

( 1 )

( a ) Note that  $\lambda_a$  cannot be both injective and nilpotent. If so, nilpotence gives  $a^n M = a(a^{n-1}M) \subseteq N$ , and injectivity gives  $a^{n-1}M \subseteq N$ . Inductively,  $M \subseteq N$ , so  $M = N$ , contradicting the assumption that  $N$  is proper. Thus if  $N$  is a primary submodule of  $M$ , then  $r_M(N)$  is the set of all  $a \in R$  such that  $\lambda_a$  is not injective. Since  $r_M(N)$  is the radical of an ideal, it is an ideal of  $R$ , and in fact it is a prime ideal. For if  $\lambda_a$  and  $\lambda_b$  fail to be injective, so does  $\lambda_{ab} = \lambda_a \circ \lambda_b$ .

( b ) We may assume that  $k = 2$ ; an induction argument takes care of larger values. Let  $N = N_1 \cap N_2$  and  $r_M(N_1) = r_M(N_2) = P$ . Assume for the moment that  $r_M(N) = P$ . If  $a \in R$ ,  $x \in M$ ,  $ax \in N$ , and  $a \notin r_M(N)$ , then since  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  are  $P$ -primary, we have  $x \in N_1 \cap N_2 = N$ . It remains to show that  $r_M(N) = P$ . If  $a \in P$ , then there are positive integers  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  such that  $a^{n_1}M \subseteq N_1$  and  $a^{n_2}M \subseteq N_2$ . Therefore  $a^{n_1+n_2}M \subseteq N$ , so  $a \in r_M(N)$ . Conversely, if  $a \in r_M(N)$  then  $a$  belongs to  $r_M(N_i)$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , and therefore  $a \in P$ .

( c ) If not, then for some  $a \in R$ ,  $\lambda_a : M/N \rightarrow M/N$  is neither injective nor nilpotent. The chain  $\ker \lambda_a \subseteq \ker \lambda_a^2 \subseteq \ker \lambda_a^3 \subseteq \dots$  terminates by the ascending chain condition, say at  $\ker \lambda_a^i$ . Let  $\varphi = \lambda_a^i$ ; then  $\ker \varphi = \ker \varphi^2$  and we claim that  $\ker \varphi \cap \text{im } \varphi = 0$ . Suppose  $x \in \ker \varphi \cap \text{im } \varphi$ , and let  $x = \varphi(y)$ . Then  $0 = \varphi(x) = \varphi^2(y)$ , so  $y \in \ker \varphi^2 = \ker \varphi$ , so  $x = \varphi(y) = 0$ .

Now  $\lambda_a$  is not injective, so  $\ker \varphi \neq 0$ , and  $\lambda_a$  is not nilpotent, so  $\lambda_a^i$  can't be 0 (because  $a^i M \not\subseteq N$ ). Consequently,  $\text{im } \varphi \neq 0$ .

Let  $p : M \rightarrow M/N$  be the canonical epimorphism, and set  $N_1 = p^{-1}(\ker \varphi)$ ,  $N_2 = p^{-1}(\text{im } \varphi)$ . We will prove that  $N = N_1 \cap N_2$ . If  $x \in N_1 \cap N_2$ , then  $p(x)$  belongs to both  $\ker \varphi$  and  $\text{im } \varphi$ , so  $p(x) = 0$ , in other words,  $x \in N$ . Conversely, if  $x \in N$ , then  $p(x) = 0 \in \ker \varphi \cap \text{im } \varphi$ , so  $x \in N_1 \cap N_2$ .

Finally, we will show that  $N$  is properly contained in both  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ , so  $N$  is reducible, a contradiction. Choose a nonzero element  $y \in \ker \varphi$ . Since  $p$  is surjective, there exists  $x \in M$  such that  $p(x) = y$ . Thus  $x \in p^{-1}(\ker \varphi) = N_1$  (because  $y = p(x) \in \ker \varphi$ ), but  $x \notin N$  (because  $p(x) = y \neq 0$ ). Similarly,  $N \subset N_2$  (with  $0 \neq y \in \text{im } \varphi$ ), and the result follows.

( d ) We will show that  $N$  can be expressed as a finite intersection of irreducible submodules of  $M$ , so that (1.2.4) applies. Let  $\mathcal{S}$  be the collection of all submodules of  $M$  that cannot be expressed in this form. If  $\mathcal{S}$  is nonempty, then  $\mathcal{S}$  has a maximal element  $N$  (because  $M$  is Noetherian). By definition of  $\mathcal{S}$ ,  $N$  must be reducible, so we can write  $N = N_1 \cap N_2$ ,  $N \subset N_1$ ,  $N \subset N_2$ . By maximality of  $N$ ,  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  can be expressed as finite intersections of irreducible submodules, hence so can  $N$ , contradicting  $N \in \mathcal{S}$ . Thus  $\mathcal{S}$  is empty.

( 2 )

( a ) Let  $P$  be an associated prime of  $M$ , so that  $P = \text{ann}(x)$ ,  $x \neq 0$ ,  $x \in M$ . Renumber the  $N_i$  so that  $x \notin N_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq j$  and  $x \in N_i$  for  $j+1 \leq i \leq r$ . Since  $N_i$  is  $P_i$ -primary, we have  $P_i = r_M(N_i)$  (see (1.1.1)). Since  $P_i$  is finitely generated,  $P_i^{n_i}M \subseteq N_i$  for some  $n_i \geq 1$ . Therefore

$$(\bigcap_{i=1}^j P_i^{n_i})x \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^r N_i = (0)$$

so  $\bigcap_{i=1}^j P_i^{n_i} \subseteq \text{ann}(x) = P$ . (By our renumbering, there is a  $j$  rather than an  $r$  on the left side of the inclusion.) Since  $P$  is prime,  $P_i \subseteq P$  for some  $i \leq j$ . We claim that  $P_i = P$ , so that every associated prime must be one of the  $P_i$ . To verify this, let  $a \in P$ . Then  $ax = 0$  and  $x \notin N_i$ , so  $\lambda_a$  is not injective and therefore must be nilpotent. Consequently,  $a \in r_M(N_i) = P_i$ , as claimed.

Conversely, we show that each  $P_i$  is an associated prime. Without loss of generality, we may take  $i = 1$ . Since the decomposition is reduced,  $N_1$  does not contain the intersection of the other  $N_i$ 's, so we can choose  $x \in N_2 \cap \dots \cap N_r$  with  $x \notin N_1$ . Now  $N_1$  is  $P_1$ -primary, so as in the preceding paragraph, for some  $n \geq 1$  we have  $P_1^n x \subseteq N_1$  but  $P_1^{n-1} x \not\subseteq N_1$ . (Take  $P_1^0 x = Rx$  and recall that  $x \notin N_1$ .) If we choose  $y \in P_1^{n-1} x \setminus N_1$  (hence  $y \neq 0$ ), the proof will be complete upon showing that  $P_1$  is the annihilator of  $y$ . We have  $P_1 y \subseteq P_1^n x \subseteq N_1$  and  $x \in \bigcap_{i=2}^r N_i$ , so  $P_1^n x \subseteq \bigcap_{i=2}^r N_i$ . Thus  $P_1 y \subseteq \bigcap_{i=2}^r N_i = (0)$ , so  $P_1 \subseteq \text{ann } y$ . On the other hand, if  $a \in R$  and  $ay = 0$ , then  $ay \in N_1$  but  $y \notin N_1$ , so  $\lambda_a : M/N_1 \rightarrow M/N_1$  is not injective and is therefore nilpotent. Thus  $a \in r_M(N_1) = P_1$ .

( b ) By the correspondence theorem, a reduced primary decomposition of  $(0)$  in  $M/N$  is given by  $(0) = \bigcap_{i=1}^r N_i/N$ , and  $N_i/N$  is  $P_i$ -primary,  $1 \leq i \leq r$ . By ( a ) the associated primes of  $M/N$  are  $\{P_1, \dots, P_r\}$  and are determined by  $N$ .

(3) Za začetek opazimo, da množice  $U(f)$  tvorijo bazo za  $\text{Spec } R$ , saj je  $U(f) \cap U(g) = U(fg)$ . Dalje definirajmo še  $Z(f) := \text{Spec } R \setminus U(f) = \{\mathfrak{p} \in \text{Spec } R \mid f \in \mathfrak{p}\}$  in  $Z(S) := \bigcap_{f \in S} Z(f)$  za  $S \subseteq R$ .

(a) Vzemimo poljubna različna praideaala  $\mathfrak{p}_1, \mathfrak{p}_2 \in \text{Spec } R$ . Velja  $\mathfrak{p}_1 \neq \mathfrak{p}_2$ , brez škode za splošnost  $\mathfrak{p}_1 \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p}_2$ . Za vsak  $f \in \mathfrak{p}_1 \setminus \mathfrak{p}_2$  je  $U(f)$  okolica  $\mathfrak{p}_2$ , ki ne vsebuje  $\mathfrak{p}_1$ . S tem smo dokazali, da je  $\text{Spec } R \in T_0$ .

Ostala nam je torej še kompaktnost prostora  $\text{Spec } R$ . Dokazali bomo nekoliko več, in sicer, da so vse množice  $U(f)$  za  $f \in R$  kompaktne (to zadošča, saj je  $\text{Spec } R = U(1)$ ). Velja:

$$U(f) \subseteq \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} U(g_\lambda) \iff Z(f) \supseteq \bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} Z(g_\lambda) = Z(\{g_\lambda \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\}) = Z(\mathfrak{a}),$$

kjer smo z  $\mathfrak{a}$  označili ideal  $(g_\lambda \mid \lambda \in \Lambda)$ . Sedaj uporabimo, da je  $\text{Rad}(\mathfrak{a}) = \bigcap \{\mathfrak{p} \in \text{Spec } R \mid \mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{p}\}$  in dobimo

$$Z(f) \supseteq Z(\mathfrak{a}) \iff \text{Rad}(f) \subseteq \text{Rad}(\mathfrak{a}) \iff f \in \text{Rad}(\mathfrak{a}).$$

Očitno  $f$  leži v radikalu ideaala  $\mathfrak{a}$ , če  $f^n \in \mathfrak{a}$  za neko naravno število  $n$ . Ker je  $\mathfrak{a}$  generiran z  $g_\lambda$ , lahko zapišemo  $f^n = a_1 g_{\lambda_1} + \dots + a_\ell g_{\lambda_\ell}$  za primerne  $a_i \in R$  in  $\lambda_i \in \Lambda$ . Torej

$$f \in \text{Rad}(\mathfrak{a}) \iff f \in \text{Rad}(g_{\lambda_1}, \dots, g_{\lambda_\ell}) \iff U(f) \subseteq U(g_{\lambda_1}) \cup \dots \cup U(g_{\lambda_\ell}).$$

(b) Vsaka zaprta množica spektra je oblike  $Z(T)$  za neko podmnožico  $T \subseteq R$ . Ocitno lahko predpostavimo, da je  $T = \mathfrak{a} \subset R$  ideal. Enostavno je videti, da je  $Z(\mathfrak{a}) = Z(\text{Rad}(\mathfrak{a}))$ . Predpostavimo sedaj, da je  $Z(\mathfrak{a})$  nerazcepna in je  $\mathfrak{a} = \text{Rad}(\mathfrak{a})$ . Trdimo, da je  $\mathfrak{a}$  praideal. Denimo nasprotno. Tedaj obstajata  $f, g \in R \setminus \mathfrak{a}$  z lastnostjo  $fg \in \mathfrak{a}$ . Sledi  $Z(\mathfrak{a}) \subseteq Z(f) \cup Z(g)$ . Zaradi nerazcepnosti lahko predpostavimo, da je  $Z(\mathfrak{a}) \subseteq Z(f)$ , torej  $f \in \mathfrak{a}$ . Prišli smo v protislovje, torej je  $\mathfrak{a}$  praideal. Očitno pa v tem primeru velja  $Z(\mathfrak{a}) = \{\mathfrak{a}\}$ .

(c) Zgoraj smo dokazali, da so vse množice  $U(f)$  kompaktne in odprte. Po drugi strani pa je vsaka odprta množica unija teh množic. Torej je  $\overset{\circ}{\mathcal{K}}(\text{Spec } R) \subseteq \{U(f_1) \cup \dots \cup U(f_\ell) \mid \ell \in \mathbb{N}, f_i \in R\}$ . Vendar so tudi vse množice na desni strani kompaktne. Torej velja  $\overset{\circ}{\mathcal{K}}(\text{Spec } R) = \{U(f_1) \cup \dots \cup U(f_\ell) \mid \ell \in \mathbb{N}, f_i \in R\}$ . Očitno je  $\overset{\circ}{\mathcal{K}}(\text{Spec } R)$  baza topologije na  $\text{Spec } R$ , ki je zaprta za končne preseke.

(d) Postavimo  $Z := \{0, 1\}^R$ , kjer  $\{0, 1\}$  opremimo z diskretno topologijo,  $Z$  pa s produktno.  $Z$  je očitno povsem nepovezan in  $T_2$ , po izreku Tihonova pa je tudi kompakten. Kot ponavadi, identificiramo funkcijo  $f : R \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  iz  $Z$  s podmnožico  $\{r \in R \mid f(r) = 0\}$  množice  $R$ ; torej je  $Z$  podmnožica potenčne množice od  $R$ . Zato je  $j(\mathfrak{a}) := \mathfrak{a}$  injektivna preslikava  $j : \text{Spec } R \hookrightarrow Z$ . Iz definicije produktne topologije takoj dobimo, da je inducirana topologija na  $\text{Spec } R$  natanko konstruktibilna topologija. Preostane nam le še, da dokažemo, da je  $j(\text{Spec } R)$  zaprta podmnožica  $Z$ . Naj bo  $S \subseteq R$  poljubna množica, ki ni v  $j(\text{Spec } R)$ . Torej  $S$  ni praideal kolobarja  $R$ . V posebnem  $S$  ne izpolnjuje vsaj enega od naslednjih aksiomov:

- (1)  $S + S \subseteq S$ ,
- (2)  $RS \subseteq S$ ,
- (3)  $a \notin S, b \notin S \Rightarrow ab \notin S$  ( $a, b \in R$ ).

Trdimo, da ta aksiom ni izpolnjen tudi v kakšni okolici  $S$  v  $Z$ . Pokažimo to npr. za (3). Obstajata  $a, b \notin S$  z lastnostjo  $ab \in S$ . Potem je  $U := \{T \subseteq R \mid a \notin T, b \notin T, ab \in T\}$  okolica  $S$  v  $Z$ , in aksiom (3) ni izpolnjen za noben  $T \in U$ .

(4) (a) Ker nata  $F, G \in K[X_1, X_2]$  paroma tuja, sta paroma tuja tudi bot polinoma  $F, G \in K(X_1)[X_2]$  (Gaussov izrek). Ker je  $K(X_1)$  obseg, je  $K(X_1)[X_2]$  glavni delobar. Točej obstajata  $a_1, a_2 \in K(X_1)[X_2]$  z lastnostjo  $1 = a_1 F + a_2 G$ . To enako pomenimo s primerom  $d \neq 0$  de  $K[X_1]$ , da  $a_1 d, a_2 d \in K[X_1][X_2]$ . Dobimo  $d = b_1 F + b_2 G$ , kjer  $b_i := a_i d$  ( $i=1,2$ ) in  $d \in K[X_1]$ .

Ker izzemo rezitro sistema  $F=O=G \vee K^2$ , smemo predpostavki, da je  $K$  verbenen.

Če je  $(x_0, y_0)$  rezitru načega sistema, ji  $d(x_0) = 0$ . Ker ji  $d \neq 0$ , ima (bot polinom  $L$  spremenljivde) le končno mnogo vičel. Skupaj z dejstvom, da pri fiksnem  $x_0$  obstaja brezjem končno teč oblike  $(x_0, y)$ , ki rezijo naš sistem (tukaj uporabimo, da sta  $F$  in  $G$  paroma tega in je obseg  $K$  verbenen), to implicira, da ima sistem  $F=O=G \vee K^2$  brezjem končno mnogo reziter.

(b) Najprej uporabimo, da so vse ideali n (i), (ii) in (iii) res pravilni. Naj bo sedaj ne polj pravi, vetrinialni pravidele v  $K[X, Y]$ . Po Bernissatovi je težlobam noetherki, torej je  $\{f_1, \dots, f_r\}$  za primerne  $f_j \in K[X, Y]$ . Najprej dokazimo, da imamo pravilo, da je  $fg = (f_1, \dots, f_r)$  za primerne  $f_j \in K[X, Y]$ . Najprej dokazimo, da imamo pravilo, da so vse  $f_j$  veracepi. Če to ni res, potem je npr.  $f_j = g_1 \dots g_p$  npr.  $f_j$  na neveracepne faktorje. Ker  $f_j \in fg$ , obstaja k, da je  $g_k \in fg$ . Toda pa je  $fg = (f_1, \dots, f_{j-1}, g_k, f_{j+1}, \dots, f_r)$ , in  $p > 1$ . Ker  $f_j \in fg$ , obstaja k, da je  $g_k \in fg$ . Toda pa je  $fg = (f_1, \dots, f_{j-1}, g_k, f_{j+1}, \dots, f_r)$ .

Če je  $r=1$ , potem je  $fg$  oblike (ii). Če je  $r>1$ , potem sta  $f_1$  in  $f_2$  paroma tuja (saj smo predpostavili, da so vse  $f_i$  veracepi). Zdaj uporabimo dejstvo, da je obraz  $K$  algebračno pravilo, da so vse  $f_i$  veracepi). Zdaj uporabimo dejstvo, da je obraz  $K$  algebraično pravilo, da so vse  $f_i$  veracepi). Zdaj uporabimo dejstvo, da je obraz  $K$  algebraično pravilo, da so vse  $f_i$  veracepi). Zdaj uporabimo dejstvo, da je obraz  $K$  algebraično pravilo, da so vse  $f_i$  veracepi). Zdaj uporabimo dejstvo, da je obraz  $K$  algebraično pravilo, da so vse  $f_i$  veracepi).

Zaprav je  $fg$  pravidel, je singleton, npr.  $\{(f_1, f_2)\}$ . Ponovno uporabimo dejstvo, da je obraz  $K$  algebraično pravilo, da so vse  $f_i$  veracepi).

V-T brespondenca in dobimo  $fg = (X-f_1, Y-f_2)$ .

(c) Tač pravideal obstaja, npr.  $fg = (X^2+1, Y)$ .  $fg$  je pravideal, saj je  $R[X, Y]/fg \cong \mathbb{C}$ .