## Math 568 Tom Tucker

**Proposition 5.1.** Let R be a domain and let  $S \subset R$  be a multiplicative subset not containing 0. Let  $b \in K$ , where K is the field of fractions of R. Then b is integral over  $S^{-1}R \Leftrightarrow sb$  is integral over R for some  $s \in S$ .

*Proof.* If b is integral over  $S^{-1}R$ , then we can write

$$b^{n} + \frac{a_{n-1}}{s_{n-1}}b^{n-1} + \dots + \frac{b_{0}}{s_{0}} = 0.$$

Letting  $s = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} s_i$  and multiplying through by  $s^n$  we obtain

$$(sb)^n + a'_{n-1}(sb)^{n-1} + \dots + a'_0 = 0$$

where

$$a'_i = s^{n-i-1} \prod_{\substack{j=1\\j \neq i}}^n s_i a_i$$

which is clearly in R. Hence sb is integral over R. Similarly, if an element sb with  $b \in S^{-1}R$  and  $s \in S$  satisfies an equation

$$(sb)^n + a_{n-1}(sb)^{n-1} + \dots + a_0 = 0,$$

with  $a_i \in R$ , then dividing through by  $s^n$  gives an equation

$$b^n + \frac{a_{n-1}}{s}b^{n-1} + \dots + \frac{a_0}{s^n},$$

with coefficients in  $S^{-1}R$ .

**Corollary 5.2.** If R is integrally closed, then  $S^{-1}R$  is integrally closed.

*Proof.* When R is integrally closed, any b that is integral over R is in R. Since any element  $c \in K$  that is integral over  $S^{-1}R$  has the property that sc is integral over R for some  $s \in S$ , this means that  $sc \in R$  for some  $s \in S$  and hence that  $c \in S^{-1}R$ .

**Lemma 5.3.** Let  $A \subseteq B$  be domains and suppose that every element of B is algebraic over A. Then for every ideal nonzero I of B, we have  $I \cap A \neq 0$ .

*Proof.* Let  $b \in A$  be nonzero. Since b is algebraic over A and  $b \neq 0$ , we can write

$$a_n b^n + \dots + a_0 = 0$$

for  $a_i \in A$  and  $a_0 \neq 0$ . Then  $a_0 \in I \cap \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Theorem 5.4.** Let  $\alpha$  be an algebraic number that is integral over  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Suppose that  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$  is integrally closed. Then  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$  is a Dedekind domain.

Proof. Since  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$  is a finitely generated  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module, any ideal of  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$  is also a finitely generated  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module. Hence, any ideal of  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$  is finitely generated over  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ , so  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$  is Noetherian. Let  $\mathcal{Q}$  be a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ . Then,  $\mathcal{Q} \cap \mathbb{Z}$  is a prime ideal (p) in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Hence,  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]/\mathcal{Q}$  is a quotient of  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/f(X)$  where f(X) is the minimal monic satisfied by  $\alpha$ . Since  $\mathbf{F}_p[X]/f(X)$  has dimension 0 (Exercise 7 on the homework), this implies that  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]/\mathcal{Q}$  is a field so  $\mathcal{Q}$  must be maximal.  $\Box$ 

*Remark* 5.5. The rings we deal with will *not* in general have this form.

Now, a brief interlude on geometry and normality. Let F(X, Y) = 0be a curve in the plane  $k^2$  over an algebraically closed field k. We say that F(X, Y) is *singular* at the point (a, b) is

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial X}(a,b) = \frac{\partial F}{\partial Y}(a,b) = 0.$$

In other words if the tangent vector to F = 0 is 0 at (a, b), so that there is no notion of a tangent vector here. If the point (a, b) is not singular, we say that it is nonsingular.

Note that the primes  $\mathcal{Q}$  of R correspond to points (a, b) such that F(a, b) = 0. If  $\mathcal{Q}$  corresponds to the point (a, b) then  $\mathcal{Q}$  is simply the image of k[X, Y](X - a) + k[X, Y](Y - b) in R.

**Lemma 5.6.** Let Q be a nonzero prime in the ring

R = k[X, Y] / F(X, Y).

Then

$$\dim_k \mathcal{Q}/\mathcal{Q}^2 = 1$$

if and only if the point (a, b) corresponding to Q is nonsingular.

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be prime in k[X, Y] generated by (X - a) and (Y - b). Let  $\theta$  be the map from k[X, Y] to  $k^2$  given by

$$\theta(G) = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial X}(a,b), \frac{\partial G}{\partial Y}(a,b)\right).$$

Then  $\theta(X - a) = (1, 0)$  and  $\theta(Y - b) = (0, 1)$ , so the rank of the image of  $\mathcal{P}$  is 2. It is easy to see that  $\mathcal{P}^2$  is in the kernel of this map. So  $\theta$ induces an isomorphism between  $\mathcal{P}/\mathcal{P}^2$  and  $k^2$ . Now we have

$$\mathcal{Q}/\mathcal{Q}^2 \cong (\mathcal{P}/(\mathcal{P}^2 + F(X, Y))),$$

as a k-vector space since

$$\mathcal{P}^2 + F(X, Y) = \phi^{-1}(\mathcal{Q}^2)$$

 $\square$ 

where  $\phi$  is the quotient map from k[X, Y] to R. Counting dimensions we have

$$\dim_k \mathcal{P}/\mathcal{P}^2 = 2$$

if  $\theta(F) = 0$  and and

$$\dim_k \mathcal{P}/\mathcal{P}^2 = 1$$

otherwise.

**Lemma 5.7.** (Later in class we wil prove this more generally) We have

$$\mathcal{Q}/\mathcal{Q}^2 \cong R_{\mathcal{Q}}\mathcal{Q}/(R_{\mathcal{Q}}\mathcal{Q})^2.$$

**Lemma 5.8.** Let R be a ring that has direct sum decomposition

$$R = \bigoplus_{j=1}^{n} R_j.$$

Then every ideal in  $I \subset R$  can be written as

$$I = \bigoplus_{j=1}^{n} I_j$$

for ideals  $I_j \subset R_j$ . If  $\mathcal{P}$  is a prime of R then there is some j for which we can write

$$\mathcal{P} = \bigoplus_{\ell \neq j} R_{\ell} \bigoplus \mathcal{P}_j$$

*Proof.* We can view  $R = \bigoplus_{j=1}^{n} R_j$  as the set of

$$(r_1,\ldots,r_n)$$

with  $r_j \in R_j$ . Let  $p_j$  be the usual projection from R onto its j-th coordinate and let  $i_j$  be the usual embedding of  $R_j$  into R obtained by sending  $r_j \in R_j$  to the element of R with all coordinates 0 except for the j-th coordinate which is set to  $r_j$ . Since an ideal I of R must be a  $i_j(R_j)$  module, the set of  $p_j(r)$  for which  $r \in I$  must form an ideal  $R_j$  ideal, call it  $I_j$ . It is easy to see that  $I_j = p_j(I)$ . Certainly,  $I \subset \bigoplus p_j(I)$ . Since we can multiply anything in I by  $(0, \ldots, 1_j, 0, \ldots, 0)$  we see that  $i_j p_j(I) \subset I$ . Hence  $\bigoplus p_j(I) \subset I$ , and we are done with our description of ideals of  $\bigoplus_{j=1}^n R_j$ . For prime ideals, we note that if  $\mathcal{P}$  is a prime then  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)(b_1, \ldots, b_n) \in \mathcal{P}$  implies that  $a_j b_j \in p_j(\mathcal{P})$  for each j, so  $p_j(\mathcal{P})$  must be a prime of  $R_j$  or all of  $R_j$ . Suppose we had  $k \neq j$  with  $p_j(\mathcal{P}) \neq R_j$  and  $p_k(\mathcal{P}) \neq R_k$ . Then choosing  $a_j \in p_j(\mathcal{P})$ ,  $a_k \in p_k(\mathcal{P})$  and  $b_j \notin p_j(\mathcal{P})$ ,  $b_k \notin p_k(\mathcal{P})$ , we see that

$$(i_j(a_j) + i_j(b_k))(i_j(b_j) + i_k(a_k)) \in \mathcal{P},$$

but  $(i_j(a_j)+i_j(b_k)), (i_j(b_j)+i_k(a_k)) \notin \mathcal{P}$ , a contradiction, so  $p_j(\mathcal{P}) = R_j$  for all but one j. Thus

$$\mathcal{P} = \bigoplus_{\ell \neq j} R_\ell \bigoplus \mathcal{P}_j$$

for some prime  $\mathcal{P}_j$  of  $R_j$ .