

**Abstract Algebra. Math 6310. Bertram/Utah 2022-23.**

**Localization**

Let  $D$  be an integral domain.

**Definition.** A subset  $S \subset D$  is *multiplicative* if:

$$0 \notin S, 1 \in S \text{ and } s, t \in S \text{ implies } st \in S$$

Examples. (a) The abelian group  $D^*$  of units in  $D$  is multiplicative.

(b) The set  $\{1, f, f^2, \dots\}$  of powers of  $f \neq 0$  is multiplicative.

(c) The complement of an ideal  $I \subset D$  is multiplicative if and only if  $I$  is prime.

**Proposition 1.** Given a multiplicative subset  $S \subset D$ , let:

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

where

$$\frac{r_1}{s_1} \sim \frac{r_2}{s_2} \text{ if and only if } r_1 s_2 - r_2 s_1 = 0$$

and equip  $S^{-1}D$  with fraction addition and multiplication:

$$\frac{r_1}{s_1} + \frac{r_2}{s_2} = \frac{r_1 s_2 + r_2 s_1}{s_1 s_2} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{r_1}{s_1} \cdot \frac{r_2}{s_2} = \frac{r_1 r_2}{s_1 s_2}$$

Then  $S^{-1}D$  is an integral domain with  $0 = \frac{0}{1}, 1 = \frac{1}{1}$  and injective homomorphism:

$$f : D \rightarrow S^{-1}D \text{ given by } f(r) = \frac{r}{1}$$

**Proof.** This mainly amounts to proving well-definedness.

(i)  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation. Transitivity is the only non-obvious property:

$$r_1 s_2 - r_2 s_1 = 0, r_2 s_3 - r_3 s_2 = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\begin{aligned} s_2(r_1 s_3 - r_3 s_1) &= s_3(r_1 s_2 - r_2 s_1) + s_1(r_2 s_3 - r_3 s_2) = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow r_1 s_3 - r_3 s_1 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

(ii) Addition is determined by passing to common denominators:

$$\frac{r_1}{s_1} + \frac{r_2}{s_2} = \frac{r_1 s_2}{s_1 s_2} + \frac{r_2 s_1}{s_1 s_2}$$

as well as the distributive law and requirement that:

$$\frac{r}{1} \cdot \frac{1}{s} = \frac{r}{s}$$

which also determines multiplication. But you should check this is well-defined.

(iii)  $S^{-1}D$  is an integral domain, since:

$$\frac{r_1 r_2}{s_1 s_2} = \frac{0}{1} \text{ if and only if } r_1 r_2 = 0 \text{ if and only if either } r_1 = 0 \text{ or } r_2 = 0$$

since  $D$  has no zero divisors.

Remarks. (a) If  $S \subset D^*$ , then  $f : D \rightarrow S^{-1}D$  is an isomorphism with

$$\frac{r}{s} = \frac{s^{-1}r}{1}$$

(b) If  $S = D - \{0\}$ , then  $S^{-1}D$  is a field. This is the *field of fractions*  $k(D)$  of the domain  $D$ . All other domains  $S^{-1}D$  sit in between  $D$  and the field of fractions:

$$D \subset S^{-1}D \subset k(D)$$

(c) If  $S = \{1, f, \dots\}$ , then  $S^{-1}D$  is denoted by  $D_f$ , and:

$$q : D[x] \rightarrow D_f; q(x) = 1/f \text{ is surjective with kernel } I = \langle 1 - fx \rangle$$

so  $D_f$  is a quotient ring of the polynomial ring.

(d) If  $S = P^c$  for  $P \subset D$ , then  $S^{-1}D$  is denoted by  $D_P$ . This is usually not a quotient ring of a polynomial ring  $D[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  with any (finite) number of variables. We'll see this when we prove the Hilbert Nullstellensatz.

Concrete Example. Let  $D = \mathbb{Z}$ . Then:

(a)  $k(\mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Q}$ , the field of rational numbers.

(b)  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{n}]$  are the rational numbers whose denominators (in lowest terms) divide some power of  $n$ . Note that:

$$\mathbb{Z}_n = \mathbb{Z}_{p_1 \dots p_r} = \mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{p_1}, \dots, \frac{1}{p_r}]$$

where  $p_1, \dots, p_r$  are the distinct prime factors of  $n$ .

(c)  $\mathbb{Z}_{\langle p \rangle}$  are the rational numbers whose denominators (in lowest terms) are not divisible by  $p$ . Sometimes this is written  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , which is confusing given (b). In fact, there are a whole lot of rings that might be written as  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , so context is everything!

Let  $D$  be a UFD. Then an element:

$$\frac{r}{s} \in k(D)$$

is in lowest terms if the prime factorizations of  $r$  and  $s$  contain no associated common primes. This ratio is, moreover, **unique** up to multiplying numerator and denominator by the same unit in  $D$ . A *polynomial*  $f(x) \in D[x]$  is in lowest terms if the factorizations of the coefficients of  $f(x)$  contain no associated common primes. Gauss' Lemma relies on:

**Proposition 2.** If  $f(x), g(x) \in D[x]$  are in lowest terms, then so is  $f(x)g(x)$ .

**Proof.** Let  $f(x) = a_d x^d + \dots + a_0, g(x) = b_e x^e + \dots + b_0$  and let  $p \in D$  be prime. Then  $p$  does not divide all the  $a$ 's and it does not divide all the  $b$ 's, so:

$$p \text{ divides } a_0, \dots, a_{k-1} \text{ but not } a_k \text{ and } p \text{ divides } b_0, \dots, b_{l-1} \text{ but not } b_l$$

for some  $k \leq d$  and  $l \leq e$ . Then  $p$  does not divide the coefficient:

$$\dots + a_{k+1}b_{l-1} + a_k b_l + a_{k-1}b_{l+1} + \dots$$

of  $x^{k+l}$  in the product  $f(x)g(x)$ . So the product is in lowest terms!  $\square$

Now we can prove:

**Gauss' Lemma.** If  $D$  is a UFD, then  $D[x]$  is a UFD.

**Proof.** First of all,  $k(D)[x]$  is a Euclidean domain, so it is also a PID and UFD. Now suppose  $f(x) \in D[x]$ . Since a prime in  $D$  is also a prime in  $D[x]$ , we may remove all the common prime factors of the coefficients of  $f(x)$  and write it as

$$p_1 \dots p_r \cdot g(x) \text{ where } g(x) \in D[x] \text{ is lowest terms}$$

We may factor the polynomial  $g(x)$  in the Euclidean domain  $k(D)[x]$  to get:

$$g(x) = h_1(x) \cdots h_s(x) \text{ where each } h_i(x) \in k(D)[x] \text{ is prime}$$

There are now unique fractions (in lowest terms) so that the polynomials:

$$q_i(x) = \left(\frac{r_i}{s_i}\right) h_i(x) \in D[x] \text{ are in lowest terms}$$

and then it follows from the Proposition that both:

$$g(x) \text{ and } q_1(x) \cdots q_s(x) = \left(\prod \frac{r_i}{s_i}\right) g(x) = \left(\frac{r}{s}\right) g(x) \in D[x] \text{ are in lowest terms}$$

It follows that  $r$  and  $s$  (chosen to have no common prime factors) have no prime factors at all! So  $u = r/s \in D^*$  and:

$$f(x) = u^{-1} p_1 \cdots p_r \cdot q_1(x) \cdots q_s(x)$$

is the desired factorization into primes.  $\square$

Example. In  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ , we have:

$$x^2 - 1 = \left(\frac{2}{3}x - \frac{2}{3}\right) \left(\frac{3}{2}x + \frac{3}{2}\right)$$

which we can put into (slightly inefficient, to play devil's advocate) lowest terms:

$$-\frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{2}{3}x - \frac{2}{3}\right) = -x + 1 \text{ and } \frac{2}{3} \left(\frac{3}{2}x + \frac{3}{2}\right) = x + 1$$

and then

$$x^2 - 1 = (-1)(-x + 1)(x + 1) \text{ with the unit } u = -1$$

**Eisenstein's Criterion.** If  $D$  is a UFD,  $f(x) \in D[x]$ ,  $p \in D$  is a prime and:

- (a)  $p$  divides all the coefficients of  $f(x)$  except the leading coefficient.
- (b)  $p^2$  does not divide the constant term of  $f(x)$ .

Then  $f(x)$  is irreducible as a polynomial in  $k(D)[x]$ .

**Proof.** By Gauss' lemma, if  $f(x)$  is reducible in  $k(D)[x]$ , then it factors:

$$f(x) = g(x)h(x) \text{ by polynomials of smaller degree in } D[x]$$

Let  $pD \subset D$  be the ideal generated by  $p$  and note that  $pD[x] \subset D[x]$  is also a prime ideal, since:

$$D[x]/pD[x] = (D/p)[x]$$

By (a) above, if we let  $\bar{f}(x) = f(x) + pD[x]$ , then we have:

$$a_d x^d = \bar{f}(x) = \bar{g}(x) \cdot \bar{h}(x) \in (D/p)[x]$$

from which it follows that:

$$\bar{g}(x) = bx^d \text{ and } \bar{h}(x) = cx^{d-e} \text{ for some } e < d \text{ and } b, c \in D/pD$$

But then  $p$  divides the constant terms of  $g(x)$  and  $h(x)$ , which violates (b).  $\square$

Example. The polynomials:

$$x^{a-1} + x^{a-2} + \cdots + 1 = \frac{x^a - 1}{x - 1} \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$$

are irreducible if and only if  $a$  is a prime number. If  $a = bc$ , then  $x^b - 1 \mid x^a - 1$ . If  $a = p$  is prime, apply Eisenstein to  $(x + 1)^p - 1$  using the binomial theorem.

Next, let  $P \subset D$  be a prime ideal in an integral domain and let:

$$D \subset D_P = S^{-1}D \text{ be the inclusion of domains in Proposition 1}$$

**Proposition 3.** (a) There is a unique maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}_P \subset D_P$ .

(b) There are maps between the set of ideals in  $D_P$  and the set of ideals in  $P$ :

$$\{\text{ideals } J_P \subset D_P\} \leftrightarrow \{\text{ideals } J \subset P \subset D\}$$

$$J_P \mapsto D \cap J_P = \{a \in D \mid \frac{a}{1} \in J_P\}; \quad J \mapsto J_P := \left\{ \frac{a}{s} \mid a \in J, s \notin P \right\} / \sim$$

that satisfy:

$$J \subset (J_P \cap D) \text{ and } (J_P \cap D)_P = J_P$$

Moreover, if  $Q \subset D$  is a *prime* ideal, then  $Q_P \subset D_P$  is also prime and  $Q = (Q_P \cap D)$ .

Thus there is a bijection:

$$\{\text{prime ideals } Q_P \subset D_P\} \leftrightarrow \{\text{prime ideals } Q \subset P \subset D\}$$

and in particular,  $\mathfrak{m}_P$  maps to  $P$  under the bijection.

Example. Consider the prime ideal  $P = 2\mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $\mathbb{Z}_P$  has only the ideals:

$$\{0\} \text{ and } \mathfrak{m}^k = \left\{ \frac{a}{s} \mid 2^k \text{ divides } a \text{ and } s \text{ is odd} \right\}$$

but there are lots more ideals contained in  $2\mathbb{Z}$  than the ideals  $2^k\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Definition.** In general, the ideal  $\text{sat}(J) = J_P \cap D$  is called the *saturation* of  $J \subset P$  with respect to  $P$  and an ideal  $J \subset P$  is *saturated* if  $J = \text{sat}(J)$ .

The Proposition says that prime ideals are saturated.

Exercise. Check that  $\text{sat}(J) = \text{sat}(\text{sat}(J))$ , so saturations of ideals are saturated!

**Proof of Prop 3.** We already know that  $I \cap D \subset D$  is an ideal when  $I \subset D_P$  is an ideal and it is prime when  $I$  is prime. Likewise, if  $J \subset D$  is an ideal, then:

$$J_P = \left\{ \frac{a}{s} \mid a \in J, s \in S \right\} \subset D_P$$

is closed under sums as well as products with elements  $r/s$ , so  $J_P \subset D_P$  is an ideal. It is a little problematic to think of the ideal in this way, though, because of the equivalence of fractions, since it is possible to have  $r/s \in J_P$  without having  $r \in J$ . Instead, we will use the alternative formulation:

$$J_P = \{x \in D_P \mid xs \in J \text{ for some } s \in S\}$$

Now suppose  $Q \subset P \subset D$  is prime, and  $xy \in Q_P$  for some  $x, y \in D_P$ . Then:

$xs_1, ys_2 \in D$  and  $xy s_1 s_2 \in Q$  for some  $s_1, s_2, s \notin P$  so  $(xs_1)(ys_2)s \in Q$  and  $xs_1$  or  $ys_2 \in Q$  so  $Q_P$  is prime. Moreover, primeness of  $Q$  implies that

$$x \in D \text{ and } xs \in Q \Rightarrow x \in Q$$

from which it follows that  $Q_P \cap D = Q$ . The equality  $Q_P = (Q_P \cap D)_P$  is easy.  $\square$

Example. The localizations of polynomial rings:

$$k[x_1, \dots, x_n]_{\mathfrak{m}_p} = \left\{ \frac{f}{g} \mid f, g \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \text{ and } g(p) \neq 0 \right\}$$

at the maximal ideal kernels of  $\text{ev}_p : k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \rightarrow k$ ;  $\text{ev}_p(f) = f(p)$  are the rings of rational functions that are defined in a neighborhood of  $p$ .

**Definition.** A commutative ring  $R$  with 1 is a *local ring* if  $R$  has a unique maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$  which (Zorn's Lemma) necessarily contains all other ideals  $I \subset R$ .

Remark. In a local ring  $R$ , every element of the complement  $\mathfrak{m}^c$  is a unit.

Aside from the fields, we've seen one local ring persistently in our examples:

$$R = k[[x]] \text{ with maximal ideal } \mathfrak{m} = \langle x \rangle$$

but now we have a machine for producing local rings  $(D_P, \mathfrak{m})$  from any pair  $(D, P)$  consisting of a domain and a prime ideal.

We finish with an important class of rings (the next simplest after the fields).

**Definition.** A Noetherian domain  $D$  satisfying:

- (i)  $D$  is a local ring with (non-zero) maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$ .
- (ii)  $\mathfrak{m} = \langle \pi \rangle$  is principal

is called a *discrete valuation ring* (DVR).

**Proposition 3.** Every element  $a \in D$  in a DVR is a product:

$$u\pi^r \text{ for a unique } r \text{ and } u \in D^*$$

Thus the only ideals in a DVR are the principal ideals  $\mathfrak{m}^r = \langle \pi^r \rangle$  for  $r \geq 1$ .

**Proof.** Every *irreducible* element  $a \in D$  is of the form:

$$a = u\pi \text{ for } u \in D^*$$

since  $a \in \langle \pi \rangle$  is divisible by  $\pi$ , which is not a unit (hence it is an associate of  $a$ ). Thus the factorization of an arbitrary:  $b = a_1 \cdots a_r$  as a product of irreducibles is

$$b = (u_1\pi) \cdots (u_r\pi) = u\pi^r$$

and the uniqueness is clear by cancellation. For the rest of the proof, note that:

$$\langle u_1\pi^{r_1}, \dots, u_n\pi^{r_n} \rangle = \langle u_1\pi^{r_1} \rangle \text{ if } r_1 \leq \dots \leq r_n \quad \square$$

Thus in particular, a DVR is a local PID (and conversely).

Let  $D$  be a DVR and let  $k(D)$  be the field of fractions. Then:

$$k(D) = \{u\pi^r \mid u \in D^* \text{ and } r \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

and the mapping:

$$\nu : k(D)^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}; \nu(u\pi^r) = r$$

has the following properties:

- (i)  $\nu(ab) = \nu(a) + \nu(b)$
- (ii)  $\nu(a + b) \leq \min(\nu(a), \nu(b))$  with equality when  $\nu(a) \neq \nu(b)$ .
- (iii)  $D = \{a \in k(D) \mid \nu(a) \geq 0\}$  and  $\mathfrak{m} = \{a \in k(D) \mid \nu(a) \geq 1\}$ .

A mapping from a field to an ordered abelian group satisfying (i) and (ii) is a *valuation*, and when the ordered abelian group is  $\mathbb{Z}$ , then the mapping is a *discrete valuation*. Hence the name.

**Definition.** A domain  $D$  with the property that localization  $D_P$  at each non-zero prime ideal is a DVR is called a *Dedekind domain*.

Remark. In number theory, these are the rings of integers in a number field and in algebraic geometry, these are the (coordinate rings of) smooth affine curves.