Affine Varieties and Dimension.

Let $R = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ be the ring of polynomials over an algebraically closed field k. For any ideal I of R, the set $\mathcal{V}(I)$ of zeroes of all $f \in I$ is called the *affine variety* of I. Since I is finitely generated $\mathcal{V}(I)$ is the set of solutions of a finite system of polynomial equations $f_1 = \cdots = f_m = 0$. It is useful to think of it also as the set $Alg_k(R/I, k)$ of k-algebra homomorphisms $R/I \to k$.

Given an affine variety $V = \mathcal{V}(I)$, consider the ideal $\mathcal{I}(V) = \{f \in R | f(x) = 0 \ \forall x \in V\}$. Hilbert's Nullstellensatz says that $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I)) = \operatorname{rad} I$; in other words I is almost retrievable from $\mathcal{V}(I)$. Since obviously $\mathcal{V}(I) = \mathcal{V}(\operatorname{rad} I)$, we see that two ideals give rise to the same variety iff they have the same radical. In particular, if I is P-primary, we have $\operatorname{rad} I = P$, $\mathcal{V}(I) = \mathcal{V}(P)$, and $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I)) = P$.

Obviously $I_1 \subset I_2$ implies $\mathcal{V}(I_1) \supset \mathcal{V}(I_2)$, and it is easy to see that $\mathcal{V}(I_1 \cap I_2) = \mathcal{V}(I_1) \cup \mathcal{V}(I_2)$. Hence a primary decomposition $I = Q_1 \cap \cdots \cap Q_r$ results in a break-up $\mathcal{V}(I) = \mathcal{V}(Q_1) \cup \cdots \cup \mathcal{V}(Q_r)$ with unique components $\mathcal{V}(Q_i) = \mathcal{V}(P_i)$. A variety V is *irreducible*, i.e. not the union of proper subvarieties, iff $\mathcal{I}(V)$ is prime, or equivalently $V = \mathcal{V}(Q)$ with Q primary.

Let $V = \mathcal{V}(P_0)$ with P_0 prime. Irreducible subvarieties of V correspond to primes of R containing P_0 , or equivalently, prime ideals of the domain $A = R/P_0$. As in vector spaces, one can define the *dimension* of V to be the length s of the longest possible chain $V = V_0 \supset V_1 \supset \cdots \supset V_s$ of irreducible subvarieties. This corresponds to a chain $0 \subset P_1 \subset P_2 \subset \cdots \subset P_s$ of prime ideals in A, which is why we also write $s = \dim A$.

On the other hand, dimension should have something to do with degrees of freedom. There are two variants of this notion, a global one and a local one. Globally we can take the transcendence degree over k of the quotient field of A. By Noether's Normalization Lemma, A is integral over a subring $B = k[t_1, \ldots, t_s]$ with independent parameters t_i . To get a point of V, i.e. a homomorphism $A \to k$, we can freely assign values to the t_i (whence s degrees of freedom) and then have finitely many choices for the x_j by the theorem of Cohen-Seidenberg. By a refinement of that theorem, chains of primes in A correspond to chains of primes in B, and vice versa, so that dim $A = \dim B$. Now it is easy to see that the latter is exactly s. For instance, if B = k[x, y, z], the chain of ideals $0 \subset (x) \subset (x, y) \subset (x, y, z)$ is maximal.

The third notion of dimension has to do with the number of local parameters at a point. It is analogous to the dimension of the tangent space in differential geometry. A point of V is a 0-dimensional subvariety belonging to a maximal ideal M of A. Intuitively, we want something like the minimal number of generators of M. However, the point in question is equally well given by any M-primary ideal Q, which, being smaller than M, may need fewer generators. So, we define the local dimension $\delta_M(A)$ to be the smallest number of elements required to generate any M-primary ideal. To compare $\delta_M(A)$ with dim A, we can work in the local ring A_M which has the same quotient field as A and hence the same dimension. Ameneties like Nakayamas Lemma make local rings relatively pleasant to work with. Given a minimal set of generators for an M- primary ideal it is not very difficult to construct a chain of primes of the same length (along the line of the x, y, z-story above). Thus one can show dim $A_M \geq \delta(A_M)$.

The reverse inequality is more interesting. The trick is to introduce yet another dimension d(A), which is the degree of a polynomial associated with the graded ring $\sum_{\nu\geq 0} Q^{\nu}/Q^{\nu+1}$ for any M-primary Q, and which has the virtue of being $\leq \delta(A)$ from the start. Using the Artin-Rees Theorem, it is then shown that d(A) decreases strictly when A changes to A/(f). From there a straightforward induction proves that $d(A) \geq \dim A$.

Freedom and Finiteness.

Let R be a (commutative) domain. We shall mainly be interested in finitely generated (here-inafter called 'fig') R-modules. Any choice of generators of a fig module M produces a surjection $F \to M \to 0$ from a free module F onto M. If the kernel of this is also fig free, M is said to be finitely presented. This is is true for any M, as long as R is principal. When R is noetherian (i.e. every ideal is fig), every submodule of a fig module is fig, so that M has a free resolution

$$\cdots \to F_n \to \cdots \to F_1 \to F_0 \to M \to 0.$$

If such a resolution breaks off after finitely many terms, we say that M is finitely resolvable. If this happens for every fig M, let us call R strongly noetherian. If R is (strongly) noetherian, so is the polynomial ring R[X] — courtesy of Messrs. Hilbert and Serre, respectively. In particular, any polynomial ring over a field is strongly noetherian.

A module M is projective, if every surjection from a free module $F \to M \to 0$ has a right inverse. For fig modules this happens iff the localization M_S is a free R_S -module, whenever we admit the complement S of a maximal ideal of R as a set of denominators. In this sense, a fig projective module is locally free. In view of the technical usefulness and ubiquity of localization, it is clear that projectivity is a convenient property this side of freedom. A little better than projective are the stably free modules. A module M qualifies for this distinction, if $M \oplus F$ is free for suitable fig free F. It is not hard to show that M is stably free iff it is projective and finitely resolvable.

To prove that some ring R does not have any non-free, stably free modules, an easy induction shows that it suffices to verify: for any module M, the freedom of $M \oplus R$ implies that of M. This, in turn, amounts to the following statement about matrices: every left- invertible $n \times 1$ -matrix over R occurs as a column in an invertible square matrix. A theorem by Quillen and Suslin says that this is true for $R = k[x_1, \ldots, x_r]$, thus corroborating a conjecture of Serre's to the effect that, for such R, every projective fig module is free.

If R is the coordinate ring of an affine variety $V = \operatorname{Alg}_k(R, k)$, a projective R-module (being locally free) gives rise to an algebraic vector bundle over V (and vice versa). The Quillen-Suslin Theorem asserts that, if V is affine r-space, every such bundle is algebraically isomorphic to a trivial one. Even for $k = \mathbb{C}$ this is a lot more than the obvious topological result.

R is called a dedekind domain if every ideal is projective (forcing every fig torsion-free R-module to be so). The projectivity of an ideal $I \neq 0$ is equivalent to invertibility: the existence of generators $\{a_i\}$ of I and elements $\{b_j\}$ of the field of quotients of R such that $\sum_i a_i b_i = 1$ and all $a_i b_j \in R$. This property entails that the non-zero ideals in a dedekind domain R are automatically fig and that they form a semi-group with cancellation, i.e. $I_0I_1 = I_0I_2 \Rightarrow I_1 = I_2$. Together with the primary decomposition available in any noetherian ring, this leads to unique factorization of ideals into products of prime powers. Since all prime localizations of R are principal (ideals become free!), a dedekind domain is noetherian, integrally closed, and one-dimensional. Conversely, these three conditions are equivalent to the dedekind property, thus ensuring that it is transmitted to the integral closure of R in any finite separable extension of its field of quotients.

Bits and Pieces.

To begin with, let R be any ring, M any R-module. The finite filtrations $M = M_0 \supset M_1 \supset \cdots \supset M_n = 0$ and $M = M'_0 \supset M'_1 \supset \cdots \supset M'_n = 0$ are said to be isomorphic, if their bits M_i/M_{i+1} and M'_j/M'_{j+1} nre pairwise isomorphic after suitable reordering of indices. A theorem of Schreier, having to do with Butterflies, asserts that any two finite filtrations have isomorphic refinements, whence any two simple finite filtrations must be isomorphic (Jordan-Hölder). A module allowing finite simple filtrations is said to be of finite length. It is both artinian and noetherian and can, moreover, be expressed as a direct sum $M = M_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_r$ of indecomposable pieces, which may, however, not be simple. Up to isomorphism and reordering of indices, these pieces are unique by the Theorem of Krull-Remak-Schmidt, which is most Fittingly derived from the fact that a non-invertible endomorphism of an indecomposable piece must be nilpotent. It is important to note that, so far on this page, R was not required to be commutative. The artinian-noetherian condition is always fulfilled for modules which are also finite dimensional vector spaces. The aforementioned results are most frequently used in representation theory.

From now on, let R again be commutative and noetherian. If $\dim R > 0$, the powers of a maximal ideal are necessarily distinct and any hopes for finite length go up in smoke. However, unique decomposition into indecomposables is not limited to the artinian context — cf. modules over principal domains. Taking a cue from the latter, we consider an R-module M coprimary if every $a \in R$ acts on it either injectively or nilpotently. The nilpotent actors a will then form a prime ideal $P \subset R$ associated to M, and M is called P-coprimary.

The terminology in these parts is somewhat baffling because one always considers submodules as well as factor modules. A submodule $E' \subset E$ is called primary (relative to E) if E/E' is coprimary. In particular, an ideal Q is primary if R/Q is coprimary. If P is the associated prime, we always have some $P^n \subset Q$, but P^n itself may not be primary. However, if P is maximal, any ideal caught between P and one of its powers is primary — whew!

Here is what we get in this general setting. Every fig R-module E is a sub direct sum of coprimary modules; i.e. $E \subseteq M_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_r$, and the projection maps $E \to M_i$ are (separately) surjective; the set of primes associated with the components in an irredundant "decomposition" of this sort depends only on E, hence is denoted Ass(E); the components belonging to minimal (jargon: "isolated") elements of Ass(E) are actually unique themselves, provided that components belonging to the same prime have been lumped together; even more: for the isolated components, the kernels of the projection maps are unique as submodules ("primary" ones) of E. In fact, these matters are usully dicussed in terms of kernels; i.e., one aims at representing a submodule as an intersection of primary ones. In the case of E = R/I, we get the primary decomposition $I = Q_1 \cap \cdots \cap Q_r$ of an ideal I.

Apart from decompositions, the associated primes can be characterized as follows: $P \in \mathrm{Ass}(E)$, iff R/P is isomorphic to a submodule of E, iff P is the annihilator of some $x \in E$. Every fig R-module E has a finite filtration $E \supset E_1 \supset \cdots \supset E_m$ whose bits E_j/E_{j+1} are isomorphic to some R/P_j , with P_j prime; the primes occurring here include all the associated ones (but may not be limited to them). If $\mathrm{Supp}(E)$ stands for the set of primes at which E has a non-trivial localization, it turns out that $P \in \mathrm{Supp}(E)$ iff it contains an associated prime.

Filters and Grades.

With any filtration $E = E_0 \supset E_1 \supset \cdots \supset E_n \supset \cdots$ on an abelian group, we can associate two new, and in some sense "nicer" groups:

$$G(E) = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} E_n / E_{n+1}$$
 and $\hat{E} = \lim_{\leftarrow} E / E_n$,

called graded group and completion, respectively. The latter is literally the completion in the topology for which $\{E_n\}$ is a fundamental system of neighbourhoods of 0, a handy fact when it comes to comparing the effects of different filtrations. Applying these two processes to a commutative ring R = E and $E_n = I^n$, where $I \subset R$ is an ideal, we again obtain natural ring structures, G(R) being a graded ring in the sense that $A_n A_m \subset A_{n+m}$, where we have set $A_n = I^n/I^{n+1}$ for the "homogeneous" components. For instance, if R is a dedekind domain and $I = P \neq 0$ a prime ideal, it is easy to see that $G(R) \simeq k[t]$, the polynomial ring over k = R/P, and \hat{R} is the completed discrete valuation ring \hat{R}_P , both of them principal domains. In general, R is noetherian if and only if G(R) is noetherian; in that case $G(R) \simeq G(\hat{R})$, and hence \hat{R} is noetherian.

From now on let R be noetherian, E a fig R-module with a $stable\ I$ -filtration $\{E_n\}$, i.e. such that $IE_n \subseteq E_{n+1}$ with equality for n >> 0. Any two such filtrations are highly compatible: there is a fixed m such that the (n+m)-th term of one is contained in the n-th term of the other (either way) for all large n; in particular they yield the same topology on E. The Artin-Rees Lemma says that the filtration $\{E_n \cap E'\}$ induced on a submodule $E' \subset E$ is again stable. As a result, an exact sequence $0 \to E' \to E \to E'' \to 0$ gives rise to a similar sequence of I-adic completions. Moreover, one can use it to show that $E_S \to \hat{E}$ is injective (Krull's Theorem), where S = 1 + I — a set obviously invertible (by geometric series) in \hat{R} . Consequently $R \to \hat{R}$ is injective if R is a domain.

In the noetherian setting it may well happen that every homogeneous piece $M_n = E_n/E_{n+1}$ of G(E) is of finite length $\lambda(M_n)$, so that the non-finiteness comes only from counting all the pieces. Inverting Zeno's paradox, we then form the Poincaré series $\sum_n \lambda(M_n)t^n$, which by a theorem of Hilbert-Serre represents a rational function with a very explicit denominator. If G(E) is generated over G(R) by s elements from M_1 , this function is of the form $f(t)(1-t)^{-d}$ with $d \leq s$ and $f(t) \in \mathbf{Z}[t]$. Comparing the Poincaré series with the binomial expansion, we see that there is a polynomial $h(x) \in \mathbf{Q}[x]$ of degree d-1, the Hilbert polynomial, such that $\lambda(M_n) = h(n)$ for large n. This is of particular interest when R is local and I is primary with respect to the maximal ideal P (which makes R/I artinian and gives each M_n finite length). From h(x) we inductively get a polynomial g(x) of degree d = d(E), whose leading term depends neither on I nor on the particular filtration, and such that $\lambda(E/E_n) = g(n)$ for large n. With the help of Artin-Rees (applied to $aE \subset E$), one now proves that d(E/aE) < d(E) whenever $a \in R$ acts injectively on E; whence it follows by induction that $\dim(R) \leq d(R)$. Since $d(R) \leq$ the local dimension $\delta(R)$ by construction, and since the latter is $\leq \dim(R)$ by an elementary argument, this establishes the equality of the three notions (cf. blurb on dimension).

Valuations and Absolute Values.

Let P be a prime ideal in a noetherian domain R with quotient field K. The basic idea of a valuation is to study P-divisibility by counting: since $\bigcap P^n = 0$ (Krull), every $a \in R$ lies in a well-defined smallest power $P^{v(a)}$. The resulting function $v: R \to \mathbb{Z}$ has the properties (1) $v(a+b) \ge \max\{v(a),v(b)\}$ and (2') $v(ab) \ge v(a) + v(b)$. What distinguishes valuation theory is its insistence on involving K: one wants to count not only "zeroes" but also "poles". There is no difficulty in extending v to the local ring R_P , but to include all of K, the inequality (2') should be sharpened to (2): v(ab) = v(a) + v(b). This precision is supplied by unique ideal factorization if R_P is dedekind, e.g. if R is integrally closed and P of height 1; but in higher dimensions there is trouble. For instance, if R = k[x, y, z] with $xy - z^3 = 0$, and P = (x, y, z), we would have v(x) + v(y) = 2 but v(xy) = 3.

Looking at it another way, forget R and start with a valuation $v: K \to \Gamma$ onto an (additive) ordered group Γ without insisting that $\Gamma = \mathbf{Z}$. Then the set $A = \{a \in K | v(a) \geq 0\}$ forms a ring such that $x \in A$ or $x^{-1} \in A$ for any $x \in K$. Such a ring is called a valuation ring. It is always integrally closed and local, and it always does correspond to a valuation $v: K \to \Gamma = K^{\times}/A^{\times}$, which is ordered by the image of the maximal ideal (minus 0) defining positivity. These general valuations have two main virtues: their extendability and their relation to integrality. In fact, the integral closure in K of any subring B is the intersection of all valuation rings containing B. As to extendability, any local subring C of K (not necessarily with K as quotients) can be embedded in a valuation ring which respects its maximal ideal. Consequently, any valuation on K can be extended to any field $K' \supset K$. If [K': K] is finite, so is the number of such extensions, as well as the ramification index $e = [\Gamma': \Gamma]$ for each of them; further, $e\Gamma' \subset \Gamma$ in each case, so that $\Gamma = \mathbf{Z} \Rightarrow \Gamma' = \mathbf{Z}$. Valuations with the latter property are called discrete. They are ulimately the most useful ones, and the only ones having noetherian valuation rings.

Discrete valutions have one leg in valuation theory and the other in the theory of absolute values, i.e. homomorphisms from K^{\times} to the positive reals satisfying the triangle inequality, which, by setting $|a|_v = 2^{-v(a)}$ looks like a weakened version of (1). Although topological games can also be played with general valuations, absolute values have two important strengths in this respect: any two of them induce the same topology on K iff each is a positive real power of the other; and, if K is complete, any finite K-space has only one norm-topology compatible with the given absolute value. If K is complete with respect to a discrete valuation v, it follows that there is exactly one extension w of v to any field L of finite degree over K. More generally, if \hat{K} denotes the completion of K, and if L = K[X]/(f(X)) for some separable monic polynomial, the completions \hat{L}_i of L with respect to the various extensions w_i of v to L are just the terms occurring in the decomposition $\hat{K}[X]/(f(X)) \simeq \hat{L}_1 \times \ldots \times \hat{L}_r$ which arises from the irreducible factorization $f(X) = f_1(X) \cdots f_r(X)$ over \hat{K} . The latter can in large measure be studied in the the residue class field k of v (i.e. valuation ring mod maximal ideal) because Hensel's Lemma allows the lifting of relatively prime polynomial factorizations from k to \hat{K} .

The relaxation of (1) to the triangle inequality is no mere whim. In number theory it permits the inlusion of ordinary absolute values corresponding to the various embeddings $K \to \mathbf{C}$, which turns out to be essential. Thus the approximation theorem of Artin-Whaples, which proclaims the density of K embedded diagonally in a cartesian product $K \times \cdots \times K$ with topologically inequivalent absolute values, is more than a corollary of the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

Example of a Stably Free Module.

Remember that the tangent bundle of the 2-sphere S^2 is non-trivial; indeed, not only does S^2 fail to be parallelizable — it does not even have *one* nowhere vanishing vector-field. However, when one adds the normal bundle, which *is* trivial, the result is a trivial \mathbf{R}^3 - bundle. Thus, in this case, non-trivial + trivial = trivial; weird, eh?

Our aim is to describe a (precise) algebraic counterpart to this phenomenon. We begin abstractly with an arbitrary commutative ring R, an element $\alpha = [a_1, \dots, a_n] \in R^n$, and the submodule $R\alpha$ it generates.

LEMMA: Suppose that $R\alpha$ is faithful (hence free). Then $R^n/R\alpha$ is projective (hence stably free), if and only if there is a $\beta \in R^n$ with $\beta \cdot \alpha = 1$; it is free if and only if there is an $M \in GL_n(R)$ with α as its first row.

Proof: α^t is the $n \times 1$ -matrix of the injection $R \to R^n$ whose image is $R\alpha$. The latter is a direct summand iff this matrix has a left inverse β . The rest is clear.

NOTE: If $R\alpha \cong R/I$ for some ideal I, the splitting of the corresponding injection $R/I \to R^n$ (i.e. projectivity of $R^n/R\alpha$) is equivalent to the existence of a $\beta \in R^n$ such that $\beta \cdot \alpha = 1 - e$, with $e \in I$ an idempotent since $e\alpha = 0$ implies e(1 - e) = 0.

REMARK: Suppose that, for every n, any left-invertible α^t can be embedded into an invertible square matrix. Then every finite stably free R-module is free.

Proof: By the lemma, $E \oplus R \cong R^n$ implies that E is free. Hence $E \oplus R^m \cong R^n$ implies that $E \oplus R^{m-1}$ is free, whence (induction) E is free.

EXAMPLE: Let R be any ring of continuous functions $f: S^2 \to \mathbf{R}$ containing the constant function 1 and the coordinate functions x, y, z. Put $\alpha = [x, y, z]$. Then $R^3 = R\alpha \oplus P$, where P is non-free projective.

Indeed, since $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$, the ideal A is all of R, and the lemma ensures that $R\alpha$ is a direct summand. If the complementary summand P were free, there would be a basis $\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ of R^3 . Then $\det[\alpha, \beta, \gamma]$ would be a unit in R, in particular it would be a function vanishing nowhere on S^2 . More particularly still, the vector functions α and (say) β would never be parallel anywhere on S^2 , and $\beta - (\beta \cdot \alpha)\alpha$ would be a non-vanishing vector field.

The smallest example of R would be $\mathbf{Z}[x,y,z]/(x^2+y^2+z^2-1)$. Whatever we take for R, it is clear that the kernel of $\xi \mapsto \xi - (\xi \cdot \alpha)\alpha$ is exactly $R\alpha$; therefore this map identifies P with an R-module of vector fields on S^2 . Evidently the summands $R\alpha$ and P correspond to the normal and the tangent bundles of the sphere, respectively.

All this works, of course, for spheres of any even dimension.