# Advanced Algebra 

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## 1 Rings and modules

Notation 1.0.1. In this course, all rings will be commutative, with a unit element, and will verify $0 \neq 1$.

### 1.1 Modules, submodules and homomorphisms

Definition 1.1.1 (Module). $A$ module $M$ on a ring $A$ is an abelian group equipped with a law $(a, m) \in A \times M \longmapsto a m \in M$ s.t.
(i) $\forall(a, b) \in A^{2}, \forall(m, n) \in M^{2},(a+b) m=a m+b m \quad a(m+n)=a m+a n$.
(ii) $\forall(a, b) \in A^{2}, \forall m \in M, a(b m)=(a b) m$.
(iii) $\forall m \in M, 1 m=m$.

## Example 1.1.2.

(i) If the ring $A$ is a field, $A$-modules are exactly $A$-vector spaces.
(ii) $\mathbb{Z}$-modules are exactly abelian groups.

Remark 1.1.3. Let $A$ be a ring.
(i) In general, in an $A$-module $M$, if $a \in A \backslash\{0\}$ and $m \in M$, am $=0$ does not imply $m=0$.
(ii) $A$-modules do not have bases in general.

Definition 1.1.4 (Torsion elements). Let $M$ be an $A$-module. We define:

$$
M_{\mathrm{tor}}=\{m \in M, \exists a \in A \backslash\{0\}, a m=0\} .
$$

The elements of $M_{\text {tor }}$ are called torsion elements. We say that $M$ is torsion-free if $M_{\text {tor }}=\{0\}$.
Definition 1.1.5 (Submodule). Let $M$ be an $A$-module. $A$ submodule of $M$ is an additive subgroup $N$ s.t. $A N \subseteq N$.

Example 1.1.6. If $A$ is a ring, the submodules of $A$ (considered as an $A$-module) are exactly the ideals of $A$.

Proposition 1.1.7. Let $M$ be an $A$-module. If $A$ is an integral domain, then $M_{\text {tor }}$ is a submodule of $M$.

Definition 1.1.8 (Module homomorphism). Let $M$ and $N$ be two $A$-modules. A map $f: M \rightarrow N$ is said to be a module homomorphism if $f$ is additive and $A$-linear. The set of module homomorphisms from $M$ to $N$ is denoted by $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(M, N)$ or $\operatorname{Hom}(M, N)$. It is an $A$-module.
Example 1.1.9. Let $M$ be an $A$-module.
(i) The module $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(A, M)$ is isomorphic to $M$.
(ii) The module $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(M, A)$ is called the dual of $M$, and it is denoted by $M^{*}$ or $M^{\vee}$. Its elements are called linear forms.

### 1.2 Exact sequences

Definition 1.2.1 (Kernel and image). Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be a module homomorphism. We define Ker $f=f^{-1}(\{0\})$ and $\operatorname{Im} f=f(M)$. These are submodules of $M$ and $N$ respectively.

Definition 1.2.2 (Exact sequence). Consider three modules $L, M, N$ and two homomorphisms $f$ : $L \rightarrow M$ and $g: M \rightarrow N$. One can write this as a sequence:

$$
L \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} N .
$$

We say that the sequence is exact if $\operatorname{Im} f=\operatorname{Ker} g$. Likewise, for a (possibly infinite sequence) $M_{1} \xrightarrow{f_{1}} M_{2} \xrightarrow{f_{2}} M_{3} \xrightarrow{f_{3}} \cdots$, we say that the sequence is exact at $M_{i}$ if $\operatorname{Im} f_{i-1}=\operatorname{Ker} f_{i}$; and we say that the sequence is exact if it is exact at all positions.

Example 1.2.3. A sequence $0 \rightarrow L \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} N \rightarrow 0$ is exact iff $f$ is injective, $g$ is surjective and $\operatorname{Im} f=\operatorname{Ker} g$.

## Definition 1.2.4.

(i) Let $M, N_{1}, N_{2}$ be three A-modules and consider a homomorphism $f: N_{1} \rightarrow N_{2}$. We define a module homomorphism:

$$
f_{*}: \left\lvert\, \begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(M, N_{1}\right) & \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(M, N_{2}\right) \\
g & \longmapsto f \circ g
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

(ii) Let $M_{1}, M_{2}, N$ be three $A$-modules and consider a homomorphism $f: M_{1} \rightarrow M_{2}$. We define a module homomorphism:

$$
f^{*}: \left\lvert\, \begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(M_{2}, N\right) & \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(M_{1}, N\right) \\
g & \longmapsto g \circ f
\end{aligned} .\right.
$$

Proposition 1.2.5. Consider a sequence $N^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} N \xrightarrow{g} N^{\prime \prime}$. The following assertions are equivalent:
(i) The sequence $0 \rightarrow N^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} N \xrightarrow{g} N^{\prime \prime}$ is exact.
(ii) For any $A$-module $M$, the sequence $0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M, N^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{f_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}(M, N) \xrightarrow{g_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}\left(M, N^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is exact.
Proposition 1.2.6. Consider a sequence $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime}$. The following assertions are equivalent:
(i) The sequence $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is exact.
(ii) For any $A$-module $N$, the sequence $0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, N\right) \xrightarrow{g^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}(M, N) \xrightarrow{f^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}\left(M^{\prime}, N\right)$ is exact.

### 1.3 Sums, products and quotients

Definition 1.3.1 (Sums and products). Let $\left(M_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ be a family of A-modules.
(i) The set $\prod_{i \in I} M_{i}$ has naturally the structure of an $A$-module.
(ii) We define $\oplus_{i \in I} M_{i}=\left\{\left(m_{i}\right)_{i \in I} \in \prod_{i \in I} M_{i},\left\{i \in I, m_{i} \neq 0\right\}\right.$ is finite $\}$.

Hence, $\oplus_{i \in I} M_{i}$ is a submodule of $\prod_{i \in I} M_{i}$, and we have $\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}=\prod_{i \in I} M_{i}$ iff $I$ is finite.
Proposition 1.3.2. Let $\left(M_{i}\right)_{i \in I},\left(N_{j}\right)_{j \in J}, M$ and $N$ be $A$-modules.
(i) $\operatorname{Hom}\left(M, \prod_{j \in J} N_{j}\right) \simeq \prod_{j \in J} \operatorname{Hom}\left(M, N_{j}\right)$.
(ii) $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\oplus_{i \in I} M_{i}, N\right) \simeq \prod_{i \in I} \operatorname{Hom}\left(M_{i}, N\right)$.
(iii) $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\oplus_{i \in I} M_{i}, \Pi_{j \in J} M_{j}\right) \simeq \prod_{(i, j) \in I \times J} \operatorname{Hom}\left(M_{i}, N_{j}\right)$.

Definition 1.3.3 (Quotient). Let $N$ be an $A$-module and $M$ be a submodule of $N$. We define an equivalence relation $\sim$ on $N$ by $n_{1} \sim n_{2} \Longleftrightarrow\left(n_{1}-n_{2}\right) \in M$. The set of equivalence classes is denoted by $N / M$. It has a unique structure of $A$-module s.t. the natural projection $\pi: N \rightarrow N / M$ is a module homomorphism. Hence, if $i: M \rightarrow N$ denotes inclusion, we have an exact sequence:

$$
0 \rightarrow M \xrightarrow{i} N \xrightarrow{\pi} N / M \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Proposition 1.3.4 (Universal property of the quotient). Let $N$ be an $A$-module and $M$ be a submodule of $N$. If $f: N \rightarrow P$ is a module homomorphism s.t. $M \subseteq \operatorname{Ker} f$, then there is a unique map $\bar{f}: N / M \rightarrow P$ s.t. $f=\bar{f} \circ \pi$, where $\pi: N \rightarrow N / M$ is the natural projection.

Corollary 1.3.5. If we have an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow L \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} N \rightarrow 0$, then $N \simeq M / \operatorname{Im} f$. In other words, given a module homomorphism $f: M \rightarrow N$, we have:

$$
\operatorname{Im} f \simeq M / \operatorname{Ker} f
$$

Definition 1.3.6 (Cokernel). Given a module homomorphism $f: M \rightarrow N$, define:

$$
\operatorname{Coker} f=N / \operatorname{Im} f
$$

We have the following exact sequence:

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker} f \rightarrow M \xrightarrow{f} N \rightarrow \text { Coker } f \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Proposition 1.3.7. Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be a module homomorphism. Consider a submodule $X$ of $M$ and a submodule $Y$ of $N$. Write $\pi_{M / X}: M \rightarrow M / X$ and $\pi_{N / Y}: N \rightarrow N / Y$ for the natural projections. If $f(X) \subseteq Y$, then there exists a unique map $\bar{f}: M / X \rightarrow N / Y$ s.t.

$$
\pi_{N / Y} \circ f=\bar{f} \circ \pi_{M / X} .
$$

### 1.4 Snake Lemma

Theorem 1.4.1 (Snake Lemma). Consider the following commutative diagram:


Assume that the two horizontal black sequences are exact. Then there is a natural map $\delta: \operatorname{Ker} c \rightarrow$ Coker $a$, and the red sequence is exact.

### 1.5 Noetherian modules

Notation 1.5.1. Let $M$ be an $A$-module. Given a subset $P \subseteq M$, we denote by $(P)=\sum_{m \in P} A m$ the submodule of $M$ generated by $P$.

Definition 1.5.2 (Noetherian module).
(i) An $A$-module $M$ is said to be of finite type (or finitely generated) if there exist $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{r}$ s.t. $M=\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{r}\right)$. Equivalently, there exist $r \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$ and a surjective map $A^{r} \rightarrow M$.
(ii) An A-module $M$ is said to be noetherian if every submodule of $M$ is of finite type.

Remark 1.5.3. The submodules of the $A$-module $A$ are precisely the ideals of $A$, so $A$ is noetherian as a ring iff $A$ is noetherian as an $A$-module.

Proposition 1.5.4. An A-module $M$ is noetherian iff every increasing sequence $\left(M_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of submodules of $M$ is eventually constant.

Lemma 1.5.5. Consider an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow L \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} N \rightarrow 0$. Then $M$ is noetherian iff $L$ and $N$ are noetherian.

Proof. $(\Rightarrow)$ This amounts to proving that every submodule of a noetherian module is noetherian and that the image of a noetherian module by a homomorphism is noetherian. $(\Leftarrow)$ Assume that $L$ and $N$ are noetherian. Let $P$ be a submodule of $M$. Then $P \cap f(L)$ is a submodule of $f(L)$, which is noetherian as the image of a noetherian module. Hence, there exist $\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{r} \in L$ s.t. $P \cap f(L)=\left(f\left(\ell_{1}\right), \ldots, f\left(\ell_{r}\right)\right)$. Likewise, there exist $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{s} \in P$ s.t. $g(P)=\left(g\left(p_{1}\right), \ldots, g\left(p_{s}\right)\right)$. Using the fact that the sequence is exact, we now prove that $P=\left(f\left(\ell_{1}\right), \ldots, f\left(\ell_{r}\right), p_{1}, \ldots, p_{s}\right)$.

Theorem 1.5.6. If $A$ is a noetherian ring, then every finitely generated $A$-module $M$ is noetherian.
Proof. Suppose that $A$ is a notherian $A$-module. For $r \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$, we have an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow$ $A^{r} \rightarrow A^{r-1} \rightarrow 0$. Using Lemma 1.5.5, we use these exact sequences to prove by induction on $r$ that $A^{r}$ is noetherian for all $r \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$. Now, if $M$ is a finitely generated $A$-module, there exist $r \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$ and a surjective map $f: A^{r} \rightarrow M$. Hence, $M=f\left(A^{r}\right)$ is noetherian as the image of a noetherian module.

### 1.6 Free modules

Definition 1.6.1 (Free module). Let $M$ be an A-module. If $\left(m_{j}\right)_{j \in J} \in M^{J}$ is a family of elements of $M$, we get a map $f: \oplus_{j \in J} A \rightarrow M$ defined by $f\left(a_{j}\right)=a_{j} m_{j}$. We say that $\left(m_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$ is a basis of $M$ if the map $f$ is an isomorphism. We say that the module $M$ is free if it admits a basis, i.e. if it is isomorphic to $\bigoplus_{j \in J} A$ for some set $J$.

Proposition 1.6.2. If $M$ is a free $A$-module, then any two bases of $M$ have the same cardinality.
Proof. By Krull's Theorem, $A$ has a maximal ideal $I$. If $\left(m_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$ is a basis of $M$, then $M / I M$ is an $A / I$-vector space and $\left(\bar{m}_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$ is a basis of this space. As any two bases of a vector space have the same cardinality, this proves the proposition.

Definition 1.6.3 (Free module of finite type). We say that an A-module $M$ is free of finite type if it admits a finite basis, i.e. if $M$ is isomorphic to $A^{r}$ for some $r \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$. The integer $r$ only depends on $M$, and it is called the rank of $M$.

### 1.7 Matrices

Definition 1.7.1 (Matrix of a module homomorphism). Let $M$ and $N$ be two $A$-modules that are free of rank $r$ and $s$. Consider respective bases $\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{r}\right)$ of $M$ and $\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{s}\right)$ of $N$. If $f \in$ $\operatorname{Hom}(M, N)$, then the matrix of $f$ is $\operatorname{Mat}(f)=\left(f_{i j}\right)_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq s \\ 1 \leq j \leq r}} \in M_{s, r}(A)$ defined by:

$$
\forall(i, j) \in\{1, \ldots, s\} \times\{1, \ldots, r\}, f\left(m_{j}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{s} f_{i j} n_{i} .
$$

Proposition 1.7.2. If $f: M \rightarrow N$ and $g: N \rightarrow L$ are two homomorphisms between three free $A$-modules of finite type equipped with bases, then $\operatorname{Mat}(f g)=\operatorname{Mat}(f) \operatorname{Mat}(g)$.

Proposition 1.7.3. Let $M$ be a free $A$-module of rank $r$ equipped with a basis. Consider $f \in$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(M, M)$ and let $P=\operatorname{Mat}(f)$.
(i) $f$ is surjective $\Longleftrightarrow(\operatorname{det} P) \in A^{\times}$.
(ii) $f$ is injective $\Longleftrightarrow(\operatorname{det} P)$ is not a divisor of 0 in $A$.

Proof. (ii) $(\Rightarrow)$ Suppose that $(\operatorname{det} P)$ is a divisor of 0 in $A$, i.e. there exists $h \in A \backslash\{0\}$ s.t. $h \operatorname{det} P=$ 0 . If $h \cdot P=0$, then $P \cdot{ }^{t}\left(\begin{array}{llll}h & 0 & \cdots & 0\end{array}\right)=0$ so $\operatorname{Ker} f \neq\{0\}$. Therefore, assume that $h \cdot P \neq 0$, i.e. there exists $(i, j) \in\{1, \cdots, r\}^{2}$ s.t. $h P_{i j} \neq 0$. In other words, there is a $1 \times 1$ minor of $P$ which is not killed by $h$. And the only $r \times r$ minor of $P$ is killed by $h$. Hence $P$ has a largest minor, of size $n<r$, which is not killed by $h$ : call it $\mu=\operatorname{minor}_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{n}}^{j_{1}, \ldots, j_{n}}(P)$, with $h \mu \neq 0$. Take $i_{0} \notin\left\{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{n}\right\}$ and let $x={ }^{t}\left(\begin{array}{lll}x_{1} & \cdots & x_{r}\end{array}\right)$, where $x_{i}=0$ if $i \notin\left\{i_{0}, \ldots, i_{r}\right\}$, and $x_{i_{k}}=(-1)^{k} h \operatorname{minor}_{i_{0}, \ldots, i_{k}, \ldots, i_{n}}^{j_{1}, \ldots, j_{n}}(P)$. Note that $x_{i_{0}}=h \mu \neq 0$, so $x \neq 0$. However, it is easy to check that $P x=0$. Hence, Ker $f \neq\{0\}$ and $f$ is not injective.

Corollary 1.7.4. If $M$ is a free $A$-module of finite type and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(M, M)$ is surjective, then $f$ is bijective.
Corollary 1.7.5. If there exists an injective map $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A^{r}, A^{s}\right)$, then $r \leq s$
Proof. Suppose for contradiction that $r>s$. Then we can extend $f$ to a map $\tilde{f}: x \in A^{r} \longmapsto$ $(f(x), 0) \in A^{s} \oplus A^{r-s}=A^{r}$. Hence, $\tilde{f}$ is injective, but $\operatorname{det} f=0$, which is a contradiction.

### 1.8 Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

Definition 1.8.1 (Characteristic polynomial). If $P \in M_{n}(A)$, the characteristic polynomial of $P$ is defined by:

$$
\Pi_{P}=\operatorname{det}(X \operatorname{Id}-P) \in A[X] .
$$

Remark 1.8.2. The data of an $A[X]$-module $M$ is equivalent to an $A$-module $M$ equipped with an A-linear map $f: M \rightarrow M$.

Theorem 1.8.3 (Cayley-Hamilton Theorem). Consider an $A$-module $M$ generated by a finite number $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{n}$ of elements. Let $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(M, M)$ and take a matrix $P \in M_{n}(A)$ s.t. $\forall i \in$ $\{1, \ldots, n\}, f\left(m_{i}\right)=\sum_{j=1}^{n} P_{i j} m_{j}$. Then $\Pi_{P}(f)=0$ on $M$.
Proof. View $M$ as an $A[X]$-module by setting $X \cdot m=f(m)$ for $m \in M$. Hence, we have:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
\vdots \\
0
\end{array}\right)=(X \operatorname{Id}-P)\left(\begin{array}{c}
m_{1} \\
\vdots \\
m_{n}
\end{array}\right)={ }^{t}(\operatorname{Com}(X \operatorname{Id}-P))(X \operatorname{Id}-P)\left(\begin{array}{c}
m_{1} \\
\vdots \\
m_{n}
\end{array}\right)=\Pi_{P}(X) \cdot\left(\begin{array}{c}
m_{1} \\
\vdots \\
m_{n}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Therefore, $\forall i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}, \Pi_{P}(f) \cdot m_{i}=\Pi_{P}(X) \cdot m_{i}=0$. Since $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{n}$ generate $M, \Pi_{P}(f)=$ 0.

Remark 1.8.4. Proving the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem for any module gives the vector space version as a corollary.

Corollary 1.8.5. If $M$ is a finitely generated $A$-module and $I$ is an ideal of $A$ s.t. $I M=M$, then there exists $x \in A$ s.t. $x \equiv 1 \bmod I$ and $x M=0$.

Proof. Let $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{n}$ be a finite generating family for $M$. Note that there exists $P \in M_{n}(I)$ s.t. $\forall i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}, m_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} P_{i j} m_{j}$ (because $I M=M$ ). Apply the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem to $f=\operatorname{id}_{M}$ with $P$ as above. We take $x=\Pi_{P}(1) \in A$; hence $x=\operatorname{det}(\operatorname{Id}-P) \equiv 1 \bmod I$ (because $\left.P \in M_{n}(I)\right)$ and $\forall m \in M, x m=\Pi_{P}\left(\mathrm{id}_{M}\right) \cdot m=0$.

### 1.9 Local rings

Definition 1.9.1 (Local ring). $A$ ring $A$ is said to be a local ring if it admits only one maximal ideal. In this case, if I is the unique maximal ideal of $A$, the quotient $A / I$ is called the residue field of $A$.

Lemma 1.9.2. $A$ ring $A$ is local iff $A \backslash A^{\times}$is an ideal of $A$.

## Example 1.9.3.

(i) A field is local (with maximal ideal $\{0\}$ ).
(ii) $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ is local (with maximal ideal $p \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ ).
(iii) $\mathbb{C}[[X]]$ is local (with maximal ideal $X \mathbb{C}[[X]]$ ).
(iv) Consider a topological space $X$ and choose $x \in X$. Let $B$ be the set of pairs $(\mathcal{U}, f)$, where $\mathcal{U}$ is an open neighbourhood of $x$ and $f: \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function. Define an equivalence relation $\mathcal{R}$ on $B$ by $(\mathcal{U}, f) \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{V}, g)$ iff there exists an open neighbourhood $\mathcal{W} \subseteq \mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V}$ of $x$ s.t. $f_{\mid \mathcal{W}}=g_{\mid \mathcal{W}}$. Hence, the quotient $A=B / \mathcal{R}$ is naturally a ring, and it is local.

Proposition 1.9.4 (Nakayema's Lemma). Let A be a local ring with maximal ideal I. Consider a finitely generated $A$-module $M$. If $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{r}$ are elements of $M$ s.t. the $A / I$-vector space $M / I M$ is generated by $\bar{m}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{m}_{r}$, then $M$ is generated by $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{r}$.

Proof. Let $N=A m_{1}+\cdots+A m_{r}$. We have $M=N+I M$, therefore $I \cdot(M / N)=(I M+N) / N=$ $M / N$. By Corollary 1.8.5, there exists $x \equiv 1 \bmod I$ s.t. $x \cdot M / N=0$. Since $A$ is local, $x \in A^{\times}$and therefore $M=N$.

Corollary 1.9.5. Let $A$ be a local ring with maximal ideal $I$. If $M$ and $N$ are two $A$-modules with $M=N+I M$, then $N=M$.

## 2 Finitely generated modules over PIDs

### 2.1 Invariant factors for PIDs

Theorem 2.1.1. If $A$ is a PID, $M$ is a free $A$-module of rank $r$ and $N$ is a submodule of $M$, then $N$ is free of rank $\leq r$.

Proof. Let $\left(m_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq r}$ be a basis of $M$. For $i \in\{1, \ldots, r\}$, define $N_{i}=N \cap\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{i}\right)$. By induction on $i$, let us show that $N_{i}$ is free of rank $\leq i$ (the result will follow by taking $i=r$ ). For $i=1, N_{1} \subseteq\left(m_{1}\right)$, and $\left(m_{1}\right) \simeq A$ (as an $A$-module). Since $A$ is principal, $N_{1}$ is of the form $\left(a_{1} m_{1}\right)$ for some $a_{1} \in A$; hence $N_{1}$ is free of rank $\leq 1$. Assume the result has been proved up to $i$. We have $N_{i+1} \subseteq\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{i+1}\right)$. Consider:

$$
I=\left\{a \in A, \exists\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{i}\right) \in A^{i},\left(b_{1} m_{1}+\cdots+b_{i} m_{i}+a m_{i+1}\right) \in N_{i+1}\right\} .
$$

$I$ is an ideal of $A$. As $A$ is principal, $I$ is of the form $\left(a_{i+1}\right)$, with $a_{i+1} \in A$. If $a_{i+1}=0$, then $N_{i+1}=N_{i}$ is free of rank $\leq i$ by induction. Otherwise, choose $x \in N_{i+1}$ s.t. the coefficient of $m_{i+1}$ in $x$ is $a_{i+1}$. For every $y \in N_{i+1}$, the coefficient of $m_{i+1}$ in $y$ is some multiple $b \cdot m_{i+1}$ of $a_{i+1}$, so $y-b x \in N_{i}$. This implies that $N_{i+1}=N_{i}+A x$. But $N_{i} \cap A x=\{0\}$, so:

$$
N_{i+1}=N_{i} \oplus A x .
$$

Now, $N_{i+1}$ is free of rank $\leq i+1$ by induction.
Theorem 2.1.2. If $A$ is a PID, $M$ is a free $A$-module of rank $r$ and $N$ is a submodule of $M$ of rank $s$, then there exists a basis $\left(m_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq r}$ of $M$ and $d_{1}, \ldots, d_{s} \in A \backslash\{0\}$ s.t.
(i) $\left(d_{i} m_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq s}$ is a basis of $N$.
(ii) $d_{1}\left|d_{2}\right| \cdots \mid d_{s}$.

The ideals $\left(d_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(d_{s}\right)$ are determined by $M / N$; they are called the invariant factors of $M / N$.
Proof. We shall prove the result with the (stronger) assumption that $A$ is euclidean, i.e. there exists a euclidean function $\mathcal{N}: A \backslash\{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ s.t. for all $a \in A$ and for all $b \in A \backslash\{0\}$, there exist $q, r \in A$ with $a=q b+r$ and either $r=0$ or $\mathcal{N}(r)<\mathcal{N}(b)$. We use induction on $r$. We choose respective bases of $M$ and $N$. Let $P \in M_{r, s}(A)$ be the matrix of the basis of $N$ in terms of the basis of $M$. Changing bases amounts to multiplying $P$ by invertible matrices on the left and on the right. Hence, it is enough to prove that there exist $X \in G L_{r}(A)$ and $Y \in G L_{s}(A)$ s.t.

$$
X P Y=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\operatorname{diag}\left(d_{1}, \ldots, d_{s}\right) \\
0
\end{array}\right]
$$

with $d_{1}|\cdots| d_{s}$. In other words, it is enough to prove that, by using elementary operations on rows and columns (i.e. permutation of rows or columns, and transvection operations), one can go from $P$ to a matrix of the above form. We may assume that $P \neq 0$ (otherwise we are done) and we let
 exists $i \in\{1, \ldots, r\}$ s.t. $P_{11} \nmid P_{i 1}$, perform the euclidean division of $P_{i 1}$ by $P_{11}: P_{i 1}=q P_{11}+r$, with $r \neq 0$. Now perform the operation $L_{i} \leftarrow L_{i}-q L_{1}$; we obtain a new matrix $P^{\prime}$ with $\mathcal{N}\left(P^{\prime}\right)<\mathcal{N}(P)$. After performing such operations a finite number of times, we will have $P_{11} \mid P_{i 1}$ for all $i$; likewise, we can obtain $P_{11} \mid P_{1 j}$ for all $j$. Now perform $L_{i} \leftarrow L_{i}-\frac{P_{i 1}}{P_{11}} L_{1}$ for all $i \neq 1$ and $C_{j} \leftarrow C_{j}-\frac{P_{1 j}}{P_{11}} C_{1}$ for all $j \neq 1$. We obtain a matrix of the form $\left[\begin{array}{cc}P_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & Q\end{array}\right]$, with $Q \in M_{r-1, s-1}(A)$. If there exists $(i, j) \in\{1, \ldots, r-1\} \times\{1, \ldots, s-1\}$ s.t. $P_{11} \nmid Q_{i j}$, perform $L_{i} \leftarrow L_{i}-q L_{1}$ as before in order to decrease the norm strictly. Thus, one may assume that $P_{11} \mid Q_{i j}$ for all $(i, j)$. Now, applying the induction hypothesis to $\frac{Q}{P_{11}}$ gives the desired result.
Vocabulary 2.1.3. Let $A$ be an integral domain.
(i) We say that $A$ is an elementary divisor domain (EDD) if for all $P \in M_{r, s}(A)$, there exist $X \in G L_{r}(A)$ and $Y \in G L_{s}(A)$ s.t.

$$
X P Y=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\operatorname{diag}\left(d_{1}, \ldots, d_{s}\right) \\
0
\end{array}\right]
$$

with $d_{1}|\cdots| d_{s}$.
(ii) We say that $A$ is a Bézout domain if every finitely generated ideal of $A$ is principal.

Proposition 2.1.4. If $A$ is an $E D D$, then $A$ is a Bézout domain.
Proof. Let $I=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right)$ be a finitely generated ideal of $A$. Consider $P={ }^{t}\left(\begin{array}{lll}x_{1} & \cdots & x_{r}\end{array}\right) \in$ $M_{r, 1}(A)$. Since $A$ is an EDD, there exist $X \in G L_{r}(A), Y \in G L_{s}(A)$ and $d \in A$ s.t. $X P Y=$ ${ }^{t}\left(\begin{array}{llll}d & 0 & \cdots & 0\end{array}\right)$. Hence, $I=(d)$.
Corollary 2.1.5. Let $A$ be an integral domain. We have the following chain of implications :
$A$ is a euclidean domain $\Longrightarrow A$ is a $P I D \Longrightarrow A$ is an $E D D \Longrightarrow A$ is a Bézout domain.

### 2.2 Finitely generated modules over PIDs

Proposition 2.2.1. If $A$ is a PID and $M$ is a finitely generated $A$-module, then there exist $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ and nonzero elements $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{m} \in A \backslash A^{\times}$with $e_{1}|\cdots| e_{m}$ s.t.

$$
M \simeq A^{n} \oplus A / e_{1} A \oplus \cdots \oplus A / e_{m} A
$$

Proof. Since $M$ is finitely generated, there exists a surjective map $f: A^{r} \rightarrow M$, with $r \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $N=\operatorname{Ker} f$. By Theorem 2.1.2, there is a basis $\left(g_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq r}$ of $A^{r}$ and nonzero elements $d_{1}, \ldots, d_{s}$ of $A$ s.t. $d_{1}|\cdots| d_{s}$ and:

$$
N=d_{1} g_{1} A \oplus \cdots \oplus d_{s} g_{s} A
$$

Note that $M=\operatorname{Im} f \simeq A^{r} / \operatorname{Ker} f=A^{r} / N$. Therefore:

$$
M \simeq \frac{g_{1} A \oplus \cdots \oplus g_{r} A}{d_{1} g_{1} A \oplus \cdots \oplus d_{s} g_{s} A} \simeq A^{r-s} \oplus A / d_{1} A \oplus \cdots \oplus A / d_{s} A
$$

But $A / d_{i} A=\{0\}$ if $d_{i} \in A^{\times}$; we obtain the result by throwing away the indices $i$ s.t. $d_{i} \in A^{\times}$.
Proposition 2.2.2. If $M$ is a finitely generated module over a PID $A$, then the module $M / M_{\text {tor }}$ is free of finite rank. Moreover, the integer $n$ in Proposition 2.2.1 is the rank of $M / M_{\text {tor }}$. In particular, a torsion-free finitely generated module over a PID is free of finite rank.

Proposition 2.2.3. Let $A$ be a PID and $d_{1}, \ldots, d_{m}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$ be nonzero elements of $A \backslash A^{\times}$s.t. $d_{1}|\cdots| d_{m}, e_{1}|\cdots| e_{n}$, and $A / d_{1} A \oplus \cdots \oplus A / d_{m} A \simeq A / e_{1} A \oplus \cdots \oplus A / e_{n} A$. Then $m=n$ and $\left(d_{i}\right)=\left(e_{i}\right)$ for all $i \in\{1, \ldots, m\}$.

Proof. Since $A$ is a PID, prime elements are the same as irreducible elements; hence, if $p \in A$ is prime, then $(p)$ is maximal and $A / p A$ is a field. Moreover, for $d \in A \backslash A^{\times}, \frac{A / d A}{p \cdot(A / d A)} \simeq \frac{A}{p A+d A}$ is $A / p A$ if $p \mid d,\{0\}$ otherwise. Hence, for any prime element $p \in A, \frac{A / d_{1} A \oplus \cdots \oplus A / d_{m} A}{p \cdot\left(A / d_{1} A \oplus \cdots A / d_{m} A\right)}$ is an $(A / p A)$-vector space whose dimension is the number of $d_{i}$ that are divisible by $p$. Since $A / d_{1} A \oplus \cdots \oplus A / d_{m} A \simeq$ $A / e_{1} A \oplus \cdots \oplus A / e_{n} A$, we have, for every prime element $p$ :

$$
\left|\left\{i \in\{1, \ldots, m\}, p \mid d_{i}\right\}\right|=\left|\left\{j \in\{1, \ldots, n\}, p \mid e_{j}\right\}\right|
$$

Now choose a prime element $p$ s.t. $p \mid d_{1}$. Then $p\left|d_{1}\right| d_{2}|\cdots| d_{m}$, so $\left|\left\{j \in\{1, \ldots, n\}, p \mid e_{j}\right\}\right|=m$, and $n \geq m$. By symmetry, $n=m$ and $p\left|e_{1}\right| \cdots \mid e_{m}$. Now if $p$ divides some $d \in A$, then $p \cdot(A / d A) \simeq A /\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) A$. Here, this gives $A /\left(\frac{d_{1}}{p}\right) A \oplus \cdots \oplus A /\left(\frac{d_{m}}{p}\right) A \simeq A /\left(\frac{e_{1}}{p}\right) A \oplus \cdots \oplus A /\left(\frac{e_{m}}{p}\right) A$, which allows us to prove the result by induction.

Theorem 2.2.4. If $A$ is a PID and $M$ is a finitely generated $A$-module, then there exist $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ and nonzero elements $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{m} \in A \backslash A^{\times}$with $e_{1}|\cdots| e_{m}$ s.t.

$$
M \simeq A^{n} \oplus A / e_{1} A \oplus \cdots \oplus A / e_{m} A
$$

The integers $n$ and $m$ and the ideals $\left(e_{i}\right)$ are uniquely determined by $M$.
Remark 2.2.5. Let $A$ be a PID, $d \in A$. The module $A / d A$ may be decomposed as follows: if $d=u p_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots p_{r}^{\alpha_{r}}$, with the $p_{i}$ distinct prime elements, $\alpha_{i} \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$ and $u \in A^{\times}$, then by the Chinese Remainder Theorem:

$$
A / d A \simeq A / p_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} A \oplus \cdots \oplus A / p_{r}^{\alpha_{r}} A
$$

However, one can prove that $A / p^{\alpha} A$ is indecomposable if $p$ is prime and $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$.
Definition 2.2.6 (Primary parts). If $A$ is a PID and $M$ is an $A$-module, then for any prime element $p \in A$, we define the $p$-primary part of $M$ by:

$$
M(p)=\left\{m \in M, \exists \alpha \in \mathbb{N}, p^{\alpha} m=0\right\}
$$

$M(p)$ is a submodule of $M$.

Remark 2.2.7. Let $A$ be a PID and $M=A / d A$. Write $d=u p_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots p_{r}^{\alpha_{r}}$, with the $p_{i}$ distinct prime elements, $\alpha_{i} \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$ and $u \in A^{\times}$. Then for all $j \in\{1, \ldots, r\}, M\left(p_{j}\right) \simeq A / p_{j}^{\alpha_{j}} A$. Hence, $M=\bigoplus_{p \text { prime }} M(p)$.
Corollary 2.2.8. If $A$ is a PID and $M$ is a finitely generated $A$-module, then $M(p)=0$ for all but finitely many prime elements $p$, and there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$
M \simeq A^{n} \oplus\left(\bigoplus_{p \text { prime }} M(p)\right)
$$

Moreover, for every prime element p, there exist $\alpha_{1}(p) \leq \cdots \leq \alpha_{m(p)}(p)$ s.t.

$$
M(p) \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^{m(p)} A / p^{\alpha_{i}(p)} A
$$

The integers $n, m(p), \alpha_{i}(p)$ are uniquely determined by $M$.

### 2.3 Applications: finitely generated abelian groups, reduction of endomorphisms

Theorem 2.3.1. Let $G$ be a finitely generated abelian group. Then there exist $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ and integers $d_{1}, \ldots, d_{m} \geq 2$ with $d_{1}|\cdots| d_{m}$ s.t.

$$
G \simeq \mathbb{Z}^{n} \oplus \mathbb{Z} / d_{1} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z} / d_{m} \mathbb{Z}
$$

Proof. An abelian group is a $\mathbb{Z}$-module, so Theorem 2.2.4 applies.
Theorem 2.3.2. Let $V$ be a finite-dimensional vector space over a field $k$. Let $f \in \operatorname{End}(V)$. Note that $V$ can be seen as a $k[X]$-module by setting $X \cdot v=f(v)$ for $v \in V$.
(i) There exist polynomials $D_{1}, \ldots, D_{m} \in k[X]$ with $D_{1}|\cdots| D_{m}$ s.t.

$$
V \simeq k[X] /\left(D_{1}\right) \oplus \cdots \oplus k[X] /\left(D_{m}\right)
$$

Note that $k[X] /\left(D_{i}\right)$ is a cyclic subspace for $f$, for all $i \in\{1, \ldots, m\}$.
(ii) The ideals $\left(D_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(D_{m}\right)$ are the nonunit invariant factors of $(X \operatorname{Id}-M) \in M_{d}(k[X])$, where $M$ is the matrix of $f$ in a basis of $V$.

Proof. (i) The $k[X]$-module $V$ is finitely generated because $V$ is a finitely generated $k$-module. Moreover, according to the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem (Theorem 1.8.3), $M=M_{\text {tor }}$, which gives the result using Theorem 2.2.4. (ii) Let $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{d}$ be a basis of $V$, let $M=\left(m_{i j}\right)_{1 \leq i, j \leq d}=\operatorname{Mat}(f)$. Consider a free $k[X]$-module $W$ of rank $d$; write $W=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{d} k[X] \omega_{i}$ for some $\left(\omega_{1}, \ldots, \omega_{d}\right) \in W^{d}$. For $i \in\{1, \ldots, d\}$, set:

$$
n_{i}=X \omega_{i}-\sum_{j=1}^{d} m_{j i} \omega_{j} \in W
$$

Consider $N=\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{d}\right) \subseteq W$. Now, define a map $\pi: W \rightarrow V$ by $\pi\left(\sum_{i=1}^{d} P_{i}(X) \omega_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{d} P_{i}(f) v_{i}$. The map $\pi$ is $k[X]$-linear, and we claim that the sequence $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow W \xrightarrow{\pi} V \rightarrow 0$ is exact. The surjectivity of $\pi$ is clear since $\pi\left(\omega_{i}\right)=v_{i}$ for $i \in\{1, \ldots, d\}$. Moreover, for $i \in\{1, \ldots, d\}, \pi\left(n_{i}\right)=0$ because $M=\operatorname{Mat}(f)$. Hence, $N \subseteq \operatorname{Ker} \pi$. Conversely, let $w \in \operatorname{Ker} \pi$. As $w \in W$, there exist $n \in N$ and $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d}\right) \in k^{d}$ s.t. $w=n+\sum_{i=1}^{d} a_{i} \omega_{i}$. But $w \in \operatorname{Ker} \pi$, and $n \in N \subseteq \operatorname{Ker} \pi$, so $0=\pi\left(\sum_{i=1}^{d} a_{i} \omega_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{d} a_{i} v_{i}$. Hence, $a_{i}=0$ for all $i \in\{1, \ldots, d\}$, and $w=n \in N$. This proves that the sequence $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow W \xrightarrow{\pi} V \rightarrow 0$ is exact. Therefore, $V \simeq W / N$, so $N$ is free of rank $d$ and $N=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{d} k[X]\left(X \omega_{i}-\sum_{j=1}^{d} m_{j i} \omega_{j}\right)$. Now, note that $(X \operatorname{Id}-M)$ is the matrix of $\left(X \omega_{i}-\sum_{j=1}^{d} m_{j i} \omega_{j}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq d} \in W^{d}$ in the basis $\left(\omega_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq d}$.

Remark 2.3.3. With the notations of Theorem 2.3.2, $D_{m}$ is the minimal polynomial of $f$ and $D_{1} \cdots D_{m}$ is its characteristic polynomial.

Corollary 2.3.4. Let $k$ be a field and $A, B \in M_{d}(k)$. Then $A$ and $B$ are similar iff $(X \operatorname{Id}-A)$ and $(X \operatorname{Id}-B)$ are equivalent in $M_{d}(k[X])$.
Corollary 2.3.5 (Jordan normal form of an endomorphism). Let $V$ be a finite-dimensional vector space over an algebraically closed field $k$. Let $f \in \operatorname{End}(V)$. Then there exist $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{s} \in k$ s.t. $V=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{s} V_{\lambda_{i}}$, with $V_{\lambda_{i}}$ stable by $f$ and s.t. the matrix of the endomorphism induced by $f$ in some basis of $V_{\lambda_{i}}$ is:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
\lambda_{i} & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 1 \\
0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_{i}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Proof. View $V$ as a $k[X]$ module and use Corollary 2.2.8. Use the fact that the matrix above is the matrix of multiplication by $X$ in the basis $\left((X-\lambda)^{i}\right)_{0 \leq i \leq \alpha-1}$ of $k[X] /(X-\lambda)^{\alpha}$.

### 2.4 Projective modules

Definition 2.4.1 (Projective module). A module $P$ is said to be projective if for every surjective linear map $f: N_{1} \rightarrow N_{2}$ between modules, the induced map $f_{*}: \operatorname{Hom}\left(P, N_{1}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(P, N_{2}\right)$ is also surjective.
Example 2.4.2. Free modules are always projective.
Definition 2.4.3 (Split sequence). Consider an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow M \xrightarrow{f} N \xrightarrow{g} P \rightarrow 0$. The following assertions are equivalent:
(i) There exists a linear map $r: P \rightarrow N$ s.t. $g \circ r=\mathrm{id}_{P}$.
(ii) There exists $P^{\prime} \subseteq N$ s.t. $N=f(M) \oplus P^{\prime}$.

In this case, we say the the sequence is split.
Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) Take $P^{\prime}=r(P)$. (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) Note that $g$ induces an isomorphism $\tilde{g}: P^{\prime} \rightarrow P$, so take $r=\widetilde{g}^{-1}: P \rightarrow P^{\prime} \subseteq N$.

Theorem 2.4.4. Let $P$ be a module over a ring $A$. The following assertions are equivalent:
(i) $P$ is projective.
(ii) Every exact sequence $0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow N \rightarrow P \rightarrow 0$ is split.
(iii) There exists an $A$-module $R$ s.t. $P \oplus R$ is free.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) Consider an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow M \xrightarrow{f} N \xrightarrow{g} P \rightarrow 0$. Note that $g: N \rightarrow P$ is surjective, and $P$ is projective, so $g_{*}: \operatorname{Hom}(P, N) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(P, P)$ is surjective. Hence, there exists $r \in \operatorname{Hom}(P, N)$ s.t. $g_{*}(r)=\operatorname{id}_{P}$, i.e. $g \circ r=\operatorname{id}_{P}$. Hence, the sequence is split. (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) Note that every module is the quotient of a free module, because every module has a (possibly infinite) generating family. Therefore, there exists a free module $L$ and a surjective map $g: L \rightarrow P$. Hence, we get an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker} g \rightarrow L \xrightarrow{g} P \rightarrow 0$. Since this exact sequence splits, we get $L=r(P) \oplus \operatorname{Ker} g \simeq P \oplus \operatorname{Ker} g$, with $r: P \rightarrow N$ s.t. $g \circ r=\operatorname{id}_{P}$. (iii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) Let $R$ be an $A$-module s.t. $L=R \oplus P$ is free. Consider a surjective map $g: N_{1} \rightarrow N_{2}$. We know that $L$ is projective (because $L$ is free), so the induced map $\operatorname{Hom}\left(L, N_{1}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(L, N_{2}\right)$ is surjective. But $\operatorname{Hom}\left(L, N_{1}\right) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}\left(R, N_{1}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Hom}\left(P, N_{1}\right)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}\left(L, N_{2}\right) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}\left(R, N_{2}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Hom}\left(P, N_{2}\right)$, so the map $\operatorname{Hom}\left(P, N_{1}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(P, N_{2}\right)$ is also surjective and $P$ is projective.

Remark 2.4.5. If $P$ is a finitely generated projective module, the above proof shows the existence of a module $R$ s.t. $P \oplus R$ is free of finite rank. In particular, over a PID, a module is projective and finitely generated iff it is free of finite rank.

Example 2.4.6. The following modules are projective but not free:
(i) $\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}$ is a projective $\mathbb{Z} / 6 \mathbb{Z}$-module that is not free (because $\mathbb{Z} / 6 \mathbb{Z} \simeq \mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} / 3 \mathbb{Z}$ ).
(ii) If $M$ and $N$ are free $A$ - and $B$-modules respectively, then $M \times N$ is a projective $A \times B$ module, and it is free iff $\mathrm{rk}_{A} M=\operatorname{rk}_{B} N$.
(iii) Let $A=\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}], P=(3,1+\sqrt{-5}) \subseteq A, R=(3,1-\sqrt{-5})$. We have $P+R=A$, $P \cap R=3 A$. Therefore, we have an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow 3 A \rightarrow P \oplus R \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$. This sequence is split because $A$ is projective over itself. Hence, $P \oplus R \simeq A^{2}$, so $P$ and $R$ are projective. However, $P$ and $R$ are not free.
(iv) Let $A=\mathcal{C}^{0}\left(\mathbb{S}^{n}, \mathbb{R}\right)$. Choose an orthonormal basis of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ and let $\hat{x}_{0}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{n}: \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ denote the associated coordinate functions. For $i \in\{0, \ldots, n\}$, set $x_{i}=\hat{x}_{i} \circ j \in A$, where $j: \mathbb{S}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ is the inclusion. Now let $e=\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in A^{n+1}$ and $P=\left\{v \in A^{n+1},\langle v \mid e\rangle=0\right\}$. The A-module $P$ is projective because $A^{n+1}=P \oplus A e$. If $P$ is free, then it must be of rank $n$, so there must exist $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n} \in A^{n+1}$ s.t. $P=A v_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus A v_{n}$. Therefore, $A^{n+1}=$ $A v_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus A v_{n} \oplus A e$. By fixing $s \in \mathbb{S}^{n}$ and applying the map $f \in A \mapsto f(s) \in \mathbb{R}$, we get $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}=\mathbb{R} v_{1}(s) \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{R} v_{n}(s) \oplus \mathbb{R} e(s)$. In particular, $v_{1}(s) \neq 0$ for every $s \in \mathbb{S}^{n}$, and $v_{1}(s) \in s^{\perp}$, so $v_{1}$ is a nonvanishing continuous vector field on $\mathbb{S}^{n}$. This is impossible when $n$ is even, due to the Hairy Ball Theorem.

## 3 Tensor products

### 3.1 Universal property of the tensor product

Theorem 3.1.1 (Existence of the tensor product). Let $M$ and $N$ be two $A$-modules. There exists an $A$-module $M \otimes N$ (sometimes written $M \otimes_{A} N$ ) together with a bilinear map $t: M \times N \rightarrow M \otimes N$ satisfying the following universal property: for any $A$-module $P$, the map $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(M \otimes N, P) \longmapsto$ $f \circ t \in \operatorname{Bil}(M \times N, P)$ is an isomorphism of $A$-modules. Moreover, the module $M \otimes N$ is uniquely determined by this property, i.e. if $X$ is an $A$-module together with a bilinear map $u: M \times N \rightarrow X$ satisfying the same universal property, then there exists a unique isomorphism $\varphi: X \rightarrow M \otimes N$ s.t. $t=\varphi \circ u$.

Proof. Let $L$ be the free $A$-module whose basis is $([m, n])_{(m, n) \in M \times N}$, i.e. $L=\bigoplus_{(m, n) \in M \times N} A[m, n]$. Let $R$ be the submodule of $L$ generated by elements of the form $\left[a_{1} m_{1}+a_{2} m_{2}, n\right]-a_{1}\left[m_{1}, n\right]-$ $a_{2}\left[m_{2}, n\right]$ or $\left[m, b_{1} n_{1}+b_{2} n_{2}\right]-b_{1}\left[m, n_{1}\right]-b_{2}\left[m, n_{2}\right]$ for $a_{1}, a_{2}, b_{1}, b_{2} \in A, m, m_{1}, m_{2} \in M, n, n_{1}, n_{2} \in N$. Set $M \otimes N=L / R$ and define $m \otimes n$ to be the class of $[m, n]$ in $L / R$ for $(m, n) \in M \times N$. Hence, define a bilinear map $t:(m, n) \in M \times N \longmapsto m \otimes n \in M \otimes N$. If $P$ is an $A$-module, the map $\Psi: f \in \operatorname{Hom}(M \otimes N, P) \longmapsto f \circ t \in \operatorname{Bil}(M \times N, P)$ is $A$-linear; let us prove that it is an isomorphism. The injectivity comes from the fact that $(m \otimes n)_{(m, n) \in M \times N}$ is a generating family for $M \otimes N$. For the surjectivity, let $g \in \operatorname{Bil}(M \times N, P)$. Define $\tilde{f}: L \rightarrow P$ by $\tilde{f}([m, n])=g(m, n)$ for $(m, n) \in M \times N$. We have $R \subseteq \operatorname{Ker} \tilde{f}$ because $g$ is bilinear; therefore, there exists $f: M \otimes N \rightarrow P$ s.t. $\tilde{f}=f \circ \pi$, where $\pi: L \rightarrow L / R=M \otimes N$ is the projection. Hence, $g=f \circ t$. This proves that $(M \otimes N, t)$ satisfies the universal property. Let $(X, u)$ be another pair satisfying the same universal property. Since $t \in \operatorname{Hom}(M \times N, M \otimes N)$, there exists $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(X, M \otimes N)$ s.t. $t=f \circ u$. Likewise, there exists $g \in \operatorname{Hom}(M \otimes N, X)$ s.t. $u=g \circ t$. Note that $f \circ g \circ t=t$, so $f \circ g=\mathrm{id}_{M \otimes N}$ by the universal property. Likewise, $g \circ f=\operatorname{id}_{X}$, so $f: X \rightarrow M \otimes N$ is an isomorphism and $t=f \circ u$.

Example 3.1.2.
(i) $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q}=0$ because $\forall(a, b) \in \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Q}, a \otimes b=n a \otimes \frac{b}{n}=0$.
(ii) $\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}=\mathbb{Z} /(m \wedge n) \mathbb{Z}$.
(iii) $\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}=\mathbb{Q}$.
(iv) $\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q}=\mathbb{Q}$.

Remark 3.1.3. Let $M$ and $N$ be two $A$-modules.
(i) If $\operatorname{Bil}(M \times N, P)=0$ for every $A$-module $P$, then $M \otimes N=0$.
(ii) If $M$ is generated by $\left(m_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ and $N$ is generated by $\left(n_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$, then $M \otimes N$ is generated by $\left(m_{i} \otimes n_{j}\right)_{(i, j) \in I \times J}$. In particular, if $M$ and $N$ are finitely generated, then so is $M \otimes N$.
Vocabulary 3.1.4. Let $M$ and $N$ be two $A$-modules. Elements of the form $m \otimes n \in M \otimes N$, for $(m, n) \in M \times N$, are called simple tensors. If $x \in M \otimes N$, the rank of $x$ is the smallest integer $r$ s.t. $x$ can be written as the sum of $r$ simple tensors.

Proposition 3.1.5. Let $M, N, P,\left(M_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ be $A$-modules.
(i) $M \otimes N=N \otimes M$.
(ii) $M \otimes A=M$.
(iii) $\left(\oplus_{i \in I} M_{i}\right) \otimes N=\bigoplus_{i \in I}\left(M_{i} \otimes N\right)$.
(iv) $\operatorname{Hom}(M \otimes N, P)=\operatorname{Hom}(M, \operatorname{Hom}(N, P))$.
(v) $(M \otimes N) \otimes P=M \otimes(N \otimes P)$.

Remark 3.1.6. If $M, N, P$ are $A$-modules, we shall write $M \otimes N \otimes P=(M \otimes N) \otimes P=M \otimes(N \otimes P)$. The $A$-module $M \otimes N \otimes P$ has a universal property w.r.t. multilinear maps on $M \times N \times P$.

Corollary 3.1.7. The tensor product of two free $A$-modules is a free $A$-module.
Corollary 3.1.8. The tensor product of two projective $A$-modules is a projective $A$-module.
Proof. If $M$ and $N$ are projective $A$-modules, then there exist $A$-modules $M^{\prime}$ and $N^{\prime}$ s.t. $M \oplus M^{\prime}$ and $N \oplus N^{\prime}$ are free. Therefore $\left(M \oplus M^{\prime}\right) \otimes\left(N \oplus N^{\prime}\right)$ is free. But:

$$
\left(M \oplus M^{\prime}\right) \otimes\left(N \oplus N^{\prime}\right)=(M \otimes N) \oplus\left(M \otimes N^{\prime}\right) \oplus\left(M^{\prime} \otimes N\right) \oplus\left(M^{\prime} \otimes N^{\prime}\right)
$$

Therefore, $M \otimes N$ is projective.

### 3.2 Tensor products, exact sequences and quotients

Proposition 3.2.1. If $M^{\prime} \rightarrow M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence and $N$ is a module, then the following sequence is exact:

$$
M^{\prime} \otimes N \rightarrow M \otimes N \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \otimes N \rightarrow 0
$$

In particular, $\frac{M}{\operatorname{Im} M^{\prime}} \otimes N=\frac{M \otimes N}{\operatorname{Im}\left(M^{\prime} \otimes N\right)}$.
Proof. Let $P$ be an $A$-module. Applying Proposition 1.2.6, we see that the sequence:

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, \operatorname{Hom}(N, P)\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M, \operatorname{Hom}(N, P)) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M^{\prime}, \operatorname{Hom}(N, P)\right)
$$

is exact. But this sequence can be rewritten as:

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M^{\prime \prime} \otimes N, P\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M \otimes N, P) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M^{\prime} \otimes N, P\right)
$$

Proposition 1.2.6 applied in the other direction now tells us that $M^{\prime} \otimes N \rightarrow M \otimes N \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \otimes N \rightarrow 0$ is exact.

Remark 3.2.2. Even if a linear map $M^{\prime} \rightarrow M$ between $A$-modules is injective, the induced map $M^{\prime} \otimes N \rightarrow M \otimes N$ may not be injective for an $A$-module $N$. For example, the inclusion $2 \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is injective but the induced map $2 \mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}$ is zero.
Corollary 3.2.3. Let $M$ be an $A$-module. If $I$ is an ideal of $A$, then:

$$
A / I \otimes M=M / I M
$$

Proof. We have an exact sequence $I \xrightarrow{j} A \xrightarrow{\pi} A / I \rightarrow 0$, which induces an exact sequence $I \otimes M \xrightarrow{\widetilde{j}}$ $M \xrightarrow{\widetilde{\pi}} A / I \otimes M \rightarrow 0$. Since $\operatorname{Im} \tilde{j}=I M$, we obtain $A / I \otimes M=M / I M$.
Corollary 3.2.4. If I and $J$ are two ideals of $A$, then:

$$
A / I \otimes A / J=A /(I+J)
$$

Corollary 3.2.5. If $K \xrightarrow{i} M \rightarrow P \rightarrow 0$ and $L \xrightarrow{j} N \rightarrow Q \rightarrow 0$ are two exact sequences, then the following sequence is exact:

$$
(K \otimes N) \oplus(M \otimes L) \xrightarrow{i \otimes \mathrm{id} \oplus \mathrm{id} \otimes j} M \otimes N \longrightarrow P \otimes Q \longrightarrow 0 .
$$

In particular, $\frac{M}{\operatorname{Im} K} \otimes \frac{N}{\operatorname{Im} L}=\frac{M \otimes N}{\operatorname{Im}(K \otimes N)+\operatorname{Im}(M \otimes L)}$.
Definition 3.2.6 (Flat module). An A-module $P$ is said to be flat if for every injective map $M^{\prime} \rightarrow M$, the induced map $P \otimes M^{\prime} \rightarrow P \otimes M$ is still injective.

Example 3.2.7. Any free module is flat.
Proposition 3.2.8. Projective modules are flat.
Proof. Use the fact that projective modules are direct summands of free modules.

### 3.3 Tensor products of homomorphisms

Definition 3.3.1 (Tensor product of homomorphisms). If $f: M_{1} \rightarrow M_{2}$ and $g: N_{1} \rightarrow N_{2}$ are homomorphisms of $A$-modules, then there exists a unique homomorphism $(f \otimes g): M_{1} \otimes N_{1} \rightarrow$ $M_{2} \otimes N_{2}$ s.t.

$$
\forall(m, n) \in M_{1} \times N_{1},(f \otimes g)(m \otimes n)=f(m) \otimes g(n)
$$

Remark 3.3.2. Let $M_{1}, M_{2}, N_{1}, N_{2}$ be A-modules. The tensor product of homomorphisms defines a bilinear map $\widetilde{h}: \operatorname{Hom}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right) \times \operatorname{Hom}\left(N_{1}, N_{2}\right) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M_{1} \otimes N_{1}, M_{2} \otimes N_{2}\right)$, which induces a linear map:

$$
h: \operatorname{Hom}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right) \otimes \operatorname{Hom}\left(N_{1}, N_{2}\right) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M_{1} \otimes N_{1}, M_{2} \otimes N_{2}\right) .
$$

In general, $h$ has no reason to be either injective or surjective, but we shall see some cases in which it is.

Proposition 3.3.3. Let $M_{1}, M_{2}, N_{1}, N_{2}$ be $A$-modules. Assume that $M_{1}$ and $N_{1}$ (resp. $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ ) are free of finite rank. Then the map $h: \operatorname{Hom}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right) \otimes \operatorname{Hom}\left(N_{1}, N_{2}\right) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M_{1} \otimes N_{1}, M_{2} \otimes N_{2}\right)$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. Prove it firstly for $M_{1}=N_{1}=A$ (resp. $M_{1}=M_{2}=A$ ).
Remark 3.3.4. Let $M_{1}, M_{2}, N_{1}, N_{2}$ be free A-modules of finite rank equipped with bases. Let $f \in$ $\operatorname{Hom}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right)$ and $g \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(N_{1}, N_{2}\right)$. If $A=\left(a_{i j}\right)_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq n \\ 1 \leq j \leq p}}=\operatorname{Mat}(f)$ and $B=\operatorname{Mat}(g)$, then in appropriate bases of $M_{1} \otimes N_{1}$ and $M_{2} \otimes N_{2}$, we have:

$$
\operatorname{Mat}(f \otimes g)=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
a_{11} B & \cdots & a_{1 p} B \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
a_{n 1} B & \cdots & a_{n p} B
\end{array}\right]
$$

This matrix will be denoted by $A \otimes B$.

Corollary 3.3.5. Let $M$ be a free $A$-module of finite rank. Then, for any $A$-module $N$, the map:

$$
h: M^{\vee} \otimes N \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M, N)
$$

is an isomorphism.
Proposition 3.3.6. Let $V$ and $W$ be two vector spaces over a field $k$. We have an isomorphism $\psi: V^{\vee} \otimes W \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(V, W)$. If $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(V, W)$, then the rank of $f$ as a linear map is equal to the rank of $\psi^{-1}(f) \in V^{\vee} \otimes W$ (c.f. Vocabulary 3.1.4).

Proof. Let $t=\psi^{-1}(f)$. Let us show that $\operatorname{rk} f=\operatorname{rk} t .(\leq)$ Write $t=\sum_{i=1}^{r} f_{i} \otimes w_{i}$, with $r=\operatorname{rk} t$, $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r} \in V^{\vee}, w_{1}, \ldots, w_{r} \in W$. Then:

$$
\forall v \in V, f(v)=\sum_{i=1}^{r} f_{i}(v) w_{i}
$$

Therefore, $\operatorname{Im} f \subseteq \operatorname{Vect}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{r}\right)$ and $\operatorname{rk} f \leq r=\operatorname{rk} t$. ( $\geq$ ) Let $\left(w_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq r}$ be a basis of $\operatorname{Im} f$. For $i \in\{1, \ldots, r\}$, let $p_{i}: \operatorname{Im} f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the $i$-th coordinate function associated to the basis $\left(w_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq r}$. Hence, $t=\sum_{i=1}^{r}\left(p_{i} \circ f\right) \otimes w_{i}$, so rk $t \leq r=\operatorname{rk} f$.

Proposition 3.3.7. Let $M_{1}, M_{2}, N_{1}, N_{2}$ be A-modules. Assume that $M_{1}$ and $N_{1}$ (resp. $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ ) are finitely generated and projective. Then the map $h: \operatorname{Hom}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right) \otimes \operatorname{Hom}\left(N_{1}, N_{2}\right) \longrightarrow$ $\operatorname{Hom}\left(M_{1} \otimes N_{1}, M_{2} \otimes N_{2}\right)$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. Use Proposition 3.3.3 and the fact that finitely generated projective modules are direct summands of free modules of finite type.

Remark 3.3.8. If $M$ is a finitely generated, projective module, then we have an isomorphism $M^{\vee} \otimes$ $M \simeq \operatorname{End}(M)$. On $M^{\vee} \otimes M$, there is a linear trace map $\operatorname{tr}: M^{\vee} \otimes M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ induced by the bilinear map $(f, x) \in M^{\vee} \times M \longmapsto f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$. Hence, with the isomorphism $M^{\vee} \otimes M \simeq \operatorname{End}(M)$, we have a trace map $\operatorname{tr}: \operatorname{End}(M) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, which is a generalisation of the trace for endomorphisms of free modules of finite rank.

### 3.4 Extension of scalars

Definition 3.4.1 (Restriction of scalars). Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be a ring homomorphism (e.g. an inclusion map). Any $B$-module $N$ can be seen as an $A$-module by setting $a \cdot n=f(a) \cdot n$, for $a \in A$ and $n \in N$.

Definition 3.4.2 (Extension of scalars). Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be a ring homomorphism. The ring $B$ itself can be seen as an $A$-module by restriction of scalars; therefore, $B \otimes_{A} M$ is an $A$-module, that can also be seen as a $B$-module by setting $b \cdot\left(b^{\prime} \otimes m\right)=\left(b b^{\prime}\right) \otimes m$ for $b, b^{\prime} \in B$ and $m \in M$.

Example 3.4.3. Let $M$ be a $\mathbb{Z}$-module and assume that $M=\mathbb{Z}^{r} \oplus M_{\text {tors }}$ for some $r \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} M$ is the $\mathbb{Q}$-vector space $\mathbb{Q}^{r}$.

Proposition 3.4.4. Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be a ring homomorphism. If $M$ is an $A$-module and $N$ is a $B$-module, then:

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(M, N) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{B}\left(B \otimes_{A} M, N\right) \quad \text { (as } B \text {-modules) } .
$$

Lemma 3.4.5. Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be a ring homomorphism. If $M$ is an $A$-module and $N$ is a $B$-module, then:

$$
\left.M \otimes_{A} N \simeq\left(B \otimes_{A} M\right) \otimes_{B} N \quad \text { (as B-modules }\right)
$$

Corollary 3.4.6. Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be a ring homomorphism. If $P$ is a flat $A$-module, then $B \otimes_{A} P$ is a flat B-module.

### 3.5 Tensor product of algebras over a ring

Vocabulary 3.5.1 ( $A$-algebra). If $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a ring homomorphism, we say that $B$ is an $A$-algebra.

Proposition 3.5.2. If $M$ and $N$ are two $A$-algebras, then $M \otimes_{A} N$ is also an $A$-algebra.
Example 3.5.3. If $B$ is an $A$-algebra, then:

$$
B \otimes_{A} A[X]=B[X] .
$$

In particular, $A[X] \otimes_{A} A[Y]=A[X, Y]$.
Example 3.5.4. If $X$ is a topological space, then:

$$
\mathbb{C} \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathcal{C}^{0}(X, \mathbb{R})=\mathcal{C}^{0}(X, \mathbb{C})
$$

Example 3.5.5. Let $X$ and $Y$ be two topological spaces. Then there exists a map:

$$
m: \mathcal{C}^{0}(X, \mathbb{R}) \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathcal{C}^{0}(Y, \mathbb{R}) \longrightarrow \mathcal{C}^{0}(X \times Y, \mathbb{R})
$$

given by $m(f \otimes g)(x, y)=f(x) g(y)$, and this map is injective.
Example 3.5.6. Let $K$ and $L$ be two finite extensions of a field $F$ of characteristic 0 . By the Primitive Element Theorem, there exists $\alpha \in L$ s.t. $L=F(\alpha)$. If $\mu_{\alpha}$ is the minimal polynomial of $\alpha$ over $F$, then $L=F[X] /\left(\mu_{\alpha}\right)$, so:

$$
K \otimes_{F} L=K[X] /\left(\mu_{\alpha}\right) .
$$

Hence, if $\mu_{\alpha}=P_{1} \cdots P_{r}$, where $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r}$ are irreducible over $K$, then:

$$
K \otimes_{F} L=\bigoplus_{1 \leq i \leq r} K[X] /\left(P_{i}\right)
$$

Thus, $K \otimes_{F} L$ can be written as a direct sum of extensions of $K$.

### 3.6 Flat modules

Definition 3.6.1 (Flat module). An A-module $P$ is said to be flat if for every injective map $M^{\prime} \rightarrow M$, the induced map $P \otimes M^{\prime} \rightarrow P \otimes M$ is still injective.

## Proposition 3.6.2.

(i) Projective modules are flat.
(ii) If $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are two flat modules, then $P_{1} \oplus P_{2}$ and $P_{1} \otimes P_{2}$ are flat.

Proposition 3.6.3. Let $P$ be a flat $A$-module.
(i) If $I$ is an ideal of $A$, then the map $I \otimes P \rightarrow I P$ is an isomorphism.
(ii) If $A$ is an integral domain, then $P$ is torsion-free.

Definition 3.6.4 (Flat module for a specific module). Let $M$ and $P$ be two modules. We say that $P$ is flat for $M$ if for every submodule $M^{\prime} \subseteq M$, the map $M^{\prime} \otimes P \rightarrow M \otimes P$ is injective.

Remark 3.6.5. A module is flat iff it is flat for every module.
Lemma 3.6.6. If a module $P$ is flat for a module $M$, then it is also flat for every quotient of $M$.
Proof. Write an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow M \xrightarrow{\pi} N \rightarrow 0$. We want to show that $P$ is flat for $N$. Hence, let $N^{\prime} \subseteq N$ be a submodule; set $M^{\prime}=\pi^{-1}\left(N^{\prime}\right)$. We have the following commutative diagram (with the horizontal and vertical sequences exact):


After taking the tensor product with $P$, we obtain:


Note that the arrow $P \otimes M^{\prime} \rightarrow P \otimes M$ is injective because $P$ is flat for $M$ by assumption. Now, using this diagram, we show that the arrow $P \otimes N^{\prime} \rightarrow P \otimes N$ is also injective as wanted.

Lemma 3.6.7. If a module $P$ is flat for two modules $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$, then it is also flat for $M_{1} \oplus M_{2}$.
Proof. Let $M=M_{1} \oplus M_{2}$ and let $M^{\prime}$ be a submodule of $M$. Write $M_{1}^{\prime}=M^{\prime} \cap M_{1}$ and $M_{2}^{\prime}=M^{\prime} \cap M_{2}$. We have the following commutative diagram (with the horizontal and vertical sequences exact):


After taking the tensor product with $P$, we obtain:


Note that the arrows $P \otimes M_{1}^{\prime} \rightarrow P \otimes M_{1}$ and $P \otimes M_{2}^{\prime} \rightarrow P \otimes M_{2}$ are injective because $P$ is flat for $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ by assumption; moreover, the arrow $P \otimes M_{1} \rightarrow P \otimes M$ is injective because $P \otimes M=P \otimes\left(M_{1} \oplus M_{2}\right)=\left(P \otimes M_{1}\right) \oplus\left(P \otimes M_{2}\right)$. Now, using this diagram, we show that the arrow $P \otimes M^{\prime} \rightarrow P \otimes M$ is also injective as wanted.
Lemma 3.6.8. If a module $P$ is flat for each module in a family $\left(M_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$, then it is also flat for $\oplus_{i \in I} M_{i}$.
Proof. Note that by induction, Lemma 3.6.7 gives the result when $I$ is finite. Now, write $M=$ $\oplus_{i \in I} M_{i}$ and let $M^{\prime} \subseteq M$ be a submodule. Let $f: P \otimes M^{\prime} \rightarrow P \otimes M$ be the map induced by the inclusion $M^{\prime} \subseteq M$. Let $x^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Ker} f$; we want to show that $x^{\prime}=0$. Write:

$$
x^{\prime}=\sum_{i=1}^{r} p_{i} \otimes m_{i}
$$

with $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{r} \in P, m_{1}, \ldots, m_{r} \in M^{\prime}$. Let $M^{\prime \prime}=\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{r}\right) \subseteq M^{\prime}$ and set $x^{\prime \prime}=\sum_{i=1}^{r} p_{i} \otimes m_{i} \in$ $P \otimes M^{\prime \prime}$. The inclusion $M^{\prime \prime} \subseteq M^{\prime}$ induces a map $j: P \otimes M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow P \otimes M^{\prime}$ and we have $x^{\prime}=j\left(x^{\prime \prime}\right)$. Moreover, as $M^{\prime \prime}$ is finitely generated, there exists a finite subset $J \subseteq I$ s.t. $M^{\prime \prime} \subseteq \bigoplus_{j \in J} M_{j}=M_{\text {finite }}$. Since $M_{\text {finite }}$ is a direct summand of $M$, the map $P \otimes M_{\text {finite }} \rightarrow P \otimes M$ is injective; moreover, by Lemma 3.6.7, the map $P \otimes M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow P \otimes M_{\text {finite }}$ is injective. Hence, by composition, the map $i: P \otimes M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow P \otimes M$ is injective. Therefore, since $i\left(x^{\prime \prime}\right)=f\left(x^{\prime}\right)=0$, we obtain $x^{\prime \prime}=0$, and $x^{\prime}=j\left(x^{\prime \prime}\right)=0$ as wanted.

Theorem 3.6.9. Let $P$ be an $A$-module. The following assertions are equivalent:
(i) $P$ is flat.
(ii) $P$ is flat for $A$, i.e. the map $I \otimes P \rightarrow P$ is injective for every ideal $I$ of $A$.

Proof. Use Remark 3.6.5, Lemma 3.6.8 and Lemma 3.6.6, as well as the fact that every module can be written as the quotient of a free module.

### 3.7 Flatness and relations

Definition 3.7.1 (Relations). Let $M$ be an $A$-module. $A$ relation in $M$ is an equation $\sum_{i=1}^{r} f_{i} m_{i}=0$, with $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r} \in A$ and $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{r} \in M$. This relation is said to be trivial if there exist $\left(a_{i j}\right)_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq r \\ 1 \leq j \leq s}} \in$ $A^{r \times s}$ and $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{s} \in M$ s.t. $m_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{s} a_{i j} y_{j}$ for all $i$ and $0=\sum_{i=1}^{r} f_{i} a_{i j}$ for all $j$.
Example 3.7.2. Consider $A=k[X, Y]$, where $k$ is a field. The relation $Y \cdot X-X \cdot Y=0$ is trivial in A but not in the submodule $M=(X, Y)$.

Proposition 3.7.3. An A-module $M$ is flat iff every relation in $M$ is trivial.
Proof. $(\Leftarrow)$ Assuming that every relation in $M$ is trivial, show that the map $I \otimes M \rightarrow M$ is injective for any ideal $I \subseteq A$ and apply Theorem 3.6.9. $(\Rightarrow)$ Assume that $M$ is flat and consider a relation $\sum_{i=1}^{r} f_{i} m_{i}=0$ in $M$. Let $I=\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}\right) \subseteq A$. We have a natural surjective map $A^{r} \rightarrow I$, of kernel $N=\left\{\left(a_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq r} \in A^{r}, \sum_{i=1}^{r} a_{i} f_{i}=0\right\}$. Now, as $M$ is flat, note that the exact sequence $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow A^{r} \rightarrow I \rightarrow \overline{0}$ induces an exact sequence:

$$
0 \rightarrow M \otimes N \rightarrow M^{r} \xrightarrow{\pi} M \otimes I \rightarrow 0
$$

Since $M$ is flat, the map $M \otimes I \rightarrow M$ is injective, which proves that $\sum_{i=1}^{r} m_{i} \otimes f_{i}=0$, so $\left(m_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq r} \in$ $\operatorname{Ker} \pi=\operatorname{Im}(M \otimes N)$. Therefore, there exist $\left(a_{i 1}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq r}, \ldots,\left(a_{i s}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq r} \in N$ and $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{s} \in \bar{M}$ s.t. $\sum_{j=1}^{s} y_{j} \otimes\left(a_{1 j}, \ldots, a_{r j}\right)=\left(m_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq r}$. Hence, the relation $\sum_{i=1}^{r} f_{i} m_{i}=0$ is trivial.

### 3.8 Symmetric products

Notation 3.8.1. If $M$ is an $A$-module, we write $T^{k}(M)=\underbrace{M \otimes \cdots \otimes M}_{k \text { times }}$. For any $A$-module $P$, we have a bijection $k$-Lin $\left(M^{k}, P\right) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}\left(T^{k}(M), P\right)$.
Definition 3.8.2 (Symmetric multilinear map). Let $M$ and $P$ be two $A$-modules. A multilinear map $f \in k$-Lin $\left(M^{k}, P\right)$ is said to be symmetric if:

$$
\forall\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right) \in M^{k}, \forall \sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_{k}, f\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right)=f\left(m_{\sigma(1)}, \ldots, m_{\sigma(k)}\right) .
$$

Definition 3.8.3 (Symmetric product). Let $M$ be an $A$-module. Let $S$ be the submodule of $T^{k}(M)$ generated by $\left\{\left(m_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{k}\right)-\left(m_{\sigma(1)} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{\sigma(k)}\right), m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k} \in M, \sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_{k}\right\}$. We define:

$$
\operatorname{Sym}^{k}(M)=T^{k}(M) / S
$$

For $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k} \in M$, we shall denote the image of $m_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{k}$ in $\operatorname{Sym}^{k}(M)$ by $m_{1} \cdots m_{k}$ to emphasize commutativity.

Proposition 3.8.4. Let $M$ and $P$ be two $A$-module. Then the set of symmetric $k$-linear maps $M^{k} \rightarrow P$ is in bijection with $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{k}(M), P\right)$.

Remark 3.8.5. Let $M$ be an $A$-module. The map $(v, w) \mapsto v \cdot w$ gives rise to a bilinear map $\operatorname{Sym}^{k}(M) \times \operatorname{Sym}^{\ell}(M) \rightarrow \operatorname{Sym}^{k+\ell}(M)$. Now, if we define:

$$
\operatorname{Sym}(M)=\bigoplus_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \operatorname{Sym}^{k}(M),
$$

then $\operatorname{Sym}(M)$ is a ring under the bilinear map defined above, called the symmetric algebra of $M$.
Proposition 3.8.6. Let $M$ be an $A$-module generated by elements $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{n} \in M$. Then $\operatorname{Sym}^{k}(M)$ is generated by $\left\{m_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots m_{n}^{a_{n}}, a_{1}+\cdots+a_{n}=k\right\}$.

Lemma 3.8.7. For $k, n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\left|\left\{\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{N}^{n}, a_{1}+\cdots+a_{n}=k\right\}\right|=\binom{n+k-1}{k}$.
Theorem 3.8.8. Let $M$ be a free $A$-module of rank $n$, equipped with a basis $\left(m_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$. Then

Proof. Denote $x_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots x_{n}^{a_{n}}$ by $x^{a}$ for $x=\left(x_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq n} \in M^{n}$, $a=\left(a_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq n} \in \mathbb{N}^{n}$. According to Proposition 3.8.6, it suffices to prove that the family $\left(m^{a}\right)_{\substack{a \in \mathbb{N}^{n} \\ a_{1}+\cdots a_{n}=k}}$ is linearly independent. For $a \in \mathbb{N}^{n}$ with $a_{1}+\cdots+a_{n}=k$, define a multilinear form $f_{a} \in k$ - $\operatorname{Lin}\left(M^{k}, A\right)$ by:

$$
f_{a}\left(m_{i_{1}}, \ldots, m_{i_{k}}\right)= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } \forall \ell \in\{1, \ldots, n\}, a_{\ell}=\left|\left\{j \in\{1, \ldots, k\}, i_{j}=\ell\right\}\right| \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

As $\left(m_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ is a basis of $M$, this defines a (symmetric) $k$-linear form $f_{a}: M^{k} \rightarrow A$, which induces a linear map $\widetilde{f}_{a}: \operatorname{Sym}^{k}(M) \rightarrow A$. For $b \in \mathbb{N}^{n}$ with $b_{1}+\cdots+b_{n}=k$, we have $\widetilde{f}_{a}\left(m^{b}\right)=\delta_{a b}$. Now, if $\left(\lambda_{b}\right)_{\substack{b \in \mathbb{N}^{n} \\ b_{1}+\cdots+b_{n}=k}}$ is a family of scalars s.t.

$$
\sum_{b_{1}+\cdots+b_{n}=k} \lambda_{b} m^{b}=0,
$$

then, for all $a \in \mathbb{N}^{n}$ with $a_{1}+\cdots+a_{n}=k$, we have $\lambda_{a}=\widetilde{f}_{a}\left(\sum_{b_{1}+\cdots+b_{n}=k} \lambda_{m} b^{m}\right)=0$. This shows the independence of $\left(m^{a}\right)_{\substack{a \in \mathbb{N}^{n} \\ a_{1}+\cdots+a_{n}=k}}$.
Corollary 3.8.9. Let $M$ be a free $A$-module of rank $n$, equipped with a basis $\left(m_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$. Then:

$$
\operatorname{Sym}(M) \simeq A\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right],
$$

and the isomorphism is given by $m_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots m_{n}^{a_{n}} \mapsto X_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots X_{n}^{a_{n}}$.

### 3.9 Alternating products

Definition 3.9.1 (Alternating multilinear map). Let $M$ and $P$ be two $A$-modules. A multilinear map $f \in k$-Lin $\left(M^{k}, P\right)$ is said to be alternating if:

$$
\forall\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right) \in M^{k},\left(\exists i \neq j, m_{i}=m_{j}\right) \Longrightarrow f\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right)=0
$$

Lemma 3.9.2. Let $M$ and $P$ be two $A$-modules. If a $k$-linear map $f: M^{k} \rightarrow P$ is alternating, then it is antisymmetric, i.e.

$$
\forall\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right) \in M^{k}, \forall \sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_{k}, f\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right)=\varepsilon(\sigma) f\left(m_{\sigma(1)}, \ldots, m_{\sigma(k)}\right)
$$

Remark 3.9.3. The converse of Lemma 3.9.2 is false in general, but it becomes true if we assume that $2 \in A^{\times}$.

Definition 3.9.4 (Alternating product). Let $M$ be an $A$-module. Let $L$ be the submodule of $T^{k}(M)$ generated by $\left\{m_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{k}, m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k} \in M, \exists i \neq j, m_{i}=m_{j}\right\}$. We define:

$$
\Lambda^{k}(M)=T^{k}(M) / L
$$

For $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k} \in M$, we shall denote the image of $m_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{k}$ in $\Lambda^{k}(M)$ by $m_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{k}$ to emphasize anticommutativity.

Proposition 3.9.5. Let $M$ and $P$ be two $A$-module. Then the set of alternating $k$-linear maps $M^{k} \rightarrow P$ is in bijection with $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Lambda^{k}(M), P\right)$.

Lemma 3.9.6. Let $M$ be an $A$-module that is generated by $n$ elements. Then $\Lambda^{k}(M)=0$ as soon as $k>n$.

Theorem 3.9.7. Let $M$ be a free $A$-module of rank $n$, equipped with a basis $\left(m_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$. Then $\Lambda^{k}(M)$ is free of rank $\binom{n}{k}$, with basis $\left(m_{i_{1}} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{i_{k}}\right)_{1 \leq i_{1}<\cdots<i_{k} \leq n}$.

Proof. It is clear that $\left(m_{i_{1}} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{i_{k}}\right)_{1 \leq i_{1}<\cdots<i_{k} \leq n}$ generates $\Lambda^{k}(M)$; it remains to prove that this family is linearly independent. To do this, we use the same strategy as in Theorem 3.8.8: it suffices to construct a linear form $f_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}}: \Lambda^{k}(M) \rightarrow A$ for each sequence $1 \leq i_{1}<\cdots<i_{k} \leq n$ s.t. $f_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}}\left(m_{j_{1}} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{j_{k}}\right)=\delta_{i_{1} j_{1}} \cdots \delta_{i_{k} j_{k}}$ for all $1 \leq j_{1}<\cdots<j_{k} \leq n$. In the particular case where $k=n$, we take the linear form $f_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}}$ on $\Lambda^{k}(M)$ induced by the alternating $k$-linear form $\operatorname{det}_{\left(m_{i_{1}}, \ldots, m_{i_{k}}\right)}: M^{k} \rightarrow A$. Now, assume that $k<n$. For $1 \leq i_{1}<\cdots<i_{k} \leq n$, choose $1 \leq i_{k+1}<$ $\cdots<i_{n} \leq n$ s.t. $\{1, \ldots, n\}=\left\{i_{\ell}, \ell \in\{1, \ldots, n\}\right\}$ and set $y=m_{i_{k+1}} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{i_{n}} \in \Lambda^{n-k}(M)$. Now, $x \mapsto x \wedge y$ defines a linear map $\theta: \Lambda^{k}(M) \rightarrow \Lambda^{n}(M)$, which sends $m_{j_{1}} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{j_{k}}$ to $\pm m_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{n}$ if $\left\{j_{1}, \ldots, j_{k}\right\}=\left\{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}\right\}, 0$ otherwise. Hence, by composing this map by the determinant, we obtain the desired map.

Notation 3.9.8. Let $M$ be an A-module. Then any map $f \in \operatorname{End}(M)$ induces a map $T^{k}(f) \in$ End $\left(T^{k}(M)\right)$, which induces maps $\operatorname{Sym}^{k}(f) \in \operatorname{End}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{k}(M)\right)$ and $\Lambda^{k}(f) \in \operatorname{End}\left(\Lambda^{k}(M)\right)$.

Proposition 3.9.9. Let $M$ be a free A-module of rank $n$, equipped with a basis $\left(m_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$. Let $f \in \operatorname{End}(M)$. Then the matrix of $\Lambda^{k}(f)$ in the basis $\left(m_{i_{1}} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{i_{k}}\right)_{1 \leq i_{1}<\cdots<i_{k} \leq n}$ is the matrix of $k \times k$ minors of $\operatorname{Mat}(f)$.

## 4 Localisation

### 4.1 Local rings

Definition 4.1.1 (Local ring). $A$ ring $A$ is said to be a local ring if one of the following two equivalent conditions is satisfied:
(i) A has a unique maximal ideal.
(ii) $A \backslash A^{\times}$is an ideal of $A$.

In this case, if $I$ is the unique maximal ideal of $A$, the quotient $A / I$ is called the residue field of $A$. If $M$ is an $A$-module, then $M / I M=M \otimes_{A} A / I$ is an $(A / I)$-vector space.

Proposition 4.1.2. Let $A$ be a local ring with maximal ideal $I$.
(i) If $M$ is a finitely generated $A$-module s.t. $M=I M$, then $M=0$.
(ii) If $M$ is a finitely generated $A$-module and $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{r} \in M$ are s.t. $\bar{m}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{m}_{r} \in M / I M$ generate $M / I M$, then $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{r}$ generate $M$.

Theorem 4.1.3. If $M$ is a finitely generated flat module over a local ring $A$, then $M$ is free.
Proof. Let $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in M$ whose images in $M / I M$ form a basis of the vector space $M / I M$ over $A / I$. By Proposition 4.1.2, $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ generate $M$; it remains to prove that they are linearly independent over $A$. We shall prove by induction on $r \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$ that $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}$ are linearly independent, using the fact that every relation in $M$ is trivial (Proposition 3.7.3). If $r=1$, let $f_{1} \in A$ s.t. $f_{1} x_{1}=0$. Since this relation is trivial, there exist $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{s} \in M, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{s} \in A$ s.t. $x_{1}=a_{1} y_{1}+\cdots+a_{s} y_{s}$ and $f_{1} a_{j}=0$ for all $j$. But $\bar{x}_{1} \neq 0$, so there exists $j$ s.t. $a_{j} \notin I$. Therefore, $a_{j} \in A^{\times}$, and $f_{1}=0$. This proves the claim for $r=1$. Assume we have proved the claim for $(r-1)$. Let $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r} \in A$ s.t. $f_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+f_{r} x_{r}=0$. Since this relation is trivial, there exist $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{s} \in M$ and $\left(a_{i j}\right)_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq r \\ 1 \leq j \leq s}} \in A^{r \times s}$ s.t. $x_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{s} a_{i j} y_{j}$ for all $i$ and $0=\sum_{i=1}^{r} f_{i} a_{i j}$ for all $j$. Now, there exists $(i, j)$ s.t. $a_{i j} \notin \bar{I}$; we may assume that $a_{11} \notin I$, i.e. $a_{11} \in A^{\times}$. Now, we get:

$$
f_{2}\left(x_{2}-\frac{a_{21}}{a_{11}} x_{1}\right)+\cdots+f_{r}\left(x_{r}-\frac{a_{r 1}}{a_{11}} x_{1}\right)=0 .
$$

By induction, we obtain $f_{2}=\cdots=f_{r}=0$ because $\left(\overline{x_{2}-\frac{a_{21}}{a_{11}} x_{1}}\right), \ldots,\left(\overline{x_{r}-\frac{a_{r 1}}{a_{11}} x_{1}}\right)$ are linearly independent in $M / I M$. Therefore, $f_{1}=0$, which proves the claim by induction.

Corollary 4.1.4. Over a local ring, a finitely generated module is projective iff it is flat iff is is free.

### 4.2 Localisation of rings

Remark 4.2.1. If $A$ is an integral domain, then we know how to construct a field $\operatorname{Frac}(A)$ equipped with an injective map $j: A \rightarrow \operatorname{Frac}(A)$, s.t. for any ring $B$ and for any morphism $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ with $\varphi(A \backslash\{0\}) \subseteq B^{\times}$, there exists a unique morphism $\psi: \operatorname{Frac}(A) \rightarrow B$ s.t. $\varphi=\psi \circ j$.

Definition 4.2.2. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0. Define an equivalence relation on $A \times S$ by:

$$
\left(a_{1}, s_{1}\right) \sim\left(a_{2}, s_{2}\right) \Longleftrightarrow \exists t \in S, t\left(a_{1} s_{2}-a_{2} s_{1}\right)=0 .
$$

Denote $S^{-1} A=A \times S / \sim$ and write $\frac{a}{s}$ for the class of $(a, s)$ in $S^{-1} A$.
Proposition 4.2.3. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0. Then the formulas $\frac{a_{1}}{s_{1}}+\frac{a_{2}}{s_{2}}=\frac{a_{1} s_{2}+a_{2} s_{1}}{s_{1} s_{2}}$ and $\frac{a_{1}}{s_{1}} \cdot \frac{a_{2}}{s_{2}}=\frac{a_{1} a_{2}}{s_{1} s_{2}}$ are well-defined on $S^{-1} A$ and make $S^{-1} A$ an $A$-algebra via the map $\phi_{S}: a \in A \longmapsto \frac{a}{1} \in S^{-1} A$.

Proposition 4.2.4. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0. Then, for any ring $B$ and for any morphism $f: A \rightarrow B$ with $\varphi(S) \subseteq B^{\times}$, there exists a unique morphism $g: S^{-1} A \rightarrow B$ s.t. $f=g \circ \phi_{S}$.

Lemma 4.2.5. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0. Consider the canonical map $\phi_{S}: A \rightarrow S^{-1} A$. We have:

$$
\text { Ker } \phi_{S}=\{a \in A, \exists s \in S, a s=0\}
$$

## Example 4.2.6.

(i) Let $A$ be an integral domain. Then $S=A \backslash\{0\}$ is a multiplicative subset, $S^{-1} A=\operatorname{Frac}(A)$ and $\phi_{S}$ is injective.
(ii) Let $A$ be a ring and $\mathfrak{p}$ be a prime ideal of $A$. Then $S=A \backslash \mathfrak{p}$ is a multiplicative subset, and the ring $S^{-1} A$ is denoted by $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$.
(iii) Let $A$ be a ring and $f \in A$ be an element that is not nilpotent. Then $S=\left\{f^{n}, n \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ is a multiplicative subset, the ring $S^{-1} A$ is denoted by $A_{f}$ and we have $A_{f}=A[X] /(X f-1)$ (which we denote by $A\left[\frac{1}{f}\right]$ ).
(iv) Let $K$ and $L$ be two fields. If $A=K \times L$ and $S=K \times L^{\times}$, then $S^{-1} A=L$ and $\phi_{S}: K \times L \rightarrow L$ is the projection on $L$.

Proposition 4.2.7. If $\mathfrak{p}$ is a prime ideal of a ring $A$, then $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a local ring, with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}=\left\{\frac{a}{s}, a \in \mathfrak{p}, s \in S\right\}$. Moreover, we have:

$$
A_{\mathfrak{p}} / \mathfrak{m}=\operatorname{Frac}(A / \mathfrak{p})
$$

Proof. It is clear that $\mathfrak{m}$ is an ideal of $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Let us prove that $\mathfrak{m}=A_{\mathfrak{p}} \backslash A_{\mathfrak{p}}^{\times}$. (ِ) Let $\frac{a}{s} \in A_{\mathfrak{p}} \backslash \mathfrak{m}$, with $a \in A \backslash \mathfrak{p}$ and $s \in S$. Then $a \in S$, so $\frac{s}{a} \in A_{\mathfrak{p}}$ and $\frac{a}{s} \cdot \frac{s}{a}=1$, i.e. $\frac{a}{s} \in A_{\mathfrak{p}}^{\times}$. ( $\subseteq$ ) Let $\frac{a}{s} \in A_{\mathfrak{p}}^{\times}$. Then there exists $\frac{b}{t} \in A_{\mathfrak{p}}$ s.t. $\frac{a}{s} \cdot \frac{b}{t}=1$, i.e. there exists $r \in S$ s.t. $r(a b-s t)=0$. Thus, $r a b=r s t \in S=A \backslash \mathfrak{p}$, and $\mathfrak{p}$ is an ideal so $a \in A \backslash \mathfrak{p}$. Now, it remains to prove that $A_{\mathfrak{p}} / \mathfrak{m}=\operatorname{Frac}(A / \mathfrak{p})$. To do this, consider the natural projection $\pi: A \rightarrow A / \mathfrak{p}$. As $A / \mathfrak{p}$ is an integral domain, it extends to a map $f: A \rightarrow \operatorname{Frac}(A / \mathfrak{p})$. If $a \in S$, then $\pi(a) \neq 0$, so $f(a) \in \operatorname{Frac}(A / \mathfrak{p})^{\times}$. Therefore, $f$ induces a map $g: A_{\mathfrak{p}} \rightarrow \operatorname{Frac}(A / \mathfrak{p})$; we easily check that this map is surjective. And $\operatorname{Ker} g$ is a maximal ideal of $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$ because $\operatorname{Im} g$ is a field, so $\operatorname{Ker} g=\mathfrak{m}$.

### 4.3 Localisation of modules

Definition 4.3.1. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0 . If $M$ is an $A$-module, define an equivalence relation on $M \times S$ by:

$$
\left(m_{1}, s_{1}\right) \sim\left(m_{2}, s_{2}\right) \Longleftrightarrow \exists t \in S, t\left(m_{1} s_{2}-m_{2} s_{1}\right)=0
$$

Denote $S^{-1} M=M \times S / \sim$ and write $\frac{m}{s}$ for the class of $(m, s)$ in $S^{-1} M$.
Proposition 4.3.2. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0. If $M$ is an A-module, then the formulas $\frac{m_{1}}{s_{1}}+\frac{m_{2}}{s_{2}}=\frac{m_{1} s_{2}+m_{2} s_{1}}{s_{1} s_{2}}$ and $\frac{a_{1}}{s_{1}} \cdot \frac{m_{2}}{s_{2}}=\frac{a_{1} m_{2}}{s_{1} s_{2}}$ are well-defined on $S^{-1} M$ and make $S^{-1} M$ an $S^{-1} A$-module. Moreover, there is a linear map $m \in$ $M \longmapsto \frac{m}{1} \in S^{-1} M$ whose kernel is $\{m \in M, \exists s \in S, m s=0\}$.

Proposition 4.3.3. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0. If $u: M \rightarrow N$ is an $A$-linear map between $A$-modules, then there is an $S^{-1} A$-linear map $S^{-1} u: S^{-1} M \rightarrow S^{-1} N$ s.t.

$$
\left(S^{-1} u\right)\left(\frac{m}{s}\right)=\frac{u(m)}{s}
$$

Proposition 4.3.4. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0. Assume that we have an exact sequence $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime}$. Then the following sequence is also exact:

$$
S^{-1} M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{S^{-1} f} S^{-1} M \xrightarrow{S^{-1} g} S^{-1} M^{\prime \prime} .
$$

Corollary 4.3.5. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0 . If $N$ and $P$ are two submodules of an $A$-module $M$, then:

$$
S^{-1}(N \cap P)=S^{-1} N \cap S^{-1} P \quad \text { and } \quad S^{-1}(N+P)=S^{-1} N+S^{-1} P
$$

Proof. Note that we have an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow N \cap P \rightarrow N \oplus P \rightarrow N+P \rightarrow 0$ and apply Proposition 4.3.4.

Theorem 4.3.6. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0. Then, for any $A$-module $M$, there is a unique map $\varphi: S^{-1} A \otimes_{A} M \rightarrow S^{-1} M$ s.t. $\varphi\left(\frac{a}{s} \otimes m\right)=\frac{a m}{s}$, and this map is an isomorphism. In particular:

$$
S^{-1} A \otimes_{A} M \simeq S^{-1} M
$$

Proof. The existence and unicity of $\varphi$ come from the bilinear map $\left(\frac{a}{s}, m\right) \in S^{-1} A \times M \longmapsto \frac{a m}{s} \in$ $S^{-1} M$ (check that this map is well-defined by constructing a linear map $M \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(S^{-1} A, S^{-1} M\right)$, which comes from a linear map $M \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, M)$ ). The map $\varphi$ is easily seen to be surjective. For the injectivity, prove that every element of $S^{-1} A \otimes_{A} M$ is equal to a simple tensor.

Corollary 4.3.7. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0 . Then $S^{-1} A$ is a flat $A$-module.

Proof. If we have an exact sequence of $A$-modules $0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow N$, then it induces an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow S^{-1} M \rightarrow S^{-1} N$ by Proposition 4.3.4, which is equivalent to $0 \rightarrow S^{-1} A \otimes_{A} M \rightarrow S^{-1} A \otimes_{A} N$ by Theorem 4.3.6.

Remark 4.3.8. We can generalise Theorem 4.3.6 as follows. If $M$ and $N$ are two $A$-modules, then there exists a unique map $\varphi: S^{-1} M \otimes_{S^{-1} A} S^{-1} N \rightarrow S^{-1}\left(M \otimes_{A} N\right)$ s.t. $\varphi\left(\frac{m}{s} \otimes \frac{n}{t}\right)=\frac{m \otimes n}{s t}$. Moreover, $\varphi$ is an isomorphism.

### 4.4 Localisation of ideals

Remark 4.4.1. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0 . We denote by $\mathfrak{J}(B)$ the set of ideals of a ring $B$. Then we have two maps:
(i) The extension map $\mathfrak{E}: I \in \mathfrak{J}(A) \longmapsto S^{-1} I \in \mathfrak{J}\left(S^{-1} A\right)$.
(ii) The contraction map $\mathfrak{C}: J \in \mathfrak{J}\left(S^{-1} A\right) \longmapsto \phi_{S}^{-1}(J) \in \mathfrak{J}(A)$.

Proposition 4.4.2. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0. Then, we have:

$$
\mathfrak{E} \circ \mathfrak{C}=\operatorname{id}_{\mathfrak{J}\left(S^{-1} A\right)} .
$$

In other words, for any ideal $J \subseteq S^{-1} A$, we have $J=S^{-1}\left(\phi_{S}^{-1}(J)\right)$
Corollary 4.4.3. Let $A$ be a ring and let $S$ be a multiplicative subset of $A$ containing 1 and not containing 0. If $A$ is noetherian, then so is $S^{-1} A$.

Proof. Let $\left(J_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be an increasing sequence of ideals of $S^{-1}(A)$. Then $\left(\mathfrak{C}\left(J_{n}\right)\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is an increasing sequence of ideals of $A$, so there exists $n_{0} \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\forall n \geq n_{0}, \mathfrak{C}\left(J_{n}\right)=\mathfrak{C}\left(J_{n_{0}}\right)$. As a consequence, $\forall n \geq n_{0}, J_{n}=\mathfrak{E} \circ \mathfrak{C}\left(J_{n}\right)=\mathfrak{E} \circ \mathfrak{C}\left(J_{n_{0}}\right)=J_{n_{0}}$.

### 4.5 Localisation of morphisms

Proposition 4.5.1. Let $M$ be an $A$-module. The following assertions are equivalent:
(i) $M=0$.
(ii) $M_{\mathfrak{p}}=0$ for every prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$ of $A$.
(iii) $M_{\mathfrak{m}}=0$ for every maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ of $A$.

If in addition $M$ is finitely generated, then the previous assertions are also equivalent to:
(iv) $M \otimes_{A} A / \mathfrak{m}=0$ for every maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ of $A$.

Proof. The implications (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) are clear. Let us prove that (iii) $\Rightarrow$ (i). Assume that $M \neq 0$ and let $x \in M \backslash\{0\}$. Then $\operatorname{Ann}(x)=\{a \in A, a x=0\}$ is a proper ideal of $A$ so it is contained in a maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$. Now, if $\phi_{\mathfrak{m}}: M \rightarrow M_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is the canonical map, we know that:

$$
\operatorname{Ker} \phi_{\mathfrak{m}}=\{y \in M, \exists a \in A \backslash \mathfrak{m}, a y=0\}
$$

In particular, $x \notin \operatorname{Ker} \phi_{\mathfrak{m}}$ (because $a x=0 \Rightarrow a \in \operatorname{Ann}(x) \Rightarrow a \in \mathfrak{m}$ ), so $M_{\mathfrak{m}} \neq 0$. Now, assume that $M$ is finitely generated. It is clear that (i) $\Rightarrow$ (iv), so it suffices to prove that (iv) $\Rightarrow$ (iii). Let $\mathfrak{m}$ be a maximal ideal of $A$. Recall that $A_{\mathfrak{m}} / \mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{m}}=A / \mathfrak{m}$ by Proposition 4.2.7. Thus, by Remark 4.3.8:

$$
M_{\mathfrak{m}} / \mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{m}}=M_{\mathfrak{m}} \otimes_{A_{\mathfrak{m}}} A_{\mathfrak{m}} / \mathfrak{m}_{\mathfrak{m}}=\left(M \otimes_{A} / \mathfrak{m}\right)_{\mathfrak{m}}=0
$$

By Nakayema's Lemma (Proposition 1.9.4), $M_{\mathfrak{m}}=0$.
Corollary 4.5.2. Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be a morphism of $A$-modules. Then the following assertions are equivalent:
(i) $f: M \rightarrow N$ is injective (resp. surjective, bijective).
(ii) $f_{\mathfrak{p}}: M_{\mathfrak{p}} \rightarrow N_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is injective (resp. surjective, bijective) for every prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$ of $A$.
(iii) $f_{\mathfrak{m}}: M_{\mathfrak{m}} \rightarrow N_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is injective (resp. surjective, bijective) for every maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ of $A$.

Proof. We have an exact sequence:

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker} f \rightarrow M \xrightarrow{f} N \rightarrow \text { Coker } f \rightarrow 0 .
$$

If $\mathfrak{p}$ is a prime ideal, then by Proposition 4.3.4, the following sequence is also exact:

$$
0 \rightarrow(\operatorname{Ker} f)_{\mathfrak{p}} \rightarrow M_{\mathfrak{p}} \xrightarrow{f_{\mathfrak{p}}} N_{\mathfrak{p}} \rightarrow(\text { Coker } f)_{\mathfrak{p}} \rightarrow 0 .
$$

This proves that $(\operatorname{Ker} f)_{\mathfrak{p}}=\operatorname{Ker}\left(f_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)$ and $(\operatorname{Coker} f)_{\mathfrak{p}}=\operatorname{Coker}\left(f_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)$. Hence, by Proposition 4.5.1: $f$ is injective iff $\operatorname{Ker} f=0$ iff $(\operatorname{Ker} f)_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for every $\mathfrak{p}$ iff $\operatorname{Ker}\left(f_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)=0$ for every $\mathfrak{p}$ iff $f_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is injective for every $\mathfrak{p}$. For the surjectivity, use the cokernel instead of the kernel. For maximal ideals, the proof is exactly the same.

### 4.6 Localisation of finitely presented modules

Definition 4.6.1 (Finitely presented module). An $A$-module $M$ is said to be finitely presented if one of the following two equivalent conditions is satisfied:
(i) There exists an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow A^{r} \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$, with $K$ finitely generated, $r \in \mathbb{N}$.
(ii) There exists an exact sequence $A^{s} \rightarrow A^{r} \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$, with $r, s \in \mathbb{N}$.

Remark 4.6.2. Over a noetherian ring, a module is finitely presented iff it is finitely generated.
Proposition 4.6.3. Let $M$ and $N$ be two $A$-modules. Then there is a unique $S^{-1} A$-linear map:

$$
\alpha: S^{-1} \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(M, N) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{S^{-1} A}\left(S^{-1} M, S^{-1} N\right)
$$

that sends $\frac{1}{s} f$ to the map $\frac{m}{t} \mapsto \frac{f(m)}{s t}$. If in addition $M$ is finitely presented, then $\alpha$ is an isomorphism.
Proof. The existence and unicity of $\alpha$ are routine verifications. Assume that $M$ is finitely presented. Then there exist $r, s \in \mathbb{N}$ and an exact sequence $A^{s} \rightarrow A^{r} \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$. We can either localise the sequence at $S$ (using Proposition 4.3.4) and then apply Hom $(\cdot, N)$ (using Proposition 1.2.6) or apply $\operatorname{Hom}(\cdot, N)$ and then localise at $S$. Hence, we obtain two exact sequences, and a commutative diagram:


Using the fact that $\alpha_{r}$ and $\alpha_{s}$ are isomorphisms, we show that $\alpha$ is an isomorphism by diagram chasing.

Definition 4.6.4 (Locally free module). An $A$-module $M$ is said to be locally free if, for every prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$ of $A, M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is free over $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$.

Theorem 4.6.5. Let $M$ be a finitely presented $A$-module. Then $M$ is projective iff $M$ is locally free.
Proof. $(\Rightarrow)$ Assume that $M$ is projective. Let $\mathfrak{p}$ be a prime ideal of $A$. Then $M_{\mathfrak{p}}=M \otimes_{A} A_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is projective and finitely generated over the local ring $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$. By Corollary 4.1.4, $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is free over $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$. $(\Leftarrow)$ Assume that $M$ is locally free. Consider a surjective map of $A$-modules $P \rightarrow Q$. We must show that the induced map $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(M, P) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(M, Q)$ is also surjective. By Corollary 4.5.2, it suffices to show that the map $\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(M, P)\right)_{\mathfrak{p}} \longrightarrow\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(M, Q)\right)_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is surjective for every prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$ of $A$. But since $M$ is finitely presented, Proposition 4.6 .3 gives $\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(M, P)\right)_{\mathfrak{p}}=\operatorname{Hom}_{A_{\mathfrak{p}}}\left(M_{\mathfrak{p}}, P_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)$ and $\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(M, Q)\right)_{\mathfrak{p}}=\operatorname{Hom}_{A_{\mathfrak{p}}}\left(M_{\mathfrak{p}}, Q_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)$. But the map $P_{\mathfrak{p}} \rightarrow Q_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is surjective (by Corollary 4.5.2), and $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is free (and thus projective) over $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$, so the map $\operatorname{Hom}_{A_{\mathfrak{p}}}\left(M_{\mathfrak{p}}, P_{\mathfrak{p}}\right) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A_{\mathfrak{p}}}\left(M_{\mathfrak{p}}, Q_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)$ is surjective, which gives the result.

Corollary 4.6.6. If $M$ is a finitely presented flat $A$-module, then $M$ is projective.
Proof. If $\mathfrak{p}$ is a prime ideal of $A$, then $M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is flat and finitely presented over the local ring $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$, so it is free by Theorem 4.1.3. Therefore, $M$ is locally free, so it is projective by Theorem 4.6.5.

## 5 Integral extensions

### 5.1 Integral elements

Definition 5.1.1 (Integral elements). Let $A$ be a subring of a ring $B$. Let $x \in B$. The following assertions are equivalent:
(i) There exists a monic polynomial $P \in A[X]$ s.t. $P(x)=0$.
(ii) $A[x]$ is a finitely generated $A$-module.
(iii) There exists a subring $C$ of $B$ containing $A$ and $x$ that is finitely generated as an $A$-module. If these assertions are true, we say that $x$ is integral over $A$.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) Suppose that there exists $P=X^{d}+\sum_{k=0}^{d-1} a_{k} X^{k} \in A[X]$ monic s.t. $P(x)=0$. Then we have:

$$
x^{d}=-\sum_{k=0}^{d-1} a_{k} x^{k} .
$$

By induction on $n \geq d$, we prove that $x^{n} \in A x^{d-1}+\cdots+A x+A$. Hence, $A[x] \subseteq A x^{d-1}+\cdots+A x+A$. (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) Take $C=A[x]$. (iii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) Let $C$ be a finitely generated subring of $C$ containing $A$ and $x$. Then we can define a map $\mu_{x}: c \in C \longmapsto c x \in C$. By the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem (Theorem 1.8.3), there exists a monic polynomial $P \in A[X]$ s.t. $P\left(\mu_{x}\right)=0$. In particular, $P(x)=P\left(\mu_{x}\right) \cdot 1=0$.

Lemma 5.1.2. Let $R$ be a subring of a ring $S$ and let $M$ be a finitely generated $S$-module. If $S$ is also finitely generated as an $R$-module, then $M$ is finitely generated as an $R$-module.

Corollary 5.1.3. Let $A$ be a subring of a ring $B$. Then the set $C$ of elements of $B$ that are integral over $A$ is a subring of $B$.

Proof. We need to prove that the sum and product of two integral elements is integral. Let $x, y \in B$ be two integral elements over $A$. Then $y$ is integral over $A[x]$, so $A[x, y]$ is a finitely generated $A[x]-$ module. And $x$ is integral over $A$, so $A[x]$ is a finitely generated $A$-module. By Lemma 5.1.2, $A[x, y]$ is a finitely generated $A$-module. Moreover, $A[x, y]$ is a subring of $B$ that contains $A,(x+y)$ and $(x y)$, so $(x+y)$ and $(x y)$ are integral over $A$.

Definition 5.1.4 (Integral closure). Let $A$ be a subring of a ring B. The ring $C$ of elements of $B$ that are integral over $A$ is called the integral closure (or normalisation) of $A$ in $B$.

- If $C=A$, we say that $A$ is integrally closed in $B$.
- If $C=B$, we say that $B$ is integral over $A$.

Vocabulary 5.1.5. An integral domain is said to be integrally closed if it is closed in its field of fractions.

Proposition 5.1.6. A factorial domain is integrally closed.
Example 5.1.7. If $K$ is a finite extension of $\mathbb{Q}$, we denoted by $\mathcal{O}_{K}$ the integral closure of $\mathbb{Z}$ in $K$. The study of $\mathcal{O}_{K}$ is a topic of algebraic number theory. For example, if $d \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2}$ and $K=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$, then:

$$
\mathcal{O}_{K}=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \sqrt{d} & \text { if } d \not \equiv 1 & \bmod 4 \\
\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \frac{1+\sqrt{d}}{2} & \text { if } d \equiv 1 & \bmod 4
\end{array} .\right.
$$

### 5.2 Finiteness of invariants

Definition 5.2.1 (Finitely generated algebra). Let $B$ be an algebra over a ring $A$. We say that $B$ is of finite type (or finitely generated) as an $A$-algebra if there exist $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n} \in B$ s.t. $B=A\left[b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right]$. Equivalently, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$ and a surjective map $A\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right] \rightarrow B$.

Remark 5.2.2. Let $B$ be an algebra over a ring $A$. If $B$ is finitely generated as an $A$-module, then it is finitely generated as an A-algebra, but the converse is false.

Notation 5.2.3. Let $A$ be an algebra over a field $k$. If a group $G$ acts $k$-algebraically on $A$, we write

$$
A^{G}=\{a \in A, \forall g \in G, g \cdot a=a\} .
$$

Then $A^{G}$ is a subalgebra of $A$.
Lemma 5.2.4. If $A$ is an finitely generated $k$-algebra, and $G$ is a finite group acting $k$-algebraically on $A$, then the ring $A$ is integral over $A^{G}$.

Proof. If $a \in A$, define:

$$
P_{a}=\prod_{g \in G}(X-g \cdot a) \in A^{G}[X] .
$$

$P_{a}$ is monic and $P_{a}(a)=0$, so $a$ is integral over $A^{G}$.
Lemma 5.2.5. If a ring $B$ is integral over $A$ and finitely generated as an $A$-algebra, then $B$ is finitely generated as an A-module.

Proof. Write $B=A\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ and set $B_{j}=A\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{j}\right]$ for $j \in\{0, \ldots, n\}$. Then $B_{j+1}=$ $B_{j}\left[x_{j+1}\right]$, and $x_{j+1}$ is integral over $B_{j}$ (because it is over $B$ ), so $B_{j+1}$ is a finitely generated $B_{j^{-}}$ module. By Lemma 5.1.2, we obtain that $B_{n}=B$ is finitely generated over $B_{0}=A$.

Proposition 5.2.6. Let $B$ be a finitely generated $k$-algebra, and let $A$ be a subalgebra of $B$ s.t. $B$ is a finitely generated $A$-module. Then $A$ is a finitely generated $k$-algebra.

Proof. Write $B=k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right]=A y_{1}+\cdots+A y_{n}$, with $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n} \in B$. Hence, there exist elements $\left(a_{i j}\right)_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq m \\ 1 \leq j \leq n}}$ and $\left(a_{i j k}\right)_{1 \leq i, j, k \leq n}$ in A s.t.

$$
x_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i j} y_{j} \quad \text { and } \quad y_{i} y_{j}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{i j k} y_{k} .
$$

We now set $A_{0}=k\left[\left(a_{i j}\right)_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq m \\ 1 \leq j \leq n}},\left(a_{i j k}\right)_{1 \leq i, j, k \leq n}\right]$; this is a subring of $A$ which is a finitely generated $k$-algebra. We claim that $B=A_{0} y_{1}+\cdots+y_{n}$. Firstly, note that (using induction on $r$ ), $y_{\ell_{1}} \cdots y_{\ell_{r}} \in$ $A_{0} y_{1}+\cdots+A_{0} y_{n}$ for all indices $\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{r}$. Now, if $b \in B$, we can write $b=P\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right)$ with $P \in k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{m}\right]$. Hence:

$$
b=P\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{1 j} y_{j}, \ldots, \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{m j} y_{j}\right) .
$$

Expandingt this expression, we obtain $b \in A_{0} y_{1}+\cdots+A_{0} y_{n}$. Therefore, $B=A_{0} y_{1}+\cdots+A_{0} y_{n}$ is a finitely generated $A_{0}$-module. But $A_{0}$ is a noetherian ring, so $B$ is a noetherian $A_{0}$-module by Theorem 1.5.6, and $A \subseteq B$, so $A$ is also a finitely generated $A_{0}$-module, so it is a finitely generated $k$-algebra.

Theorem 5.2.7. If $A$ is a finitely generated $k$-algebra, and $G$ is a finite group acting $k$-algebraically on $A$, then $A^{G}$ is finitely generated as a $k$-algebra.

Proof. Note that $A$ is a finitely generated $A^{G}$-algebra (because it is a finitely generated $k$-algebra), and it is integral over $A^{G}$ by Lemma 5.2.4. By Lemma $5.2 .5, A$ is a finitely generated $A^{G}$-module. By Proposition 5.2.6, $A^{G}$ is a finitely generated $k$-algebra.

Example 5.2.8. If $A=k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ and $G=\mathfrak{S}_{n}$ with $\sigma \cdot X_{i}=X_{\sigma(i)}$, then $A^{G}$ is the $k$-algebra generated by the elementary symmetric polynomials.

### 5.3 Noether Normalisation Lemma

Definition 5.3.1 (Algebraic independence). Let $B$ be an algebra over a ring $A$. Let $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n} \in B$. We say that $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}$ are algebraically independent if:

$$
\forall P \in A\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right], P\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)=0 \Longrightarrow P=0
$$

Remark 5.3.2. Algebraic independence is stronger than linear independence.
Lemma 5.3.3. We assume that $k$ is an infinite field. If $P \in k\left[T_{1}, \ldots, T_{k}\right] \backslash\{0\}$, then there exists $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{k} \in k$ s.t. $P\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{k}\right) \neq 0$.

Proof. By induction on $k$.
Lemma 5.3.4. We assume that $k$ is an infinite field. If $R \in k\left[T_{1}, \ldots, T_{m}\right] \backslash\{0\}$ is homogeneous, then there exist $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{m-1} \in k$ s.t. $R\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{m-1}, 1\right) \neq 0$.

Proof. Note that $R\left(T_{1}, \ldots, T_{m-1}, 1\right) \in k\left[T_{1}, \ldots, T_{m-1}\right] \backslash\{0\}$ and apply Lemma 5.3.3.
Lemma 5.3.5. We assume that $k$ is an infinite field. Let $A$ be a $k$-algebra. Let $a_{1} \ldots, a_{m} \in A$ and $P \in k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{m}\right] \backslash\{0\}$ s.t. $A=k\left[a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right]$ and $P\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)=0$. Then there exist $a_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, a_{m-1}^{\prime} \in A$ s.t. $a_{m}$ is integral over $k\left[a_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, a_{m}^{\prime}\right]$ and $A=k\left[a_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, a_{m-1}^{\prime}, a_{m}\right]$.

Proof. Let $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{m-1} \in k$ (to be chosen later). Set $a_{i}^{\prime}=a_{i}-t_{i} a_{m}$ for $i \in\{1, \ldots, m-1\}$. Let $B=k\left[a_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, a_{m-1}^{\prime}\right]$ and $Q=P\left(a_{1}^{\prime}+t_{1} X, \ldots, a_{m-1}^{\prime}+t_{m-1} X, X\right) \in B[X]$. We have $A=B\left[a_{m}\right]$ and $Q\left(a_{m}\right)=0$. If $d$ is the (total) degree of $P$, then $Q$ is of degree at most $d$ and the coefficient of $X^{d}$ is $P_{d}\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{m-1}, 1\right)$, where $P_{d}$ is the part of $P$ that is homogeneous of degree $d$. According to Lemma 5.3.4, it is possible to choose $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{m-1} \in k$ s.t. $P_{d}\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{m-1}, 1\right) \in k^{\times}$. Hence, $Q$ is a nonzero polynomial whose leading coefficient is a unit of $k$, and $Q\left(a_{m}\right)=0$, so $a_{m}$ is integral over $B$.

Theorem 5.3.6 (Noether Normalisation Lemma). We assume that $k$ is an infinite field. If $A$ is a finitely generated $k$-algebra, then there exist $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in A$ which are algebraically independent and s.t. $A$ is a finitely generated $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$-module. If in addition $A$ is generated by $m$ elements, then we can have $n \leq m$.

Proof. We proceed by induction on the number $m$ of generators of $A$. If $m=0$, then $A=k$ and we are done. Assume the result is proven for $(m-1)$ and write $A=k\left[a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right]$. If $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$ are algebraically independent, take $x_{i}=a_{i}$. Otherwise, there exists $P \in k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{m}\right] \backslash\{0\}$ s.t. $P\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)=0$. By Lemma 5.3.5, there exist $a_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, a_{m-1}^{\prime} \in A$ s.t. $a_{m}$ is integral over $B=$ $k\left[a_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, a_{m-1}^{\prime}\right]$ and $A=B\left[a_{m}\right]$. By induction, there exist $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1} \in B$ with $n-1 \leq m-1$, $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ algebraically independent and s.t. $B$ is a finitely generated $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right]$-module. Since $A=B\left[a_{m}\right]$ with $a_{m}$ integral over $B, A$ is a finitely generated $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right]$-module.

### 5.4 Hilbert's Nullstellensatz

Lemma 5.4.1. Let $B$ be an integral domain. Assume that $B$ is integral over a subring $A$. Then $B$ is a field iff $A$ is a field.

Proof. $(\Leftarrow)$ Assume that $A$ is a field. Let $x \in B \backslash\{0\}$. Since $x$ is integral over $A, A[x]$ is a finite dimensional $A$-vector space. And the map $y \in A[x] \mapsto y x \in A[x]$ is injective because $B$ is an integral domain, so it is surjective, which proves that $x \in B^{\times} .(\Rightarrow)$ Assume that $B$ is a field. Let $x \in A \backslash\{0\}$. Then $x \in B^{\times}$, i.e. $x^{-1} \in B$. Therefore, $x^{-1}$ is integral over $A$, i.e. there exist $a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in A$ s.t.

$$
a_{0}+a_{1} x^{-1}+\cdots+a_{n-1} x^{-(n-1)}+x^{-n}=0
$$

Therefore, $x^{-1}=-a_{0} x^{n-1}-\cdots-a_{n-2} x-a_{n-1} \in A$, so $x \in A^{\times}$.
Lemma 5.4.2. Let $A$ be a finitely generated $k$-algebra. If $A$ is a field, then $A$ is a finite extension of $k$.

Proof. By the Noether Normalisation Lemma (Theorem 5.3.6), $A$ is integral over $k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. By Lemma 5.4.1, $k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ is a field (because $A$ is a field); therefore $n=0$.

Theorem 5.4.3 (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz). If $k$ is an algebraically closed field, then the maximal ideals of $k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ are the ideals of the form $\left(X_{1}-a_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}-a_{n}\right)$, with $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in k$.

Proof. Firstly, if $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in k$, then $\left(X_{1}-a_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}-a_{n}\right)=\operatorname{Ker} \varphi$, with:

$$
\varphi: P \in k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right] \longmapsto P\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in k .
$$

But $\operatorname{Im} \varphi=k$ is a field, so $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi$ is a maximal ideal of $k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$. Therefore, the ideal $\left(X_{1}-a_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}-a_{n}\right)$ is maximal for all $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in k$. Conversely, consider a maximal ideal $I$ of $k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$. We have a field $L=k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right] / I$, which is also a finitely generated $k$-algebra. By Lemma 5.4.2, $L$ is a finite extension of $k$. But $k$ is algebraically closed, so $L=k$. Now, let $a_{i} \in k$ be the image of $X_{i}$ in $L=k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right] / I$ for $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$. We have $I \supseteq\left(X_{1}-a_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}-a_{n}\right)$, and the ideal $\left(X_{1}-a_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}-a_{n}\right)$ is maximal, so $I=\left(X_{1}-a_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}-a_{n}\right)$.

Corollary 5.4.4. Let $k$ be an algebraically closed field.
(i) If $J$ is an ideal of $k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$, then the maximal ideals of $k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right] / J$ are of the form $\left(\overline{X_{1}-a_{1}}, \ldots, \overline{X_{n}-a_{n}}\right)$, where $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in k$ are s.t. $P\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=0$ for every $P \in J$.
(ii) If $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{m} \in k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ have no common root in $k$, then there exist $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{m} \in$ $k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ s.t. $f_{1} P_{1}+\cdots+f_{m} P_{m}=1$.

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