## CHAPTER 1

## Module theory

By a ring we always mean a ring with 1 , and by a module we always mean an unitary left-module.

### 1.1. Homomorphisms; Projective and injective modules

Let $R$ and $S$ be rings.
For additive abelian groups $A, B$, we denote $\operatorname{by} \operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ the group of all homomorphisms $A \rightarrow B$, equipped with pointwise addition and zero homomorphism $0: A \rightarrow B$, and by $\operatorname{End}(A)=\operatorname{Hom}(A, A)$ the endomorphism ring of $A$, with multiplication $(f, g) \mapsto f \circ g . \mathbf{0}=\{0\}$ denotes the trivial additive abelian group and also the zero ring.

Let $M$ be an abelian group.
Let $\sigma: R \times M \rightarrow M, \quad(r, m) \mapsto r m$, be a (left) $R$-module structure on $M$. For $r \in R$, define $\sigma^{*}(r): M \rightarrow M$ by $\sigma^{*}(r)(m)=r m$. Then $\sigma^{*}(r) \in \operatorname{End}(M)$, and the map $\sigma^{*}: R \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(M)$ is a ring homomorphism. Conversely, if $\theta: R \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(M)$ is a ring homomorphism, then $\theta_{*}: R \times M \rightarrow M$, defined by $\theta_{*}(r, m)=\theta(r)(m)$, is a (left) $R$-module structure on $M$, and $\left(\theta_{*}\right)^{*}=\theta$. If $\sigma: R \times M \rightarrow M$ is any (left) $R$-module structure on $M$, then $\left(\sigma^{*}\right)_{*}=\sigma$.

Next, let $\sigma: M \times R \rightarrow M, \quad(m, r) \mapsto m r$, be a right $R$-module structure on $M$. Let $R^{\text {op }}$ be the opposite ring of $R$, having the same addition law as $R$ and the multiplication law $x{ }_{\text {op }} y=y x$. For $r \in R$, the map $\sigma^{*}(r): M \rightarrow M$, defined by $\sigma^{*}(r)(m)=m r$, is again an endomorphism of $M$, but for $r, s \in R$, we have $\sigma^{*}(r s)=\sigma^{*}(s) \circ \sigma^{*}(r)$, and therefore $\sigma^{*}: R^{\circ \mathrm{p}} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(M)$ is a ring homomorphism. Conversely, if $\theta: R^{\mathrm{op}} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(M)$ is a ring homomorphism, then $\theta_{*}: M \times R \rightarrow M$, defined by $\theta_{*}(m, r)=\theta(r)(m)$, is a right $R$-module structure on $M$, and $\left(\theta_{*}\right)^{*}=\theta$. If $\sigma: M \times R \rightarrow M$ is any right $R$-module structure on $M$, then $\left(\sigma^{*}\right)_{*}=\sigma$.

A (left) $R$-module is an abelian group $M$, together with an $R$-module structure, defined either by a scalar product $R \times M \rightarrow M$ or by a homomorphism $R \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(M)$. We write ${ }_{R} M$ to indicate that $M$ is an $R$-module. For $R$-modules $M, N$, we denote by $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ the set of all $R$-homomorphisms $M \rightarrow N$, and we denote by $R$-Mod the category of all $R$-modules.

A right $R$-module ist an abelian group $M$, together with a right $R$-module structure, defined either by a scalar product $M \times R \rightarrow M$ or by a homomorphism $R^{\circ \mathrm{p}} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(M)$. Consequently, a right $R$-module is the same as an $R^{\mathrm{op}}$-module. However, we shall usually avoid the notion $R^{\mathrm{op}}$ and write $M=M_{R}$ to indicate that $M$ is right $R$-module. For right $R$-modules $M, N$, we denote again by $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ the set of all $R$-homomorphisms $M \rightarrow N$, and we denote by $\operatorname{Mod}-R=R^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}-\operatorname{Mod}$ the category of all right $R$-modules.

In any case, $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$, equipped with pointwise addition, is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Hom}(M, N)$. Note that in general $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ does not have the structure of an $R$-module.

If $R$ is commutative, then $R=R^{\text {op }}$, and $R$ - $\operatorname{Mod}=\operatorname{Mod}-R$. In particular, $\mathbb{Z}$ - $\operatorname{Mod}=\mathbf{A b}$ is the category of abelian groups. For $A, B \in \mathbf{A b}$, we have $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, B)=\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$. We denote by $\mathbf{0}$ the zero group. It has a unique $R$-module structure.

Let $M$ be an abelian group, let $R_{1}, R_{2}$ be rings, and for $i \in\{1,2\}$, let $\theta_{i}: R_{i} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(M)$ be an $R_{i}$-module structure on $M$. Then $M$ is called an $\left(R_{1}, R_{2}\right)$-bimodule if $\theta\left(r_{1}\right) \circ \theta\left(r_{2}\right)=\theta\left(r_{2}\right) \circ \theta\left(r_{1}\right)$ for all $r_{1} \in R_{1}$ and $r_{2} \in R_{2}$. More generally, if $k \in \mathbb{N}, R_{1}, \ldots, R_{k}$ are rings and $M$ is an abelian group carrying an $R_{i}$-module structure for each $i \in[1, k]$, then $M$ is called an $\left(R_{1}, \ldots, R_{k}\right)$-multimodule if $M$ is an $\left(R_{i}, R_{j}\right)$-bimodule for all $i, j \in[1, k]$ such that $i \neq j$. If $M, N$ are $\left(R_{1}, \ldots, R_{k}\right)$-multimodules, then a
map $M \rightarrow N$ is called an $\left(R_{1}, \ldots, R_{k}\right)$-homomorphism if it is an $R_{i}$-homomorphism for each $i \in[1, k]$, and we denote by $\operatorname{Hom}_{R_{1}, \ldots, R_{k}}(M, N)$ the abelian group of all $\left(R_{1}, \ldots, R_{l}\right)$-homomorphisms $M \rightarrow N$.

If $k, l \in \mathbb{N}, R_{1}, \ldots, R_{k}, S_{1}, \ldots, S_{l}$ are rings, then an $\left(R_{1}, \ldots, R_{k}\right)$-left and $\left(S_{1}, \ldots, S_{l}\right)$-right multimodule $M$ is an $\left(R_{1}, \ldots, R_{k}, S_{1}^{\mathrm{op}}, \ldots, S_{l}^{\mathrm{op}}\right)$-multimodule, and we write $M={ }_{R_{1}, \ldots, R_{k}} M_{S_{1}, \ldots, S_{l}}$ to indicate that $M$ carries this multimodue structure. We denote by $\left(R_{1}, \ldots, R_{k}\right)$-Mod- $\left(S_{1}, \ldots, S_{l}\right)$ the category of $\left(R_{1}, \ldots, R_{k}\right)$-left and $\left(S_{1}, \ldots, S_{l}\right)$-right multimodules.

Three types of bimodules will be of interest in the sequel: ${ }_{R, S} M$ (called one-sided left $(R, S)$ bimodules), ${ }_{R} M_{S}$ (called two-sided ( $R, S$ )-bimodules), $M_{R, S}$ (called one-sided right ( $R, S$ )-bimodules).

## Examples.

1. Every $R$-module is a one-sided and a two-sided $(R, \mathbb{Z})$-bimodule: ${ }_{R} M={ }_{R, \mathbb{Z}} M={ }_{R} M_{\mathbb{Z}}$ and $M_{R}={ }_{\mathbb{Z}} M_{R}=M_{\mathbb{Z}, R}$.
2. If $R$ is commutative, then every $R$-module is a one-sided and a two-sided $(R, R)$-bimodule: ${ }_{R} M={ }_{R, R} M={ }_{R} M_{R}$.
3. Let $M$ be an $R$-module. Then $\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, M) \subset \operatorname{End}(M)=\operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M)$ is a subring, and $M$ is an $\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$-module by means of $\varphi m=\varphi(m)$. Moreover, $M=\operatorname{End}_{R}(M), R M$ is a one-sided $\operatorname{End}_{R}(M), R$ )-bimodule (indeed, $\varphi r m=r \varphi m$ for all $\varphi \in \operatorname{End}_{R}(M), \quad r \in R$ and $m \in M)$.
4. $R$ is a two-sided $(R, R)$-bimodule, $R={ }_{R} R_{R}$. For any set $I$, component-wise scalar multiplication makes both $R^{I}$ and on $R^{(I)}=\left\{\left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in I} \in R^{I} \mid x_{i}=0\right.$ for almost all $\left.i \in I\right\}$ into two-sided ( $R, R$ )-bimodules.
5. Let $f: R \rightarrow S$ be a ring homomorphism. Then every $S$-module $N={ }_{S} N$ is an $R$-module by means of $r n=f(r) n$ for all $r \in R$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and (similarly) every right $S$-module $N=N_{S}$ is a right $R$-module. In particular, $S_{S} S_{R}$ is a two-sided ( $S, R$ )-bimodule (and also a two-sided $(R, S)$-bimodule). If $N, N^{\prime}$ are $S$-modules, then it follows that $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(N, N^{\prime}\right) \subset \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, N^{\prime}\right)$, and equality holds if $f$ is surjective.
6. Let $R$ be commutative. By an $R$-algebra we mean a ring $S$, together with an $R$-module structure $R \times S \rightarrow S, \quad(r, s) \mapsto r s$ such that $r\left(s s^{\prime}\right)=(r s) s^{\prime}=s\left(r s^{\prime}\right)$ for all $r \in R$ and $s, s^{\prime} \in S$. Then the map $f: R \rightarrow S$, defined by $f(r)=r 1_{S}$, is a ring homomorphism satisfying $f(R) \subset$ center $(S)$ [indeed, if $r, r^{\prime} \in R$, then $f\left(r r^{\prime}\right)=\left(r r^{\prime}\right) 1_{S}=r\left(r^{\prime} 1_{S}\right)=r\left[1_{S}\left(r^{\prime} 1_{S}\right)\right.$ ] $=\left(r 1_{S}\right)\left(r^{\prime} 1_{S}\right)=f(r) f\left(r^{\prime}\right)$, and if $s \in S$, then $\left.f(r) s=\left(r 1_{S}\right) s=r\left(1_{S} s\right)=r\left(s 1_{S}\right)=s\left(r 1_{S}\right)=s f(r)\right]$. The homomorphism $f$ is called the structural homomorphism of the $R$-algebra $S$. Conversely, if $f: R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism such that $f(R) \subset$ center $(S)$, then $S$ is an $R$-module by means of $r s=f(r) s$ for all $r \in R$ and $s \in S$, and with this $R$-module structure the ring $S$ is an $R$-algebra with structural homomorphism $f$. Therefore also the homomorphism $f: R \rightarrow S$ itself is called an $R$-algebra. Every ring $R$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$-algebra in a unique way [indeed, there is a unique homomorphism $\varepsilon: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow R$, given by $\varepsilon(g)=g 1_{R}$ for all $\left.g \in \mathbb{Z}\right]$.
If $f: R \rightarrow S$ is an $R$-algebra, then every $S$-module $N$ is an $(R, S)$-bimodule, ${ }_{S} N={ }_{R, S} N$.
Examples of algebras:
Every homomorphism $f: R \rightarrow S$ of commutative rings is an $R$-algebra. Let $S$ be a ring and $R \subset \operatorname{center}(S)$ a subring. then $S$ is an $R$-algebra. If $R$ is commutative and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then the matrix ring $\mathrm{M}_{n}(R)$ is an $R$-algebra. If $R$ is commutative and $M$ is an $R$-module, then $\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$ is an $R$-algebra.

Theorem and Definition 1.1.1. Let $M, N$ be $R$-modules.

1. Assume that $M={ }_{R} M_{S}$. For $s \in S$ and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ let $s f: M \rightarrow N$ be defined by $(s f)(m)=f(m s)$ for all $s \in S$ and $m \in M$. Then sf is an $R$-homomorphism, and $(s, f) \mapsto s f$ is an $S$-module structure on $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ :

$$
{ }_{S} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left({ }_{R} M_{S},{ }_{R} N\right) ; \quad \text { in the same way: } \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(R, S M,{ }_{R} N\right)_{S} .
$$

2. Assume that $N={ }_{R, S} N$. For $s \in S$ and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ let $s f: M \rightarrow N$ be defined by $(s f)(m)=s f(m)$. Then sf is an $R$-homomorphism, and $(s, f) \mapsto s f$ is an $S$-module structure on $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ :

$$
{ }_{S} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left({ }_{R} M,{ }_{R, S} N\right) ; \quad \text { in the same way: } \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left({ }_{R} M,{ }_{R} N_{S}\right)_{S}
$$

3. Let $R$ be commutative. Then $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ is an $R$-module by means of $(r f)(m)=f(r m)$ for all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N), \quad r \in R$ and $m \in M$.
Proof. 1. We must prove:

- For all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ and $s \in S$, the map $s f: M \rightarrow N$ is an $R$-homomorphism, that is $-(s f)\left(m+m^{\prime}\right)=(s f)(m)+(s f)\left(m^{\prime}\right)$ for all $m, m^{\prime} \in M$;
$-(s f)(r m)=r[(s f)(m)]$ for all $m \in M$ and $r \in R$ [here we use the bimodule structure].
- $(s, f) \mapsto s f$ is an $S$-module structure on $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$, that is, for all $f, f^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ and all $s, s^{\prime} \in S$, the following equalities hold pointwise for all $m \in M$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\left(s\left(f+f^{\prime}\right)=s f+s f^{\prime}\right. \\
& -\left(s+s^{\prime}\right) f=s f+s^{\prime} f \\
& -\left(s s^{\prime}\right) f=s\left(s^{\prime} f\right) \\
& -1_{S} f=f
\end{aligned}
$$

All this is easy.
2. The same things as in 1 . must be checked.
3. By 2., since $N={ }_{R, R} N$.

For $R$-modules $M, N, P$, the compositon map

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, P) \times \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N), \quad(g, f) \mapsto g \circ f
$$

is $\mathbb{Z}$-bilinear [that is, $g \circ\left(f+f^{\prime}\right)=g \circ f+g \circ f^{\prime}$ and $\left(g+g^{\prime}\right) \circ f=g \circ f+g^{\prime} \circ f$ for all $g, g^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, P)$ and $\left.f, f^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)\right]$.

Let $f: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ be an $R$-homomorphism and $N$ an $R$-module. We define

$$
f_{*}=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, f): \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, M) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, M^{\prime}\right) \quad \text { by } \quad f_{*}(\varphi)=\operatorname{Hom}(N, f)(\varphi)=f \circ \varphi
$$

and

$$
f^{*}=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(f, N): \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime}, N\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) \quad \text { by } \quad f^{*}(\varphi)=\operatorname{Hom}(f, N)(\varphi)=\varphi \circ f
$$

Then $f_{*}$ and $f^{*}$ are group homomorphisms satisfying $(f+g)_{*}=f_{*}+g_{*}$ and $(f+g)^{*}=f^{*}+g^{*}$ for all $f, g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, M^{\prime}\right)$. If $M \xrightarrow{f} M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f^{\prime}} M^{\prime \prime}$ are $R$-homomorphisms, then $\left(f^{\prime} \circ f\right)_{*}=f_{*}^{\prime} \circ f_{*}$ and $\left(f^{\prime} \circ f\right)^{*}=f^{\prime *} \circ f^{*}$.

A (covariant or contravariant) functor $T: R$-Mod $\rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ is called additive if, for all $M, N \in R$-Mod, the map $T: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(T M, T N)$ is a group homomorphism [expicitly, $T(f+g)=T f+T g$ for all $R$-homomorphisms $f, g: M \rightarrow N$ of $R$-modules.] If $T$ is an additive functor, then $T \mathbf{0}=\mathbf{0}$ [indeed, if $M$ is an $R$-module, then $M=\mathbf{0}$ if and only if $\operatorname{id}_{M}=0$, and then $\operatorname{id}_{T M}=T \operatorname{id}_{M}=T 0=0$ ].

For $N \in R$-Mod, the map $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N,-): R$ - $\mathbf{M o d} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ is a (covariant) additive functor, and the map $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(-, N): R$ - $\mathbf{M o d} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ is a contravariant additive functor.

Theorem 1.1.2. Let $M$ be an $R$-module. Then the map

$$
\Phi=\Phi_{M}: M \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, M), \quad \text { defined by } \quad m \mapsto(r \mapsto r m)
$$

is an $R$-isomorphism which is functorial in $M$, and $\Phi^{-1}(f)=f(1)$ for all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, M)$.
Proof. The $R$-module structure on $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, M)=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left({ }_{R} R_{R},{ }_{R} M\right)$ is given by $(\lambda f)(r)=f(r \lambda)$ for all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, M)$ and $\lambda, r \in R$. We must prove:

1) For every $m \in M$, the map $\Phi(m)=(r \mapsto r m)$ is an $R$-homomorphism.
2) $\Phi: M \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, M)$ is an $R$-homomorphism.
3) If $\Psi: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, M) \rightarrow M$ is defined by $\Psi(f)=f(1)$, then $\Psi \circ \Phi=\mathrm{id}_{M}$ and $\Phi \circ \Psi=\operatorname{id}_{\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, M)}$.
4) Every homomorphism $\varphi: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ of $R$-modules induces a commutative diagram


All this is easy.
A sequence $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime}$ of $R$-(module)-homomorphisms is called exact if $\operatorname{Ker}(g)=\operatorname{Im}(f)$, and an (eventually long) sequence $\ldots \rightarrow M_{i+1} \rightarrow M_{i} \rightarrow M_{i-1} \rightarrow \ldots$ of $R$-homomorphisms is called exact if every 3 -term subsequence is exact. Special cases:

- $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M$ is exact if and only if $f$ is a monomorphism.
- $M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is exact if and only if $g$ is an epimorphism.
- Every $R$-homomorphism $f: M \rightarrow N$ induces an exact sequence

$$
\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}(f) \hookrightarrow M \stackrel{f}{\rightarrow} N \rightarrow \operatorname{Coker}(f)=M / \operatorname{Im}(f) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}
$$

- An exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is called a short exact sequence. By definition, $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is a short exact sequence if and only if $f$ is a monomorphism, $g$ is an epimorphism, $g \circ f=0$ and $\operatorname{Ker}(g) \subset \operatorname{Im}(f)$. Then $f: M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Ker}(g)=\operatorname{Bi}(f)$ is an isomorphism, $g$ induces an isomorphism $g^{*}: M / \operatorname{Im}(f)=M / \operatorname{Ker}(g) \xrightarrow{\sim} M^{\prime \prime}$, and we obtain the commutative diagram

where the vertical arrows are isomorphisms.
- Let $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \rightarrow M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ be a short exact sequence of $R$-modules. If both $M^{\prime}$ and $M^{\prime \prime}$ are finitely generated, then $M$ is finitely generated. Conversely, if $M$ is finitely generated, then $M^{\prime \prime}$ is finitely generated, and if $R$ is left noetherian, then $M^{\prime}$ is also finitely generated.
- An $R$-module $M$ is called finitely presented if there is an exact sequence $F^{\prime} \rightarrow F \rightarrow M \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ with finitely generated free $R$-modules [equivalently, there is an epimorphism $\pi: F \rightarrow M$, where $F$ is a finitely generated free $R$-module and $\operatorname{Ker}(\pi)$ is finitely generated. Every finitely presented $R$-module is finitely generated, and if $R$ is left noetherian, then every finitely generated $R$-module is finitely presented.
- Let $M^{\prime}, M^{\prime \prime}$ be $R$-modules and $M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime}$ the (outer) direct sum. Let $\varepsilon^{\prime}: M^{\prime} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime}$ and $\varepsilon^{\prime \prime}: M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime}$ be the canonical injections and $p^{\prime}: M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow M^{\prime}, p^{\prime \prime}: M^{\prime} \oplus \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime}$ the canonical projections, defined by

$$
\varepsilon^{\prime}\left(m^{\prime}\right)=\left(m^{\prime}, 0\right), \quad \varepsilon^{\prime \prime}\left(m^{\prime \prime}\right)=\left(0, m^{\prime \prime}\right), \quad p^{\prime}\left(m^{\prime}, m^{\prime \prime}\right)=m^{\prime} \quad \text { and } p^{\prime \prime}\left(m^{\prime}, m^{\prime \prime}\right)=m^{\prime \prime}
$$

Then $p^{\prime} \circ \varepsilon^{\prime}=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime}}, p^{\prime \prime} \circ \varepsilon^{\prime \prime}=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime \prime}}, p^{\prime} \circ \varepsilon^{\prime \prime}=0, p^{\prime \prime} \circ \varepsilon^{\prime}=0, \varepsilon^{\prime} \circ p^{\prime}+\varepsilon^{\prime \prime} \circ p^{\prime \prime}=\mathrm{id}_{M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime}}$, and there are short exact sequences

$$
\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon^{\prime}} M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{p^{\prime \prime}} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon^{\prime \prime}} M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{p^{\prime}} M^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}
$$

If $M^{\prime}, M^{\prime \prime} \subset M$ are submodules of an $R$-module $M$, the $M$ is called (internal) direct sum of $M^{\prime}$ and $M^{\prime \prime}$ if one of the following equivalent conditions is satisfied:
$-M=M^{\prime}+M^{\prime \prime}$ and $M^{\prime} \cap M^{\prime \prime}=\mathbf{0}$.

- The map $M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow M, \quad\left(m^{\prime}, m^{\prime \prime}\right) \mapsto m^{\prime}+m^{\prime \prime}$, is an isomorphism.
- Every $m \in M$ has a unique representation $m=m^{\prime}+m^{\prime \prime}$, where $m^{\prime} \in M^{\prime}$ and $m^{\prime \prime} \in M^{\prime \prime}$.

If these conditions are fulfilled, then we write $M=M^{\prime} \dot{+} M^{\prime \prime}$ and denote by $p^{\prime}: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ and $p^{\prime \prime}: M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime}$ the maps defined by $p^{\prime}\left(m^{\prime}+m^{\prime \prime}\right)=m^{\prime}$ and $p^{\prime \prime}\left(m^{\prime}+m^{\prime \prime}\right)=m^{\prime \prime}$ for all $m^{\prime} \in M^{\prime}$ and $m^{\prime \prime} \in M^{\prime \prime}$. Then $p^{\prime}$ and $p^{\prime \prime}$ are $R$-homomorphisms, $p^{\prime} \mid M^{\prime}=\mathrm{id}_{M^{\prime}}$ and $p^{\prime \prime} \mid M^{\prime \prime}=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime \prime}}$. We call $p^{\prime}$ and $p^{\prime \prime}$ the projections of $M$ onto $M^{\prime}$ and $M^{\prime \prime}$.
An $R$-submodule $N \subset M$ is called a direct summand if $M=N \dot{+} N^{\prime}$ for some $R$-submodule $N^{\prime} \subset M$. In this case, we write $N \in M$.

## Theorem and Definition 1.1.3.

1. An $R$-submodule $M^{\prime} \subset M$ is a direct summand of $M$ if and only if there exists an $R$-homomorphism $p: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ such that $p \mid M^{\prime}=\mathrm{id}_{M^{\prime}}$.
2. Let $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ be a short exact sequence of $R$-modules. Then the following assertions are equivalent:
(a) There exists an $R$-isomorphism $\Phi: M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow M$ such that the following diagram is commutative:

(b) $\operatorname{Im}(f)=\operatorname{Ker}(g)$ is a direct summand of $M$.
(c) There exists some $R$-homomorphism $\varphi: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ such that $\varphi \circ f=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime}}$.
(d) There exists some $R$-homomorphism $\psi: M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow M$ such that $g \circ \psi=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime \prime}}$.

Moreover, the following assertions hold:
(i) If $\varphi: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ is any $R$-homomorphism such that $\varphi \circ f=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime}}$, then $M=\operatorname{Bi}(f) \dot{+} \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$.
(ii) If $\psi: M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow M$ is any $R$-homomorphisms such that $g \circ \psi=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime \prime}}$, then $M=\operatorname{Ker}(g) \dot{+} \operatorname{Bi}(\psi)$.
(iii) The homomorphisms $\varphi$ and $\psi$ in (c) and (d) above can be chosen so that $f \circ \varphi+\psi \circ g=\mathrm{id}_{M}$.

If these conditions are satisfied, we say that the short exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ splits or is a split exact sequence. An $R$-monomorphism $f: M^{\prime} \rightarrow M$ is said to split if there exists some $R$-homomorphism $\varphi: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ such that $\varphi \circ f=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime}} \quad[$ equivalently, $\operatorname{Im}(f) \oplus M]$. An $R$-epimorphism $g: M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime}$ is said to split if there exists an $R$-homomorphism $\psi: M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow M$ such that $g \circ \psi=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime \prime}} \quad[$ equivalently, $\operatorname{Ker}(g) \oplus M]$.
3. Suppose that $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime}$ and $M^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{\psi} M \xrightarrow{\varphi} M^{\prime}$ are homomorphisms of $R$-modules such that $\varphi \circ f=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime}}, \quad g \circ \psi=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime \prime}}$ and $f \circ \varphi+\psi \circ g=\operatorname{id}_{M}$. Then $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{\psi} M \xrightarrow{\varphi} M^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ are split exact sequences.
4. Let $T: R$-Mod $\rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ be an additive functor and $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \rightarrow M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ a split exact sequence. Then $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow T M^{\prime} \rightarrow T M \rightarrow T M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is also a split exact sequence. In particular, $T\left(M^{\prime} \otimes M^{\prime \prime}\right) \cong T M^{\prime} \oplus T M^{\prime \prime}$.

Proof. 1. If $M^{\prime} \subset M$ is a direct summand and $p: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ is the projection of $M$ onto $M^{\prime}$, then $p \mid M^{\prime}=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime}}$.

Conversely, let $p \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, M^{\prime}\right)$ be such that $p \mid M^{\prime}=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime}}$. We assert that $M=M^{\prime} \dot{+} \operatorname{Ker}(p)$. If $m \in M$, then $p(m-p(m))=p(m)-p(m)=0$, and $m=p(m)+(m-p(m)) \in M^{\prime}+\operatorname{Ker}(p)$. If $m \in M^{\prime} \cap \operatorname{Ker}(p)$, then $0=p(m)=m$, and thus $M=M^{\prime} \dot{+} \operatorname{Ker}(p)$.
2. (a) $\Rightarrow(\mathrm{b})$ Since $M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime}=\varepsilon^{\prime}\left(M^{\prime}\right) \dot{+} \varepsilon^{\prime \prime}\left(M^{\prime \prime}\right)$, it follows that $\varepsilon^{\prime}\left(M^{\prime}\right)$ is a direct summand of $M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime}$, and therefore $\operatorname{Im}(f)=f\left(M^{\prime}\right)=\Phi \circ \varepsilon^{\prime}\left(M^{\prime}\right)$ is a direct summand of $\Phi\left(M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime}\right)=M$.
(b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) By 1., there exists some $p \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, \operatorname{Im}(f))$ such that $p \mid \operatorname{Im}(f)=\operatorname{id}_{\operatorname{Im}(f)}$. Since $f: M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Im}(f)$ is an isomorphism and $p \circ f=f$, it follows that $\varphi=f^{-1} \circ p \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, M^{\prime}\right)$, and $\varphi \circ f=f^{-1} \circ p \circ f=f^{-1} \circ f=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime}}$.
(i) Let $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, M^{\prime}\right)$ be such that $\varphi \circ f=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime}}$. If $m \in M$, then

$$
\varphi(m-f \circ \varphi(m))=\varphi(m)-\varphi \circ f \circ \varphi(m)=0
$$

and $m=f \circ \varphi(m)+[m-f \circ \varphi(m)] \in \operatorname{Im}(f)+\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$. If $m \in \operatorname{Im}(f) \cap \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$, then $m=f\left(m^{\prime}\right)$ for some $m^{\prime} \in M^{\prime}$, and $0=\varphi(m)=\varphi \circ f\left(m^{\prime}\right)=m^{\prime}$. Hence $m=0$, and $M=\operatorname{Im}(f)+\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$.
(c) $\Rightarrow$ (d) and (iii) If $m^{\prime \prime} \in M^{\prime \prime}$, let $m \in M$ be such that $m^{\prime \prime}=g(m)$, and define

$$
\psi\left(m^{\prime \prime}\right)=m-f \circ \varphi(m) \in M
$$

This definition is independent of the choice of $m$. Indeed, suppose that $m, m_{1} \in M$ are such that $m^{\prime \prime}=g(m)=g\left(m_{1}\right)$. Then $m-m_{1} \in \operatorname{Ker}(g)=\operatorname{Im}(f)$, say $m-m_{1}=f\left(m^{\prime}\right)$ for some $m^{\prime} \in M^{\prime}$. Then

$$
[m-f \circ \varphi(m)]-\left[m_{1}-f \circ \varphi\left(m_{1}\right)\right]=\left(m-m_{1}\right)-(f \circ \varphi)\left(m-m_{1}\right)=f\left(m^{\prime}\right)-f \circ \varphi \circ f\left(m^{\prime}\right)=0
$$

Next we prove that $\psi: M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow M$ is an $R$-homomorphism. Thus let $m^{\prime \prime}, m_{1}^{\prime \prime} \in M^{\prime \prime}$ and $r \in R$. Let $m, m_{1} \in M$ be such that $g(m)=m^{\prime \prime}$ and $g\left(m_{1}\right)=m_{1}^{\prime \prime}$. Then $g\left(m+m_{1}\right)=m^{\prime \prime}+m_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ and $g(r m)=r m^{\prime \prime}$. Hence $\psi\left(m^{\prime \prime}+m_{1}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\left(m+m_{1}\right)-(f \circ \varphi)\left(m+m_{1}\right)=[m-f \circ \varphi(m)]+\left[m_{1}-f \circ \varphi\left(m_{1}\right)\right]=\psi\left(m^{\prime \prime}\right)+\psi\left(m_{1}^{\prime \prime}\right)$, and $\psi(r m)=r m-f \circ \varphi(r m)=r(m-f \circ \varphi(m))=r \psi\left(m^{\prime \prime}\right)$.

If $m^{\prime \prime}=g(m)$ for some $m \in M$, then $g \circ \psi\left(m^{\prime \prime}\right)=g(m-f \circ \varphi(m))=g(m)-g \circ f \circ \varphi(m)=m^{\prime \prime}$, and therefore $g \circ \psi=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime \prime}}$.

If $m \in M$, then $\psi \circ g(m)=m-f \circ \varphi(m)$, and therefore $f \circ \varphi+\psi \circ g=\operatorname{id}_{M}$, which proves (iii).
(ii) Let $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, M\right)$ be such that $g \circ \psi=\mathrm{id}_{M^{\prime \prime}}$. If $m \in M$, then

$$
g(m-\psi \circ g(m))=g(m)-g \circ \psi \circ g(m)=0
$$

and $m=(m-\psi \circ g(m))+\psi \circ g(m) \in \operatorname{Ker}(g)+\operatorname{Im}(\psi)$. If $m \in \operatorname{Ker}(g) \cap \operatorname{Im}(\psi)$, then $m=\psi\left(m^{\prime \prime}\right)$ for some $m^{\prime \prime} \in M^{\prime \prime}$, and $0=g(m)=g \circ \psi\left(m^{\prime \prime}\right)=m^{\prime \prime}$. Hence $m=0$, and $M=\operatorname{Ker}(g) \dot{+} \operatorname{Im}(\psi)$.
$(\mathrm{d}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{d})$ As $g \circ \psi=\mathrm{id}_{M^{\prime \prime}}$, it follows that $\psi$ is a monomorphism. Now we define $\Phi: M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow M$ by $\Phi\left(m^{\prime}, m^{\prime \prime}\right)=f\left(m^{\prime}\right)+\psi\left(m^{\prime \prime}\right)$ for all $\left(m^{\prime}, m^{\prime \prime}\right) \in M^{\prime} \times M^{\prime \prime}$. Then $\Phi$ is an $R$-homomorphism, and it is surjective since $M=\operatorname{Ker}(g)+\operatorname{Im}(\psi)=\operatorname{Im}(f)+\operatorname{Im}(\psi)$. If $\left(m^{\prime}, m^{\prime \prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Ker}(\Phi)$, then $f\left(m^{\prime}\right)+\psi\left(m^{\prime \prime}\right)=0$, hence $0=g \circ f\left(m^{\prime}\right)+g \circ \psi\left(m^{\prime \prime}\right)=m^{\prime \prime}, f\left(m^{\prime}\right)=0$ and therefore also $m^{\prime}=0$. Hence $\Phi$ is an isomorphism.

If $m^{\prime} \in M^{\prime}$, then $\Phi \circ \varepsilon^{\prime}\left(m^{\prime}\right)=\Phi\left(m^{\prime}, 0\right)=f\left(m^{\prime}\right)$, and thus $\Phi \circ \varepsilon^{\prime}=f$. If $\left(m^{\prime}, m^{\prime \prime}\right) \in M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\prime \prime}$, then $g \circ \Phi\left(m^{\prime}, m^{\prime \prime}\right)=g \circ f\left(m^{\prime}\right)+g \circ \psi\left(m^{\prime \prime}\right)=m^{\prime \prime}$, and therefore $g \circ \Phi=p^{\prime \prime}$.
3. Since $\varphi \circ f=\mathrm{id}_{M^{\prime}}$ and $g \circ \psi=\mathrm{id}_{M^{\prime \prime}}$, it follows that $f$ and $\psi$ are monomorphisms and $g$ is an epimorphism. Now we obtain $f=(f \circ \varphi+\psi \circ g) \circ f=f+\psi \circ g \circ f$, hence $\psi \circ g \circ f=0$, and therefore $g \circ f=0$. If $m \in \operatorname{Ker}(g)$, then $m=(f \circ \rho+\psi \circ g)(m)=f \circ \varphi(m) \in \operatorname{Im}(f)$. Hence the sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is exact. The same arguments show that the sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{\psi} M \xrightarrow{\varphi} M^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is exact, and by definition both sequences split.
4. Let $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ be a split exact sequence. Then there exist $R$-homomorphisms $\varphi: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ and $\psi: M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow M$ such that $\varphi \circ f=\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime}}, g \circ \psi=\mathrm{id}_{M^{\prime \prime}}$ and $f \circ \varphi+\psi \circ g=\mathrm{id}_{M}$. Then it follows that $T \varphi \circ T f=T(\varphi \circ f)=\mathrm{id}_{T M^{\prime}}, T g \circ T \psi=\mathrm{id}_{T M^{\prime \prime}}$, and $\mathrm{id}_{T M}=T(f \circ \varphi+\psi \circ g)=T f \circ T \varphi+T \psi \circ T g$. By $3 ., \mathbf{0} \rightarrow T M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{T f} T M \stackrel{T g}{T} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is a split exact sequence.

Theorem 1.1.4 (Snake Lemma). Let

be a commutative diagram of $R$-module homomorphisms with exact rows. Then there exists an $R$ homomorphism $\omega: \operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Coker}\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ such that there is a long exact sequenc

$$
\operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{i_{0}} \operatorname{Ker}(u) \xrightarrow{f_{0}} \operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega} \operatorname{Coker}\left(u^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{j^{*}} \operatorname{Coker}(u) \xrightarrow{g^{*}} \operatorname{Coker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right),
$$

where $i_{0}=i\left|\operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime}\right), f_{0}=f\right| \operatorname{Ker}(u), j^{*}$ is induced by $j$, and $g^{*}$ is induced by $g$. If $i$ is a monomorphism, then $i_{0}$ is a monomorphism, and if $g$ is an epimorphism, then $g^{*}$ is an epimorphism. Moreover, $\omega$ and the long exact sequence are functorial in the original commutative diagram.

Proof. 1. Since $j \circ u^{\prime}=u \circ i$, we get $i\left(\operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime}\right)\right) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(u)$, and since $g \circ u=u^{\prime \prime} \circ f$, we get $f(\operatorname{Ker}(u)) \subset \operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right)$. Hence we obtain $R$-homomorphisms $i_{0}=i \mid \operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime}\right): \operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}(u)$ and $f_{0}=f \mid \operatorname{Ker}(u): \operatorname{Ker}(u) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right)$. If $i$ is a monomorphism, then $i_{0}$ is also a monomorphism, and $f_{0} \circ i_{0}=f \circ i \mid \operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime}\right)=0$. If $a \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(f_{0}\right) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(u) \subset A$, then $f(a)=f_{0}(a)=0$, and thus $a=i\left(a^{\prime}\right)$ for some $a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$. Since $j \circ u^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=u \circ i\left(a^{\prime}\right)=u(a)=0$ and $j$ is a monomorphism, we get $u^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=0$, hence $a^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime}\right)$, and therefore $a=i\left(a^{\prime}\right)=i_{0}\left(a^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Im}\left(i_{0}\right)$. Hence there is an exact sequence $\operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{i_{0}} \operatorname{Ker}(u) \xrightarrow{f_{0}} \operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right)$.
2. Since $j \circ u^{\prime}=u \circ i$ and $g \circ u=u^{\prime \prime} \circ f$ and $g(\operatorname{Im}(u)) \subset \operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right)$. Thus $j$ induces an $R$-homomorphism $j^{*}: \operatorname{Coker}\left(u^{\prime}\right)=B^{\prime} / \operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow B / \operatorname{Im}(u)=\operatorname{Coker}(u)$, given by $j^{*}\left(b^{\prime}+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right)\right)=j\left(b^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{Im}(u)$ for all $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}$, and $g$ induces an $R$-homomorphism $g^{*}: \operatorname{Coker}(u)=B / \operatorname{Im}(u) \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime} / \operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right)=\operatorname{Coker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right)$, given by $g^{*}(b+\operatorname{Im}(u))=g(b)+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right)$ for all $b \in B$. If $g$ is an epimorphism, then $g^{*}$ is also an epimorphism, and if $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}$, then $g^{*} \circ j^{*}\left(b^{\prime}+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right)\right)=g \circ j\left(b^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right)=0 \in \operatorname{Coker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right)$. If $b \in B$ and $b+\operatorname{Im}(u) \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(g^{*}\right)$, then $g(b) \in \operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right)$, and therefore there exists some $a \in A$ such that $g(b)=$ $u^{\prime \prime} \circ f(a)=g \circ u(a)$. Hence $g(b-u(a))=0$, and $b-u(a) \in \operatorname{Ker}(g)=\operatorname{Im}(j)$. Let $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}$ be such that $b-u(a)=j\left(b^{\prime}\right)$. Then $b+\operatorname{Im}(u)=j\left(b^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{Im}(u)=j^{*}\left(b^{\prime}+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right)\right) \in \operatorname{Im}\left(j^{*}\right)$. Hence there is an exact sequence $\operatorname{Coker}\left(u^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{j^{*}} \operatorname{Coker}(u) \xrightarrow{g^{*}} \operatorname{Coker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right)$.
3. Now we are going to define $\omega$. Let $a^{\prime \prime} \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right) \subset A^{\prime \prime}$ and $a \in A$ such that $a^{\prime \prime}=f(a)$. Then $0=u^{\prime \prime} \circ f(a)=g \circ u(a)$, hence $u(a) \in \operatorname{Ker}(g)=\operatorname{Im}(j)$, and thus $u(a)=j\left(b^{\prime}\right)$ for some $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}$. We set $\omega\left(a^{\prime \prime}\right)=b^{\prime}+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Coker}\left(u^{\prime}\right)$, and we show that this definition does not depend on the made choices. Indeed, let $a_{1} \in A$ be another element such that $a^{\prime \prime}=f\left(a_{1}\right)$, and let $b_{1}^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}$ be such that $u\left(a_{1}\right)=j\left(b_{1}^{\prime}\right)$. Then $a-a_{1} \in \operatorname{Ker}(f)=\operatorname{Im}(i)$, say $a-a_{1}=i\left(a^{\prime}\right)$, where $a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$, and therefore $j\left(b^{\prime}-b_{1}^{\prime}\right)=u\left(a-a_{1}\right)=u \circ i\left(a^{\prime}\right)=j \circ u^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)$. As $j$ is injective, we obtain $b^{\prime}-b_{1}^{\prime}=u^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right)$, and consequently $b^{\prime}+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right)=b_{1}^{\prime}+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right)$.

To prove that $\omega$ is an $R$-homomorphism, let $a^{\prime \prime}, a_{1}^{\prime \prime} \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right)$ and $r \in R$. If $a, a_{1} \in A$ are such that $f(a)=a^{\prime \prime}$ and $f\left(a_{1}\right)=a_{1}^{\prime \prime}$, then $f\left(a+a_{1}\right)=a^{\prime \prime}+a_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ and $f(r a)=r a^{\prime \prime}$. Let $b^{\prime}, b_{1}^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}$ be such that $u(a)=j\left(b^{\prime}\right)$ and $u\left(a_{1}\right)=j\left(b_{1}^{\prime}\right)$. Then $u\left(a+a_{1}\right)=j\left(b^{\prime}+b_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ and $u(r a)=j\left(r b^{\prime}\right)$. Hence we obtain $\omega\left(a^{\prime \prime}+a_{1}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\left(b^{\prime}+b_{1}^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right)=\left(b^{\prime}+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right)\right)+\left(b_{1}^{\prime}+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right)\right)=\omega\left(a^{\prime \prime}\right)+\omega\left(a_{1}^{\prime \prime}\right)$, and $\omega\left(r a^{\prime \prime}\right)=r b^{\prime}+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right)=r\left(b^{\prime}+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right)\right)$.

Next we show that $j^{*} \circ \omega=0$. If $a^{\prime \prime}=f(a) \in A^{\prime \prime}$, where $a \in A$ and $u(a)=j\left(b^{\prime}\right)$ with $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}$, then $j^{*} \circ \omega\left(a^{\prime \prime}\right)=j^{*}\left(b^{\prime}+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right)\right)=j\left(b^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{Im}(u)=0 \in \operatorname{Coker}(u)$.

Finally, we prove that $\operatorname{Ker}(\omega) \subset \operatorname{Im}\left(f_{0}\right)$. Thus let $a^{\prime \prime} \in \operatorname{Ker}(\omega), a^{\prime \prime}=f(a)$, where $a \in A$, and $u(a)=j\left(b^{\prime}\right)$, where $b^{\prime} \in B$. Then $b^{\prime}+\operatorname{Im}\left(u^{\prime}\right)=\omega\left(a^{\prime \prime}\right)=0$, hence $b^{\prime}=u\left(a^{\prime}\right)$ for some $a^{\prime} \in A$, and therefore $u(a)=j \circ u^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=u \circ i\left(a^{\prime}\right)$. Hence it follows that $a-i\left(a^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Ker}(u)$, and therefore $f_{0}\left(a-i\left(a^{\prime}\right)\right)=f(a)-f \circ i\left(a^{\prime}\right)=f(a)=a^{\prime \prime} \in \operatorname{Im}\left(f_{0}\right)$.
4. It remains to prove that the whole construction is functorial in the initial data. This is tedious but easy and is left as an exercise.

Corollary. Let $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow K \xrightarrow{f} F \xrightarrow{g} M \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ an exact sequence of $R$-modules. If $M$ be a finitely presented and $F$ is finitely generated, then $K$ is also finitely generated.

Proof. As $M$ is finitely presented, there exists an exact sequence $F_{2} \xrightarrow{f_{2}} F_{1} \xrightarrow{f_{1}} M \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$, where $F_{1}, F_{1}$ are finitely generated free $R$-modules. Let $\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)$ be an $R$-basis of $F_{1}$. Then there exist $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in F$ such that $g\left(x_{i}\right)=f_{1}\left(u_{i}\right)$ for all $i \in[1, n]$, and there exists a unique $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(F_{1}, F\right)$ such that $\varphi\left(u_{i}\right)=x_{i}$ for all $i \in[1, n]$. Hence it follows that $f_{1}\left(u_{i}\right)=g \circ \varphi\left(u_{i}\right)$ for all $i \in[1, n]$, and consequently $f_{1}=g \circ \varphi$. Since $g \circ \varphi \circ f_{2}=f_{1} \circ f_{2}=0$, it follows that $\varphi \circ f_{2}\left(F_{2}\right) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(g)=\operatorname{Im} f$, and therefore there exists some $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(F_{2}, K\right)$ such that $f \circ \psi=\varphi \circ f_{2}$. We obtain the following
commutative diagram with exact rows:


Lemma 1.1.4 yields an exact sequence $\mathbf{0}=\operatorname{Ker}\left(\operatorname{id}_{M}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Coker}(\psi) \rightarrow \operatorname{Coker}(\varphi) \rightarrow \operatorname{Coker}\left(\mathrm{id}_{M}\right)=\mathbf{0}$, and therefore $K / \operatorname{Im}(\psi)=\operatorname{Coker}(\psi) \cong \operatorname{Coker}(\varphi)=F / \operatorname{Im}(\varphi)$ is finitely generated. Since $\operatorname{Im}(\psi)=\psi\left(F_{2}\right)$ is also finitely generated, it follows that $K$ is finitely generated.

## Theorem 1.1.5.

1. A sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime}$ of $R$-homomomrphisms is exact if and only if, for every $R$ module $X$, the sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(X, M^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{f_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(X, M) \xrightarrow{g_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(X, M^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is exact (where $f_{*}=\operatorname{Hom}(X, f)$ and $\left.g_{*}=\operatorname{Hom}(X, g)\right)$.
2. A sequence $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ of $R$-homomomrphisms is exact if and only if, for every $R$ module $X$, the sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, X\right) \xrightarrow{g^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, X) \xrightarrow{f^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime}, X\right)$ is exact (where $g^{*}=\operatorname{Hom}(g, X)$ and $\left.f^{*}=\operatorname{Hom}(f, X)\right)$.
Proof. 1. Assume first that $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime}$ is exact, and let $X$ be an $R$-module. If $\left(\varphi: X \rightarrow M^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(f_{*}\right)$, then $0=f_{*}(\varphi)=f \circ \varphi$, and as $f$ is a monomorphism, we obtain $\varphi=0$. Hence $f_{*}$ is a monomorphism. $g_{*} \circ f_{*}=(g \circ f)_{*}=0_{*}=0$, and it remains to prove that $\operatorname{Ker}\left(g_{*}\right) \subset \operatorname{Im}\left(f_{*}\right)$. If $(\varphi: X \rightarrow M) \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(g_{*}\right)$, then $0=g_{*}(\varphi)=g \circ \varphi$, hence $\operatorname{Im}(\varphi) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(g)=\operatorname{Im}(f)$. Since $f: M^{\prime} \rightarrow \operatorname{Im}(f)$ is an isomorphism, it follows that $\varphi^{\prime}=f^{-1} \circ \varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(X, M^{\prime}\right)$, and $\varphi=f \circ \varphi^{\prime}=f_{*}\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Im}\left(f_{*}\right)$.

To prove the converse, we consider the assumption with $X=R$ and obtain the commutative diagram

where the vertical arrows are the isomorphisms of Theorem1.1.2 and the buttom line is exact. Hence the upper line is also exact.
2. Assume first that the sequence $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is exact, and let $X$ be an $R$-module. If $\left(\psi: M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow X\right) \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(g^{*}\right)$, then $0=g^{*}(\psi)=\psi \circ g$, and as $g$ is an epimorphism, we obtain $\psi=0$. Hence $g^{*}$ is a monomorphism. $f^{*} \circ g^{*}=(g \circ f)^{*}=0^{*}=0$, and it remains to prove that $\operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{*}\right) \subset \operatorname{Im}\left(g^{*}\right)$. If $(\varphi: M \rightarrow X) \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{*}\right)$, then $0=f^{*}(\varphi)=\varphi \circ f$, and therefore $\operatorname{Ker}(g)=\operatorname{Im}(f) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$. Hence $\varphi$ induces a homomorphism $\widetilde{\varphi}: M / \operatorname{Ker}(g) \rightarrow X$, and $g$ induces an isomorphism $\widetilde{g}: M / \operatorname{Ker}(g) \xrightarrow{\sim} M^{\prime \prime}$. Then $\varphi^{\prime}=\widetilde{\varphi} \circ \widetilde{g}^{-1} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, X\right)$ and $\varphi=\varphi^{\prime} \circ g=g^{*}\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Im}\left(g^{*}\right)$.

Assume now that the sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, X\right) \xrightarrow{g^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, X) \xrightarrow{f^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime}, X\right)$ is exact for every $R$-module $X$. If $X=M^{\prime \prime}$, then $0=f^{*} \circ g^{*}\left(\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime \prime}}\right)=(g \circ f)^{*}\left(\operatorname{id}_{M^{\prime \prime}}\right)=g \circ f$.

Next we prove that $\operatorname{Ker}(g) \subset \operatorname{Im}(f)$. Let $X=M / \operatorname{Im}(f)$ and denote by $\pi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, X)$ the residue class homomorphism. Since $f^{*}(\pi)=\pi \circ f=0$, we obtain $\pi \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{*}\right)=\operatorname{Im}\left(g^{*}\right)$. Let $\varphi \in$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, X\right)$ be such that $\pi=g^{*}(\varphi)=\varphi \circ g$. Now, if $x \in \operatorname{Ker}(g)$, then $\pi(x)=0$, and thus $x \in \operatorname{Im}(f)$.

It remains to prove that $g$ is an epimorphism. For this, we set $X=M^{\prime \prime} / \operatorname{Im}(g)$, and we denote by $\pi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, X\right)$ the residue class homomorphism. Then $g^{*}(\pi)=\pi \circ g=0$, hence $\pi=0$, since $g^{*}$ is a monomorphism, and therefore $M^{\prime \prime}=\operatorname{Im}(g)$. Hence $g$ is an epimorphism.

An additive functor $T: R$ - $\mathbf{M o d} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ is called

- left-exact if, for every exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime}$ in $R$-Mod, the induced sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow T M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{T f} T M \xrightarrow{T g} T M^{\prime \prime}$ in $\mathbf{A b}$ is exact;
- right-exact if, for every exact sequence $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ in $R$-Mod, the induced sequence $T M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{T f} T M \xrightarrow{T g} T M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ in $\mathbf{A b}$ is exact;
- exact if, for every exact sequence $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime}$ in $R$-Mod, the induced sequence $T M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{T f}$ $T M \xrightarrow{T g} T M^{\prime \prime}$ in $\mathbf{A b}$ is exact;

An additive contravariant functor $T: R$ - Mod $\rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ is called

- left-exact if, for every exact sequence $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ in $R$-Mod, the induced sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow T M^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{T g} T M \xrightarrow{T f} T M^{\prime}$ in $\mathbf{A b}$ is exact;
- right-exact if, for every exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime}$ in $R$-Mod, the induced sequence $T M^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{T g} T M \xrightarrow{T f} T M^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ in $\mathbf{A b}$ is exact;
- exact if, for every exact sequence $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime}$ in $R$-Mod, the induced sequence $T M^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{T g}$ $T M \xrightarrow{T f} T M^{\prime}$ in $\mathbf{A b}$ is exact.
For an $R$-module $N$, the functors $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N,-): R-\mathbf{M o d} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(-, N): R$ - $\mathbf{M o d}{ }^{\text {op }} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ are left-exact.

Definition. An $R$-module $C$ is called

- projective if, for every diagram

of $R$-homomorphisms with exact row, there exists an $R$-homomorphism $\psi: C \rightarrow M$ such that $g \circ \psi=\varphi$ [equivalently: For every $R$-epimorphism $g: M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime}$, the induces homomorphism $g_{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(C, M) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(C, M^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is surjective];
- injective if, for every diagram


C
of $R$-homomorphisms with exact row, there exists an $R$-homomorphism $\psi: M \rightarrow C$ such that $\psi \circ f=\varphi$ [equivalently: For every $R$-monomorphism $f: M^{\prime} \rightarrow M$, the induces homomorphism $f^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, C) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime}, C\right)$ is surjective].

## Theorem 1.1.6.

1. For an $R$-module $P$, the following assertions are equivalent:
(a) $P$ is projective.
(b) Every $R$-epimorphism $M \rightarrow P$ splits.
(c) There exists an $R$-module $M$ such that $M \oplus P$ is free.
(d) $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P,-): R$ - Mod $\rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ is an exact functor.
2. Let $\left(P_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ be a family of $R$-modules. Then $\bigoplus_{i \in I} P_{i}$ is projective if and only if all $P_{i}$ are projective.
3. Every free $R$-module is projective. If $R$ is a principal ideal domain, then every projective $R$-module is free.
4. Every finitely generated projective $R$-module is finitely presented.

Proof. 1. (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b) If $g: M \rightarrow P$ is an $R$-epimorphism, then $g_{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, M) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, P)$ is surjective, and thus there exists some $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, M)$ such that $\operatorname{id}_{P}=g_{*}(\psi)=g \circ \psi$. Hence $g$ splits.
(b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) There exists a free $R$-module $F$ and an $R$-epimorphism $p: F \rightarrow P$. By assumption, $p$ splits, and by Theorem 1.1.3.2(a), there exists a commutative diagram

where $M=\operatorname{Ker}(p)$ and $\Phi$ is an isomorphism. Hence $M \oplus P$ is free.
(c) $\Rightarrow$ (d) Let $N$ be an $R$-module such that $F=P \oplus N$ is free with basis $\left(u_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$, let $\varepsilon: P \rightarrow F$ be the injection and $p: F \rightarrow P$ the projection of this direct sum. Let $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime}$ be an exact sequence of $R$-modules. We must prove that the sequence $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P, M^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{f_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, M) \xrightarrow{g_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P, M^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is exact. Clearly, $g_{*} \circ f_{*}=(g \circ f)_{*}=0_{*}=0$, and it remains to prove that $\operatorname{Ker}\left(g_{*}\right) \subset \operatorname{Im}\left(f_{*}\right)$. Suppose that $(\varphi: P \rightarrow M) \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(g^{*}\right)$. Then $0=g_{*}(\varphi)=g \circ \varphi$, and therefore $\operatorname{Im}(\varphi)=\varphi \circ p(F) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(g)=\operatorname{Im}(f)$. For each $i \in I$, let $m_{i}^{\prime} \in M^{\prime}$ be such that $f\left(m_{i}^{\prime}\right)=\varphi \circ p\left(u_{i}\right)$, and let $\psi_{1} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(F, M^{\prime}\right)$ be such that $\psi_{1}\left(u_{i}\right)=m_{i}^{\prime}$ for all $i \in I$. Then $f \circ \psi_{1}\left(u_{i}\right)=\varphi \circ p\left(u_{i}\right)$ for all $i \in I$, hence $f \circ \psi_{1}=\varphi \circ p$, and $\psi=\psi_{1} \circ \varepsilon \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P, M^{\prime}\right)$. Then $f_{*}(\psi)=f \circ \psi=f \circ \psi_{1} \circ \varepsilon=\varphi \circ p \circ \varepsilon=\varphi \in \operatorname{Im}\left(f_{*}\right)$.
(d) $\Rightarrow$ (a) If $g: M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime}$ is an $R$-epimorphism, then the exactness of $M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ implies the exactness of $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, M) \xrightarrow{g_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P, M^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$, and thus $g_{*}$ is surjective.
2. Assume first that $\bigoplus_{i \in I} P_{i}$ is projective, and let $N$ be an $R$-module such that $F=N \oplus \bigoplus_{i \in I} P_{i}$ is free. If $i \in I$, then

$$
F=\left(N \oplus \bigoplus_{j \in I \backslash\{i\}} P_{j}\right) \oplus P_{i}
$$

and thus $P_{i}$ is free.
Assume now that, for every $i \in I, P_{i}$ is projective, and let $N_{i}$ be an $R$-module such that $F_{i}=N_{i} \oplus P_{i}$ is free. Then

$$
\bigoplus_{i \in I} F_{i}=\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} N_{i}\right) \oplus\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} P_{i}\right) \quad \text { is free, and thus } \quad \bigoplus_{i \in I} P_{i} \quad \text { is projective. }
$$

3. If $F$ is free, then $F \cong F \oplus \mathbf{0}$, and thus $F$ is projective. Let $R$ be a principal ideal domain and $P$ a projective $R$-module. Let $M$ be an $R$-module such that $F=M \oplus P$ is free, and let $\varepsilon: P \rightarrow F$ be the injection. Then $\varepsilon(P) \subset F$ is free, and $P \cong \varepsilon(P)$ is also free.
4. Let $P$ be a finitely generated projective $R$-module. Then there exists an $R$-epimorphism $p: F \rightarrow P$ for some finitely generated free $R$-module, and the exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}(p) \hookrightarrow F \xrightarrow{p} P \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ splits. Hence there exists an $R$-epimorphism $\varphi: F \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}(p)$, which implies that $\operatorname{Ker}(p)$ is finitely generated, and thus $P$ is finitely presented.

Let $R$ be a domain and $K=\mathrm{q}(R)$. For $R$-submodules $J, J^{\prime} \subset K$, we define $J^{-1}=\{a \in K \mid a J \subset R\}$ and $J J^{\prime}={ }_{R}\left\langle\left\{a a^{\prime} \mid a \in J, a^{\prime} \in J^{\prime}\right\}\right\rangle$. Clearly, $J^{-1}$ and $J J^{\prime}$ are again $R$-submodules of $K$. An $R$ submodule $J \subset K$ is called a fractional ideal of $R$ if $J \neq \mathbf{0}$ and $J^{-1} \neq \mathbf{0}$ [equivalently, there is some $c \in R^{\bullet}$ such that $c J \subset R$ is a non-zero ideal of $\left.R\right]$. A fractional ideal $J$ is called invertible if $J J^{-1}=R$ [equivalently, $1 \in J J^{-1}$ ].

Theorem 1.1.7. Let $R$ be a domain, $K=\mathrm{q}(R)$ and $J \subset K$ a fractional ideal of $R$. Then the map

$$
\Phi: J^{-1} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(J, R), \quad \text { defined by } \quad \Phi(c)(x)=c x \quad \text { for all } c \in J^{-1} \text { and } x \in J
$$

is an $R$-isomorphism, and $J$ is invertible if and only if it is a projective $R$-module.

Proof. If $c \in J^{-1}$, then $c x \in R$ for all $x \in J$, and $\varphi=(x \mapsto c x) \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(J, R)$. By definition, $\Phi$ is an $R$-module homomorphism, and as $J \neq \mathbf{0}$, it is a monomorphism. Hence we must prove that $\Phi$ is surjective. Thus suppose that $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(J, R), 0 \neq c \in J^{-1}$ and $x, y \in J^{\bullet}$. Then $\varphi(c x y)=c x \varphi(y)=$ $c y \varphi(x)$, and therefore $x^{-1} \varphi(x)=y^{-1} \varphi(y)$. Hence there exists some $\lambda \in K$ such that $\varphi(x)=\lambda x$ for all $x \in J$. Hence $\lambda J \subset R$, whence $\lambda \in J^{-1}$ and $\varphi=\Phi(\lambda)$.

Assume now that $J$ is invertible, and let $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in J$ and $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n} \in J^{-1}$ be such that $a_{1} c_{1}+$ $\ldots+a_{n} c_{n}=1$. If $a \in J$, then $a c_{i} \in R$ for all $i \in[1, n]$, and $a=a_{1} c_{1} a+\ldots+a_{n} c_{n} a \in{ }_{R}\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle$. Define $g: R^{n} \rightarrow J$ by $g\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=a_{1} x_{1}+\ldots+a_{n} x_{n}$ for all $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in R^{n}$, and $\psi: J \rightarrow R^{n}$ by $\psi(b)=\left(c_{1} b, \ldots, c_{n} b\right)$ for all $b \in J$. Then $g$ and $\psi$ are $R$-module homomorphisms, and $g \circ \psi=\mathrm{id}_{J}$. Hence $\psi$ is a splitting monomorphism, and thus $\operatorname{Im}(\psi) \oplus R^{n}$. Since $J \cong \operatorname{Im}(\psi)$, it follows that $J$ is projective.

Let now $J$ be projective. Then there exists an $R$-module epimorphism $g: R^{(I)} \rightarrow J$ for some set $I$, and we denote by $\left(e_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ the canonical basis of $R^{(I)}$, given by $e_{i}=\left(\delta_{i, j}\right)_{j \in I}$ for all $i \in I$. Since $J$ is projective, $g$ splits, and there is some $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(J, R^{(I)}\right)$ such that $g \circ \psi=\mathrm{id}_{J}$. We set $\psi=\left(\psi_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$, where $\psi_{i} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(J, R)$ for all $i \in I$, and if $x \in J$, then $\psi_{i}(x)=0$ for almost all $i \in I$. Then there exist elements $c_{i} \in J^{-1}$ such that $\psi_{i}(x)=c_{i} x$ for all $x \in J$ and $i \in I$. If $x \in J^{\bullet}$, then

$$
x=g \circ \psi(x)=g\left(\sum_{i \in I} \psi_{i}(x) e_{i}\right)=\sum_{i \in I} c_{i} x g\left(e_{i}\right) \quad \text { and therefore } \quad 1=\sum_{i \in I} c_{i} g\left(e_{i}\right) \in J^{-1} J=J J^{-1}
$$

Hence $J$ is invertible.
An $R$-module $M$ is called ( $R$-) divisible if $\lambda M=M$ for every $\lambda \in R \backslash \mathbf{z}(R)$. Consequently, an abelian group $A$ is divisible if $g A=A$ for all $g \in \mathbb{N}$. If $K$ is a field containing $\mathbb{Q}$, then the additive groups $K$ and $K / \mathbb{Z}$ are divisible.

## Theorem 1.1.8.

1. For an $R$-module $Q$, the following assertions are equivalent:
(a) $Q$ is injective.
(b) For every left ideal $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$ and every $R$-homomorphism $f: \mathfrak{a} \rightarrow Q$ there exists an $R$-homomorphism $h: R \rightarrow Q$ such that $h \mid \mathfrak{a}=f$.
(c) Every $R$-monomorphism $Q \rightarrow M$ splits.
(d) $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(-, Q): R$ - Mod $\rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ is an exact contravariant functor.
2. A direct product of a family of $R$-modules is injective if and only if every factor is injective.
3. Every injective $R$-module is divisible. If $R$ is a principal ideal domain, then every $R$-divisible $R$-module $Q$ is injective. In particular, an abelian group is injective if and only if it is divisible.

Proof. 1. (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b) Let $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$ be a left ideal, $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\mathfrak{a}, Q)$ and $j=(\mathfrak{a} \hookrightarrow R)$ the injection. Then the map $j^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, Q) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\mathfrak{a}, Q)$ is surjective, and thus there exists some $h \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, Q)$ such that $f=j^{*}(h)=h \circ j=h \mid \mathfrak{a}$.
(b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) (Reinhold Baer) Let $f: Q \rightarrow M$ be an $R$-monomorphism. We must prove that $f$ splits, and for this we may assume that $Q \subset M$ and $f=(Q \hookrightarrow M)$ is the injection. Indeed, if $f: Q \rightarrow M$ is any monomorphism, then there exists an $R$-overmodule $\bar{M} \supset Q$ and an $R$-isomorphism $\bar{f}: \bar{M} \xrightarrow{\sim} M$. If the injection $Q \hookrightarrow \bar{M}$ splits, then there is some $h \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\bar{M}, Q)$ such that $h \mid Q=\mathrm{id}_{Q}$. Then $h \circ \bar{f}^{-1} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, Q)$, and $\left(h \circ \bar{f}^{-1}\right) \circ f=\operatorname{id}_{M}$. Hence $f$ splits.

Thus assume that $Q \subset M$ is a submodule. We must prove that there is some $h \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, Q)$ such that $h \mid Q=\operatorname{id}_{Q}$. Let $\Omega$ be the set of all pairs $(C, \varphi)$, where $C$ is an $R$-module, $Q \subset C \subset M$, $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(C, Q)$, and $\varphi \mid Q=\operatorname{id}_{Q}$. Then $\left(Q, \operatorname{id}_{Q}\right) \in \Omega$, and we define a partial order on $\Omega$ by setting $(C, \varphi) \leq\left(C^{\prime}, \varphi^{\prime}\right)$ if $C \subset C^{\prime}$ and $\varphi^{\prime} \mid C=\varphi$. Then the union of every chain in $\Omega$ belongs again to $\Omega$, and by Zorn's Lemma $\Omega$ contains a maximal element $(C, h)$. We prove that $C=M$. Assume the contrary, pick some element $q \in M \backslash C$, and set $\bar{C}=C+R q \subset M$. Then $\mathfrak{a}=\{\lambda \in R \mid \lambda q \in C\} \subset R$ is a left ideal, and we define $\varphi: \mathfrak{a} \rightarrow Q$ by $\varphi(\lambda)=h(\lambda q)$. Then $\varphi$ is an $R$-homomorphism, and there exists some $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, Q)$ such that $\psi \mid \mathfrak{a}=\varphi$. Now we define $\bar{h}: \bar{C} \rightarrow Q$ by $\bar{h}(c+\lambda q)=h(c)+\psi(\lambda)$ for all $c \in C$ and $\lambda \in R$. We assert that this definition does not depend on the representatives. Indeed, if
$c+\lambda q=c^{\prime}+\lambda^{\prime} q$ for some $c, c^{\prime} \in C$ and $\lambda, \lambda^{\prime} \in R$, then $\left(\lambda-\lambda^{\prime}\right) q=c^{\prime}-c \in C$, hence $\lambda-\lambda^{\prime} \in \mathfrak{a}$, and $h\left(c^{\prime}\right)+\psi\left(\lambda^{\prime}\right)=h\left(c+\left(\lambda-\lambda^{\prime}\right) q\right)+\psi\left(\lambda^{\prime}-\lambda\right)=\psi(\lambda)=h(c)+h\left(\left(\lambda-\lambda^{\prime}\right) q\right)+\varphi\left(\lambda^{\prime}-\lambda\right)+\psi(\lambda)=h(c)+\psi(\lambda)$. Then $\bar{h} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\bar{C}, Q)$, and $\bar{h}|Q=(\bar{h} \mid C)| Q=h \mid Q=\mathrm{id}_{Q}$, contradicting the maximality of $(C, h)$.
$(\mathrm{c}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{d})$ Let $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime}$ be an exact sequence in $R$-Mod. We must prove that the sequence $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, Q\right) \xrightarrow{g^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, Q) \xrightarrow{f^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime}, Q\right)$ is exact. Clearly, $f^{*} \circ g^{*}=(g \circ f)^{*}=0^{*}=0$, and thus we must prove that $\operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{*}\right) \subset \operatorname{Im}\left(g^{*}\right)$. Suppose that $(\varphi: M \rightarrow Q) \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{*}\right)$. Then $0=f^{*}(\varphi)=\varphi \circ f$, hence $\operatorname{Ker}(g)=\operatorname{Im}(f) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$, and we must prove that there is some $\varphi^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, Q\right)$ such that $\varphi=g^{*}\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)=\varphi^{\prime} \circ g$.

We consider the submodule $N=\left\{(\varphi(m),-g(m) \mid m \in M\} \subset Q \oplus M^{\prime \prime}\right.$ and the $R$-homomorphism $\psi: Q \rightarrow Q \oplus M^{\prime \prime} / N$, defined by $\psi(q)=(q, 0)+N$. If $q \in \operatorname{Ker}(\psi)$, then $(q, 0)=(\varphi(m),-g(m))$ for some $m \in M$, hence $m \in \operatorname{Ker}(g) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$, and thus $q=\varphi(m)=0$. Therefore $q$ is a monomorphism and splits by assumption. Let $\pi: Q \oplus M^{\prime \prime} / N \rightarrow Q$ be an $R$-homomorphism such that $\pi \circ \psi=\operatorname{id}_{Q}$, and define $\varphi^{\prime}: M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow Q$ by $\varphi^{\prime}\left(m^{\prime \prime}\right)=\pi\left(\left(0, m^{\prime \prime}\right)+N\right)$. Then we obtain, for all $m \in M$,
$\varphi^{\prime} \circ g(m)=\pi((0, g(m)+N)=\pi((\varphi(m), 0)-(\varphi(m),-g(m))+N)=\pi((\varphi(m), 0)+N)=\pi \circ \psi \circ \varphi(m)=\varphi(m)$, and therefore $\varphi=\varphi^{\prime} \circ g$.
$(\mathrm{d}) \Rightarrow\left(\right.$ a) Let $f: M^{\prime} \rightarrow M$ be an $R$-monomorphism. Then the exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M$ entails an exact sequence $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, Q) \xrightarrow{f^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, Q^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$. Hence $f^{*}$ is surjective, and thus $Q$ is an injective module.
2. Exercise!
3. Let $Q$ be an injective $R$-module, $\lambda \in R \backslash \mathrm{z}(R)$. We must prove that $Q \subset \lambda Q$. Thus suppose that $m \in Q$, and define $\varphi: R \lambda \rightarrow Q$ by $\varphi(r \lambda)=r m$. As $\lambda \notin \mathrm{z}(R)$, it follows that $r \lambda=r^{\prime} \lambda$ implies $r=r^{\prime}$ for all $r, r^{\prime} \in R$, and therefore $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R \lambda, Q)$. Since $Q$ is injective, there exists some $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, Q)$ such that $\psi \mid R \lambda=\varphi$. Then $\lambda \psi(1)=\psi(\lambda)=\varphi(\lambda)=m \in \lambda Q$.

Let now $R$ be a principal ideal domain and $Q$ an $R$-divisible $R$-module. We verify condition 1.(b). Let $\mathfrak{a} \triangleleft R$ be an ideal. If $\mathfrak{a}=\mathbf{0}$, there is nothing to do. Thus suppose that $\mathfrak{a}=R \lambda$, where $\lambda \in R^{\bullet}$, and let $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\mathfrak{a}, Q)$. Since $Q$ is $R$-divisible, there exists some $x \in Q$ such that $\varphi(\lambda)=\lambda x$. We define $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, Q)$ by $\psi(r)=r x$ for all $r \in R$. If $s \in \mathfrak{a}=R \lambda$, say $s=r \lambda$, where $r \in R$, then $\psi(s)=r \lambda x=r \varphi(\lambda)=\varphi(r \lambda)=\varphi(s)$, and thus $\psi \mid \mathfrak{a}=\varphi$.

Theorem 1.1.9. For an abelian group $A$, we call $A^{\vee}=\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})$ the dual group of $A$.

1. Let $F$ be a free abelian group. Then $F^{\vee}$ is divisible [hence an injective $\mathbb{Z}$-module].
2. Let $A$ be an abelian group.
(a) The map $\beta: A \rightarrow A^{\vee \vee}$, defined by $\beta(a)(\varphi)=\varphi(a)$ for all $a \in A$ and $\varphi \in A^{\vee}$, is a monomorphism.
(b) There exists a monomorphism $A \rightarrow D$ into a divisible abelian group $D$.
3. Let $M$ be an $R$-module. Then there exists an $R$-monomorphism $j: M \rightarrow Q$ into an injective $R$-module $Q$.

Proof. 1. We may assume that $F=\mathbb{Z}^{(I)}$ for some set $I$. Then

$$
F^{\vee}=\operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{(I)}, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})^{I} \xrightarrow{\sim}(\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})^{I},
$$

and thus $F^{\vee}$ is divisible.
2. (a) Obviously, $\beta$ is a homomorphism, and therefore it suffices to prove: For every $a \in A$ such that $a \neq 0$, there exists some $\varphi \in A^{\vee}$ such that $\varphi(a) \neq 0$. Thus let $0 \neq a \in A$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$ such that $m \mathbb{Z}=\{g \in \mathbb{Z} \mid g a=0\}$. Then the exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow m \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{j} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\alpha} \mathbb{Z} a \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ (where $j$ is the injection, and $\alpha g=g a$ for all $g \in \mathbb{Z}$ ) induces an exact sequence
$\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z} a, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{j^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}(m \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})$, and $j^{*} \varphi=\varphi \mid m \mathbb{Z}$ for $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})$.

We assert that $j^{*}$ is not injective. This is obvious if $m=0$. If $m \neq 0$, let $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})$ be defined by $\varphi(g)=\frac{g}{m}+\mathbb{Z}$. Then $\varphi \neq 0$ and $j^{*}(\varphi)=\varphi \mid m \mathbb{Z}=0$. Since $\operatorname{Ker}\left(j^{*}\right) \neq \mathbf{0}$, it follows that $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z} a, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}) \neq \mathbf{0}$, and since $\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ is divisible, the map $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z} a, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})$, induced by the injection $\mathbb{Z} a \hookrightarrow A$ and given by $\varphi \mapsto \varphi \mid \mathbb{Z} a$, is surjective. If $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})$ is such that $\varphi \mid \mathbb{Z} a \neq 0$, then $\varphi(a) \neq 0$.
(b) Let $F$ be a free abelian group such that there is an epimorphism $F \xrightarrow{p} A^{\vee} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$. The induced sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow A^{\vee \vee}=\operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\vee}, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}\right) \xrightarrow{p^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}(F, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})=F^{\vee}$ is exact, and if $\beta: A \rightarrow A^{\vee \vee}$ is the monomorphism defined in (a), then $p^{*} \circ \beta A \rightarrow F^{\vee}$ is a monomorphism into a divisible abelian group.
3. By 2., there exists a group monomorphism $\iota: M \rightarrow D$ into a divisible abelian group $D$, and we consider the homomorphism $j: M \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(R, D)$, defined by $j(m)(r)=\iota(r m)$. Then $j$ is a group homomorphism, and if $m \in \operatorname{Ker}(j)$, then $0=j(m)(1)=\iota(m)$ and thus $m=0$. Hence $j$ is a monomorphism. The group $\operatorname{Hom}(R, D)=\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}\left(\mathbb{Z} R_{R}, \mathbb{Z} D\right)$ is a $R$-module by means of $(\lambda \varphi)(r)=\varphi(r \lambda)$ for all $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(R, D)$ and $\lambda, r \in R$, and it is easily checked that $j$ is an $R$-homomorphism. Hence we are done if we can prove that $\operatorname{Hom}(R, D)$ is an injective $R$-module.

Thus let $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow N^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} N$ be an exact sequence of $R$-modules and $\varphi: N^{\prime} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(R, D)$ an $R$-module homomorphism. We must show that there exists an $R$-homomorphism $\psi: N \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(R, D)$ such that $\psi \circ f=\varphi$. Let $\mu: \operatorname{Hom}(R, D) \rightarrow D$ be defined by $\mu(h)=h(1)$. Then $\mu$ is a group homomorphism, hence $\mu \circ \varphi: N^{\prime} \rightarrow D$ is a group homomorphism, and as $D$ is divisible, there exists a group homomorphism $\psi_{0}: N \rightarrow D$ such that $\psi_{0} \circ f=\mu \circ \varphi$. Now we define $\psi: N \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(R, D)$ by $\psi(n)(c)=\psi_{0}(c n)$ for all $n \in N$ and $c \in R$, and we assert that $\psi$ fulfills our requirements. We must prove: 1) If $n \in N$, then $\psi(n) \in \operatorname{Hom}(R, D)$; 2) $\psi$ is an $R$-homomorphism; 3) $\psi \circ f=\varphi$.

1) Let $n \in N$. If $c, c^{\prime} \in R$, then

$$
\psi(n)\left(c+c^{\prime}\right)=\psi_{0}\left(\left(c+c^{\prime}\right) n\right)=\psi_{0}\left(c n+c^{\prime} n\right)=\psi_{0}(c n)+\psi_{0}\left(c^{\prime} n\right)=\psi(n)(c)+\psi(n)\left(c^{\prime}\right)
$$

2) Let $n, n^{\prime} \in N$ and $\lambda \in R$. Then we obtain, for all $c \in R$,
$\psi\left(n+n^{\prime}\right)(c)=\psi_{0}\left(c\left(n+n^{\prime}\right)\right)=\psi_{0}\left(c n+c n^{\prime}\right)=\psi_{0}(c n)+\psi_{0}\left(c^{\prime} n\right)=\psi(n)(c),+\psi\left(n^{\prime}\right)(c)=\left(\psi(n)+\psi\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)(c)$, hence $\psi\left(n+n^{\prime}\right)=\psi(n)+\psi\left(n^{\prime}\right)$, and $\psi(\lambda n)(c)=\psi_{0}(c \lambda n)=\psi(n)(c \lambda)=[\lambda \psi(n)](c)$, and therefore $\psi(\lambda n)=\lambda \psi(n)$.
3) If $n^{\prime} \in N^{\prime}$ and $c \in R$, then

$$
\psi \circ f\left(n^{\prime}\right)(c)=\psi_{0}\left(c f\left(n^{\prime}\right)=\psi_{0} \circ f\left(c n^{\prime}\right)=\mu \circ \varphi\left(c n^{\prime}\right)=\varphi\left(c n^{\prime}\right)(1)=\left[c \varphi\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right](1)=\varphi\left(n^{\prime}\right)(c) .\right.
$$

### 1.2. Tensor products

Let $R$ and $S$ be rings.
Definition. Let $M=M_{R}$ be a right and $N={ }_{R} N$ a left $R$-module.

1. Let $F$ be the free $\mathbb{Z}$-module with basis $M \times N$. The elements of $\xi \in F$ have a unique representation

$$
\xi=\sum_{(m, n) \in M \times N} \lambda_{m, n}(m, n), \quad \text { where } \quad \lambda_{m, n} \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad \lambda_{m, n}=0 \quad \text { for almost all }(m, n) \in M \times N
$$

Let $Q \subset F$ be the subgroup generated by all elements of the following types :

$$
\left(m+m^{\prime}, n\right)-(m, n)-\left(m^{\prime}, n\right), \quad\left(m, n+n^{\prime}\right)-(m, n)-\left(m, n^{\prime}\right), \quad(m \lambda, n)-(m, \lambda n)
$$

for any $m, m^{\prime} \in M, n, n^{\prime} \in N$ and $\lambda \in R$. The quotient group $M \otimes_{R} N=F / Q$ is called the tensor product of $M$ and $N$ over $R$. For $(m, n) \in M \times N$, we call $m \otimes n=(m, n)+T \in M \otimes_{R} N$ the elementary tensor of $m$ and $n$. Clearly, $M \otimes N=\mathbb{Z}_{\mathbb{Z}}\langle\{m \otimes n \mid(m, n) \in M \times N\}\rangle$, and for all $m, m^{\prime} \in M, n, n^{\prime} \in N$ and $\lambda \in R$, we have
$\left(m+m^{\prime}\right) \otimes n=m \otimes n+m^{\prime} \otimes n, \quad m \otimes\left(n+n^{\prime}\right)=m \otimes n+m \otimes n^{\prime}$ and $m \lambda \otimes n=m \otimes \lambda n$.
In particular, $g m \otimes n=m \otimes g n=g(m \otimes n)$ for all $g \in \mathbb{Z}$ [indeed, for $g \in \mathbb{N}$ this follows by induction, $0 \otimes n+0 \otimes n=0 \otimes n$ and $m \otimes 0+m \otimes 0=m \otimes 0$ implies $m \otimes 0=0 \otimes n=0$, and if $g \in \mathbb{N}$, then $(-g m) \otimes n+g m \otimes n=0 \otimes n=0$ implies $(-g m) \otimes n=-(g m \otimes n)=-g(m \otimes n)$, and similarly $m \otimes(-g n)=-m \otimes g n=-g(m \otimes n)]$.

Every $\xi \in M \otimes_{R} N$ has a (in general not unique) representation

$$
\xi=\sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i} \otimes n_{i}, \quad \text { where } \quad k \in \mathbb{N}, m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k} \in M \text { and } n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k} \in N
$$

Indeed, by definition

$$
\xi=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_{i}\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)+Q=\sum_{i=1}^{k}\left(\lambda_{i} x_{i}, y_{i}\right)+Q=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_{i} x_{i} \otimes y_{i}
$$

where $\lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad x_{i} \in M$ and $y_{i} \in N$.
2. Let $L$ be an abelian group. A map $\beta: M \times N \rightarrow L$ is called $R$-balanced if, for all $m, m^{\prime} \in M$, $n, n^{\prime} \in N$ and $\lambda \in R$ we have

$$
\beta\left(m+m^{\prime}, n\right)=\beta(m, n)+\beta\left(m^{\prime}, n\right), \quad \beta\left(m, n+n^{\prime}\right)=\beta(m, n)+\beta\left(m, n^{\prime}\right)
$$

and

$$
\beta(m \lambda, n)=\beta(m, \lambda n)
$$

By definition, the map $M \times N \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N$ is $R$-balanced, and if $\beta: M \times N \rightarrow L$ is any $R$ balanced map, then there exists a unique group homomorphism $f: M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow L$ such that $f(m \otimes n)=\beta(m, n)$ for all $(m, n) \in M \times N$ [indeed, there exists a unique $\mathbb{Z}$-homomorphism $\beta^{*}: F \rightarrow L$ such that $\beta^{*} \mid M \times N=\beta$, and, by definition, $Q \subset \operatorname{Ker}\left(\beta^{*}\right)$. Hence $\beta^{*}$ induces $f$ as asserted].

Example. Let $M={ }_{R} M$ be an $R$-module and $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$ a subset. Then

$$
\mathfrak{a} M=\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} m_{i} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in \mathfrak{a}, m_{1}, \ldots, m_{n} \in M\right\} \subset M
$$

is a subgroup (even an $R$-submodule if $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$ is a left ideal). Assume now that $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$ is a right ideal. Then the map $\mathfrak{a} \times M \rightarrow M$, defined by $(a, m) \mapsto a m$, is $R$-balanced and induces a homomorphism $\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{M}: \mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} M \rightarrow M$ such that $\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{M}(a \otimes m)=a m$ for all $a \in \mathfrak{a}$ and $m \in M$. It is called the multiplication homomorphism of $\mathfrak{a}$ on $M$. By definition, $\operatorname{Im}\left(\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{M}\right)=\mathfrak{a} M$, and if $\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{M}$ is a monomorphism, then it induces an isomorphism $\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{M}: \mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} M \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathfrak{a} M$.

Theorem 1.2.1. Let $M=M_{R}$ be a right and $N={ }_{R} N$ a left $R$-module.

1. If ${ }_{S} M_{R}$ is an $(S, R)$-bimodule, then there is a unique $S$-module structure on $M \otimes_{R} N$ such that $s(m \otimes n)=s m \otimes n$ for all $s \in S, \quad m \in M$ and $n \in N$. In the same way, if ${ }_{R} N_{S}$ is an $(R, S)$-bimodule, then there is a unique right $S$-module structure on $M \otimes_{R} N$ such that $(m \otimes n) s=m \otimes n s$ for all $s \in S, \quad m \in M$ and $n \in N:$

$$
S_{S}\left(S_{R} \otimes_{R R} N\right) \quad \text { and } \quad\left(M_{R} \otimes_{R R} N_{S}\right)_{S}
$$

2. Let $R$ be commutative.
(a) There is a unique $R$-module structure on $M \otimes_{R} N$ such that $r(m \otimes n)=r m \otimes n=m \otimes r n$ for all $m \in M, \quad n \in N$ and $r \in R$.
(b) Let $L$ be an $R$-module and $\beta: M \times N \rightarrow L$ an $R$-bilinear map. Then there exists a unique $R$-homomorphism $g: M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow L$ such that $g(m \otimes n)=\beta(m, n)$ for all $(m, n) \in M \times N$.
Proof. 1. Uniqueness. An $S$-module structure on $M \otimes_{R} N$ is given by a ring homomorphism $\theta: S \rightarrow \operatorname{End}\left(M \otimes_{R} N\right)$. If $s \in S$, then the group homomorphism $\theta(s): M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N$ is uniquely determined by the values $\theta(s)(m \otimes n) \in M \otimes_{R} N$ for $(m, n) \in M \times N$, since $M \otimes_{R} N$ is the abelian group generated by the elementary tensors.

Existence. For $s \in S$, we define $\tau_{s}: M \times N \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N$ by $\tau_{s}(m, n)=s m \otimes n$. Then $\tau_{s}$ is $R$-balanced. Indeed, if $m, m^{\prime} \in M, n, n^{\prime} \in N$ and $\lambda \in R$, then

$$
\begin{gathered}
\tau_{s}\left(m+m^{\prime}, n\right)=s\left(m+m^{\prime}\right) \otimes n=\left(s m+s m^{\prime}\right) \otimes n=s m \otimes n+s m^{\prime} \otimes n=\tau_{s}(m, n)+\tau_{s}\left(m^{\prime}, n\right) \\
\tau_{s}\left(m, n+n^{\prime}\right)=s m \otimes\left(n+n^{\prime}\right)=s m \otimes n+s m \otimes n^{\prime}=\tau_{s}(m, n)+\tau_{s}\left(m, n^{\prime}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

and (now using the bimodule structure)

$$
\tau_{s}(m \lambda, n)=s(m \lambda) \otimes n=(s m) \lambda \otimes n=s m \otimes \lambda n=\tau_{s}(m \lambda n)
$$

Hence $\tau_{s}$ induces a unique endomorphism $\theta(s) \in \operatorname{End}\left(M \otimes_{R} N\right)$ such that $\theta(s)(m \otimes n)=s m \otimes n$ for all $(m, n) \in M \times N$. We must prove that $\theta: S \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(M \otimes N)$ is a ring homomorphism. We must prove that $\theta(1)=\operatorname{id}_{M \otimes_{R} N}, \quad \theta\left(s+s^{\prime}\right)=\theta(s)+\theta\left(s^{\prime}\right)$ and $\theta\left(s s^{\prime}\right)=\theta(s) \circ \theta\left(s^{\prime}\right)$ holds in $\operatorname{End}\left(M \otimes_{R} N\right)$ for all $s, s^{\prime} \in S$, and it suffices to prove these relations point-wise on the elementary tensors. But this is easy. The right module structure is proved in the same way.
2. (a) Observe that $M={ }_{R} M_{R}$.
(b) If $\beta: M \times N \rightarrow L$ is $R$-bilinear, then $\beta(m, \lambda n)=\lambda \beta(m, n)=\beta(\lambda m, n)=\beta(m \lambda, n)$. In particular, $\beta$ is $R$-balanced. Let $g: M \otimes N \rightarrow L$ be the unique group homomorphism satisfying $g(m \otimes n)=\beta(m, n)$ for all $(m, n) \in M \times N$. If $\lambda \in R$, then $g(\lambda(m \otimes n))=g(\lambda m \otimes n)=\beta(\lambda m, n)=\lambda \beta(m, n)=\lambda g(m \otimes n)$ for all $(m, n) \in M \times N$. If $\xi \in M \otimes_{R} N$ is arbitrary, then

$$
\xi=\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} \otimes n_{i} \quad \text { and } \quad g(\lambda \xi)=g\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda m_{i} \otimes n_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} g\left(\lambda m_{i} \otimes n_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda g\left(m_{i} \otimes n_{i}\right)=\lambda g(\xi)
$$

Hence $g$ is an $R$-homomorphism.

Definition. Let $f: R \rightarrow S$ be a ring homomorphism and $M$ an $R$-module. As $S={ }_{S} S_{R}$ is a two-sided $(S, R)$-bimodule, $S \otimes_{R} M$ is an $S$-module, and $s^{\prime}(s \otimes m)=s s^{\prime} \otimes m$ for all $s, s^{\prime} \in S$ and $m \in M$. The $S$-module $S \otimes_{R} M$ is called the base extension of $M$ with $S$.

Theorem and Definition 1.2.2. Let $f: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ be a homomorphism of right $R$-modules and $g: N \rightarrow N^{\prime}$ a homomorphism of (left) R-modules. Then there exists a unique group homomorphism
$f \otimes g: M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime}$ such that $(f \otimes g)(m \otimes n)=f(m) \otimes g(n)$ for all $m \in M$ and $n \in N$. It has the following properties:

1. If $f, f_{1}: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ and $g, g_{1}: N \rightarrow N^{\prime}$ are $R$-homomorphisms, then

$$
\left(f+f_{1}\right) \otimes g=f \otimes g+f_{1} \otimes g \quad \text { and } \quad f \otimes\left(g+g_{1}\right)=f \otimes g+f \otimes g_{1}
$$

2. If $M \xrightarrow{f} M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f^{\prime}} M^{\prime \prime}$ and $N \xrightarrow{g} N^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g^{\prime}} N^{\prime \prime}$ are $R$-homomorphisms, then

$$
\left(f^{\prime} \otimes g^{\prime}\right) \circ(f \otimes g)=\left(f^{\prime} \circ f\right) \otimes\left(g^{\prime} \circ g\right)
$$

3. If $R$ is commutative, then $f \otimes g$ is an $R$-homomorphism, and if $\lambda \in R$, then $\lambda f \otimes g=f \otimes \lambda g$.

We call $f \otimes g$ the tensor product of the homomorphisms $f$ and $g$. We write $f \otimes N=f \otimes \mathrm{id}_{N}$ and $M \otimes g=\operatorname{id}_{M} \otimes g$. Obviously, $\mathrm{id}_{M} \otimes \mathrm{id}_{N}=\operatorname{id}_{M \otimes_{R} N}$. Consequently $M \otimes-: R$-Mod $\rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ and $-\otimes N: \mathbf{M o d}-R \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ are additive (covariant) functors.
Caution! The tensor product $f \otimes g: M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime}$ is different from the elementary tensor $f \otimes g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, M^{\prime}\right) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, N^{\prime}\right)$.

Proof. It is easily checked that the map $F: M \times N \rightarrow M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime}$, defined by $F(m, n)=f(m) \otimes g(n)$ is $R$-balanced, and thus it induces a group homomorphism $f \otimes g: M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime}$ such that $(f \otimes g)(m \otimes n)=f(m) \otimes g(n)$ for all $(m, n) \in M \times N$. The remaining assertions are easily checked point-wise for elementary tensors, and by linearity they hold in general.

Theorem 1.2.3. Let $M=M_{R}$ be a right and $N={ }_{R} N$ a left $R$-module.

1. The map $\Phi=\Phi_{N}: N \rightarrow R \otimes_{R} N$, defined by $\Phi(n)=1 \otimes n$ for all $n \in N$, is an $R$-isomorhism. It is functorial in $N$, and $\Phi^{-1}=\mu_{R}^{N}: R \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow N$ is the multiplication homomorphism of $R$ on $N$, given by $\mu_{R}^{N}(r \otimes n)=r n$ for all $r \in R$ and $n \in N$ (see Example 1.2).
2. There is a unique isomorphism $\Phi: M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow N \otimes_{R^{\text {op }}} M$ such that $\Phi(m \otimes n)=n \otimes m$ for all $(m, n) \in M \times N$. It is functorial in $M$ and $N$. In particular, if $R$ is commutative, then $\Phi: M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow N \otimes_{R} M$ is an $R$-module isomorphism, and we identify $M \otimes_{R} N=N \otimes_{R} M$ by means of $\Phi$.
3. Let $P={ }_{S} P$ an $S$-module.
(a) If $N={ }_{R} N_{S}$ is an $(R, S)$-bimodule, then there is a unique isomorphism

$$
\Phi:\left(M \otimes_{R} N\right) \otimes_{S} P \rightarrow M \otimes_{R}\left(N \otimes_{S} P\right)
$$

such that $\Phi((m \otimes n) \otimes p)=m \otimes(n \otimes p)$ for all $m \in M, \quad n \in N$ and $p \in P$. It is functorial in $M, N$ and $P$, and we identify by means of $\Phi:\left(M \otimes_{R} N\right) \otimes_{S} P=M \otimes_{R}\left(N \otimes_{S} P\right)$.
(b) If $M={ }_{S} M_{R}$ is an $(S, R)$-bimodule, then the map

$$
\Phi: \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M \otimes_{R} N, P\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(M, P),\right.
$$

defined by $\Phi(f)(m)(n)=f(m \otimes n)$ for all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M \otimes_{R} N, P\right), n \in N$ and $m \in M$, is a group isomorphism. It is functorial in $M, N$ and $P$.
Proof. 1. $R \otimes_{R} N={ }_{R} R_{R} \otimes_{R}{ }_{R} N$ is an $R$-module, and $\lambda(r \otimes n)=\lambda r \otimes n$ for all $\lambda, r \in R$ and $n \in N$.

If $n, n^{\prime} \in N$ and $\lambda \in R$, then $\Phi\left(n+n^{\prime}\right)=1 \otimes\left(n+n^{\prime}\right)=1 \otimes n+1 \otimes n^{\prime}=\Phi(n)+\Phi\left(n^{\prime}\right)$, and $\Phi(\lambda n)=1 \otimes \lambda n=\lambda \otimes n=\lambda(1 \otimes n)=\lambda \Phi(n)$. Hence $\Phi$ is an $R$-homomorphism. If $\mu=\mu_{R}^{N}$, then $\mu \circ \Phi(n)=\mu(1 \otimes n)=n$, and $\Phi \circ \mu(r \otimes n)=\Phi(r n)=1 \otimes r n=r \otimes n$. Hence $\mu \circ \Phi=\mathrm{id}_{N}$, and since $\Phi \circ \mu: R \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow N$ is a homomorphism, it follows that $\Phi \circ \mu=\operatorname{id}_{R \otimes_{R} N}$. Thus $\Phi$ is an isomorphism.

To prove that $\Phi$ is functorial, let $f: N \rightarrow N^{\prime}$ be an $R$-homomorphism. Then the diagram

commutes. Indeed, if $n \in N$, then $(R \otimes f) \circ \Phi_{N}(n)=(R \otimes f)(1 \otimes n)=1 \otimes f(n)=\Phi_{N^{\prime}} \circ f(n)$.
2. Obvious.
3. (a) Exercise!
(b) We shall proceed in 4 steps : 1) For all $n \in N$ and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M \otimes_{R} N, P\right)$, the map $g: M \rightarrow P$, defined by $g(m)=f(m \otimes n)$, is an $S$-homomorphism; 2) For all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M \otimes_{R} N, P\right)$, the map $\Phi(f): N \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(M, P)$, defined by $\Phi(f)(n)(m)=f(m \otimes n)$, is an $R$-homomorphism; 3) $\Phi$ is a group homomorphism, which is functorial in $M, N$ and $P$; 4) $\Phi$ is bijective.

1) Let $n \in N, f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M \otimes_{R} N, P\right), m, m^{\prime} \in M$ and $s \in S$. Then

$$
g\left(m+m^{\prime}\right)=f\left(\left(m+m^{\prime}\right) \otimes n\right)=f\left(m \otimes n+m^{\prime} \otimes n\right)=f(m \otimes n)+f\left(m^{\prime} \otimes n\right)=g(m)+g\left(m^{\prime}\right)
$$

and $g(s m)=f(s m \otimes n)=f(s(m \otimes n))=s f(m \otimes n)=s g(m)$.
2) Let $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M \otimes_{R} N, P\right), n, n^{\prime} \in N$ and $r \in R$. For all $m \in M$ we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Phi(f)\left(n+n^{\prime}\right)(m) & =f\left(m \otimes\left(n+n^{\prime}\right)\right)=f\left(m \otimes n+m \otimes n^{\prime}\right)=f(m \otimes n)+f\left(m \otimes n^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\Phi(f)(n)(m)+\Phi(f)\left(n^{\prime}\right)(m)=\left[\Phi(f)(n)+\Phi(f)\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right](m)
\end{aligned}
$$

and $\Phi(f)(r n)(m)=f(m \otimes r n)=f(m r \otimes n)=\Phi(f)(n)(m r)=[r \Phi(f)(n)](m)$. Hence it follows that $\Phi(f)\left(n+n^{\prime}\right)=\Phi(f)(n)+\Phi(f)\left(n^{\prime}\right)$ and $\Phi(f)(r n)=r \Phi(f)(n)$.
3) If $f, f^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M \otimes_{R} N, P\right)$, then we obtain, for all $n \in N$ and $m \in M$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Phi\left(f+f^{\prime}\right)(n)(m) & =\left(f+f^{\prime}\right)(m \otimes n)=f(m \otimes n)+f^{\prime}(m \otimes n)=\Phi(f)(n)(m)+\Phi\left(f^{\prime}\right)(n)(m) \\
& =\left[\Phi(f)(n)+\Phi\left(f^{\prime}\right)(n)\right](m)=\left[\Phi(f)+\Phi\left(f^{\prime}\right)\right](n)(m)
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $\Phi\left(f+f^{\prime}\right)=\Phi(f)+\Phi\left(f^{\prime}\right)$. To prove that $\Phi$ is factorial, let $M^{\prime}={ }_{S} M_{R}^{\prime}, N^{\prime}={ }_{R} N^{\prime}, P^{\prime}={ }_{S} P^{\prime}$, and $\mu \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime}, M\right), \quad \nu \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N^{\prime}, N\right)$ and $\pi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(P, P^{\prime}\right)$. Then we must prove that the following diagram commutes:

where $\psi=\mu^{*} \circ \pi_{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(M, P) \xrightarrow{\pi_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M, P^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\mu^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M^{\prime}, P^{\prime}\right)$. If $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M \otimes_{R} N, P\right)$, then we obtain, for all $n^{\prime} \in N^{\prime}$ and $m^{\prime} \in M^{\prime}$,

$$
\left[\Phi^{\prime} \circ \pi_{*} \circ(\mu \otimes \nu)^{*}(f)\right]\left(n^{\prime}\right)\left(m^{\prime}\right)=\pi_{*} \circ(\mu \otimes \nu)^{*}(f)\left(m^{\prime} \otimes n^{\prime}\right)=\pi \circ f\left(\mu\left(m^{\prime}\right) \otimes \nu\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[\psi_{*} \circ \nu^{*} \circ \Phi(f)\right]\left(n^{\prime}\right)\left(m^{\prime}\right) } & =\left[\mu^{*} \circ \pi_{*} \circ \nu^{*} \circ \Phi(f)\right]\left(n^{\prime}\right)\left(m^{\prime}\right)=\left[\pi_{*} \circ \nu^{*} \circ \Phi(f)\right]\left(n^{\prime}\right)\left(\mu\left(m^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
& =\pi \circ \Phi(f)\left(\nu\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)\left(\mu\left(m^{\prime}\right)\right)=\pi \circ f\left(\mu\left(m^{\prime}\right) \otimes \nu\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

4) For $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(M, P)\right.$, we define $F_{g}: M \times N \rightarrow P$ by $F_{g}(m, n)=g(n)(m)$, and we assert that $F_{g}$ is $R$-balanced. It is obviously bilinear, and if $m \in M, n \in N$ and $r \in R$, then $F_{g}(m r, n)=g(n)(m r)=[r g(n)](m)=g(r n)(m)=F_{g}(m, r n)$. Hence there exists a unique group homomorphism $\varphi_{g}: M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow P$ such that $\varphi_{g}(m \otimes n)=g(n)(m)$ for all $(m, n) \in M \times N$, and we assert that $\varphi_{g}$ is even an $S$-homomorphism. Indeed, if $s \in S$ and $(m, n) \in M \times N$, then we obtain $\varphi_{g}(s(m \otimes n))=\varphi_{g}(s m \otimes n)=g(n)(s m)=s g(n)(m)=s \varphi_{g}(m \otimes n)$, and by linearity it follows that $\varphi_{g}(s \xi)=s \varphi_{g}(\xi)$ for all $\xi \in M \otimes_{R} N$. Now we define

$$
\Psi: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(M, P)\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M \otimes_{R} N, P\right) \quad \text { by } \quad \Psi(g)=\varphi_{g}
$$

Obviously, $\Psi$ is a group homomorphism. If $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M \otimes_{R} N, P\right)$, then $\Psi \circ \Phi(f)(m \otimes n)=\varphi_{\Phi(f)}(m \otimes n)=$ $\Phi(f)(n)(m)=f(m \otimes n)$ for all $(m, n) \in M \times N$, and therefore $\Psi \circ \Phi(f)=f$. If $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(M, P)\right)$,
then it follows that $\Phi \circ \Psi(g)(n)(m)=\Psi(g)(m \otimes n)=\varphi_{g}(m \otimes n)=g(n)(m)$ for all $(m, n) \in M \times N$, and therefore $\Phi \circ \Psi(g)=g$.

Theorem 1.2.4. Let $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{i} M \xrightarrow{f} M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ be an exact sequence of right $R$-modules, and let $N^{\prime} \xrightarrow{j} N \xrightarrow{g} N^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ be an exact sequence of left $R$-modules.

1. The sequences

$$
M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N \xrightarrow{i \otimes N} M \otimes_{R} N \xrightarrow{f \otimes N} M^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow \mathbf{0} \quad \text { and } \quad M \otimes_{R} N^{\prime} \xrightarrow{M \otimes j} M \otimes_{R} N \xrightarrow{M \otimes g} M \otimes_{R} N^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}
$$

are exact.
2. The map $f \otimes g: M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime \prime}$ is an epimorphism, and

$$
\operatorname{Ker}(f \otimes g)=\operatorname{Im}(i \otimes N)+\operatorname{Im}(M \otimes j)
$$

is exact.
Proof. 1. We apply Theorem 1.1.5. We must prove that, for all abelian groups $X$, the sequence

$$
\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{R} N, X\right) \xrightarrow{(f \otimes N)^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}\left(M \otimes_{R} N, X\right) \xrightarrow{(i \otimes N)^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}\left(M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N, X\right)
$$

is exact. If $X$ is an abelian group, then $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, X\right) \xrightarrow{f^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}(M, X) \xrightarrow{i^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}\left(M^{\prime}, X\right)$ is an exact sequence. By Theorem 1.2.3, we obtain a commutative diagram

where the bottom row is exact. Hence the upper row is also exact. The second assertion follows since there is a functorial isomorphism $M \otimes_{R} N \xrightarrow{\sim} N \otimes_{R^{\text {op }}} M$.
2. $f \otimes g=\left(M^{\prime \prime} \otimes g\right) \circ(f \otimes N): M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime \prime}$ is an epimorphism, since $f \otimes N$ and $M^{\prime \prime} \otimes g$ are epimorphisms. As $(f \otimes g) \circ(i \otimes N)=(f \circ i) \otimes g=0$ and $(f \otimes g) \circ(M \otimes j)=f \otimes(g \circ j)=0$, it follows that $\operatorname{Im}(i \otimes N)+\operatorname{Im}(M \otimes j) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(f \otimes g)$.

Assume that $z \in \operatorname{Ker}(f \otimes g)$. Since $f \otimes g=\left(f \otimes N^{\prime \prime}\right) \circ(M \otimes g): M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime \prime}$, it follows that $(M \otimes g)(z) \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(f \otimes N^{\prime \prime}\right)$. By 1., there are exact sequences
$M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{i \otimes N^{\prime \prime}} M \otimes_{R} N^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{f \otimes N^{\prime \prime}} M^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ and $M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime} \xrightarrow{M^{\prime} \otimes j} M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N \xrightarrow{M^{\prime} \otimes g} M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$.
Hence it follows that
$\operatorname{Ker}\left(f \otimes N^{\prime \prime}\right)=\operatorname{Im}\left(i \otimes N^{\prime \prime}\right)=\left(i \otimes N^{\prime \prime}\right)\left(M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime \prime}\right)=\left(i \otimes N^{\prime \prime}\right) \circ\left(M^{\prime} \otimes g\right)\left(M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N\right)=(i \otimes g)\left(M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N\right)$, and there exists some $u \in M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N$ such that $(M \otimes g)(z)=(i \otimes g)(u)$. Then $b=z-(i \otimes N)(u) \in M \otimes_{R} N$, and $(M \otimes g)(b)=(M \otimes g)(z)-(M \otimes g) \circ(i \otimes N)(u)=(i \otimes g)(u)-(i \otimes g)(u)=0$. Hence we finally obtain $z=(i \otimes N)(u)+b \in \operatorname{Im}(i \otimes N)+\operatorname{Im}(M \otimes j)$.

## Theorem 1.2.5.

1. Let $\left(M_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ be a family of right $R$-modules and $\left(N_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$ a family of left $R$-modules. Then there exists a unique isomorphism

$$
\Phi:\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}\right) \otimes_{R}\left(\bigoplus_{j \in J} N_{j}\right) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{(i, j) \in I \times J}\left(M_{i} \otimes_{R} N_{j}\right)
$$

such that $\Phi\left(\left(m_{i}\right)_{i \in I} \otimes\left(n_{j}\right)_{j \in J}\right)=\left(m_{i} \otimes n_{j}\right)_{(i, j) \in I \times J}$ for all families $\left(m_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ and $\left(n_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$; it is functorial in $\left(M_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ and in $\left(N_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$.
2. Let $N$ be a free left $R$-module with basis $\left(v_{j}\right)_{j \in J}, M$ a right $R$-module and $z \in M \otimes_{R} N$. Then $z$ has a unique representation

$$
z=\sum_{j \in J} m_{j} \otimes v_{j}, \quad \text { where } m_{j} \in M \text { for all and } m_{j}=0 \text { for almost all } j \in J
$$

3. Let $f: R \rightarrow S$ be a ring homomorphism and $M$ an $R$-module.
(a) If $M$ is a free $R$-module with basis $\left(u_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$, then $S \otimes_{R} M$ is a free $S$-module with basis $\left(1 \otimes u_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$.
(b) If $M$ is a projective [finitely generated] $R$-module, then $S \otimes_{R} M$ is a projective [finitely generated] $S$-module.
4. Let $R$ be commutative, and let $M, N$ be $R$-modules.
(a) Let $M$ be free with basis $\left(u_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ and $N$ free with basis $\left(v_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$. Then $M \otimes_{R} N$ is a free $R$-module with basis $\left(u_{i} \otimes v_{j}\right)_{(i, j) \in I \times J}$.
(b) Let $M$ and $N$ be both finitely generated [projective], then $M \otimes_{R} N$ is finitely generated [projective].

Proof. 1. We define

$$
F:\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}\right) \times\left(\bigoplus_{j \in J} N_{j}\right) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{(i, j) \in I \times J}\left(M_{i} \otimes_{R} N_{j}\right) \quad \text { by } \quad F\left(\left(m_{i}\right)_{i \in I},\left(n_{j}\right)_{j \in J}\right)=\left(m_{i} \otimes n_{j}\right)_{(i, j) \in I \times J}
$$

Then $F$ is $R$-balanced and induces a homomorphism

$$
\Phi:\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}\right) \otimes_{R}\left(\bigoplus_{j \in J} N_{j}\right) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{(i, j) \in I \times J}\left(M_{i} \otimes_{R} N_{j}\right)
$$

such that $\Phi\left(\left(m_{i}\right)_{i \in I} \otimes\left(n_{j}\right)_{j \in J}\right)=\left(m_{i} \otimes n_{j}\right)_{(i, j) \in I \times J}$ for all families $\left(m_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ and $\left(n_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$. Obviously, $\Phi$ is functorial in $\left(M_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ and in $\left(N_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$. For $\lambda \in I$ and $\mu \in J$, the injections

$$
\varepsilon_{\lambda}: M_{\lambda} \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i} \quad \text { and } \quad \eta_{\mu}: N_{\mu} \rightarrow \bigoplus_{j \in J} N_{j} \quad \text { induce } \quad \varepsilon_{\lambda} \otimes \eta_{\lambda}: M_{\lambda} \otimes N_{\nu} \rightarrow\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}\right) \otimes_{R}\left(\bigoplus_{j \in J} N_{j}\right)
$$

and

$$
\Psi=\left(\varepsilon_{i} \otimes \eta_{j}\right)_{(i, j) \in I \times J}: \bigoplus_{(i, j) \in I \times J}\left(M_{i} \otimes_{R} N_{j}\right) \rightarrow\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}\right) \otimes_{R}\left(\bigoplus_{j \in J} N_{j}\right)
$$

is a homomorphism satisfying $\Phi \circ \Psi=\mathrm{id}$ and $\Psi \circ \Phi=\mathrm{id}$.
2. As $\left(v_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$ is an $R$-basis of $N$, the map

$$
\theta: \bigoplus_{j \in J} R v_{j} \rightarrow N, \quad \text { defined by } \quad \theta\left(\left(\lambda_{j} v_{j}\right)_{j \in J}\right)=\sum_{j \in J} \lambda_{j} v_{j}, \quad \text { is an isomorphism. }
$$

For every $j \in J$, the isomorphism $R \rightarrow R v_{j}$ induces an isomorphism $\mu_{j}: M \xrightarrow{\sim} M \otimes R \xrightarrow{\sim} M \otimes R v_{j}$, given by $\mu_{j}(m)=m \otimes v_{j}$. Now we consider the sequence of isomorphisms

$$
F: M^{(J)} \xrightarrow{\left(\mu_{j}\right)_{j \in J}} \bigoplus_{j \in J} M \otimes_{R} R v_{j} \xrightarrow{\Psi} M \otimes_{R} \bigoplus_{j \in J} R v_{j} \xrightarrow{M \otimes \theta} M \otimes_{R} N
$$

where $\Psi$ is the inverse of the isomorphism given in 1. , and thus

$$
\Psi\left(m_{j} \otimes v_{j}\right)_{j \in J}=\Psi\left(\sum_{i \in I}\left(m_{i} \otimes \delta_{i, j} v_{j}\right)\right)=\sum_{i \in I} m_{i} \otimes\left(\delta_{i, j} v_{j}\right)_{j \in J}
$$

Hence

$$
F\left(\left(m_{j}\right)_{j \in J}\right)=(M \otimes \theta)\left(\sum_{i \in I} m_{i} \otimes\left(\delta_{i, j} v_{j}\right)_{j \in J}\right)=\sum_{i \in I} m_{i} \otimes \sum_{j \in J} \delta_{i, j} v_{j}=\sum_{j \in J} m_{j} \otimes v_{j}
$$

Hence every $z \in M \otimes_{R} N$ has a unique representation

$$
z=\sum_{j \in J} m_{j} \otimes v_{j}, \quad \text { where } m_{j} \in M \text { for all and } m_{j}=0 \text { for almost all } j \in J .
$$

3.(a) Let $\left(u_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ be an $R$-basis of $M$. By 2., every $z \in S \otimes_{R} M$ has a unique representation

$$
z=\sum_{i \in I} a_{i} \otimes u_{i}=\sum_{i \in I} a_{i}\left(1 \otimes u_{i}\right), \quad \text { where } \quad a_{i} \in S, a_{i}=0 \text { for almost all } i \in I
$$

Hence $\left(1 \otimes u_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ is an $S$-basis of $S \otimes_{R} M$.
(b) Let $M$ be a projective $R$-module and $M^{\prime}$ an $R$-module such that $F=M \oplus M^{\prime}$ is free. Then $S \otimes_{R} F$ is a free $S$-module, and there is an $S$-module isomorphism $\left(S \otimes_{R} M\right) \oplus\left(S \otimes_{R} M^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} S \otimes_{R} F$. Hence $S \otimes_{R} M$ is a projective $S$-module.

Let $M$ be a finitely generated $R$-module, $n \in N$ and $\pi: R^{n} \rightarrow M$ an $R$-epimorphism. Then $S \otimes \pi: S \otimes_{R} R^{n} \rightarrow S \otimes_{R} M$ is an $S$-epimorphism, and there is an $S$-isomorphism $S \otimes_{R} R^{n} \xrightarrow{\sim} S^{n}$. Hence $S \otimes_{R} M$ is a finitely generated $S$-module.
4.(a) By 2., we obtain the following series of isomorphisms:

$$
R^{(I \times J)}=\left(R^{(I)}\right)^{(J)} \xrightarrow{\sim} M^{(J)} \xrightarrow{\sim} M \otimes_{R} N
$$

given by

$$
\left.\left(\lambda_{i, j}\right)_{(i, j) \in I \times J}=\left(\lambda_{i, j}\right)_{i \in I}\right)_{j \in J} \mapsto\left(\sum_{i \in I} \lambda_{i, j} u_{i}\right)_{j \in J} \mapsto \sum_{j \in J}\left(\sum_{i \in I} \lambda_{i, j} u_{i}\right) \otimes v_{j}=\sum_{(i, j) \in I \times J} \lambda_{i, j}\left(u_{i} \otimes v_{j}\right) .
$$

Hence every $z \in M \otimes_{R} N$ has a unique representation

$$
z=\sum_{(i, j) \in I \times J} \lambda_{i, j}\left(u_{i} \otimes v_{j}\right) \quad \text { where } \quad \lambda_{i, j} \in R \text { and } \lambda_{i, j}=0 \text { for almost all }(i, j) \in I \times J .
$$

Hence $\left(u_{i} \otimes v_{j}\right)_{(i, j) \in I \times J}$ is a basis of $M \otimes_{R} N$.
(b) Let $M$ and $N$ be finitely generated. Then there exist $m, n \in N$ and epimorphisms $\mu: R^{m} \rightarrow M$ and $\nu: R^{n} \rightarrow N$. Hence $(\mu \otimes \nu): R^{m} \otimes_{R} R^{n} \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N$ is an epimorphism. By $2 ., R^{m} \otimes_{R} R^{n} \cong R^{m n}$ is finitely generated, and thus $M \otimes_{R} N$ is finitely generated.

If $M$ and $N$ are projective, then there exist $R$-modules $M^{\prime}$ and $N^{\prime}$ such that $M \oplus M^{\prime}$ and $N \oplus N^{\prime}$ are free. By (a), $\left(M \oplus M^{\prime}\right) \otimes_{R}\left(N \oplus N^{\prime}\right)$ is free, and by 1., $\left(M \oplus M^{\prime}\right) \otimes_{R}\left(N \oplus N^{\prime}\right)=\left(M \otimes_{R} N\right) \oplus L$, where $L=\left(M^{\prime} \otimes N\right) \oplus\left(M^{\prime} \otimes N^{\prime}\right) \oplus\left(M \otimes N^{\prime}\right)$. Hence $M \otimes_{R} N$ is projective.

Definitions and Remarks. Let $R$ be commutative and $f: R \rightarrow A$ an $R$-algebra.

1. Multiplication in $A$ is an $R$-bilinear map $A \times A \rightarrow A$. Thus it induces a unique $R$-homomorphism

$$
\mu^{A}: A \otimes_{R} A \rightarrow A \quad \text { such that } \quad \mu^{A}\left(a_{1} \otimes a_{2}\right)=a_{1} a_{2} \quad \text { for all } a_{1}, a_{2} \in A .
$$

For an ideal $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$, we denote by $\mathfrak{a} A={ }_{A}\langle f(\mathfrak{a})\rangle$ the extension ideal of $\mathfrak{a}$ in $A$. By definition, $\mathfrak{a} A=\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{A}\left(\mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} A\right) \subset A$. In particular, $\mu^{A} \mid R=\mu_{R}^{A}: R \otimes_{R} A \xrightarrow{\sim} A$ is the isomorphism given in Theorem 1.2.3.1.
2. For an $R$-module $M$, its base extension $A \otimes_{R} M=M \otimes_{R} A$ is a two-sided $(A, A)$-bimodule. For elementary tensors, the bimodule structure is given by $b(a \otimes m) c=b a c \otimes m$ for all $a, b, c \in A$ and $m \in M$.
3. Let $g: R \rightarrow B$ be another $R$-algebra. Then the map

$$
\left(A \otimes_{R} B\right) \times\left(A \otimes_{R} B\right) \rightarrow\left(A \otimes_{R} B\right) \otimes_{R}\left(A \otimes_{R} B\right) \xrightarrow{\sim}\left(A \otimes_{R} A\right) \otimes_{R}\left(B \otimes_{R} B\right) \xrightarrow{\mu^{A} \otimes^{B}} A \otimes_{R} B
$$

defines a multiplication on $A \otimes_{R} B$ such that $\left(a_{1} \otimes b_{1}\right)\left(a_{2} \otimes b_{2}\right)=a_{1} a_{2} \otimes b_{1} b_{2}$ for all $a_{1}, a_{2} \in A$ and $b_{1}, b_{2} \in B$. With this multiplication, $A \otimes_{R} B$ is a ring with unit element $1_{A} \otimes 1_{B}$. The map

$$
\theta: R \xrightarrow{\sim} R \otimes_{R} R \xrightarrow{f \otimes g} A \otimes_{R} B
$$

makes $A \otimes_{R} B$ into an $R$-algebra such that $r(a \otimes b)=r a \otimes b=a \otimes r b$ for all $r \in R, a \in A$ and $b \in B$. The $R$-algebra $\theta: R \rightarrow A \otimes_{R} B$ is called the tensor product of the $R$-algebras $f: R \rightarrow A$ and $g: R \rightarrow B$. The maps $\varepsilon_{A}: A \rightarrow A \otimes_{R} B$, defined by $\varepsilon_{A}(a)=a \otimes 1_{B}$ and $\varepsilon_{B}: B \rightarrow A \otimes_{R} B$, defined by $\varepsilon_{B}(b)=1_{A} \otimes b$, are $R$-algebra homomorphisms.

Category-theoretic interpretion: $\left(A \otimes B, \varepsilon_{A}, \varepsilon_{B}\right)$ is a coproduct in $A$ and $B$ in the category or $R$-algebras. Explicitly: Given $R$-algebra homomorphisms $\varphi: A \rightarrow C$ and $\psi: B \rightarrow C$, there exists a unique $R$-algebra homomorphism $\Theta: A \otimes_{R} B \rightarrow C$ such that $\Theta \circ \varepsilon_{A}=\varphi$ and $\Theta \circ \varepsilon_{B}=\psi$. Explicitly, $\Theta(a \otimes b)=\varphi(a) \psi(b)$ for all $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.

Theorem 1.2.6. Let $f: R \rightarrow A$ be an $R$-algebra, and let $M$ and $N$ be $R$-modules. There is a unique A-module homomorphism

$$
\Phi: A \otimes_{R} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A \otimes_{R} M, A \otimes_{R} N\right)
$$

such that $\Phi(a \otimes f)(b \otimes m)=b a \otimes f(m)$ for all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N), \quad a, b \in A$ and $m \in M . \quad \Phi$ is functorial in $A, M$ and $N$, and if either $M$ or $A$ is a finitely generated projective $R$-module, then $\Phi$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. 2. For any $a \in A$ and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$, the map $F_{0}(a, f): A \times M \rightarrow A \otimes_{R} M$, defined by $F_{0}(a, f)(b, m)=b a \otimes f(m)$ for all $b \in A$ and $m \in M$, is $R$-balanced. It induces a group homomorphism $F(a, f): A \otimes_{R} M \rightarrow A \otimes_{R} M$ satisfying $F(a, f)(b \otimes m)=b a \otimes f(m)$ for all $b \in A$ and $m \in M$, and if $c \in A$, then $F(a, f)(c(b \otimes m))=F(a, f)(c b \otimes m)=c b a \otimes f(m)=c F(a, f)(b \otimes m)$. Hence $F(a, f)$ is an $A$-homomorphism, and the map $F: A \times \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A \otimes_{R} M, A \otimes_{R} N\right),(a, f) \mapsto F(a, f)$, is $R$-balanced. Hence there is a unique homomorphism $\Phi: A \otimes_{R} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A \otimes_{R} M, A \otimes_{R} N\right)$ satisfying $\Phi(a \otimes f)(b \otimes m)=b a \otimes f(m)$ for all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N), a, b \in A$ and $m \in M$. If $c \in A$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
(c \Phi(a \otimes f))(b \otimes m) & =\Phi(a \otimes f)((b \otimes m) c)=\Phi(a \otimes f)(b c \otimes m)=b c a \otimes f(m)=\Phi(c a \otimes f)(b \otimes m) \\
& =\Phi(c(a \otimes f))(b \otimes m), \quad \text { and therefore } \quad \Phi(c(a \otimes f))=c \Phi(a \otimes f)
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $\Phi$ is an $A$-homomorphism, and it is easily checked that it is functorial in $M$ and $N$.
We prove now that, if $M$ is a finitely generated projective $R$-module, then $\Phi$ is bijective [the case, when $A$ is a finitely generated projective $R$-module is left as an exercise]. For this, it suffices to prove:
A. Let $M_{1}, M_{2}$ be $R$-modules and $M=M_{1} \oplus M_{2}$. Then

$$
\Phi: A \otimes_{R} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A \otimes_{R} M, A \otimes_{R} N\right)
$$

is an isomorphism if and only if both homomorphisms

$$
\Phi_{i}: A \otimes_{R} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M_{i}, N\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A \otimes_{R} M_{i}, A \otimes_{R} N\right) \text { for } i \in\{1,2\}
$$

are isomorphisms.
Assume that $\mathbf{A}$ holds. If $M$ is a finitely generated projective $R$-module, then $R^{n} \cong M \oplus M^{\prime}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and some $R$-module $M^{\prime}$. Hence it suffice to prove that

$$
\Phi_{n}: A \otimes_{R} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(R^{n}, N\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A \otimes_{R} R^{n}, A \otimes_{R} N\right)
$$

is an isomorphism, and, again using $\mathbf{A}$, this follows by induction on $n$, once we have proved it for $n=1$. But in this there is a commutative diagram

where $\alpha$ is the isomorphism induced $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, N) \xrightarrow{\sim} N, \gamma$ is the isomorphism induced by $A \otimes_{R} R \xrightarrow{\sim} A$, and $\beta$ is also an isomorphism. Hence $\Phi_{1}$ is an isomorphism.

Proof of A. Since the additive functors $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(-, N), A \otimes_{R}-$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(-, A \otimes_{R} N\right)$ interchange with direct sums (up to isomorphisms), we obtain a commutative diagram


Hence $\Phi$ is an isomorphism if and only if $\Phi_{1}$ and $\Phi_{2}$ are both isomorphisms.

## Examples.

1. Let $M$ be an $R$-module, $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$ a right ideal and $\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{M}: \mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} M \rightarrow M$ the multiplication homomorphism. The exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathfrak{a} \stackrel{i}{\hookrightarrow} R \xrightarrow{\pi} R / \mathfrak{a} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ of right $R$-modules induces a commutative diagram with exact rows

where the second row is the canonical one, $\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{M}$ is an epimorphism and $\Phi$ is an isomorphism. The $\operatorname{map}(\pi \otimes M) \circ \Phi^{-1}: M \rightarrow R / \mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} M$ is an epimorphism with kernel $\operatorname{Im}(\Phi \circ(i \otimes M))=\mathfrak{a} M$, and thus it induces an isomorphism $\rho: M / \mathfrak{a} M \rightarrow R / \mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} M$, given by $\rho(m+\mathfrak{a} M)=(1+\mathfrak{a}) \otimes m$ for all $m \in M$. In particular, if $\mathfrak{a} \triangleleft R$, then $\rho$ is an isomorphism of $R$-modules and of $R / \mathfrak{a}$-modules. If $M$ is $R$-free with basis $\left(u_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$, then $R / \mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} M$ is $R / \mathfrak{a}$-free with basis $\left((1+\mathfrak{a}) \otimes u_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$, and therefore $M / \mathfrak{a} M$ is $R / \mathfrak{a}$-free with basis $\left(u_{i}+\mathfrak{a} M\right)_{i \in I}$.
2. Let $R \rightarrow A$ be an $R$-algebra, $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then there is an isomorphism $A \otimes_{R} \mathrm{M}_{n}(R) \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathrm{M}_{n}(A)$. In particular, if $m \in \mathbb{N}$, then there is an isomorphism $\mathrm{M}_{m}(R) \otimes \mathrm{M}_{n}(R) \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathrm{M}_{m n}(R)$.
3. Let $R \rightarrow A$ be a commutative $R$-algebra and $H$ a monoid. Then there is an isomorphism $A \otimes$ $R[H] \xrightarrow{\sim} A[H]$. Suppose that $H$ is a free abelian multiplicative monoid with basis $\boldsymbol{X}=\left(X_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$. Then $R[H]=R[\boldsymbol{X}]$ is a polynomial ring, and $A \otimes_{R} R[\boldsymbol{X}] \cong A[\boldsymbol{X}]$. In particular, if $A=R[\boldsymbol{T}]$ is a polynomial ring in a family $\boldsymbol{T}=\left(T_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$ of indeterminates, the $R[\boldsymbol{T}] \otimes_{R} R[\boldsymbol{X}] \cong R[\boldsymbol{T}, \boldsymbol{X}]$.

## Theorem and Definition 1.2.7.

1. For an $R$-module $E$, the following conditions are equivalent:
(a) $-\otimes_{R} E: \mathbf{M o d}-R \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ is an exact functor.
(b) For every monomorphism of right $R$-modules $i: M^{\prime} \rightarrow M$, the induced homomorphism $i \otimes E: M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} E$ is again a monomorphism.
(c) For every finitely generated right ideal $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$, the multiplication homomorphism

$$
\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{E}: \mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow E
$$

of $\mathfrak{a}$ on $E$ is a monomorphism (and thus induces an isomorphism $\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{E}: \mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow \mathfrak{a} E$ of abelian groups).
If these conditions are fulfilled, then $E$ is called ( $R$-)flat. An $R$-algebra $R \rightarrow A$ is called flat if $A$ is a flat $R$-module.
2. Let $\left(E_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ be a family of $R$-modules. Then

$$
E=\bigoplus_{i \in I} E_{i} \quad \text { is flat if and only if all } E_{i} \text { are flat. }
$$

## 3. Every projective $R$-module is flat.

Proof. (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) Obvious.
(c) $\Rightarrow$ (a) It suffices to prove that for every right $R$-module $M$ the following assertion holds:
A. For every $R$-submodule $M_{1} \subset M$, the injection $i: M_{1} \hookrightarrow M$ induces a monomorphism

$$
i \otimes E: M_{1} \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} E
$$

Suppose that A. holds for every right $R$-module $M$, and let $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M^{\prime \prime}$ be an exact sequence of right $R$-modules. Then $g$ splits in the form $g: M \xrightarrow{\pi} M / \operatorname{Ker}(g) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Im}(g) \xrightarrow{i} M^{\prime \prime}$, where $\pi$ denotes the residue class homomorphism and $i$ denotes the injection. Tensoring with $E$, we obtain

$$
g \otimes E: M \otimes_{R} E \xrightarrow{\pi \otimes E} M / \operatorname{Ker}(g) \otimes E \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Im}(g) \otimes_{R} E \xrightarrow{i \otimes E} M^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{R} E .
$$

$\pi \otimes E$ is a monomorphism by $\mathbf{A}$, and therefore $\operatorname{Ker}(g \otimes E)=\operatorname{Ker}(\pi \otimes E)$. From the exact sequence $M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{\pi} M / \operatorname{Ker}(g) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ we get the exact sequence $M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} E \xrightarrow{f \otimes E} M \otimes_{R} E \xrightarrow{\pi \otimes E} M / \operatorname{Ker}(g) \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$, which implies that $\operatorname{Im}(f \otimes E)=\operatorname{Ker}(\pi \otimes E)=\operatorname{Ker}(g \otimes E)$. Hence $M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} E \xrightarrow{f \otimes E} M \otimes_{R} E \xrightarrow{g \otimes E} M^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{R} E$ is exact.

For the proof of $\mathbf{A}$, we show first:
$\mathbf{A}_{0}$. If $M$ is a right $R$-module, and $\mathbf{A}$ holds for every finitely generated $R$-submodule of $M$, then $\mathbf{A}$ holds for every $R$-submodule of $M$.
Proof of $\mathbf{A}_{0}$. Let $M$ be a right $R$-module, suppose that $\mathbf{A}$ holds for every finitely generated $R$ submodule of $M$, and let $M_{1} \subset M$ be any $R$-submodule. Let $i: M_{1} \hookrightarrow M$ be the injection, and suppose that $z \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(i \otimes E: M_{1} \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} E\right)$, say

$$
z=\sum_{\nu=1}^{n} a_{\nu} \otimes e_{\nu} \in M_{1} \otimes_{R} E, \quad \text { where } \quad n \in \mathbb{N}, a_{\nu} \in M_{1} \text { and } e_{\nu} \in E .
$$

Then $M^{\prime}=a_{1} R+\ldots+a_{n} R \subset M_{1}$, and if $j=\left(M^{\prime} \hookrightarrow M_{1}\right)$, then $i^{\prime}=i \circ j=\left(M^{\prime} \hookrightarrow M\right)$, and thus $i^{\prime} \otimes E$ is a monomorphism by $\mathbf{A}_{0}$. If

$$
z^{\prime}=\sum_{\nu=1}^{n} a_{\nu} \otimes e_{\nu} \in M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} E, \quad \text { then } \quad\left(i^{\prime} \otimes E\right)\left(z^{\prime}\right)=(i \otimes E) \circ(j \otimes E)\left(z^{\prime}\right)=(i \otimes E)(z)=0
$$

hence $z^{\prime}=0$, and thus also $z=(j \otimes E)\left(z^{\prime}\right)=0$. Consequently, $i \otimes E$ is a monomorphism.
Proof of A. CASE 1: $M$ is finitely generated and free. We use induction on $n=\operatorname{rk}(M)$. If $n=1$, we may assume that $M=R$, and then a finitely generate right $R$-submodule of $R$ is a finitely generated right ideal. Hence there is nothing to do.

Suppose that $n>1$. Then $M=M_{1} \dot{+} M_{2}$, where, for $i \in\{1,2\}, M_{i} \subset M$ is a free $R$-submodule of rank $\operatorname{rk}\left(M_{i}\right)<n$. Let $M^{\prime} \subset M$ be a finitely generated $R$-submodule. It induces a commutative diagram with exact rows

where $\varepsilon$ is the injection and $p$ the projection of the internal direct sum, $M_{1}^{\prime}=M_{1} \cap M^{\prime}, \varepsilon^{\prime}=\varepsilon \mid M_{1}^{\prime}$, $p^{\prime}=p \mid M^{\prime}, \quad M_{2}^{\prime}=p\left(M^{\prime}\right)$, and $i_{1}, i, i_{2}$ are the injections. Since the bottom sequence splits, tensoring with $E$ induces a commutative diagram with exact rows

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M_{1}^{\prime} \otimes_{R} E \xrightarrow{\varepsilon^{\prime} \otimes E} M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} E \xrightarrow{p^{\prime} \otimes E} M_{2}^{\prime} \otimes_{R} E \longrightarrow \mathbf{0} \\
& i_{1} \otimes E \downarrow \\
& \rightarrow M_{1} \otimes_{R} E \xrightarrow{\varepsilon \otimes E} \\
& \downarrow_{i} E \\
& \otimes_{R} E \xrightarrow{p \otimes E} \downarrow_{2} \otimes E \\
& M_{2} \otimes_{R} E \longrightarrow
\end{aligned}
$$

and the Snake Lemma yields an exact sequence $\operatorname{Ker}\left(i_{1} \otimes E\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}(i \otimes E) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}\left(i_{2} \otimes E\right)$. By the induction hypothesis, $i_{1} \otimes E$ and $\left(i_{2} \otimes E\right)$ are monomorphisms, and therefore $i \otimes E$ is a monomorphism.

CASE 2: $M$ is free with an arbitrary basis $\left(u_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$. Let $M^{\prime} \subset M$ be a finitely generated submodule and $i: M^{\prime} \hookrightarrow M$ the injection. Then there is a finite subset $J_{0} \subset J$ such that

$$
M^{\prime} \subset M_{0}=\sum_{i \in J_{0}} u_{i} R \oplus M
$$

Then we obtain $i=i_{0} \circ i^{\prime}$, where $i^{\prime}=\left(M^{\prime} \hookrightarrow M_{0}\right)$ and $i_{0}=\left(M_{0} \hookrightarrow M\right)$. As $i_{0}$ splits, the induced homomorphism $i_{0} \otimes E: M_{0} \otimes E \rightarrow M \otimes E$ is a (split) monomorphism, and as $M_{0}$ is finitely generated and free, $i^{\prime} \otimes E: M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow M_{0} \otimes_{R} E$ is a monomorphism by CASE 1 . Hence $i \otimes E=\left(i_{0} \otimes E\right) \circ\left(i^{\prime} \otimes E\right)$ is a monomorphism.

CASE 3: $M$ is any right $R$-module. Let $M^{\prime} \subset M$ be an $R$-submodule, $i: M^{\prime} \hookrightarrow M$ the injection, $F$ a free right $R$-module and $p: F \rightarrow M$ an $R$-epimorphism. Then $K=\operatorname{Ker}(p)=p^{-1}(\mathbf{0}) \subset p^{-1}\left(M^{\prime}\right)$, and we obtain the following commutative diagram with exact rows

where $p^{\prime}=p \mid p^{-1}\left(M^{\prime}\right), j, j^{\prime}, i_{1}$ and $i$ are injections. By CASE 2, applied with $F$ instead of $M, j$ and $i_{1}$ induce a monomorphism $j \otimes E: K \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow F \otimes_{R} E$ and $i_{1} \otimes E: p^{-1}\left(M^{\prime}\right) \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow F \otimes_{R} E$. Tensoring with $E$ yields the following commutative diagram with exact rows.


The Snake Lemma yields an exact sequence $\mathbf{0}=\operatorname{Ker}\left(i_{1} \otimes E\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}(i \otimes E) \rightarrow \operatorname{Coker}\left(\operatorname{id}_{K \otimes_{R} E}\right)=\mathbf{0}$, and therefore $i \otimes E$ is a monomorphism.
2. Let $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$ be a right ideal. For $i \in I$, let $\mu_{i}=\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{E_{i}}: \mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} E_{i} \rightarrow E_{i}$ the multiplication homomorphism, and define

$$
\mu: \mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} E=\mathfrak{a} \otimes \bigoplus_{i \in I} E_{i} \xrightarrow{\sim} \bigoplus_{i \in I}\left(\mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} E_{i}\right) \xrightarrow{\left(\mu_{i}\right)_{i \in I}} \bigoplus_{i \in I} E_{i}=E
$$

For $a \in \mathfrak{a}$ and $e=\left(e_{i}\right)_{i \in I} \in E$, we obtain $\mu(a \otimes e)=\left(\mu_{i}\left(a \otimes e_{i}\right)\right)_{i \in I}=a e$, and thus $\mu=\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{E}$. Hence $\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{E}$ is a monomorphism if and only if all $\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{E_{i}}$ are monomorphisms. Therefore $E$ is flat if and only if all $E_{i}$ are flat.
3. Let $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$ is a right ideal. Then $\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{R}=\left(\mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} R \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathfrak{a} \hookrightarrow R\right)$ is a monomorphism, and therefore $R$ is flat. By 2., every free $R$-module and thus also every projective $R$-module is flat.

Theorem 1.2.8. Let $R \rightarrow A$ be a flat $R$-algebra.

1. Let $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b} \subset R$ be ideals. Then $(\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}) A=\mathfrak{a} A \cap \mathfrak{b} A$.
2. Let $M, N$ be $R$-modules, and suppose that $M$ is finitely presented. Then the $A$-homomorphism $\Phi: A \otimes_{R} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A \otimes_{R} M, A \otimes_{R} N\right)$ introduced in Theorem 1.2.6 is an isomorphism.

Proof. 1. The exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b} \stackrel{i}{\hookrightarrow} R \rightarrow R / \mathfrak{a} \oplus R / \mathfrak{b}$ induces the following commutative diagram, where the upper row is exact and the vertical arrows are isomorphisms, where all arrays are the natural one.


Note that, for all $r \in R$ and $a \in A, \quad\left(\rho_{0} \circ \Phi\right)(r \otimes a)=(r a+\mathfrak{a} A, r a+\mathfrak{b} A)$, and

$$
\left(\Phi_{0} \circ \rho\right)(r \otimes a)=\Phi_{0}((r+\mathfrak{a}) \otimes a,(r+\mathfrak{b}) \otimes a)=(r a+\mathfrak{a} A, r a+\mathfrak{b} A)=\left(\rho_{0} \circ \Phi\right)(r \otimes a)
$$

Hence the bottom row is exact, and $(\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}) A=\operatorname{Ker}\left(\rho_{0}\right)=\mathfrak{a} A \cap \mathfrak{b} A$.
2. As $M$ is finitely presented, there is an exact sequence $F_{2} \xrightarrow{\pi^{\prime}} F_{1} \xrightarrow{\pi} M \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$, where $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ are finitely generated free $R$-modules. Since $A$ is flat and Hom is left-exact, we obtain the following commutative diagram with exact rows.


By Theorem 1.2.6, $\Phi_{1}$ and $\Phi_{2}$ are isomorphisms, and by an easy diagram chasing it follows that also $\Phi$ is an isomorphism.

### 1.3. Basics of homological algebra

Let $R$ be a ring.

## Definitions and Remarks.

1. A (chain) complex (in $R$-Mod) is a sequence of ( $R$-)homomorphisms $\left(d_{n}: K_{n} \rightarrow K_{n-1}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ such that $d_{n} \circ d_{n+1}=0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. We write it in the form

$$
K_{\bullet}=\left(K_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right): \quad \ldots \rightarrow K_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} K_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} K_{n-1} \rightarrow \ldots
$$

Then $\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}\right) \subset \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n}\right)$, and we call $H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n}\right) / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}\right)$ the $n$-th homology group of $K_{\bullet}$. For every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, there is an exact sequence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{0} \rightarrow H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n}\right) / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}\right) & \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Coker}\left(d_{n+1}\right)=K_{n} / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}\right) \\
& \xrightarrow{\bar{d}_{n}} \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n-1}\right) \xrightarrow{\pi_{n-1}} \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n-1}\right) / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n}\right)=H_{n-1}\left(K_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\bar{d}_{n}\left(x+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}\right)\right)=d_{n}(x)$ for $x \in K_{n}$, and $\pi_{n-1}$ is the residue class homomorphism. A complex $K_{\bullet}$ is called positive if $K_{n}=\mathbf{0}$ for all $n<0$. A complex $K_{\bullet}$ is an exact sequence if and only if $H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
2. Let $\left(K_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right),\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ be complexes. A morphism $f_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is a sequence of $R$-homomorphisms $\left(f_{n}: K_{n} \rightarrow K_{n}^{\prime}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ such that $f_{n-1} \circ d_{n}=d_{n}^{\prime} \circ f_{n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $f_{\bullet}, f_{\bullet}^{\prime}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ are morphisms, then $f_{\bullet}+g_{\bullet}=\left(f_{n}+g_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is also a morphism. $0=\left(0: K_{n} \rightarrow K_{n}^{\prime}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ and $\mathrm{id}_{K_{\bullet}}=\left(\mathrm{id}_{K_{n}}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ are morphisms, and if $f_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ and $g_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}$ are morphisms, then $g_{\bullet} \circ f_{\bullet}=\left(g_{n} \circ f_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}$ is again a morphism. Consequently, the class of complexes in $R$-Mod together with its morphisms is an additive category, denoted by $\mathbf{C}_{R}$.

If $f_{\bullet}:\left(K_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ is a morphism of complexes, then

$$
f_{n}\left(\operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n}\right)\right) \subset \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n}^{\prime}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad f_{n}\left(\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}\right) \subset \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}^{\prime}\right) \quad \text { for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}\right.
$$

Indeed, if $x \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n}\right)$, then $d_{n}^{\prime} \circ f_{n}(x)=f_{n-1} \circ d_{n}(x)=0$, and if $x=d_{n+1}(y) \in \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}\right)$, then $f_{n}(x)=f_{n} \circ d_{n+1}(y)=d_{n+1}^{\prime} \circ f_{n}(y) \in \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)$. Consequently, $f_{\bullet}$. induces a family of homomorphisms $\left(H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet}\right): H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$, and the following commutative diagram connecting the exact sequences mentioned above.


For $n \in \mathbb{Z}, H_{n}: \mathbf{C}_{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ is an additive functor. Indeed, $H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet}+g_{\bullet}\right)=H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)+H_{n}\left(g_{\bullet}\right)$ for morphisms $f_{\bullet}, g_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime}$, and $H_{n}\left(g_{\bullet} \circ f_{\bullet}\right)=H_{n}\left(g_{\bullet}\right) \circ H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)$ for morphisms $f_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ and $g_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}$.
3. A sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f_{\bullet}} K_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{g_{\bullet}} K_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ of morphisms in $\mathbf{C}_{R}$ is called exact if, for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow K_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f_{n}} K_{n} \xrightarrow{g_{n}} K_{n}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is exact.

Theorem 1.3.1. For every exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f_{\bullet}} K_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{g_{\bullet}} K_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ in $\mathbf{C}_{R}$ there exists a family of homomorphisms $\left(\omega_{n}: H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ such that the long homology sequence

$$
\ldots \xrightarrow{\omega_{n+1}} H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)} H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}\left(g_{\bullet}\right)} H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega_{n}} H_{n-1}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n-1}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)} H_{n-1}\left(K_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

is exact. It is functorial in the given short exact sequence. Explicitly, a commutative diagram of complexes with exact rows

induces the following commutative diagram connecting the long homology sequences.


Proof. Let $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f_{\bullet}} K_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{g_{\bullet}} K_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ be an exact sequence of complexes $\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right),\left(K_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)$ and $\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right)$. For every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have the commutative diagram

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{0} \longrightarrow K_{n-1}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f_{n-1}} K_{n-1} \xrightarrow{g_{n-1}} K_{n-1}^{\prime \prime} \longrightarrow \mathbf{0} \\
& \\
& d_{n-1}^{\prime} \downarrow \\
& \\
& \mathbf{0} \longrightarrow d_{n-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

and the Snake Lemma induces exact sequences $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n-1}^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{f_{n-1}} \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n-1}\right) \xrightarrow{g_{n-1}} \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n-1}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ and $\operatorname{Coker}\left(d_{n+1}^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\bar{f}_{n+1}} \operatorname{Coker}\left(d_{n+1}\right) \xrightarrow{\bar{g}_{n+1}} \operatorname{Coker}\left(d_{n+1}^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$. Hence we obtain the the following commutative diagram with exact columns, in which the two middle rows are exact.


By the Snake Lemma, it induces an exact sequence

$$
H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)} H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}\left(g_{\bullet}\right)} H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega} H_{n-1}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n-1}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)} H_{n-1}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n-1}\left(g_{\bullet}\right)} H_{n-1}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right) .
$$

It is easily checked that the whole construction is functorial in the given short exact sequence.

Definition. Let $\left(K_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)$ and ( $K_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ ) be complexes.

1. Two morphisms $f_{\bullet}, g_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ are called homotopic, $f \sim g$, if there exists a sequence of homomorphisms $\left(h_{n}: K_{n} \rightarrow K_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ such that $f_{n}-g_{n}=d_{n+1}^{\prime} \circ h_{n}+h_{n-1} \circ d_{n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
2. A morphism $f_{\bullet}, g_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is called a homotopy equivalence if there exists a morphism $g_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}$ such that $g_{\bullet} \circ f_{\bullet} \sim \mathrm{id}_{K_{\bullet}}$ and $f_{\bullet} \circ g_{\bullet} \sim \mathrm{id}_{K_{\bullet}^{\prime}}$. The complexes $K_{\bullet}$ and $K_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ are called homotopy equivalent if there exists a homotopy equivalence $f_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime}$.

Theorem 1.3.2. Let $\left(K_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)$ and $\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ be complexes and $f_{\bullet}, g_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ morphisms such that $f_{\bullet} \sim g_{\bullet}$. Then $H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)=H_{n}\left(g_{\bullet}\right): H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. In particular, if $f_{\bullet}$ is a homotopy equivalence, then $H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)$ is an isomorphism for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. Let $\left(h_{n}: K_{n} \rightarrow K_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ be a sequence of homomorphisms such that

$$
f_{n}-g_{n}=d_{n+1}^{\prime} \circ h_{n}+h_{n-1} \circ d_{n} \quad \text { for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

and consider the maps $H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)-H_{n}\left(g_{\bullet}\right): H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n}\right) / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n}^{\prime}\right) / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)=H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$. If $x \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n}\right)$, then
$\left(H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)-H_{n}\left(g_{\bullet}\right)\right)\left(x+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}\right)\right)=f_{n}(x)-g_{n}(x)+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)=d_{n+1}^{\prime} \circ h_{n}(x)+h_{n-1} \circ d_{n}(x)+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)=0$, and thus $H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)=H_{n}\left(g_{\bullet}\right)$.

Assume not that $f_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is a homotopy equivalence, and let $g_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}$ be a morphism such that $g_{\bullet} \circ f_{\bullet}=\operatorname{id}_{K_{\bullet}}$ and $f_{\bullet} \circ g_{\bullet}=\operatorname{id}_{K_{\bullet}^{\prime}}$. Then we obtain $\operatorname{id}_{H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right)}=H_{n}\left(g_{\bullet} \circ f_{\bullet}\right)=H_{n}\left(g_{\bullet}\right) \circ H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)$, and $\operatorname{id}_{H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)}=H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet} \circ b_{\bullet}\right)=H_{n}\left(f_{\bullet}\right) \circ H_{n}\left(g_{\bullet}\right)$.

Theorem and Definition 1.3.3. Let $M$ be an $R$-module.
A projective resolution $\left(P_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right)$ of $M$ is a positive complex $\left(P_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)$ of projective modules such that $H_{n}\left(P_{\bullet}\right)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $n \neq 0$, together with an epimorphism $\varepsilon: P_{0} \rightarrow M$ such that $\operatorname{Ker}(\varepsilon)=\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{1}\right)$. Equivalently, a projective resolution of $M$ is an exact sequence $\ldots \rightarrow P_{2} \xrightarrow{d_{2}} P_{1} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} P_{0} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} M \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$, which (due to $d_{0}=0$ ) induces an isomorphism $\varepsilon_{0}: H_{0}\left(P_{\bullet}\right)=P_{0} / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{1}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} M$.

1. Let $\varphi: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ be a homomorphism of $R$-modules, $\left(P_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right)$ a projective resolution of $M$ and $\left(P_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \varepsilon^{\prime}\right)$ a projective resolution of $M^{\prime}$. Then there exists up to homotopy a unique morpism $f_{\bullet}: P_{\bullet} \rightarrow P_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ such that $\varepsilon^{\prime} \circ f_{0}=\varphi \circ \varepsilon: P_{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime}$.
2. $M$ possesses a projective resolution. If $\left(P_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right)$ and $\left(P_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \varepsilon^{\prime}\right)$ are projective resolutions of $M$, then there exists a homotopy equivalence $f_{\bullet}: P_{\bullet} \rightarrow P_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ such that $\varepsilon^{\prime} \circ f_{0}=\varepsilon: P_{0} \rightarrow M$.
Proof. 1. Existence. We must establish the following commutative diagram with exact rows:


We construct recursively a sequence of homomorphisms $\left.\left(f_{n}: P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ satisfying $f_{n-1} \circ d_{n}=d_{n}^{\prime} \circ f_{n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\varepsilon^{\prime} \circ f_{0}=\varepsilon$. For $n<0$ we set $f_{0}=0$. Since $P_{0}$ is projective, the diagram

induces a homomorphism $f_{0}: P_{0} \rightarrow P_{0}^{\prime}$ such that $\varphi \circ \varepsilon=\varepsilon^{\prime} \circ f_{0}$. Since $\varepsilon^{\prime} \circ f_{0} \circ d_{1}=\varphi \circ \varepsilon \circ d_{1}=0$, we get $\operatorname{Im}\left(f_{0} \circ d_{1}\right) \subset \operatorname{ker}\left(\varepsilon^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{1}^{\prime}\right)$, and since $P_{1}$ is projective, the diagram

$$
\underset{P_{1}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{d_{1}^{\prime}} \xrightarrow{P_{1}}{ }_{f_{0} \circ d_{1}} \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{1}^{\prime}\right) \longrightarrow \mathbf{0}}{ }
$$

induces a homomorphism $f_{1}: P_{1} \rightarrow P_{1}^{\prime}$ such that $d_{1}^{\prime} \circ f_{1}=f_{0} \circ d_{1}$.
Assume now that $n \geq 2$, and that we have already constructed homomorphisms $f_{n-2}, f_{n-1}$ such that $d_{n-1}^{\prime} \circ f_{n-1}=f_{n-2} \circ d_{n-1}$. Then we get $d_{n-1}^{\prime} \circ f_{n-1} \circ d_{n}=f_{n-2} \circ d_{n-1} \circ d_{n}=0$, and consequently $\operatorname{Im}\left(f_{n-1} \circ d_{n}\right) \subset \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n-1}^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n}^{\prime}\right)$, since $H_{n}\left(P_{\mathbf{\bullet}}^{\prime}\right)=\mathbf{0}$. Since $P_{n}$ is projective, the diagram

$$
\begin{gathered}
P_{n} \\
{ }^{f_{n-1} \circ d_{n}} \\
P_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{d_{n}^{\prime}} \mathrm{Im}\left(d_{n}^{\prime}\right) \longrightarrow \mathbf{0}
\end{gathered}
$$

induces a homomorphism $f_{n}: P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n}^{\prime}$ such that $d_{n}^{\prime} \circ f_{n}=f_{n-1} \circ d_{n}$.
Uniqueness up to homotopy. Let $f_{\bullet}, g_{\bullet}: P_{\bullet} \rightarrow P_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ be morphisms such that $\varepsilon^{\prime} \circ f_{0}=\varepsilon^{\prime} \circ g_{0}=\varphi \circ \varepsilon$. We construct a sequence of homomorphisms $\left(h_{n}: P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ such that $f_{n}-g_{n}=d_{n+1}^{\prime} \circ h_{n}+h_{n-1} \circ d_{n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. For $n<0$ we have $d_{n+1}^{\prime}=d_{n}=0$, and we set $h_{n}=0$. Since $\varepsilon^{\prime} \circ\left(f_{0}-g_{0}\right)=0$, we obtain $\operatorname{Im}\left(f_{0}-g_{0}\right) \subset \operatorname{Ker}\left(\varepsilon^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{1}^{\prime}\right)$, and since $P_{0}$ is projective, the diagram

$$
\begin{gathered}
P_{0} \\
{ }_{1}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f_{0}^{\prime}-g_{0}} \\
\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{1}^{\prime}\right) \longrightarrow \\
\mathbf{0}
\end{gathered}
$$

induces a homomorphism $h_{0}: P_{0} \rightarrow P_{1}^{\prime}$ such that $f_{0}-g_{0}=d_{1}^{\prime} \circ h_{0}=d_{1}^{\prime} \circ h_{0}+h_{-1} \circ d_{0}$.
Thus assume that $n \geq 1$ and that we have already constructed homomorphisms $h_{n-2}, h_{n-1}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{n}^{\prime} \circ\left(f_{n}-g_{n}-h_{n-1} \circ d_{n}\right) & =\left(f_{n-1}-g_{n-1}\right) \circ d_{n}-d_{n}^{\prime} \circ h_{n-1} \circ d_{n} \\
& =\left(d_{n}^{\prime} \circ h_{n-1}+h_{n-2} \circ d_{n-1}\right) \circ d_{n}-d_{n}^{\prime} \circ h_{n-1} \circ d_{n}=0,
\end{aligned}
$$

hence $\operatorname{Im}\left(f_{n}-g_{n}-h_{n-1} \circ d_{n}\right) \subset \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n}^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)$. Since $P_{n}$ is projective, the diagram

$$
\begin{gathered}
P_{n} \\
{ }^{f_{n}-g_{n}-h_{n-1} \circ d_{n}} \\
P_{n+1}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}^{\prime}} \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}^{\prime}\right) \longrightarrow \mathbf{0}
\end{gathered}
$$

induces a homomorphism $h_{n}: P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n+1}^{\prime}$ such that $f_{n}-g_{n}-h_{n-1} \circ d_{n}=d_{n+1}^{\prime} \circ h_{n}$.
2. We construct an exact sequence $\ldots \rightarrow P_{2} \xrightarrow{d_{2}} P_{1} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} P_{0} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} M \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ with free (hence projective) modules $P_{n}$ for all $n \geq 0$. Again, we proceed recursively. Clearly, there exists an epimorphism $\varepsilon: P_{0} \rightarrow M$ with a free $R$-module $P_{0}$, and there exists an epimorphism $d_{1}: P_{1} \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}(\varepsilon) \subset P_{0}$ with a free $R$-module $P_{1}$. Then $P_{1} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} P_{0} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} M \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is exact. Assume now that $n \geq 1$, and that we have already constructed an exact sequence $P_{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}} P_{n-2} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow P_{0} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} M \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ with free $R$-modules $P_{0}, \ldots, P_{n-1}$. Then there exists an epimorphism $d_{n}: P_{n} \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n-1}\right) \subset P_{n-1}$ with a free $R$-module $P_{n}$ and we may append the homomorphism $d_{n}: P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n-1}$ to extend our sequence.

Assume not that $\left(P_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right)$ and $\left.P_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \varepsilon^{\prime}\right)$ are projective resolutions of $M$. By 1., there exist morphisms $f_{\bullet}: P_{\bullet} \rightarrow P_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ and $g_{\bullet}: P_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow P_{\bullet}$ such that $\varepsilon^{\prime} \circ f_{0}=\varepsilon$ and $\varepsilon \circ g_{0}=\varepsilon^{\prime}$. Then $g_{\bullet} \circ f_{\bullet}: P_{\bullet} \rightarrow P_{\bullet}$ and $\operatorname{id}_{P_{\bullet}}: P_{\bullet} \rightarrow P_{\bullet}$, are morphisms satisfying $\varepsilon \circ\left(g_{0} \circ g_{0}\right)=\varepsilon \circ \operatorname{id}_{P_{0}}=\varepsilon$, and 1 . implies that $g \bullet \circ f_{\bullet} \sim \varepsilon_{P_{\bullet}}$. Similarly, we obtain $f_{\bullet} \circ g_{\bullet} \sim \varepsilon_{P_{\bullet}^{\prime}}$, and therefore $P_{\bullet}$ and $P_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ are homotopy equivalent.

Definition. In the sequel we fix for every left and every right $R$-module a projective resolution. Let $N$ be an $R$-module and $M$ a right $R$-module.
a. Let $\left(Q_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}, \eta\right)$ be a projective resolution of $N$. Then $M \otimes_{R} Q_{\bullet}=\left(M \otimes_{R} Q_{n} \xrightarrow{M \otimes d_{n}} M \otimes_{R} Q_{n-1}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is a complex, and we define

$$
{ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N)=H_{n}\left(M \otimes_{R} Q_{\bullet}\right) \quad \text { for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

If $f: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism of right $R$-modules, then $f \otimes Q_{\bullet}: M \otimes_{R} Q_{\bullet} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} Q_{\bullet}$ is a complex homomorphism, and we define

$$
' \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(f, N)=H_{n}\left(f \otimes Q_{\bullet}\right):{ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N) \rightarrow^{\prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}\left(M^{\prime}, N\right) \text { for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

These settings define a sequence of additive functors ( $\left.{ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(-, N): \mathbf{M o d}-R \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$, called the Tor functors in the first variable. By definition, ${ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(-, N)=\mathbf{0}$ for $n<0$, and the exact sequence

$$
M \otimes_{R} Q_{1} \xrightarrow{M \otimes d_{1}} M \otimes_{R} Q_{0} \xrightarrow{M \otimes \eta} M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow \mathbf{0},
$$

together with $d_{0}=0$, induces an isomorphism

$$
' \operatorname{Tor}_{0}^{R}(M, N)=H_{0}\left(M \otimes Q_{\bullet}\right)=M \otimes_{R} Q_{0} / \operatorname{Im}\left(M \otimes d_{1}\right)=M \otimes_{R} Q_{0} / \operatorname{Ker}(M \otimes \eta) \xrightarrow{\sim} M \otimes_{R} N
$$

which is functorial in $M$, and we identify ${ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{0}^{R}(-, N)=-\otimes_{R} N$ by means of this isomorphism.
b. Let $\left(P_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right)$ be a projective resolution of $M$. Then $P_{\bullet} \otimes_{R} N=\left(P_{n} \otimes_{R} N \xrightarrow{d_{n} \otimes N} P_{n-1} \otimes_{R} N\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is a complex, and we define

$$
{ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N)=H_{n}\left(P_{\bullet} \otimes_{R} N\right) \quad \text { for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

If $f: N \rightarrow N^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism of $R$-modules, then $P_{\bullet} \otimes f: P_{\bullet} \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow P_{\bullet} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime}$ is a complex homomorphism, and we define

$$
{ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, f)=H_{n}(P \bullet \otimes f):{ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N) \rightarrow{ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}\left(M, N^{\prime}\right) \quad \text { for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

These settings define a sequence of additive functors $\left({ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M,-): R \text { - } \mathbf{M o d} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$, called the Tor functors in the second variable. By definition, ${ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M,-)=\mathbf{0}$ for $n<0$, and the exact sequence

$$
P_{1} \otimes_{R} N \xrightarrow{d_{1} \otimes N} P_{0} \otimes_{R} N \xrightarrow{\varepsilon \otimes N} M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow \mathbf{0},
$$

together with $d_{0}=0$, induces an isomorphism

$$
{ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{0}^{R}(M, N)=H_{0}\left(P \bullet \otimes_{R} N\right)=P_{0} \otimes_{R} N / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{1} \otimes N\right)=P_{0} \otimes_{R} N / \operatorname{Ker}(\varepsilon \otimes N) \xrightarrow{\sim} M \otimes_{R} N
$$

which is functorial in $N$, and we identify ${ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{0}^{R}(M,-)=M \otimes_{R}-$ by means of this isomorphism.

Theorem and Definition 1.3.4. Let $M$ be a right $R$-module and $N$ an $R$-module. Up to functorial isomorphisms, we have ${ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N)={ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
We define Tor $=$ Tor $^{\prime}=$ Tor ${ }^{\prime \prime}$.
For the proof of Theorem 1.3.4 we introduce the notion of double complexes and a first simple Spectral Theorem.

Definitions and Remarks. A double complex ( $K_{\bullet \bullet}, d_{\bullet \bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet \bullet}^{\prime \prime}$ ) consists of a double sequence of $R$-homomorphisms

$$
\left(K_{p, q}, d_{p, q}^{\prime}: K_{p, q} \rightarrow K_{p-1, q}, d_{p, q}^{\prime \prime}: K_{p, q} \rightarrow K_{p, q-1}\right)
$$

satisfying $d_{p-1, q}^{\prime} \circ d_{p, q}^{\prime}=0, d_{p, q-1}^{\prime \prime} \circ d_{p, q}^{\prime \prime}=0$ and $d_{p-1, q}^{\prime \prime} \circ d_{p, q}^{\prime}=d_{p, q-1}^{\prime} \circ d_{p, q}^{\prime \prime}$ for all $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$. If there is no doubt, in which dimensions the morphisms act, we write the conditions in the form $d^{\prime} \circ d^{\prime}=0, d^{\prime \prime} \circ d^{\prime \prime}=0$ and $d^{\prime \prime} \circ d^{\prime}=d^{\prime} \circ d^{\prime \prime}$. Associated with the double comples $\left(K_{\bullet \bullet}, d_{\bullet \bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet \bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right)$, we define the associated total complex $\left(K_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)$ by

$$
K_{n}=\bigoplus_{p+q=n} K_{p, q}
$$

where $\left(d_{n}: K_{n} \rightarrow K_{n-1}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is defined as follows. If $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a=\left(a_{n-i, i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$, where $a_{n-i, i} \in K_{n-i, i}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $d_{n} a=\left(\left(d_{n} a\right)_{n-i-1, i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$, where

$$
\left(d_{n} a\right)_{n-i-1, i}=d^{\prime} a_{n-i, i}+(-1)^{n-i-1} d^{\prime \prime} a_{n-i-1, i+1} \in K_{n-i-1, i} \quad \text { for all } i \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

We must verify that $d_{n+1} \circ d_{n}=0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Indeed, let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a=\left(a_{n+1-i, i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \in K_{n+1}$. If $i \in \mathbb{Z}$, then

$$
\left(d_{n+1} a\right)_{n-i, i}=d^{\prime} a_{n+1-i, i}+(-1)^{n-i} d^{\prime \prime} a_{n-i, i+1}
$$

and, observing $d^{\prime} \circ d^{\prime}=d^{\prime \prime} \circ d^{\prime \prime}=0$ and $d^{\prime} \circ d^{\prime \prime}=d^{\prime \prime} \circ d^{\prime}$, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{n}\left(d_{n+1} a\right)_{n-i-1, i} & =d^{\prime}\left(d_{n+1} a\right)_{n-i, i}+(-1)^{n-i-1} d^{\prime \prime}\left(d_{n+1} a\right)_{n-i-i, i+1} \\
& =(-1)^{n-i} d^{\prime} \circ d^{\prime \prime} a_{n-i, i+1}+(-1)^{n-i-1} d^{\prime \prime} \circ d^{\prime} a_{n-i, i+1}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

For $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$, we call $\left(K_{p, \bullet}, d_{p, \bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ the $p$-th row complex and $\left(K_{\bullet}, q, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}, q\right)$ the $q$-th column complex of $K_{\bullet \bullet}$ Then $d_{p, \bullet}^{\prime}: K_{p, \bullet} \rightarrow K_{p-1, \bullet}$ and $d_{\bullet, q}^{\prime \prime}: K_{\bullet, q} \rightarrow K_{\bullet, q-1}$ are complex morphisms.

Let $\left(K_{\bullet \bullet}, d_{\bullet \bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet \bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ be a positive double complex (that means, $K_{p, q}=\mathbf{0}$ if $p<0$ or $q<0$ ). Then the associated total complex and all row and column complexes of $K_{\bullet \bullet}$ are also positive complexes. We define

$$
X_{p}^{\prime}=H_{0}\left(K_{p, \bullet}\right)=K_{p, 0} / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{p, 1}^{\prime \prime}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad X_{q}^{\prime \prime}=H_{0}\left(K_{\bullet, q}\right)=K_{0, q} / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{1, q}^{\prime}\right)
$$

Then $\delta_{p}^{\prime}=H_{0}\left(d_{p, \bullet}^{\prime}\right): X_{p}^{\prime} \rightarrow X_{p-1}^{\prime}$ and $\delta_{q}^{\prime \prime}=H_{0}\left(d_{\bullet, q^{\prime \prime}}\right): X_{q}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow X_{q-1}^{\prime \prime}$ are homomorphisms, given by $\delta_{p}^{\prime}\left(a_{p, 0}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{p, 1}^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)=d_{p, 0}^{\prime}\left(a_{p, 0}\right)+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{p-1,1}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ and $\delta_{q}^{\prime \prime}\left(a_{0, q}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{1, q}^{\prime}\right)\right)=d_{0, q}^{\prime \prime}\left(a_{0, q}\right)+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{1, q-1}^{\prime}\right)$ for all $a_{p, 0} \in K_{p, 0}$ and $a_{0, q} \in K_{0, q}$. The ( $X_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \delta_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ ) and ( $X_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}, \delta_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}$ ) are positive complexes, called the right and lower edge complex of $X_{\bullet \bullet}$. The situation is coded in the following commutative diagram :


For $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we define $\Phi_{n}^{\prime}: K_{n} \rightarrow X_{n}^{\prime}$ and $\Phi_{n}^{\prime \prime}: K_{n} \rightarrow X_{n}^{\prime \prime}$ by

$$
\Phi_{n}^{\prime}(a)=a_{n, 0}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n, 1}^{\prime \prime}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \Phi_{n}^{\prime \prime}(a)=a_{0, n}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{1, n}^{\prime}\right) \quad \text { if } \quad a=\left(a_{n-i, i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \in K_{n}=\bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} K_{n-i, i}
$$

Then the following Spectral Theorem connects the homology of the total complex with the homology of the edge complexes.

## Spectral Theorem.

- $\Phi_{\bullet}^{\prime}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow X_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is a complex morphism which is functorial in $K_{\bullet \bullet}$. If $H_{q}\left(K_{p, \bullet}\right)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $q \in \mathbb{N}$, then $H_{n}\left(\Phi_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right): H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} H_{n}\left(X_{\bullet}\right)$ is an isomorphism for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- $\Phi_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow X_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}$ is a complex morphism which is functorial in $K_{\bullet \bullet}$. If $H_{p}\left(K_{\bullet}, q\right)=0$ for all $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $p \in \mathbb{N}$, then $H_{n}\left(\Phi_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right): H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} H_{n}\left(X_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right)$, is an isomorphism for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof of the Spectral Theorem. It suffices to prove the first assertion (concerning the right edge complex)
A. $\Phi_{.}^{\prime}$ is a complex morphism, that means, $\delta_{n}^{\prime} \circ \Phi_{n}^{\prime}=\Phi_{n-1}^{\prime} \circ d_{n}: K_{n} \rightarrow X_{n}^{\prime}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a=\left(a_{n-i, i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \in K_{n} . \quad \delta_{n}^{\prime} \circ \Phi_{n}^{\prime}(a)=\delta_{n}^{\prime}\left(a_{n, 0}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n, 1}^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)=d^{\prime} a_{n, 0}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n-1,1}^{\prime \prime}\right)$, and $\Phi_{n-1}^{\prime} \circ d_{n}(a)=d_{n}(a)_{n-1,0}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n-1,1}^{\prime \prime}\right)=d^{\prime} a_{n, 0}+(-1)^{n-1} d^{\prime \prime} a_{n-1,1}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n-1,1}^{\prime \prime}\right)=d^{\prime} a_{n, 0}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n-1,1}^{\prime \prime}\right)$. $\square[\mathbf{A . ]}$
Suppose now that $H_{q}\left(K_{p, \bullet}\right)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $p \in \mathbb{N}$.
B. $H_{n}\left(\Phi_{\mathbf{\bullet}}^{\prime}\right): H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X_{\mathbf{\bullet}}^{\prime}\right)$ is a monomorphism for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, and suppose that $x=a+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}\right) \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(H_{n}\left(\Phi_{\mathbf{\bullet}}^{\prime}\right)\right) \subset H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n}\right) / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}\right)$, where $a=\left(a_{n-i, i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n}\right) \subset K_{n}$. Then $0=d_{n} a=d^{\prime} a_{n-i, i}+(-1)^{n-i-1} d^{\prime \prime} a_{n-i-1, i+1}$, and therefore $d^{\prime} a_{n-i, i}=(-1)^{n-i} d^{\prime \prime} a_{n-i-1, i+1}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. By assumption, $H_{n}\left(\Phi_{\mathbf{\bullet}}^{\prime}\right)(x)=\Phi_{n}^{\prime}(a)+\operatorname{Im}\left(\delta_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)=0$, which implies that $\Phi_{n}^{\prime}(a)=a_{n, 0}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n, 1}^{\prime \prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Im}\left(\delta_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)$, say

$$
\left.a_{n, 0}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n, 1}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\delta_{n+1}^{\prime}\left(c_{n+1,0}\right)+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1,1}^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)=d_{n+1,0}^{\prime}\left(c_{n+1,0}\right)+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n, 1}^{\prime \prime}\right) \quad \text { for some } \quad c_{n+1,0} \in K_{n+1,0} .
$$

Hence there exists some $c_{n, 1} \in K_{n, 1}$ such that $a_{n, 0}=d^{\prime} c_{n+1,0}+(-1)^{n} d^{\prime \prime} c_{n, 1}$.
We shall prove that there exists some $c=\left(c_{n+1-i, i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \in K_{n+1}$ such that $a=d_{n+1} c \in \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}\right)$, that is, $a_{n-i, i}=d^{\prime} c_{n-i+1, i}+(-1)^{n-i} d^{\prime \prime} c_{n-i, i+1}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then it follows that $x=0$. We proceed recursively to construct the elements $c_{n-i+1, i} \in K_{n-i+1, i}$. For $i<0$, we set $c_{n+1-i, i}=0$, and the elements $c_{n+1,0}$ and $c_{n, 1}$ as constructed above satisfy the requirement. Thus suppose that $i \geq 0$ and there exist elements $c_{n-i+1, i} \in K_{n-i+1, i}$ and $c_{n-i, i+1} \in K_{n-i, i+1}$ such that

$$
a_{n-i, i}=d^{\prime} c_{n-i+1, i}+(-1)^{n-i} d^{\prime \prime} c_{n-i, i+1} .
$$

Then $d^{\prime} a_{n-i, i}=(-1)^{n-i} d^{\prime} d^{\prime \prime} c_{n-i, i+1}=(-1)^{n-i} d^{\prime \prime} d^{\prime} c_{n-i, i+1}$, and since $d^{\prime} a_{n-i, i}=(-1)^{n-i} d^{\prime \prime} a_{n-i-1, i+1}$ (as above), it follows that $a_{n-i-1, i+1}-d^{\prime} c_{n-i, i} \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n-i-i, i+1}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n-i-1, i+2}^{\prime \prime}\right)$, since (by assumption) $H_{i+1}\left(K_{n-i-1, \bullet}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n-i-1, i+1}^{\prime \prime}\right) /\left(\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n-i-1, i+2}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\mathbf{0}\right.$. If $c_{n-i-1, i+2} \in K_{n-i-1, i+2}$ is such that $a_{n-i-1, i+1}-d^{\prime} c_{n-i, i}=(-1)^{n-i-1} d^{\prime \prime} c_{n-i-1, i+2}$, then $a_{n-i-1, i+1}=d^{\prime} c_{n-i, i}+(-1)^{n-i-1} d^{\prime \prime} c_{n-i-1, i+2}$.
C. $H_{n}\left(\Phi_{\mathbf{\bullet}}^{\prime}\right): H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X_{\mathbf{\bullet}}^{\prime}\right)$ is an epimorphism for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, and suppose that $x \in H_{n}\left(X_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(\delta_{n}^{\prime}\right) / \operatorname{Im}\left(\delta_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)$, say $x=b+\operatorname{Im}\left(\delta_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)$, where $b=a_{n, 0}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n, 1}^{\prime \prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(\delta_{n}^{\prime}\right) \subset X_{n}=K_{n, 0} / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n, 1}^{\prime \prime}\right)$. Then $0=\delta_{n}^{\prime}(b)=d^{\prime} a_{n, 0}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n-1,1}^{\prime \prime}\right)$, hence $d^{\prime} a_{n, 0}=(-1)^{n} d^{\prime \prime} a_{n-1,1}$ for some $a_{n-1,1} \in K_{n-1,1}$.

We shall prove that there exists some $a=\left(a_{n-i, i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \in K_{n}$ such that $d^{\prime} a_{n-i, i}=(-1)^{n-i} d^{\prime \prime} a_{n-i-1, i+1}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then it follows that $a \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n}\right)$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{n}\left(\Phi_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)\left(a+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n+1}\right)\right) & =\Phi_{n}^{\prime}(a)+\operatorname{Im}\left(\delta_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)=\left(a_{n, 0}+\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n, 1}^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)+\operatorname{Im}\left(\delta_{n+1}^{\prime}\right) \\
& =b+\operatorname{Im}\left(\delta_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)=x \in \operatorname{Im}\left(H_{n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We proceed recursively to construct the elements $a_{n-i, i} \in K_{n-i, i}$. For $i<0$, we set $a_{n-i, i}=0$, and the elements $a_{n, 0}$ and $a_{n-1,1}$ constructed above satisfy our requirements. Thus suppose that $i \geq 0$ and there exist elements $a_{n-i, i} \in K_{n-i, i}$ and $a_{n-i-1, i+1} \in K_{n-i-1, i+1}$ such that $d^{\prime} a_{n-i, i}=$ $(-1)^{n-i} d^{\prime \prime} a_{n-i-1, i+1}$. Then we obtain $d^{\prime \prime} d^{\prime} a_{n-i-1, i+1}=d^{\prime} d^{\prime \prime} a_{n-i-1, i+1}=(-1)^{n-i} d^{\prime} d^{\prime} a_{n-i, i}=0$, and therefore it follows that $d^{\prime} a_{n-i-1, i+1} \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n-i-2, i+1}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n-i-2, i+2}^{\prime \prime}\right)$, since (by assumption) $H_{i+1}\left(K_{n-i-2, \bullet}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{n-i-2, i+1}^{\prime \prime}\right) / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{n-i-2, i+2}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\mathbf{0}$. Hence there exists some $a_{n-i-2, i+2} \in$ $K_{n-i-2, i+2}$ such that $d^{\prime} a_{n-i-1, i+1}=(-1)^{n-i-1} d^{\prime \prime} a_{n-i-2, i+2}$.

Proof of Theorem 1.3.4. Let $\left(P_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \varepsilon\right)$ be a projective resolution of $M,\left(Q_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}, \eta\right)$ a projective resolution of $N$, and consider the double complex

$$
K_{\bullet \bullet}=\left(K_{p, q}=P_{p} \otimes_{R} Q_{q}, d_{p}^{\prime} \otimes Q_{q}, P_{p} \otimes d_{q}^{\prime \prime}\right) .
$$

For $p \in \mathbb{Z}$, the $p$-th row complex $K_{p, \bullet}=P_{p} \otimes_{R} Q_{\bullet}$ induces an exact sequence

$$
\rightarrow P_{p} \otimes_{R} Q_{1} \xrightarrow{P_{p} \otimes d_{1}^{\prime \prime}} P_{p} \otimes Q_{0} \xrightarrow{P_{p} \otimes \eta} P_{p} \otimes N \rightarrow \mathbf{0}
$$

which yields $H_{q}\left(K_{p, \bullet}\right)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $q \in \mathbb{N}$ and $p \in \mathbb{Z}, X_{p}^{\prime}=H_{0}\left(K_{p, \bullet}\right)=P_{p} \otimes_{R} Q_{0} / \operatorname{Im}\left(P_{p} \otimes d_{1}^{\prime \prime}\right)=P_{p} \otimes N$, and consequently $H_{n}\left(X_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)={ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Similarly, we obtain $H_{n}\left(X_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right)={ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, and the Spectral Theorem implies a family of isomorphisms ${ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N) \xrightarrow{\sim}{ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N)$, by means of which we identify these groups.

## Theorem 1.3.5.

1. For all $n \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}: \mathbf{M o d}-R \times R$-Mod $\rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ is an additive functor in both variables, $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(-,-)=\mathbf{0}$ if $n<0$, and (up to functorial isomorphisms) $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N)=\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R^{\text {op }}}(N, M)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\operatorname{Tor}_{0}^{R}(M, N)=M \otimes_{R} N$ for all right $R$-modules $M$ and all $R$-modules $N$,
2. If $R$ is commutative and $M, N$ are $R$-modules, then for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ (up to functorial isomorphisms) $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N)=\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N)$ are $R$-modules. They are finitely generated provided that $R$ is noetherian and both $M$ and $N$ are finitely generated.
3. For every short exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \rightarrow M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ of right $R$-modules and every $R$-module $N$, there is a long exact sequence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\ldots \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{2}^{R}(M, N) & \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{2}^{R}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, N\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}\left(M^{\prime}, N\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, N) \rightarrow \\
& \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, N\right) \rightarrow M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow \mathbf{0}
\end{aligned}
$$

which is functorial both in $N$ and the original short exact sequence.
4. For every short exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow N^{\prime} \rightarrow N \rightarrow N^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ of $R$-modules and every right $R$-module $M$ there is a long exact sequence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\ldots \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{2}^{R}(M, N) & \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{2}^{R}\left(M, N^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}\left(M, N^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, N) \rightarrow \\
& \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}\left(M, N^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N^{\prime} \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}
\end{aligned}
$$

which is functorial both in $M$ and the original short exact sequence.
Proof. 1. and 2. follows by tracing through the definitions.
3. Let $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \rightarrow M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ be a short exact sequence of right $R$-modules and $\left(Q_{\bullet}, \eta\right)$ a projective resolution of $N$. Then $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} Q_{\bullet} \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} Q_{\bullet} \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{R} Q_{\bullet} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is an exact sequence of complexes (since the modules $Q_{n}$ are projective and thus flat for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ). Now the assertion follows by Theorem 1.3.1.
4. Apply 3. for $R^{\mathrm{op}}$.

Theorem 1.3.6. For an $R$-module $E$, the following assertions are equivalent:
(a) $E$ is flat.
(b) $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, E)=\mathbf{0}$ for every right $R$-module $M$ and all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
(c) $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, E)=\mathbf{0}$ for every right $R$-module $M$.
(d) $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(R / \mathfrak{a}, E)=\mathbf{0}$ for every right ideal $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$.
(e) For every short exact sequence of $R$-modules $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow N^{\prime} \rightarrow N \rightarrow E \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ and every right $R$-module $M$, the sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N^{\prime} \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is exact.

Proof. (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b) Let $M$ be a right $R$-module and $\left(P_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right)$ be a projective resolution of $M$. Since $E$ is flat, it induces an exact sequence $\rightarrow P_{n} \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow P_{n-1} \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow P_{0} \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$, which shows that $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, E)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
(b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) $\Rightarrow$ (d) Obvious.
(d) $\Rightarrow$ (a) By Theorem 1.2 .7 we must prove: For every finitely generated right ideal, the multiplication homomorphism $\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{E}: \mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow E$ is a monomorphism. If $j=(\mathfrak{a} \hookrightarrow R$ denotes the injection, then $\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{E}=\left(\mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} E \xrightarrow{j \otimes E} R \otimes_{R} E \xrightarrow{\sim} E\right)$, and thus it suffices that $j \otimes E$ is a monomorphism. However, the exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathfrak{a} \stackrel{j}{\hookrightarrow} R \rightarrow R / \mathfrak{a} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ induces the exact sequence $\mathbf{0}=\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(R / \mathfrak{a}, E) \rightarrow \mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} E \xrightarrow{j \otimes E} R \otimes_{R} E$, and thus $j \otimes E$ is a monomorphism.
(c) $\Rightarrow$ (e) Let $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow N^{\prime} \rightarrow N \rightarrow E \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ be an exact sequence of $R$-modules and $M$ a right $R$-module. Then we obtain the exact sequence $\mathbf{0}=\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, E) \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N^{\prime} \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$.
(e) $\Rightarrow$ (c) Since every free $R$-module is projective and thus flat, there exists an exact sequence of $R$-modules $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow N^{\prime} \xrightarrow{j} N \rightarrow E \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$, where $N$ is flat. If $M$ is a right $R$-module, we obtain the exact sequence $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, N) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, E) \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N^{\prime} \xrightarrow{M \otimes f} M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} E \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$. The implication (a) $\Rightarrow$ (c) shows that $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, N)=\mathbf{0}$, and by assumption $M \otimes f$ is a monomorphism. Hence the exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, E) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}(M \otimes f)=\mathbf{0}$ implies $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, E)=\mathbf{0}$

## Definitions and Remarks.

1. Let $\left(K_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)$ be a complex in $R$-Mod. For $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we set

$$
K^{n}=K_{-n} \quad \text { and } \quad d^{n}=d_{-n}: K^{n} \rightarrow K^{n+1}
$$

The sequence $K^{\bullet}=\left(K^{\bullet}, d^{\bullet}\right)=\left(d^{n}: K^{n} \rightarrow K^{n+1}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is called a cochain complex or cocomplex in $R$-Mod. The groups $H^{n}\left(K^{\bullet}\right)=H_{-n}\left(K_{\bullet}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(d^{n}\right) / \operatorname{Im}\left(d^{n-1}\right)$ are called the cohomology groups of $K^{\bullet}$. For a complex morphism $f_{\bullet}: K_{\bullet} \rightarrow K_{\bullet}^{\prime}$, we set $f^{\bullet}=\left(f^{n}: K^{n} \rightarrow K^{\prime n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$, where $f^{n}=f_{-n}$, and $H^{n}\left(f^{\bullet}\right)=H_{-n}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. With these definitions, the cocomplexes in $R$-Mod form a category $\mathbf{C}^{R}$, and $\left(H^{n}: \mathbf{C}^{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is a sequence of additive functors. A cocomplex $K^{\bullet}$ is called positive if $K^{n}=\mathbf{0}$ for all $n<0$.
2. For every exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow K^{\prime \bullet} \xrightarrow{f^{\bullet}} K^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{g^{\bullet}} K^{\prime \prime \bullet} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ in $\mathbf{C}^{R}$ there exists a family of homomorphisms $\left(\omega^{n}: H^{n}\left(K^{\prime \prime \bullet}\right) \rightarrow H^{n+1}\left(K^{\prime \bullet}\right)\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ such that the long cohomology sequence

$$
\ldots \xrightarrow{\omega^{n-1}} H^{n}\left(K^{\prime \bullet}\right) \xrightarrow{H^{n}\left(f^{\bullet}\right)} H^{n}\left(K^{\bullet}\right) \xrightarrow{H^{n}(g \bullet)} H^{n}\left(K^{\prime \prime \bullet}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega^{n}} H^{n+1}\left(K^{\prime \bullet}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

is exact and functorial in the short exact sequence.
3. Let $M$ be an $R$-module. An injective resolution $\left(I^{\bullet}, d^{\bullet}, \nu\right)$ of $M$ is a positive cocomplex $I^{\bullet}$ of injective modules such that $H^{n}\left(I^{\bullet}\right)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $n \neq 0$, together with a monomorphism $\nu: M \rightarrow I^{0}$ such that $\operatorname{Im}(\nu)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(d^{0}\right)$. Equivalently, an injective resolution of $M$ is an exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M \xrightarrow{\nu} I^{0} \xrightarrow{d^{0}} I^{1} \xrightarrow{d^{1}} I^{2} \rightarrow \ldots$ and induces an isomorphism $\nu^{0}: M \xrightarrow{\sim} H^{0}\left(I^{\bullet}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(d^{0}\right)$.
4. Let $\varphi: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ be an $R$-homomorphism, $\left(I^{\bullet}, \nu\right)$ an injective resolution of $M$ and $\left(I^{\prime \bullet}, \nu^{\prime}\right)$ an injective resolution of $M^{\prime}$. Then there exists up to homotopy a unique morpism $f^{\bullet}: I^{\bullet} \rightarrow I^{\bullet \bullet}$ such that $\nu^{\prime} \circ \varphi=f^{0} \circ \nu: M \rightarrow I^{\prime 0}$.
5. Every $R$-module $M$ has an injective resolution. If $\left(I^{\bullet}, \nu\right)$ and $\left.I^{\bullet \bullet}, \nu^{\prime}\right)$ are injective resolutions of $M$, then there exists a homotopy equivalence $f^{\bullet}: I^{\bullet} \rightarrow I^{\bullet \bullet}$ such that $f^{0} \circ \nu=\nu^{\prime}: M \rightarrow I^{\prime 0}$.

Definition. We fix for every $R$-module a projective and an injective resolution. Let $M$ and $N$ be $R$-modules.
a. Let $\left(I^{\bullet}, d^{\bullet}, \nu\right)$ be an injective resolution of $N$, say $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow N \xrightarrow{\nu} I^{0} \xrightarrow{d^{0}} I^{1} \xrightarrow{d^{1}} \ldots$ Then $\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, I^{\bullet}\right), d_{*}^{\bullet}\right) \quad\left(\right.$ where $d_{*}^{n}: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, I^{n}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, I^{n+1}\right)$ is the homomorphism induced by $\left.d^{n}\right)$ is a cocomplex, and we define

$$
{ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M, N)=H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, I^{\bullet}\right) \quad \text { for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}\right.
$$

If $f: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism of $R$-modules, then $\operatorname{Hom}\left(f, I^{\bullet}\right): \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime}, I^{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, I^{\bullet}\right)$ is a cocomplex homomorphism, and we define

$$
{ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(f, N)=H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(f, I^{\bullet}\right)\right):^{\prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}\left(M^{\prime}, N\right) \rightarrow^{\prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M, N) \quad \text { for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

These settings define a sequence of (contravariant) additive functors ( $\left.{ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(-, N): \operatorname{Mod}-R^{\circ} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$, called the Ext functors in the first variable. By definition, ${ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{n}^{R}(-, N)=\mathbf{0}$ for $n<0$, and the exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) \xrightarrow{\nu_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, I^{0}\right) \xrightarrow{d_{*}^{0}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, I^{1}\right)$ induces an isomorphism

$$
' \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{0}(M, N)=H^{0}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, I^{\bullet}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{*}^{0}\right)=\operatorname{Im}\left(\nu_{*}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N),\right.
$$

which is functorial in $M$, and we identify ${ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{0}(-, N)=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(-, N)$ by means of this isomorphism.
b. Let $\left(P_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right)$ be a projective resolution of $M$, say $\ldots \rightarrow P_{1} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} P_{0} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} M \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$. For $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we set $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, N)^{n}=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P_{n}, N\right)$ and $d^{n}=\left(d_{n+1}\right)^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P_{n}, N\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P_{n+1}, N\right)$. Then $\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, N)^{\bullet}, d^{\bullet}\right)$ is a cocomplex, and we define

$$
{ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M, N)=H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, N)^{\bullet} .\right.
$$

If $f: N \rightarrow N^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism of $R$-modules, then $\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{q}, f\right)_{q \in \mathbb{Z}}\right.$ defines a cocomplex homomorphism $\operatorname{Hom}(P, f)^{\bullet}:: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, N)^{\bullet} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P, N^{\prime}\right)^{\bullet}$, and we define

$$
{ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M, f)=H^{n}(\operatorname{Hom}(P, f) \bullet):^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M, N) \rightarrow{ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}\left(M, N^{\prime}\right) \quad \text { for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

These settings define a sequence of additive functors $\left({ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M,-): \mathbf{M o d}-R \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$, called the Ext functors in the seccond variable. By definition, ${ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{n}^{R}(M,-)=\mathbf{0}$ for $n<0$, and the exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, P_{0}\right) \xrightarrow{d_{1}^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, P^{1}\right)$ induces an isomorphism

$$
{ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{0}(M, N)=H^{0}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, N)^{\bullet}=\operatorname{Ker}\left(d^{0}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{*}^{1}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N),\right.
$$

which is functorial in $N$, and we identify ${ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{0}(M,-)=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M,-)$ by means of this isomorphism.

Theorem and Definition 1.3.7. Let $M$ and $N$ be a $R$-modules. Up to functorial isomorphisms, we have ${ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M, N)={ }^{\prime \prime} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M, N)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
We define Ext $=$ Ext $^{\prime}=$ Ext $^{\prime \prime}$.
Proof. (Sketch) Take a projective resolution $\left(P_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right)$ of $M$, an injective resolution $\left(I^{\bullet}, \nu\right)$ of $N$ and apply the Spectral Theorem to the double cocomplex built be the groups $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P_{p}, I^{q}\right)$.

## Theorem 1.3.8.

1. For all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}: R-\mathbf{M o d}^{\mathrm{op}} \times R$ - $\mathbf{M o d} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ is an additive functor in both variables, $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(-,-)=\mathbf{0}$ if $n<0$, and (up to functorial isomorphisms) $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{0}(M, N)=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ for all $R$-modules $M$ and $N$.
2. If $R$ is commutative and $M, N$ are $R$-modules, then the groups $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M, N)$ are $R$-modules, and they are finitely generated provided that $R$ is noetherian and both $M$ and $N$ are finitely generated.
3. For every short exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \rightarrow M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ of $R$-modules and every $R$-module $N$ there is a long exact sequence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, N\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) & \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime}, N\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, N\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M, N) \rightarrow \\
& \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}\left(M^{\prime}, N\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{2}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, N\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{2}(M, N) \rightarrow \ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

which is functorial both in $N$ and the original short exact sequence.
4. For every short exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow N^{\prime} \rightarrow N \rightarrow N^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ of $R$-modules and every $R$-module $M$ there is a long exact sequence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, N^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) & \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, N^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}\left(M, N^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M, N) \rightarrow \\
& \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}\left(M, N^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{2}\left(M, N^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{2}(M, N) \rightarrow \ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

which is functorial both in $M$ and the original short exact sequence.
Proof. 1. and 2. follows by tracing through the definitions.
3. Let $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \rightarrow M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ be a short exact sequence of $R$-modules and $N$ an $R$-module. Let $\left(I^{\bullet}, \nu\right)$ be an injective resolution of $N$. Then $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, I^{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, I^{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime}, I^{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is an exact sequence of cocomplexes, and the assertion follows from the long cohomology sequence.
4. Let $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow N^{\prime} \rightarrow N \rightarrow N^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ be a short exact sequence of $R$-modules and $M$ and $R$-module. Let $\left(P_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right)$ be a projective resolution of $M$, and observe that $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P,-)^{\bullet}=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P_{\bullet},-\right)$. Then $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P, N^{\prime}\right)^{\bullet} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, N)^{\bullet} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P, N^{\prime \prime}\right)^{\bullet}$ is an exact sequence of cocomplexes, and the assertion follows from the long cohomology sequence.

## Theorem 1.3.9.

1. For an $R$-module $P$, the following assertions are equivalent:
(a) $P$ is projective.
(b) $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(P, N)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $R$-modules $N$ and all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
(c) $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(P, N)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $R$-modules $N$.
2. For an $R$-module $Q$, the following assertions are equivalent:
(a) $Q$ is injective.
(b) $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M, Q)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $R$-modules $M$ and all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
(c) $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M, Q)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $R$-modules $M$.

Proof. 1. (a) $\Rightarrow(\mathrm{b}) \ldots \rightarrow \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathbf{0} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} P \xrightarrow{\mathrm{id} d_{P}} P \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is a projective resolution of $P$. If $N$ is an $R$-module, then the exact sequence $\rightarrow \mathbf{0}=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\mathbf{0}, N) \xrightarrow{d_{1}^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, N) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{id}_{P}^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, N) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ shows that $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(P, N)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
(b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) Obvious.
(c) $\Rightarrow$ (a) We must prove that every $R$-epimorphism $M \rightarrow P$ splits. Thus let $g: M \rightarrow P$ be an $R$ epimorphism and $M^{\prime}=\operatorname{Ker}(g)$. The exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \hookrightarrow M \xrightarrow{g} P \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ yields the exact sequence $\ldots \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, M) \xrightarrow{g_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, P) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}\left(P, M^{\prime}\right)=\mathbf{0}$. Hence there exists some $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, M)$ such that $g_{*}(\psi)=g \circ \psi=\operatorname{id}_{P}$. Hence $g$ splits.
2. (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b) $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow Q \xrightarrow{\text { id } Q} Q \xrightarrow{d^{0}} \mathbf{0} \xrightarrow{d^{1}} \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \ldots$ is a injective resolution of $P$. If $N$ is an $R$-module, then the exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, Q) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{id}_{Q_{*}}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, Q) \rightarrow \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \ldots$ shows that $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(P, N)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
(b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) Obvious.
(c) $\Rightarrow$ (a) We must prove that every $R$-monomorphism $Q \rightarrow M$ splits. Thus let $f: Q \rightarrow M$ be an $R$-monomorphism and $M^{\prime \prime}=\operatorname{Coker}(f)$. The exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow Q \xrightarrow{f} M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ yields the exact sequence $\ldots \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, Q) \xrightarrow{f^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(Q, Q) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, Q\right)=\mathbf{0}$. Hence there exists some varphi $\in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, Q)$ such that $f^{*}(\varphi)=\varphi \circ f=\operatorname{id}_{Q}$. Hence $f$ splits.

Remarks. Let $T: R$-Mod $\rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ be an additive exact functor.

1. Let $M^{\prime} \subset M$ be an $R$-submodule, and consider the exact sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{j} M \xrightarrow{\pi} M / M^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$, where $j=\left(M^{\prime} \hookrightarrow M\right)$ is the embedding and $\pi: M \rightarrow M / M^{\prime}$ is the residue class homomorphism. Then the sequence $\mathbf{0} \rightarrow T M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{T j} T M \xrightarrow{T \pi} T\left(M / M^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ is exact and induces isomorphisms $T j: T M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Im}(T j) \subset T M$ and $(T \pi)^{*}: T M / \operatorname{Im}(T j) \xrightarrow{\sim} T\left(M / M^{\prime}\right)$. We may identify the modules by means of these isomorphisms and obtain $T M^{\prime} \subset T M$ and $T\left(M / M^{\prime}\right)=T M / T M^{\prime}$.
2. Let $f: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ be a homomorphism of $R$-modules. Then the exact sequences

$$
\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}(f) \hookrightarrow M \xrightarrow{f} M^{\prime} \quad \text { and } \quad M \xrightarrow{f} M^{\prime} \rightarrow M^{\prime} / \operatorname{Im}(f) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}
$$

induce the exact sequences

$$
\mathbf{0} \rightarrow T(\operatorname{Ker}(f)) \rightarrow T M \xrightarrow{T f} T M^{\prime} \quad \text { and } \quad T M \xrightarrow{T f} T M^{\prime} \rightarrow T\left(M^{\prime} / \operatorname{Im}(f)\right) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}
$$

Due to the identifications made above, we obtain $\operatorname{Ker}(T f)=T(\operatorname{Ker}(f))$ and

$$
\left.T M^{\prime} / T(\operatorname{Im}(f))=T\left(M^{\prime} / \operatorname{Im}(f)\right)=T M^{\prime} / \operatorname{Im}(T f)\right), \quad \text { and therefore } \quad T(\operatorname{Im}(f))=\operatorname{Im}(T f)
$$

Conversely, if $T$ is any additive functor preserving kernels and images, then $T$ is exact.
3. Let $K^{\bullet}$ be a complex in $R$-Mod. Then $T K^{\bullet}$ is a complex, and, due to the above identifications, $H_{n}\left(T K^{\bullet}\right)=T H_{n}\left(K^{\bullet}\right)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Exercise 1. Let $R \rightarrow A$ be a flat commutative $R$-algebra, and let $M, N$ be $R$-modules.

1. For every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, There is an $A$-isomorphism $A \otimes_{R} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, N) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{A}\left(A \otimes_{R} M, A \otimes_{R} N\right)$, functorial in both $M$ and $N$.
2. Let $M$ be finitely presented [that means, there is an exact sequence $F^{\prime} \rightarrow F \rightarrow M \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ with finitely generated free $R$-modules. Then the $A$-homomorphism

$$
\Phi: A \otimes_{R} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A \otimes_{R} M, A \otimes_{R} N\right)
$$

introduced in Theorem 1.2.6 is an isomorphism.
3. Let $R$ be noetherian, $M$ finitely generated and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then there is an $A$-isomorphism $\mathrm{A} \otimes_{\mathrm{R}} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M, N) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A \otimes_{R} M, A \otimes_{R} N\right)$, functorial in both $M$ and $N$.

## CHAPTER 2

## Ring Theory

### 2.1. Local rings, Quotients, Localization, Prime and primary ideals

Theorem and Definition 2.1.1. Let $R \neq \mathbf{0}$ be a ring.
A subset $T \subset R$ is called multiplicatively closed if $1 \in T$ and $T T \subset T$ [then $T T=T$ ]. A subset $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$ is called a maximal left ideal [maximal right ideal, maximal ideal] if it is maximal among those distinct from $R$.

1. Let $T \subset R$ be a multiplicatively closed subset, $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$ a left ideal [a right ideal, an ideal] such that $\mathfrak{a} \cap T=\emptyset$, and let $\Omega$ be the set of all left ideals [right ideals, ideals] $\mathfrak{c} \subset R$ such that $\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{c}$ and $\mathfrak{c} \cap T=\emptyset$. Then $\Omega$ contains maximal elements, and if $R$ is commutative, then every maximal element of $\Omega$ is a prime ideal.

In particular $(T=\{1\})$ : If $R \neq \mathbf{0}$, then $R$ contains maximal left ideals, maximal right ideals and maximal ideals.
2. For a subset $J \subset R$, the following assertions are equivalent:
(a) $J$ is the intersection of all maximal left ideals of $R$.
(b) $J$ is the intersection of all maximal right ideals of $R$.
(c) $J$ is the greatest left ideal [right ideal, ideal] of $R$ such that $1+J \subset R^{\times}$.

If $J$ satisfies these conditions, then $J=\mathrm{J}(R)$ is an ideal of $R$. It is called the Jacobson radical of $R$.
3. The following assertions are equivalent:
(a) $R \backslash R^{\times} \triangleleft R$.
(b) $\mathrm{J}(R)=R \backslash R^{\times}$.
(c) $R$ has a greatest left ideal [right ideal] (namely $\mathrm{J}(R)$ ).
(d) $R / \mathrm{J}(R)$ is a division ring.

If these conditions are fulfilled, then the ring $R$ is called local. Every division ring is local.
In particular, let $R$ be commutative. Then $R$ is local if and only if $R$ a unique maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$, and then $\mathfrak{m}=\mathrm{J}(R)=R \backslash R^{\times}$.
4. An element $u \in R$ is called nilpotent if $u^{n}=0$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. If every $u \in R \backslash R^{\times}$is nilpotent, then $R$ is local.

Proof. 1. $\mathfrak{a} \in \Omega$, and the union of every chain in $\Omega$ belongs to $\Omega$. By Zorn's Lemma, $\Omega$ has a maximal element.

If $R$ is commutative and $\mathfrak{p} \in \Omega$ is a maximal element, then $\mathfrak{p}$ is a prime ideal. Indeed, if $a, b \in R \backslash \mathfrak{p}$, then $(\mathfrak{p}+a R) \cap T \neq \emptyset$ and $(\mathfrak{p}+b R) \cap T \neq \emptyset$. Hence there exist elements $p, q \in \mathfrak{p}$ and $u, v \in R$ such that $p+a u \in T$ and $q+b v \in T$. But then $y=(p+a u)(q+b v) \in T$, and as $y \equiv a b u v \bmod \mathfrak{p}$, it follows that $a b \notin \mathfrak{p}$.
2. Let $\mathfrak{L}$ be the set of all maximal left ideals of $R$, and

$$
J=\bigcap_{\mathfrak{m} \in \mathcal{L}} \mathfrak{m}
$$

We shall prove the following three assertions:
A. $J \triangleleft R$.
B. $1+J \subset R^{\times}$.
C. If $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$ is a left ideal such that $1+\mathfrak{a} \subset R^{\times}$, then $\mathfrak{a} \subset J$.

Suppose that $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}$ and $\mathbf{C}$ hold. Then $J$ is the greatest left ideal (and thus also the greatest ideal) such that $1+J \subset R^{\times}$. Hence a) $\left.\Leftrightarrow \mathrm{c}\right)$. b) $\Leftrightarrow$ c) is proved in the same way.

Proof of A. For $\mathfrak{m} \in \mathfrak{L}$, let $\mathfrak{m}^{*}=\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(R / \mathfrak{m})=\{x \in R \mid x R \subset \mathfrak{m}\}$. Then $\mathfrak{m}^{*} \triangleleft R, \mathfrak{m}^{*} \subset \mathfrak{m}$, and we set

$$
J^{*}=\bigcap_{\mathfrak{m} \in \mathfrak{L}} \mathfrak{m}^{*}
$$

Then $J^{*} \triangleleft R, \quad J^{*} \subset J$, and we assert that $J^{*}=J$ (then A holds).
Assume to the contrary that $x \in J \backslash J^{*}$. Then there exist some $\mathfrak{m} \in \mathfrak{L}$ and $u \in R$ such that $x u \notin \mathfrak{m}$, and consequently $R x u \not \subset \mathfrak{m}$. Hence $\mathfrak{m}+R x u=R$, and there exist elements $y \in R$ and $m \in \mathfrak{m}$ such that $m+y x u=u$, and thus $(1-y x) u=m \in \mathfrak{m}$.

CASE 1: $R(1-y x)=R$. Let $v \in R$ be such that $v(1-y x)=1$. Then $u=v(1-y x) u=v m \in \mathfrak{m}$, and thus,$x u \in \mathfrak{m}$, a contradiction.

CASE 2: $R(1-y x) \subsetneq R$. Then there exists some $\mathfrak{n} \in \mathfrak{L}$ such that $R(1-y x) \subset \mathfrak{n}$, hence $1-y x \in \mathfrak{n} \subset J$, and as $x \in J$, this implies that $1 \in J$, a contradiction.

Proof of B. Let $y \in J$. We assert that $R(1-y x)=R$ for all $x \in R$. Indeed, assume that there is some $x \in R$ such that $R(1-y x) \subsetneq R$, and let $\mathfrak{n} \in \mathfrak{L}$ be such that $R(1-y x) \subset \mathfrak{n}$. Then $1-y x \in \mathfrak{n} \subset J$, and as $y \in J$, we obtain $1 \in J$, a contradiction.

In particular, $R(1+y)=R$, and there exists some $u \in R$ such that $u(1+y)=1$. Since $u=1-u y$, we obtain also $R u=R$, and there is some $v \in R$ such that $v u=1$. As $u$ has both a left and a right inverse, it follows that $u \in R^{\times}$and thus $1+y=u^{-1} \in R^{\times}$.

Proof of C. Let $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$ be a left ideal such that $1+\mathfrak{a} \subset R^{\times}$. We must prove that $\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{m}$ for all $\mathfrak{m} \in \mathfrak{L}$. Suppose at the contrary that there is some $\mathfrak{m} \in \mathfrak{L}$ such that $\mathfrak{a} \not \subset \mathfrak{m}$. Then $\mathfrak{a}+\mathfrak{m}=R$, hence $a+m=1$ for some $a \in \mathfrak{a}$ and $m \in \mathfrak{m}$. But then $m=1-a \in 1+\mathfrak{a} \subset R^{\times}$, a contraction.
3. (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) If $R \backslash R^{\times}$is an ideal, then it is the greatest (and thus the only maximal) left ideal [right ideal] of $R$, and $\mathrm{J}(R)=R \backslash R^{\times}$.
(c) $\Rightarrow(\mathrm{d})$ We must prove that $(R / \mathrm{J}(R))^{\bullet}$ is a group, that is, every $\xi \in(R / \mathrm{J}(R))^{\bullet}$ has a left-inverse. Let $\xi=x+\mathrm{J}(R) \in(R / \mathrm{J}(R))^{\bullet}$, where $x \in R \backslash \mathrm{~J}(R)$. Then $\mathrm{J}(R)+R x=R$, and there exist $y \in \mathrm{~J}(R)$ and $u \in R$ such that $y+u x=1$. If $\eta=u+\mathrm{J}(R)$, then $\eta \xi=1 \in R / \mathrm{J}(R)$.
(d) $\Rightarrow$ (b) It suffices to prove that $R \backslash \mathrm{~J}(R) \subset R^{\times}$. Indeed, once this is done, then $R \backslash \mathrm{~J}(R)=R^{\times}$, and $R \backslash R^{\times}=\mathrm{J}(R) \triangleleft R$. If $a \in R \backslash \mathrm{~J}(R)$, then $a+\mathrm{J}(R) \in(R / \mathrm{J}(R))^{\times}$, and thus there is some $u \in R$ such that $a u \in 1+\mathrm{J}(R) \subset R^{\times}$, and thus $a \in R^{\times}$.
4. It suffices to prove that $R \backslash R^{\times} \subset \mathrm{J}(R)$ (then $R \backslash R^{\times}=\mathrm{J}(R)$ ). Let $u \in R \backslash R^{\times}$and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ minimal such that $u^{n}=0$. We shall prove that $1+R u \subset R^{\times}$, for then $u \in R u \subset \mathrm{~J}(R)$. If $a \in R$, then $y=-a u \notin R^{\times}$for otherwise $y u^{n-1}=-a u^{n}=0$ implies $u^{n-1}=0$, a contradiction. Hence $y^{k}=0$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, and $1=1-y^{k}=(1-y)\left(1+y+\ldots+y^{k-1}\right)=\left(1+y+\ldots+y^{k-1}\right)(1-y)$ implies $1-y=1+a u \in R^{\times}$

Example (Origin of the terminology "local"). Let $X$ be a topological space, $x_{0} \in X, \mathcal{U}=\mathcal{U}\left(x_{0}\right)$ the system of neighborhoods of $x_{0}$ in $X$ and $\Omega$ the set of all pairs $(U, f)$, where $U \in \mathcal{U}$ and $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function. For $\left(U_{1}, f_{1}\right),\left(U_{2}, f_{2}\right) \in \Omega$, we define $\left(U_{1}, f_{1}\right) \sim\left(U_{2}, f_{2}\right)$ if there exists some $U \in \mathcal{U}$ such that $U \subset U_{1} \cap U_{2}$ and $f_{1}\left|U=f_{2}\right| U$. Then $\sim$ is an equivalence relation on $\Omega$, and if $(U, f) \in \Omega$, then the equivalence class $[U, f]$ of $(U, f)$ is called the germ of $f$ in $x_{0}$. The set $\mathcal{O}=\mathcal{O}_{X, x_{0}}=\Omega / \sim$ of all germs of continuous functions in $x_{0}$ is made into a ring by means of $\left[U_{1}, f_{1}\right] \dot{+}\left[U_{2}, f_{2}\right]=\left[U_{0}, f_{0}\right]$ if $f_{1}\left|U \dot{+} f_{2}\right| U=f_{0} \mid U$ for some $U \in \mathcal{U}$ such that $U \subset U_{0} \cap U_{1} \cap U_{2}$. The map

$$
\varepsilon: \mathcal{O} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \text { defined by } \quad \varepsilon([U, f])=f\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

is a ring epimorphism, and $\mathcal{O} \backslash \operatorname{Ker}(\varepsilon)=\left\{[U, f] \in \mathcal{O} \mid f\left(x_{0}\right) \neq 0\right\}=\mathcal{O}^{\times} \quad$ [indeed, if $[U, f] \in \mathcal{O}$ and $f\left(x_{0}\right) \neq 0$, then there is some $U_{0} \in \mathcal{U}$ such that $U_{0} \subset U$ and $f(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in U_{0}$, which implies $\left.[U, f] \cdot\left[U_{0}, 1 / f\right]=1_{\mathcal{O}}\right]$. Hence $\operatorname{Ker}(\varepsilon)=\mathcal{O} \backslash \mathcal{O}^{\times} \triangleleft \mathcal{O}$, and thus $\mathcal{O}$ is local.

Theorem 2.1.2 (Nakayama's Lemma). Let $R \neq \mathbf{0}$ be a ring, $M$ an $R$-module and $\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathrm{J}(R)$ and ideal of $R$.

1. Let $M^{\prime} \subset M$ be an $R$-submodule such that $M / M^{\prime}$ is finitely generated. If $M=M^{\prime}+\mathfrak{a} M$, then $M=M^{\prime}$. In particular $\left(M^{\prime}=\mathbf{0}\right)$ : If $M$ is finitely generated and $M=\mathfrak{a} M$, then $M=\mathbf{0}$.
2. Let $M$ be finitely generated, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n} \in M$.
(a) $M={ }_{R}\left\langle u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right\rangle$ if and only if $M / \mathfrak{a} M={ }_{R / \mathfrak{a}}\left\langle u_{1}+\mathfrak{a} M, \ldots, u_{n}+\mathfrak{a} M\right\rangle$.
(b) Suppose that $M$ is finitely presented and $u_{1}+\mathfrak{a} M, \ldots, u_{n}+\mathfrak{a} M$ is an $R / \mathfrak{a}$-basis of $M / \mathfrak{a} M$. If the multiplication homomorphism $\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}: \mathfrak{a} \otimes_{R} M \rightarrow M$ is a monomorphism, then $\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)$ is an $R$-basis of $M$.

Proof. 1. Assume first that $M^{\prime}=\mathbf{0}$, and let $\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)$ be a minimal system of generators of $M$. We assert that $\mathfrak{a} M=\left\{a_{1} u_{1}+\ldots+a_{n} u_{n} \mid a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in \mathfrak{a}\right\}$.

Indeed, $\supset$ follows by the very definition. Conversely, if $x \in \mathfrak{a} M$, then $x=c_{1} m_{1}+\ldots+c_{k} m_{k}$, where $k \in \mathbb{N}, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k} \in \mathfrak{a}$ and $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k} \in M$. For $j \in[1, k]$, there exist $b_{j, 1}, \ldots, b_{j, n} \in R$ such that

$$
m_{j}=\sum_{\nu=1}^{n} b_{j, \nu} u_{\nu}, \quad \text { and then } \quad x=\sum_{\nu=1}^{n} a_{\nu} u_{\nu}, \quad \text { where } \quad a_{\nu}=\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} b_{i, \nu} \in \mathfrak{a} \text { for all } \nu \in[1, n] .
$$

In particular, $M=\mathfrak{a} M$ implies $u_{1}=a_{1} u_{1}+\ldots+a_{n} u_{n}$ for some $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in \mathfrak{a}$. Hence it follows that $\left(1-a_{1}\right) u_{1}=a_{2} u_{2}+\ldots+a_{n} u_{n}$, and since $1-a_{1} \in 1+\mathfrak{a} \subset R^{\times}$, we obtain $u_{1} \in{ }_{R}\left\langle u_{2}, \ldots, u_{n}\right\rangle$ and $M={ }_{R}\left\langle u_{2}, \ldots, u_{n}\right\rangle$, which contradicts the assumption that $\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)$ is a minimal system of generators.
2. (a) If $M={ }_{R}\left\langle u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right\rangle$, then $M / \mathfrak{a} M={ }_{R}\left\langle u_{1}+\mathfrak{a} M, \ldots, u_{n}+\mathfrak{a} M\right\rangle={ }_{R / \mathfrak{a}}\left\langle u_{1}+\mathfrak{a} M, \ldots, u_{n}+\mathfrak{a} M\right\rangle$. Conversely, assume that $M / \mathfrak{a} M={ }_{R / \mathfrak{a}}\left\langle u_{1}+\mathfrak{a} M, \ldots, u_{n}+\mathfrak{a} M\right\rangle={ }_{R}\left\langle u_{1}+\mathfrak{a} M, \ldots, u_{n}+\mathfrak{a} M\right\rangle$, and set $M^{\prime}={ }_{R}\left\langle u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right\rangle$. Then $\left(M^{\prime}+\mathfrak{a} M\right) / \mathfrak{a} M={ }_{R}\left\langle u_{1}+\mathfrak{a} M, \ldots, u_{n}+\mathfrak{a} M\right\rangle=M / \mathfrak{a} M$, hence $M^{\prime}+\mathfrak{a} M=M$, and thus $M^{\prime}=M$ by 1 .
(b) By assumption, $M / \mathfrak{a} M={ }_{R / \mathfrak{a}}\left\langle u_{1}+\mathfrak{a} M, \ldots, u_{n}+\mathfrak{a} M\right\rangle$, and thus $M={ }_{R}\left\langle u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right\rangle$ by (a). Let $F$ be a free $R$-module with basis $\left(e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}\right)$, let $p: F \rightarrow M$ be the unique epimorphism satisfying $p\left(e_{i}\right)=u_{i}$ for all $i \in[1, n], K=\operatorname{Ker}(p)$ and $j=(K \hookrightarrow F)$. We shall prove that $K=\mathbf{0}$ (then $p$ is an isomorphism and $M$ is free). $F / \mathfrak{a} F$ is a free $R / \mathfrak{a}$-module with basis $\left(e_{1}+\mathfrak{a} F, \ldots, e_{n}+\mathfrak{a} F\right)$, and therefore $p$ induces an isomorphism $p^{*}: F / \mathfrak{a} F \rightarrow M / \mathfrak{a} M$ satisfying $p^{*}\left(e_{i}+\mathfrak{a} F\right)=u_{i}+\mathfrak{a} M$ for all $i \in[1, n]$. We obtain the following commutative diagram with exact rows.


By the Snake Lemma, we obtain an exact sequence

$$
\mathbf{0}=\operatorname{Ker}\left(\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{M}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Coker}\left(\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{K}\right)=K / \mathfrak{a} K \xrightarrow{j^{*}} \operatorname{Coker}\left(\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{F}\right)=F / \mathfrak{a} F \xrightarrow{p^{*}} \operatorname{Coker}\left(\mu_{\mathfrak{a}}^{M}\right)=M / \mathfrak{a} M \rightarrow \mathbf{0},
$$

and as $p^{*}$ is an isomorphism, this implies $K / \mathfrak{a} K=\mathbf{0}$ and thus $K=\mathfrak{a} K$. Since $M$ is finitely presented, the Corollary to Theorem 1.1.4 implies that $K$ is finitely generated, and therefore $K=\mathbf{0}$.

Corollary. Let $R$ be a local ring, $\mathfrak{m}=\mathrm{J}(R)=R \backslash R^{\times}$and $M$ an $R$-module.

1. Let $M$ be finitely generated, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n} \in M$. Then $\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)$ is a minimal system of generators of $M$ if and only if $\left(u_{1}+\mathfrak{m} M, \ldots, u_{n}+\mathfrak{m} M\right)$ is an $R / \mathfrak{m}$-basis of $M / \mathfrak{m} M$. In particular, any two minimal systems of generators of $M$ have the same length.
2. Let $M$ be finitely presented, $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n} \in M$, and assume that the multiplication homomorphism $\mu_{\mathfrak{m}}^{M}: \mathfrak{m} \otimes_{R} M \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathfrak{m} M$ is an monomorphism. Then $\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)$ is an $R$-basis of $M$ if and only if $\left(u_{1}+\mathfrak{m} M, \ldots, u_{n}+\mathfrak{m} M\right)$ is an $R / \mathfrak{m}$-basis of $M / \mathfrak{m} M$.
3. Consider the following assertions:
(a) $M$ is free.
(b) $M$ is projective.
(c) $M$ is flat.
(d) The multiplication homomorphism $\mu_{\mathfrak{m}}^{M}: \mathfrak{m} \otimes_{R} M \rightarrow M$ is a monomorphism. Then $(\mathrm{a}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{b}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{c}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{d})$, and if $M$ is finitely presented, then $(\mathrm{d}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{a})$.
Proof. 1. By Theorem 2.1.2, $\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)$ is a minimal system of generators of $M$ if and only if $\left(u_{1}+\mathfrak{m} M, \ldots, u_{n}+\mathfrak{m} M\right)$ is a minimal system of generators of the $R / \mathfrak{m}$-module $M / \mathfrak{m} M$, but the latter holds if and only if $\left(u_{1}+\mathfrak{m} M, \ldots, u_{n}+\mathfrak{m} M\right)$ is an $R / \mathfrak{m}$-basis of $M / \mathfrak{m} M$, since $M / \mathfrak{m} M$ is a vector space over $R / \mathfrak{m}$.
4. Obvious.
5. a$) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{b}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{c})$ Obvious.
$(\mathrm{c}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{d})$ If $i=(\mathfrak{m} \hookrightarrow R)$, then $\mu_{\mathfrak{m}}^{M}: \mathfrak{m} \otimes_{R} M \xrightarrow{i \otimes M} R \otimes_{R} M \xrightarrow{\sim} M$ is a monomorphism, since $i \otimes M$ is a monomorphism.
(d) $\Rightarrow$ (a) By Theorem 2.1.2, since $M / \mathfrak{m} M$ is a vector space over $R / \mathfrak{m}$.

Definitions and Remarks. Let $R$ be a ring and $M$ an $R$-module.

1. $M$ is called indecomposable if $M \neq \mathbf{0}$, and $M=M_{1} \dot{+} M_{2}$ for some submodules $M_{1}, M_{2} \subset M$ implies $M_{1}=\mathbf{0}$ or $M_{2}=\mathbf{0}$.
2. We call $l(M)=\sup \left\{n \in \mathbb{N}_{0} \mid\right.$ there exist submodules $\left.M=M_{0} \supsetneq M_{1} \supsetneq \ldots \supsetneq M_{n}=\mathbf{0}\right\}$ the length of $M$. By definition, $l(M) \in \mathbb{N}_{0} \cup\{\infty\}$, and if $l(M)<\infty$, then $M$ is called a module of finite length. $l(M)=0$ if and only if $M=\mathbf{0}$, and $M$ is called simple if $l(M)=1$ [equivalently, $M \cong R / \mathfrak{a}$ for some maximal left ideal $\mathfrak{a} \subset R]$.
Example: Let $K$ be a field, $R$ a finite-dimensional $K$-algebra and $M$ a finitely generated $R$ module. Then $l(M)<\infty$ [indeed, $M$ is a finite-dimensional vector space over $K$, and every $R$-submodule of $M$ is a $K$-subspace ].
3. A finite sequence of submodules $M=M_{0} \supsetneq M_{1} \supsetneq \ldots \supsetneq M_{n}=\mathbf{0}$ is called a composition series if $M_{i} / M_{i-1}$ is simple for all $i \in[1, n]$. The following assertions are equivalent:

- $M$ is both noetherian and artinian (that is, it satisfies the ACC and the DCC on submodules).
- $M$ possesses a composition series.
- $M$ is a module of finite length.

4. (Theorem or Jordan-Hölder) If $M=M_{0} \supsetneq M_{1} \supsetneq \ldots \supsetneq M_{n}=\mathbf{0}$ and $M=M_{0}^{\prime} \supsetneq M_{1}^{\prime} \supsetneq \ldots \supsetneq M_{m}^{\prime}$ are two composition series, then $m=n=l(M)$, and there is some permutation $\sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_{n}$ such that $M_{i-1}^{\prime} / M_{i}^{\prime} \cong M_{\sigma(i-1)} / M_{\sigma(i)}$ for all $i \in[1, n]$.

Theorem 2.1.3. Let $R$ be a ring, $M \neq \mathbf{0}$ an $R$-module and $E=\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$.

1. (Fitting's Lemma) If $l(M)<\infty$ and $f \in E$, then $M=\operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{n}\right) \dot{+} \operatorname{Im}\left(f^{n}\right)$ for all sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
2. If $M$ is indecomposable and $l(M)<\infty$, then $E$ is a local ring.
3. (Krull-Schmidt Theorem)
(a) Suppose that $M$ is either artinian or noetherian. Then there exists some $r \in \mathbb{N}$ and indecomposable submodules $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{r} \subset M$ such that $M=M_{1} \dot{+} M_{2} \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} M_{r}$ into.
(b) Suppose that $l(M)<\infty$, and $M=M_{1} \dot{+} M_{2} \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} M_{r}=N_{1} \dot{+} N_{2} \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} N_{s}$, where $r, s \in \mathbb{N}$, and $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{r}, N_{1}, \ldots N_{s} \subset M$ are indecomposable submodules. Then $r=s$, and there is a permutation $\sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_{r}$ such that $M_{i} \cong N_{\sigma(i)}$ for all $i \in[1, r]$.

Proof. 1. Since $M \supset \operatorname{Im}(f) \supset \operatorname{Im}\left(f^{2}\right) \supset \ldots, \quad \mathbf{0} \subset \operatorname{Ker}(f) \subset \operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{2}\right) \subset \ldots$ and $M$ satisfies both the ACC and the DCC, there exists some $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\operatorname{Im}\left(f^{n}\right)=\operatorname{Im}\left(f^{m}\right)$ and $\operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{n}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{m}\right)$ for all $n \geq m$. Assume now that $n \geq m$, and let $c \in M$. Then $f^{n}(c) \in \operatorname{Im}\left(f^{n}\right)=\operatorname{Im}\left(f^{2 n}\right)$, and therefore $f^{n}(c)=f^{2 n}(d)$ for some $d \in M$. Since $f^{n}\left(c-f^{n}(d)\right)=f^{n}(c)-f^{2 n}(d)=0$, we get $c=\left(c-f^{n}(d)\right)+f^{n}(d) \in$ $\operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{n}\right)+\operatorname{Im}\left(f^{n}\right)$. If $x \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{n}\right) \cap \operatorname{Im}\left(f^{n}\right)$, then $x=f^{n}(y)$ for some $y \in M$. But $0=f^{n}(x)=f^{2 n}(y)$ implies $y \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{2 n}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{n}\right)$, and therefore $x=0$. Hence $M=\operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{n}\right) \dot{+} \operatorname{Im}\left(f^{n}\right)$.
2. Let $M$ be indecomposable and $l(M)<\infty$. By Theorem 2.1.1.4 it suffices to prove that every $f \in E \backslash E^{\times}$is nilpotent. Thus let $f \in E \backslash E^{\times}$and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such tht $M=\operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{n}\right) \dot{+} \operatorname{Im}\left(f^{n}\right)$. Then either $\operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{n}\right)=\mathbf{0}$ or $\operatorname{Im}\left(f^{n}\right) \mathbf{0}$. If $\operatorname{Im}\left(f^{n}\right)=\mathbf{0}$, then $f^{n}=0$. If $\operatorname{Ker}\left(f^{n}\right)=\mathbf{0}$, then $\operatorname{Im}\left(f^{n}\right)=M$, hence $f^{n}$ and thus also $f$ is an isomorphism, which implies $f \in E^{\times}$.
3. (a) Assume the contrary. We construct two sequences of $R$-submodules $\left(M_{i}\right)_{i \geq 0},\left(M_{i}^{\prime}\right)_{i \geq 1}$ of $M$ such that $M_{0}=M$, and for all $i \geq 0$ the following assertions hold: $M_{i}$ is not a direct sum of indecomposable submodules, $M_{i}=M_{i+1} \dot{+} M_{i+1}^{\prime}, \quad M_{i+1} \neq \mathbf{0}$ and $M_{i+1}^{\prime} \neq \mathbf{0}$. We proceed recursively. Set $M_{0}=M$, and suppose that $i \geq 0$ and $M_{i} \subset M$ is not a direct sum of indecomposable submodules. Then $M_{i}=M_{i+1} \dot{+} M_{i+1}^{\prime}$, where $M_{i+1} \neq \mathbf{0}, M_{i+1}^{\prime} \neq \mathbf{0}$ and $M_{i+1}$ is not a direct sum of indecomposable submodules. If $i \geq 0$, then it follows by an easy induction on $j$ that $M_{i}=M_{i+j} \dot{+} M_{i+j}^{\prime} \dot{+} M_{i+j-1}^{\prime} \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} M_{i+1}^{\prime}$. Hence we obtain $M \supsetneq M_{1} \supsetneq M_{2} \supsetneq \ldots$ and $M_{1}^{\prime} \subsetneq M_{1}^{\prime} \dot{+} M_{2}^{\prime} \subsetneq M_{1}^{\prime} \dot{+} M_{2}^{\prime} \dot{+} M_{3}^{\prime} \subsetneq \ldots$, contradicting the assumption that $M$ is either noetherian or artinian.
(b) We may assume that $r \geq s$, and we proceed by induction on $s$. If $s=1$, then $M$ is indecomposable and $r=1$.
$s \geq 2, s-1 \rightarrow s:$ For $i \in[1, r]$, let $p_{i} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, M_{i}\right)$ such that $p_{i} \mid M_{i}=\operatorname{id}_{M_{i}}$ and $p_{i} \mid M_{j}=0$ for all $j \in[1, r] \backslash\{i\}$. For $i \in[1, s]$ let $q_{i} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, N_{i}\right)$ such that $q_{i} \mid N_{i}=\operatorname{id}_{N_{i}}$ and $q_{i} \mid N_{j}=0$ for all $j \in[1, s] \backslash\{i\}$. Then

$$
\mathrm{id}_{M}=\sum_{i=1}^{s} q_{i}, \quad \text { hence } \quad p_{1}=\sum_{i=1}^{s} p_{1} \circ q_{i} \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{id}_{M_{1}}=p_{1}\left|M_{1}=\sum_{i=1}^{s} p_{1} \circ q_{i}\right| M_{1}
$$

Since $E_{1}=\operatorname{End}_{R}\left(M_{1}\right)$ is local, $E_{1} \backslash E_{1}^{\times} \subset E_{1}$ is an ideal, and thus there is some $i \in[1, s]$ such that $p_{1} \circ q_{i} \mid M_{1} \in E_{1}^{\times}$, say $i=1$. Then $p_{1} \circ q_{1} \mid M_{1}: M_{1} \rightarrow M_{1}$ is an isomorphism, hence $q_{1} \mid M_{1}: M_{1} \rightarrow N_{1}$ is a monomorphism, $g=\left(p_{1} \circ q_{1} \mid M_{1}\right)^{-1} \circ p_{1} \mid N_{1}: N_{1} \rightarrow M_{1}$ is a homomorphism, and $g \circ q_{1} \mid M_{1}=\operatorname{id}_{M_{1}}$. Hence $q_{1} \mid M_{1}: M_{1} \rightarrow N_{1}$ splits, and therefore $q_{1}\left(M_{1}\right) \in N_{1}$. Since $q_{1}\left(M_{1}\right) \neq \mathbf{0}$ and $N_{1}$ is indecomposable, it follows that $q_{1}\left(M_{1}\right)=N_{1}$, and $q_{1} \mid M_{1}: M_{1} \rightarrow N_{1}$ is an isomorphism. Now we assert:
A. $M=M_{1} \dot{+} N_{2} \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} N_{s}$.

Proof of A. We first show that $N_{1} \subset M_{1}+N_{2}+\ldots+N_{s}$. If $a \in N_{1}=q_{1}\left(M_{1}\right)$, then $a=q_{1}(b)$ for some $b \in M_{1}$, and $q_{1}(a-b)=q_{1}(a)-q_{1}(b)=a-a=0$. Hence $a-b \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(q_{1}\right)=N_{2}+\ldots+N_{s}$, and therefore $a=b+(a-b) \in M_{1}+N_{2}+\ldots+N_{s}$. Hence it follows that $M=M_{1}+\left(N_{2} \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} N_{s}\right)$, and we assert that the sum is direct. Indeed, if $a \in M_{1} \cap\left(N_{2}+\ldots+N_{s}\right)$, then $q_{1}(a) \in N_{1}$, and since $q_{1} \mid N_{2}+\ldots+N_{s}=0$, we obtain $q_{1}(a)=0$ and therefore $a=0$, since $q_{1} \mid M_{1}$ is injective.
$\square[\mathbf{A}]$
Since $M=M_{1} \dot{+} M_{2} \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} M_{r}$ and $M=M_{1} \dot{+} N_{2} \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} N_{s}$ we obtain

$$
M / M_{1} \cong M_{2} \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} M_{r} \cong N_{2} \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} N_{s}, \quad \text { and let } \quad \Phi: M_{2} \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} M_{r} \xrightarrow{\sim} N_{2} \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} N_{s}
$$

be an isomorphism. Then $\Phi\left(M_{2}\right) \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} \Phi\left(M_{r}\right)=N_{2} \dot{+} \ldots \dot{+} N_{s}$, and the Theorem follows from the induction hypothesis.

Definition (Power series rings). Let $R$ be a ring, $r \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\left(\boldsymbol{e}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{e}_{r}\right)$ the canonical basis of $\mathbb{Z}^{r}$. We denote by $R{ }^{\llbracket r \rrbracket}$ the set of all maps $f: \mathbb{N}_{0}^{r} \rightarrow R$ and by $R^{[r]}$ the set of all $f \in R^{\llbracket r \rrbracket}$ satisfying
$f(\boldsymbol{n})=0$ for almost all $\boldsymbol{n} \in \mathbb{N}_{0}^{r}$. Then $R^{[r]} \subset R^{\llbracket r \rrbracket}$ are $R$-modules under pointwise addition and scalar multiplication. We define a multiplication on $R^{\llbracket r \rrbracket}$ by

$$
(f \cdot g)(\boldsymbol{k})=\sum_{\substack{(\boldsymbol{m}, \boldsymbol{n}) \in \mathbb{N}_{0}^{r} \times \mathbb{N}_{0}^{r} \\ \boldsymbol{m}+\boldsymbol{n}=\boldsymbol{k}}} f(\boldsymbol{m}) g(\boldsymbol{n}) .
$$

Then $R^{\llbracket r \rrbracket}$ is a ring, and $R^{[r]} \subset R^{\llbracket r \rrbracket}$ is a subring. We define $\nu: R \rightarrow R^{[r]}$ and $\mu: R \llbracket r \rrbracket \rightarrow R$ by

$$
\nu(c)(\boldsymbol{k})=c \delta_{\boldsymbol{k}, \mathbf{0}}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
c & \text { if } \quad \boldsymbol{k}=\mathbf{0}, \\
0 & \text { otherwise },
\end{array} \quad \text { and } \quad \mu(f)=f(\mathbf{0}) \quad \text { for all } \quad c \in R \text { and } f \in R^{\llbracket r \rrbracket} .\right.
$$

Then $\mu: R{ }^{\llbracket r} \llbracket \rightarrow R$ is a ring epimorphism, called augmentation, $\nu: R \rightarrow R^{[r]}$ is a ring monomorphism, and we identify $R$ with $\nu(R)$. Then $R \subset R^{[r]} \subset R^{\llbracket r \rrbracket}$ are subrings. For $i \in[1, r]$, we define $X_{i} \in R^{[r]}$ by $X_{i}(\boldsymbol{k})=\delta_{\boldsymbol{k}, \boldsymbol{e}_{i}}$, and for $\boldsymbol{n}=\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}\right) \in \mathbb{N}_{0}^{r}$ we set $\boldsymbol{X}^{\boldsymbol{n}}=X_{1}^{n_{1}} \cdot \ldots \cdot X_{r}^{n_{r}}$. Then it follows (by an easy induction on $\left.n_{1}+\ldots+n_{r}\right)$ that $\boldsymbol{X}^{\boldsymbol{n}}(\boldsymbol{k})=\delta_{\boldsymbol{n}, \boldsymbol{k}}$ for all $\boldsymbol{n}, \boldsymbol{k} \in \mathbb{N}_{0}^{r}, \boldsymbol{X}^{\boldsymbol{n}} \cdot \boldsymbol{X}^{\boldsymbol{m}}=\boldsymbol{X}^{\boldsymbol{n}+\boldsymbol{m}}$ for all $\boldsymbol{m}, \boldsymbol{n} \in \mathbb{N}_{0}^{r}$, and

$$
f=\sum_{\boldsymbol{k} \in \mathbb{N}_{0}^{r}} f(\boldsymbol{k}) \boldsymbol{X}^{\boldsymbol{k}} \quad \text { for all } \quad f \in R^{\llbracket r \rrbracket}
$$

(note that pointwise this formally infinite sum reduces to a single summand). Hence every $f \in R^{\llbracket r \rrbracket}$ has a unique representation

$$
f=\sum_{\left(k_{1}, \ldots, k_{r}\right) \in \mathbb{N}_{0}^{r}} f_{k_{1}, \ldots, k_{r}} X_{1}^{k_{1}} \cdot \ldots \cdot X_{r}^{k_{r}}
$$

with coefficients $f_{k_{1}, \ldots, k_{r}} \in R$, and we obtain $f \in R^{[r]}$ if and only if $f_{k_{1}, \ldots, k_{r}}=0$ for almost all $\left(k_{1}, \ldots, k_{r}\right) \in \mathbb{N}_{0}^{r}$. In particular, $R^{[r]}=R\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}\right]$ is a polynomial ring in $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}\right)$ over $R$.

If $r, s \in \mathbb{N}$, then there is an isomorphism $\Phi:(R \llbracket r \rrbracket) \llbracket s \rrbracket \xrightarrow{\sim} R{ }^{\llbracket r+s \rrbracket}$, given by $\Phi(f)(\boldsymbol{m}, \boldsymbol{n})=f(\boldsymbol{m})(\boldsymbol{n})$ for all $\boldsymbol{m} \in \mathbb{N}_{0}^{r}$ and $\boldsymbol{n} \in \mathbb{N}_{0}^{s}$. It satisfies $\Phi\left(R^{[r]}\right)^{[s]}=R^{[r+s]}$, and we identify $\left(R^{\llbracket r \rrbracket}\right) \llbracket s \rrbracket=R^{\llbracket r+s \rrbracket}$ and $\left(R^{[r]}\right)^{[s]}=R^{[r+s]}$ by means of $\Phi$.

We call $R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket=R \llbracket r \rrbracket$ the power series ring or ring of formal power series in $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}\right)$ over $R$. If $r \geq 2$, then it follows that $R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket=R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r-1} \rrbracket \llbracket X_{r} \rrbracket \supset R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r-1} \rrbracket$, $R\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}\right]=R\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r-1}\right]\left[X_{r}\right] \supset R\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r-1}\right]$, and the augmentation maps behave transitively. Explicitly, if

$$
\mu^{\prime}: R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r+1} \rrbracket=R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket \llbracket X_{r+1} \rrbracket \rightarrow R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket \quad \text { and } \quad \mu: R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket \rightarrow R
$$

are the (partial) augmentation maps, then $\mu \circ \mu^{\prime}: R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r+1} \rrbracket \rightarrow R$ is the (total) augmentation map.

In particular, if $r=1$ and $X=X_{1}$, then every $f \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket$ has a unique representation

$$
f=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_{n} X^{n}, \quad \text { where } f_{n} \in R \text { for all } n \geq 0
$$

and $f \in R[X]$ if and only if $f_{n}=0$ for almost all $n \geq 0$. If $f \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket$ is as above, then $\mu(f)=f_{0}$, and we call

$$
\operatorname{ord}(f)=\inf \left\{n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}: f_{n} \neq 0\right\} \in \mathbb{N}_{0} \cup\{\infty\} \quad \text { the order of } f
$$

If $f \neq 0$ then $f$ has a unique representation $f=X^{\operatorname{ord}(f)} f_{1}$, where $f_{1} \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket$ and $\mu\left(f_{1}\right) \neq 0$. If $f, g \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket$, then $\operatorname{ord}(f)=\infty$ if and only if $f=0, \operatorname{ord}(f+g) \geq \min \{\operatorname{ord}(f), \operatorname{ord}(g)\}$ with equality if $\operatorname{ord}(f) \neq \operatorname{ord}(g)$, and $\operatorname{ord}(f g) \geq \operatorname{ord}(f)+\operatorname{ord}(g)$ with equality if $R$ has no zero divisors. In particular, if $R$ has no zero divisors, the same is true for $R \llbracket X \rrbracket$.

For $f, g \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket$, we define $\delta(f, g)=\mathrm{e}^{-\operatorname{ord}(f-g)}$ (with $e^{-\infty}=0$ ). Then $\delta$ is a metric on $R \llbracket X \rrbracket$. If $f \in \mathbb{R} \llbracket X \rrbracket$, then $\operatorname{ord}(f)=-\log \delta(f, 0)$ (where $-\log 0=\infty)$, and the sets

$$
f+X^{n} R \llbracket X \rrbracket=\{g \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket \mid \operatorname{ord}(g-f) \geq n\}=\left\{g \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket \mid \delta(g, f) \leq \mathrm{e}^{-n}\right\} \quad(\text { for } n \in \mathbb{N})
$$

are a fundamental system of neighborhoods of $f$. Consequently, if

$$
f=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_{n} X^{n} \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket, \quad \text { then } \quad f=\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^{k} f_{n} X^{n} .
$$

If $R$ has no zero divisors, then it follows by induction that, for every $r \in \mathbb{N}$, the power series ring $R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket$ has no zero divisors. In particular, if $K$ is a field, then $K \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket$ is a domain. We denote by $K\left(\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}\right)\right)$ the quotient field of $K \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket$ and call it the field of formal Laurent series in $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}\right)$ over $K$.

Theorem 2.1.4. Let $R$ be a ring, $r \in \mathbb{N}, R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket$ the power series ring in $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}\right)$ over $R, \mu: R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket \rightarrow R$ the augmentation map and $f \in R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket$.

1. $f \in R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket^{\times}$if and only if $\mu(f) \in R^{\times}$.
2. If $R$ is local with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$, then $R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket$ is local with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{M}=\mu^{-1}(\mathfrak{m})$. In particular, if $r=1$ and $X=X_{1}$, then

$$
f=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_{n} X^{n} \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket^{\times} \quad \text { if and only if } \quad f_{0} \in R^{\times},
$$

and if $R$ is a division ring, then every $f \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket$ has a unique representation $f=X^{n} h$, where $n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$ and $h \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket^{\times}$.
Proof. 1. If $f \in R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket^{\times}$, the $\mu(f) \in R^{\times}$, since $\mu$ is a ring homomorphism. For the converse, we use induction on $r$.
$r=1, X=X_{1}:$ Assume that

$$
f=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_{n} X^{n} \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket \quad \text { and } \quad f_{0}=\mu(f) \in R^{\times} .
$$

We define a sequence $\left(g_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ in $R$ recursively by

$$
g_{0}=f_{0}^{-1}, \quad g_{n}=-f_{0}^{-1} \sum_{\nu=1}^{n} f_{\nu} g_{n-\nu} \quad \text { for all } n \geq 1, \quad \text { and set } g=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_{n} X^{n}
$$

Then

$$
f g=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left(f_{0} g_{n}+\sum_{\nu=1}^{n} f_{\nu} g_{n-\nu}\right) X^{n}=1 .
$$

Hence $f$ has a right-inverse, and, by the same reason, $f$ has a left-inverse. Hence $f \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket$.
$r \geq 2, r-1 \rightarrow r$ : By the induction hypothesis, $R^{\prime}=R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r-1} \rrbracket$ is local with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{M}^{\prime}=\mu^{\prime-1}(\mathfrak{m})$, where $\mu^{\prime}: R^{\prime} \rightarrow R$ denotes the augmentation map. Hence $\bar{R}=R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket=R^{\prime} \llbracket X_{r} \rrbracket$ is local with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{M}=\widetilde{\mu}^{-1}\left(\mathfrak{M}^{\prime}\right)$, where $\widetilde{\mu}: R^{\prime} \llbracket X_{n} \rrbracket \rightarrow R^{\prime}$ denotes the augmentation. Since $\mu=\mu^{\prime} \circ \widetilde{\mu}$, it follows that $\mathfrak{M}=\mu^{-1}(\mathfrak{m})$.
2. $R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket \backslash R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket^{\times}=\left\{f \in R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots X_{r} \rrbracket \mid \mu(f) \in R \backslash R^{\times}\right\}=\mu^{-1}(\mathfrak{m})$ is an ideal of $R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket$.

## Theorem 2.1.5. Let $R$ be a commutative ring.

1. (Cohen's Theorem) If every prime ideal of $R$ is finitely generated, then $R$ is noetherian.
2. Let $R \llbracket X \rrbracket$ be the power series ring, $\mu: R \llbracket X \rrbracket \rightarrow R$ the augmentation, $\mathfrak{p} \subset R \llbracket X \rrbracket$ a prime ideal, $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{m} \in \mathfrak{p}$. Then $\mu(\mathfrak{p}) \subset R$ is an ideal, and if $\mu(\mathfrak{p})={ }_{R}\left\langle\mu\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, \mu\left(f_{m}\right)\right\rangle$, then

$$
\mathfrak{p}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
R \llbracket X \rrbracket\left\langle f_{1}, \ldots, f_{m}\right\rangle & \text { if } X \notin \mathfrak{p}, \\
R \llbracket X \rrbracket\left\langle\mu\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, \mu\left(f_{m}\right), X\right\rangle & \text { if } X \in \mathfrak{p} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

3. Let $r \in \mathbb{N}$. Then the power series ring $R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n} \rrbracket$ is noetherian if and only if $R$ is noetherian.

Proof. 1. Suppose that every prime ideal of $R$ is finitely generated, but $R$ is not noetherian. Let $\Omega$ be the set of all not finitely generated ideals of $R$. Then $\Omega \neq \emptyset$, and the union of every chain in $\Omega$ belongs to $\Omega$. By Zorn's Lemma, $\Omega$ has a maximal element $\mathfrak{q}$, and we shall prove that $\mathfrak{q} \subset R$ is a prime ideal (which contradicts our assumption that every prime ideal is finitely generated).

Assume to the contrary that there exist $a, b \in R \backslash \mathfrak{q}$ such that $a b \in \mathfrak{q}$. Then $\mathfrak{q} \subsetneq \mathfrak{q}+a R \triangleleft R$ and $\mathfrak{q} \subsetneq \mathfrak{q}+b R \subset(\mathfrak{q}: a R)=\{x \in R \mid x a \in \mathfrak{q}\}$. Hence the ideals $\mathfrak{q}+a R$ and $(\mathfrak{q}: a R)$ are finitely generated, say $\mathfrak{q}+a R={ }_{R}\left\langle q_{1}+a x_{1}, \ldots, q_{n}+a x_{n}\right\rangle$ and $(\mathfrak{q}: a R)={ }_{R}\left\langle z_{1}, \ldots, z_{m}\right\rangle$, where $m, n \in \mathbb{N}, q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n} \in \mathfrak{q}$ and $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{m} \in R$. Then ${ }_{R}\left\langle q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n}, a z_{1}, \ldots, a z_{m}\right\rangle \subset \mathfrak{q}$, and we assert that equality holds (this contradicts the fact that $\mathfrak{q} \in \Omega$ is not finitely generated). Indeed, if $z \in \mathfrak{q} \subset \mathfrak{q}+a R$, then there exist $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n} \in R$ such that

$$
z=\sum_{\nu=1}^{n} b_{\nu}\left(q_{\nu}+a x_{\nu}\right)=\sum_{\nu=1}^{n} b_{\nu} q_{\nu}+a \sum_{\nu=1}^{n} b_{\nu} x_{\nu}, \quad \text { and therefore } \quad a \sum_{\nu=1}^{n} b_{\nu} x_{\nu}=z-\sum_{\nu=1}^{n} b_{\nu} q_{\nu} \in \mathfrak{q} .
$$

Hence

$$
\sum_{\nu=1}^{n} b_{\nu} x_{\nu} \in(\mathfrak{q}: a R)={ }_{R}\left\langle z_{1}, \ldots, z_{m}\right\rangle, \quad \text { and } \quad z=\sum_{\nu=1}^{n} b_{\nu} q_{\nu}+a \sum_{\nu=1}^{n} b_{\nu} x_{\nu} \in{ }_{R}\left\langle q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n}, a z_{1}, \ldots, a z_{m}\right\rangle
$$

2. $\mu(\mathfrak{p}) \subset R$ is an ideal, since $\mu$ is an epimorphism. Suppose that $\mu(\mathfrak{p})={ }_{R}\left\langle\mu\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, \mu\left(f_{m}\right)\right\rangle$, and set

$$
f_{j}=\sum_{n \geq 0} f_{j, n} X^{n}, \quad \text { where } f_{j, n} \in R \text { for all } j \in[1, m] \text { and } n \geq 0
$$

CASE 1: $X \in \mathfrak{p}$. Obviously $R \llbracket X \rrbracket\left\langle\mu\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, \mu\left(f_{m}\right), X\right\rangle \subset \mathfrak{p}$, since $f_{j} \in \mu\left(f_{j}\right)+X R \llbracket X \rrbracket$ for all $j \in[1, m]$. Conversely, if $h \in \mathfrak{p}$, then $h=\mu(h)+X h_{1}$ for some $h_{1} \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket$, and therefore we obtain $h \in \mu(\mathfrak{p})+X R \llbracket X \rrbracket={ }_{R \llbracket X \rrbracket}\left\langle\mu\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, \mu\left(f_{m}\right), X\right\rangle$.

CASE 2: $X \notin \mathfrak{p}$. It suffices to prove that $\mathfrak{p} \subset{ }_{R \llbracket X \rrbracket}\left\langle f_{1}, \ldots, f_{m}\right\rangle$. Let $h \in \mathfrak{p}$. For $j \in[1, m]$ and $n \geq 0$, we construct elements $g_{j, n} \in R$ such that, for all $n \geq 0$,

$$
h-\sum_{j=1}^{m}\left(\sum_{\nu=0}^{n-1} g_{j, \nu} X^{\nu}\right) f_{j} \in X^{n} R \llbracket X \rrbracket, \quad \text { and for } j \in[1, m] \text { s we set } \quad g_{j}=\sum_{\nu \geq 0} g_{j, \nu} X^{\nu} \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket .
$$

Then it follows that

$$
h-\sum_{j=1}^{m} g_{j} f_{j} \in \bigcap_{n \geq 0} X^{n} R \llbracket X \rrbracket=\mathbf{0}, \quad \text { and therefore } \quad h \in{ }_{R \llbracket X \rrbracket}\left\langle f_{1}, \ldots, f_{m}\right\rangle .
$$

We perform our construction by recursion on $n$. For $n=0$, there is nothing to do. Thus suppose that $n \geq 0$, and there exist elements $g_{j, \nu}$ for all $j \in[1, m]$ and $\nu \in[0, n-1]$ such that

$$
h-\sum_{j=1}^{m}\left(\sum_{\nu=0}^{n-1} g_{j, \nu} X^{\nu}\right) f_{j}=X^{n} q, \quad \text { where } \quad q=\sum_{\nu \geq 0} q_{\nu} X^{\nu} \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket .
$$

Then $X^{n} q \in \mathfrak{p}$, and as $X \notin \mathfrak{p}$, it follows that $q \in \mathfrak{p}$ and $q_{0}=\mu(q) \in{ }_{R}\left\langle\mu\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, \mu\left(f_{m}\right)\right\rangle$. Hence there exist $g_{1, n}, \ldots, g_{m, n} \in R$ such that

$$
q_{0}=-\sum_{j=1}^{m} g_{j, n} \mu\left(f_{j}\right)=-\sum_{j=1}^{m} g_{j, n} f_{j, 0}
$$

and we obtain

$$
h-\sum_{j=1}^{m}\left(\sum_{\nu=0}^{n} g_{j, \nu} X^{\nu}\right) f_{j}=X^{n} \sum_{\nu \geq 0} q_{\nu} X^{\nu}+X^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} g_{j, n} f_{j}=X^{n}\left(q_{0}+\sum_{j=1}^{n} g_{j, n} f_{j, 0}\right)+X^{n+1} g^{*} \in X^{n+1} g^{*}
$$

for some $g^{*} \in R \llbracket X \rrbracket$, which completes the construction.
3. Since $R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r} \rrbracket=R \llbracket X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r-1} \rrbracket \llbracket X_{r} \rrbracket$ if $r \geq 2$, the assertion follows by induction on $r$, once we have given the proof for $r=1$. Thus let $R \llbracket X \rrbracket$ be a power series ring. If $R \llbracket X \rrbracket$ is noetherian,
then $R$ is noetherian, since $\mu: R \llbracket X \rrbracket \rightarrow R$ is an epimorphism. Thus suppose that $R$ is noetherian. By 2., every prime ideal of $R \llbracket X \rrbracket$ is finitely generated, and thus $R \llbracket X \rrbracket$ is noetherian by 1 .

Definitions and Remarks (Recapitulation: Quotients). Let $R$ be a commutative ring, $T \subset R$ a multiplicatively closed subset and $M$ an $R$-module.

1. On $T \times M$ we define an equivalence relation by $(t, x) \sim\left(t^{\prime}, x^{\prime}\right)$ if there exists some $s \in T$ such that $s t^{\prime} x=s t x^{\prime}$. We set $T^{-1} M=T \times M / \sim$, denote by $\frac{x}{t} \in T^{-1} M$ the equivalence class of $(t, x)$ and call $T^{-1} M$ the quotient module of $M$ with $T$. By definition, if $x \in M$ and $t \in T$, then

$$
\frac{x}{t}=\frac{s x}{s t} \quad \text { for all } s \in T, \text { and } \quad \frac{x}{t}=\frac{0}{1} \quad \text { if and only if } s x=0 \text { for some } s \in T
$$

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n} \in T^{-1} M$, there exist $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in M$ and $t \in T$ such that $z_{i}=\frac{x_{i}}{t}$ for all $i \in[1, n]$.
2. We make $T^{-1} M$ into an abelian group by means of

$$
\frac{x}{t}+\frac{x^{\prime}}{t^{\prime}}=\frac{t^{\prime} x+t x^{\prime}}{t t^{\prime}} \quad \text { check details! }
$$

and we define the quotient homomorphism $j: M \rightarrow T^{-1} M$ by $j(x)=\frac{x}{1}$ for all $x \in M$. By definition,

$$
\operatorname{Ker}(j)=\{x \in M \mid x t=0 \text { for some } t \in T\}=\left\{x \in M \mid T \cap \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(x) \neq \emptyset\right\}
$$

If $0 \in T$, then $T^{-1} M=\mathbf{0}$. If $M$ is torsion-free and $0 \notin T$, then $j: M \rightarrow T^{-1} M$ is a monomorphism.

If $M^{\prime} \subset M$ is an $R$-submodule, then $T^{-1} M^{\prime} \subset T^{-1} M$ is a subgroup [indeed, if $\sim^{\prime}$ denotes the defining equivalence relation on $T \times M^{\prime}$, then $\sim^{\prime}=\sim \cap\left(T \times M^{\prime}\right)$, and therefore we may identify, for every $(t, x) \in T \times M^{\prime}$, the equivalence class $\frac{x}{t} \in M^{\prime}$ with the equivalence class $\left.\frac{x}{t} \in M\right]$.
3. Now we consider the special case $M=R$ and definiere a multiplication on $T^{-1} R$ by

$$
\frac{a}{t} \frac{a^{\prime}}{t^{\prime}}=\frac{a a^{\prime}}{t t^{\prime}}
$$

With this definition, $T^{-1} R$ is a commutative ring, called the quotient ring of $R$ with respect to $T$, and the quotient homomorphism $j: R \rightarrow T^{-1} R$ is a ring homomorphism. Consequently $T^{-1} R$ is an $R$-algebra.

Let $\mathrm{z}(R)$ be the set of zero divisors of $R$. Then $R \backslash \mathrm{z}(R)$ is a multiplicatively closes subset of $R$, and $\mathrm{q}(R)=(R \backslash \mathrm{z}(R))^{-1} R$ is called the total quotient ring of $R$. The quotient homomorphism $j: R \rightarrow \mathrm{q}(R)$ is a monomorphism, we identify $R$ with $j(R)$ (we set $x=\frac{x}{1}$ for every $x \in R$ ), and for every multiplicatively closed subset $T \subset R \backslash \mathrm{z}(R)$, we may assume that $T^{-1} R \subset \mathrm{q}(R)$. If $R$ is a domain, then $\mathrm{q}(R)$ is just the usual quotient field. If $T \subset R^{\times}$, then $T^{-1} R=R$ and $T^{-1} M=M$ for every $R$-module $M$.
4. Let $M$ be an $R$-module. Then $T^{-1} M$ is a $T^{-1} R$-module by means of

$$
\frac{a}{t} \frac{x}{t^{\prime}}=\frac{a x}{t t^{\prime}} \quad \text { for all } a \in R, x \in M \text { and } t, t^{\prime} \in T . \quad \text { Check details! }
$$

 In particular, if $M$ is a finitely generated $R$-module, then $T^{-1} M$ is a finitely generated $T^{-1} R$ module.

If $M^{\prime} \subset M$ is an $R$-submodule, then $T^{-1} M^{\prime} \subset T^{-1} M$ is a $T^{-1} R$-submodule, and the map

$$
\Phi: T^{-1} M / T^{-1} M^{\prime} \rightarrow T^{-1}\left(M / M^{\prime}\right), \quad \text { defined by } \quad \Phi\left(\frac{x}{t}+T^{-1} M^{\prime}\right)=\frac{x+M^{\prime}}{t}
$$

for all $x \in M$ and $t \in T$, is a $T^{-1} R$-module isomorphism by which we usually identify these two modules: $T^{-1}\left(M / M^{\prime}\right)=T^{-1} M / T^{-1} M^{\prime}$.

In particular, $T^{-1} M$ is also an $R$-module by means of the quotient homomorphism $j: R \rightarrow T^{-1} R$. For all $r \in R, m \in M$ and $t \in T$, we have

$$
r \frac{m}{t}=\frac{r}{1} \frac{m}{t}=\frac{r m}{t}
$$

5. Let $f: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ be a homomorphism of $R$-modules. Then there is a unique homomorphism $T^{-1} f: T^{-1} M \rightarrow T^{-1} M^{\prime}$ of $T^{-1} R$-modules such that

$$
T^{-1} f\left(\frac{x}{t}\right)=\frac{f(x)}{t} \quad \text { for all } x \in M \text { and } t \in T
$$

It satisfies $T^{-1} \mathrm{id}_{M}=\operatorname{id}_{T^{-1} M}, \quad T^{-1}(g+f)=T^{-1} g+T^{-1} f$ if $g: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ is another $R$ homomorphism, $T^{-1}(g \circ f)=T^{-1} g \circ T^{-1} f$ if $g: M^{\prime} \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime}$ is an $R$-homomorphism,

$$
\operatorname{Ker}\left(T^{-1} f\right)=T^{-1} \operatorname{Ker}(f) \subset T^{-1} M \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{Im}\left(T^{-1} f\right)=T^{-1} \operatorname{Im}(f) \subset M^{\prime}
$$

In particular, the assignment $\left(M \mapsto T^{-1} M, f \mapsto T^{-1} f\right)$ defines an additive and exact functor $R$-Mod $\rightarrow T^{-1} R$-Mod (it carries exact sequences into exact sequences).
6. Let $\varepsilon: R \rightarrow A$ be an $R$-algebra. On $T^{-1} A$, we define a multiplication by

$$
\frac{a}{t} \frac{a^{\prime}}{t^{\prime}}=\frac{a a^{\prime}}{t t^{\prime}} \quad \text { for all } \quad a, a^{\prime} \in A \text { and } t, t^{\prime} \in T
$$

Then $T^{-1} A$ is a $T^{-1} R$-algebra with structural homomorphism $T^{-1} \varepsilon: T^{-1} R \rightarrow T^{-1} A$.
If $A$ is commutative, then $\varepsilon(T) \subset A$ is multiplicatively closed, and if $N$ is an $A$-module, then $N$ is an $R$-module, and $T^{-1} N=\varepsilon(T)^{-1} N$.

Theorem 2.1.6. Let $R$ be a commutative ring, $T \subset R$ a multiplicatively closed subset and $M$ an $R$-module. Then there is a $T^{-1} R$-isomorphism
$\Phi: T^{-1} R \otimes_{R} M \xrightarrow{\sim} T^{-1} M \quad$ such that $\quad \Phi\left(\frac{r}{t} \otimes m\right)=\frac{r m}{t}$ for all $r \in R, m \in M$ and $t \in T$.
It is functorial in $M$, and if $M$ is an $R$-algebra, then $\Phi$ is an isomorphism of $T^{-1} R$-algebras. In particular, $T^{-1} R$ is a flat $R$-algebra.

Proof. We define $F: T^{-1} R \times M \rightarrow T^{-1} M$ by

$$
F\left(\frac{r}{t}, m\right)=\frac{r m}{t} \quad \text { for all } r \in R, t \in T, m \in M
$$

and we assert that this definition does not depend on representatives, that means, $\frac{r}{t}=\frac{r^{\prime}}{t^{\prime}}$ implies $\frac{r m}{t}=\frac{r^{\prime} m}{t^{\prime}}$ for all $r, r^{\prime} \in R, t, t^{\prime} \in T$ and $m \in M$. Indeed, if $\frac{r}{t}=\frac{r^{\prime}}{t^{\prime}}$, then $s t^{\prime} r=s t r^{\prime}$ for some $s \in T$, hence $s t^{\prime} r m=s t r^{\prime} m$, and therefore $\frac{r m}{t}=\frac{r^{\prime} m}{t^{\prime}}$. Obviously, $F$ is $R$-bilinear, and thus it induces a group homomorphism $\Phi: T^{-1} R \otimes_{R} M \rightarrow T^{-1} M$ such that $\Phi\left(\frac{r}{t} \otimes m\right)=\frac{r m}{t}$ for all $r \in R, m \in M$ and $t \in T$. It is easily checked that $\Phi$ is in fact a $T^{-1} R$-homomorphism, that it is functorial in $M$, and that it is a homomorphism of $T^{-1}$-algebras if $M$ is an $R$-algebra.

To prove that $\Phi$ is bijective, define $\Psi: T^{-1} M \rightarrow T^{-1} R \otimes M$ by $\Psi\left(\frac{m}{t}\right)=\frac{1}{t} \otimes m$ for all $m \in M$ and $t \in T$, and we assert that this definition does not depend on representatives, that means, $\frac{m}{t}=\frac{m^{\prime}}{t^{\prime}}$ implies frac $1 t \otimes m=\frac{1}{t^{\prime}} \otimes m^{\prime}$ for all $m, m^{\prime} \in M$ and $t, t^{\prime} \in T$. Indeed, if $\frac{m}{t}=\frac{m^{\prime}}{t^{\prime}}$, then $s t^{\prime} m=s t m^{\prime}$ for some $s \in T$, and we obtain

$$
\frac{1}{t} \otimes m=\frac{1}{s t t^{\prime}} s t^{\prime} \otimes m=\frac{1}{s t t^{\prime}} \otimes s t^{\prime} m=\frac{1}{s t t^{\prime}} \otimes s t m^{\prime}=\frac{1}{s t t^{\prime}} s t \otimes m^{\prime}=\frac{1}{t^{\prime}} \otimes m^{\prime}
$$

If $M^{\prime} \rightarrow M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime}$ is an exact sequence in $R$-Mod, then the commutative diagram

shows that the sequence $T^{-1} R \otimes_{R} M^{\prime} \rightarrow T^{-1} R \otimes_{R} M \rightarrow T^{-1} R \otimes_{R} M^{\prime \prime}$ is also exact. Hence $T^{-1} R$ is flat over $R$.

Definition. Let $R$ be a commutative ring. We denote by $\operatorname{spec}(R)$ be the set of all prime ideals and by $\max (R)$ the set of all maximal ideals of $R$. Note that $\max (R) \subset \operatorname{spec}(R)$, and $R$ is local if and only if $|\max (R)|=1\left[\right.$ then $\left.\max (R)=\left\{R \backslash R^{\times}\right\}\right]$.

If $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(R)$, then $R \backslash \mathfrak{p} \subset R$ is a multiplicatively closed subset, and for an $R$-module $M$ we call $M_{\mathfrak{p}}=(R \backslash p)^{-1} M$ the localization of $M$ at $\mathfrak{p}$. In particular, if $R$ is a domain, then $\mathbf{0} \in \operatorname{spec}(R)$, and $R_{\mathbf{0}}=\mathrm{q}(R)$. For an $R$-module homomorphism $f: M \rightarrow N$, we set $f_{\mathfrak{p}}=(R \backslash \mathfrak{p})^{-1} f: M_{\mathfrak{p}} \rightarrow N_{\mathfrak{p}}$.

Remark and Definition. Let $\varepsilon: R \rightarrow A$ be an $R$-algebra. For an ideal $\mathfrak{a} \subset R$, we call $\mathfrak{a} A={ }_{A}\langle\varepsilon(\mathfrak{a})\rangle$ the extension of $\mathfrak{a}$ to $A$, and for an ideal $\mathfrak{A} \subset A$ we call $\varepsilon^{-1}(\mathfrak{A}) \subset R$ the contraction of $\mathfrak{A}$ to $R$. Obviously, $\mathfrak{a} \subset \varepsilon^{-1}(\mathfrak{a} A)$ and $\varepsilon^{-1}(\mathfrak{A}) A \subset \mathfrak{A}$ for all ideals $\mathfrak{a} \triangleleft R$ and $\mathfrak{A} \triangleleft A$, and the maps

$$
\{\mathfrak{a} A \mid \mathfrak{a} \triangleleft R\} \leftrightarrows\left\{\varepsilon^{-1} \mathfrak{A} \mid \mathfrak{A} \triangleleft A\right\}, \quad \text { given by } \quad \mathfrak{A} \mapsto \varepsilon^{-1} \mathfrak{A} \quad \text { and } \mathfrak{a} \mapsto \mathfrak{a} A
$$

are mutually inverse bijections from the set of extension ideals in $A$ onto the set of contraction ideals of $R$. If $\mathfrak{P} \in \operatorname{spec}(A)$, then $\varepsilon^{-1}(\mathfrak{P}) \in \operatorname{spec}(R)$.

Theorem 2.1.7. Let $T \subset R$ be a multiplicatively closed subset and $j: R \rightarrow T^{-1} R$ the quotient homomorphism.

1. If $\mathfrak{a} \triangleleft R$, then $\mathfrak{a} T^{-1} R=T^{-1} \mathfrak{a}$, and $T^{-1} \mathfrak{a}=T^{-1} R$ if and only if $T \cap \mathfrak{a} \neq \emptyset$.
2. If $\mathfrak{A} \triangleleft T^{-1} R$, then $\mathfrak{A}=T^{-1} j^{-1}(\mathfrak{A})$. In particular, $\left\{T^{-1} \mathfrak{a} \mid \mathfrak{a} \triangleleft R\right\}$ is the set of all ideals of $T^{-1} R$, and if $R$ is noetherian, then $T^{-1} R$ is also noetherian.
3. If $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(R)$ and $T \cap \mathfrak{p}=\emptyset$, then $T^{-1} \mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}\left(T^{-1} R\right), \mathfrak{p}=j^{-1}\left(T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}\right)$,

$$
T^{-1} R \backslash T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}=\left\{\left.\frac{s}{t} \right\rvert\, s \in R \backslash \mathfrak{p}, t \in T\right\}
$$

and there is a ring isomorphism

$$
R_{\mathfrak{p}} \xrightarrow{\sim}\left(T^{-1} R\right)_{T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}}, \quad \text { given by } \quad \frac{a}{t} \mapsto \frac{\frac{a}{1}}{\frac{t}{1}} \quad \text { for all } a \in R \quad \text { and } t \in R \backslash \mathfrak{p}
$$

4. The maps

$$
\{\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(R) \mid \mathfrak{p} \cap T=\emptyset\} \leftrightarrows \operatorname{spec}\left(T^{-1} R\right), \quad \mathfrak{p} \mapsto T^{-1} \mathfrak{p} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathfrak{P} \mapsto j^{-1}(\mathfrak{P})
$$

are mutually inverse bijections.
5. If $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(R)$, then $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{p}_{\mathfrak{p}}=\mathfrak{p} R_{\mathfrak{p}}$, and there is an isomorphism $\mathrm{q}(R / \mathfrak{p})=(R / \mathfrak{p})_{\mathfrak{p}}=R_{\mathfrak{p}} / \mathfrak{p} R_{\mathfrak{p}}$.
Proof. 1. $j(\mathfrak{a})=\left\{\left.\frac{a}{1} \right\rvert\, a \in \mathfrak{a}\right\} \subset T^{-1} \mathfrak{a}$, and $T^{-1} \mathfrak{a} \triangleleft T^{-1} R$, hence $\mathfrak{a} T^{-1} R={ }_{T}{ }^{-1} R\langle j(\mathfrak{a})\rangle \subset T^{-1} \mathfrak{a}$. Conversely, if $\frac{a}{t} \in T^{-1} \mathfrak{a}$, where $t \in T$ and $a \in \mathfrak{a}$, then $\frac{a}{t}=a \frac{1}{t} \in \mathfrak{a} T^{-1} R$.

If $T^{-1} \mathfrak{a}=T^{-1} R$, then there exist $a \in \mathfrak{a}$ and $t \in T$ such that $\frac{a}{t}=\frac{1}{1}$, and thus there is some $s \in T$ such that $s a=s t \in \mathfrak{a} \cap T$. Conversely, if $s \in \mathfrak{a} \cap T$, then $\frac{s}{s}=\frac{1}{1} \in T^{-1} \mathfrak{a}$, which implies $T^{-1} \mathfrak{a}=T^{-1} R$.
2. Obviously, $T^{-1} j^{-1}(\mathfrak{A})=j^{-1}(\mathfrak{A}) T^{-1} R \subset \mathfrak{A}$. Conversely, suppose that $\frac{a}{s} \in \mathfrak{A}$, where $a \in R$ and $s \in T$. Then $j(a)=\frac{a}{1}=\frac{s}{1} \frac{a}{s} \in \mathfrak{A}$, hence $\frac{a}{1} \in j^{-1}(\mathfrak{A})$ and $\frac{a}{s} \in T^{-1} j^{-1}(\mathfrak{A})$. Consequently, $\left\{T^{-1} \mathfrak{a} \mid \mathfrak{a} \triangleleft R\right\}$ is the set of all ideals of $T^{-1} R$. If $\mathfrak{a} \triangleleft R$ is a finitely generated ideal of $R$, then $T^{-1} \mathfrak{a}$ is a finitely generated ideal of $T^{-1} R$. Hence, if $R$ is noetherian, then $T^{-1} R$ is also noetherian.
3. $T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}$ is a prime ideal: Let $\frac{a}{s}, \frac{b}{t} \in T^{-1} R$ (where $a, b \in R$ and $s, t \in T$ ), $\frac{a}{s} \frac{b}{t} \in T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}$ and $\frac{b}{t} \notin T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}$. Then $b \notin \mathfrak{p}$, and $\frac{a b}{s t}=\frac{c}{w}$ for some $c \in \mathfrak{p}$ and $w \in T$. Hence there is some $v \in T$ such that $v w a b=v$ stc $\in \mathfrak{p}$, and since $v w b \notin \mathfrak{p}$, it follows that $a \in \mathfrak{p}$ and $\frac{a}{s} \in T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}$.
$\mathfrak{p}=j^{-1}\left(T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}\right):$ Obviously, $\mathfrak{p} \subset j^{-1}\left(\mathfrak{p} T^{-1} R\right)=j^{-1}\left(T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}\right)$. To prove the reverse inclusion, let $a \in j^{-1}\left(T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}\right)$. Then $j(a)=\frac{a}{1}=\frac{c}{t}$ for some $c \in \mathfrak{p}$ and $t \in T$. Then there is some $s \in T$ such that sta $=s c \in \mathfrak{p}$, and $s t \in T \subset R \backslash \mathfrak{p}$ implies $a \in \mathfrak{p}$.
$T^{-1} R \backslash T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}=\left\{\left.\frac{s}{t} \right\rvert\, s \in R \backslash \mathfrak{p}, t \in T\right\}:$ It suffices to prove that, for all $a \in R$ and $t \in T$ we have $\frac{a}{t} \in T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}$ if and only if $a \in \mathfrak{p}$. By definition, $a \in \mathfrak{p}$ implies $\frac{a}{t} \in T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}$. Conversely, suppose that $\frac{a}{t} \in T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}$, say $\frac{a}{t}=\frac{c}{s}$, where $c \in \mathfrak{p}$ and $s \in T$. Then there is some $w \in T$ such that $w s a=w t c \in \mathfrak{p}$, and $w s \in T \subset R \backslash \mathfrak{p}$ implies $a \in \mathfrak{p}$.

Finally, we prove that there is a ring isomorphism $\Phi: R_{\mathfrak{p}} \xrightarrow{\sim}\left(T^{-1} R\right)_{T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}}$ as asserted. Thus define

$$
\Phi: R_{\mathfrak{p}} \rightarrow\left(T^{-1} R\right)_{T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}} \quad \text { by } \quad \Phi\left(\frac{a}{t}\right)=\frac{\frac{a}{1}}{\frac{t}{1}} \quad \text { for all } a \in R \text { and } t \in R \backslash \mathfrak{p}
$$

(observe that $t \in R \backslash \mathfrak{p}$ implies $\frac{t}{1} \in T^{-1} R \backslash T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}$ ). We assert that this definition does not depend on representatives. Indeed, suppose that $\frac{a}{t}=\frac{a^{\prime}}{t^{\prime}}$, where $a, a^{\prime} \in R$ and $t, t^{\prime} \in R \backslash \mathfrak{p}$. Then there is some $s \in R \backslash \mathfrak{p}$ such that $s t^{\prime} a=s t a^{\prime}$, and since $\frac{s}{1}, \frac{t}{1}, \frac{t^{\prime}}{1} \in T^{-1} R \backslash T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}$ and $\frac{s}{1} \frac{t^{\prime}}{1} \frac{a}{1}=\frac{s}{1} \frac{t}{1} \frac{a^{\prime}}{1}$, we get

$$
\frac{\frac{a}{1}}{\frac{t}{1}}=\frac{\frac{a^{\prime}}{1}}{\frac{t^{\prime}}{1}} . \quad \text { Since } \quad \frac{\frac{a}{s}}{\frac{v}{t}}=\frac{\frac{a t}{s t}}{\frac{s v}{s t}}=\frac{\frac{a t}{1}}{\frac{s v}{1}}=\Phi\left(\frac{a t}{s v}\right) \quad \text { for all } a \in R, s, v \in R \backslash \mathfrak{p} \text { and } t \in T
$$

it follows that $\Phi$ is surjective. Obviously, $\Phi$ is a ring homomorphism. Suppose that $\frac{a}{t} \in \operatorname{Ker}(\Phi)$, where $a \in R$ and $t \in T$. Then there exists some $\frac{s}{v} \in T^{-1} R \backslash T^{-1} \mathfrak{p}$ (where $s \in R \backslash \mathfrak{p}$ and $v \in T$ ) such that $\frac{s}{v} \frac{a}{1}=\frac{0}{1}$. Then there is some $w \in R \backslash \mathfrak{p}$ such that $w s a=0$, and therefore $\frac{a}{t}=\frac{0}{1}$.
4. Obvious by 2 . and 3 .
5. Let $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(R)$. Then $\left\{\mathfrak{a} R_{\mathfrak{p}} \mid \mathfrak{a} \triangleleft R\right\}$ is the set of all ideals of $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$, and if $\mathfrak{a} \triangleleft R$, then $\mathfrak{a} R_{\mathfrak{p}} \subsetneq R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is equivalent to $\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{p}$ and thus to $\mathfrak{a} R_{\mathfrak{p}} \subset \mathfrak{p} R_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Hence $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{p} R_{\mathfrak{p}}=\mathfrak{p}_{\mathfrak{p}}$. If $\pi: R \rightarrow R / \mathfrak{p}$ denotes the residue class homomorphism, then

$$
R_{\mathfrak{p}} / \mathfrak{p} R_{\mathfrak{p}}=(R / \mathfrak{p})_{\mathfrak{p}}=\pi(R \backslash \mathfrak{p})^{-1} R / \mathfrak{p}=(R / \mathfrak{p})^{\bullet-1} R / \mathfrak{p}=\mathfrak{q}(R / \mathfrak{p})
$$

Theorem 2.1.8. Let $D$ be a domain, $K=\mathrm{q}(D)$ and $T \subset D^{\bullet}$ a multiplicatively closed subset (then $\left.D \subset T^{-1} D \subset K\right)$.

1. Let $J, J^{\prime} \subset K$ be $D$-submodules. Then $T^{-1}\left(J J^{\prime}\right)=\left(T^{-1} J\right)\left(T^{-1} J^{\prime}\right)$, and if for every $T^{-1} D$ submodule $\widetilde{J} \subset K$ we set $\widetilde{J}_{\left[T^{-1} D\right]}^{-1}=\left\{z \in K \mid z \widetilde{J} \subset T^{-1} D\right)$, then $T^{-1} J^{-1} \subset\left(T^{-1} J\right)_{\left[T^{-1} D\right]}^{-1}$, and if $J$ is a finitely generated $D$-module, then equality holds.
2. Let $J \subset K$ be a ( $D$-) invertible fractional ideal. Then $T^{-1} J$ is $\left(T^{-1} D_{-}\right)$invertible.

Proof. 1. If $x \in T^{-1}\left(J J^{\prime}\right)$, then there exist $n \in \mathbb{N}, t \in T, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in J$ and $a_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, a_{n}^{\prime} \in J^{\prime}$ such that

$$
x=\frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} b_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{a_{i}}{t} \frac{b_{i}}{1} \in\left(T^{-1} J\right)\left(T^{-1} J^{\prime}\right) .
$$

Conversely, if $x \in\left(T^{-1} J\right)\left(T^{-1} J^{\prime}\right)$, then

$$
x=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{a_{i}}{t_{i}} \frac{a_{i}^{\prime}}{t_{i}^{\prime}}, \quad \text { where } \quad a_{i} \in J, a_{i}^{\prime} \in J^{\prime} \text { and } t_{i}, t_{i}^{\prime} \in T \text { for all } i \in[1, n], \quad \text { and we set } t=\prod_{i=1}^{n} t_{i} t_{i}^{\prime}
$$

Then

$$
x=\frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}^{*} a_{i}^{\prime}, \quad \text { where } \quad a_{i}^{*}=\left(\prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^{n} t_{j} t_{j}^{\prime}\right) a_{i} \in J \text { for all } i \in[1, n],
$$

and therefore $x \in T^{-1}\left(J J^{\prime}\right)$.
If $z \in T^{-1} J^{-1}$, then $z=\frac{u}{t}$, where $u J \subset D$ and $t \in T$. Then $z\left(T^{-1} J\right) \subset T^{-1} u J \subset T^{-1} D$, and therefore $z \in\left(T^{-1} J\right)_{\left[T^{-1} D\right]}^{-1}$. Assume now that $J={ }_{D}\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle$ and $z \in\left(T^{-1} J\right)_{\left[T^{-1} D\right]}^{-1}$. Since $T^{-1} D={ }_{T^{-1} D}\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle$, we obtain $z a_{i} \in T^{-1} D$ for all $i \in[1, n]$, and therefore there exist $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n} \in D$
and $t \in T$ such that $z a_{i}=\frac{c_{i}}{t}$ for all $i \in[1, n]$, and thus $t z a_{i} \in D$ for all $i \in[1, n]$. Thus we obtain $t z J \subset D, t z \in J^{-1}$ and $z=\frac{t z}{t} \in T^{-1} J^{-1}$.
2. Let $J$ be invertible. Then $\left(T^{-1} J\right)\left(T^{-1} J^{-1}\right)=T^{-1}\left(J J^{-1}\right)=T^{-1} D$, and therefore $T^{-1} J$ is $T^{-1} D$-invertible.

Theorem 2.1.9. Let $R$ be a commutative ring and $M$ an $R$-module.

1. If $x \in M$, then $x=0$ if and only if $\frac{x}{1}=\frac{0}{1} \in M_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in \max (R)$. In particular, $M=\mathbf{0}$ if and only if $M_{\mathfrak{p}}=\mathbf{0}$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(R)$.
2. Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be an $R$-module homomorphism. Then $f$ is a monomorphism [an epimorphism, an isomorphism] if and only if, for all $\mathfrak{p} \in \max (R), f_{\mathfrak{p}}: M_{\mathfrak{p}} \rightarrow N_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a monomorphism [an epimorphism, an isomorphism].
3. Let $R$ be a domain, $K=\mathrm{q}(R)$, $V$ a $K$-vector space and $M \subset V$ an $R$-submodule. Then $M \subset T^{-1} M \subset V$ for all multiplicatively closed subset $T \subset R^{\bullet}$, and

$$
M=\bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \max (R)} M_{\mathfrak{p}}
$$

Proof. 1. Clearly, $x=0$ implies $\frac{x}{1}=\frac{0}{1} \in \mathfrak{p}$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in \max (R)$. If $x \neq 0$, then $\mathfrak{a}=\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(x) \subsetneq R$, and there exists some $\mathfrak{p} \in \max (R)$ such that $\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{p}$. Hence $s x \neq 0$ for all $s \in R \backslash \mathfrak{p}$, and $\frac{x}{1} \neq \frac{0}{1} \in R_{\mathfrak{p}}$.
2. If $\mathfrak{p} \in \max (R)$, then $\operatorname{Ker}\left(f_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)=\operatorname{Ker}(f)_{\mathfrak{p}}$ and $\operatorname{Im}\left(f_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)=\operatorname{Im}(f)_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Hence the assertion follows by 1 .
3. Since $\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(x)=\mathbf{0}$ for all $x \in M^{\bullet}$, it follows that $M \subset T^{-1} M \subset T^{-1} V=V$, since $T \subset K^{\times}$. By definition

$$
M \subset \bar{M}=\bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \max (R)} M_{\mathfrak{p}} \quad \text { and } \quad \bar{M} \subset M_{\mathfrak{p}} \quad \text { for all } \mathfrak{p} \in \max (R)
$$

Hence $M_{\mathfrak{p}}=\bar{M}_{\mathfrak{p}}$ and therefore $(\bar{M} / M)_{\mathfrak{p}}=\bar{M}_{\mathfrak{p}} / M_{\mathfrak{p}}=\mathbf{0}$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in \max (R)$. Hence $\bar{M} / M=\mathbf{0}$ and $\bar{M}=M$.

### 2.2. Valuation domains and Prüfer domains

Throughout, let $D$ be a domain and $K=\mathrm{q}(D)$.

Definitions and Remarks. Let $\Gamma=(\Gamma,+)$ be an additive abelian group.

1. Let $\leq$ be a total ordering of $\Gamma$. Then $\Gamma=(\Gamma, \leq)$ is called an ordered abelian group if $a \leq b$ implies $a+c \leq b+c$ for all $a, b, c \in \Gamma$.
If $\Gamma$ is a totally ordered abelian group, then $\Gamma$ is torsion-free. Indeed, if $\gamma \in \Gamma$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $n \gamma \geq \gamma>0$ if $\gamma>0$, and $n \gamma \leq \gamma<0$ if $\gamma<0$.
Assume that $\Gamma_{>0}$ has no smallest element. If $\gamma \in \Gamma_{>0}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then there exists some $\delta \in \Gamma_{>0}$ such that $n \delta<\gamma$. Indeed, this is obvious for $n=1$, and we use induction on $n$. Suppose that $n \geq 2$, let $\delta_{1} \in \Gamma_{>0}$ be such that $(n-1) \delta_{1}<\gamma$, and let $\delta \in \Gamma_{>0}$ be such that $\delta<\min \left\{\delta_{1}, \gamma-(n-1) \delta_{1}\right\}$. Then $n \delta=(n-1) \delta+\delta<(n-1) \delta_{1}+\delta<\gamma$.
For an ordered abelian group we consider the extension $\Gamma \cup\{\infty\}$, where $\infty \notin \Gamma, \gamma \leq \infty$ and $\gamma+\infty=\infty$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma \cup\{\infty\}$.
2. Let $K$ be a field and $\Gamma$ an ordered abelian group. A valuation of $K$ with value group $\Gamma$ is a surjective map $v: K \rightarrow \Gamma \cup\{\infty\}$ such that the following assertions hold for all $x, y \in K$ :

- $v(x)=\infty$ if and only if $x=0$.
- $v(x y)=v(x)+v(y)$.
- $v(x+y) \geq \min \{v(x), v(y)\}$.

A discrete valuation is a valuation with value group $\mathbb{Z}$.
If $v: K \rightarrow \Gamma \cup\{\infty\}$ is a valuation, then $v \mid K^{\times}: K^{\times} \rightarrow \Gamma$ is a group epimorphism.
If $x \in \mu(K)$, then $v(x)=0$. Indeed, if $x \in \mu(K), n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x^{n}=1$, then $0=v\left(x^{n}\right)=n v(x)$, and thus $v(x)=0$. In particular, $v(-1)=0$ and $v(-x)=v(-1)+v(x)=v(x)$ for all $x \in K$.
If $x, y \in K$ and $v(x) \neq v(y)$, then $v(x+y)=\min \{v(x), v(y)\}$. Indeed, let $v(x)<v(y)$. Then $v(x)=v(x+y+(-y)) \geq \min \{v(x+y), v(-y)\} \geq \min \{v(x), v(y)\}=v(x)$, and therefore $\min \{v(x+y), v(y)\}=v(x)<v(y)$, which implies $v(x+y)=v(x)$.
3. Let $v: K \rightarrow \Gamma \cup\{\infty\}$ be a valuation with value group $\Gamma, \mathcal{O}_{v}=\{x \in K \mid v(x) \geq 0\}$ and $\mathfrak{m}_{v}=\{x \in K \mid v(x)>0\}$. Then is is easily checked that $\mathcal{O}_{v}$ is a local domain with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}_{v}, \quad \mathcal{O}_{v} \backslash \mathfrak{m}_{v}=\{x \in K \mid v(x)=0\}=\mathcal{O}_{v}^{\times}=\operatorname{Ker}\left(v \mid K^{\times}\right), \quad \mathbf{q}\left(\mathcal{O}_{v}\right)=K$, and $v$ induces an isomorphism $v^{*}: K^{\times} / \mathcal{O}_{v}^{\times} \xrightarrow{\sim} \Gamma$. Moreover, $\mathfrak{m}_{v}$ is a principal ideal if and only if $\Gamma_{>0}$ has a smallest element. $\mathcal{O}_{v}$ is called the valuation ring and $\mathfrak{m}_{v}$ is called the valuation ideal of $v$.
4. $D$ is called a valuation domain if $D=\mathcal{O}_{v}$ for some valuation $v$ of $K$, and $D$ is called a discrete valuation domain or dv-domain if $D=\mathcal{O}_{v}$ for some discrete valuation $v$ of $K$.
5. Let $v_{0}: D^{\bullet} \rightarrow \Gamma_{>0}$ be a surjective map such that the following assertions hold for all $x, y \in D$ :

- $v_{0}(x)=\infty$ if and only if $x=0$.
- $v_{0}(x y)=v_{0}(x)+v_{0}(y)$.
- $v_{0}(x+y) \geq \min \left\{v_{0}(x), v_{0}(y)\right\}$.

Then there exists a unique valuation $v: K \rightarrow \Gamma \cup\{\infty\}$ such that $v \mid D^{\bullet}=v_{0}$. In particular, there exists a unique discrete valuation $\omega: K((X)) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \cup\{\infty\}$ such that $\omega \mid K \llbracket X \rrbracket=$ ord. Every $f \in K((X))^{\times}$has a unique representation $f=X^{\omega(f)} f_{0}$, where $f_{0} \in K \llbracket X \rrbracket^{\times}$, and $\mathcal{O}_{\omega}=K \llbracket X \rrbracket$.

## Theorem 2.2.1.

1. The following assertions are equivalent:
(a) $D$ is a valuation domain.
(b) $D$ is local, and every finitely generated ideal of $D$ is a principal ideal.
(c) For all $a, b \in D$, either $a \in b D$ or $b \in a D$.
(d) For all $x \in K^{\times}$, either $x \in D$ or $x^{-1} \in D$.
(e) For all $D$-submodules $A, B \subset K$, either $A \subset B$ or $B \subset A$. In particular, the set of $D$-submodules of $K$ is a chain with respect to $\subset$.
(f) For all $a, b \in K$, either $a \in b D$ or $b \in a D$.
2. Let $D$ be a valuation domain.
(a) Let $D \subset E \subset K$ be a domain. Then $E$ is a valuation domain, and if $\mathfrak{m}=E \backslash E^{\times}$is its maximal ideal, then $\mathfrak{p}=\mathfrak{m} \cap D \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$, and $\bar{D}=D_{\mathfrak{p}}$.
(b) If $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$, then $D / \mathfrak{p}$ is a valuation domain.

Proof. 1. (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b) Let $v$ be a valuation of $K$ such that $D=\mathcal{O}_{v}$. Then $D$ is local with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}=\mathfrak{m}_{v}=D \backslash D^{\times}$. Let $\mathfrak{a}={ }_{D}\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle \subset D$ be a finitely generated ideal. After renumbering if necessary, we may assume that $v\left(a_{1}\right) \leq v\left(a_{2}\right) \leq \ldots \leq v\left(a_{n}\right)<\infty$. For all $i \in[2, n]$, it follows that $v\left(a_{1}^{-1} a_{i}\right)=-v\left(a_{1}\right)+v\left(a_{i}\right) \geq 0$, hence $a_{1}^{-1} a_{i} \in D$ and $a_{i} \in a_{1} D$. Thus we obtain $\mathfrak{a}=a_{1} D$.
(b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) We may assume that $a, b \in D^{\bullet}$. Then $\langle a, b\rangle=a D+b D=d D$ for some $d \in D^{\bullet}$. Since $a \in d D$ and $b \in d D$, we get $d^{-1} a, d^{-1} b \in D$, and ${ }_{D}\left\langle d^{-1} a, d^{-1} b\right\rangle=D$. Hence there exist $u, v \in D$ such that $1=d^{-1} a u+d^{-1} b v$, and therefore $d^{-1} a$ and $d^{-1} b$ cannot both lie in the maximal ideal of $D$. If $d^{-1} a \in D^{\times}$, then $D a=D d=D a+D b \supset D b$. Similarly, if $d^{-1} b \in D^{\times}$, then $D b \supset D a$.
(c) $\Rightarrow$ (d) Suppose that $x=a^{-1} b \in K^{\times}$, where $a, b \in D^{\bullet}$. If $b \in a D$, then $x \in D$, and if $a \in b D$, then $x^{-1} \in D$.
(d) $\Rightarrow$ (e) Let $A, B \subset K$ be $D$-submodules, $A \not \subset B$ and $a \in A \backslash B$. Then it follows that $B \subset A$. Indeed, if $b \in B^{\bullet}$, then $b D \subset B$, hence $a \notin b D$ and $b^{-1} a \notin D$, which implies $a^{-1} b \in D$ and $b \in a D \subset A$.
(e) $\Rightarrow$ (f) Obvious.
(f) $\Rightarrow$ (a) Let $\Gamma=K^{\times} / D^{\times}$, written additively, that is $a D^{\times} \boxplus b D^{\times}=a b D^{\times}$for all $a, b \in K^{\times}$. Define $\leq$ on $\Gamma$ by $a D^{\times} \leq b D^{\times}$if $b D \subset a D$, and note that $a D^{\times}=b D^{\times}$if and only if $a D=b D$. By (f), $\leq$ is a total ordering on $\Gamma$, and obviously $(\Gamma, \leq)$ is an ordered abelian group with $0_{\Gamma}=D^{\times}$. Now we define $v: K \rightarrow \Gamma \cup\{\infty\}$ by $v(a)=a D^{\times}$if $a \in K^{\times}$, and $v(0)=\infty$. We assert that $v$ is a valuation. Indeed, if $a, b \in K$, then $v(a b)=v(a) \boxplus v(b)$ by the very definition of $\boxplus$. For the proof of $v(a+b) \geq \min \{v(a), v(b)\}$ we may assume that $a, b, a+b \in K^{\times}$and $v(a) \leq v(b)$. Then $b D \subset a D$, hence $(a+b) D \subset a D$, and $v(a+b)=(a+b) D^{\times} \geq a D^{\times}=v(a)$. If $a \in K^{\times}$, then $v(a)=a D^{\times} \geq 0_{\Gamma}=D^{\times}$if and only if $a \in D$, and therefore $D=\mathcal{O}_{v}$.
2. (a) If $x \in K \backslash E$, then $x \notin D$, and thus $x^{-1} \in D \subset E$. Hence $E$ is a valuation domain, and if $\mathfrak{m}$ is its maximal ideal, then $\mathfrak{p}=\mathfrak{m} \cap D \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$, and $D \backslash \mathfrak{p} \subset E \backslash \mathfrak{m}=E^{\times}$, which implies $D_{\mathfrak{p}} \subset E$. Suppose that there is some $z \in E \backslash D_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Then $z \notin D$, hence $z^{-1} \in D$, and therefore $z^{-1} \in E^{\times}$. Since $z=\left(z^{-1}\right)^{-1} \notin D_{\mathfrak{p}}$, it follows that $z^{-1} \in \mathfrak{p} \subset \mathfrak{m}$, a contradiction.
(b) Let $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$. As the ideals of $D$ form a chain, the same holds true for the ideals of $D / \mathfrak{p}$, and thus $D / \mathfrak{p}$ is a valuation domain.

Theorem 2.2.2. Let $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$ and $L \supset K$ an extension field. Then there exists a valuation domain $V \subset L$ with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ such that $L=\mathfrak{q}(V)$ and $\mathfrak{m} \cap D=\mathfrak{p}$.

Proof. The proof depends on the following Lemma.
L. Let $R \subset S$ be commutative rings, $u \in S^{\times}$and $\mathfrak{a} \subsetneq R$ an ideal. Then $\mathfrak{a}$ survives in $R[u]$ or in $R\left[u^{-1}\right]$, that means, either $\mathfrak{a} R[u] \subsetneq R[u]$ or $\mathfrak{a} R\left[u^{-1}\right] \subsetneq R\left[u^{-1}\right]$.
We first prove the Theorem using $\mathbf{L}$. Let $\Omega$ be the set of all intermediate domains $R_{\mathfrak{p}} \subset S \subset L$ satisfying $\mathfrak{p} S \neq S$. The $R_{\mathfrak{p}} \in \Omega$, and we assert that the union of every chain in $\Omega$ belongs to $\Omega$. Indeed, let $\Sigma \subset \Omega$ be a chain and $S^{*}=\bigcup \Sigma$. Then $R_{\mathfrak{p}} \subset S^{*} \subset L$ is an intermediate domain, and we assume that, contrary to our assertion, $\mathfrak{p} S^{*}=S^{*}$. Then there exist $m \in \mathbb{N}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m} \in \mathfrak{p}$ and $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m} \in S^{*}$ such that $a_{1} x_{1}+\ldots+a_{m} x_{m}=1$. Since $\Sigma$ is a chain, there exists some $S \in \Sigma$ such that $x_{j} \in S$ for all $j \in[1, m]$, whence $\mathfrak{p} S=S$, a contradiction.

By Zorn's Lemma, $\Omega$ possesses a maximal element $V$. We assert that $V$ is a valuation domain, and $\mathrm{q}(V)=L$, and we prove that, for every $x \in L^{\times}$, either $x \in V$ or $x^{-1} \in V$. Let $x \in L^{\times}$. Since $\mathfrak{p} V \neq V$, L implies $\mathfrak{p} V[x] \neq V[x]$ or $\mathfrak{p} V\left[x^{-1}\right] \neq V\left[x^{-1}\right]$, and thus $V[x] \in \Omega$ or $V\left[x^{-1}\right] \in \Omega$. As $V$ was a maximal element in $\Omega$, this yields $x \in V$ or $x^{-1} \in V$. Let $\mathfrak{m}$ be the maximal ideal of $V$. Then $\mathfrak{p} V \subset \mathfrak{m}$, and therefore $\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}} \subset \mathfrak{m} \cap D_{\mathfrak{p}} \subsetneq D_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Hence $\mathfrak{m} \cap D_{\mathfrak{p}}=\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}$, and $\mathfrak{m} \cap D=\mathfrak{m} \cap D_{\mathfrak{p}} \cap D=\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}} \cap D=\mathfrak{p}$.

Proof of $\mathbf{L}$. We assert that every $z \in \mathfrak{a} R[u]$ has a representation in the form

$$
z=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} u^{i}, \quad \text { where } \quad n \in \mathbb{N} \text { and } a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in \mathfrak{a} .
$$

Indeed, if $z \in \mathfrak{a} R[u]$, then

$$
z=\sum_{j=1}^{m} c_{j} x_{j}, \quad \text { where } \quad m \in \mathbb{N}, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{m} \in \mathfrak{a} \text { and } x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m} \in R[u] .
$$

For all $j \in[1, m]$,

$$
x_{j}=\sum_{i=0}^{n} b_{j, i} u^{i}, \quad \text { where } \quad n \in \mathbb{N} \text { and } b_{j, 1}, \ldots, b_{j, n} \in R
$$

Hence it follows that

$$
z=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} u^{i}, \quad \text { where } \quad a_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{m} c_{j} b_{j, i} \in \mathfrak{a} .
$$

Assume now that, contrary to our assertion, $\mathfrak{a} R[u]=R[u]$ and $\mathfrak{a} R\left[u^{-1}\right]=R\left[u^{-1}\right]$. Then there exist relations

$$
1=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} u^{i}=\sum_{j=0}^{m} b_{j} u^{-j}, \quad \text { where } \quad m, n \in \mathbb{N} \text { and } a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m} \in \mathfrak{a}
$$

Among all these relations we choose one, for which $m+n$ is minimal, and we assume that $m \leq n$ (otherwise we interchange $m$ and $n$ ). Then we obtain

$$
\left(1-b_{0}\right) u^{m}=\sum_{j=1}^{m} b_{j} u^{m-j} \quad \text { and } \quad 1-b_{0}=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i}\left(1-b_{0}\right) u^{i}=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_{i}\left(1-b_{0}\right) u^{i}+a_{n} u^{n-m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_{j} u^{m-j}
$$

and therefore

$$
1=\left[b_{0}+a_{0}\left(1-b_{0}\right)\right]+\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} C_{i} u^{i} \text { for some } C_{1}, \ldots, C_{n-1} \in \mathfrak{a}
$$

contradicting the minimal choice of $m+n$.

Remarks (Recapitulation: Integrality). Let $R \subset S$ be commutative rings.

1. An element $x \in S$ is called integral over $R$ if it satisfies one of the following equivalent conditions :

- There exists a monoid polynomial $f \in R[X] \backslash R$ such that $f(x)=0$.
- There exist $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in R$ such that $x^{n}+a_{n-1} x^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{1} x+a_{0}=0$ (such a relation is called an integral equation of $x$ over $R$ ).
- $R[x]$ is a finitely generated $R$-module.
- There exists a finitely generated $R$-module $M \subset S$ such that $x M \subset M$ and, for all $g \in R[X]$, $g(x) M=\mathbf{0}$ implies $g(x)=0$.

2. $\operatorname{cl}_{S}(R)=\{x \in S \mid x$ is integral over $R\}$ is called the integral closure of $R$ in $S$. If $\operatorname{cl}_{S}(R)=S$, then $S$ is called integral over $R$, and if $\operatorname{cl}_{S}(R)=R$, then $R$ is called integrally closed in $S$. $\mathrm{cl}_{S}(R)$ is a subring of $S$ which is integral over $R$ and integrally closed in $S$.
3. It $T \subset R$ is a multiplicatively closed subset, then $\mathrm{cl}_{T^{-1} S}\left(T^{-1} R\right)=T^{-1} \mathrm{cl}_{S}(R)$, and $S$ is integral over $R$ if and only if $S_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is integral over $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in \max (R)$.
4. If $R \subset S \subset \bar{S}$ are commutative rings, then $\bar{S}$ is integral over $R$ if and only if $\bar{S}$ is integral over $S$ and $S$ is integral over $R$.
5. A domain $D$ is called integrally closed if it is integrally closed in $K=\mathrm{q}(D)$. Every factorial domain is integrally closed, and the intersection of any family of integrally closed domains between $D$ and $K$ is integrally closed. In particular, $D$ is integrally closed if and only if $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is integrally closed for every $\mathfrak{p} \in \max (D)$.
6. Let $D$ be an integrally closed domain, $K=\mathrm{q}(D)$ and $L / K$ an algebraic field extension. Then $S=\operatorname{cl}_{L}(D)$ is an integrally closed domain, and $L=K S=\mathrm{q}(S)$. If $x \in L$ and $f \in K[X]$ is the minimal polynomial of $x$ over $K$, then $x \in S$ if and only if $f \in D[X]$.

Theorem 2.2.3. Let $\Omega$ the set of all valuation domains $V$ such that $D \subset V \subset K$. Then

$$
\mathrm{cl}_{K}(D)=\bigcap_{V \in \Omega} V
$$

In particular, every valuation domain is integrally closed, and if $D$ is integrally closed, then $D$ is the intersection of all valuation domains $V$ such that $D \subset V \subset K$.

Proof. We show first that every valuation domain is integrally closed. Let $D$ be a valuation domain with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$, and assume that $x \in K \backslash D$ is integral over $D$. Let $x^{n}+a_{n-1} x^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{1} x+a_{0}=0$ be an integral equation of $x$ over $D$. Then $1=-\left(a_{n-1}^{-1}+\ldots+a_{1}^{-(n-1)}+a_{0}^{-n}\right)$, and since $x^{-1} \in \mathfrak{m}$ it follows that $1 \in \mathfrak{m}$, a contradiction.

Now let $D$ be any domain, $\Omega$ the set of all valuation domains between $D$ and $K$, and

$$
D^{\prime}=\bigcap_{V \in \Omega} V \supset D
$$

Then $D^{\prime}$ is an integrally closed domain, and $D \subset \operatorname{cl}_{K}(D) \subset \mathrm{cl}_{K}\left(D^{\prime}\right)=D^{\prime}$. Thus we must prove that every $x \in D^{\prime}$ is integral over $D$. Thus suppose that $x \in D^{\prime}$.

CASE 1: $x^{-1} D\left[x^{-1}\right]=D\left[x^{-1}\right]$. Then $1=x^{-1}\left(a_{0}+a_{1} x^{-1}+\ldots+a_{n} x^{-n}\right)$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a_{0}, \ldots a_{n} \in D$, and therefore $x^{n+1}-a_{0} x^{n}-a_{1} x^{n-1}-\ldots-a_{n}=0$, which shows that $x$ is integral over $D$.

CASE 2: $x^{-1} D\left[x^{-1}\right] \subsetneq D\left[x^{-1}\right]$. Let $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}\left(D\left[x^{-1}\right]\right)$ be such that $x^{-1} D\left[x^{-1}\right] \subset \mathfrak{p}$. By Theorem 2.2.2, there exists a valuation domain $V$ with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ such that $D\left[x^{-1}\right] \subset V \subset K$ and $\mathfrak{m} \cap$ $D\left[x^{-1}\right]=\mathfrak{p}$. Then $V \in \Omega, x^{-1} \in \mathfrak{m}$ and therefore $x \notin V$, a contradiction.

Theorem 2.2.4. Suppose that $D \neq K$. Then the following assertions are equivalent:
(a) $D$ is a dv-domain.
(b) $D$ is a noetherian valuation domain.
(c) $D$ is a local principal ideal domain.
(d) $D$ is a factorial domain and possesses (up to associates) exactly one prime element.

Proof. (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b) Let $v: K \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \cup\{\infty\}$ be a discrete valuation such that $D=\mathcal{O}_{v}$. We prove that $D$ is a principal ideal domain. Let $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathfrak{a} \triangleleft D, n=\min v(\mathfrak{a}) \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$ and $n=v(a)$, where $a \in \mathfrak{a}$. Then $a D \subset \mathfrak{a}$, and we assert that equality holds. Indeed, if $x \in \mathfrak{a}$, then $v(x) \geq v(a)$, hence $v\left(a^{-1} x\right)=-v(a)+v(x) \geq 0$, and therefore $a^{-1} x \in D$, whence $x \in a D$.
$(\mathrm{b}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{c})$ Being a valuation domain, $D$ is local and every finitely generated ideal is principal. By assumption, $D$ is noetherian and thus every ideal is principal.
$(\mathrm{c}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{d})$ Since $D$ is a principal ideal domain, it follows that $D$ is factorial and every non-zero prime ideal is maximal. Hence the maximal ideal $p D$ of $D$ is the unique non-zero prime ideal, and therefore $p$ is up to associates the only prime element of $D$.
(d) $\Rightarrow$ (a) Let $p$ be a prime element of $D$. Then every $x \in K^{\times}$has a unique representation $x=p^{n} u$, where $n \in \mathbb{Z}, u \in D^{\times}$, and we set $v(x)=n$. We define $v(0)=\infty$. Then $v: K \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \cup\{\infty\}$ is a discrete valuation, and $D=\mathcal{O}_{v}$.

## Theorem and Definition 2.2.5.

1. The following assertions are equivalent:
(a) Every finitely generated non-zero ideal of $D$ is invertible.
(b) For all $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(D), \quad D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a valuation domain.
(c) For all $\mathfrak{p} \in \max (D), \quad D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a valuation domain.

If these conditions are fulfilled, then $D$ is called a Prüfer domain. If $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a dv-domain for all $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$, then $D$ is called an almost Dedekind domain.
2. If $D$ is a Prüfer domain, then $D$ is integrally closed, and if $D$ is an almost Dedekind domain, then every non-zero prime ideal is maximal.
3. Let $D$ be a Prüfer domain and $D \subset E \subset K$ a domain. Then $E$ is a Prüfer domain, and if $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{spec}(E)$, then $\mathfrak{p}=\mathfrak{q} \cap D \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$, and $D_{\mathfrak{p}}=E_{\mathfrak{q}}$, and $\mathfrak{q}=\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}} \cap E$.
4. Let $D$ be a Prüfer domain and $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$. Then $D / \mathfrak{p}$ is a Prüfer domain.

Proof. 1. (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b) If $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$, then $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a local domain, and by Theorem 2.2.1.1(b) if suffices to prove that every finitely generated ideal of $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is principal. Let $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathfrak{A}={ }_{D_{\mathfrak{p}}}\left\langle\frac{a_{1}}{t_{1}}, \ldots, \frac{a_{n}}{t_{n}}\right\rangle \subset D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ be a finitely generated ideal. If $\mathfrak{a}={ }_{D}\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle$, then $\mathfrak{a}_{\mathfrak{p}}={ }_{D_{\mathfrak{p}}}\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle=\mathfrak{A}$. Hence $\mathfrak{a} \neq \mathbf{0}$, $\mathfrak{a}$ is invertible, and thus $\mathfrak{a}$ is $D$-projective. Since $\mathfrak{A}=\mathfrak{a}_{\mathfrak{p}} \cong D_{\mathfrak{p}} \otimes_{D} \mathfrak{a}$, it follows that $\mathfrak{A}$ is $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$-projective by Theorem 1.2.5.3, and since $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is local, the Corollary to Theorem 2.1.2 implies that $\mathfrak{A}$ is free and thus a principal ideal.
(b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) Obvious.
(c) $\Rightarrow$ (a) Let $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathfrak{a}$ be a finitely generated ideal of $D$, and suppose that $\mathfrak{a}$ is not invertible. Then $\mathfrak{a a}^{-1} \subsetneq D$, and thus there is some $\mathfrak{p} \in \max (D)$ such that $\mathfrak{a} \mathfrak{a}^{-1} \subset \mathfrak{p}$. Now Theorem 2.1.8 implies $\mathfrak{a}_{\mathfrak{p}}\left(\mathfrak{a}_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)^{-1}=\mathfrak{a}_{\mathfrak{p}}\left(\mathfrak{a}^{-1}\right)_{\mathfrak{p}}=\left(\mathfrak{a} \mathfrak{a}^{-1}\right)_{\mathfrak{p}}=\mathfrak{p}_{\mathfrak{p}} \subsetneq D_{\mathfrak{p}}$, and thus $\mathfrak{a}_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is not $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$-invertible. However, $\mathfrak{a}_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a finitely generated ideal of $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$, hence principal and thus $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$-invertible, a contradiction.
2. If $D$ is a Prüfer domain, then $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is integrally closed for all $\mathfrak{p} \in \max (D)$. Hence $D$ is integrally closed. If $D$ is an almost Dedekind domain, $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$ and $\mathfrak{m} \in \max (D)$ such that $\mathfrak{p} \subset \mathfrak{m}$, then $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{m}} \subset \mathfrak{m} D_{\mathfrak{m}}$ are prime ideals. As $D_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a dv-domain, it follows that $\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{m}}=\mathfrak{m} D_{\mathfrak{p}}$, and therefore $\mathfrak{p}=\mathfrak{m}$ is maximal.
3. If $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{spec}(E)$, then $\mathfrak{p}=\mathfrak{q} \cap D \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$, and $D \backslash \mathfrak{p} \subset E \backslash \mathfrak{q}$ implies $D_{\mathfrak{p}} \subset E_{\mathfrak{q}}$. Since $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a valuation domain, Theorem 2.2.1.2 implies that $E_{\mathfrak{q}}$ is a valuation domain, $\mathfrak{q} E_{\mathfrak{q}} \cap D_{\mathfrak{p}} \in \operatorname{spec}\left(D_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)$, and $E_{\mathfrak{q}}=\left(D_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)_{\mathfrak{q} E_{\mathfrak{q}} \cap D_{\mathfrak{p}}}$. In particular, $E$ is a Prüfer domain. Since $\mathfrak{q} E_{\mathfrak{q}} \cap D_{\mathfrak{p}} \cap D=\mathfrak{q} \cap D=\mathfrak{p}=\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}} \cap D$, it follows that $\mathfrak{q} E_{\mathfrak{q}} \cap D_{\mathfrak{p}}=\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}$, and therefore $E_{\mathfrak{q}}=\left(D_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)_{\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}}=D_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Hence $\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}=\mathfrak{q} E_{\mathfrak{q}}$, and therefore $\mathfrak{q}=\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}} \cap E$.
4. If $\mathfrak{Q} \in \operatorname{spec}(D / \mathfrak{p})$, then $\mathfrak{Q}=\mathfrak{q} / \mathfrak{p}$ for some prime ideal $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$ such that $\mathfrak{p} \subset \mathfrak{q}$, and $(D / \mathfrak{p})_{\mathfrak{Q}}=(D / \mathfrak{p})_{\mathfrak{q}}=D_{\mathfrak{q}} / \mathfrak{p}_{\mathfrak{q}}$ is a valuation domain by Theorem 2.2.1.

Theorem and Definition 2.2.6. The following assertions are equivalent:
(a) $D$ is a noetherian Prüfer domain.
(b) $D$ is noetherian, and for all $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(D), \quad D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a dv-domain.
(c) $D$ is noetherian, integrally closed, and every non-zero prime ideal is maximal.
(d) Every non-zero ideal of $D$ is invertible.

If these conditions are fulfilled, then $D$ is called a Dedekind domain.
Proof. (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b) If $\mathbf{0} \neq \operatorname{spec}(D)$, then $D_{\mathfrak{p}} \neq K$ is a noetherian valuation domain and thus a dv-domain.
(b) $\Rightarrow$ (a) Obvious.
(a) and (b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) Since $D$ is a Prüfer domain, it is integrally closed. By (b), $D$ is an almost Dedekind domain, and thus every non-zero prime ideal is maximal.
(c) $\Rightarrow$ (d) It suffices to prove the following assertions: If $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathfrak{a} \triangleleft D$, then
a. There exist $r \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathfrak{p}_{1}, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_{r} \in \max (D)$ such that $\mathfrak{p}_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathfrak{p}_{r} \subset \mathfrak{a}$.
b. If $\mathfrak{p} \in \max (D)$, then $\mathfrak{a} \subsetneq \mathfrak{a p}^{-1}$.

Suppose that a. and $\mathbf{b}$. hold, and not every non-zero ideal of $D$ is invertible. Let $\mathfrak{a}$ be maximal among not invertible ideals and $\mathfrak{p} \in \max (D)$ such that $\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{p}$. Then $\mathfrak{a} \subsetneq \mathfrak{a p}^{-1} \subset \mathfrak{p p}^{-1} \subset D$ by b. Hence $\mathfrak{a p}^{-1}$ is invertible, and there exists a fractional ideal $\mathfrak{b}$ such that $\mathfrak{a p}{ }^{-1} \mathfrak{b}=D$. Hence $\mathfrak{p}^{-1} \mathfrak{b} \subset \mathfrak{a}^{-1}$, and $D=\mathfrak{a p}^{-1} \mathfrak{b} \subset \mathfrak{a a}^{-1} \subset D$ implies $\mathfrak{a a}^{-1}=D$, a contradiction.

Proof of $\mathbf{a}$. Assume the contrary. Then there exists a maximal non-zero ideal $\mathfrak{a} \subset D$ which does not contain a product of maximal ideal. Since every non-zero prime ideal is maximal, $\mathfrak{a}$ is not a prime ideal, and there exist $x, y, \in D \backslash \mathfrak{a}$ such that $x y \in \mathfrak{a}$. Then $\mathfrak{a} \subsetneq \mathfrak{a}+x D$ and $\mathfrak{a} \subsetneq \mathfrak{a}+y D$, and there exist $r, s \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathfrak{p}_{1}, \ldots \mathfrak{p}_{r}, \mathfrak{q}_{1}, \ldots, \mathfrak{q}_{s} \in \max (D)$ such that $\mathfrak{p}_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathfrak{p}_{r} \subset \mathfrak{a}+x D$ and $\mathfrak{q}_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathfrak{q}_{s} \subset \mathfrak{a}+y D$. It follows that $\mathfrak{p}_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathfrak{p}_{r} \mathfrak{q}_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathfrak{q}_{s} \subset(\mathfrak{a}+x D)(\mathfrak{a}+y D) \subset \mathfrak{a}+x y D=\mathfrak{a}$, a contradiction.
Proof of $\mathbf{b}$. Since $D \subset \mathfrak{p}^{-1}$, we obtain $\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{a p}^{-1}$, and we assume that, contrary to our assertion, $\mathfrak{a}=\mathfrak{a} \mathfrak{p}^{-1}$. If $x \in \mathfrak{p}^{-1}$, then $x \mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{a}$, hence $x$ is integral over $D$, and therefore $x \in D$. Thus we obtain $\mathfrak{p}^{-1}=D$. Suppose that $0 \neq a \in \mathfrak{p}$, and let $r \in \mathbb{N}$ be minimal such that there exist $\mathfrak{p}_{1}, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_{r} \in \max (D)$ satisfying $\mathfrak{p}_{1} \not \ldots \cdot \mathfrak{p}_{r} \subset a D \subset \mathfrak{p}$ (such an $r$ exists by a.). There exist some $i \in[1, r]$ such that $\mathfrak{p}_{i} \subset \mathfrak{p}$, say $i=1$. Hence $\mathfrak{p}=\mathfrak{p}_{1}$, and by the minimal choice of $r$ there exists some $b \in \mathfrak{p}_{2} \ldots \ldots \mathfrak{p}_{r} \backslash a D$. In particular, $a^{-1} b \notin D$ and $b \mathfrak{p} \subset a D$, hence $a^{-1} b \mathfrak{p} \subset D$, and therefore $a^{-1} b \in \mathfrak{p}^{-1} \backslash D$.
(d) $\Rightarrow$ (a) Obvious, since every invertible ideal is finitely generated.

### 2.3. Integer-valued polynomials

Throughout, let $D$ be a domain and $K=\mathrm{q}(D)$.

Definition. The domain

$$
\operatorname{Int}(D)=\{f \in K[X] \mid f(D) \subset D\}
$$

is called the domain of integer-valued polynomials over $D$, and for an ideal $\mathfrak{a} \subset D$, we set

$$
\operatorname{Int}(D, \mathfrak{a})=\{f \in K[X] \mid f(D) \subset \mathfrak{a}\}
$$

Then $D[X] \subset \operatorname{Int}(D) \subset K[X], \operatorname{Int}(D) \cap K=D, \operatorname{Int}(D, \mathfrak{a}) \subset \operatorname{Int}(D)$ is an ideal, and $\operatorname{Int}(D, \mathfrak{a}) \cap K=\mathfrak{a}$.

Theorem 2.3.1. Let $T \subset D^{\bullet}$ be a multiplicatively closed subset.

1. If $f \in K[X]$, then $T^{-1}{ }_{D}\langle f(D)\rangle={ }_{T^{-1} D}\left\langle f\left(T^{-1} D\right)\right\rangle$.
2. $T^{-1} \operatorname{Int}(D) \subset \operatorname{Int}\left(T^{-1} D\right)$, and if $D$ is noetherian, then equality holds.

Proof. 1. If $f \in K[X]$, then obviously $f(D) \subset f\left(T^{-1} D\right) \subset{ }_{T-1 D}\left\langle f\left(T^{-1} D\right\rangle\right.$, and therefore it follows that $T^{-1}{ }_{D}\langle f(D)\rangle \subset{ }_{T^{-1} D}\left\langle f\left(T^{-1} D\right\rangle\right.$. Hence it suffices to prove that $f\left(T^{-1} D\right) \subset T^{-1}{ }_{D}\langle f(D)\rangle$, and we use induction on $n=\operatorname{deg}(f)$. If $f$ is constant, there is nothing to do. Thus suppose that $n>0$ and the assertion holds for all polynomials of smaller degree. Suppose that $a \in D, t \in T$, and consider the polynomial $g=t^{n} f-f(t X) \in K[X]$. Then $\operatorname{deg}(g)<n$, and by the induction hypothesis we get $g\left(T^{-1} D\right) \subset T^{-1}{ }_{D}\langle g(D)\rangle \subset T^{-1}{ }_{D}\langle f(D)\rangle$. Hence it follows that

$$
t^{n} f\left(\frac{a}{t}\right)=g\left(\frac{a}{t}\right)+f(a) \in g\left(T^{-1} D\right)+f(D) \subset T_{D}^{-1}\langle f(D)\rangle, \quad \text { and thus } \quad f\left(\frac{a}{t}\right) \in T^{-1}{ }_{D}\langle f(D)\rangle
$$

2. If $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ and $t \in T$, then $\left(t^{-1} f\right)\left(T^{-1} D\right) \subset{ }_{T^{-1} D}\left\langle f\left(T^{-1} D\right)\right\rangle=T^{-1}{ }_{D}\langle f(D)\rangle \subset T^{-1} D$ by 1., and therefore $t^{-1} f \in \operatorname{Int}\left(T^{-1} D\right)$.

Let now $D$ be noetherian, $f \in \operatorname{Int}\left(T^{-1} D\right)$ and $C \subset K$ the $D$-module generated by the coefficients of $f$. Then ${ }_{D}\langle f(D)\rangle \subset T^{-1} D \cap C$ is a finitely generated submodule of $T^{-1} D$, and therefore there exists some $t \in T$ such that $t f(D) \subset D$, hence $t f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ and $f \in T^{-1} \operatorname{Int}(D)$.

## Theorem 2.3.2.

1. Let $f \in K[X], \operatorname{deg}(f)=n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n} \in D$ such that $f\left(a_{i}\right) \in D$ for all $i \in[0, n]$. If

$$
d=\prod_{0 \leq i<j \leq n}\left(a_{i}-a_{j}\right), \quad \text { then } \quad d f \in D[X]
$$

2. Let $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$ be a prime ideal such that $D / \mathfrak{p}$ is infinite. Then $\operatorname{Int}(D)_{\mathfrak{p}}=\operatorname{Int}\left(D_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)=D_{\mathfrak{p}}[X]$.
3. Let $\Omega \subset \operatorname{spec}(D)$ be a set of prime ideals such that $|D / \mathfrak{p}|=\infty$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in \Omega$.

$$
\text { Then } \quad D=\bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \Omega} D_{\mathfrak{p}} \quad \text { implies } \quad \operatorname{Int}(D)=D[X] \text {. }
$$

Proof. 1. If

$$
f=\sum_{\nu=0}^{n} c_{\nu} X^{\nu}, \quad \text { then } \quad \sum_{\nu=0}^{n} c_{\nu} a_{i}^{\nu}=f\left(a_{i}\right) \quad \text { for all } i \in[0, n], \quad \text { and } \quad d=\operatorname{det}\left(a_{i}^{\nu}\right)_{i, \nu \in[0, n]}
$$

By Cramer's rule, it follows that $d c_{\nu} \in D$ for all $\nu \in[0, n]$, and thus $d f \in D[X]$.
2. It suffices to prove that $\operatorname{Int}(D) \subset D_{\mathfrak{p}}[X]$.

Indeed, then $D[X] \subset \operatorname{Int}(D) \subset D_{\mathfrak{p}}[X]$ implies $D_{\mathfrak{p}}[X]=D[X]_{\mathfrak{p}} \subset \operatorname{Int}(D)_{\mathfrak{p}} \subset D_{\mathfrak{p}}[X]$ and thus $\operatorname{Int}(D)_{\mathfrak{p}}=D_{\mathfrak{p}}[X] \subset \operatorname{Int}\left(D_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)$. Now we replace $(D, \mathfrak{p})$ by $\left(D_{\mathfrak{p}}, \mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)$ and observe that $\left(D_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)_{\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}}=D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ and $D_{\mathfrak{p}} / \mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}=\mathfrak{q}(D / \mathfrak{p})$ is infinite. Hence we get $\operatorname{Int}\left(D_{\mathfrak{p}}\right) \subset D_{\mathfrak{p}}[X]$ and are done.

Thus let $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ and $n=\operatorname{deg}(f) \in \mathbb{N}$. Then there exist $a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n} \in D$ such that $a_{i}-a_{j} \notin \mathfrak{p}$ for all $i, j \in[0, n]$ such that $i \neq j$. Then

$$
d=\prod_{0 \leq i<j \leq n}\left(a_{i}-a_{j}\right) \in D \backslash \mathfrak{p}
$$

$d f \in D[X]$ by $1 .$, and thus $f \in D_{\mathfrak{p}}[X]$.
3. By 2., it follows that

$$
\operatorname{Int}(D) \subset \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \Omega} D_{\mathfrak{p}}[X]=D[X]
$$

Theorem and Definition 2.3.3. An ideal $\mathfrak{a} \subset D$ is called a conductor ideal if $\mathfrak{a}=x D \cap D$ for some $x \in K^{\times}$. By definition, every principal ideal is a conductor ideal.

1. If $x \in K$, then $x D \cap D=D$ if and only if $x \neq 0$ and $x^{-1} \in D$.
2. Let $\mathfrak{a} \subsetneq D$ be an ideal which is maximal among proper conductor ideals. Then $\mathfrak{a}$ is a prime ideal.
3. If $\mathfrak{a} \subsetneq D$ is a conductor ideal such that $D / \mathfrak{a}$ is finite, then $D[X] \subsetneq \operatorname{Int}(D)$.
4. If $D$ is noetherian and $D[X] \subsetneq \operatorname{Int}(D)$, then there exists some $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$ such that $D / \mathfrak{p}$ is finite and $\mathfrak{p}$ is a conductor ideal.
5. Let $D$ be a valuation domain with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$. Then $D[X] \subsetneq \operatorname{Int}(D)$ if and only if $\mathfrak{m}$ is principal and $D / \mathfrak{m}$ is finite.

Proof. 1. If $x \in K$, then $x D \cap D=D$ if and only if $D \subset x D$, and this is equivalent to $x \neq 0$ and $x^{-1} \in x^{-1} D \subset D$.
2. Suppose that $\mathfrak{a}=x D \cap D$ for some $x \in K^{\times}$. Let $a, b \in D^{\bullet}$ be such that $a b \in \mathfrak{a}$ and $a \notin \mathfrak{a}$. Since $\mathfrak{a} \subset x D \subset b^{-1} x D$ and $a \in b^{-1} \mathfrak{a} \subset b^{-1} x D$, it follows that $\mathfrak{a} \subsetneq \mathfrak{a}+a D \subset b^{-1} x D \cap D$. By the maximality of $\mathfrak{a}$, we obtain $b^{-1} x D=D$, hence $x D=b D$, and $b \in x D=\mathfrak{a}$.
3. Let $\mathfrak{a} \subsetneq D$ be a conductor ideal such that $D / \mathfrak{a}$ is finite, and let $x \in K^{\times}$be such that $\mathfrak{a}=x D \cap D$. Let $\left\{u_{1}, \ldots, u_{r}\right\} \subset D$ be a set of representatives for $D / \mathfrak{a}$, and set $f=x^{-1}\left(X-u_{1}\right) \cdot \ldots \cdot\left(X-u_{r}\right) \in K[X]$. Then $f(D) \subset x^{-1} \mathfrak{a} \subset D$, hence $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$, and $\mathfrak{a} \subsetneq D$ implies $x^{-1} \notin D$ and therefore $f \notin D[X]$.
4. Let $D$ be noetherian and $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D) \backslash D[X]$. Then $f$ has a coefficient $x \in K \backslash D$, and the conductor ideal $x^{-1} D \cap D$ is contained in a maximal conductor ideal $\mathfrak{p}$ which is a prime ideal ideal by 2 . We assert that $D / \mathfrak{p}$ is finite. Assume the contrary. Then $\operatorname{Int}(D) \subset D_{\mathfrak{p}}[X]$ by Theorem 2.3.2.2, and therefore there exists some $t \in D \backslash \mathfrak{p}$ such that $t f \in D[X]$. In particular, it follows that $t x \in D$ and $t \in x^{-1} D \cap D=\mathfrak{p}$, a contradiction.
5. If $\mathfrak{m}$ is principal and $D / \mathfrak{m}$ is finite, then $D[X] \subsetneq \operatorname{Int}(D)$ by 3. If $|D / \mathfrak{m}|=\infty$, then Theorem 2.3.2.2 implies $\operatorname{Int}(D) \subset D_{\mathfrak{m}}[X]=D[X]$. Thus suppose that $\mathfrak{m}$ is not principal, and yet there is some $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D) \backslash D[X]$. Let $v: K \rightarrow \Gamma \cup\{\infty\}$ be the valuation defining $D, E$ the set of all coefficients of $f$ and $\min \{v(c) \mid c \in E\}=-\gamma$, where $\gamma \in \Gamma_{>0}$. Since $\mathfrak{m}$ is not principal, $\Gamma_{>0}$ has no smallest element, and thus there exist $a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n} \in \mathfrak{m}$ such that $v\left(a_{0}\right), \ldots, v\left(a_{n}\right)$ are distinct, and $\binom{n}{2} v\left(a_{i}\right)<\gamma$ for all $i \in[0, n]$.

$$
\text { If } d=\prod_{1 \leq i<j \leq n}\left(a_{j}-a_{i}\right), \quad \text { then } \quad d f \in D[X] \quad \text { by Theorem 2.3.2.1, }
$$

hence $v(c d)=v(c)+v(d) \geq 0$ for all $c \in E$, and therefore $v(d) \geq \gamma$. On the other hand,

$$
v(d)=\sum_{1 \leq i<j \leq n} v\left(a_{j}-a_{i}\right)=\sum_{1 \leq i<j \leq n} \min \left\{v\left(a_{j}\right), v\left(a_{i}\right)\right\}<\gamma, \quad \text { a contradiction. }
$$

Theorem 2.3.4. Let $\mathfrak{P} \in \operatorname{spec}(\operatorname{Int}(D))$ be such that $\mathfrak{P} \cap D=\mathfrak{m} \in \max (D)$ is principal and $D / \mathfrak{m}$ is finite. Then $\mathfrak{P} \in \max (\operatorname{Int}(D))$, $\operatorname{Int}(D, \mathfrak{m}) \subset \mathfrak{P}$, and the inclusion $D \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Int}(D)$ induces an isomorphism $D / \mathfrak{m} \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Int}(D) / \mathfrak{P} \quad$ (we identify).

Proof. Let $\mathfrak{m}=t D$ and $\left\{u_{1}, \ldots, u_{r}\right\}$ be a set of representatives of $D / \mathfrak{m}$. If $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D, \mathfrak{m})$, then $f(D) \subset t D$, hence $f \in t \operatorname{Int}(D)=\mathfrak{m} \operatorname{Int}(D) \subset \mathfrak{P}$, and thus $\operatorname{Int}(D, \mathfrak{m}) \subset \mathfrak{P}$. For every $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$, we have

$$
\prod_{i=1}^{r}\left(f-u_{i}\right) \in \operatorname{Int}(D, \mathfrak{m}) \subset \mathfrak{P}
$$

hence $f-u_{i} \in \mathfrak{P}$ for some $i \in[1, r]$, and therefore $\operatorname{Int}(D) / \mathfrak{P}=\left\{u_{1}+\mathfrak{P}, \ldots, u_{r}+\mathfrak{P}\right\}$.

Remarks (Topology of discrete valuation domains). Let $D$ be a dv-domain, $v: K \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \cup\{\infty\}$ the defining valuation of $K$ and $t \in K$ such that $v(t)=1$.

1. $D=\{x \in K \mid v(x) \geq 0\}$, and $\mathfrak{m}=t D=\{x \in K \mid v(x)>0\}$ is the unique maximal ideal of $D$. Every $z \in K^{\times}$has a unique representation $z=t^{k} u$, where $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $u \in D^{\times}$(in fact, $k=v(z)$ ). In particular, $D$ is factorial, and (up to associates) $t$ is the unique prime element of $D$.
2. Fix some $\rho \in(0,1)$, and let $|\cdot|=|\cdot|_{v, \rho}: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ the absolute value with basis $\rho$ associated with $v$, defined by $|a|=\rho^{v(a)}$ for all $a \in K$ (where $\rho^{\infty}=0$ ). Then $|K|=\langle\rho\rangle \cup\{0\}$, and the map $d: K \times K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, defined by $d(x, y)=|x-y|=\rho^{v(x-y)}$, is a metric. The topology induced on $K$ by $d$ is called the $v$-topology. If $a \in K$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
a+\mathfrak{m}^{n}=a+t^{n} D & =\{x \in K \mid v(x-a) \geq n\}=\left\{x \in K \mid d(x, a) \leq \rho^{n}\right\} \\
& =\{x \in K \mid v(x-a)>n-1\}=\left\{x \in K \mid d(x, a)<\rho^{n-1}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $\left\{a+\mathfrak{m}^{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ is a fundamental system of neighborhoods of $a$, and the $v$-topolgy does not depend on $\rho$. Since $||x|-|y|| \leq|x-y|$ for all $x, y \in K$, then map $|\cdot|: K \rightarrow\langle\rho\rangle \cup\{0\} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is uniformly continuous, and therefore the sets $a+\mathfrak{m}^{n}$ for $a \in K$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$ are clopen.
We endow $\mathbb{Z} \cup\{\infty\}$ with the topology induced by the extended real line $\overline{\mathbb{R}}=\mathbb{R} \cup\{-\infty, \infty\}$. Then $\{a\}$ is open for every $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, and the sets $N_{n}=\{g \in \mathbb{N} \mid g \geq n\}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ are a fundamental system of neighborhoods of $\infty$. The map $\theta: \mathbb{Z} \cup\{\infty\} \rightarrow\langle\rho\rangle \cup\{\infty\}$ is a homeomorphism, and therefore $v=\theta^{-1} \circ|\cdot|: K \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \cup\{\infty\}$ is continuous.
Let $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ be a sequence in $K$ and $x \in K$. Then $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0} \rightarrow x$ if and only if $\left(\left|x_{n}-x\right|\right)_{n \geq 0} \rightarrow 0$ if and only if $\left(v\left(x_{n}-x\right)\right)_{n \geq 0} \rightarrow \infty$, and then either $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0} \rightarrow 0$ and $v\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0} \rightarrow \infty$, or $v\left(x_{n}\right)=v(x)$ for all $n \gg 1$. If $x, y \in K$ and $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0},\left(y_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ are sequences in $K$ such that $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0} \rightarrow x$ and $\left(y_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0} \rightarrow y$, then $\left(x_{n}+y_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0} \rightarrow x+y,\left(x_{n} y_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0} \rightarrow x y$, and if $x \neq 0$, then $x_{n} \neq 0$ for all $n \gg 1$, and $\left(x_{n}^{-1}\right)_{n \gg 1} \rightarrow x^{-1}$. Hence $K$ is a topological field under the $v$-topology.
For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there is an isomorphism $D / \mathfrak{m} \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathfrak{m}^{n} / \mathfrak{m}^{n+1}$, given by $u+\mathfrak{m} \mapsto t^{n} u+\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}$. By induction on $n$, we obtain $\left|D / \mathfrak{m}^{n}\right|=|D / \mathfrak{m}|^{n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
3. A sequence $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ in $K$ is a Cauchy sequence if and only if $\left(v\left(a_{n+1}-a_{n}\right)\right)_{n \geq 0} \rightarrow 0$. Indeed, if $m>n \geq 0$, then

$$
v\left(a_{m}-a_{n}\right)=v\left(\sum_{j=n}^{m-1}\left(a_{j+1}-a_{j}\right)\right) \geq \min \left\{v\left(a_{j+1}-a_{j}\right) \mid j \in[n, m-1]\right\} \rightarrow \infty
$$

Every convergent sequence is a Cauchy sequence, and $K$ is called complete if every Cauchy sequence in $K$ converges. If $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is a Cauchy sequence, then either $\left(v\left(a_{n}\right)\right)_{n \geq 0} \rightarrow \infty$ or $\left(v\left(a_{n}\right)\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is ultimately constant, and in any case there exists some $c \in D^{\bullet}$ such that $c a_{n} \in D$ for all $n \geq 0$. Then $\left(c a_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is also a Cauchy sequence, and $\left(c a_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ converges if and only if $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ converges. Hence $K$ is complete if and only if every Cauchy sequence in $D$ converges, and then we call $D$ a complete dv-domain.
4. Let $K$ be complete and $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is a sequence in $K$. Then

$$
\sum_{n \geq 0} a_{n} \quad \text { converges if and only if } \quad\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0} \rightarrow 0
$$

Let $R$ be a set of representatives for $D / \mathfrak{m}=D / t D$. Then every $a \in D$ has a unique representation

$$
a=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} t^{n}, \quad \text { where } \quad a_{n} \in R \text { for all } n \geq 0
$$

If $R$ is equipped with the discrete topology, then the map

$$
\Theta: R^{\mathbb{N}_{0}} \rightarrow D, \quad \text { defined by } \quad \Theta\left(\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}\right)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} t^{n}
$$

is a homeomorphism. In particular, if $D / \mathfrak{m}$ if finite, then $D$ is compact by Tychonoff's Theorem.
5. A field $\widehat{K}$ with a discrete valuation $\widehat{v}: \widehat{K} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \cup\{\infty\}$ is called a completion of $K$ if $\widehat{K}$ is complete, $K \subset \widehat{K}$ is a dense subfield and $\widehat{v} \mid K=v$. Then $\widehat{D}=\{x \in \widehat{K} \mid \widehat{v}(x) \geq 0\}$ is a complete dv-domain, $\widehat{D}$ is the (topological) closure of $D$ in $\widehat{K}$, and if $t \in D$ is such that $v(t)=1$, then $\widehat{\mathfrak{m}}=t \widehat{D}$ is the maximal ideal of $\widehat{D}$. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}, \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}^{n}=t^{n} \widehat{D}=\{x \in \widehat{D} \mid \widehat{v}(x) \geq n\}$ is the (topological) closure of $\mathfrak{m}^{n}, \mathfrak{m}^{n}=\widehat{\mathfrak{m}}^{n} \cap D$, and the inclusion $D \hookrightarrow \widehat{D}$ induces an isomorphism $D / \mathfrak{m}^{n} \xrightarrow{\sim} \widehat{D} / \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}^{n}$ (we identify these residue class rings). We call $\widehat{D}$ a completion of $D$.
Every discrete valued field has a completion which is unique up to a unique isomorphism. Explicitly, if $(\widehat{K}, \widehat{v})$ and $\widetilde{K}, \widetilde{v})$ are completions of $(K, v)$, then there is a unique isomorphism $\Phi: \widehat{K} \rightarrow \widetilde{K}$ such that $\Phi \mid K=\operatorname{id}_{K}$ and $\widetilde{v} \circ \Phi=\widehat{v}$.

Definitions and Remarks. Let $D$ be a dv-domain with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}=t D,|D / \mathfrak{m}|=q \in \mathbb{N}$ and $v: K \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \cup\{\infty\}$ the defining valuation. For $g \in \mathbb{Z}$, we define $\operatorname{ord}_{q}(g)=\left\{\sup \left\{n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}\left|q^{n}\right| g\right\} \in \mathbb{N}_{0} \cup\{\infty\}\right.$.

1. A sequence $\left(u_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ in $D$ is called well distributed if $v\left(u_{m}-u_{n}\right)=\operatorname{ord}_{q}(m-n)$ for all $m, n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$. If $\left(u_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is well distributed and $k \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$, then $\left(u_{k+n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is also well distributed, and, for every $r \in \mathbb{N}$, the set $\left\{u_{i} \mid i \in\left[k, k+q^{r}-1\right]\right\} \subset D$ is a set of representatives for $D / \mathfrak{m}^{r}$.
Proof. Let $k \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$ and $r \in \mathbb{N}$. By the very definition, $\left(u_{k+n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is well distributed. If $i, j \in\left[k, k+q^{r}-1\right]$ and $i \neq j$, then $0<|i-j|<q^{r}$, hence $\operatorname{ord}_{q}(i-j)<r$ and therefore $v\left(u_{i}-u_{j}\right)<r$, which implies $u_{i} \not \equiv u_{j} \bmod \mathfrak{m}^{r}$. Since $\left|\left[k, k+q^{r}-1\right]\right|=q^{r}=\left|D / \mathfrak{m}^{r}\right|$, it follows that $\left\{u_{i} \mid i \in\left[k, k+q^{r}-1\right]\right\} \subset D$ is a set of representatives for $D / \mathfrak{m}^{r}$.
2. Let $\left\{u_{0}, \ldots, u_{q-1}\right\} \subset D$ be a set of representatives for $D / \mathfrak{m}$. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let

$$
n=\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} n_{i} q^{i}, \quad \text { where } \quad n_{i} \in[0, q-1] \quad \text { for all } i \geq 0, \text { and } n_{i}=0 \text { for almost all } i \geq 0
$$

be the $q$-adic digit expansion, and set

$$
u_{n}=\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} u_{n_{i}} t^{i}
$$

If $n_{i}=0$ for all $i \geq l$, then

$$
\sum_{i \geq 0} u_{n_{i}} t^{i}=\sum_{i=0}^{l-1} u_{n_{i}} t^{i}+\frac{u_{0} t^{l}}{t-1} \in D
$$

The sequence $\left(u_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is well distributed.
Proof. Let $m, n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$. We must prove that $v\left(u_{m}-u_{n}\right)=\operatorname{ord}_{q}(m-n)$, and we may assume that $m \neq n$. Then

$$
m-n=\sum_{i=0}^{\infty}\left(m_{i}-n_{i}\right) q^{i} \quad \text { and } \quad u_{m}-u_{n}=\sum_{i=0}^{\infty}\left(m_{i}-n_{i}\right) t^{i}
$$

If $k=\min \left\{i \in \mathbb{N}_{0} \mid m_{i} \neq n_{i}\right\}$, then $m_{i}-n_{i} \not \equiv \bmod q$, and $v\left(u_{m}-u_{n}\right)=k=\operatorname{ord}_{q}(m-n)$.
3. For $n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$, we define

$$
\mathrm{w}_{q}(n)=\sum_{l=1}^{n} \operatorname{ord}_{q}(n), \quad \text { and we assert that } \quad \mathbf{w}_{q}(n)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left\lfloor\frac{n}{q^{k}}\right\rfloor .
$$

(note that $\mathrm{w}_{q}(n)=\mathrm{v}_{q}(n!)$ if $\left.q \in \mathbb{P}\right)$. For all $m, n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$, we have $\mathrm{w}_{q}(m+n) \geq \mathrm{w}_{q}(m)+\mathrm{w}_{q}(n)$. Proof. For $n=0$, there is nothing to do. Suppose that $n \in \mathbb{N}$. For $k \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$,

$$
\left\lfloor\frac{n}{q^{k}}\right\rfloor \text { is the number of integers } l \in[1, n] \text { such that } q^{k} \mid l,
$$

and therefore

$$
\left\lfloor\frac{n}{q^{k}}\right\rfloor-\left\lfloor\frac{n}{q^{k+1}}\right\rfloor=\left|\left\{l \in[1, n] \mid \operatorname{ord}_{q}(l)=k\right\}\right| .
$$

Hence we obtain

$$
\sum_{l=0}^{n} \operatorname{ord}_{q}(l)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{q^{k}}\right\rfloor-\left\lfloor\frac{n}{q^{k+1}}\right\rfloor\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k\left\lfloor\frac{n}{q^{k}}\right\rfloor-\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(k-1)\left\lfloor\frac{n}{q^{k}}\right\rfloor=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left\lfloor\frac{n}{q^{k}}\right\rfloor .
$$

For $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $\lfloor x+y\rfloor \geq\lfloor x\rfloor+\lfloor y\rfloor$. If $m, n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$, then

$$
\mathrm{w}_{q}(m+n)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{m+n}{q^{k}}\right\rfloor \geq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left\lfloor\frac{m}{q^{k}}\right\rfloor+\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left\lfloor\frac{n}{q^{k}}\right\rfloor=\mathrm{w}_{q}(m)+\mathrm{w}_{q}(n) .\right.
$$

Theorem and Definition 2.3.5. Let $D$ be a dv-domain with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m},|D / \mathfrak{m}|=q<\infty$, and let $\left(u_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ be a well distributed sequence in $D$. For $n \geq 0$, define

$$
g_{n}=\prod_{i=0}^{n-1}\left(X-u_{i}\right) \in D[X] \quad \text { and } \quad f_{n}=\frac{g_{n}}{g_{n}\left(u_{n}\right)}=\prod_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{X-u_{i}}{u_{n}-u_{i}} \in K[X] \quad\left(f_{0}=1\right) .
$$

1. For all $x \in D$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $v\left(g_{n}(x)\right) \geq v\left(g_{n}\left(u_{n}\right)\right)=\operatorname{ord}_{q}(n!)$.
2. $\operatorname{Int}(D)$ is a free $D$-module with basis $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$.
$\left(f_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is called the regular basis associated with the well distributed sequence $\left(u_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$.
3. Let $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D), \operatorname{deg}(f)<q^{h}$ for some $h \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a, b \in D$. Then $v(f(a)-f(b)) \geq v(a-b)-h+1$. In particular, $f$ is uniformly continuous on $D$.
Proof. 1. Let $x \in D, n \in \mathbb{N}$, and assume first that $x \notin\left\{u_{0}, \ldots, u_{n-1}\right\}$. Then $g_{n}(x) \neq 0$, we set $v\left(g_{n}(x)\right)=s \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$ and let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $u_{m} \equiv x \bmod \mathfrak{m}^{s+1}$. Then $g_{n}\left(u_{m}\right)-g_{n}(x)=\left(u_{m}-x\right) h(x)$ for some $h \in D[X]$, which implies $v\left(g_{n}\left(u_{m}\right)-g_{n}(x)\right) \geq v\left(u_{m}-x\right)>s=v\left(g_{n}(x)\right)$, hence $v\left(g_{n}\left(u_{m}\right)\right)=s$ and thus $m \geq n$. Now we calculate

$$
\begin{aligned}
v\left(g_{n}(x)\right)=v\left(g_{n}\left(u_{m}\right)\right) & =\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} v\left(u_{m}-u_{k}\right)=\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \operatorname{ord}_{q}(m-k) \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{m} \operatorname{ord}_{q}(k)-\sum_{k=0}^{m-n} \operatorname{ord}_{q}(k)=\mathrm{w}_{q}(m)-\mathrm{w}_{q}(m-n) \geq \mathrm{w}_{q}(n)
\end{aligned}
$$

with equality if $m=n$. In particular, it follows that $v\left(g_{n}(x)\right) \geq v\left(g_{n}\left(u_{n}\right)\right)=\mathrm{w}_{q}(n)$, and obviously this also holds for $x \in\left\{u_{0}, \ldots, u_{n-1}\right\}$ since then $g_{n}(x)=0$.
2. By 1. we obtain $v\left(f_{n}(x)\right)=v\left(g_{n}(x)\right)-v\left(g_{n}\left(u_{n}\right)\right) \geq 0$ for all $x \in D$, hence $f_{n}(D) \subset D$ and thus $f_{n} \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$. Since $\operatorname{deg}\left(f_{n}\right)=n$, it follows that $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is a $K$-basis of $K[X]$. If $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$, then

$$
f=\sum_{n \geq 0} c_{n} f_{n}, \quad \text { where } \quad c_{n} \in K \text { for all } n \geq 0, \text { and } c_{n}=0 \text { for almost all } n \geq 0,
$$

and prove by induction on $n$ that $c_{n} \in D$ for all $n \geq 0$. Thus suppose that $n \geq 0$ and $c_{i} \in D$ for all $i \in[0, n-1]$. Then

$$
g=f-\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_{i} f_{i}=\sum_{i=n}^{\infty} c_{i} f_{i} \in \operatorname{Int}(D), \quad \text { and } \quad g\left(u_{n}\right)=c_{n} f_{n}\left(u_{n}\right)=c_{n} \in D
$$

3. We assume that $u_{0}=0$, and we set $g=f(b+X)-f(b)$ and $d=a-b$. Then $g \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$, $\operatorname{deg}(g)=\operatorname{deg}(f)<q^{h}$ and $f(a)-f(b)=g(d)$. Hence we must prove that $v(g(d)) \geq v(d)-h+1$. By 2.,

$$
g=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_{n} f_{n}, \quad \text { where } \quad c_{n} \in D \text { for all } n \geq 0, \text { and } c_{n}=0 \text { for all } n \geq q^{h}
$$

Then $c_{0}=g\left(u_{0}\right)=g(0)=0$, and therefore $v(g(d)) \geq \min \left\{v\left(f_{n}(d)\right) \mid n \in\left[1, q^{h}-1\right]\right\}$. Hence it suffices to prove that $v\left(f_{n}(d)\right) \geq v(d)-h+1$ for all $n \in\left[1, q^{h}-1\right]$. If $n \in\left[1, q^{h}-1\right]$, then

$$
f_{n}(d)=\prod_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{d-u_{i}}{u_{n}-u_{i}}=\frac{d}{u_{n}} \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{d-u_{i}}{u_{n}-u_{i}}
$$

Since $\left(u_{i+1}\right)_{i \geq 0}$ is a well distributed sequence, it follows by 1 . that

$$
\tilde{f}_{n}=\prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{X-u_{i}}{u_{n}-u_{i}} \in \operatorname{Int}(D), \quad \text { and therefore } \quad v\left(f_{n}(d)\right)=v(d)-v\left(u_{n}\right)+v\left(\tilde{f}_{n}(d)\right) \geq v(d)-v\left(u_{n}\right)
$$

Since $v\left(u_{n}\right)=v\left(u_{n}-u_{0}\right)=\operatorname{ord}_{q}(n) \leq h-1$, the assertion follows.

Theorem 2.3.6 (Stone-Weierstrass Theorem for integer-valued polynomials). Let $D$ be a dv-domain with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}=t D$ and $|D / \mathfrak{m}|=q<\infty$. Let $\widehat{D}$ be a completion of $D$, $\widehat{\mathfrak{m}}=t \widehat{D}$ its maximal ideal and $\widehat{v}$ the defining valuation of $\widehat{D}$. Let $\varphi: \widehat{D} \rightarrow \widehat{D}$ a continuous function and $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then there exists some $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ such that $v(\varphi(x)-f(x)) \geq k$ for all $x \in \widehat{D}$.

Proof. We first prove the following two assertions.
A. There exists some $h \in \mathbb{N}$ with the following property: If $N=q^{h}-1,\left\{u_{0}, \ldots, u_{N}\right\} \subset D$ is a set of representatives for $D / \mathfrak{m}^{h}=\widehat{D} / \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}^{h}$, and $\widehat{U}_{i}=u_{i}+\widehat{\mathfrak{m}}^{h}$ for all $i \in[0, N]$, then there exist $c_{0}, \ldots, c_{N} \in D$ such that

$$
\left(\varphi-\sum_{i=0}^{N} c_{i} \mathbf{1}_{\widehat{U}_{i}}\right)(x) \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}} \quad \text { for all } x \in \widehat{D}
$$

B. Let $h \in \mathbb{N}, N=q^{h}-1, u \in D$ and $\widehat{U}=u+\widehat{\mathfrak{m}}^{h}$. Then there exists some $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ such that

$$
\left(\mathbf{1}_{\widehat{U}}-f\right)(x) \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}} \quad \text { for all } x \in \widehat{D}
$$

Proof of A. Since $\widehat{D}$ is compact, it follows that $\varphi$ is uniformly continuous, and therefore there exists some $h \in \mathbb{N}$ such that, for all $x, y \in \widehat{D}, \widehat{v}(x-y) \geq h$ implies $\varphi(x)-\varphi(y) \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$. Set now $N=q^{h}-1$, and let $\left\{u_{0}, \ldots, u_{N}\right\} \subset D$ be a set of representatives for $D / \mathfrak{m}^{h}=\widehat{D} / \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}^{h}$. For $i \in[0, N]$, set $\widehat{U}_{i}=u_{i}+\widehat{\mathfrak{m}}^{h}$, and let $c_{i} \in D$ be such that $\varphi\left(u_{i}\right)-c_{i} \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$. If $x \in \widehat{U}_{i}$, then $x-u_{i} \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}^{h}$, hence $\varphi(x)-\varphi\left(u_{i}\right) \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$, and therefore $\varphi(x)-c_{i}=\varphi(x)-\varphi\left(u_{i}\right)+\varphi\left(u_{i}\right)-c_{i} \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$. Since

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{D}=\biguplus_{i=0}^{N} \widehat{U}_{i}, \quad \text { it follows that } \quad\left(\varphi-\sum_{i=0}^{N} c_{i} \mathbf{1}_{\widehat{U}_{i}}\right)(x) \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}} \quad \text { for all } x \in \widehat{D} \tag{A}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof of B. Let $v=\widehat{v} \mid D,\left(u_{i}\right)_{i \geq 0}$ a well distributed sequence in $D$ and $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ the associated regular basis. For $i \in[0, N]$, set $U_{i}=u_{i}+\mathfrak{m}^{h}$. Then

$$
D=\biguplus_{i=0}^{N} U_{i}, \quad \text { and therefore } \quad f_{n}=\sum_{i=0}^{N} f_{n} \mathbf{1}_{U_{i}} \quad \text { for all } n \geq 0
$$

Assume not that $n \in[0, N]$. Then $\operatorname{deg}\left(f_{n}\right)<q^{h}$, and therefore $v\left(f_{n}(x)-f_{n}(y)\right) \geq v(x-y)-h+1$ for all $x, y \in D$. In particular, if $i \in[0, N]$ and $x \in U_{i}$, then $v\left(x-u_{i}\right) \geq h$, and therefore $f_{n}(x)-f_{n}\left(u_{i}\right) \in \mathfrak{m}$. It follows that the function

$$
\psi_{n}=f_{n}-\sum_{i=0}^{N} f_{n}\left(u_{i}\right) \mathbf{1}_{U_{i}}: D \rightarrow D \quad \text { satisfies } \quad \psi_{n}(x) \in \mathfrak{m} \quad \text { for all } x \in D
$$

We gather these equations for $n \in[0, N]$ into a matrix equation

$$
\left(f_{0}, \ldots f_{N}\right)=\left(\mathbf{1}_{U_{0}}, \ldots, \mathbf{1}_{U_{N}}\right) T+\left(\psi_{0}, \ldots, \psi_{N}\right), \quad \text { where } \quad T=\left(f_{n}\left(u_{i}\right)\right)_{n, i \in[0, N]} \in \mathrm{M}_{N+1}(D)
$$

Since $f_{n}\left(u_{i}\right)=0$ if $i<n$ and $f_{n}\left(u_{n}\right)=1$, it follows that $T \in \mathrm{GL}_{n}(D)$, and we obtain

$$
\left(\mathbf{1}_{U_{0}}, \ldots, \mathbf{1}_{U_{N}}\right)=\left(f_{0}, \ldots, f_{N}\right) T^{-1}+\left(\widetilde{\psi}_{0}, \ldots, \widetilde{\psi}_{N}\right), \quad \text { where } \quad\left(\widetilde{\psi}_{0}, \ldots, \widetilde{\psi}_{N}^{\prime}\right)=-\left(\psi_{0}, \ldots, \psi_{N}\right) T^{-1}
$$

and $\widetilde{\psi}_{i}: D \rightarrow D$ satisfy $\widetilde{\psi}_{i}(D) \subset \mathfrak{m}$ for all $i \in[0, N]$. In particular, for every $i \in[0, N]$ we obtain $\mathbf{1}_{U_{i}}=g_{i}+\widetilde{\psi}_{i}$ for some $g_{i} \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$.

After these preparations, we can do the proof of $\mathbf{B}$. If $U=u+\mathfrak{m}^{h}$, then there is some $i \in[0, N]$ such that $U=U_{i}$. Then $\widehat{U}=u+\widehat{\mathfrak{m}}^{h}$ is the (topological) closure of $U, U=\widehat{U} \cap D$, and there exists some $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ such that $\left(\mathbf{1}_{U}-f\right)(x)=\left(\mathbf{1}_{\widehat{U}}-f\right)(x) \in \mathfrak{m}$ for all $x \in D$. Since $\widehat{U} \subset \widehat{D}$ is clopen, its characteristic function $\mathbf{1}_{\widehat{U}}$ is continuous. Hence $\mathbf{1}_{\widehat{U}}-f: \widehat{D} \rightarrow \widehat{D}$ is continuous, and $\left(\mathbf{1}_{\widehat{U}}-f\right)(D) \subset \mathfrak{m}$ implies $\left(\mathbf{1}_{\widehat{U}}-f\right)(\widehat{D}) \subset \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$.

Now we prove the Theorem by induction on $k$. We must prove that, for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists some $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ such that $\varphi-f=t^{k} \psi$ for some continuos function $\psi: \widehat{D} \rightarrow \widehat{D}$.
$k=1:$ By $\mathbf{A}$, there exist $h, N \in \mathbb{N}, c_{0}, \ldots, c_{N} \in D$ and $u_{0}, \ldots, u_{N} \in D$ such that, if $\widehat{U}_{i}=u_{i}+\widehat{\mathfrak{m}}^{h}$ for all $i \in[0, N]$, then

$$
\left(\varphi-\sum_{i=0}^{N} c_{i} \mathbf{1}_{\widehat{U}_{i}}\right)(x) \in \mathfrak{m} \quad \text { for all } x \in \widehat{D}
$$

For every $i \in[0, N], \mathbf{B}$ implies that there exists some $g_{i} \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ such that $\left(\mathbf{1}_{\widehat{U}_{i}}-g_{i}\right)(x) \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$ for all $x \in \widehat{D}$. Then
$f=\sum_{i=0}^{N} c_{i} g_{i} \in \operatorname{Int}(D), \quad$ and $(\varphi-f)(x)=\left(\varphi-\sum_{i=0}^{N} c_{i} \mathbf{1}_{\widehat{U}_{i}}\right)(x)+\left(\sum_{i=0}^{N} c_{i}\left(\mathbf{1}_{\widehat{U}_{i}}-g_{i}\right)(x) \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}} \quad\right.$ for all $x \in \widehat{D}$, and therefore $\varphi-f=t \psi$ for some continuous function $\psi: \widehat{D} \rightarrow \widehat{D}$.
$k \geq 1, k \rightarrow k+1$ : Let $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ be such that $\varphi-f=t^{k} \psi$ for some continuous function $\psi: \widehat{D} \rightarrow \widehat{D}$. Let $f_{1} \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ be such that $\psi-f_{1}=t \psi_{1}$ for some continuous function $\psi_{1}: \widehat{D} \rightarrow \widehat{D}$. Then $f+t^{k} f_{1} \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$, and $\varphi-\left(f+t^{k} f_{1}\right)=t^{k}\left(\psi-f_{1}\right)=t^{k+1} \psi_{1}$.

Corollary. Let $D$ be a dv-domain with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ such that $D / \mathfrak{m}$ is finite. Let $\widehat{D}$ be a completion of $D$ and $\widehat{v}$ the defining valuation of $\widehat{D}$. Let $r \in \mathbb{N}, n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r} \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $U_{1}, \ldots, U_{r} \subset \widehat{D}$ disjoint clopen subsets such that

$$
\widehat{D}=\biguplus_{i=1}^{r} U_{i}
$$

Then there exists some $f \in K[X]$ such that $\widehat{v}(f(x))=n_{i}$ for all $i \in[1, r]$ and $x \in U_{i}$, and even $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ provided that $n_{i} \geq 0$ for all $i \in[1, r]$.

Proof. Let $t \in D$ be such that $\widehat{v}(t)=1$, and assume first that $n_{i} \geq 0$ for all $i \in[1, r]$. Let $\varphi: \widehat{D} \rightarrow \widehat{D}$ be the locally constant function defined by $\varphi(x)=t^{n_{i}}$ if $i \in[1, r]$ and $x \in U_{i}$. Then $\varphi$ is continuous. Suppose that $n \in \mathbb{N}, n>\max \left\{n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}\right\}$, and let $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ such that $\widehat{v}(f(x)-\varphi(x))>n$ for all $x \in \widehat{D}$. Then it follows that $\widehat{v}(f(x))=n_{i}$ for all $i \in[1, r]$ and $x \in U_{i}$.

If $n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r} \in \mathbb{Z}$ are arbitrary, let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $m+n_{i} \geq 0$ for all $i \in[1, r]$, and let $f_{1} \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ be such that $\widehat{v}\left(f_{1}(x)\right)=m+n_{i}$ for all $i \in[1, r]$ and $x \in U_{i}$. Then $f=t^{-m} f_{1} \in K[X]$ fulfills our requirements.

Theorem 2.3.7. Let $D$ be a dv-domain with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ such that $D / \mathfrak{m}$ is finite. Let $\widehat{D}$ be a completion of $D$ and $\widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$ the maximal ideal of $\widehat{D}$.

1. For $\alpha \in \widehat{D}$, let $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}=\{f \in \operatorname{Int}(D) \mid f(\alpha) \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}\}$. Then $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \in \max (\operatorname{Int}(D))$ is not finitely generated, $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \cap D=\mathfrak{m}, \operatorname{Int}(D, \mathfrak{m}) \subset \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}, \operatorname{Int}(D) / \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}=D / \mathfrak{m}$, and the map

$$
\widehat{D} \rightarrow\{\mathfrak{P} \in \operatorname{spec}(\operatorname{Int}(D)) \mid \mathfrak{P} \cap D=\mathfrak{m}\}, \quad \alpha \mapsto \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}
$$

is bijective.
2. For an irreducible monic polynomial $g \in K[X]$, let $\mathfrak{P}_{g}=g K[X] \cap \operatorname{Int}(D)$. Then the map
$\Theta:\{g \in K[X] \mid g$ monic and irreducible $\} \rightarrow\{\mathfrak{P} \in \operatorname{spec}(\operatorname{Int}(D)) \mid \mathfrak{P} \neq \mathbf{0}, \mathfrak{P} \cap D=\mathbf{0}\}$,
defined by $\Theta(g)=\mathfrak{P}_{g}$, is bijective. If $g \in K[X]$ is monic and irreducible and $\alpha \in \widehat{D}$, then $\mathfrak{P}_{g} \subset \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$ if and only if $g(\alpha)=0$.
Proof. 1. Let $q=|D / \mathfrak{m}|$ and $\widehat{v}$ be the defining valuation of $\widehat{D}$. By definition, $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \in \operatorname{spec}(\operatorname{Int}(D))$, and $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \cap D=\mathfrak{m}$ is principal. By Theorem 2.3.4 we obtain $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \in \max (\operatorname{Int}(D))$, $\operatorname{Int}(D, \mathfrak{m}) \subset \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$ and $\operatorname{Int}(D) / \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}=D / \mathfrak{m}$.

If $\alpha, \beta \in \widehat{D}$ and $\alpha \neq \beta$, then there exists a continuous function $\varphi: \widehat{D} \rightarrow \widehat{D}$ such that $\varphi(\alpha)=0$ and $\varphi(\beta)=1$. Let $f \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ be such that $\widehat{v}(f(x)-\varphi(x)) \geq 1$ for all $x \in \widehat{D}$. Then $f(\alpha) \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$ and $f(\beta) \in 1+\widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$, hence $f \in \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \backslash \mathfrak{M}_{\beta}$, and thus $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \neq \mathfrak{M}_{\beta}$.

Assume now that, contrary to our assertion, there exists some $\mathfrak{P} \in \operatorname{spec}(\operatorname{Int}(D))$ such that $\mathfrak{P} \cap D=\mathfrak{m}$, hence $\operatorname{Int}(D, \mathfrak{m}) \subset \mathfrak{P}$ by Theorem 2.3.4, and $\mathfrak{P} \neq \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$ for all $\alpha \in \widehat{D}$. Consequently, for all $\alpha \in \widehat{D}$, there exists some function $f_{\alpha} \in \mathfrak{P}$ such that $f_{\alpha}(\alpha) \notin \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$. Since $\widehat{D} \backslash \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$ is open, there exists a clopen neighborhood $U_{\alpha}$ of $\alpha$ in $\widehat{D}$ such that $f_{\alpha}(x) \notin \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$ for all $x \in U_{\alpha}$. Since $\widehat{D}$ is compact, the open covering $\left(U_{\alpha}\right)_{\alpha \in \widehat{D}}$ has a finite subcovering. Hence there exist open subsets $U_{1}, \ldots, U_{m} \subset \widehat{D}$ and polynomials $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{m} \in \mathfrak{P}$ such that $\widehat{D}=U_{1} \cup \ldots \cup U_{m}$ and $f_{j}(x) \notin \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$ for all $j \in[1, m]$ and $x \in U_{j}$. For $j \in[1, m]$, we set $g_{j}=f_{j}^{q-1}$. Then $g_{j} \in \mathfrak{P}, g_{j}(x) \equiv 0$ or $1 \bmod \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$ for all $x \in \widehat{D}$, and $g_{j}(x) \equiv 1 \bmod \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$ for all $x \in U_{j}$. Now we obtain

$$
g=1-\prod_{j=1}^{m}\left(1-g_{j}\right) \in \mathfrak{P}, \quad \text { and } \quad g(x)-1 \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}} \quad \text { for all } x \in \widehat{D}
$$

Hence it follows that $g-1 \in \operatorname{Int}(D, \mathfrak{m}) \subset \mathfrak{P}$, a contradiction.
It remains to prove that the ideals $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$ are not finitely generated. Indeed, assume to the contrary that $\alpha \in \widehat{D}$ and $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}=\operatorname{Int}(D)\left\langle f_{1}, \ldots, f_{m}\right\rangle$. Then $f_{j}(\alpha) \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$ for all $j \in[1, m]$, and as $\widehat{\mathfrak{m}} \subset \widehat{D}$ is open and $f_{j}: \widehat{D} \rightarrow \widehat{D}$ is continuous for all $j \in[1, m]$, it follows that there is some $k \in \mathbb{N}$ with the following property: If $\beta \in \widehat{D}$ and $\widehat{v}(\beta-\alpha) \geq k$, then $f_{j}(\beta) \in \widehat{\mathfrak{m}}$ for all $j \in[1, m]$, and thus $f_{j} \in \mathfrak{M}_{\beta}$ for all $j \in[1, m]$, a contradiction if $\beta \neq \alpha$.
2. Since $K[X]=D^{\bullet-1} \operatorname{Int}(D)=\operatorname{Int}(D)_{\mathbf{0}}$, the map

$$
\{\mathfrak{P} \in \operatorname{spec}(\operatorname{Int}(D)) \mid \mathfrak{P} \cap D=\mathbf{0}\} \rightarrow \operatorname{spec}(K[X]), \quad \mathfrak{P} \mapsto \mathfrak{P} K[X]
$$

is bijective, and its inverse if given by $\mathfrak{Q} \mapsto \mathfrak{Q} \cap \operatorname{Int}(D)$. Since the map

$$
\{g \in K[X] \mid g \text { monic and irreducible }\} \rightarrow \operatorname{spec}(K[X]) \backslash\{\mathbf{0}\}, \quad g \mapsto g K[X]
$$

is also bijective, it follows that $\Theta$ is bijective.
Let now $g \in K[X]$ be monic and irreducible and $\alpha \in \widehat{D}$. If $g(\alpha)=0$, then $f(\alpha)=0$ for all $f \in \mathfrak{P}_{g}$, and thus $\mathfrak{P}_{g} \subset \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$. Thus suppose that $g(\alpha) \neq 0$, let $d \in D^{\bullet}$ be such that $d g \in D[X]$, and set $\widehat{v}(d g(\alpha))=n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$. Since $\widehat{v} \circ g: \widehat{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_{0} \cup\{\infty\}$ is continuous, there exists some clopen neighborhood $U \subset \widehat{D}$ of $\alpha$ such that $\widehat{v}(d g(x))=n$ for all $x \in U$. By the Corollary to Theorem 2.3.6, there exists some
$h \in K[X]$ such that $\widehat{v}(h(x))=-n$ for all $x \in U$, and $\widehat{v}(h(x))=0$ for all $x \in \widehat{D} \backslash U$. Then $\widehat{v}(d g(x) h(x))=0$ for all $x \in U$, and $\widehat{v}(d g(x) h(x))=\widehat{v}(d g(x)) \geq 0$ for all $x \in \widehat{D} \backslash U$. Hence $d g q h \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$, hence $d g h \in \mathfrak{P}_{g}$, but $\operatorname{dgh}(\alpha) \neq 0$ and therefore $d g h \notin \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$.

Theorem 2.3.8 (Prime ideals of $\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$ ). For a prime $p \in \mathbb{P}$, let $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}=\mathbb{Z}_{p \mathbb{Z}}$ the domain of $p$ integral rational numbers and $\mathbb{Z}_{p}=\widehat{\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}}$ the domain of $p$-adic numbers. For $p \in \mathbb{P}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$, we set $\mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}=\left\{f \in \operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z}) \mid f(\alpha) \in p \mathbb{Z}_{p}\right\}$, and for a monic irreducible polynomial $g \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$, we set $\mathfrak{P}_{g}=g \mathbb{Q}[X \cap \operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$.

1. For every prime $p \in \mathbb{P}$, the map

$$
\mathbb{Z}_{p} \rightarrow\{\mathfrak{P} \in \operatorname{spec}(\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})) \mid \mathfrak{P} \cap \mathbb{Z}=p \mathbb{Z}\}, \quad \alpha \mapsto \mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}
$$

is bijective, and the ideals $\mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}$ are maximal and not finitely generated.
2. Then the map

$$
\Theta:\{g \in \mathbb{Q}[X] \mid g \text { monic and irreducible }\} \rightarrow\{\mathfrak{P} \in \operatorname{spec}(\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})) \mid \mathfrak{P} \neq \mathbf{0}, \mathfrak{P} \cap \mathbb{Z}=\mathbf{0}\}
$$

defined by $\Theta(g)=\mathfrak{P}_{g}$, is bijective. If $g \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ is monic and irreducible, $p \in \mathbb{P}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$, then $\mathfrak{P}_{g} \subset \mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}$ if and only if $g(\alpha)=0$.
3. $\max (\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z}))=\left\{\mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha} \mid p \in \mathbb{P}, \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}\right\}$, and the minimal non-zero prime ideals of $\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$ are the ideals $\mathfrak{P}_{g}$ for monic irreducible polynomials $g \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ and the ideals $\mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}$, where $p \in \mathbb{P}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ is not algebraic over $\mathbb{Q}$. In particular, $\operatorname{dim}(\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z}))=2$.
Proof. 1. Let $p \in \mathbb{P}$. By Theorem 2.3.1, $\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z}) \subset \operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})_{p \mathbb{Z}}=\operatorname{Int}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}\right)$, and therefore the map

$$
\operatorname{spec}\left(\operatorname{Int}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}\right)\right) \rightarrow\{\mathfrak{P} \in \operatorname{spec}(\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})) \mid \mathfrak{P} \cap \mathbb{Z} \subset p \mathbb{Z}\}, \quad \overline{\mathfrak{P}} \mapsto \overline{\mathfrak{P}} \cap \operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})
$$

is bijective. If $\overline{\mathfrak{P}} \in \operatorname{spec}\left(\operatorname{Int}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}\right)\right)$ and $\mathfrak{P}=\overline{\mathfrak{P}} \cap \operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$, then $\overline{\mathfrak{P}}=\mathfrak{P}_{(p)}$, and $\mathfrak{P} \cap \mathbb{Z}=p \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $\overline{\mathfrak{P}} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}=p \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$. Hence we obtain a bijective map
$\left\{\overline{\mathfrak{P}} \in \operatorname{spec}\left(\operatorname{Int}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}\right) \mid \overline{\mathfrak{P}} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}=p \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}\right\} \rightarrow\{\mathfrak{P} \in \operatorname{spec}(\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})) \mid \mathfrak{P} \cap \mathbb{Z}=p \mathbb{Z}\}, \quad \overline{\mathfrak{P}} \mapsto \overline{\mathfrak{P}} \cap \operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})\right.$.
By Theorem 2.3.7.1, the assignment $\alpha \mapsto \overline{\mathfrak{M}}_{p, \alpha}=\left\{f \in \operatorname{Int}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{(p)} \mid f(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}\right\}\right.$ defines a bijective map $\mathbb{Z}_{p} \rightarrow\left\{\overline{\mathfrak{P}} \in \operatorname{spec}\left(\operatorname{Int}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}\right) \mid \overline{\mathfrak{P}} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}=p \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}\right\}\right.$, and since $\overline{\mathfrak{M}}_{p, \alpha} \cap \operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})=\mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}$, we obtain a bijective map

$$
\mathbb{Z}_{p} \rightarrow\{\mathfrak{P} \in \operatorname{spec}(\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})) \mid \mathfrak{P} \cap \mathbb{Z}=p \mathbb{Z}\}, \quad \alpha \mapsto \mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}
$$

The ideals $\overline{\mathfrak{M}}_{p, \alpha}$ are not finitely generated and maximal ideals of $\operatorname{Int}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}\right)$. Since $\overline{\mathfrak{M}}_{p, \alpha}=\left(\mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}\right)_{(p)}$, the ideals $\mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}$ are likewise not finitely generated maximal ideals of $\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$.
2. Since $\mathbb{Q}[X]=\mathbb{Z}^{\bullet-1} \operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})=\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})_{\mathbf{0}}$, the map

$$
\{\mathfrak{P} \in \operatorname{spec}(\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})) \mid \mathfrak{P} \cap \mathbb{Z}=\mathbf{0}\} \rightarrow \operatorname{spec}(\mathbb{Q}[X]), \quad \mathfrak{P} \mapsto \mathfrak{P} \mathbb{Q}[X]
$$

is bijective, and its inverse if given by $\mathfrak{Q} \mapsto \mathfrak{Q} \cap \operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$. Since the map

$$
\{g \in \mathbb{Q}[X] \mid g \text { monic and irreducible }\} \rightarrow \operatorname{spec}(\mathbb{Q}[X]) \backslash\{\mathbf{0}\}, \quad g \mapsto g \mathbb{Q}[X]
$$

is also bijective, it follows that $\Theta$ is bijective.
Assume now that $g \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ is monic and irreducible, $p \in \mathbb{P}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$. Then we obtain

$$
\overline{\mathfrak{M}}_{p, \alpha}=\left\{f \in \operatorname{Int}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}\right) \mid f(\alpha) \in p \mathbb{Z}_{p}\right\}=\left(\mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}\right)_{(p)} \quad \text { and } \quad \overline{\mathfrak{P}}_{g}=g \mathbb{Q}[X] \cap \operatorname{Int}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}\right)=\left(\mathfrak{P}_{g}\right)_{(p)}
$$

Hence $\mathfrak{P}_{g} \subset \mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}$ if and only if $\overline{\mathfrak{P}}_{g} \subset \overline{\mathfrak{M}}_{p, \alpha}$, and by Theorem 2.3.7 this holds if and only if $g(\alpha)=0$.
3. If $p \in \mathbb{P}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$, then $\mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha} \in \max (\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z}))$ by 1 . If $\alpha$ is algebraic over $\mathbb{Q}$ and $g \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ is its minimal polynomial, then $\mathfrak{P}_{g} \subset \mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}$ by 2 ., and if $\alpha$ is not algebraic over $\mathbb{Q}$, then $\mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}$ is a minimal non-zero prime ideal of $\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$. It therefore remains to prove that the ideals $\mathfrak{P}_{g}$ for monic and irreducible $g \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ are not maximal.

Thus let $g \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ be monic and irreducible. We shall prove that there exist infinitely many primes $p$ such that $g(\alpha)=0$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ (and then $\mathfrak{P}_{g} \subset \mathfrak{M}_{p, \alpha}$ ). Let $d \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $g_{1}=d g \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$, and let $E$ be the (finite) set of all primes dividing $d$ or the discriminant of $g_{1}$. If $p \in \mathbb{P} \backslash E$, then the
residue class polynomial $\bar{g}_{1}=g_{1}+p \mathbb{Z}[X] \in \mathbb{F}_{p}[X]$ has no multiple roots. If $z \in \mathbb{F}_{p}$ is a root of $\bar{g}_{1}$, then Hensel's Lemma implies that there is some $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ such that $g_{1}(\alpha)=0$, hence $g(\alpha)=0$, and $\alpha+p \mathbb{Z}_{p}=z$. Hence it suffices to prove that the set $F=\left\{p \in \mathbb{P} \backslash E \mid g_{1}(a) \in p \mathbb{Z}\right.$ for some $\left.a \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$ is infinite. Let $g_{1}=a_{0}+a_{1} X+\ldots+a_{d} X^{d}$, where $d \in N$ and $a_{0}, \ldots, a_{d} \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $a_{0}=0$, then $g_{1}(p) \in p \mathbb{Z}$ for all $p \in \mathbb{P}$. Thus suppose that $a_{0} \neq 0$, and let $F$ be finite. If $s \geq 2$ is any product of primes, then there is some $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $g_{1}\left(a_{0} s^{k}\right) \neq \pm a_{0}$, and then $g_{1}\left(a_{0} s^{k}\right)=a_{0}\left(1+s^{k} b\right)$ for some $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $1+s^{k} b \neq \pm 1$. If $p \in \mathbb{P}$ and $p \mid 1+s^{k} b$, then $p \nmid s$ and yet $g_{1}\left(a_{0} s^{k}\right) \in p \mathbb{Z}$, a contradiction.

## Theorem 2.3.9.

1. Let $D$ be an almost Dedekind domain such that $D / \mathfrak{m}$ is finite and $\operatorname{Int}(D)_{\mathfrak{m}}=\operatorname{Int}\left(D_{\mathfrak{m}}\right)$ for all $\mathfrak{m} \in \max (D)$. Then $\operatorname{Int}(D)$ is a Prüfer domain. In particular, if $D$ is a Dedekind domain with finite residue class fields, then $\operatorname{Int}(D)$ is a Prüfer domain.
2. If $\operatorname{Int}(D)$ is a Prüfer domain, then $D$ is an almost Dedekind domain, and $D / \mathfrak{m}$ is finite for every non-zero prime ideal of $D$.

Proof. 1. We assume first that $D$ is a dv-domain with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ such that $D / \mathfrak{m}$ is finite. Let $\widehat{D}$ be a completion of $D$ and $\widehat{v}$ the defining valuation of $\widehat{D}$. We show that every finitely generated non-zero ideal of $\operatorname{Int}(D)$ is invertible. Thus let $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathfrak{A} \subset \operatorname{Int}(D)$ be a finitely generated ideal.

CASE 1: $\mathfrak{A} \cap D \neq \mathbf{0}$. Assume that $\mathfrak{A}$ is not invertible. Then there exists some $\mathfrak{M} \in \max (\operatorname{Int}(D))$ such that $\mathfrak{A} \subset \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{A}^{-1} \subset \mathfrak{M}$, and since $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathfrak{A} \cap D \subset \mathfrak{M} \cap D$, we get $\mathfrak{M} \cap D=\mathfrak{m}$, and therefore $\mathfrak{M}=\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$ for some $\alpha \in \widehat{D}$. Suppose that $\mathfrak{A}=\operatorname{Int}(D)\left\langle f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}\right\rangle$, and let $n=\min \{\widehat{v}(f(\alpha)) \mid f \in \mathfrak{A}\}$. Then it follows that $\widehat{v}\left(f_{0}(\alpha)\right)=n$ for some $f_{0} \in \mathfrak{A}$, and $\widehat{v}\left(f_{i}(\alpha)\right) \geq n$ for all $i \in[1, r]$. Since $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}: \widehat{D} \rightarrow \widehat{D}$ are continuous, there exists a clopen set $U \subset D$ such that $\alpha \in U$ and $f_{i}(x) \geq n$ for all $i \in[1, r]$ and $x \in U$. By the Corollary to Theorem 2.3.6, there exists some $h \in K[X]$ such that $\widehat{v}(h(x))=-n$ if $x \in U$, and $\widehat{v}(h(x))=0$ if $x \in \widehat{D} \backslash U$. Then $\widehat{v}\left(f_{i}(x) h(x)\right)=\widehat{v}\left(f_{i}(x)\right)+\widehat{v}(h(x)) \geq 0$ for all $x \in D$, hence $f_{i} h \in \operatorname{Int}(D)$ for all $i \in[1, r]$, and therefore $h \in \mathfrak{A}^{-1}$. In particular, $f_{0} h \in \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{A}^{-1}$, but $\widehat{v}\left(f_{0}(\alpha) h(\alpha)\right)=0$ and therefore $f_{0} h \notin \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$.

CASE 2: $\mathfrak{A} \cap D=\mathbf{0}$. Then $\mathfrak{A} K[X]=g K[X]$ for some $g \in \mathfrak{A} \backslash K$, and since $\mathfrak{A}$ is finitely generated, there is some $d \in D^{\bullet}$ such that $d \mathfrak{A} \subset g \operatorname{Int}(D)$. Then $g^{-1} d \mathfrak{A} \subset \operatorname{Int}(D)$ is a finitely generated ideal, and $d \in g^{-1} d \mathfrak{A} \cap D$. By CASE $1, g^{-1} d \mathfrak{A}$ is invertible, and therefore $\mathfrak{A}$ is also invertible.

Now we do the general case. Let $D$ be an almost Dedekind domain such that, for all $\mathfrak{m} \in \max (D)$, $D / \mathfrak{m}$ is finite and $\operatorname{Int}(D)_{\mathfrak{m}}=\operatorname{Int}\left(D_{\mathfrak{m}}\right)$. We must prove that $\operatorname{Int}(D)_{\mathfrak{M}}$ is a valuation domain for all $\mathfrak{M} \in \max (\operatorname{Int}(D))$. If $\mathfrak{M} \in \max (\operatorname{Int}(D))$, then either $\mathfrak{M} \cap D=\mathbf{0}$ or $\mathfrak{M} \cap D=\mathfrak{m} \in \max (D)$. In the first case, $K[X] \subset \operatorname{Int}(D)_{\mathfrak{M}}$. Hence $\operatorname{Int}(D)_{\mathfrak{M}}$ is a local Prüfer domain and thus a valuation domain. In the second case, $D_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is a dv-domain with finite residue class field $D_{\mathfrak{m}} / \mathfrak{m} D_{\mathfrak{m}}=D / \mathfrak{m}$, hence $\operatorname{Int}\left(D_{\mathfrak{m}}\right)$ is a Prüfer domain, and therefore $\operatorname{Int}(D)_{\mathfrak{M}}=\left(\operatorname{Int}(D)_{\mathfrak{m}}\right)_{\mathfrak{M}_{\mathfrak{m}}}=\operatorname{Int}\left(D_{\mathfrak{m}}\right)_{\mathfrak{M}_{\mathfrak{m}}}$ is also a Prüfer domain.
2. Let $\operatorname{Int}(D)$ be a Prüfer domain. The assignment $f \mapsto f(0)$ defines an epimorphism $\operatorname{Int}(D) \rightarrow D$. Hence $D$ is a Prüfer domain. If $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{spec}(D)$, then $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a valuation domain with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ and residue class field $D_{\mathfrak{p}} / \mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}=\mathfrak{q}(D / \mathfrak{p})$. If either $D_{\mathfrak{p}} / \mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is infinite or $\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is not principal, then $\operatorname{Int}\left(D_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)=D_{\mathfrak{p}}[X]$ by Theorem 2.3.3.5. By Theorem 2.3.1, $\operatorname{Int}(D) \subset \operatorname{Int}(D)_{\mathfrak{p}} \subset \operatorname{Int}\left(D_{\mathfrak{p}}\right)=D_{\mathfrak{p}}[X]$, and thus $D_{\mathfrak{p}}[X]$ is a Prüfer domain, a contradiction. It remains to prove that $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a principal ideal domain, and therefore it suffices to prove that $\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is the only non-zero prime ideal. Thus suppose that $\mathbf{0} \neq \overline{\mathfrak{q}} \subset \mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a prime ideal of $D_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Then $\overline{\mathfrak{q}}=\mathfrak{q} D_{\mathfrak{p}}$ for some prime ideal $\mathfrak{q} \subset D$ such that $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathfrak{q} \subset \mathfrak{p}$. But then $\mathfrak{p} / \mathfrak{q}$ is an ideal of $D / \mathfrak{q}$, which is finite and thus a field. Hence $\mathfrak{p}=\mathfrak{q}$ and $\overline{\mathfrak{q}}=\mathfrak{p} D_{\mathfrak{p}}$.

