.6. *We have*

$$\forall I \subseteq R, I^{ec} \supseteq I,$$

$$\forall J \subseteq T, J^{ce} \subseteq J.$$

Further we have

$$\forall I \subseteq R, I^{ece} = I^e,$$

$$\forall J \subseteq T, J^{cec} = J^c.$$

Proof. First two statements are routine check. For the last two, we see $I^{ece} = (I^e)^{ce} \subseteq I^e$. Also we have $I^{ece} = (I^{ec})^e \supseteq I^e$. Same for J . \square

Corollary 4.2.7. *We have that for all $I \subseteq R$ contracted $I^{ec} = I$. For all $J \subseteq R$ extended $J^{ce} = J$. Hence*

$$\{I \subseteq R \text{ contracted}\} \xrightleftharpoons[c]{e} \{J \subseteq T \text{ extended}\}$$

are bijections.

Lemma 4.2.8. *Let $f : R \rightarrow T$ ring homomorphism, let I_1, I_2 ideals of R and J_1, J_2 ideals of T , we have*

$$(1). (I_1 + I_2)^e = I_1^e + I_2^e,$$

$$(2). (I_1 I_2)^e = I_1^e I_2^e,$$

$$(3). (I_1 \cap I_2)^e \subseteq I_1^e \cap I_2^e,$$

$$(4). r(I)^e \subseteq r(I^e),$$

$$(5). (I_1 : I_2)^e \subseteq (I_1^e : I_2^e).$$

On the other hand,

$$(1). (J_1 + J_2)^c \supseteq J_1^c + J_2^c,$$

$$(2). (J_1 J_2)^c \supseteq J_1^c J_2^c,$$

$$(3). (J_1 \cap J_2)^c = J_1^c \cap J_2^c,$$

$$(4). r(J)^c = r(J^c),$$

$$(5). (J_1 : J_2)^c = (J_1^c : J_2^c).$$

Proof. Routine check. \square

Proposition 4.2.9. *Let $f : R \rightarrow T$ be ring homomorphism. Then $I \subseteq R$ is prime and contracted $\stackrel{(1)}{\iff} I$ contraction of a prime ideal. Also $J \subseteq T$ prime and extended $\stackrel{(2)}{\implies} J$ extension of a prime ideal.*

Proof. $(\stackrel{(1)}{\iff}) : I = J^c$ with J prime implies that I prime as seen above.

$(\stackrel{(2)}{\implies}) : J$ extended $\implies (J^c)^e = J$. Then J prime implies that J^c prime hence J is extension of prime.

$(\stackrel{(1)}{\implies}) : \text{To be completed.}$ □

Corollary 4.2.10. *If $f : R \rightarrow T$ homomorphism such that every ideal of T is extended. Then*

$$\{\text{contracted ideals of } R\} \stackrel{e}{\underset{c}{\rightleftharpoons}} \{\text{ideals of } T\}$$

are bijective and

$$\{\text{prime ideals of } R\} \stackrel{e}{\underset{c}{\rightleftharpoons}} \{\text{prime ideals of } T\}.$$

Example 4.2.11 (Example of quotient map). Let $K \subseteq R$ be an ideal of R and let

$$f : R \longrightarrow R/K,$$

$$x \longmapsto x + K$$

be the quotient map. Then we have

(1). For all $I \subseteq R$, $I^e = (\{x + K, x \in I\}) = (I + K)/K$.

(2). Every ideal of R/K is extended. Ideal J of R/K is $I^e = I/K$ for $I = \bigcup_{x+K \in J} x + K$.

(3). The contracted ideals of R are the ideals of R containing K . For $K \subseteq I \subseteq R$, we have $I^e = I/K$.

Hence $I \xrightarrow{e} I/K$ gives a bijection, we see

$$\{\text{ideals } I, K \subseteq I \subseteq R\} \xrightarrow{\text{bijection}} \{\text{ideals of } R/K\},$$

$$\{\text{prime ideals } I, K \subseteq I \subseteq R\} \xrightarrow{\text{bijection}} \{\text{prime ideals of } R/K\}.$$

Rings of Fractions

5.1 Definitions and Universal Properties

Let R be a commutative ring.

Definition 5.1.1. We call $S \subseteq R$ a **multiplicative set** if $1 \in S$, $0 \notin S$, and S is closed under multiplication.

Definition 5.1.2. Let $S \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative set. The **ring of fraction** is

$$S^{-1}R = \left\{ \frac{x}{s} \mid x \in R, s \in S \right\} / \sim,$$

where $\frac{x}{s} \sim \frac{y}{t}$ if $\exists u \in S$ such that $uxt = usy$. We can see $\frac{x}{s} + \frac{y}{t} = \frac{xt+ys}{st}$ and $\frac{x}{s} \times \frac{y}{t} = \frac{xy}{st}$ well defined (with respected to equivalence relation).

Proposition 5.1.3. The data $(S^{-1}R, +, \times, \frac{0}{1}, \frac{1}{1})$ is a ring. The map

$$\epsilon : R \longrightarrow S^{-1}R,$$

$$x \longmapsto \frac{x}{1},$$

is a ring homomorphism, which we call the “fraction map”.

Notation: The set of **units** (invertible elements for multiplication) in a ring R is denoted by $U(R)$.

Remark 5.1.4. The image of map $\epsilon(S) = \left\{ \frac{s}{1}, s \in S \right\} \subseteq U(S^{-1}R)$.

Proposition 5.1.5 (Universal Property). Let $S \subseteq R$ as a multiplicative set. Then

1. If $\phi : R \rightarrow T$ is a ring homomorphism such that $\phi(S) = U(T)$, then there exists a unique $\tilde{\phi} : S^{-1}R \rightarrow T$ ring homomorphism such that $\phi = \tilde{\phi} \circ \epsilon$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \xrightarrow{\forall \phi} & T \\ & \searrow \epsilon \quad \curvearrowright \quad \nearrow \exists! \tilde{\phi} & \\ & S^{-1}R & \end{array}$$

commutes.

2. The ring $S^{-1}R$ is uniquely determined by this property.

5.2 Ideal Correspondence for the Fraction Map

Notation: Let $S \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative set. Let $I \subseteq R$, we denote $S^{-1}I = \{\frac{x}{s} | x \in I, s \in S\}$.

Lemma 5.2.1. Let $S \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative set, let

$$\epsilon : R \longrightarrow S^{-1}R,$$

$$x \longmapsto \frac{x}{1}.$$

The extension and contraction of ideals through ϵ satisfy

- (1). For all $I \subseteq R$, $I^e = S^{-1}I$
- (2). Every ideal J of $S^{-1}R$ is ϵ -extended. The ideal $J = S^{-1}I$ for some ideal I of R .
- (3). We have $S^{-1}I \neq S^{-1}R$ if and only if $I \cap S = \emptyset$.

Proof. (1). By definition, we have $I^e = (\{\frac{x}{1}, x \in I\}) = \{\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{x_k}{s_k} | x_k \in I, s_k \in S\}$, then by putting to same denominators we have $\{\frac{x}{s} | x \in I, s \in S\} = S^{-1}I$.

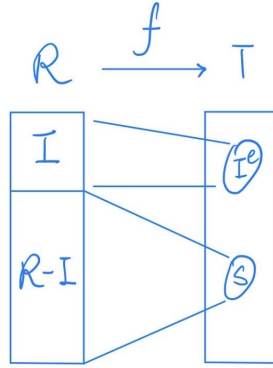
- (2). Let J be ideal of $S^{-1}R$, let $I = \{x \in R | \frac{x}{1} \in J\}$. Easy to check I is ideal of R and $J = S^{-1}I$.

- (3). We have

$$\begin{aligned} S^{-1}I = S^{-1}R &\iff \exists x \in I, \exists s \in S, \frac{x}{s} = \frac{1}{1} \\ &\iff \exists x \in I, \exists u, s \in S, ux = us \\ &\iff \exists y \in I, \exists t \in S, y = t \iff I \cap S \neq \emptyset. \end{aligned}$$

Hence the lemma. □

Proof of the one direction of Proposition 4.2.9 (1). Let $f : R \rightarrow T$ be a ring homomorphism and let $I \subseteq R$ be prime contracted ideal. Let $S = f(R \setminus I) = \{f(x) | x \in R \setminus I\}$. Then I contracted implies that $I^{ec} = I$ from previous results. Then $I^e \cap S = \emptyset$ (see picture).



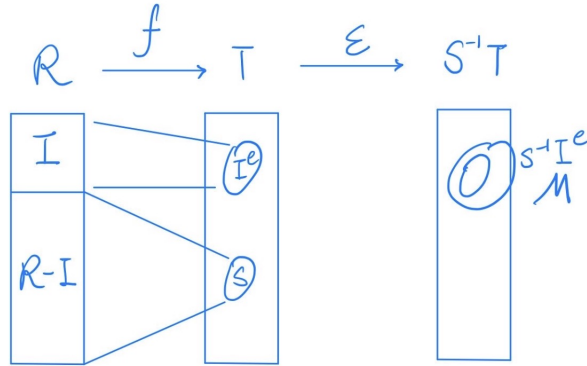
Then I prime implies that S is a multiplicative set (indeed $x, y \in R \setminus I$ implies that $f(x)f(y) = f(xy) \in S$ and $1 = f(1) \in S$ and $0 \notin S$ since $I^e \cap S = \emptyset$).

Let

$$\epsilon : T \longrightarrow S^{-1}T,$$

$$x \longmapsto \frac{x}{1},$$

be the fraction map. The corresponding picture we will need is below.



Then $I^e \cap S = \emptyset$ with the previous result implies that $S^{-1}I^e \neq S^{-1}T$. This implies that there exists a maximal ideal M of $S^{-1}T$ containing $S^{-1}I^e$. Since any ideal of $S^{-1}T$ is ϵ -extended, we have $M = S^{-1}P$ where P is the ϵ -contraction of M . Then M prime implies P prime. Further $S^{-1}P \not\subseteq S^{-1}T$ implies that $P \cap S = \emptyset$. Thus $I^e \subseteq P \subseteq T \setminus S$. Hence $P^c = I$ which shows I is contraction of a prime ideal. \square

Proposition 5.2.2. *Let $S \subseteq R$ be multiplicative set and let*

$$\epsilon : R \longrightarrow S^{-1}R,$$

$$x \mapsto \frac{x}{1},$$

then

- (1). Every ideal of $S^{-1}R$ is extended and $I^e = S^{-1}I$.
- (2). The contracted ideals are $I \subseteq R$ such that $x \notin I, s \in S \implies sx \notin I$.
- (3). The contracted prime ideals are $I \subseteq R$ prime such that $I \cap S = \emptyset$. Hence $I \xrightarrow{e} S^{-1}I$ gives bijection

$$\{I \subseteq R \text{ ideal s.t. } \forall x \notin I, \forall s \in S, sx \notin I\} \xleftrightarrow{\text{bij}} \{\text{ideal of } S^{-1}R\},$$

$$\{I \subseteq R \text{ prime ideal, } I \cap S = \emptyset\} \xleftrightarrow{\text{bij}} \{\text{prime ideal of } S^{-1}R\}.$$

Proof. (1). Already proved.

- (2). Ideal I contracted if and only if $I^{ec} = I$. Let $x \in R$, then

$$\begin{aligned} x \in I^{ec} &\iff x \in (S^{-1}I)^c \iff \frac{x}{1} \in S^{-1}I \\ &\iff \exists y \in I, s \in S, \frac{x}{1} = \frac{y}{s} \iff \exists y \in I, u, s \in S, usx = uy \\ &\iff \exists t \in S, tx \in I. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $I^{ec} = \{x \in R \mid \exists t \in S, tx \in I\}$. We have I contracted if and only if $I^{ec} = I$ if and only if $\forall x \notin I, \forall t \in S, tx \notin I$.

- (3). Let $I \subseteq R$ prime, then $I \cap S = \emptyset$ implies $\forall x \notin I, \forall s \in S, sx \notin I$ implies that I is contracted. Also $I \cap S \neq \emptyset$ implies that $I^e = S^{-1}I$ implies that $I^{ec} \neq I$ implies that I not contracted. Hence I prime is contracted if and only if $I \cap S = \emptyset$.

Hence the proposition is proved. \square

We have the bijection

$$\{I \subseteq R \setminus S \text{ prime ideal}\} \xrightarrow{I \mapsto S^{-1}I} \{\text{prime ideal of } S^{-1}R\}.$$

Notation: Let $P \subseteq R$ be prime ideal, $S = R \setminus P$ is a multiplicative set and we denote $R_P = S^{-1}R$. For $I \subseteq R$, we denote $I_P = S^{-1}I$.

Remark 5.2.3. For $P \subseteq R$ prime ideal, one has the following ideal correspondences

$$\{I \text{ prime ideal of } R, I \subseteq P\} \xleftrightarrow{\text{bij}} \{\text{prime ideal of } R_P\},$$

$$\{I \text{ prime ideal of } R, I \supseteq P\} \xleftrightarrow{\text{bij}} \{\text{prime ideal of } R/P\}.$$

Remark 5.2.4. For $P \subseteq R$ prime ideal, by above bijections we see that P_P is the unique maximal ideal of R_P . Hence R_P is a **local ring** and R_P/P_P is a field (residue field of R_P at P_P). The fraction map

$$\begin{aligned} R &\longrightarrow R_P, \\ x &\longmapsto \frac{x}{s}, \end{aligned}$$

is called **localization at P** .

Example 5.2.5. Let $R = \mathbb{C}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$, $P \subseteq R$ be prime ideal. Then the local ring $R_P = \{\frac{f}{g} | f, g \text{ polynomial}, g \notin P\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}(X_1, \dots, X_n)$.

Let $Z(P) = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{C}^n | \forall f \in P, f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0\}$, this is the “algebraic variety defined by P ”. Then R_P is the ring of rational functions which are defined “almost everywhere” on $Z(P)$. We see P_P is rational functions which are 0 on $Z(P)$. The quotient R_P/P_P “identify rational functions if they have same value on $Z(P)$ ”.

Localizations of Modules

6.1 Definitions and Construction as “Extension of Scalars”

Definition 6.1.1 (Module of Fraction). Let R be a ring and $S \subseteq R$ be multiplicative set. For a R –module M , we define the $S^{-1}R$ –module $S^{-1}M$ as follows

- The module $S^{-1}M = \{\frac{x}{s} | x \in M, s \in S\} / \sim$, where $\frac{x}{s} \sim \frac{y}{t}$ if $\exists u \in S, utx = usy$.
- The sum $\frac{x}{s} + \frac{y}{t} = \frac{tx + sy}{st}$.
- The product $\frac{r}{s} \cdot \frac{x}{t} = \frac{rx}{st}$ where $\frac{r}{s} \in S^{-1}R$ and $\frac{x}{t} \in S^{-1}M$.

Claim: The operations are well defined (with respect to equivalence relation) and give $S^{-1}M$ the structure of $S^{-1}R$ –module (if $\frac{x}{s} \sim \frac{y}{t}$ then $\frac{x}{s} \sim \frac{utx}{uts} = \frac{usy}{uts} \sim \frac{y}{t}$).

Proof. Exercise. □

Remark 6.1.2. Note that the module $S^{-1}M$ is actually a $(R, S^{-1}R)$ –bimodule (with R –action, $r \frac{x}{s} := \frac{rx}{s}$). This is a restriction of scalar construction corresponding to the homomorphism $\epsilon : R \rightarrow S^{-1}R$.

Proposition 6.1.3. We have $S^{-1}M \simeq S^{-1}R \otimes_R M$ as $S^{-1}R$ –module.

Remark 6.1.4. This shows that $S^{-1}M$ is an “extension of scalar” construction corresponding to $\epsilon : R \rightarrow S^{-1}R$.

Reminder: Let R, T be commutative rings, then

- (1). The data M is a (R, T) –**bimodule** if it is R –module and T –module and for all $r \in R$, for all $t \in T$, for all $x \in M$, we have $r(tx) = t(rx)$.

- (2). If $f : R \rightarrow T$ is a ring homomorphism, then any T –module M is automatically a (R, T) –bimodule when defining the action of R by $\forall r \in R, \forall x \in M, rx = f(r)x$ where the left hand side is r action and the right hand side is t action. This is the **restriction of scalars**. Example: The map $f = \epsilon$ fraction operation.
- (3). If M is R –module and N is (R, T) –bimodule, then the tensor $M \otimes_R N$ is a (R, T) –bimodule when defining the action of T by: $\forall t \in T, \forall x \in M, \forall y \in N$, we have $t(x \otimes y) = x \otimes (ty)$.
- (4). If $f : R \rightarrow T$ is a ring homomorphism, then T is a (R, T) –bimodule by restriction of scalar. Hence for any R –module M , we have $T \otimes_R M$ is a (R, T) –bimodule. This is **extension of scalars**.

Example 6.1.5. The module $S^{-1}R \otimes_R M$ is a $(R, S^{-1}R)$ –bimodule (using $f = \epsilon$ the fraction map).

Proposition 6.1.6. For all R –module M , then $S^{-1}M \simeq S^{-1}R \otimes_R M$ as $S^{-1}R$ –module with isomorphism such that $\frac{x}{s} \mapsto \frac{1}{s} \otimes x$.

Remark 6.1.7. If $A \simeq B$ as $S^{-1}R$ –module then $A \simeq B$ as $(R, S^{-1}R)$ –module (by restriction of scalars).

Proof. We prove by

- Consider the map

$$g : S^{-1}M \longrightarrow S^{-1}R \otimes M,$$

$$\frac{x}{s} \longmapsto \frac{1}{s} \otimes x,$$

is well defined (respects equivalence relation since $\forall u \in S, g(\frac{ux}{us}) = \frac{1}{us} \otimes ux = \frac{1}{s} \otimes x = g(\frac{x}{s})$) and is $S^{-1}R$ –bimodule.

- The map

$$f : S^{-1}R \times M \longrightarrow S^{-1}M,$$

$$\left(\frac{r}{s}, x\right) \longmapsto \frac{rx}{s},$$

is R –linear. Hence there exists $f^* : S^{-1}R \otimes M \rightarrow S^{-1}M$ such that $\frac{r}{s} \otimes x \mapsto \frac{rx}{s}$.

- Easy to check that $f^*g = \text{Id}$ and $gf^* = \text{Id}$.

Hence f^*, g are isomorphisms of $S^{-1}R$ –module. □

Corollary 6.1.8. Let M, N be R –modules, then

- (1). We have $S^{-1}M \oplus S^{-1}N \simeq S^{-1}(M \oplus N)$ as $S^{-1}R$ -module with isomorphism such that $(\frac{x}{s}, \frac{y}{t}) \mapsto \frac{(tx, sy)}{st}$.
- (2). We have $S^{-1}M \otimes S^{-1}N \simeq S^{-1}(M \otimes N)$ as $S^{-1}R$ -module with isomorphism such that $\frac{x}{s} \otimes \frac{y}{t} \mapsto \frac{x \otimes y}{st}$.

Proof. We have the isomorphisms

$$S^{-1}M \oplus S^{-1}N \simeq (S^{-1}R \otimes M) \oplus (S^{-1}R \otimes N) \simeq S^{-1}R \otimes (M \oplus N) \simeq S^{-1}(M \oplus N)$$

given by the maps

$$(\frac{x}{s}, \frac{y}{t}) \mapsto (\frac{1}{s} \otimes x, \frac{1}{t} \otimes y) = (\frac{1}{st} \otimes tx, \frac{1}{st} \otimes sy) \mapsto \frac{1}{st} \otimes (tx, sy) \mapsto \frac{(tx, sy)}{st}.$$

Similarly consider the isomorphism

$$S^{-1}M \otimes_{S^{-1}R} S^{-1}N \simeq S^{-1}M \otimes_{S^{-1}R} S^{-1}R \otimes_R N$$

$$\simeq (S^{-1}M \otimes_{S^{-1}R} S^{-1}R) \otimes_R N \simeq S^{-1}M \otimes_R (M \otimes_R N) = S^{-1}R(M \otimes N),$$

where the isomorphisms are given similarly (...). □

Lemma 6.1.9. *If A is R -module, B is (R, T) -bimodule and C is T -module then*

$$(A \otimes_R B) \otimes_T C \simeq A \otimes_R (B \otimes_T C)$$

with isomorphism such that

$$(x \otimes y) \otimes z \mapsto x \otimes (y \otimes z).$$

6.2 Flatness for Modules of Fractions

Reminder:

- (1). A sequence of R -module homomorphism

$$\dots \xrightarrow{f_i} M_i \xrightarrow{f_{i+1}} \dots$$

is **exact** if $\text{Im}(f_i) = \ker(f_{i+1})$. A short exact sequence is an exact sequence of the form

$$0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow C \longrightarrow 0.$$

- (2). A functor $\mathfrak{F} : \mathcal{R}\text{-Mod} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}\text{-Mod}$ is called **exact** if for all sequence exact, we have $\mathfrak{F}(\text{seq})$ is exact.

Remark 6.2.1. If \mathfrak{F} is exact, then

- (1). If f is injective then $\mathfrak{F}(f)$ is injective (Using $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B$ exact).
- (2). If f surjective then $\mathfrak{F}(f)$ surjective ($A \xrightarrow{f} B \rightarrow 0$).
- (3). We have $\mathfrak{F}(M/N) \simeq \mathfrak{F}(M)/\mathfrak{F}(N)$. Using $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow M \rightarrow M/N \rightarrow 0$ exact hence $0 \rightarrow \mathfrak{F}(N) \rightarrow \mathfrak{F}(M) \rightarrow \mathfrak{F}(M/N) \rightarrow 0$ exact hence $\mathfrak{F}(M/N) \simeq \mathfrak{F}(M)/\mathfrak{F}(N)$ by first isomorphism theorem.

Lemma 6.2.2. The functor \mathfrak{F} is exact if and only if for all sequence short exact, $\mathfrak{F}(\text{seq})$ is short exact. That is, there exists N_i such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & M_i & \xrightarrow{\quad} & M_{i+1} & \xrightarrow{\quad} & M_{i+2} \longrightarrow \cdots \\
 & & \searrow & \curvearrowright & \nearrow & \searrow & \nearrow \\
 & & & N_i & & & N_{i+1} \\
 & & \swarrow & \downarrow & \swarrow & \downarrow & \swarrow \\
 & & & 0 & & & 0
 \end{array}$$

(Note: The diagram includes curved arrows from M_i to 0 and from M_{i+2} to 0 , and curved arrows from N_i to 0 and from N_{i+1} to 0 .)

commutes.

Reminder (3). Let M be a R -module, we define $\mathfrak{F}_M : \mathcal{R}\text{-Mod} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}\text{-Mod}$ by $\mathfrak{F}_M(A) = M \otimes A$ and $\mathfrak{F}_M(g) = \text{Id}_M \otimes g$. Module M is called **flat** if \mathfrak{F}_M is exact.

Example 6.2.3. We have R is a flat R -module (deduced from the isomorphism $R \otimes A \simeq A$).

Lemma 6.2.4. Let seq be $A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \rightarrow 0$ of R -module. Then for all R -module M , seq is exact implies that $\mathfrak{F}_M(\text{seq})$ is exact.

Proof. Suppose seq is exact, then β is surjective and $\text{Im}(\alpha) = \ker(\beta)$. Want to show $\text{Id}_M \otimes \beta$ surjective and $\text{Im}(\text{Id} \otimes \alpha) = \ker(\text{Id} \otimes \beta)$. Then we see

- For all $x \in M$, for all $c \in C$, we have $x \otimes c \in \text{Im}(\text{Id} \otimes \beta)$ because there exists $b \in B$, $\beta(b) = c$ and $x \otimes c = (\text{Id} \otimes \beta)(x \otimes b)$. Pure tensors $x \otimes c$ generate $M \otimes C$ hence $\text{Id} \otimes \beta$, say.
- We have $\beta \circ \alpha \implies (\text{Id} \otimes \beta) \circ (\text{Id} \otimes \alpha) = (\text{Id} \otimes (\beta \circ \alpha)) = 0$. Hence this implies $\text{Im}(\text{Id} \otimes \alpha) \subseteq \ker(\text{Id} \otimes \beta)$.
- Let $I = \text{Im}(\text{Id} \otimes \alpha)$ and let $\phi : M \otimes B \rightarrow M \otimes B/I$ be the quotient map. Let

$$f : M \otimes B/I \longrightarrow M \otimes C,$$

$$y + I \mapsto (\text{Id} \otimes \beta)(y),$$

then f is well defined since $I \subseteq \ker(\text{Id} \otimes \beta)$. Moreover $\text{Id} \otimes \beta = f \circ \phi$. In order to prove $\ker(\text{Id} \otimes \beta) = I$ it suffices to prove f is injective. Let

$$g : M \times C \longrightarrow (M \otimes B)/I,$$

$$(x, c) \mapsto x \otimes b + I,$$

where $b \in \beta^{-1}(C)$. We see g is well defined: if $b, b' \in \beta^{-1}(C)$ then $x \otimes b + I = x \otimes b' + I$ (because $b - b' \in \ker(\beta) = \text{Im}(\alpha) \implies x \otimes b - x \otimes b' \in I$). Since g is bilinear, there exists $g^* : M \otimes C \rightarrow M \otimes B/I$ such that $x \otimes c \mapsto x \otimes b + I$ with $b \in \beta^{-1}(C)$. Moreover $g^* \circ f = \text{Id}$ since $g^* \circ f(x \otimes b + I) = g^*(x \otimes \beta(b)) = x \otimes b + I$. Hence f is injective.

Hence If $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ exact then $\forall M, F_M(A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0)$ is exact. \square

Corollary 6.2.5. *A R -module M is flat (\mathfrak{F}_M is exact) if and only if $\forall \alpha : A \rightarrow B$ injective, the R -module homomorphism $\text{Id}_M \otimes \alpha$ is injective.*

Proof. (\implies): Clear: $0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B$ exact implies $0 \longrightarrow M \otimes A \xrightarrow{\text{Id}_M \otimes \alpha} M \otimes B$ exact.

(\impliedby): Suppose for all α injective, $\text{Id}_M \otimes \alpha$ injective, then together with the above property, we have $\mathfrak{F}_M(\text{short exact})$ is short exact. Hence \mathfrak{F}_M is exact. \square

Corollary 6.2.6. *For all $S \subseteq R$ multiplicative set, the R -module $S^{-1}R$ is flat.*

Proof. Let $\alpha : A \rightarrow B$ be an injective R -module homomorphism, want to show $\ker(\text{Id}_{S^{-1}R} \otimes \alpha) = 0$. Any element of $S^{-1}R \otimes A$ can be written as $\frac{1}{s} \otimes x$, where $s \in S, x \in A$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Id}_{S^{-1}R} \otimes \alpha \left(\frac{1}{s} \otimes x \right) &= 0 \implies \frac{1}{s} \otimes \alpha(x) = 0 \\ \implies \frac{\alpha(x)}{s} &= 0 \text{ in } S^{-1}A \implies \exists u \in S, u\alpha(x) = 0 \\ &\implies \exists u \in S, \alpha(ux) = 0 \\ &\implies \exists u \in S, ux = 0 \text{ since } \alpha \text{ injective} \\ &\implies \frac{x}{s} = 0 \text{ in } S^{-1}B \\ &\implies \frac{1}{s} \otimes x = 0 \text{ by isomorphism.} \end{aligned}$$

\square

Notation: For $S \subseteq R$ multiplicative set and $\alpha : A \rightarrow B$ R -module homomorphism, we define

$$S^{-1}\alpha : S^{-1}A \longrightarrow S^{-1}B,$$

$$\frac{x}{s} \longmapsto \frac{\alpha(x)}{s}.$$

Remark 6.2.7. The isomorphism $f_A : S^{-1}R \otimes A \rightarrow S^{-1}A$ “send” the homomorphisms $\text{Id}_{S^{-1}R} \otimes \alpha$ to $S^{-1}\alpha$ in the following sense:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S^{-1}R \otimes A & \xrightarrow{\text{Id}_{S^{-1}R} \otimes \alpha} & S^{-1}R \otimes B \\ \downarrow \simeq & & \downarrow \simeq \\ S^{-1}A & \xrightarrow{S^{-1}\alpha} & S^{-1}B \end{array} \quad .$$

Up to this “change of notation”, Corollary 6.2.6 says that for any exact sequence of R -module

$$\cdots \longrightarrow M_i \xrightarrow{f_i} M_{i+1} \xrightarrow{f_{i+1}} \cdots$$

The sequence

$$\cdots \longrightarrow S^{-1}M_i \xrightarrow{S^{-1}f_i} S^{-1}M_{i+1} \xrightarrow{S^{-1}f_{i+1}} \cdots$$

is exact sequence of $S^{-1}R$ -modules.

Corollary 6.2.8. *We have*

- The map α is injective $\implies S^{-1}\alpha$ is injective,
- The map β surjective $\implies S^{-1}\beta$ surjective,
- We have the isomorphism $S^{-1}(M/N) \simeq S^{-1}M/S^{-1}N$ with isomorphism $\frac{x+N}{s} \leftrightarrow \frac{x}{s} + S^{-1}N$.

Proof. We see

- The sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B$ exact $\implies \cdots$,
- The sequence $A \xrightarrow{\beta} B \rightarrow 0$ exact $\implies \cdots$,
- The sequence $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow M \rightarrow M/N \rightarrow 0$ exact with the middle map $x \mapsto x + N$. Also $0 \rightarrow S^{-1}N \rightarrow S^{-1}M \rightarrow S^{-1}(M/N) \rightarrow 0$ exact with the middle map $\frac{x}{s} \mapsto \frac{x+N}{s}$. By first isomorphism theorem, this gives $S^{-1}(M/N) \simeq S^{-1}M/S^{-1}N$ with the claimed isomorphism.

Hence the corollary. □

Remark 6.2.9. Let $Q \subseteq P$ be ideals of R , with P prime, by above corollary, we have $(R/Q)_P \simeq R_P/Q_P$ are isomorphic R -module. But in fact it implies $(R/Q)_{P/Q} \simeq R_P/Q_P$ as rings with the isomorphism $\frac{x+Q}{s+Q} \leftrightarrow \frac{x}{s} + Q_P$.

Example 6.2.10. Homework 6...

Example 6.2.11. Extension of scalars preserve flatness. Let $\phi : R \rightarrow T$ ring homomorphism. If M is flat R -module, then $T \otimes_R M$ is a flat T -module.

Corollary 6.2.12. The module M is a flat R -module implies that $S^{-1}M$ is a flat $S^{-1}R$ -module.

6.3 Local Properties of Modules and Rings

Notation: For $P \subseteq R$ prime ideal, we denote $R_P = S^{-1}R$ where $S = R \setminus P$. We denote $M_P := S^{-1}M$ for R -module M and $\alpha_P := S^{-1}\alpha$ for homomorphism α .

Definition 6.3.1. A property of a ring/module/homomorphism is **local** if X has property if and only if X_P has property for all $P \subseteq R$ prime.

Proposition 6.3.2. The following are equivalent:

- (1). The module $M = 0$,
- (2). The module $M_P = 0$ for all $P \subseteq R$ prime ideal,
- (3). The module $M_P = 0$ for all $P \subseteq R$ maximal ideal.

Proof. (1) \implies (2) \implies (3) are obvious.

For (3) \implies (1), let M be such that $M_P = 0$ for all P maximal ideal. Suppose for contradiction there exists $x \neq 0$ in M , let $\text{Ann}(x) = \{r \in R \mid rx = 0\}$. This is a proper ideal because it does not contain 1. This implies that $\exists P$ maximal at $\text{Ann}(x) \subseteq P$. Then $M_P = 0 \implies \frac{x}{1} = 0$ in $M_P \implies \exists u \notin P, ux = 0$. Hence $u \in \text{Ann}(x) \setminus P$, a contradiction. \square

Proposition 6.3.3. The following are equivalent for $\phi \in \text{Hom}_R(A, B)$,

- (1). The map ϕ is injective,
- (2). The map ϕ_P is injective for all $P \subseteq R$ prime ideal,
- (3). The map ϕ_P is injective for all $P \subseteq R$ maximal ideal.

Proof. (1) \implies (2) already proved.

(2) \implies (3) is obvious.

(3) \implies (1): Suppose ϕ_P injective for all P maximal. Let $M = \ker(\phi)$, the seq that $0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\phi} B$ is exact implies that for all P maximal, the sequence $0 \rightarrow M_P \rightarrow A_P \xrightarrow{\phi_P} B_P$ exact. The map ϕ_P is injective implies that $\forall P$ maximal ideal $M_P = 0$ which implies $M = 0$ by proposition above. \square

Proposition 6.3.4. *Same as the above proposition but with “surjective”.*

Proposition 6.3.5. *The following are equivalent for a R -module M ,*

- (1). *The map M is flat R -module,*
- (2). *The map M_P is flat R_P -module for all $P \subseteq M$ prime,*
- (3). *The map M_P is flat R_P -module for all $P \subseteq M$ maximal.*

Proof. (1) \implies (2): Already “proved” (extensions of scalars preserves flatness).

(2) \implies (3): Obvious.

(3) \implies (1): Sketch: Suppose M_P is flat for all P maximal, want to show for all ϕ injective, the map $\text{Id}_M \otimes \phi$ is injective. For all P , $\text{Id}_{M_P} \otimes \phi_P$ injective. Also $\text{Id}_{M_P} \otimes \phi_P \simeq (\text{Id}_M \otimes \phi)_P$ via isomorphism implies $(\text{Id}_M \otimes \phi)_P$ is injective for all P . This implies that $\text{Id}_M \otimes \phi$ is injective. \square

Noetherian Rings, Noetherian Modules and Hilbert's Nullstellensatz

7.1 Closure Property for Noetherian

Reminder: Let M be a R -module, the following are equivalent:

- Any strictly increasing sequence of submodule is finite,
- Any submodule is finitely generated.

If these property hold, then M is called **Noetherian**.

Definition 7.1.1. A ring R is **Noetherian** if it is Noetherian as R -module. That is to say

- (1). Any strictly increasing sequence of ideals is finitely generated.
- (2). Any ideal is finitely generated.

Proposition 7.1.2. Let M be a R -module, and $N \subseteq M$ submodule, then M is Noetherian if and only if N and M/N are Noetherian.

Proof. (\implies): The submodule of N and M/N are in bijection with subsets of submodules of M , hence no infinite strictly increasing sequence.

(\impliedby): Suppose N and M/N are Noetherian, let $P \subseteq M$ be submodule, then $P/(P \cap N) \simeq (P + N)/N$ is finitely generated and $P \cap N$ is finitely generated (generators $x_1 + P \cap N, \dots, x_k + P \cap N$ and generators y_1, \dots, y_l). That is P is finitely generated (generators $x_1, \dots, x_k, y_1, \dots, y_l$). \square

Corollary 7.1.3. The module M_1, M_2 are Noetherian if and only if $M_1 \oplus M_2$ is Noetherian.

Proof. Let $\widetilde{M}_1 = \{(x, 0), x \in M_1\} \subseteq M_1 \oplus M_2$. Then $\widetilde{M}_1 \simeq M_1$ and $(M_1 \oplus M_2)/M_1 \simeq M_2$. Apply previous prop to $M = M_1 \oplus M_2$ and $N = \widetilde{M}_1$. \square

Corollary 7.1.4. *If R is Noetherian, then M is Noetherian R -module if and only if M is finitely generated R -module.*

Proof. (\Leftarrow) : Obvious.

(\Rightarrow) : If M is finitely generated, then $M \simeq R^k/N$ for some $N \subseteq R^k$. Moreover, R^k is Noetherian by Corollary 7.1.3. \square

Theorem 7.1.5 (Hilbert's Basis Theorem). *If R is Noetherian ring, then for any n , we have $R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ is Noetherian ring.*

Proof. It suffices to show R is Noetherian implies $R[X]$ is Noetherian. Let R be Noetherian, let $I \subseteq R[X]$ be an ideal, we want to show I is finitely generated.

Suppose it is not, let $P_0 = 0$ and for all $j > 0$, let $P_j \in I \setminus (P_0, \dots, P_{j-1})$ such that P_j is of minimal degree in this set (note that $\deg(P_j)$ is weakly increasing).

Let a_j be the leading coefficient of P_j , since $R[X]$ is Noetherian, it has an infinite increasing chain of ideals. There exists $k > 0$, $a_k \in (a_1, \dots, a_{k-1})$, hence $a_k = \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} r_j a_j$, $r_j \in R$. Let $P = P_k - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} r_j X^{\deg(P_k) - \deg(P_j)} P_j$, then $P \in I \setminus (P_0, \dots, P_{k-1})$, and the degree $\deg(P) < \deg(P_k)$. This contradicts the choice of P_k . \square

Recall that T is a finitely generated R -algebra if there is $x_1, \dots, x_n \in T$ such that any $t \in T$ can be written as a polynomial in x_1, \dots, x_n with coefficients in R . Equivalently, there is surjective R -algebra homomorphism from $R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ to T .

Corollary 7.1.6. *If R is a Noetherian ring, and T is a finitely generated R -algebra, then T is a Noetherian ring.*

Proof. The algebra T is the image of Noetherian ring $R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ hence Noetherian (quotient of Noetherian is Noetherian). \square

7.2 Hilbert's Nullstellensatz

Theorem 7.2.1 (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz). *Let K be algebraically closed field, let $R = K[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ and let $I \subseteq R$ ideal and let $Z(I) = \{x \in K^n \mid \forall g \in I, g(x) = 0\}$. For polynomial f , we have that $f(x) = 0, \forall x \in Z(I)$ if and only if $f \in r(I)$.*

Example 7.2.2. Let $I = (X_1^2, X_2)$, $Z(I) = \{(0, 0)\}$. The theorem tells us $f((0, 0)) = 0$ if and only if $f \in r(I) = (X_1, X_2)$.

Lemma 7.2.3 (Zariski's Lemma). *Let $K \subseteq E$ be a field extension, if E is finitely generated K -algebra, then E is finite dimensional (hence algebraic) over K .*

Proof of Theorem 7.2.1, "Hilbert's Nullstellensatz". (\Leftarrow) : We have $f \in r(I) \implies \exists k \geq 0, f^k \in I \implies \exists k \geq 0, f^k(0) = 0, \forall x \in Z(I) \implies f(x) = 0, \forall x \in Z(I)$.

(\Rightarrow) : Let $f \notin r(I)$, we want to show that there exists $x \in Z(I)$ such that $f(x) \neq 0$.

Idea: Any ring homomorphism $\phi : R \rightarrow K$ such that $\phi|_K = \text{Id}$ is an evaluation map $\text{ev}_x : g \mapsto g(x)$ for some $x \in K^n$ ($x = (x_1, \dots, x_n), x_i = \phi(x_i)$). Hence any ring homomorphism $\phi : R \rightarrow K$ such that $\phi|_K = \text{Id}$ and $\phi|_I = 0$ is ev_x for some $x \in Z(I)$. Therefore need to find a ring homomorphism $\phi : R \rightarrow K$ such that $\phi|_K = \text{Id}$ and $\phi|_I = 0, \phi(f) \neq 0$.

Let $S = \{f^k | k \geq 0\}$. This is a multiplicative set of R , and we have $f \notin r(I) \implies S \cap I = \emptyset \implies S^{-1}I$ is proper ideal of $S^{-1}R \implies S^{-1}I \subseteq M$ maximal ideal of $S^{-1}R$. Let

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \phi : R & \xrightarrow{\quad\quad\quad} & I = S^{-1}R/M \\ & \searrow \text{fractions} & \nearrow \text{quotient} \\ & & S^{-1}R \end{array} .$$

We observe $\phi|_I = 0$ since $S^{-1}I \subseteq M$ and $\phi(f) \neq 0$ since $\frac{f}{1}$ is invertible in $S^{-1}R \implies \frac{f}{1} \notin M$. Moreover $T \simeq K$. Indeed, T is a field since M is maximal ideal. Also T is finitely generated over K (indeed $S^{-1}R = \{\frac{P}{f^k}, P \in R, k \geq 0\}$ with generators $\frac{x_1}{1}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{1}, \frac{1}{f}$). Hence $T = S^{-1}R/M$ is finitely generated. Hence by Zariski's Lemma (Lemma 7.2.3), we have T is algebraic over K . Then K is algebraically closed implies that $T = \tilde{K}$, where \tilde{K} is copy of K inside T . Hence up to composing by an isomorphism $\tilde{K} \rightarrow K$ we get $\tilde{\phi} : R \rightarrow K$ such that $\tilde{\phi}|_K = \text{Id}, \tilde{\phi}(I) = 0, \tilde{\phi}(f) \neq 0$. \square

It remains to prove Zariski's Lemma. We first claim a lemma.

Lemma 7.2.4. *Let $R \subseteq S \subseteq T$ be ring (hence S, T are R -algebras), suppose:*

- *ring R is Noetherian,*
- *T is finitely generated R -algebra and finitely generated S -module,*

then S is finitely generated R -algebra.

Proof. Let x_1, \dots, x_n be generators of T as R -algebra, y_1, \dots, y_m be generators of T as S -module. Then y_1, \dots, y_m generators implies that there is $s_{ij} \in S, x_i \in \sum_j s_{ij} y_j$, hence there is $s_{ijk} \in S, y_i y_j = \sum_k s_{ijk} y_k$. Let $S' = R[\{s_{ij}, s_{ijk}\}]$ be R -algebra generated by s_{ij}, s_{ijk} , we have $R \subseteq S' \subseteq S \subseteq T$.

Since S' is a finitely generated R -algebra, S' is Noetherian ring. Any $x \in T$ is a polynomial in the x_i , hence a linear combination of y_k with coefficients in S' . Hence T is a finitely generated S' module. Therefore T is Noetherian S' -module (since S' Noetherian).

Further, S submodule of T implies that it is a finitely generated S' -module. Lastly, S' finitely generated R -algebra and S finitely generated S' -algebra implies that S is finitely generated R -algebra. \square

Now we are to prove the Zariski's Lemma.

Proof of Lemma 7.2.3, "Zariski's Lemma". Let $K \subseteq E$ be a field extension such that E is finitely generated K -algebra, we want to show E is finite dimensional over K .

Let x_1, \dots, x_n be generators of E as K -algebra, it suffices to show that x_1, \dots, x_r are algebraic over K .

Suppose not and order the x_i such that $\forall i = 1, \dots, r, x_i$ is not algebraic over $K(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1})$ and $\forall i = r+1, \dots, n, x_i$ is algebraic over $K(x_1, \dots, x_r)$. Let $F = K(x_1, \dots, x_r) \subseteq E$ be field generated by $x_1, \dots, x_r \simeq K(x_1, \dots, x_r)$ fields of rational functions in n variables. Then $E = F(x_{r+1}, \dots, x_n)$ is finite F -module and E is finitely generated K -algebra together with previous lemma implies that F is finitely generated K -algebra.

Let f_1, \dots, f_k be generators of $K(x_1, \dots, x_r)$ over K . Let P_1, \dots, P_l be the irreducible polynomial dividing the denominators of f_1, \dots, f_k . Then any denominators of $K[f_1, \dots, f_k]$ is constant or multiple of one of the P_i .

But $\frac{1}{\prod_i P_i + 1}$ is not of this form, which is a contradiction. \square

7.3 Some Link to Algebraic Geometry

Definition 7.3.1. Let K be an algebraically closed field, let $R = K[X_1, \dots, X_n]$, then

- For $Y \subseteq K^n$, we define $I(Y) = \{f \in R \mid f(x) = 0, \forall x \in Y\}$,
- For $S \subseteq R$, we define $Z(S) = \{x \in K^n \mid f(x) = 0, \forall f \in S\}$.

A set of points of the form $Z(S)$ is called **algebraic set**.

(**Claim:** Any algebraic set is of the form $Z(J)$ where J is a **radical ideal** (that is, $r(J) = J$) and $\{Y \subseteq K^n \text{ algebraic set}\} \xrightarrow{I} \{J \subseteq R \text{ radical ideal}\}$ are inclusion reserving bijections.)

Remark 7.3.2. (1). The map I, Z are inclusion reserving, that is

$$Y \subseteq Y', I(Y) \supseteq I(Y'),$$

$$S \subseteq S', Z(S) \supseteq Z(S').$$

(2). For all $S \subseteq R$, we have $Z(S) = Z((S)) = Z(r(S))$.

Example 7.3.3. We have $Z(\{X_1^2\}) = Z((X_1^2)) = Z((X_1))$.

By above, any algebraic set is of the form $Z(J)$ where J is radical ideal.

Remark 7.3.4. (1). For all Y , $I(Y)$ is clearly an ideal and a radical ideal.

(2). Hilbert's Nullstellensatz can be stated as follows: for all J ideal, we have $I(Z(J)) = r(J)$ (no more than $r(J)$).

Example 7.3.5. We see $I(Z(X_1^2)) = (X_1)$.

Consequently, we have

- for all J radical ideal, $I(Z(J)) = J$,
- for all Y algebraic set, there exists J radical ideal such that $Y = Z(J)$, hence, $Z(I(Y)) = Z(I(Z(J))) = Z(J) = Y$.

Corollary 7.3.6. We have I, Z are inclusion reversing bijections that

$$\{Y \subseteq K^n \text{ algebraic set}\} \xrightleftharpoons[Z]{I} \{J \subseteq R \text{ radical ideal}\}.$$

Remark 7.3.7. We have that

- (a). The identity $I(Y_1 \cup Y_2) = I(Y_1) \cap I(Y_2)$,
- (b). If J_1, J_2 are radical ideals, then $J_1 \cap J_2$ is radical ideal and $Z(J_1 \cap J_2) = Z(J_1) \cup Z(J_2)$.

Proof. (a). Clear.

- (b). We have $J_1 \cap J_2$ radical ideal because $r(J_1 \cap J_2) = r(J_1) \cap r(J_2) = J_1 \cap J_2$. Then $I(Z(J_1 \cap J_2)) = J_1 \cap J_2 = I(Z(J_1)) \cap I(Z(J_2)) \stackrel{(a)}{=} I(Z(J_1) \cup Z(J_2))$ and I is a bijection.

□

Remark 7.3.8. Part (b) above implies that finite union of algebraic set is algebraic set. Also since arbitrariness the intersection of algebraic set is algebraic set (home-work).

Definition 7.3.9. An **affine algebraic variety (AAV)** is an algebraic set which is not the union of smaller algebraic set.

Corollary 7.3.10. We have I, Z are bijection

$$\emptyset \neq \{Y \subseteq K^n, \text{ AAV}\} \longleftrightarrow \{I \subseteq R \text{ prime ideal}\}.$$

Proof. By Remark 7.3.7 (b), we have Y is affine algebraic variety if and only if $Y = Z(J)$ with J **irreducible** radical ideal, where **irreducible** means “not intersection of bigger ideals”. Moreover,

- if J is prime then J is radical and irreducible (exercise from homework 4 shows that prime means irreducible, $P = \cap I_j \implies P = I_j$).
- Conversely, suppose J is radical and irreducible, then J radical implies that $J = r(J) = \bigcap_{J \subseteq P \text{ prime}} P$. Also J irreducible implies that J is one of the P , hence prime.

Hence the bijection. □

Definition 7.3.11. Let $Y \subseteq K^n$ be algebraic set, then $R(Y) = R/I(Y)$ is called **affine coordinate ring** (“polynomial f on Y ”).

Remark 7.3.12. We have

- The set Y is affine algebraic variety if and only if $R(Y)$ is a domain.
- $\{\text{point on } Y\}$ is in bijection with $\{\text{maximal ideals of } R \text{ containing } Y\}$, which is in bijection with $\{\text{maximal ideals of } R(Y)\}$.

Explicitly $y \in Y \mapsto M(Y, y) = \{\tilde{f} \in R(Y) \mid f(y) = 0\}$.

Definition 7.3.13. Let $Y \subseteq K^n$ be affine algebraic variety, then

- $U \subseteq Y$ is an **open set** if $U = Y \setminus Z(S)$ for some $S \subseteq R$,
- A **regular function** of $U \subseteq Y$ is $\rho : U \rightarrow K$ such that $\exists f, g \in R, \forall x \in U, g(x) \neq 0$ and $\rho(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$.

Notation: We say $O(Y) = \{\text{regular function on } Y\}$ and $O(Y, y) = \{(U, \rho) \mid y \in U \text{ open set of } Y, \rho \text{ regular on } U\}$ where $(U, \rho) \sim (U', \rho')$ if and only if there exists V open set $y \in V \subseteq U \cap U'$ such that $\rho|_V = \rho'|_V$.

Theorem 7.3.14. We have

(1). the isomorphism $O(Y) \simeq R(Y)$ as rings, where the isomorphism is given

$$\alpha : R(Y) \longrightarrow O(Y),$$

$$\tilde{f} \longmapsto f|_Y \text{ as a function.}$$

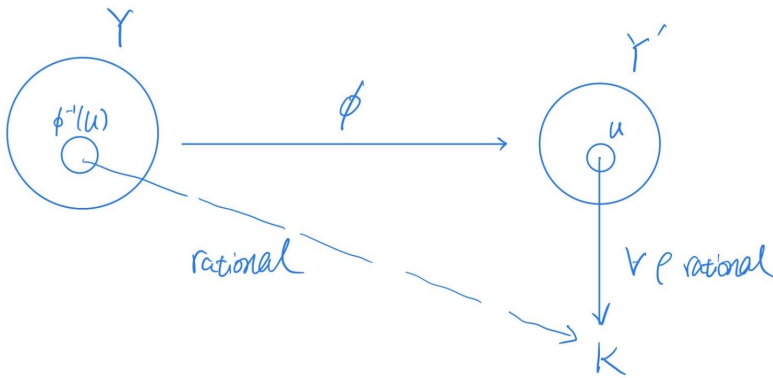
- (2). for all $y \in Y, O(Y, y) \simeq R(Y)_{M(Y, y)} \longleftarrow \{\tilde{g} \in R(Y) | g(y) = 0\}$ where the right hand side of the isomorphism is a localization at $M(Y, y)$. The isomorphism is given by

$$\beta : R(Y)_{M(Y, y)} \longrightarrow O(Y, y),$$

$$\frac{\tilde{f}}{\tilde{g}} \longmapsto (v, \frac{f}{g}|_v), \text{ where } U = \{x \in Y | g(x) \neq 0\}.$$

Definition 7.3.15. Let Y, Y' be affine algebraic varieties, a function $\phi : Y \rightarrow Y'$ is a **morphism of affine algebraic varieties**, if $U \subseteq Y'$ open, for all $\rho : U \rightarrow K$ regular, then $\rho \circ \phi$ regular on $\phi^{-1}(U)$.

The definition can be viewed as the following commutative diagram:



Theorem 7.3.16. We have $Y \simeq Y'$ if and only if $R(Y) \simeq R(Y')$. In fact there is function $F : Y \rightarrow R(Y)$ such that $\mathcal{F} : \text{Hom}(Y, Y') \rightarrow \text{Hom}(R(Y'), R(Y))$ is a bijection.

Primary Decomposition of Ideals

8.1 Reduced Primary Decomposition

Motivation:

- decomposing algebraic set into variety,
- “replacing” factorization of elements in Noetherian rings which are not UFD.

Example 8.1.1. Consider $R = \mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}] \subseteq \mathbb{C}$, it is Noetherian but not UFD since $2 \cdot 3 = (1 + i\sqrt{5})(1 - i\sqrt{5})$.

However, there is “semisimple” factorization of ideals.

Definition 8.1.2. Let R be a (commutative) ring. Any ideal $Q \subseteq R$ is **primary** if $Q \neq R$ and $x \notin Q, y \notin r(Q)$ implies that $xy \notin Q$. It has some equivalent phrasing:

- If $xy \in Q$ then either $x \in Q$ or $y \in r(Q)$,
- If $xy \in Q, x, y \notin Q$ then there is some $n > 0$ such that $x^n \in Q$ **and** $y^n \in Q$.

Remark 8.1.3. Prime implies primary.

Example 8.1.4. Take $R = \mathbb{Z}$, the primary ideal are of the form $I = (p^k), p$ prime integer.

Example 8.1.5. If M is a maximal ideal then for all k , M^k is primary.

Proposition 8.1.6. If Q is primary, then $r(Q)$ is the smallest prime ideal containing Q .

Definition 8.1.7. We say Q is **P -primary** if $r(Q) = P$.

Proof. Since $r(Q) = \bigcap_{Q \subseteq P \text{ prime}} P$, it suffices to show $r(Q)$ is prime. We have $xy \in r(Q) \implies \exists k, x^k y^k \in Q$ with Q being P primary it then implies that $\exists k, m$, such that $x^k \in Q$ or $y^{km} \in Q$. Hence x or y is in $r(Q)$. \square

Definition 8.1.8. Let $I \subseteq R$ be ideal, then

- A **primary decomposition** of I is an expression of the form $I = \bigcap_{i=1}^k Q_i$ with Q_i primary.
- A primary decomposition is **reduced** if
 - (a). for all $j, \bigcap_{i \neq j} Q_i \not\subseteq Q_j$,
 - (b). all the $r(Q_i)$ are distinct.

We call this **reduced primary decomposition** as RPD.

Example 8.1.9. If $R = \mathbb{Z}$, there exists unique RPD for any ideal. The RPD of $(p_1^{k_1} \cdots p_m^{k_m})$ is $\bigcap_{i=1}^m (p_i^{k_i})$.

Lemma 8.1.10. If Q_1, Q_2 are primary such that $r(Q_1) = r(Q_2)$, then $Q = Q_1 \cap Q_2$ is primary and $r(Q) = r(Q_1) = r(Q_2)$. Thus from any primary decomposition one can create a RPD.

Proof. We see

- $r(Q) = r(Q_1 \cap Q_2) = r(Q_1) \cap r(Q_2) = r(Q_1)$.
- Q is primary, $xy \in Q$ and $y \notin r(Q) = r(Q_1) = r(Q_2)$ implies that $x \in Q_1 \cap Q_2 = Q$.
- Thus if $Q_i = Q_j$, reduce Q_i, Q_j by $Q_i \cap Q_j$.

Hence the lemma. \square

Example 8.1.11. Take $R = \mathbb{C}[X, Y]$, then $I = (X^2, XY)$ has (at least) 2 RPD:

$$I = (X) \cap (X^2, XY, Y^2) = (X) \cap (X^2, Y).$$

Notation: For $I \subseteq R$ ideal, and $z \in R$, we say $(I : z) = \{r \in R \mid rz \in I\}$ (this is an ideal containing I).

Theorem 8.1.12. If $I = \bigcap_{i=1}^m Q_i$ is RPD then

$$\{r(Q_1), \dots, r(Q_m)\} = \{\text{prime ideals of the form } r(I : x), x \in R\}.$$

Example 8.1.13. Take $R = \mathbb{C}[X, Y]$, $I = (X^2, XY)$, then $r(X) = (X) = r(I : Y)$ and $r((X^2, XY, Y^2)) = r((X^2, Y)) = (X, Y) = r(I : X)$. For any $z \neq X, Y$ either $r(I : z) = (X)$ or (X, Y) or is not prime.

Lemma 8.1.14. *If $Q \subseteq R$ is primary then for any $x \in R$, we have*

$$r(Q : x) = \begin{cases} R & \text{if } x \in Q, \\ r(Q) & \text{if } x \notin Q. \end{cases}$$

Proof. We have

- $x \in Q \implies (Q : x) = R \implies r(Q : x) = R,$
- $x \notin Q, y \in r(Q : x) \iff \exists n \geq 0, y^n x \in Q \stackrel{Q \text{ primary}}{\iff} \exists m > 0, y^m \in Q \iff y \in r(Q).$

This gives the lemma. □

Proof of Theorem 8.1.12. Let $I = \bigcap_{i=1}^n Q_i$ RPD, observe that $r(I : x) = r((\bigcap Q_i) : x) = r(\bigcap (Q_i : x)) = \bigcap (r(Q_i : x)) = \bigcap_{i \text{ such that } x \notin Q_i} r(Q_i)$. Now we want to show $\{r(Q_1), \dots, r(Q_m)\} = \{r(I : x) \text{ prime}\}$.

(\subseteq): **reduced** decomposition implies that for all j , there is $x_j \in \bigcap_{i \neq j} Q_i \setminus Q_j$. Hence $r(I : x_j) = r(Q_j)$.

(\supseteq): Suppose $r(I : x)$ is prime, $r(I : x) = \bigcap_{i, x \notin Q_i} r(Q_i)$ since prime ideals are irreducible (cannot be written as intersection of bigger ideals), we get $r(I : x) = r(Q_i)$ for some i . □

Theorem 8.1.15 (Weak Second Uniqueness Theorem). *Suppose $I = \bigcap_{i=1}^n Q_i$ is RPD, if $j \in [n]$ is such that $r(Q_j)$ does not contain $r(Q_i), \forall i \neq j$, then Q_j appears in every RPD of I .*

Example 8.1.16. Consider the ideal $I = (X^2, XY) \subseteq \mathbb{C}[X, Y]$ and $I = (X) \cap (X^2, XY, Y^2)$, $r(X) = (X)$ does not contain $r(Q_i), i \neq j$. Hence (X) will appear in every RPD.

Stronger version: for all $S \subseteq \{r(Q_i)\}$ closed downward, $\bigcap_{r(Q_i) \in S} Q_i$ is independent of RPD.

Lemma 8.1.17. *Let $Q \subseteq R$ primary ideal and let $S \subseteq R$ be multiplicative set, then $Q \cap S = \emptyset$ implies*

- $r(Q) \cap S \neq \emptyset,$
- Q is a contraction (for the fraction map $\epsilon : R \rightarrow S^{-1}R$),
- $S^{-1}Q$ is also primary.

Proof. We check one by one.

- (a). Suppose $r(Q) \cap S \neq \emptyset$, then $\exists x \in R, n \geq 0, x \in S, x^n \in Q$ hence $x^n \in Q \cap S$ which implies $Q \cap S \neq \emptyset$, a contradiction.
- (b). Recall Q is contraction if and only if $s \in S, x \notin Q \implies sx \notin Q$. Let $s \in S, x \notin Q$, then S multiplicative set implies that $\forall n, s^n \in S$ thus $\forall n, s^n \notin Q$. Hence $s \notin r(Q)$. Then Q is primary so $x \notin Q, s \in r(Q) \implies sx \notin Q$.
- (c). Easy check.

Hence the lemma. \square

Remark 8.1.18. Easy to check that the contradiction of a primary ideal is primary. Thus (b) above implies

$$\{\text{primary ideal } I \subseteq R \setminus S\} \xleftrightarrow{\text{bijection}} \{\text{primary ideal of } S^{-1}R\},$$

$$I \longmapsto S^{-1}I.$$

Proof of Theorem 8.1.15. Let $I = \bigcap_{i=1}^n Q_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^n Q'_i$ such that $r(Q_i) = r(Q'_i)$. Suppose $r(Q_j)$ does not contain $r(Q_i)$ for all $i \neq j$. Want to show $Q_j = Q'_j$. Let

$$S = R \setminus r(Q_j), \forall i \neq j, r(Q_i) \cap S \neq \emptyset \xrightarrow{(a)} Q_i \cap S \neq \emptyset \implies S^{-1}Q_i = S^{-1}R.$$

Thus $S^{-1}I = S^{-1}(\bigcap_i Q_i) = \bigcap_i (S^{-1}Q_i) = S^{-1}Q_j$. Since $r(Q'_i) = r(Q_i) \forall i$, the same holds and $S^{-1}I = S^{-1}(\bigcap_i Q'_i) = \bigcap_i (S^{-1}Q'_i) = S^{-1}Q'_j$. hence $S^{-1}Q_j = S^{-1}Q'_j$ and since Q_j, Q'_j are contractions, $Q_j = (S^{-1}Q_j)^c = (S^{-1}Q'_j)^c = Q'_j$. \square

Theorem 8.1.19. If R is Noetherian, then any ideal admits a RPD.

Lemma 8.1.20. If R is Noetherian, then any ideal is a finite intersection of irreducible ideals.

Proof. Suppose for contradiction that I cannot be written as finite intersection of irreducibles. In this case there is I_1, J_1 ideals of $I = J_1 \cap I_1$ with $I \subsetneq I_1$ and I_1 cannot be written as intersections of ideals, $I = J_1 \cap J_2 \cap I_2, I_1 \subseteq I_2$, and I_2, \dots . We get (I_n) strictly increasing infinite chain of ideals. It is impossible in R Noetherian. \square

Lemma 8.1.21. If R is Noetherian, then I irreducible implies I primary.

Proof. Let I be irreducible, let $x, y \in R, xy \in I, x \notin I$, we need to show $y \in r(I)$ (consider ideals $(I : y^n) = \{r \in R, ry^n \in I\}$). This is a weakly increasing chain of ideal implies that $\exists n, (I : y^n) = (I : y^{n+1})$.

We claim $(I + x) \cap (I + y^n) = I$. Indeed let $z \in (I + x) \cap (I + y^n)$, then $z \in (I + x) \implies zy \in I$. And $z \in (I + y^n) \implies z = ry^n + z', r \in R, z' \in I \implies ry^{n+1} \in I \implies r \in (I : y^{n+1}) = (I : y^n) \implies ry^n \in I \implies z \in I$.

Since I is irreducible, (and $I + x \neq I$), we get $I + y^n = I$. Hence $y^n \in I \implies y \in r(I)$ as wanted. \square

Hence we showed

- The existence of RPD if R is Noetherian,
- First uniqueness: $r(Q_i)$ is uniquely determined,
- Second uniqueness: Q_i of “small” $r(Q_i)$ uniquely determined.

Example 8.1.22. If R is Noetherian, then any radical ideal I has unique decomposition $I = \bigcap_{i=1}^n P_i$, P_i prime, $P_j \not\subseteq \bigcap_{i \neq j} P_i$. This induces that any algebraic set can be written uniquely as finite union of AAVs.

8.2 Dimensions

Remark 8.2.1. In \mathbb{Z} any ideal has a **unique** RPD. This is related to the fact that $\dim(\mathbb{Z}) = 1$.

Definition 8.2.2. The **dimension of a ring** R is the maximal k such that there exists $P_0 \subsetneq P_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq P_k \subsetneq R$ prime ideal.

Example 8.2.3. We have $\dim(\mathbb{Z}) = 1$, $P_0 = (0)$, $P_1 = (p)$ where p prime integers.

Remark 8.2.4. A domain R has dimension 0 if and only if R is a field.

A domain R has dimension 1 if and only if any prime ideal that is not 0 is maximal.

Proposition 8.2.5. *In a Noetherian domain of dimension 1, any ideal has a **unique** RPD.*

Proof. If R is Noetherian, this means that any ideal I has RPD $I = \bigcap Q_i$. Moreover (if $I \neq 0$), $r(Q_i)$ is maximal for all i , hence second uniqueness theorem gives Q_i are uniquely determined. \square

Remark 8.2.6. If R is domain of dimension 1, then $I = \bigcap Q_i$ RPD if and only if $I = \prod Q_i$, Q_i primary and $r(Q_i)$ distinct.

Indeed, $r(Q_i)$ maximal distinct means that $r(Q_i) + r(Q_j) = R$ for all $i \neq j$ which implies that $Q_i + Q_j = R$, $\forall i \neq j$. This implies that $\bigcap Q_i = \prod Q_i$ (Exercise).

Coming next: In integrally closed Noetherian domain of dimension 1, any ideal can uniquely be written as product of prime (“Dedekind domain”).

Integral Dependence and Nakayama Lemma

9.1 Nakayama Lemma

Lemma 9.1.1. *Let M be a finitely generated R -module, let $\phi \in \text{End}_R(M)$ and let $I \subseteq R$ ideal such that $\text{Im}(\phi) \subseteq I \cdot M$ ($I \cdot M = \{\sum r_i x_i | r_i \in I, x_i \in M\}$). Then $\exists n > 0, r_1, \dots, r_n \in I$ such that $\phi^n + r_1 \phi^{n-1} + \dots + r_n \text{Id} = 0$.*

Proof (generalization of Caylay-Hamilton Proof). Let x_1, \dots, x_n generators of M . For all i , there exists $a_{ij} \in I$ such that $\phi(x_i) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j$, then

$$A \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ where } A = (\delta_{ij}\phi - a_{ij}\text{Id})_{ij \in [n]} \in \text{Mat}_n(\text{End}_R(M)).$$

Let $B = \text{adjoint of } A = {}^t(\text{cofactors of } A)$, then

$$B \cdot A = \begin{pmatrix} \det(A) & & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & & \det(A) \end{pmatrix} \text{ where } \det(A) = \det(\delta_{ij}\phi - a_{ij}\text{Id}) \in \text{End}_R(M),$$

where the right hand side is $\sum_{\delta \in S_n} \text{sgn}(\delta)$.

$$\text{We have } BA \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = 0 \text{ implies that for all } i, \det(A)(x_i) = 0 \text{ which means}$$

$$\det(A) = 0. \quad \square$$

Corollary 9.1.2 (Nakayama). *If M is finitely generated R -module, and $I \subseteq R$ ideal such that $I \cdot M = M$, then $\exists x \in I, (1 - x)M = 0$.*

Proof. For $\phi = \text{Id}_M$, we have $\text{Im}(\phi) \subseteq I \cdot M$. This implies that $\exists r_1, \dots, r_n \in I$ such that $(1 + r_1 + \dots + r_n)\text{Id}_M = 0$. Take $x = -(r_1 + \dots + r_n)$. \square

Definition 9.1.3. The **Jacobson ideal** of R is $J = \bigcap_{P \subseteq R \text{ maximal}} P$ (it is a radical ideal).

Proposition 9.1.4. We have $J = \{x \in R \mid \forall r \in R, 1 + rx \text{ is unit}\}$.

Proof. Homework 8. \square

Corollary 9.1.5. If M is finitely generated R -module and $J \cdot M = M$, then $M = 0$.

Proof. By Corollary 9.1.2, there is $x \in J$, $(1 - x)M = 0$. Hence $x \in J \implies 1 - x$ is a unit hence $M = 0$. \square

Corollary 9.1.6. Let M be finitely generated R -module, and $N \subseteq M$ submodule, such that $M = N + J \cdot M$. Then $M = N$.

Proof. We have $M = N + J \cdot M \implies J \cdot M/N = (N + J \cdot M)/N = M/N \implies M/N = 0$. \square

Corollary 9.1.7. Let R be local ring and let P be its maximal ideal, let M be finitely generated R -module and let $x_1, \dots, x_n \in M$ such that $\{x_1 + P \cdot M, \dots, x_n + P \cdot M\}$ generates $M/P \cdot M$ as R/P -vector space. Then x_1, \dots, x_n are generators of M over R .

Proof. Let $N = R\langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle \subseteq M$ submodule generated by x_1, \dots, x_n . We have $M = N + P \cdot M$, since $J = \bigcap_{I \text{ max}} I = P$. This implies $M = N$. \square

9.2 Integral Dependence

Definition 9.2.1. Let $R \subseteq T$ be rings, $\alpha \in T$ is **integral over** R if $\exists n > 0, r_1, \dots, r_n \in R$ such that $\alpha^n + r_1\alpha^{n-1} + \dots + r_n = 0$.

Example 9.2.2. We have

- Any $\alpha \in R$ is integral over R .
- For R field, α integral over R if and only if α algebraic over R .
- For $R = \mathbb{Z}, T = \mathbb{Q}$, only integers are integral over \mathbb{Z} . If $\alpha = \frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \mathbb{Z}$, then we can take $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ by $(\frac{a}{b})^n + r_1(\frac{a}{b})^{n-1} + \dots + r_n = 0$. Then a^n divisible by b , which is impossible.

Notation: For $R \subseteq T$ and $\alpha \in T$, we denote $R[\alpha] = R\langle \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots \rangle$.

Proposition 9.2.3. Let $R \subseteq T$, the following are equivalent for $\alpha \in T$:

- (1). The element α is integral over R ,
- (2). The module $R[\alpha]$ is a finitely generated R -module,
- (3). There exists $S \supseteq R[\alpha]$ ring which is finitely generated R -module.

Proof. (1) \implies (2) because $\alpha^n + r_1\alpha^{n-1} + \cdots + r_1 = 0$, then $R[\alpha] = R\langle\alpha, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}\rangle$.

(2) \implies (3): Take $S = R[\alpha]$.

(3) \implies (1): Let $\phi = \alpha \text{Id}_S : S \rightarrow S$ is a R -module endomorphism. Then S is finitely generated implies that $\exists r_1, \dots, r_n \in R$ such that $\phi^n + r_1\phi^{n-1} + \cdots + r_n \text{Id} = 0$. Applying this to 1_S gives $\alpha^n + r_1\alpha^{n-1} + \cdots + r_m = 0$. \square

Corollary 9.2.4. We have $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ integral over R if and only if $R[\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n]$ is a finitely generated R -module. Hence sums, difference, product of integral elements are integral over R .

Proof. (\implies): Easy by induction on n ((1) \implies (2)).

(\impliedby): Already proved ((3) \implies (1)). \square

Thus any element in $R[\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n]$ is integral ((3) \implies (1)).

Definition 9.2.5. Let $R \subseteq T$ be rings. The **integral closure of R in T** is $\overline{R}^T = \{\alpha \in T \mid \alpha \text{ integral over } R\}$.

Example 9.2.6. We have $\overline{\mathbb{Z}}^{\mathbb{Q}} = \mathbb{Z}$.

Definition 9.2.7. Let $R \subseteq T$, then

- If $\overline{R}^T = T$, then T is called **integral over R** .
- If $\overline{R}^T = R$, then R is called **integrally closed in T** .

Remark 9.2.8. The closure \overline{R}^T is subring of T (since sum, difference, product of integral are integral).

Lemma 9.2.9. Let $R \subseteq S \subseteq T$ be rings, if S is integral over R , and T is integral over S , then T is integral over R .

Proof. Let $\alpha \in T$, then $\exists s_1, \dots, s_n \in S$ such that $\alpha^n + s_1\alpha^{n-1} + \cdots + s_n = 0$. Hence $R[s_1, \dots, s_n, \alpha]$ is finitely generated $R[s_1, \dots, s_n]$ -module and $R[s_1, \dots, s_n]$ is finitely generated R -module. Therefore $R[s_1, \dots, s_n, \alpha]$ is finitely generated R -module. Then α is integral over R . \square

Corollary 9.2.10. The closure \overline{R}^T is integrally closed in T .

Proof. Apply lemma, $R \subseteq \overline{R}^T \subseteq \overline{\overline{R}^T}^T$. By lemma any element of $\overline{\overline{R}^T}^T$ is integral over R hence in \overline{R}^T . Thus $\overline{\overline{R}^T}^T = \overline{R}^T$. \square

Lemma 9.2.11. *Let $R \subseteq T$ be rings, with T integral over R , then*

- (1). *for all $J \subseteq T$ ideal, T/J is integral over $(R + J)/J (\simeq R/(R \cap J))$.*
- (2). *For all $S \subseteq R$ multiplicative set, $S^{-1}T$ is integral over $S^{-1}R$.*

Proof. Need to prove that

- (1). For all $\alpha \in T$, $\alpha + J$ is integral over $(R + J)/J$.
- (2). For all $\alpha \in T$, for all $s \in S$, $\frac{\alpha}{s}$ is integral over $S^{-1}R$.

Exercise. \square

Lemma 9.2.12 (Localization commutes with integral closure). *Let $R \subseteq T$ be rings, and let $S \subseteq R$ multiplicative set, then $\overline{S^{-1}R}^{S^{-1}T} = S^{-1}(\overline{R}^T)$.*

Proof. (\supseteq) : By statement (2) in previous lemma (\overline{R}^T) is integral over R implies that $S^{-1}\overline{R}^T$ is integral over $S^{-1}R$.

(\subseteq) : We have $\frac{t}{s} \in \overline{S^{-1}R}^{S^{-1}T} \implies \exists r_i \in R, s_i \in R, (\frac{t}{s})^n + (\frac{r_1}{s_1})(\frac{t}{s})^{n-1} + \dots + (\frac{r_n}{s_n}) = 0$. Then multiply by $(ss_1 \dots s_n)^n$ implies that $(ts_1 \dots s_n)^n + \dots = 0$. Thus $ts_1 \dots s_n$ is integral over R . Hence $\frac{t}{s} = \frac{ts_1 \dots s_n}{ss_1 \dots s_n} \in S^{-1}\overline{R}^T$. \square

Definition 9.2.13. A domain R is called **integrally closed** if it is integrally closed in its field of fraction.

Example 9.2.14. We have

- $\overline{\mathbb{Z}}^{\mathbb{Q}} = \mathbb{Z}$ hence \mathbb{Z} is integrally closed.
- Any UFD is integrally closed (same proof as for \mathbb{Z}).

Proposition 9.2.15 (Integrally closed is a local property). *For a domain R , the following are equivalent:*

- (1). *The domain R is integrally closed.*
- (2). *The local ring R_P is integrally closed for all $P \subseteq R$ prime ideal.*
- (3). *The local ring R_P is integrally closed for all $P \subseteq R$ maximal ideal.*

Proof. Let K be the field of fraction of R , for all P prime, we have $R \subseteq R_P \subseteq K = R_{\{0\}}$. Hence K is a field of fractions of R_P . Let $C = \overline{R}^K$. By previous lemma, $C_P = (\overline{R_P})^K$. Let

$$\begin{aligned}\phi : R &\longrightarrow C, \\ r &\longmapsto r,\end{aligned}$$

be embedding map, and for $P \subseteq R$ prime, let

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_P : R_P &\longrightarrow C_P, \\ \frac{r}{s} &\longmapsto \frac{r}{s},\end{aligned}$$

localization of ϕ at P , we have

- (1) $\iff \phi$ surjective,
- (2) $\iff \phi_P$ surjective $\forall P \subseteq R$ prime,
- (3) $\iff \phi_P$ surjective $\forall P \subseteq R$ maximal.

The 3 statements are equivalent since “being surjective is a local property”. \square

9.3 Going Up/Down Theorems

Remark 9.3.1. Let $R \subseteq T$ be rings such that for all $J \subseteq T$ ideal, $J \cap R$ is ideal, and $\forall J \subseteq T$ prime ideal, $J \cap R$ prime (indeed $R \cap J$ is contraction of J for embedding map $R \hookrightarrow T$). We will show that if T integral over R , then any prime ideal of R is of this form.

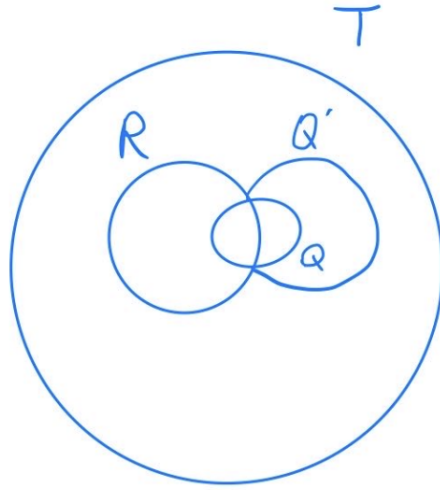
Lemma 9.3.2. Let $R \subseteq T$ be domains and T is integral over R , then T is a field if and only if R is a field.

Proof. Exercise. \square

Corollary 9.3.3. Let $R \subseteq T$ be a ring such that T is integral over R , let $Q \subseteq T$ be a maximal ideal of T , then Q is maximal in T if and only if $Q \cap R$ is maximal in R .

Proof. We have $T/Q, R/R \cap Q$ are domains (since $Q, Q \cap R$ are prime). By lemma, T/Q is integral over $(R + Q)/Q \simeq R/R \cap Q$. Hence Q is maximal if and only if T/Q is a field if and only if $R/R \cap Q$ is a field if and only if $R \cap Q$ is maximal. \square

Corollary 9.3.4. Let $R \subseteq T$ be rings, T integral over R , let $Q \subseteq Q' \subseteq T$ be prime ideals. If $Q \cap R = Q' \cap R$ then $Q = Q'$.



Proof. Assume $Q \cap R = Q' \cap R$, then the ideal $P = Q \cap R$ is prime ideal of R . By lemma, T_P is integral over R_P (here $T_P = S^{-1}T, S = R \setminus P$). The localization of Q_P, Q'_P satisfy $Q_P \cap R_P = Q'_P \cap R_P = (Q \cap R)_P = P_P$ maximal ideal of R_P . By Corollary 9.3.3, Q_P, Q'_P are maximal ideals of T_P . Since $Q_P \subseteq Q'_P$, we get $Q_P = Q'_P$. Moreover, Q and Q' are prime and not intersecting $S = R \setminus P$. Hence they are contractions via localization at P . Hence $Q = Q_P^C = Q'_P^C = Q'$. \square

Theorem 9.3.5. Let $R \subseteq T$ be rings, T integral over R , for all $P \subseteq R$ prime ideal of R , there is $Q \subseteq T$ prime ideal of T such that $P = Q \cap R$.

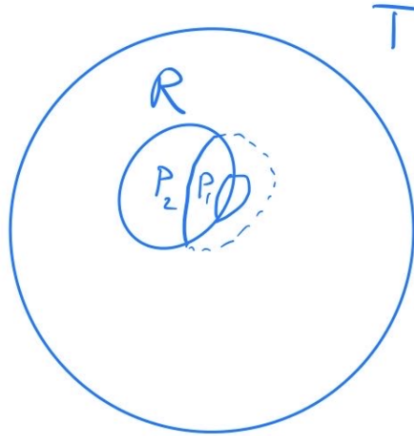
Proof. We have that T_P integral over R_P . Moreover, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \xhookrightarrow{\alpha} & T \\ \phi \downarrow & & \downarrow \psi \\ R_P & \xrightarrow{\beta} & T_P \end{array},$$

where α, β embedding map, ϕ, ψ localization maps is commutative ($r \mapsto \frac{r}{1} \in T_P$).

Let M be a maximal ideal of T_P , then $\beta^{-1}(M) = M \cap R_P$ is maximal ideal of R_P (by Corollary 9.3.3). Hence $\beta^{-1}(M) = P_P$ and thus $\phi^{-1}(\beta^{-1}(M)) = P$. Therefore $P = \alpha^{-1}(\psi^{-1}(M)) = R \cap \psi^{-1}(M)$ where the last term is prime ideal of T . \square

Corollary 9.3.6 (Going Up Theorem). Let $R \subseteq T$ be rings, T integral over R , let $P_1 \subseteq P_2 \subseteq R$ be prime ideal, let Q_1 prime ideal of T , such that $P_1 = Q_1 \cap R$, then $\exists Q_2 \supseteq Q_1$, prime ideal of T such that $P_2 = Q_2 \cap R$.



Proof. By previous lemma, T/Q is integral over $R + Q_1/Q_1 \simeq R/P_1$, and P_2/P_1 is prime in R/P_1 . Hence by previous theorem, there is $\overline{Q_2} \subseteq T/Q_1$ such that $P_2/P_1 = \overline{Q_2} \cap R/P_1$ and $\overline{Q_2} = Q_2/Q_1$ for some $Q_2 \supseteq Q_1$ prime ideal of T . Hence $P_2/P_1 = (Q_2 \cap R)/P_1$. Therefore, $P_2 = Q_2 \cap R$. \square

Corollary 9.3.7. *The dimension $\dim R = \dim T$.*

Dedekind Domains and Discrete Valuation Rings

10.1 Basic Definitions and Results

Recall:

- A **Dedekind domain** is a Noetherian domain of dimension 1 which is integrally closed.
- In Noetherian domain of dimension 1, any ideal $I \neq 0$ can be written uniquely as $I = \prod Q_i$ with Q_i primary with distinct radicals.

Goal: show that in Dedekind domain, $I \neq 0$ has a unique factorization $I = \prod P_i^{d_i}$ where P_i are prime ideals.

Motivations:

Definition 10.1.1. We say

- An **algebraic number field** is a finite algebraic extension L of \mathbb{Q} .
- Its **ring of integers** is $\overline{\mathbb{Z}}^L$.

Example 10.1.2. Let $L = \mathbb{Q}[i]$ be an algebraic number field and then $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is its ring of integers.

Theorem 10.1.3. The ring of integers $\overline{\mathbb{Z}}^L$ of any algebraic number field is a Dedekind domain.

Lemma 10.1.4. Let R be a domain integrally closed in its field of fraction K . If L is a finite separable extension of K , then there exists b_1, \dots, b_n basis of L over K such that $\overline{R}^L \subseteq \langle b_1, \dots, b_n \rangle$.

Proof. Skipped (field theory). □

Proof of Theorem 10.1.3. To show Dedekind domain, we are to show

- it is Noetherian domain,
- it is dimension 1,
- it is integrally closed.

We see

- $\overline{\mathbb{Z}}^L$ is a domain since it is included in L , which is a field.
- Since $K = \mathbb{Q}$ has characteristic zero, any extension of \mathbb{Q} is separable.

Hence lemma gives $\overline{\mathbb{Z}}^L \subseteq \mathbb{Z}\langle b_1, \dots, b_n \rangle$ is finitely generated \mathbb{Z} -module. Since \mathbb{Z} is PID, we have $\overline{\mathbb{Z}}^L$ is finitely generated \mathbb{Z} -module. Also since \mathbb{Z} is Noetherian, we have $\overline{\mathbb{Z}}^L$ is Noetherian (finitely generated algebraic over Noetherian). Hence we have

- $\overline{\mathbb{Z}}^L$ is integrally closed in its field of fraction K since $K \subseteq L$,
- $\dim(\overline{\mathbb{Z}}^L) = \dim(\mathbb{Z}) = 1$ since dimension of integral extension equals the dimension of the ring.

Hence the theorem is proved. □

Definition 10.1.5. Let K be a field. A **discrete valuation** is $v : K^\times \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ such that

- v is surjective,
- $v(xy) = v(x) + v(y)$,
- $v(x + y) \geq \min(v(x), v(y))$.

(v is surjective group homomorphism $(K^\times, \times) \longrightarrow (\mathbb{Z}, +)$). We get $v(0) = +\infty$.

Example 10.1.6. Let $K = \mathbb{Q}$, given p prime number we define $v_p(q) = k$ if $q = p^k \frac{a}{b}$ where $p \nmid a, p \nmid b$.

Remark 10.1.7. We have $v(1) = 0, v(x^{-1}) = -v(x), v(-1) = -v(-1) = 0, v(-x) = v(x)$. We also have $K_v = \{x \in K | v(x) \geq 0\}$ is a subring of K .

Definition 10.1.8. The ring R is a **discrete valuation ring (d.v.r)** if $R = K_v$ for some field K and discrete valuation v .

Example 10.1.9. We have $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)} = \{\frac{a}{b} | p \nmid b\}$ is a d.v.r since $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)} = \mathbb{Q}_{v_p}$ with v_p defined as before.

Remark 10.1.10. We have the following facts:

- For any d.v.r $K_v, \forall x \in K$, either x or x^{-1} is in K_v .
- An element $x \in K_v$ is invertible if and only if $v(x) = 0$.
- If $0 \leq v(x) \leq v(y)$ then $x|y$ in K_v (because $yx^{-1} \in K_v$).

Theorem 10.1.11. *Let R be a ring, then R is a local Dedekind domain if and only if R is a d.v.r. Moreover, the following are equivalent properties for a local Noetherian domain of dimension 1:*

- (1). *The ring R is integrally closed (hence local Dedekind).*
- (2). *The maximal ideal $M \subseteq R$ is principal (generated by a single element).*
- (3). *Every ideal $I \neq 0$ is a power of the maximal ideal M .*
- (4). *There exists $p \in R$ such that every ideal is of the form (p^k) .*
- (5). *The ring R is a d.v.r.*

Proof. (\Leftarrow): We see

- Let R be a d.v.r. Let $p \in R, v(p) = 1$. For $I \neq 0$ ideal, and let $k = \min_{x \in I} (v(x))$. Then there exists $x \in I, v(x) = k = v(p^k)$. This implies $p^k \in I$ (since $x|p^k$) and $I = (p^k)$ (since for all $y \in I, v(p^k) \leq v(y) \implies p^k|y$). Given that the nonzero ideal are $(p) \supseteq (p^2) \supseteq (p^3) \supseteq \dots$, it is clear that R is Noetherian, local of dimension 1 (unique nonzero prime ideal is (p)).
- Lastly R is integrally closed, let $\alpha \in K$ field of fractions of R . Suppose $\exists r_1, \dots, r_n \in R$ such that $\alpha^n + r_1\alpha^{n-1} + \dots + r_n = 0$. If $\alpha \notin R$, then $\alpha^{-1} \in R$ (since R is d.v.r). Hence $\alpha = -r_1 - r_2\alpha^{-1} - \dots - r_n(\alpha^{-1})^{n-1} \in R$.

(\implies): It suffices to show $(1) \implies (2) \implies (3) \implies (4) \implies (5)$ (we have already proved $(5) \implies (1)$). We prove

$(1) \implies (2)$ and $(2) \implies (3)$ are left as homework.

$(3) \implies (4)$: We have $M^2 \subseteq M$ and $M^2 \neq M$ (because $M = J$ Jacobson radical), hence there exists $p \in M \setminus M^2$. Then $\exists n, (p) = M^n$ implies that $(p) = M$ and thus for all $k, M^k = (p^k)$.

$(4) \implies (5)$: Take $M = (p)$ is the unique maximal ideal, hence $(p) = J$ Jacobson radical, for all $k, (p^{k+1}) \neq (p^k)$ (because $J \cdot N = N$ implies $N = 0$). Hence for any $x \in R \setminus \{0\}, \exists! k \geq 0, (x) = (p^k)$ and we define $v(x) = k$. We extend v to the field of fractions K of R by $v(\frac{a}{b}) = v(a) - v(b)$. It is easy to see that $R = K_v$ is a d.v.r. \square

Theorem 10.1.12. *Let R be a Noetherian domain of dimension 1, the following are equivalent:*

- (a). R is integrally closed (hence Dedekind).
- (b). For all $P \subseteq R$ prime, R_P is a local Dedekind (equivalent to a d.v.r).
- (c). Every primary ideal is a power of prime ideal.
- (d). Every nonzero ideal has a unique factorization into prime ideals.

Lemma 10.1.13. *Ideal P maximal implies that P^n primary for all n (homework).*

Proof of Theorem 10.1.12. (a) \implies (b): integrally closed is a local property.

(b) \implies (c): Let Q be primary ideal and let $P = r(Q)$, then Q primary implies that $Q = Q^{ec}$ for $R \longrightarrow R_P$. Then R_P local Dedekind implies that $Q^e = Q_P$ is a power of the maximal P_P . Hence $Q = (P_P^k)^c = ((P^k)_P)^c = (P^k)^{ec} = P^k$ where P^k is primary as power of maximal.

(c) \implies (b): Let P be prime ideal, want to show R_P is local Dedekind by previous theorem, it suffices to show that any ideal of R_P is a power of P_P . [We skip the fact that Q has RPD and localizations].

(c) \implies (d): Existence: $I = \prod Q_i$ with Q_i primary (already shown) implies that $I = \prod P_i^{d_i}$ by (c). Uniqueness: We have $\{Q_1, \dots, Q_n\}$ is unique (already shown). Hence we see $P^d = P'^{d'}$ which implies $r(P^d) = r(P'^{d'})$ hence $P = P'$. Further, $P^d = P'^{d'}$ implies $d = d'$ because $P^k = P^{k+1}$ implies $P_P^k = P_P^{k+1}$ implies $P_P = 0$ by Nakayama lemma, hence impossible (since it is a domain).

(d) \implies (c): Let Q be primary, $Q = \prod P_i^{d_i}$ implies that $r(Q) = \bigcap r(P_i^{d_i}) = \bigcap P_i$. Also $r(Q)$ prime hence $r(Q) = P_i$ for some i . This shows $Q = P_i^{d_i}$. □

Part III

Homological Algebra

Motivational Examples

11.1 Chains of Modules

Let R be a ring, $\mathcal{R}\text{-Mod}$ = category of R -modules (left R -modules).

Definition 11.1.1. A **chain complex** (in $\mathcal{R}\text{-Mod}$) is $C_* = (C_n)_{n \geq 0}$ and $d_* = (d_n)_{n > 0}$ where C_n is R -module, $d_n : C_n \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ is R -module homomorphism such that $d_n \circ d_{n+1} = 0$

$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} C_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} C_0.$$

Example 11.1.2. Take C_* associated to the simplicial complex such that $C_n = \mathbb{Z}\langle n\text{-cell} \rangle$, d_n : “boundary maps”.

Definition 11.1.3. Let (C_*, d_*) be chain complex (in $\mathcal{R}\text{-Mod}$), we denote that $Z_n(C_*) = \ker(d_n) \subseteq C_n$, namely the “**cycles**” and $B_n(C_*) = \text{Im}(d_{n+1}) \subseteq C_n$ “**boundaries**”. Since $d_n d_{n+1} = 0$ and $B_n \subseteq Z_n$ and we can take quotient $H_n(C_*) = Z_n/B_n$, the n -th **homology group** of C_* .

Example 11.1.4. Consider the torus with $H_1(C_*) = \mathbb{Z} \text{ cycles} / \mathbb{Z} \text{ contractible cycles}$.

Remark 11.1.5. Chain C_* is exact if and only if $H_n(C_*) = 0 \forall n$. Hence $H_n(C_*)$ is the measure of non-exactness of the n -th step.

Definition 11.1.6. Let C_*, C'_* be chain complexes. A **chain map** $f_* : C_* \longrightarrow C'_*$ is $f_* = (f_n)_{n \geq 0}$, and $f_n : C_n \longrightarrow C'_n$ module homomorphism such that “every squares commute” in

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_n & \xrightarrow{d_n} & C_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots \longrightarrow C_0 \\ & & \downarrow f_n & & \downarrow f_{n-1} & & \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & C'_n & \xrightarrow{d'_n} & C'_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots \longrightarrow C'_0 \end{array}$$

and $df = fd'$.

Example 11.1.7. If C_*, C'_* are associated with some simplicial complexes... To be filled.

Remark 11.1.8. If $f_* : C_* \rightarrow C'_*$ is a chain map, then for all n , f_n sends cycles to cycles (boundaries to boundaries).

In $f(Z_n(C_*)) \subseteq Z_n(C'_*)$ because $df(Z_n(C_*)) = fd(Z_n(C_*)) = f0 = 0$. Moreover, $f_n(B_n(C_*)) \subseteq B_n(C'_*)$ because $f(d_{C_{n+1}}) = df(C_{n+1}) \subseteq \text{Im}d$.

Definition 11.1.9. Let $f_* : C_* \rightarrow C'_*$ be a chain map, by preceding remark we can define

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{f}_n : H_n(C_*) &\rightarrow H_n(C'_*), \\ \alpha + B_n(C_*) &\mapsto f_n(\alpha) + B_n(C'_*) \end{aligned}$$

where $\alpha \in Z_n(C_*)$. This is a well-defined homomorphism by preceding remark (sends boundaries to boundaries).

Remark 11.1.10. Composition of chain maps are chain maps, that is, $\overline{f}_n \circ \overline{g}_n = \overline{f_n \circ g_n}$ (functoriality).

Definition 11.1.11 (Chain Homotopy). Let $f_*, g_* : C_* \rightarrow C'_*$ be chain maps. We say that f_*, g_* are **homotopy equivalent** if there exists $h = (h_n)_{n \geq 0}$, $h_n : C_n \rightarrow C'_{n+1}$ R -module homomorphism such that for all n , $f_n - g_n = h_{n-1}d_n + d'_{n+1}h_n$. It can be viewed as

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} & C_n & \xrightarrow{d_n} & C_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\ & & & \searrow h_n & \downarrow f_n & \downarrow g_n & \swarrow h_{n-1} & & \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & C'_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d'_{n+1}} & C'_n & \xrightarrow{d'_n} & C'_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots \end{array}$$

where we have notation $f_* \underset{h}{\simeq} g_*$.

Example 11.1.12. To be filled.

Lemma 11.1.13. If chain maps $f_*, g_* : C_* \rightarrow C'_*$ are homotopy equivalent, then $\overline{f}_n = \overline{g}_n : H_n(C_*) \rightarrow H_n(C'_*)$.

Proof. Suppose $f_* \underset{h}{\simeq} g_*$, for all $\alpha \in Z_n(C_*)$, $f_n(\alpha) - g_n(\alpha) = dh(\alpha) + hd(\alpha) = dh(\alpha) \in B_n(C'_*)$. Hence $\overline{f}_n(\alpha) = f_n(\alpha) + B_n(C'_*) = g_n(\alpha) + B_n(C'_*) = \overline{g}_n(\alpha)$. \square

Definition 11.1.14. Two chain complex C_*, C'_* are **homotopy equivalent** if there is chain maps $f_* : C_* \rightarrow C'_*$ and $g_* : C'_* \rightarrow C_*$ such that $g_* \circ f_* \simeq \text{Id}_{C_*}$, $f_* \circ g_* \simeq \text{Id}_{C'_*}$.

Corollary 11.1.15. If C_*, C'_* are homotopy equivalent then for all n , we have $H_n(C_*) \simeq H_n(C'_*)$ isomorphism of R -module.

Proof. By lemma $\overline{g_n} \circ \overline{f_n} = \text{Id}_{H_n(C_*)}$ and $\overline{f_n} \circ \overline{g_n} = \text{Id}_{H_n(C'_*)}$. Hence $\overline{f_n}, \overline{g_n}$ are isomorphism. \square

Definition 11.1.16. We have the following definitions:

- A **resolution** for a R -module M is an exact sequence of the form $\cdots \longrightarrow C_2 \longrightarrow C_1 \longrightarrow C_0 \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0$. Abbreviated by $C_* \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0$.
- A **free resolution** is a resolution such that for all n, C_n is free R -module: $(C_* \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0)$.

Lemma 11.1.17. We have the following statements:

- For any R -module N , there exists free R -module F and $\phi : F \longrightarrow N$ surjective R -module homomorphism. That is, $\exists \text{ free } F \xrightarrow{\exists \phi} \forall N$.
- For any F free, for any $\phi : F \rightarrow N$, for any $\psi : N' \twoheadrightarrow N$ surjective homomorphism, there exists ϕ' such that $\psi \circ \phi' = \phi$. That is, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} F \text{ free} & & \\ \downarrow \exists \phi' & \searrow \forall \phi & \\ N' & \xrightarrow{\forall \psi} & N \end{array}$$

commutes.

Proof. Exercise. Easy consequence of the fact that if F is free with basis $\{b_i\}$, then for any M module, for all $\{x_i\} \subseteq M$, there is $\phi : F \longrightarrow M$ such that $\phi(b_i) = x_i$. \square

Theorem 11.1.18 (Fundamental Theorem of Homological Algebra). We have

- for all M, R -module, there is free resolution $C_* \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0$, and
- for all $f : M \rightarrow M'$ homomorphism, for any free resolution, $C_* \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0$ and $C'_* \longrightarrow M' \longrightarrow 0$. There is $f_* : C_* \longrightarrow C'_*$ chain map “lifting f ”, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_0 & \xrightarrow{d_0} & M & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & & \downarrow f_0 & & \downarrow f & & \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & C'_0 & \xrightarrow{d'_0} & M' & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

commutes with $d'_0 f_0 = f d_0$. Moreover, we have

- the free resolution C_* of M is unique up to homotopy, and
- the lifting f_* of f is unique up to homotopy.

Proof. We see

- Existence of free resolution: applying (a) to $N = M$ gives C_0, d_0 that $C_0 \xrightarrow{d_0} M \rightarrow 0$. Applying (a) to $N = \ker(d_0)$ gives C_1, d_1, \dots , etc.
- Existence of chain map lifting f :

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc}
 C_n & \rightrightarrows & C_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_0 & \longrightarrow & M = C_{-1} & \longrightarrow & 0 \\
 \downarrow ? & \searrow f_{n-1} & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow f=f_{-1} & & \\
 C'_n & \longrightarrow & C'_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots & \longrightarrow & C'_0 & \longrightarrow & M' = C'_{-1} & \longrightarrow & 0
 \end{array}$$

for all $n \geq 0$, we need to find f_n from f_{n-1} (such that $d'f = fd$).

Observe that $f_{n-1} \circ d_n(C_n) \subseteq \ker(d'_{n-1})$ since $d'_{n-1} \circ f_{n-1} \circ d_n = d'_{n-2} \circ d'_{n-1} \circ f_n = 0$ since $d'_{n-2} \circ d'_{n-1} = 0$. So we have

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 C_n \text{ free} & & \\
 \exists \downarrow & \searrow f_{n-1}d_n & \\
 C'_n & \xrightarrow{d'_n} & \text{Im}(d'_n) = \ker(d'_{n-1})
 \end{array}$$

By (b), there is $f_n : C_n \rightarrow C'_n$ such that $d'_n f_n = f_{n-1} d_n$.

Then we see

- Uniqueness of f_* up to homotopy. Suppose f_*, g_* both lift $f : M \rightarrow M'$. Then $l_n = f_n - g_n$ lifts $0 : M \rightarrow M'$. We want to find $(h_n), h_n : C_n \rightarrow C'_{n+1}$ such that $l = hd + d'h$. How about h_0 ? We have the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 & & C_0 & \xrightarrow{d_0} & M \\
 & \swarrow h_0 & \downarrow l_0 & & \downarrow l=0 \\
 C'_1 & \xrightarrow{d'_1} & C'_0 & \xrightarrow{d'_0} & M'
 \end{array}$$

and want $l_0 = d'_1 h_0$. Since $d'_0 l_0 = 0 d_0 = 0$, we have

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & & C_0 \\
 & \swarrow \exists h_0 & \downarrow l_0 \\
 C'_1 & \xrightarrow{d'_1} & \ker(d'_0) = \text{Im}(d'_1)
 \end{array}$$

commutes. By (b), there is h_0 such that $l_0 = d'_1 \circ h_0$.

For $n > 0$, we want h_n such that $d'_{n+1}h_n = l_n - h_{n-1}d_n$ such that

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & C_n & \xrightarrow{d_n} C_{n-1} \\
 & \downarrow l_n & \swarrow h_{n-1} \\
 C'_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d'_{n+1}} C'_n &
 \end{array}
 \quad \begin{array}{c}
 \text{dotted arrow } h_n \text{ from } C_n \text{ to } C'_{n+1} \\
 \text{dotted arrow } l_n \text{ from } C_n \text{ to } C'_n
 \end{array}$$

commutes. We have also

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & C_n & \\
 & \downarrow l_n - h_{n-1}d_n & \\
 C'_{n+1} & \twoheadrightarrow \ker(d'_n) = \text{Im}(d'_{n+1}) &
 \end{array}$$

(Indeed, $d'_n(l_n - h_{n-1}d_n) = l_{n-1}d_n - d'_nh_{n-1}d_n = (l_{n-1} - d'_nh_{n-1})d_n = h_{n-2}d_{n-1}d_n = 0$). By (b), there is h_n such that $d'_{n+1}h_n = l_n - h_{n-1}d_n$.

- Uniqueness of free resolution up to homotopy: let $C_* \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0, C'_* \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$ be free resolution of M . There is $f_* : C_* \rightarrow C'_*$ lifted $\text{Id} : M \rightarrow M$, and $g_* : C'_* \rightarrow C_*$ lifted $\text{Id} : M \rightarrow M$. Then $g_*f_* : C_* \rightarrow C_*$ lifts Id_M implies that $g_*f_* \simeq \text{Id}_{C_*}$ and $f_*g_* : C'_* \rightarrow C'_*$ lifts Id_M implies that $f_*g_* \simeq \text{Id}_{C'_*}$.

Generalizations? Projective modules. □

11.2 Projective Modules

Definition 11.2.1. A R -module P is **projective** if it satisfies

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 P & & \\
 \downarrow \exists \phi' & \searrow \forall \phi & \\
 M & \twoheadrightarrow N & \\
 \text{\scriptsize } \forall \psi \text{ surjective} & &
 \end{array}$$

commuting (prop (b) of free module).

Remark 11.2.2. We have

- By lemma 11.1.17 (b), any free module is projective. By (a), for any $N \in \mathcal{R} - \text{Mod}$, there is P projective and $\phi : P \twoheadrightarrow N$ surjective. “ $\mathcal{R} - \text{Mod}$ has enough projective.” This implies that for any $M \in \mathcal{R} - \text{Mod}$, there exists $P^* \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$ projective resolution of M .

- The theorem remains true if we replace “free” by “projective” everywhere. (existence of projective resolution by above, existence of f^* , uniqueness up to homotopy only use (b) = definition of projective).
- Reversing arrows.

Definition 11.2.3. A R -module E is **injective** if it satisfies

$$\begin{array}{ccc} M & \xrightarrow{\forall \psi \text{ injective}} & N \\ \forall \phi \downarrow & \nearrow \exists \phi' & \\ E & & \end{array}$$

commuting.

Definition 11.2.4. An **injective coresolution** for a R -module M is

$$0 \longrightarrow M \xrightarrow{d_0} E_0 \xrightarrow{d_1} E_1 \longrightarrow E_2 \longrightarrow \dots$$

exact sequence with E_n injective module.

Question: Do they exist? Existence amounts to showing for any N , there exists E injective and $N \hookrightarrow E$ injective homomorphism.

Exercise: show that when they exist, injective coresolution are unique up to homotopy.

More general categories: How to define “exact sequence” in a category? How about surjective, injective, kernel, images ($H_n = Z_n/B_n$)? This leads us to Abelian categories

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \begin{array}{c} \curvearrowright \\ \downarrow F \end{array} C_* & \longrightarrow & M & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & & & & \\ F(C_*) & \longrightarrow & FM & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array} .$$

12.1 Category Notations

Let \mathcal{C} be a category, then

- $A \in \mathcal{C}$ means A is an object of \mathcal{C} .
- For objects $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$, we denote $\mathcal{C}(A, B)$, which is the set $\text{Mor}_{\mathcal{C}}(A, B)$ of \mathcal{C} -morphisms from A to B .
- We denote $\mathcal{S}et$ the category of sets.
- We denote $\mathcal{R} - \text{Mod}$ category of left R -module, and $\text{Mod} - \mathcal{R}$ category of right R -module.
- We denote $\mathcal{A}b = \mathbb{Z} - \text{Mod}$ category of Abelian group.

Definition 12.1.1. We have

- $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$ is a **monomorphism** if for all $X \in \mathcal{C}, \forall g_1 \neq g_2 \in \mathcal{C}(X, A)$, we have $fg_1 \neq fg_2$, that is

$$\begin{array}{c}
 X \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{g_1} \\ \xrightarrow{g_2} \end{array} A \xrightarrow{f} B
 \end{array}$$

(i.e., $fg_1 = fg_2$ implies $g_1 = g_2$ can simplify f on the left). We write $f : A \rightarrowtail B$ to indicate f is a monomorphism.

- $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$ is an **epimorphism** if for any $X \in \mathcal{C}, \forall g_1 \neq g_2 \in \mathcal{C}(B, X), g_1 f \neq g_2 f$. We write $f : A \twoheadrightarrow B$, that is,

$$A \xrightarrow{f} B \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{g_1} \\ \xrightarrow{g_2} \end{array} X .$$

Example 12.1.2. In $\mathcal{S}et$ and in $\mathcal{R} - \mathcal{M}od$, f is monomorphism if and only if f is injective. Also f is epimorphism if and only if f is surjective.

Notation: For $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$, we denote $f_{\#} : g \mapsto fg$ where g is in $\mathcal{C}(X, A)$ and fg in $\mathcal{C}(X, B)$. Similarly we denote $_{\#}f : g \mapsto gf$ where the first g is in $\mathcal{C}(B, X)$ and gf in $\mathcal{C}(A, X)$.

Remark 12.1.3. We have f is monomorphism if and only if $f_{\#}$ is injective. And f is epimorphism if and only if $_{\#}f$ is injective.

Remark 12.1.4. We have f is isomorphism implies that f is monomorphism and epimorphism (converse not always true).

Definition 12.1.5. An object $P \in \mathcal{C}$ is **projective** if it satisfies

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P & & \\ \exists g' \downarrow \text{dotted} & \searrow \forall g & \\ A & \xrightarrow{h} & B \end{array}$$

and for all $A, B \in \mathcal{C}, \forall g : P \rightarrow B, \forall h : A \twoheadrightarrow B$, there is $g' : P \rightarrow A$ such that $hg' = g$. Similarly, an object $E \in \mathcal{C}$ is **injective** if it satisfies

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{h} & B \\ & \searrow g & \downarrow \exists g' \text{ dotted} \\ & & E \end{array}$$

12.2 Additive Categories

Definition 12.2.1. An **additive category** is a category \mathcal{C} such that for any $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$, $\mathcal{C}(A, B)$ is an additive group and we have the following:

- (1). Operation is biadditive $(f_1 + f_2)g = f_1g + f_2g$ and $g(f_1 + f_2) = gf_1 + gf_2$.
- (2). The category \mathcal{C} has a zero object $0_{\mathcal{C}}$.

- (3). Any finite tuple of objects A_1, \dots, A_n have a product. That is, $\prod_{i=1}^n A_i$ and a coproduct $\coprod_{i=1}^n A_i$.

Lemma 12.2.2. In \mathcal{C} additive category, we have $\prod_{i=1}^n A_i \simeq \coprod_{i=1}^n A_i$.

Example 12.2.3. Some examples of additive category:

- $\mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}, \mathcal{Mod} - \mathcal{R}$.
- $\mathcal{R} - \mathcal{mod}, \mathcal{mod} - \mathcal{R}$, the category of finitely generated R -module.

Definition 12.2.4. Let $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$, a **kernel** of f is $K \in \mathcal{C}$ and $q \in \mathcal{C}(K, A)$ such that

- (1). we have $f q = 0$, and
- (2). for any $X \in \mathcal{C}$, for any $g \in \mathcal{C}(X, A)$ such that $f g = 0$, there exists \tilde{g} such that $g = q \tilde{g}$. We have the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & X & & \\ & \swarrow \exists \tilde{g} & \downarrow \forall g & \searrow 0 & \\ K & \xrightarrow{q} & A & \xrightarrow{f} & B \end{array}$$

commutes.

Example 12.2.5. In $\mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}$, and f as R -module homomorphism, let $K = \{a \in A \mid f(a) = 0\}$, and

$$\begin{aligned} q : K &\longrightarrow A, \\ a &\longmapsto a. \end{aligned}$$

Then (K, q) is the kernel of f in $\mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}$.

Lemma 12.2.6. When f has a kernel, they are unique up to \mathcal{C} -isomorphism, that is, we have K, q kernel if the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \forall X & \xrightarrow{\exists!} & K \\ \downarrow g & \searrow 0 & \downarrow \\ A & \xrightarrow{f} & B \end{array}$$

commutes.

Remark 12.2.7. Let \mathcal{C} be additive category and let $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$, for any $X \in \mathcal{C}$, the map

$$\begin{aligned} f_{\#} : \mathcal{C}(X, A) &\longrightarrow \mathcal{C}(X, B), \\ g &\longmapsto fg, \end{aligned}$$

is homomorphism of additive group. Its kernel (in group sense) is $\ker(f_{\#}) = \{g \mid fg = 0\}$.

Lemma 12.2.8. Let \mathcal{C} be additive category and $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$, then (K, q) is the kernel of f if and only if for any $X \in \mathcal{C}$, we have

- $\text{Im}(q_{\#}) = \ker(f_{\#})(\exists! \tilde{g})$,
- $q_{\#}$ injective ($\exists! \tilde{g}$).

That is, we have the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & X & & \\ & \swarrow \exists! \tilde{g} & \downarrow \forall g & \searrow 0 & \\ K & \xrightarrow{q} & A & \xrightarrow{f} & B \end{array}$$

commutes if and only if for any $X \in \mathcal{C}$, we have $0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{C}(X, K) \xrightarrow{q_{\#}} \mathcal{C}(X, A) \xrightarrow{f_{\#}} \mathcal{C}(X, B)$ is exact sequence of additive group.

Corollary 12.2.9. A \mathcal{C} -morphism f is a monomorphism if and only if $(0, 0)$ is the kernel of f .

Proof. We have f monomorphism if and only if $f_{\#}$ is injective if and only if $\ker(f_{\#}) = 0$.

(\Leftarrow) : if $(0, 0)$ is a kernel of f , then $\ker(f_{\#}) = \text{Im}(0_{\#}) = 0$, hence f is monomorphism.

(\Rightarrow) : If f is monomorphism, then $\ker(f_{\#}) = 0$ implies that $q = 0_{\mathcal{C}(0, A)}$ satisfies

- $\text{Im}(q_{\#}) = 0 = \ker(f_{\#})$,
- $q_{\#}$ is injective (since $\mathcal{C}(X, 0) = \{0\}$).

Hence the corollary. □

Remark 12.2.10. If (K, q) is kernel of f then q is monomorphism (since $q_{\#}$ is injective).

Definition 12.2.11. A **cokernel** of $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$ is (C, p) , $C \in \mathcal{C}$, $p \in \mathcal{C}(B, C)$ such that

- (1). $pf = 0$,
- (2). for any $X \in \mathcal{C}$, $\forall g \in \mathcal{C}(B, X)$ such that $gf = 0$, there exists unique $\bar{g} : C \rightarrow X$ such that $g = p\bar{g}$, that is, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & \xrightarrow{p} & C \\
 & \searrow 0 & \downarrow \forall g & \swarrow \exists! \bar{g} & \\
 & & X & &
 \end{array}$$

commutes.

Remark 12.2.12. In $\mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}$, let $f \in \text{Hom}(A, B)$, let $C = B/\text{Im}(f)$, $p : B \rightarrow C$ quotient map, then (C, p) is a cokernel of f in $\mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}$. Indeed, if $gf = 0$, it means that $\text{Im}(f) \subseteq \ker(g)$, and we can define

$$\bar{g} : C \longrightarrow X,$$

$$b + \text{Im}(f) \longmapsto g(b),$$

and it is unique choice.

Lemma 12.2.13. *Cokernels are unique up to \mathcal{C} -isomorphism. Further, we have that (C, p) cokernel of f if and only if we have both*

- $\ker(\#f) = \text{Im}(\#p)$, and
- $\#p$ is injective

are satisfied, if and only if $\forall X \in \mathcal{C}$, we have $0 \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(C, X) \xrightarrow{\#p} \mathcal{C}(B, X) \xrightarrow{\#f} \mathcal{C}(A, X)$ is exact (recall that $\#p : g \mapsto gp$).

Remark 12.2.14. If (C, p) is a cokernel then $\#p$ is epimorphism.

12.3 Exact Sequences, Exact Functors

Definition 12.3.1. Let \mathcal{C} be additive category, a **left exact sequence** in \mathcal{C} is $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ with (A, f) is kernel of g .

Similarly, a **right exact sequence** in \mathcal{C} is $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ with (C, g) is cokernel of f .

Further, a **short exact sequence** in \mathcal{C} is $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$, with (A, f) is kernel of g and (C, g) cokernel of f .

Remark 12.3.2. Match the classical definitions in $\mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}$.

Definition 12.3.3. Let \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{D} be additive categories, a covariant or contravariant functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is **left exact** if $\mathcal{F}(\text{shortexact})$ is left exact.

Similarly, a covariant or contravariant functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is **right exact** if $\mathcal{F}(\text{shortexact})$ is right exact.

Further, we say a covariant or contravariant functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is **exact** if $\mathcal{F}(\text{shortexact})$ is short exact.

Explicitly, functor \mathcal{F} covariant left exact if $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ exact implies that $0 \rightarrow \mathcal{F}A \rightarrow \mathcal{F}B \rightarrow \mathcal{F}C$ exact. Functor \mathcal{F} contravariant left exact if $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ exact implies that $0 \rightarrow \mathcal{F}C \rightarrow \mathcal{F}B \rightarrow \mathcal{F}A$ exact.

Definition 12.3.4. Let \mathcal{C} be additive category and let $X \in \mathcal{C}$, we define

- $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, -)$ to be the **covariant functor** $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}\mathcal{B}$ defined by

$$A \longmapsto \mathcal{C}(X, A),$$

$$f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B) \longmapsto f_{\#} : \mathcal{C}(X, A) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(X, B).$$

- $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(-, X)$ to be the **contravariant functor** $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}\mathcal{B}$ defined by

$$A \longmapsto \mathcal{C}(A, X),$$

$$f \longmapsto_{\#} f.$$

Remark 12.3.5. By lemmas about kernel, cokernel, we use that $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(-, X)$ and $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, -)$ are left exact.

Proposition 12.3.6. *We have*

- *if $X \in \mathcal{C}$ is injective, then $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(-, X)$ exact.*
- *We have $X \in \mathcal{C}$ is projective implies that $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, -)$ exact.*

Proof. Homework. □

Abelian Categories, Chains, and Homology

13.1 Abelian Categories

Definition 13.1.1. An additive category \mathcal{C} is **abelian** if

- (a). Every \mathcal{C} –morphism has a kernel and a cokernel.
- (b). If $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$ is monomorphism and $g \in \mathcal{C}(B, C)$ is epimorphism, then (A, f) is a kernel of g if and only if (C, g) is cokernel of f (in this case $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ is exact).
- (c). Every \mathcal{C} –morphism f can be factored as $f = f'f''$ with f'' epimorphism and f' monomorphism, that is, we have the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & B \\ & \searrow f'' & \nearrow f' \\ & X & \end{array}$$

commutes.

Lemma 13.1.2. Let \mathcal{C} abelian category, let $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$, suppose $f = f'f''$ where f' monomorphism and f'' epimorphism, then

- (a). We have (K, q) is kernel of f if and only if (K, q) is kernel of f'' . In this case $0 \rightarrow K \xrightarrow{q} A \xrightarrow{f''} X \rightarrow 0$ exact.
- (b). We have (C, p) is cokernel of f if and only if (C, p) cokernel of f' . In this case $0 \rightarrow X \xrightarrow{f'} B \xrightarrow{p} C \rightarrow 0$ is exact.

Proof of Part (a). Since f' monomorphism, we have $f''g = 0$ if and only if $fg = 0$. Also (K, q) kernel of f if and only if $(fg = 0 \implies \exists! \tilde{g}, g = q\tilde{g})$ if and only if $(f''g = 0 \implies \exists! \tilde{g}, g = q\tilde{g})$ if and only if (K, q) kernel of f'' . \square

Definition 13.1.3. Let \mathcal{C} abelian category and let $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$. If

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & B \\ & \searrow f'' & \nearrow f' \\ & X & \end{array}$$

commutes, then we call X an **image** of f and write $X = \text{Im}(f)$.

Lemma 13.1.4. Let \mathcal{C} be abelian category, the image $\text{Im}(f)$ is unique up to \mathcal{C} -isomorphism. Moreover, $\text{Im}(f) \simeq \text{coker}(\ker(f)) \simeq \ker(\text{coker}(f))$.

Proof. Suppose

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & B \\ & \searrow f'' & \nearrow f' \\ & X & \end{array}$$

commutes, we need to show $X = \text{coker}(\ker(f))$. Let (K, q) be a kernel of f , then $0 \rightarrow K \xrightarrow{q} A \xrightarrow{f} X \rightarrow 0$ is exact, which implies that $X = \text{coker}(q) = \text{coker}(\ker(f))$. Same for other formula. \square

13.2 Chains

Definition 13.2.1. Let \mathcal{C} abelian category, a \mathcal{C} -**chain** is $C_* = (C_n)_{n \geq 0}$, $d_* = (d_n)_{n > 0}$ where $d_n \in \mathcal{C}(C_n, C_{n-1})$, $d_{n+1}d_n = 0$. A **morphism of \mathcal{C} -chains** from C_* to C'_* is $f_* = (f_n)_{n \geq 0}$ and $f_n \in \mathcal{C}(C_n, C'_n)$ such that $f_{n-1}d_n = d'_n f_n$.

Remark 13.2.2. We have \mathcal{C} -chains and their morphisms form a category denoted \mathcal{C} -**chain**.

Proposition 13.2.3. We have that \mathcal{C} additive category then \mathcal{C} -**chain** is additive category. Similarly, \mathcal{C} abelian category implies \mathcal{C} -**chain** abelian category.

Proof. We have

- $f_* + g_* = (f_n + g_n)$, and

- Direct sum of chains? We have $C_* \oplus C'_* = (C_n \oplus C'_n)$ defined by

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 C_n \oplus C'_n & \xrightarrow{d_n \oplus d'_n} & C_{n-1} \oplus C'_{n-1} & & \\
 & \searrow d_n p_n & \nearrow q_n & & \\
 & & C_{n-1} & & \\
 & \searrow d'_n p'_n & \nearrow q'_n & & \\
 & & C'_{n-1} & &
 \end{array}$$

component wise and commutes. Exercise: Show that this is a direct sum in $\mathcal{C} - \text{chain}$.

- Kernels? Let $f_* : C_* \rightarrow C'_*$, we have

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 \ker(f_n) & \xrightarrow{q_n} & C_n & \xrightarrow{f_n} & C'_n \\
 \exists! \alpha_n \downarrow & & \downarrow d_n & & \downarrow d'_n \\
 \ker(f_{n-1}) & \xrightarrow{q_{n-1}} & C_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{f_{n-1}} & C'_{n-1}
 \end{array}$$

commutes and $(\ker(f_n), (\alpha_n))$ is kernel of f_* .

- Cokernels, factorization, etc...

Hence the result. □

Definition 13.2.4 (Homology). Let \mathcal{C} be an abelian category, let C_*, d_* be a $\mathcal{C} - \text{chain}$, let (Z_n, q_n) be kernel of d_n , then (since $d_n d_{n+1} = 0$), there exists unique $\widetilde{d_{n+1}}$ such that

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} & C_n \\
 \searrow \widetilde{d_{n+1}} & & \nearrow q_n \\
 & Z_n & \\
 & \downarrow p_n & \\
 & H_n(C_*) &
 \end{array}$$

commutes. We define the **homology** $H_n(C_*) = \text{coker}(\widetilde{d_{n+1}})$.

Example 13.2.5. In $\mathcal{R} - \text{Mod}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \widetilde{d_{n+1}} : C_{n+1} &\longrightarrow Z_n = \ker(d_n) \\
 x &\longmapsto d_{n+1}(x).
 \end{aligned}$$

Then $H_n = \text{coker}(\widetilde{d_{n+1}}) = \ker(d_n) / \text{Im}(d_{n+1})$.

Lemma 13.2.6. *We have $H_n(C_*)$ unique up to isomorphism.*

Definition 13.2.7. Let $f_* : C_* \rightarrow C'_*$ be morphism of \mathcal{C} – *chain*, then we have

- there exists unique \widetilde{f}_n such that

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} & C_n & & \\
 & \searrow \widetilde{d_{n+1}} & \nearrow q_n & & \\
 & & Z_n & & \\
 f_{n+1} \downarrow & & \downarrow \widetilde{f}_n & & \downarrow f_n \\
 & & Z'_n & & \\
 & \nearrow & \searrow q'_n & & \\
 C'_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\quad} & C'_n & &
 \end{array}$$

commutes by definition of (Z'_n, q'_n) the kernel of d'_n .

- There exists \overline{f}_n such that

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\widetilde{d_{n+1}}} & Z_n & \xrightarrow{p_n} & H_n(C_*) \\
 f_{n+1} \downarrow & & \downarrow \widetilde{f}_n & & \downarrow \exists! \overline{f}_n \\
 C'_{n+1} & \longrightarrow & Z'_n & \longrightarrow & H_n(C'_*)
 \end{array}$$

commutes. We define $H_n(f_*) = \overline{f}_n$.

Lemma 13.2.8. *For any n , we have H_n is a functor from \mathcal{C} – *chain* to \mathcal{C} such that $[H_n(f_*g_*) = H_n(f_*)H_n(g_*), H_n(\text{Id}_*) = \text{Id}]$ which is additive, that is, $H_n(f_* + g_*) = H_n(f_*) + H_n(g_*)$.*

13.3 Dually, Cochain, etc

Definition 13.3.1. We define

- A \mathcal{C} – *cochain* is $C_0 \xrightarrow{d_1} C_1 \xrightarrow{d_2} C_2 \longrightarrow \cdots$ such that $d^2 = 0$.
- A **morphism** of \mathcal{C} – *cochain* is (f_n) such that $fd = d'f$.

- For (C_*, d_*) cochain, there exists \widetilde{d}_{n+1} such that

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 C_n & \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} & C_{n+1} \\
 & \searrow p_n & \nearrow \widetilde{d}_{n+1} \\
 & \text{coker}(d_n) &
 \end{array}$$

commutes. We say the **cohomology** $H^n(C_*) = \ker(\widetilde{d}_{n+1})$.

Example 13.3.2. In $\mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}$, we have $\text{coker}(d_n) = C_n / \text{Im}(d_n)$. Here $\widetilde{d}_{n+1} : x + \text{Im}(d_n) \rightarrow d_{n+1}(x)$. Then $H^n(C_*) = \ker(\widetilde{d}_{n+1}) = \ker(d_{n+1}) / \text{Im}(d_n)$.

Definition 13.3.3 (Homotopy). We say chain morphisms $f_*, g_* : C_* \rightarrow C'_*$ are **homotopy equivalent** if there exists $(h_n)_{n \geq 0}$ in $\mathcal{C}(C_n, C'_{n+1})$ such that $f_n - g_n = h_{n-1}d_n + d'_{n+1}h_n$. That is, we have

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} & C_n & \xrightarrow{d_n} & C_{n-1} \\
 & \searrow h_n & \downarrow f_n & \downarrow g_n & \nearrow h_{n-1} \\
 C'_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d'_{n+1}} & C'_n & \xrightarrow{d'_n} & C'_{n-1}
 \end{array}$$

commutes. We denote $f_* \simeq_h g_*$.

Lemma 13.3.4. If $f_* \simeq_h g_*$ then $H_n(f_*) = H_n(g_*)$.

Proof. We have H_n is additive, hence we have $H_n(f_*) - H_n(g_*) = H_n(\delta_n)$ where $\delta_n = h_{n-1}d_n + d'_{n+1}h_n$. Want to show $H_n(\delta_n) = 0$. We have the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 \cdots & \xrightarrow{\widetilde{d}_{n+1}} & Z_n & \xrightarrow{p_n} & H_n(C_*) \\
 & & \downarrow \widetilde{\delta}_n & & \downarrow \overline{\delta}_n = H_n(\delta_*) \\
 \cdots & \xrightarrow{\widetilde{d}_{n+1}'} & Z'_n & \xrightarrow{p'_n} & H_n(C'_*)
 \end{array}$$

and it suffices to show $p'_n \tilde{\delta}_n = 0$. From the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} & C_n & & \\
 & \searrow \widetilde{d_{n+1}} & \nearrow q_n & & \\
 & & Z_n & & \\
 & & \downarrow \tilde{\delta}_n & & \\
 & & Z'_n & & \\
 & \nearrow & \searrow q'_n & & \\
 C'_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\quad} & C'_n & & \\
 \delta_{n+1} \downarrow & & \downarrow \delta_n & &
 \end{array}$$

we have $q'_n \tilde{\delta}_n = \delta_n q_n = (f_{n-1} d_n + d'_{n+1} h_n) q_n = d'_{n+1} h_n q_n = q'_n \widetilde{d'_{n+1} h_n} q_n$. Since q'_n is monomorphism, we have that $\tilde{\delta}_n = \widetilde{d'_{n+1} h_n} q_n$. Hence $p'_n \tilde{\delta}_n = p'_n \widetilde{d'_{n+1} h_n} q_n = 0$ since $p'_n \widetilde{d'_{n+1}} = 0$. \square

Corollary 13.3.5. *If C_*, C'_* are homotopy equivalent \mathcal{C} – chain (that is, there exists $f_* : C_* \rightarrow C'_*$, $g_* : C'_* \rightarrow C_*$ such that $f_* g_* = \text{Id}$, $g_* f_* = \text{Id}$), then $H_n(C_*) \simeq H_n(C'_*)$ in \mathcal{C} .*

14.1 Projective Resolutions, Injective Coresolutions

Definition 14.1.1. Let \mathcal{C} be abelian category, a sequence of \mathcal{C} -morphism $(f_n)_{a \leq n \leq b}$ is **exact** if there exists p_n monomorphism, q_n epimorphism such that $f_n = q_n p_n$, and we have the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A_n & \xrightarrow{f_n} & A_{n+1} \\ & \searrow p_n & \nearrow q_n \\ & X_n & \end{array}$$

commutes and

$$0 \longrightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{q_n} A_{n+1} \xrightarrow{p_{n+1}} X_{n+1} \longrightarrow 0$$

short exact.

Remark 14.1.2. The sequence (f_n) exact if $\text{Im}(f_n) = \ker(f_{n+1})$ for any $a \leq n \leq b$, where $\text{Im}(f_n) = (X_n, p_n)$ by abuse of notation.

Definition 14.1.3. A **projective resolution** of $A \in \mathcal{C}$ is C_*, d_* such that

$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} C_0 \xrightarrow{d_0} A \longrightarrow 0$$

exact and C_n projective for any n .

Definition 14.1.4. We say that \mathcal{C} has “**enough projective**” if for any $X \in \mathcal{C}$, there is $P \in \mathcal{C}$ projective and $f : P \twoheadrightarrow X$ epimorphism.

Lemma 14.1.5. If \mathcal{C} has enough projective then any object has a projective resolution.

Proof. Consider the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_1 & \cdots \longrightarrow & C_0 & \xrightarrow{d_0} \twoheadrightarrow & A \\
 & & \searrow & & \nearrow & & \\
 & & & \ker(d_0) & & &
 \end{array}$$

etc...

□

Proposition 14.1.6. *We have*

- If $C_* \rightarrow A, C'_* \rightarrow A'$ are projective resolution, then any $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, A')$ can be lifted to a chain map $f_* : C_* \rightarrow C'_*$ such that

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 C_1 & \longrightarrow & C_0 & \longrightarrow & A \\
 \downarrow f_1 & & \downarrow f_0 & & \downarrow f \\
 C'_1 & \longrightarrow & C'_0 & \longrightarrow & A'
 \end{array}$$

commutes.

- Projective resolution are unique up to homotopy.

Proof. “Same” as in $\mathcal{R} - \mathcal{M}od$.

□

Then we define things dually:

Definition 14.1.7. An **injective coresolution** for $A \in \mathcal{C}$ is

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{d_0} C_0 \xrightarrow{d_1} C_1 \longrightarrow \cdots$$

exact with C_i injective.

Definition 14.1.8. We say \mathcal{C} has “**enough injective**” if for any $X \in \mathcal{C}$, we have $X \hookrightarrow E$ injective object.

Theorem 14.1.9. *If \mathcal{C} has enough injective, then any object has a injective coresolution and it is unique up to homotopy. Moreover, any \mathcal{C} –morphism can be lifted to a cochain map between the injective coresolutions (lift is unique up to homotopy).*

Definition 14.1.10. Let $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ be additive functor between abelian categories, \mathcal{F} either left or right exact. If \mathcal{F} is right (resp. left) exact we define the **left (resp.**

right) derivative $L^n\mathcal{F}$ (resp. $R^n\mathcal{F}$) : $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ as follows

Derivative		
\mathcal{F}	covariant	contravariant
right exact	$L^n\mathcal{F}(A) = H_n(\mathcal{F}P_*)$, and $P_* \rightarrow A$ projective resolutions of A .	$L^n\mathcal{F}(A) = H^n(\mathcal{F}E_*)$, and $A \rightarrow E_*$ injective coresolutions of A .
left exact	$R^n\mathcal{F}(A) = H^n(\mathcal{F}E_*)$, and $A \rightarrow E_*$ injective coresolutions of A .	$R^n\mathcal{F}(A) = H_n(\mathcal{F}P_*)$, and $P_* \rightarrow A$ projective resolutions of A .

More precisely, for F covariant right exact

- for any $A \in \mathcal{C}$, we have $L^n(\mathcal{F}(A)) = H_n(\mathcal{F}P_*)$ where $\cdots \xrightarrow{dz} P_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow 0$ is projective resolution, and $\mathcal{F}P_*$ is the \mathcal{D} -chain $\cdots \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}dz} \mathcal{F}P_1 \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}d_1} \mathcal{F}P_0$.
- For any $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$, we have $L^n(\mathcal{F}(f)) = H_n(\mathcal{F}f_*)$ where f_* is a lift of f between projective resolution $P_* \rightarrow A$ and $P'_* \rightarrow B$ and $\mathcal{F}(f_*) = (\mathcal{F}f_n)_{n \geq 0}$ is the corresponding \mathcal{D} -chain morphism between $\mathcal{F}P_*$ and $\mathcal{F}P'_*$.

Remark 14.1.11. Derivatives are only defined if \mathcal{C} has enough injective or projective (depending on the case).

Lemma 14.1.12. *Derivatives are well-defined up to \mathcal{D} -isomorphism and $L^0\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{F}$ for \mathcal{F} right exact, and $R^0\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{F}$ for \mathcal{F} left exact.*

Proof. For \mathcal{F} covariant right exact,

- let $A \in \mathcal{C}$ and P_*, P'_* be projective resolution of A by previous theorem, $P_* \simeq_h P'_*$ for some homotopy h . Then \mathcal{F} additive implies that $\mathcal{F}P_* \simeq \mathcal{F}P'_*$ implies $H_n(\mathcal{F}P_*) \simeq H_n(\mathcal{F}P'_*)$ (we have $f_*g_* \simeq_h \text{Id}$ implies that $\mathcal{F}(f_*)\mathcal{F}(g_*) \simeq_{\mathcal{F}h} \text{Id}$).
- For $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$, let f_*, f'_* be lifts of f , by theorem $f_* \simeq_h f'_*$ we have $\mathcal{F}(f_*) \simeq_{\mathcal{F}h} \mathcal{F}(f'_*)$. This implies that $H_n(\mathcal{F}f_*) = H_n(\mathcal{F}f'_*)$.
- We have $L^0\mathcal{F}(A) = H_0(\mathcal{F}P_*)$ for $P_* \rightarrow A$ projective resolutions of A . Then \mathcal{F} right exact and $P_* \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ exact which implies that $\mathcal{F}P_1 \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}d_1} \mathcal{F}P_0 \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}d_0} \mathcal{F}A \longrightarrow 0$ exact. Thus $\text{coker}(\mathcal{F}d_1) = \mathcal{F}A$.

□

14.2 Long Exact Sequences

Theorem 14.2.1 (Snake Lemma). *Let \mathcal{C} be an additive category, suppose \mathcal{C} -diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} A' & \longrightarrow & A & \longrightarrow & A'' & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & \downarrow d' & \downarrow d & & \downarrow d'' & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & B' & \longrightarrow & B & \longrightarrow & B'' \end{array}$$

commutes and is row exact. Let $(K, q), (K', q'), (K'', q'')$ kernels of d, d', d'' and $(C, p), (C', p'), (C'', p'')$ cokernels, then there is $\alpha, \beta, \alpha', \beta', \delta$, such that

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} K' & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & K & \xrightarrow{\beta} & K'' & & \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ A' & \longrightarrow & A & \longrightarrow & A'' & & \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ B' & \longrightarrow & B & \longrightarrow & B'' & & \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ C' & \xrightarrow{\alpha'} & C & \xrightarrow{\beta'} & C'' & & \end{array}$$

δ

δ

(the diagram borrows from [here](#)) commutes and

$$K' \xrightarrow{\alpha} K \xrightarrow{\beta} K'' \xrightarrow{\delta} C' \xrightarrow{\alpha'} C \xrightarrow{\beta'} C''$$

is exact.

Theorem 14.2.2. *Let \mathcal{C} be abelian category, if $0 \rightarrow A_* \rightarrow B_* \rightarrow C_* \rightarrow 0$ is exact sequence of \mathcal{C} -chains, then there exists $(\delta_n)_{n>0}$ such that*

$$\cdots \rightarrow H_n(A_*) \rightarrow H_n(B_*) \rightarrow H_n(C_*) \xrightarrow{\delta_n} H_{n-1}(A_*) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(B_*) \rightarrow \cdots$$

is exact.

Lemma 14.2.3. *Alternative definition of $H_n(C_*)$ for C_* a \mathcal{C} -chain is*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_n & \xrightarrow{d_n} & C_{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}} \\ & \searrow & \nearrow \\ & \text{coker}(d_{n+1}) & \xrightarrow{\exists \overline{d_n}} \text{ker}(d_{n-1}) \end{array}$$

and $H_{n-1} = \text{coker}(\overline{d_n})$ (easy to see from definition of H_n). Also $H_n = \ker(d_n)$ (not obvious it coincide with definition of H_n).

Example 14.2.4. Check this in $\mathcal{R} - \text{Mod}$.

Proof of Theorem 14.2.2. Let $n > 0$, then

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & A_n & \longrightarrow & B_n & \longrightarrow & C_n & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & & \downarrow d_n & & \downarrow d_n & & \downarrow d_n & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & B_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & C_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

commutes and row exact. By snake lemma, we have

$$0 \longrightarrow \ker(d_n^A) \longrightarrow \ker(d_n^B) \longrightarrow \ker(d_n^C)$$

is exact and

$$\text{coker}(d_n^A) \longrightarrow \text{coker}(d_n^B) \longrightarrow \text{coker}(d_n^C) \longrightarrow 0$$

is exact implies that

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{coker}(d_{n+1}^A) & \longrightarrow & \text{coker}(d_{n+1}^B) & \longrightarrow & \text{coker}(d_{n+1}^C) \\ \downarrow \overline{d_n} & & \downarrow \overline{d_n} & & \downarrow \overline{d_n} \\ \ker(d_{n-1}^A) & \longrightarrow & \ker(d_{n-1}^B) & \longrightarrow & \ker(d_{n-1}^C) \end{array}$$

commutes. Hence snake goes through H_n :

$$H_n(A) \longrightarrow H_n(B) \longrightarrow H_n(C) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{n-1}(A) \longrightarrow H_{n-1}(B) \longrightarrow H_{n-1}(C).$$

Same story for cohomology. □

Theorem 14.2.5. Let \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{D} be abelian categories, let $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ be left or right exact additive functors, let

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \longrightarrow 0$$

be short exact in \mathcal{C} , then there is long exact sequence in \mathcal{D} , such that

- for \mathcal{F} covariant right exact

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\delta} L^1(\mathcal{F}A) \longrightarrow L^1\mathcal{F}B \longrightarrow L^1\mathcal{F}C \xrightarrow{\delta_1} \mathcal{F}A \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}f} \mathcal{F}B \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}g} \mathcal{F}C \longrightarrow 0$$

exact.

- For \mathcal{F} covariant left exact,

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}A \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}B \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}C \xrightarrow{\delta} R^1\mathcal{F}A$$

exact.

- For \mathcal{F} contravariant right exact,

$$\cdots \longrightarrow L^1\mathcal{F}A \xrightarrow{\delta_1} \mathcal{F}C \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}B \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}A \longrightarrow 0$$

exact.

Proof for \mathcal{F} covariant right exact. Claim 1: there is projective resolutions $P'_* \rightarrow A, P_* \rightarrow B, P''_* \rightarrow C$ and chain maps f_*, g_* lifting f and g and such that

$$\cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow P'_* \xrightarrow{f_*} P_* \xrightarrow{g_*} P''_* \rightarrow 0$$

is exact.

Claim 2: The sequence $0 \rightarrow \mathcal{F}P'_* \rightarrow \mathcal{F}P_* \rightarrow \mathcal{F}P''_* \rightarrow 0$ is exact. Then can apply the long exact sequence of homology on this \mathcal{D} -chain which gives the result. \square

Proof of Claim 1 (Horseshoe lemma). We have the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & P'_1 & & P''_1 & & & \\ & \downarrow d'_1 & & \downarrow d''_1 & & & \\ & P'_0 & & P''_0 & & & \\ & \downarrow d'_0 & & \downarrow d''_0 & & & \\ \hookrightarrow & A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & \xrightarrow{g} & C & \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

Let $P'_n \rightarrow A$ be projective resolution of A and $P''_n \rightarrow C$ be projective resolution of C . Let $P_n = P'_n \oplus P''_n$. Let $p'_n : P_n \rightarrow P'_n, p''_n : P_n \rightarrow P''_n$ be projection: (P_n, p'_n, p''_n) is product of P'_n, P''_n via C . Let $q'_n : P'_n \rightarrow P_n, q''_n : P''_n \rightarrow P_n$ be embedding: (P_n, q'_n, q''_n) is coproduct.

We can choose them such that $p'_n q'_n = \text{Id}_{P'_n}, p''_n q''_n = 0, p'_n q''_n = 0, p''_n q'_n = \text{Id}, q'_n p'_n + q''_n p''_n = \text{Id}_{P_n}$. Then d_0 :

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} P'_0 & \xrightarrow{q'_0} & P_0 & \xrightarrow{p''_0} & P''_0 \\ \downarrow d'_0 & \searrow f d'_0 & \downarrow d_0? & \swarrow h & \downarrow d''_0 \\ A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & \xrightarrow{g} & C \end{array}$$

We have g epimorphism, p_0'' projective implies that there is $h, gh = d_0''$. Let $d_0 = f d_0' p_0' + h p_0''$. It commutes and d_0 is epimorphism (check).

How about d_1 ? We have d_0, d_0', d_0'' are epimorphism, then snake lemma implies

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 0 & \longrightarrow & \ker(d_0') & \longrightarrow & \ker(d_0) & \longrightarrow & \ker(d_0'') \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 & & P_0' & \xrightarrow{q_0'} & P_0 & & P_0''
 \end{array}$$

exact. Hence we have same situation as for d_0 :

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 0 & \longrightarrow & P_1' & \longrightarrow & P_1 & \longrightarrow & P_1'' \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow & & \vdots & & \downarrow \\
 & & \ker(d_0') & \longrightarrow & \ker(d_0) & \longrightarrow & \ker(d_0'')
 \end{array}$$

Then left for homework that $\mathcal{F}(P_n' \oplus P_n'') = \mathcal{F}(P_n') \oplus \mathcal{F}(P_n'')$ implies that

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}P_n \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}P_n \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}P_n'' \longrightarrow 0$$

is exact. □

14.3 Tor Functors

Definition 14.3.1. Let R be commutative ring, let A be R -module, let $\mathcal{F}_A = A \otimes - : \mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod} \rightarrow \mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}$ defined by

$$\forall B \in \mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}, \mathcal{F}_A(B) = A \otimes B,$$

$$\forall f \in \mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod} \text{ homomorphism, } \mathcal{F}_A(f) = \text{Id}_A \otimes f.$$

Say \mathcal{F}_A covariant additive functor, we have seen before that \mathcal{F}_A is right exact, then

$$\text{Tor}_n(A, B) = L^n \mathcal{F}_A(B) = H_n(A \otimes P_*)$$

where the last term is from $\mathcal{F}_A(P_*)$, where $P_* \rightarrow B \rightarrow 0$ is projective resolution for B . In other words, $\text{Tor}_n(A, B) = \ker(\text{Id}_A \otimes d_n^B) / \text{Im}(\text{Id}_A \otimes d_{n+1}^B)$ where $\cdots \rightarrow P_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow 0$.

Example 14.3.2. Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$, A a \mathbb{Z} -module (additive group) and $B = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$, then $\text{Tor}_n(A, B) = \ker(\text{Id}_A \otimes d_n)/\text{Im}(\text{Id}_A \otimes d_{n+1})$. Take P_* to be $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{d_1} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$ where $d_1(x) = nx$. Then

$$\text{Tor}_0(A\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}) = \ker(0)/\text{Im}(\text{Id}_A \otimes d_1) = A \otimes \mathbb{Z}/A \otimes n\mathbb{Z} \simeq A/nA (\simeq A \otimes \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}).$$

Also

$$\text{Tor}_1(A, \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}) = \ker(\text{Id}_A \otimes d_1)/0 \simeq \ker(\tilde{d}_1)$$

by $A \otimes \mathbb{Z} \simeq A = \{a \in A \mid na = 0\}$ where $\tilde{d}_1 : A \rightarrow A$ by $x \mapsto nx$. Further,

$$\text{Tor}_n(A, \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}) = 0, \forall n > 0.$$

Proposition 14.3.3. We have $\text{Tor}_n(A, B) \simeq \text{Tor}_n(B, A)$.

14.4 Ext Functors

Definition 14.4.1. Let \mathcal{C} be abelian category and let $A \in \mathcal{C}$, the functor $\mathcal{F} = \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(A, -) : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{AB}$ is covariant additive and left exact and

$$\forall B \in \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{F}(B) = \mathcal{C}(A, B),$$

$$\forall f \in \mathcal{C}(B, B'), \mathcal{F}(f) = f_{\#}$$

where $f_{\#}$ is

$$\mathcal{C}(A, B) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(A, B')$$

$$g \mapsto fg.$$

Then $\text{Ext}_n(A, B) = R^n \mathcal{F}(B) = H^n(\mathcal{C}(A, B_*))$ where the last term is from $\mathcal{F}(B_*)$ where $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow B_*$ injective coresolution of B . Explicitly, take

$$0 \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow B_0 \longrightarrow B_1 \longrightarrow \cdots \xrightarrow{d_n} B_n \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} \cdots, \\ \quad \quad \quad \swarrow h \quad \quad \uparrow g \\ \quad \quad \quad A$$

for any $n \geq 0$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ext}_n(A, B) &= \ker(d_{n+1}\#)/\text{Im}(d_n\#) \\ &= \{g \in \mathcal{C}(A, B_n) \mid d_{n+1}g = 0\} / \{d_n h \mid h \in \mathcal{C}(A, B_{n-1})\}. \end{aligned}$$

Remark 14.4.2. Let $B \in \mathcal{C}$, $\tilde{F} = \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(-, B) : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{AB}$ contravariant left exact. By definition, $R^n \tilde{F}(A) = H^n(\mathcal{C}(A_*, B))$ where $A_* \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ projective resolution of A . Explicitly we have

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} A_1 & \xrightarrow{d_1} & A_0 & \longrightarrow & A & \longrightarrow & \cdots \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} A_n \xrightarrow{d_n} \\ & & & & & & \downarrow \\ & & & & & & B \end{array}$$

and $R^n \tilde{F}(A) = \ker(\#d_{n+1})/\text{Im}(\#d_n)$

$$= \{g \in \mathcal{C}(A_n, B) | gd_{n+1} = 0\} / \{hd_n | h \in \mathcal{C}(A_{n-1}, B)\}.$$

Theorem 14.4.3. We have $H_n(\mathcal{C}(A, B)) \simeq H^n(A_*, B)$ so both give $\text{Ext}_n(A, B)$. In fact, both are isomorphic to the additive group

$$G_n = \{f_* : A^{(n)} \rightarrow B^{(n)} \text{ chain map}\} / \text{homotopy}$$

where

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} A^{(n)} = & & A_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}^A} & A_n & \longrightarrow & \cdots & \longrightarrow & A_0 & \longrightarrow & A & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & & & & \downarrow f_0 & & \downarrow & & & & & & \downarrow 0 \\ B^{(n)} = & & 0 & \longrightarrow & B & \longrightarrow & B_0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots & \longrightarrow & \cdots & \longrightarrow & B_{n+1} \end{array} \quad .$$

Sketch of Proof. Let $f_* : A^{(n)} \rightarrow B^{(n)}$ and $f_* = (b_i)_{0 \leq i \leq n+1}$ chain map. By definition of chain map $f_0 \in \ker(\#d_{n+1}^A)$ and $f_{n+1} \in \ker(d_{n+1}^B \#)$. Moreover (to check) for any $f_0 \in \ker(\#d_{n+1}^A)$, there is f_* lifting of f_0 to $A^{(n)} \rightarrow B^{(n)}$ and f_* is unique up to homotopy because $A^* \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ exact, and B_* injective. For any $f_{n+1} \in \ker(d_{n+1}^B \#)$ there is f_* lifting, unique up to homotopy. This gives surjective homomorphism

$$\phi : \ker(\#d_{n+1}^A) \longrightarrow G_n,$$

$$\psi : \ker(d_{n+1}^B \#) \longrightarrow G_n.$$

Moreover (check) $\ker \phi = \text{Im}(\#d_n^A)$ and $\ker \psi = \text{Im}(d_n^B \#)$. Hence the isomorphism

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \longrightarrow & A_n & \longrightarrow & & \longrightarrow & & \longrightarrow \\ & \searrow & & \swarrow & & & \\ \longrightarrow & B & \longrightarrow & & \longrightarrow & & \longrightarrow \end{array} \quad .$$

□

Definition 14.4.4. Ext

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc}
A_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} & A_n & \longrightarrow & A_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots & \longrightarrow & A_0 & \xrightarrow{d_0} & A & \longrightarrow & 0 \\
& & f_0 \downarrow & & f_1 \downarrow & & & & f_n \downarrow & & f_{n+1} \downarrow & & \\
0 & \longrightarrow & B & \xleftarrow{\quad} & B_0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots & \longrightarrow & B_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & B_n & \longrightarrow & B_{n+1}
\end{array}
\quad .$$

Additional interpretation of Ext_n , for $n > 0$ let $\epsilon_n(A, B) = \{0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow C_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow C_n \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0 \text{ exact sequence}\} / \sim$ where

$$0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow C_* \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0 \sim 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow C'_* \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$$

if there is $g_* : C_* \rightarrow C'_*$ chain map such that

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
& & C_1 & \longrightarrow & \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_n \\
& \nearrow & \downarrow g_1 & & & & \downarrow g_n \searrow \\
A & & C'_1 & \longrightarrow & \cdots & \longrightarrow & C'_n \\
& \searrow & & & & & \nearrow \\
& & & & & & B
\end{array}$$

commutes.

The Category $R\text{-Mod}$ Has Enough Injective

Definition 15.0.1. For any

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \forall A & \xrightarrow{\forall \alpha} & B \\ & \searrow \forall f & \swarrow \exists \tilde{f} \\ & E & \end{array}$$

commutes, for any $\alpha : A \rightarrow B$ injective R -module homomorphism, for any $f : A \rightarrow E$ homomorphism, there is $\tilde{f} : B \rightarrow E$ such that $f = \tilde{f}\alpha$.

Lemma 15.0.2 (Baer's Criterion). *A R -module E is injective if and only if for any $I \subseteq R$ ideal, for any $f : I \rightarrow E$, there is $\tilde{f} : R \rightarrow E$, $f = \tilde{f}\epsilon$ where $\epsilon : I \rightarrow R$ is the inclusion map.*

Proof. (\implies) : Obvious ϵ is injective homomorphism.

(\impliedby) : Suppose E satisfies this condition, let

$$\alpha : A \rightarrow \text{injective homomorphism,}$$

$$f : A \rightarrow E \text{ homomorphism.}$$

Want to show that there is $\tilde{f} : B \rightarrow E$ such that $f = \tilde{f}\alpha$. Let $\Omega = \{(X, h), X \subseteq B \text{ submodule and } h : B \rightarrow E, f = h\alpha\}$ ordered by $(X, h) \leq (X', h')$ if $X \subseteq X'$ and $h|'_X = h$.

By Zorn's Lemma, there is maximal element $(X, h) \in \Omega$. If $X = B$, suppose not, let $b \in B \setminus X$, let $I = \{r \in R | rb \in X\}$. This is ideal of R . By hypothesis (applied to $g : I \rightarrow E$ by $r \mapsto h(rb)$). There is $\tilde{g} : R \rightarrow E$ such that $r \in I, \tilde{g}(r) = h(rb)$. Define

$$X' = X + (b),$$

$$h' : X' \rightarrow E,$$

$$x + rb \mapsto h(X) + \tilde{g}(r).$$

We see $(X, h) < (X', h')$ contradicting the maximality of (X, h) . \square

Definition 15.0.3. Let R be a domain. A R –module M is **divisible** if $\forall x \in M, \forall d \in R, \exists y \in M$ such that $dy = x$.

Corollary 15.0.4. If R is PID, then a R –module E is injective if and only if E is divisible.

Proof. (\Leftarrow): Let E be divisible, we use Baer's criterion to show E is injective. Let $I \subseteq R$ ideal, let $\epsilon : I \rightarrow R$ inclusion map, let $f : I \rightarrow E$ be R –module homomorphism. Then R PID implies that $I = (d)$. Let $x = f(d)$ and let y such that $dy = x$. We can define $\tilde{f}(1) = y$ and $\tilde{f}(r) = ry$ and check that $f = \tilde{f}\epsilon$.

(\Rightarrow): Let E injective, let $x \in E$, let $d \in R$, let $f : (d) \rightarrow E$ such that $f(rd) = rx$. Then there is $\tilde{f} : R \rightarrow E$ such that $f = \tilde{f}\epsilon$. Then $y = \tilde{f}(1)$ satisfies $dy = \tilde{f}(d) = f(d) = x$. \square

Example 15.0.5. The modules \mathbb{Q} and \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} are divisible \mathbb{Z} –modules, hence injective \mathbb{Z} –modules.

Theorem 15.0.6. For any ring R , the category $\mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}$ has enough injectives: for any M left R –module, there is E injective R –module and $M \hookrightarrow E$ injective R –module homomorphism (same holds for $\mathcal{Mod} - \mathcal{R}$ category of right R –modules).

Definition 15.0.7. We call the **dual** of a left/right R –module is the right/left R –module. We write $M^\wedge = \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$. If M is left R –module, the R –action is defined by $\forall r \in R, \forall f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ such that

$$(f \cdot r)(x) := f(rx).$$

This is a R –action ($((f \cdot r) \cdot s)(x) = (f \cdot r)(sx) = f(rsx) = (f \cdot (rs))(x)$). If R is right R –module we define

$$(r \cdot f)(x) := f(xr).$$

Proposition 15.0.8. If F is a free right R –module, then F^\wedge is injective left R –module.

Lemma 15.0.9. In \mathcal{C} abelian, we have E injective if and only if $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(-, E)$ is exact.

Lemma 15.0.10. In \mathcal{C} abelian, for any i , we have if E_i injective then $\bigoplus_i E_i$ is injective.

Proof. Homework. \square

Remark 15.0.11. For any A, B that are left R –modules, say $\text{Hom}_R(A, B) = \{f \text{ left } R\text{–module homomorphism}\}$ is a right R –module with R –action defined by for any $r \in R, \forall f \in \text{Hom}_R(A, B), (f \cdot r)(x) := f(rx)$ (this is a R –action since $f \cdot r \cdot s = f \cdot rs$).

Lemma 15.0.12. *For any A left R -module, we have $\text{Hom}_R(A, R^\wedge) \simeq A^\wedge$ (isomorphism of right R -module) where R is considered as a right R -module and $R^\wedge = \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is a left R -module.*

Proof. Let A be a left R -module, for $f \in \text{Hom}_R(A, R^\wedge)$, $x \in A$, $r \in R$ we have

$$\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = R^\wedge \ni f(x)(r) = f(x)(1 \cdot r) = (r \cdot f(x))(1) = f(r \cdot x)(1)$$

by the definition of action in R^\wedge and f homomorphism. Define

$$\tilde{f} : A \longrightarrow \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \in A^\wedge,$$

$$x \longmapsto f(x)(1).$$

Above computation shows that $\phi : \text{Hom}_R(A, R^\wedge) \rightarrow A^\wedge$ such that $f \mapsto \tilde{f}$ is an isomorphism of right R -modules. Then

- ϕ homomorphism since $(\widetilde{f \cdot r})(x) = (fr)(x)(1) = f(rx)(1) = \tilde{f}(rx) = (\tilde{f} \cdot r)(x)$.
- ϕ injective since $f \in \text{Hom}_R(A, R^\wedge)$ is determined by $f(y)(1)$, $y \in A$,
- ϕ surjective since $g \in A^\wedge$ is \tilde{f} for $f \in \text{Hom}_R(A, R^\wedge)$ defined by $f(x)(r) := g(r \cdot x)$ (since $\tilde{f}(x) = f(x)(1) = g(x)$).

Hence the lemma. □

Proof of Proposition 15.0.8. We have

- \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is injective \mathbb{Z} -module, hence by Lemma 15.0.9 we have $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(-, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is exact.
- By Lemma 15.0.12, for any $A \in \mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}$, we have $\text{Hom}_R(A, R^\wedge) \simeq \text{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ in $\mathcal{Mod} - \mathcal{R}$. Hence $\text{Hom}_R(-, R^\wedge)$ and $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(-, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) : \mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod} \rightarrow \mathcal{Mod} - \mathcal{R}$ are isomorphic functors. Hence $\text{Hom}_R(-, R^\wedge)$ is exact. Therefore by Lemma 15.0.9, we have R^\wedge is injective in $\mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}$.
- Let F be free right R -module, then $F \simeq \bigoplus_{i \in I} R$ for some set I . Hence $F^\wedge \simeq \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\bigoplus_{i \in I} R, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \simeq \prod_{i \in I} \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = \prod_{i \in I} R^\wedge$. By Lemma 15.0.10, we have $F^\wedge \simeq \prod R^\wedge$ is injective.

Hence the proposition. □

Proposition 15.0.13. *For any M left R -module, there is F free right R -module and an injective R -module homomorphism $M \hookrightarrow F^\wedge$.*

Proposition 15.0.8 and Proposition 15.0.13 together implies Theorem 15.0.6. That is, “ $\mathcal{R} - \text{Mod}$ ” has enough injectives.

Lemma 15.0.14. *For any M left R -module, there is injective R -module homomorphism $M \rightarrow M^{\wedge\wedge}$.*

Proof. For $x \in M$, let

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ev}_x : M^\wedge &\longrightarrow \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}, \\ f &\longmapsto f(x) \end{aligned}$$

evaluation at x . Note that $\text{ev}_x \in M^{\wedge\wedge}$ and

$$\begin{aligned} E_v : M &\longrightarrow M^{\wedge\wedge}, \\ x &\longmapsto \text{ev}_x. \end{aligned}$$

Easy to check that E_v is a R -module homomorphism. Indeed, for any $r \in R, \forall x \in M, \forall f \in M^\wedge$, we have

$$\text{ev}_{r \cdot x}(f) = f(rx) = (f \cdot r)(x) = \text{ev}_x(f \cdot r) = (r \cdot \text{ev}_x)(f)$$

where the last equality is because it is action in $M^{\wedge\wedge}$. Hence $E_v(rx) = rE_v(x)$. It remains to show that E_v is injective ($\implies \ker(E_v) = 0$).

Let $x \in M \setminus \{0\}$, need to show that $\text{ev}_x \neq 0$. Let $G := \{kx : k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subseteq M$ additive subgroup of $(M, +)$ generated by x . Then G cyclic implies that $G \simeq \mathbb{Z}$ or $G \simeq \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ with $n \geq 0$ ($x \neq 0$).

If $G \simeq \mathbb{Z}$, we let

$$\begin{aligned} f : G &\longrightarrow \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}, \\ kx &\longmapsto \frac{k}{z} + \mathbb{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

If $G \simeq \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ we let

$$\begin{aligned} f : G &\longrightarrow \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}, \\ kx &\longmapsto \frac{k}{n} + \mathbb{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

In both cases, f is \mathbb{Z} -module homomorphism since \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} injective, there exists $\tilde{f} \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = M^\wedge$ such that

$$\begin{array}{ccc} G & \xhookrightarrow{\quad} & M \\ & \searrow f & \swarrow \tilde{f} \\ & \mathbb{Q} & \end{array}$$

commutes. Observe that $f(x) \neq 0$ implies $\tilde{f}(x) \neq 0$. Hence $\text{ev}_x(f) \neq 0$ implies that $\text{ev}_x \neq 0$. □

Proof of Proposition 15.0.13. The duality functor $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(-, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is left exact (as any Hom functor) and additive. Let $M \in \mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}$, in $\mathcal{Mod} - \mathcal{R}$, there is F free and $\beta : F \twoheadrightarrow M^\wedge$ surjective homomorphism. Since the duality functor is contravariant left exact, the image of epimorphism β is a monomorphism $\beta^\wedge : M^{\wedge\wedge} \hookrightarrow F^\wedge$. Hence we get $M \xrightarrow{E_v} M^{\wedge\wedge} \xrightarrow{\beta^\wedge} F^\wedge$ in $\mathcal{R} - \mathcal{Mod}$. \square

E-mail: hou@brandeis.edu