### 1. Properties of UFDs and affine domains

**Theorem 1.1.** A Noetherian domain R is an UDF if and only if every height one prime ideal of R is principal.

*Proof.* Suppose that R is UFD. Let P a height one prime ideal of R and choose  $0 \neq x \in P$ . We can write  $x = f_1 \cdots f_n$  where  $f_i$  are all prime elements, for  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ . Then  $x \in P$  implies that, for some  $i, (f_i) \subseteq P$ . But  $(f_i)$  is a prime ideal of height one, so  $P = (f_i)$ .

Conversely, we need to show that every irreducible element is prime. Let f be an irreducible element and consider a minimal prime P over (f). Then by Krull's PIT we have that ht(P) = 1, and so there exists  $x \in P$  such that P = (x). But then, f = yx for some  $y \in R$ . But f is irreducible and so y is a unit. Hence P = (f) and so f is a prime element.

**Lemma 1.2.** Let  $A \subseteq R$  be an integral extension of domains with A UFD. Let P be a prime ideal in R of height one. The  $P \cap A$  is principal.

*Proof.* Since A is UFD, then A is normal, so we can apply the Going-Down Theorem. Hence  $1 = ht(P) = ht(P \cap A)$ .

But A is UFD so  $P \cap A$  must be principal since it is a height one prime in A.

**Proposition 1.3.** Let k be a field and R be a finitely generated k-algebra. Assume that R is domain (such rings are called affine domains). The  $\dim(R)$  is finite and any saturated chain of prime ideals has length equal to  $\dim(R)$ .

*Proof.* By Noether normalization R is module finite over a polynomial subring of the form  $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ , for some n. Since  $A \subset R$  is integral we get  $\dim(R) = \dim(A) = n$ .

So  $n = \dim(R)$ . We will do induction on n. The case n = 0 is obvious.

Let  $P_0 \subset P_1 \subset \cdots \subset P_m$  be a saturated chain of prime ideals in R.

Mod out by  $P_1$  and let  $B = R/P_1$ . Let us show that B has dimension n-1.

We have  $A \subset R$  is module finite extension so  $A/(P \cap A) \subset B$  is module-finite as well. But  $P_1 \cap A = (f)$  for some f prime element in A, because A is UFD and  $P_1$  is a height one prime ideal.

Therefore B is module finite over A/(f). But we can first change variables in f so that f is monic in  $x_n$ . Then it is clear that A/(f) is module finite over  $k[x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}]$  generated by  $1, x, \ldots, x^k$  where k is the degree of f.

By the transitivity of the module-finite property we get that B is module finite over a polynomial ring over field in n-1 indeterminates. So  $\dim(B) = n-1$ .

By induction we are now done.

**Proposition 1.4.** Let R be an affine domain over a field k (i.e an k-affine domain). Then  $\operatorname{trdeg}_k(R) = \dim(R)$ .

*Proof.* By Noether normalization there exists  $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \subseteq R$  module finite over A.

Then  $k(x_1, ..., x_n) \subseteq (A \setminus 0)^{-1}R$  is an integral extension over a field, so  $(A \setminus 0)^{-1}R$  is a field itself.

But then Q(R) is a field as well (as a ring of fractions of a field), and so it must equal  $(A \setminus 0)^{-1}R$ . So, it is algebraic over  $k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  which says that  $\operatorname{trdeg}_k(R) = n = \dim(R)$ .

#### 2. Valuation rings and invertible ideals

**Definition 2.1.** A domain R is called a valuation ring if for every  $x \in Q(R)$ ,  $x \in R$  or  $x^{-1} \in R$ . This is equivalent to the condition that for any two elements in R one divides the other. Sometimes we say that R is a valuation ring of K = Q(R).

It is rather easy to see that any two ideals I, J is R one has that  $I \subseteq J$  or  $J \subseteq I$ . Therefore a valuation ring R is local. We will denote the maximal ideal of R by  $\mathfrak{m}$ . LECTURE 16 3

**Theorem 2.2.** Let A be a subring of K and let  $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec}(A)$ . Then there exists a valuation ring R of K such that  $A \subset R$  and  $\mathfrak{m} \cap A = \mathfrak{p}$ .

Proof. We can replace A by  $A_{\mathfrak{p}}$  and so we can assume that A is local and  $\mathfrak{p}$  is its maximal ideal. Consider the family  $\Gamma$  of all subrings  $A \subset B$  of K such that  $1 \notin \mathfrak{p}B$ . Then  $\Gamma$  satisfies the Zorn lemma conditions. Let R be a maximal element of  $\Gamma$ . Clearly if we localize at a maximal ideal of R containing  $\mathfrak{p}R$  (which exists since  $\mathfrak{p}R \neq R$ ) then we get a larger example so it follows that R is local with maximal ideal say  $\mathfrak{m}$ . Also, it is clear that  $\mathfrak{m} \cap A = \mathfrak{p}$ .

It remains to show that R is a valuation ring of K.

Let  $x \notin inK \setminus R$ .  $R \subset R[x]$  so  $1 \in \mathfrak{p}R[x]$ , hence we have a relation of the form

$$a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n = 1,$$

where  $a_i \in \mathfrak{p}R \subset \mathfrak{m}$ , for all  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ .

But  $1 - a_0$  is invertible in R, so the relation can be modified to a relation of the form

$$1 = b_1 x + \dots + b_n x^n,$$

with  $b_i \in \mathfrak{m}$ , i = 1, ..., n. Take a minimal n for which such a relation exists.

Apply the same reasoning for  $x^{-1}$  in case  $x^{-1}$ . Hence we can a minimal m such that there exists a relation of the type

$$1 = c_1 x^{-1} + \dots + c_m (x^{-1})^m,$$

with  $c_i \mathfrak{m}$ , for all i.

If  $n \geq m$ , by multiplying the first relation by  $b_n x^n$ , and subtracting from the first we get contradict the minimlating of n. Similar reasoning goes if m > n.

**Proposition 2.3.** A valuation ring is integrally closed.

*Proof.* Let R be a valuation ring and  $x \in K = Q(R)$ .

Then there exists an integral dependence relation:

$$x^{n} + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}x + a_{0} = 0,$$

where  $a_i \in R$ . Assume that  $x \notin R$ . Then  $x^{-1} \in R$  and more precisely  $x^{-1} \in \mathfrak{m}$ , otherwise x itself is in R. Since  $x \neq 0$  we can divide by it.

Then  $1 = (a_{n-1}x^{-1} + \cdots + a_1x^{n-1} + a_0x^{-n}) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$ , since  $x^{-1}$  is in  $\mathfrak{m}$ . Contradiction.

**Theorem 2.4.** Let A be a subring of a field K. Then the integral closure of A in K is the intersection of all valuation rings of K containing A.

*Proof.* Let  $\overline{A}_K$  be the integral closure of A in K. The above Proposition implies that if B is a valuation ring then  $\overline{A}_K \subset B$ .

Conversely, let  $a \in K \setminus \overline{A}_K$ . It suffices to show that there exists a valuation ring B of K which does not contain x but contains A. Let  $1/x = y \in K$  and note that  $yA[y] \neq A[y]$  otherwise x is integral over A.

Let  $\mathfrak{m}$  be a maximal ideal of A[y] containing yA[y]. Then there exists a valuation ring of K containing A such that  $B \cap \mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}_B$ . But then  $y \in \mathfrak{m}_B$ . This implies that  $1/y \notin B$ , and so  $x \notin B$ .

**Definition 2.5.** A totally order Abelian group is a group (G, +) that admits a total relation on G, say  $\geq$ , such that  $x \geq y, u \geq t$  implies  $x + u \geq y + t$ .

Let R be a valuation ring and consider the set  $G = \{xR : x \in K, x \neq 0\}$ . One can prove that G is an Abelian group with the operation xR + yR := xyR. In fact, G is a totally ordered Abelian group with  $xR \leq yR$  if and only if  $yR \subseteq xR$ . We will refer to G as the value group associated to R.

**Definition 2.6.** Let K a field and G be a totally ordered Abelian group. An additive valuation on K with value group G is a function  $v: K \to G \cup \{\infty\}$  such that

- (1)  $v(x+y) \ge \min\{v(x), v(y)\},\$
- (2) v(xy) = v(x) + v(y),
- (3)  $v(x) = \infty$  if and only if x = 0.

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**Proposition 2.7.** Let R be a valuation domain. Let G be the value group associated to R and define  $v: K \to G \cup \{\infty\}$  by v(x) = xR, for  $x \neq 0$  and  $v(0) = \infty$ . Prove that v is an additive valuation on K with value group G.

*Proof.* The proof is a simple verification.

Now consider a valuation v on a field K,  $v: K \to G \cup \{\infty\}$ . Let  $R_v = \{x \in K : v(x) \ge 0\}$ . And can check that  $R_v$  is a subring of K and a domain. The group G will be called the value group of R.

**Proposition 2.8.** Using the notations introduced in the paragraph above,  $R_v$  is valuation ring of K with maximal ideal  $m_v = \{x \in K : v(x) > 0\}$ .

**Definition 2.9.** Let P be an R-module. We say that P is a projective module if for any onto R-linear map  $f: M \to N$  between R-module and any R-linear map  $g: P \to N$  there exists  $h: P \to M$  such that g = fh.

**Example 2.10.** Let F be a free module. Then F is projective.

Indeed denote by  $\{e_i\}_i \in I$  a canonical basis for F. We denote  $g(e_i) = n_i \in N$ . Lift  $n_i$  back to M, i. e. choose  $m_i \in M$  such that  $f(m_i) = n_i$  which is possible that f is onto. Construct h such that  $h(e_i) = m_i$ , and then one can check that g = fh (it is enough to verify the equality on the basis elements).

**Theorem 2.11.** Let P be an R-module. Then P is projective if and only if P is direct summand of a free R-module, i.e. there exists an R-module Q such that  $P \oplus Q$  is free.

*Proof.* Assume that P is projective. Let  $\{x_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a generating set for P. Map a free module  $R^{(I)}$  onto P,  $f:R^{(I)}\to P$ , by letting  $f(e_i)=x_i$ . Consider  $g=id_P:P\to P$ . By the definition of a projective module there exists an R-linear map  $h:P\to F$  such that  $fh=id_P$ . This implies that P is a direct summand of  $R^{(I)}$ .

The converse is left as an exercise.

Let R be a domain and let K = Q(R) be its fraction field.

**Definition 2.12.** An R-submodule I of K is called a fractional ideal if there exists  $u \in R$  such that  $uI \subseteq R$ . For a fractional ideal I we can define  $I^{-1} = \{x \in K : xI \subseteq R\}$ . If  $I^{-1}I = R$  we say that I is an invertible ideal of R.

Note that since  $uI \simeq I$  any fractional ideal I is finitely generated, whenever R is Noetherian. Also, any invertible ideal I is finitely generated: indeed  $1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i a_i$  with  $b_i \in I^{-1}, a_i \in I$ . Therefore  $x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (b_i x) a_i$ , and by the definition of  $I^{-1}$  we see that  $b_i x \in R$ . Hence  $I = \langle a_1, \ldots, a_n \rangle$ .

Also, a principal (i.e. cyclic) fractional ideal I is invertible. Indeed, if I = Rx, then  $x^{-1} \in I^{-1}$  and so  $1 = xx^{-1}$  which shows that  $II^{-1} = R$ .

**Lemma 2.13.** Let I a finitely generated fractional ideal in R and P a prime ideal. Then  $(I_P)^{-1} = I_P^{-1}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $x/s \in I_P^{-1}$ . Then  $(x/s)I_P \in R_P$  because  $xI \in R$ . This proves one inclusion.

Now let  $I = Ra_1 + \ldots + Ra_n$ . Say  $x \in (I_P)^{-1}$  and so  $xI_P \in R_P$  which gives that for all i there exists  $c_i \notin P$  such that  $c_i x a_i \in R$ . Let  $c = c_1 \cdots c_n$ . Then  $(cx)a_i \in R$  for all i. So,  $(cx)I \in R$  which proves that  $cx \in I^{-1}$  or  $x \in (I^{-1})_P$ .

**Theorem 2.14.** Let R be a Noetherian domain and I a fractional ideal. The following asserstions are equivalent:

- (1) I is invertible;
- (2) I is R-projective;
- (3) I is finitely generated and for any maximal ideal P of R,  $I_P$  is a cyclic  $R_P$ -module.

*Proof.* (1) implies (2): Since I can be generated by finitely many elements, say n, using the same notations as the ones introduced above note that there exists a map  $f: I \to R^n$ , defined by  $f(x) = (b_i x)_i$ . We have a natural onto homomorphism  $g: R^n \to I$  defined by  $g(e_i) = a_i$ . Clearly  $(gf)(x) = g((b_i x)_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i b_i x) = 1 \cdot x = x = id_I(x)$  so I is a direct summand in  $R^n$ , hence projective.

(2) implies (1):

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First note that any R-linear map  $h: I \to R$  is of the form h(a) = ka, where  $k \in K$ . We can assume that I is an ideal of R. Then for any  $a, b \in I$  we can see that bf(a) = f(ab) = af(b) and so f(a)/a is constant if  $a \neq 0$ . Denote this by k and note that f(a) = ka.

Let  $g: F = R^{(I)} \to I$  a surjective homomorphism such that  $g(e_i) = a_i$ . This map splits hence there exists  $f: I \to F$  such that  $gf = id_I$ . But then  $f = (f_i)$  with  $f_i: I \to R$  and hence  $f_i(x) = k_i x$  for all  $x \in I$ . For every x finitely many  $f_i(x)$  are nonzero, therefore finitely many  $k_i$  are nonzero. We remark that  $b_i x = f_i(x) \subset R$ , so  $b_i \in I^{-1}$ .

Then for all  $x \in I$ ,  $x = \sum a_i k_i x$  and so  $1 = \sum a_i k_i$  which prove that  $II^{-1} = R$ .

# (1) implies (3):

Using the notations introduced above, the equality  $1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i$  implies that there exists i such that  $a_i b_i$  is a unit in  $R_P$ . This proves that  $IR_P = a_i R_P$ .

## (3) implies (1):

By the lemma proved earlier, we see that  $(I_P)^{-1} = I_P^{-1}$ . Since  $I_P$  is cyclic, we know that  $I_P(I_P)^{-1} = R_P$ .

Assume that  $II^{-1} \neq R$  and choose a maximal ideal P such that  $II^{-1} \subseteq P$ . and so  $(II^{-1})_P \neq R_P$ . But  $(II^{-1})_P = I_P(I^{-1})_P = I_PI_P^{-1} = R_P$ . Contradiction.