# COMMUTATIVE ALGEBRA NOTES

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# 1. INTRODUCTION

In this lecture, we consider a (Noetherian) commutative ring R with identity element.

I will assume that students know about basic definitions and properties of rings, ideals, modules, morphisms (e.g. Chapter 1–3 of [1]). Our main textbook is [2]. We will cover selected topics in order to serve the lecture of geometry of syzygies ([2, Section 17–19]).

1.1. Nakayama's lemma. The Jacobson radical J(R) of R is the intersection of all maximal ideals. Note that  $y \in J(R)$  iff 1 - xy is a unit in R for every  $x \in R$ .

**Theorem 1.1** (Nakayama's lemma). Let I be an ideal contained in the Jacobson radical of R, and M a finitely generated R-module. If IM = M, then M = 0.

**Lemma 1.2.** Let I be an R-ideal and M a finitely generated R-module. If IM = M, then there exists  $y \in I$  such that (1 - y)M = 0.

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Proof. This is a consequence of the Caylay–Hamilton theorem. Consider  $m_1, \ldots, m_n$  a set of generators in M, then there exists an  $n \times n$  matrix A with coefficients in I such that  $(m_1, \ldots, m_n)^T = A(m_1, \ldots, m_n)^T$ . Set  $\mathbf{m} = (m_1, \ldots, m_n)^T$ . Hence  $(I_n - A)\mathbf{m} = 0$ . Note that  $\operatorname{adj}(I_n - A)(I_n - A) = \operatorname{det}(I_n - A)I_n$ , we know that  $\operatorname{det}(I_n - A)\mathbf{m} = 0$ , that is,  $\operatorname{det}(I_n - A)m_i = 0$  for all i. This implies that  $\operatorname{det}(I_n - A)M = 0$ .

**Example 1.3.** If we do not assume that M is finitely generated, this is not true. For example, consider  $R = k[[x]], M = k[[x, x^{-1}]].$ 

**Corollary 1.4.** Let I be an ideal contained in the Jacobson radical of R, and M a finitely generated R-module. If N + IM = M for some submodule  $N \subset M$ , then M = N.

*Proof.* Apply Nakayama's lemma to M/N.

**Corollary 1.5.** Let  $(R, \mathfrak{m})$  be a local ring and M a finitely generated R-module. Consider  $m_1, \ldots, m_n \in M$ . If  $\overline{m}_1, \ldots, \overline{m}_n \in M/\mathfrak{m}M$  is a basis (as a  $R/\mathfrak{m}$ -vector space), then  $m_1, \ldots, m_n$  generates M (which is also a minimal set of generators.)

*Proof.* Apply Corollary 1.4 to N the submodule generated by  $m_1, \ldots, m_n$ .

#### 1.2. Noetherian rings.

**Definition 1.6** (Noetherian ring). A ring R is *Noetherian* if one of the following equivalent conditions holds:

- (1) Every non-empty set of ideals has a maximal element;
- (2) The set of ideals satisfies the ascending chain condition (ACC);
- (3) Every ideal is finitely generated.

In this lecture, we assume all rings are Noetherian and all modules are finitely generated for simplicity.

**Theorem 1.7** (Hilbert basis theorem). If R is Noetherian, then R[x] is Noetherian.

Idea of proof. Consider  $I \subset R[x]$  an ideal. Consider  $J \subset R$  the leading coefficients of I, then J is finitely generated. We may assume that J is generated by the leading coefficients of  $f_1, \ldots, f_n \in R[x]$ . Take I' be the ideal generated by  $f_1, \ldots, f_n$ , then it is easy to see that any  $f \in I$  can be written as f = f' + g with  $f' \in I'$  and  $\deg g < \max_i \{\deg f_i\} = r$ . So

$$I = I \cap (R \oplus Rx \oplus \dots \oplus Rx^{r-1}) + I'$$

is finitely generated. (Check that  $I \cap (R \oplus Rx \oplus \cdots \oplus Rx^{r-1})$  is finitely generated!)  $\Box$ 

**Example 1.8.** Any quotient of polynomial ring  $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]/I$  is Noetherian.

1.3. Associated primes. We will use the notion (A : B) to define the set  $\{a \mid aB \subset A\}$  whenever it makes sense. For example, if  $N, N' \subset M$  are R-modules and I an ideal, then we can define (N : I) as a submodule of M, and (N' : N) an ideal. Usually the set (0 : N) is denoted by  $\operatorname{ann}(N)$  and called the *annihilator* of N, that is, the set of elements whose multiplication action kills N.

**Definition 1.9** (Associated prime). A prime P of R is associated to M if  $P = \operatorname{ann}(x)$  for some  $x \in M$ .

Associated primes are important in the primary decomposition. But here we mainly focus on its relation with zero-divisors.

**Theorem 1.10.** Let R be a Noetherian ring and M a finitely generated R-module. Then the union of associated primes to M consists of zero and zero-divisors. Moreover, there are only finitely many associated primes.

*Proof.* We want to show that

a

$$\bigcup_{\operatorname{nn}(x): \operatorname{prime}} \operatorname{ann}(x) = \bigcup_{x \neq 0} \operatorname{ann}(x).$$

So it suffices to show that if  $\operatorname{ann}(y)$  is maximal among all  $\operatorname{ann}(x)$ , then  $\operatorname{ann}(y)$  is prime. Consider  $rs \in \operatorname{ann}(y)$  such that  $s \notin \operatorname{ann}(y)$ , then rsy = 0 but  $sy \neq 0$ . We know that  $\operatorname{ann}(y) \subset \operatorname{ann}(sy)$ , so equality holds by maximality. This implies that  $r \in \operatorname{ann}(y)$ .

To prove the finiteness, we only outline the idea here. Denote Ass(M) the set of associated primes. Then it is not hard to see that for a short exact sequence

$$0 \to M' \to M \to M'' \to 0,$$

we have

$$\operatorname{Ass}(M') \subset \operatorname{Ass}(M) \subset \operatorname{Ass}(M') \cup \operatorname{Ass}(M'').$$

So inductively we get the finiteness.

A

*Remark* 1.11. Another fact is that if P is a prime minimal among all primes containing  $\operatorname{ann}(M)$ , then P is an associated prime.

**Corollary 1.12.** Let R be a Noetherian ring and M a finitely generated R-module. Let I be an ideal. Then either I contains a non zero-divisor on M, or I annihilated a non-zero element of M.

*Proof.* Suppose that I contains only zero-divisors on M, then by Theorem 1.10,  $I \subset \bigcup_{\operatorname{ann}(x): \text{prime}} \operatorname{ann}(x)$ . So the conclusion follows from the following easy lemma.

**Lemma 1.13.** Let I be an ideal and let  $P_1, \ldots, P_n$  be primes of R. If  $I \subset \bigcup_i P_i$ , then  $I \subset P_i$  for some i.

1.4. Tensor products and Tor. Let M, N be R-modules, the *tensor prod*uct  $M \otimes N$  is defined by the module generated by

$$\{m \otimes n \mid m \in M, n \in N\},\$$

modulo relations

$$(m+m')\otimes n=m\otimes n+m'\otimes n;$$

$$m \otimes (n+n') = m \otimes n + m \otimes n';$$
  
(rm)  $\otimes n = m \otimes (rn) = r(m \otimes n)$ 

for  $m \in M, n \in N, r \in R$ . It can be characterized by the universal property that if  $f: M \times N \to P$  is an *R*-bilinear map, then there exists a unique  $g: M \otimes N \to P$  such that f factors through g.

Example 1.14. (1)  $M \otimes R \simeq M, \ M \otimes R^n \simeq M^n;$ (2)  $M \otimes R/I \simeq M/IM;$ (2)  $(M \otimes R/I \simeq M/IM;$ 

(3)  $(M \otimes_R N)_P \simeq M_P \otimes_{R_P} N_P.$ 

**Proposition 1.15.**  $(-\otimes N)$  is a right-exact functor. If

$$M' \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M'' \to 0$$

is a exact sequence of R-modules, then

$$M' \otimes N \xrightarrow{f \otimes 1} M \otimes N \xrightarrow{g \otimes 1} M'' \otimes N \to 0$$

is exact.

**Definition 1.16** (Flat module). N is *flat* if  $(- \otimes N)$  is an exact functor, that is, if

$$0 \to M' \to M \to M'' \to 0$$

is a exact sequence of R-modules, then

$$0 \to M' \otimes N \to M \otimes N \to M'' \otimes N \to 0$$

is exact.

To study flatness, we need to introduce Tor from homological algebra.

**Definition 1.17** (Projective module). An *R*-module *M* is *projective* if for any surjective map  $f : N_1 \to N_2$  and any map  $g : M \to N_2$ , there exists  $h: M \to N_1$  such that  $f \circ h = g$ .

Example 1.18. Free modules are flat and projective.

**Definition 1.19** (Complexes and homologies). A *complex* of *R*-modules is a sequence of *R*-modules with (differential) homomorphisms

$$\mathcal{F}: \dots \to F_{i+1} \xrightarrow{\delta_{i+1}} F_i \xrightarrow{\delta_i} F_{i-1} \to \dots$$

such that  $\delta_i \delta_{i+1} = 0$  for each *i*. Denote the homology to be  $H_i(\mathcal{F}) = \ker(\delta_i)/\operatorname{im}(\delta_{i+1})$ . We say that  $\mathcal{F}$  is exact at degree *i* if  $H_i(\mathcal{F}) = 0$ . A morphism of complexes  $\phi : \mathcal{F} \to \mathcal{G}$  is given by  $\phi_i : F_i \to G_i$  commuting with differentials, that is, we have a commutative diagram

$$\mathcal{F}: \qquad \dots \longrightarrow F_{i+1} \longrightarrow F_i \longrightarrow F_{i-1} \longrightarrow \dots$$
$$\downarrow \phi_{i+1} \qquad \qquad \downarrow \phi_i \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \phi_{i-1}$$
$$\mathcal{G}: \qquad \dots \longrightarrow G_{i+1} \longrightarrow G_i \longrightarrow G_{i-1} \longrightarrow \dots$$

This naturally gives morphisms between homologies  $\phi_i : H_i(\mathcal{F}) \to H_i(\mathcal{G})$ .

**Definition 1.20** (Projective resolution). A projective resolution of an R-module M is a complex of projective modules

$$\mathcal{F}:\cdots\to F_n\to\cdots\to F_1\xrightarrow{\phi_1}F_0$$

which is exact and  $coker(\phi_1) = M$ . Sometimes we also denote it by

 $\mathcal{F}: \dots \to F_n \to \dots \to F_1 \xrightarrow{\phi_1} F_0(\to M \to 0).$ 

**Definition 1.21** (Left derived functor). Let T be a right-exact functor. Given a projective resolution of an R-module M:

$$\mathcal{F}: \dots \to F_n \to \dots \to F_1 \xrightarrow{\phi_1} F_0(\to M \to 0).$$

Define the *left derived functor* by  $L_iT(M) := H_i(T\mathcal{F})$ , which is just the homology of

$$T\mathcal{F}: \dots \to T(F_n) \to \dots \to T(F_1) \to T(F_0) (\to T(M) \to 0).$$

We collect basic properties of derived functors here.

**Proposition 1.22.** (1)  $L_0T(M) = T(M);$ 

- (2)  $L_iT(M)$  is independent of the choice of projective resolution;
- (3) If M is projective, then  $L_iT(M) = 0$  for i > 0.
- (4) For a short exact sequence of *R*-modules

$$0 \to A \to B \to C \to 0,$$

we have a long exact sequence

**Definition 1.23** (Tor). For an *R*-module *N*,  $\operatorname{Tor}_{i}^{R}(-, N)$  is defined by  $L_{i}T(-)$  where  $T = (- \otimes N)$ .

Remark 1.24. So to compute  $\operatorname{Tor}_{i}^{R}(M, N)$ , we should pick a projective resolution  $\mathcal{F}$  of M and compute  $H_{i}(\mathcal{F} \otimes N)$ . Note that tensor products are symmetric, that is,  $M \otimes N \simeq N \otimes M$ , it can be seen that  $\operatorname{Tor}_{i}^{R}(M, N) \simeq \operatorname{Tor}_{i}^{R}(N, M)$ , and  $\operatorname{Tor}_{i}^{R}(M, N)$  can be also computed by pick a projective resolution  $\mathcal{G}$  of N and compute  $H_{i}(M \otimes \mathcal{G})$ .

# Theorem 1.25. TFAE:

- (1) N is flat;
- (2)  $\operatorname{Tor}_{i}^{R}(M,N) = 0$  for all i > 0 and all M;
- (3)  $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, N) = 0$  for all M.

*Proof.* (1)  $\implies$  (2): take a projective resolution  $\mathcal{F}$  of M, we need to compute  $H_i(\mathcal{F} \otimes N)$ . As N is flat,  $\mathcal{F} \otimes N$  is exact, hence  $\operatorname{Tor}_i^R(M, N) = 0$  for all i > 0.

(2)  $\implies$  (3): trivial.

 $(3) \implies (1)$ : this follows from the long exact sequence

$$\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M'',N) \to M' \otimes N \to M \otimes N \to M'' \otimes N \to 0.$$

#### 2. Koszul complexes and regular sequences

# 2.1. Regular sequences.

**Definition 2.1** (Regular sequence). Let R be a ring and M an R-module. A sequence of elements  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in R$  is called a *regular sequence* on M (or M-sequence) if

- (1)  $(x_1,\ldots,x_n)M \neq M;$
- (2) For each  $1 \le i \le n$ ,  $x_i$  is not a zero-divisor on  $M/(x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1})M$ .

**Definition 2.2** (Depth). Let R be a ring, I an ideal, and M an R-module. Suppose  $IM \neq M$ . The *depth* of I on M, depth(I, M), is defined by the maximal length of M-sequences in I.

Remark 2.3. (1) If M = R, then simply denote depth I := depth(I, M).
(2) We will see soon (Theorem 2.15) that any maximal M-sequence has the same length.

**Example 2.4.** If  $R = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ , then  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  is a regular sequence. We will see soon that depth $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = n$ .

Remark 2.5. The depth measures the size of an ideal, and an element in the regular sequence corresponds to a hypersurface in geometry. So a regular sequence in I corresponds to a set of hypersurface containing V(I) intersecting each other "properly". Consider for example R = k[x, y] or k[x, y]/(xy), I = (x, y).

### 2.2. Koszul complexes.

**Definition 2.6** (Complexes and homologies). A *complex* of *R*-modules is a sequence of *R*-modules with homomorphisms

$$\mathcal{F}: \dots \to M_{i-1} \xrightarrow{\delta_{i-1}} M_i \xrightarrow{\delta_i} M_{i+1} \to \dots$$

such that  $\delta_i \delta_{i-1} = 0$  for each *i*. Denote the *(co)homology* to be  $H^i(\mathcal{F}) = \ker(\delta_i)/\operatorname{im}(\delta_{i-1})$ .

We will introduce Koszul complexes and explain how regular sequences are related to Koszul complexes.

**Example 2.7** (Koszul complex of length 1). Given  $x \in R$ . The Koszul complex of length 1 is given by

$$K(x): 0 \to R \xrightarrow{x} R \to 0.$$

Note that  $H^0(K(x)) = (0:x), H^1(K(x)) = R/xR$ . Then x is an R-sequence if (1)  $H^1(K(x)) \neq 0$ ; (2)  $H^0(K(x)) = 0$ .

**Example 2.8** (Koszul complex of length 2). Given  $x, y \in R$ . The Koszul complex of length 2 is given by

$$K(x,y): 0 \to R \xrightarrow{\begin{pmatrix} y \\ x \end{pmatrix}} R^{\oplus 2} \xrightarrow{\begin{pmatrix} -x & y \end{pmatrix}} R \to 0$$

Note that  $H^0(K(x,y)) = (0 : (x,y))$ .  $H^2(K(x,y)) = R/(x,y)R$ . We can compute  $H^1(K(x,y))$  (Exercise). It turns out that if x is not a zero-divisor in R, then  $H^1(K(x,y)) \simeq (x : y)/(x)$ . So  $H^1(K(x,y)) = 0$  if and only if y is not a zero-divisor of R/(x). In conclusion, x, y is an R-sequence if (1)  $H^2(K(x,y)) \neq 0$ ; (2)  $H^0(K(x,y)) = H^1(K(x,y)) = 0$ .

**Theorem 2.9.** Let  $(R, \mathfrak{m})$  be a local ring and  $x, y \in \mathfrak{m}$ . Then x, y is a regular sequence iff  $H^1(K(x, y)) = 0$ . In particular, x, y is a regular sequence iff y, x is a regular sequence.

*Proof.* This is not a direct consequence of the above argument, as we need to show that x is a non-zero-divisor (equivalent to  $H^0(K(x)) = 0$ ). Write K(x, y) as the following:

$$0 \longrightarrow R \xrightarrow{x} R \xrightarrow{x} R \longrightarrow 0$$

$$y \bigoplus y \bigoplus y$$

$$0 \longrightarrow R \xrightarrow{-x} R \longrightarrow 0.$$

Then this gives a short exact sequence of complexes

$$\begin{split} K(x)[-1]: & 0 \longrightarrow R \xrightarrow{-x} R \longrightarrow 0 \\ & \downarrow & \downarrow_{i_2} & \downarrow_1 \\ K(x,y): 0 \longrightarrow R \longrightarrow R^2 \longrightarrow R \longrightarrow 0 \\ & \downarrow_1 & \downarrow_{p_1} & \downarrow \\ K(x): 0 \longrightarrow R \xrightarrow{x} R \longrightarrow 0 \end{split}$$

That is,

$$0 \to K(x)[-1] \to K(x,y) \to K(x) \to 0.$$

Then this induces a long exact sequences of homologies

$$H^0(K(x)) \xrightarrow{y} H^0(K(x)) \to H^1(K(x,y)) \to H^1(K(x)).$$

So  $H^1(K(x,y)) = 0$  implies that  $yH^0(K(x)) = H^0(K(x))$ , which means that  $H^0(K(x)) = 0$  by Nakayama's lemma.

**Corollary 2.10.** Let  $(R, \mathfrak{m})$  be a local ring and  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathfrak{m}$ . Suppose that  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  is a regular sequence, then any permutation of  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  is again a regular sequence. (Exercise.)

We will define Koszul complexes and show this correspondence in general.

**Definition 2.11** (Exterior algebra). Let N be an R-module. Denote the *tensor algebra* 

$$T(N) = R \oplus N \oplus (N \otimes N) \oplus \dots$$

The exterior algebra  $\bigwedge N = \bigoplus_m \bigwedge^m N$  is defined by T(N) modulo the relations  $x \otimes x$  (and hence  $x \otimes y + y \otimes x$ ) for  $x, y \in N$ . The product of  $a, b \in \bigwedge N$  is written as  $a \wedge b$ .

**Definition 2.12** (Koszul complex). Let N be an R-module,  $x \in N$ . Define the Koszul complex to be

$$K(x): 0 \to R \to N \to \bigwedge^2 N \to \dots \to \bigwedge^i N \xrightarrow{d_x} \bigwedge^{i+1} N \to \dots$$

where  $d_x$  sends a to  $x \wedge a$ . If  $N \simeq \mathbb{R}^n$  is a free module of rank n (we always consider this situation) and  $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then we denote K(x) by  $K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ .

Remark 2.13. (1) The  $R \to N$  maps 1 to x.

(2) Consider  $N = R^2$  (with basis  $e_1, e_2$ ) and  $x = (x_1, x_2)$ , then  $\bigwedge^2 N \simeq R$ (with bases  $e_1 \land e_2$ ), and the map  $N \to \bigwedge^2 N$  is given by  $e_1 \mapsto (x_1e_1 + x_2e_2) \land e_1 = -x_2e_1 \land e_2$  and  $e_2 \mapsto x_1e_1 \land e_2$ . In other words,

$$K(x_1, x_2): 0 \to R \xrightarrow{\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}} R^{\oplus 2} \xrightarrow{\begin{pmatrix} -x_2 & x_1 \end{pmatrix}} R \to 0.$$

**Example 2.14.**  $H^n(K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = R/(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ . Consider the corresponding complex

$$\bigwedge^{n-1} N \xrightarrow{d_x} \bigwedge^n N \to \bigwedge^{n+1} N = 0$$

Denote  $e_1, \ldots, e_n$  to be a basis of  $N \simeq R^n$ , then the basis of  $\bigwedge^n N$  is just  $e_1 \land \cdots \land e_n$ , and the basis of  $\bigwedge^{n-1} N$  is  $e_1 \land \cdots \land \hat{e}_i \land \cdots \land e_n$   $(1 \le i \le n)$ .  $d_x$  maps  $e_1 \land \cdots \land \hat{e}_i \land \cdots \land e_n$  to  $(-1)^{i-1} x_i e_1 \land \cdots \land e_n$ . So  $\operatorname{im} d_x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  and  $H^n(K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = R/(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ .

2.3. Koszul complexes versus regular sequences. Now we can state the main theorem of this section.

**Theorem 2.15.** Let M be a finitely generated R-module. If

$$H^{j}(M \otimes K(x_1, \dots, x_n)) = 0$$

for j < r and  $H^r(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) \neq 0$ , then every maximal M-sequence in  $I = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \subset R$  has length r.

*Idea of proof.* Firstly, we consider the case that  $x_1, \ldots, x_s$  is a maximal *M*-sequence. In this case it is natural to prove this case by induction on n and s.

In order to reduce the general case to this case, we consider  $y_1, \ldots, y_s$  a maximal *M*-sequence, and consider  $H^j(M \otimes K(y_1, \ldots, y_s, x_1, \ldots, x_n))$ .

So to deal with both cases, we need to investigate the relation between  $K(y_1, \ldots, y_s, x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  and  $K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  and the relation of their homologies.

**Corollary 2.16.** If  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  is an M-sequence, then  $H^j(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = 0$  for j < n and  $H^n(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = M/(x_1, \ldots, x_n)M$ .

*Proof.* By definition, depth $(I, M) \ge n$ , so  $H^j(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = 0$  for j < n. On the other hand,

$$H^{n}(M \otimes K(x_{1}, ..., x_{n})) = \operatorname{coker}(M \otimes \bigwedge^{n-1} N \to M \otimes \bigwedge^{n} N)$$
$$= M \otimes \operatorname{coker}(\bigwedge^{n-1} N \to \bigwedge^{n} N)$$
$$= M \otimes R/(x_{1}, ..., x_{n}) = M/(x_{1}, ..., x_{n})M.$$

Here we use the fact that  $M \otimes -$  is right-exact.

Theorem 2.15 can be strengthen for local rings.

**Theorem 2.17.** Let  $(R, \mathfrak{m})$  be a local ring,  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathfrak{m}$ . Let M be a finitely generated R-module. If  $H^k(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = 0$  for some k, then  $H^j(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = 0$  for all j < r. Moreover, if  $H^{n-1}(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = 0$ , then  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  is an M-sequence.

**Corollary 2.18.** If R is local and  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  is a proper ideal containing an M-sequence of length n, then  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  is an M-sequence.

Proof.  $H^n(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = M/(x_1, \ldots, x_n)M \neq 0$  by Nakayama's lemma. Take r minimal such that  $H^r(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) \neq 0$ , then every maximal M-sequence in  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  has length r, which implies that  $r \geq n$ . So  $H^{n-1}(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = 0$  and  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  is an M-sequence.  $\Box$ 

### 2.4. Operations on Koszul complexes.

**Definition 2.19** (Tensor product of two complexes). Given two complexes

$$\mathcal{F}: \dots \to F_i \xrightarrow{\phi_i} F_{i+1} \to \dots;$$
$$\mathcal{G}: \dots \to G_i \xrightarrow{\psi_i} G_{i+1} \to \dots$$

define the tensor product

$$\mathcal{F} \otimes \mathcal{G} : \dots \to \bigoplus_{i+j=k} F_i \otimes G_j \xrightarrow{d_k} \bigoplus_{i+j=k+1} F_i \otimes G_j \to \dots,$$
  
the map  $F_i \otimes G_j \to F_{i'} \otimes G_{j'}$  is 
$$\begin{cases} \phi_i \otimes 1 & \text{if } i' = i+1; \\ (-1)^i 1 \otimes \psi_j & \text{if } j' = j+1; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

dd = 0.)

where

**Definition 2.20** (Shift). Given a complex

$$\mathcal{F}: \cdots \to F_i \xrightarrow{\phi_i} F_{i+1} \to \ldots;$$

Denote  $\mathcal{F}[n]$  to be the complex obtained by shifting  $\mathcal{F}$  (to the left) n times. That is,  $\mathcal{F}[n]_i = \mathcal{F}_{n+i}$ , and the differential is multiplied by  $(-1)^n$ . Denote R[n] to be the simple complex whose n-th position is R. Note that  $\mathcal{F}[n] = R[n] \otimes \mathcal{F}$ .

**Definition 2.21** (Mapping cone). For  $y \in R$ , consider  $\mathcal{F} = K(y)$ , that is,

$$\mathcal{F}: 0 \to R \xrightarrow{g} R \to 0.$$

Then there is a natural exact sequence of complexes

(

$$0 \to R[-1] \to \mathcal{F} \to R \to 0.$$

Tensoring a complex  $\mathcal{G}$ , this gives an exact sequence

 $0 \to \mathcal{G}[-1] \to \mathcal{F} \otimes \mathcal{G} \to \mathcal{G} \to 0.$ 

Here  $\mathcal{F} \otimes \mathcal{G}$  is the mapping cone of the map  $\mathcal{G} \xrightarrow{y} \mathcal{G}$ , in fact, it is given by

From this exact sequence, we get a long exact sequence of homologies

$$\cdots \to H^{i-1}(\mathcal{G}) \xrightarrow{y} H^{i-1}(\mathcal{G}) \to H^i(\mathcal{F} \otimes \mathcal{G}) \to H^i(\mathcal{G}) \xrightarrow{y} \dots$$

Here note that  $H^{i-1}(\mathcal{G}) = H^i(\mathcal{G}[-1]).$ 

**Proposition 2.22.** If  $N = N' \oplus N''$ , then  $\bigwedge N = \bigwedge N' \otimes \bigwedge N''$ . If  $x' \in N$  and  $x'' \in N''$ , take  $x = (x', x'') \in N$ , then  $K(x) = K(x') \otimes K(x'')$ .

Proof. Note that here the (skew-commutative) algebra structure of  $\bigwedge N'\otimes \bigwedge N''$  is given by

$$(a \otimes b) \wedge (a' \otimes b') = (-1)^{\deg a' \deg b} ((a \wedge a') \otimes (b \wedge b'))$$

for homogenous elements. This is just linear algebra. It suffices to check the differentials coincide, that is, for  $y' \in \bigwedge N', y'' \in \bigwedge N'', x \land (y' \otimes y'') =$  $(x' \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes x'') \land (y' \otimes y'') = (x' \land y') \otimes y'' + (-1)^{\deg y'}y' \otimes (x'' \land y'').$ 

**Corollary 2.23.** If  $y_1, \ldots, y_r$  are elements in  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  and M is an R-module, then

$$H^*(M \otimes K(x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_r)) \simeq H^*(M \otimes K(x_1, \dots, x_n)) \otimes \bigwedge R^r$$

as graded modules, which means that

$$H^{i}(M \otimes K(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{r})) \simeq \bigoplus_{j+k=i} H^{j}(M \otimes K(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n})) \otimes \bigwedge^{k} R^{r}.$$

So  $H^i(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n, y_1, \ldots, y_r)) = 0$  iff  $H^j(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = 0$ for any  $i - r \leq j \leq i$ .

Proof. As  $y_1, \ldots, y_r$  are elements in  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ , there is an isomorphism  $R^n \oplus R^r \simeq R^n \oplus R^r$ 

sending  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n, y_1, \ldots, y_n)$  to  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n, 0, \ldots, 0)$ . So by functoriality of Koszul complex,

$$K(x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_r) \simeq K(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0, \dots, 0)$$
$$\simeq K(x_1, \dots, x_n) \otimes K(0, \dots, 0)$$

Here

$$K(0,\ldots,0): 0 \to R \xrightarrow{0} \bigwedge^2 R^r \xrightarrow{0} \ldots \xrightarrow{0} \bigwedge^r R^r \to 0.$$

**Corollary 2.24.** If  $x = (x', y) \in N = N' \oplus R$ , then K(x) is isomorphic to the mapping cone of  $K(x') \xrightarrow{y} K(x')$ . In particular, we have a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \to H^{i}(M \otimes K(x')) \xrightarrow{y} H^{i}(M \otimes K(x')) \to H^{i+1}(M \otimes K(x)) \to$$
$$\to H^{i+1}(M \otimes K(x')) \xrightarrow{y} H^{i+1}(M \otimes K(x')) \to \dots$$

*Proof.* Note that  $N' \oplus R \simeq R \oplus N'$ . Hence  $K(x) \simeq K(y, x') = K(y) \otimes K(x')$ . This gives a short exact sequence

$$0 \to K(x')[-1] \to K(x) \to K(x') \to 0.$$

Tensoring with M, we get

$$0 \to M \otimes K(x')[-1] \to M \otimes K(x) \to M \otimes K(x') \to 0.$$

(Why exact?).

2.5. **Proof of the main theorems.** The following is a more precise version.

**Corollary 2.25.** If  $x_1, \ldots, x_i$  is an *M*-sequence, then

$$H^{i}(M \otimes K(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n})) = ((x_{1}, \dots, x_{i})M : (x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}))/(x_{1}, \dots, x_{i})M.$$

In particular, in this case,  $H^j(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = 0$  for j < i. If  $IM \neq M$  $(I = (x_1, \ldots, x_n))$  and  $x_1, \ldots, x_i$  is a maximal M-sequence, then  $H^i(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) \neq 0$ .

*Proof.* We do induction on i. If i = 0 this is trivial. If i > 0, then we do induction on n. If n = i, this follows easily by Example 2.14. If n > i, then by Corollary 2.24, there is an exact sequence

$$H^{i-1}(M \otimes K(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})) \to H^i(M \otimes K(x_1, \dots, x_n)) \to$$
  
$$\to H^i(M \otimes K(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})) \xrightarrow{x_n} H^i(M \otimes K(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}))$$

Here by induction,

$$H^{i-1}(M \otimes K(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})) = ((x_1, \dots, x_{i-1})M : (x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}))/(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1})M = 0$$

as  $x_i$  is not a zeo-divisor of  $M/(x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1})M$  (this also proves the second statement). Hence  $H^i(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n))$  is just the kernel of

$$H^{i}(M \otimes K(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1})) \xrightarrow{x_{n}} H^{i}(M \otimes K(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1})).$$

By induction,

$$H^{i}(M \otimes K(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n-1})) = ((x_{1}, \dots, x_{i})M : (x_{1}, \dots, x_{n-1}))/(x_{1}, \dots, x_{i})M,$$

so it easy to compute the kernel.

To show the last statement, note that I is contained in the set of zerodivisors on  $M/(x_1, \ldots, x_i)M$ , so I is contained in the union of associated primes and hence  $I \subset \operatorname{ann}(x)$  for some non-zero  $x \in M/(x_1, \ldots, x_i)M$  by Corollary 1.12. This implies that  $((x_1, \ldots, x_i)M : I)/(x_1, \ldots, x_i)M \neq 0$ .  $\Box$ 

*Proof of Theorem 2.15.* Let  $y_1, \ldots, y_s$  be a maximal *M*-sequence and *r* be the minimal such that

$$H^r(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) \neq 0.$$

The goal is to show that r = s.

By Corollary 2.23, r is the minimal such that

$$H^r(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n, y_1, \ldots, y_s)) \neq 0.$$

If  $IM \neq M$ , then by Corollary 2.25, r = s. So it suffices to show that  $IM \neq M$ . This follows from Lemma 2.26(2) and the nonvanishing of homologies.

**Lemma 2.26.** (1) If  $y \in (x_1, ..., x_n)$ , then  $H^j(M \otimes K(x_1, ..., x_n))$  is annihilated by y for any M and any j.

(2) If  $(x_1, ..., x_n)M = M$ , then  $H^j(M \otimes K(x_1, ..., x_n)) = 0$  for any j.

*Proof.* (1) Here we give a different proof from the book (which uses dual Koszul complex). Note that by Corollary 2.24, there is a long exact sequence

$$H^{j}(M \otimes K(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}, y)) \to H^{j}(M \otimes K(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n})) \xrightarrow{y} H^{j}(M \otimes K(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n})).$$

So the statement is equivalent to that the first arrow is surjective. By the proof of Corollary 2.23, this arrow splits.

(2) Replacing R by  $R/\operatorname{ann}(M)$  will not change  $M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ , so we may assume that  $\operatorname{ann}(M) = 0$ . By  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)M = M$  and Lemma 1.2, there is  $y \in (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  such that (1 - y)M = 0, which implies that  $y = 1 \in (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ . Then apply (1).

Proof of Theorem 2.17. We prove the first statement by induction on n. Suppose  $H^k(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = 0$ , then by Corollary 2.24,

$$H^{k-1}(M \otimes K(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})) \xrightarrow{x_n} H^{k-1}(M \otimes K(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}))$$

is surjective. Then by Nakayama's lemma,  $H^{k-1}(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1})) = 0$ . By induction,  $H^j(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1})) = 0$  for  $j \leq k-1$ . By the long exact sequence in Corollary 2.24,  $H^j(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = 0$  for  $j \leq k-1$ .

We prove the second statement by induction on n. Suppose  $H^{n-1}(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = 0$ , then as above,  $H^{n-2}(M \otimes K(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1})) = 0$ , which implies that  $x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}$  is an M-sequence by induction. Then by Corollary 2.25,

$$0 = H^{n-1}(M \otimes K(x_1, \dots, x_n)) = ((x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})M : (x_1, \dots, x_n))/(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})M$$

which implies that  $x_n$  is not a zero-divisor of  $M/(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1})M$ .

### 3. Dimensions and depths

In this section we introduce fundamental theory on dimension and depth, which are basic invariants measuring size of a ring or an ideal. 3.1. **Dimension theory.** Recall that the *length* of a chain  $P_r \supset P_{r-1} \supset \cdots \supset P_0$  is r.

**Definition 3.1.** (1) The *(Krull) dimension* dim R of a ring R is defined to be the supremum of the lengths of chains of prime ideals in R.

(2) The dimension of an ideal I is dim  $I = \dim R/I$ .

(3) The codimension of an ideal I is codim  $I = \min_{P \supset I} \dim_{R_P}$ .

Remark 3.2. It is clear that  $\dim I + \operatorname{codim} I \leq \dim R$ . It is not always true that

$$\dim I + \operatorname{codim} I = \dim R.$$

For example, consider R = k[x, y, z]/(xy, xz) and I = (x - 1), then R corresponds to the union of a line (x = 0) and a plane (y = z = 0), and I corresponds to a point (1, 0, 0). In this case, dim R = 2, dim I = 0, codim I = 1. So we need to require some irreducibility for the equality to be true.

**Theorem 3.3.** Let R be a domain finitely generated over a field, then

(1)

 $\dim R = \operatorname{tr.deg}_k R = \operatorname{tr.deg}_k \operatorname{Frac}(R).$ 

(2) dim R equals to the length of any maximal chains of prime ideals.(3)

$$\dim I + \operatorname{codim} I = \dim R.$$

Idea of proof. The proof uses the Noether normalization theorem: if  $P_r \supset P_{r-1} \supset \cdots \supset P_0$  a maximal chain (in the sense that one cannot interesest in any more primes), then there exists a subring  $k[x_1, \ldots, x_r] \simeq S \subset R$  such that R is integral over S and  $P_i \cap S = (x_1, \ldots, x_i)$ .

This implies that

$$\dim R = r = \operatorname{tr.deg}_k S = \operatorname{tr.deg}_k R.$$

For  $(2) \implies (3)$ , we leave to exercise.

**Theorem 3.4** (Equivalent definitions for dimension of a local ring). Let  $(R, \mathfrak{m}, k)$  be a local ring. Then dim R is equal to the following values:

- (1) The minimal number d such that there exists elements  $f_1, \ldots, f_d \in \mathfrak{m}$  not contained in any other primes in R (such  $f_1, \ldots, f_d$  is called a system of parameters.);
- (2) dim R equals to the length of any maximal chains of prime ideals.
- (3)  $1 + \deg(\dim_k(\mathfrak{m}^n/\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}))$ , here  $\dim_k(\mathfrak{m}^n/\mathfrak{m}^{n+1})$  coincides with a polynomial in n if n >> 0.

3.2. Hilbert fuctions/polynomials. Here we explain more about the Hilbert function/polynomial. Consider the polynomial ring  $S = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  and a finitely generated graded S-module  $M = \bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} M_i$  (Recall that "graded" means that  $fM_i \subset M_{i+d}$  if f is homogenous of degree d). Then we can consider the Hilbert function  $H_M(d) = \dim_k M_d$  (Why finite?).

**Lemma 3.5.** There exists  $d_0$  such that  $H_M(d)$  is a polynomial in d if  $d \ge d_0$ .

*Proof.* We do induction on n. If n = 0 this is trivial  $(H_M(d) = 0 \text{ if } d >> 0)$ . If n > 0, then consider the multiplication map

$$0 \to K_d \to M_d \xrightarrow{x_n} M_{d+1} \to C_d \to 0$$

Then  $K = \bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} K_i$  and  $C = \bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} C_i$  are finitely generated graded *S*-modules. As the multiplications of  $x_n$  on K, C are 0, K, C are actually finitely generated graded  $S/(x_n)$ -modules. By dimension computing, we have

$$H_M(d+1) - H_M(d) = H_C(d) - H_K(d).$$

RHS is a polynomial for  $d \ge d_0$  by induction hypothesis. So  $H_M(d)$  is a polynomial for  $d \ge d_0$ .

To conclude that  $\dim_k(\mathfrak{m}^n/\mathfrak{m}^{n+1})$  coincides with a polynomial in n if  $n \gg 0$ , we apply this lemma to  $M = \bigoplus_{i>0} \mathfrak{m}^i/\mathfrak{m}^{i+1}$ .

3.3. Regular local rings. We first give some useful corollaries.

**Corollary 3.6.** Let  $(R, \mathfrak{m}, k)$  be a local ring. Then dim  $R \leq \dim_k \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$ .

*Proof.* By Nakayama's lemma,  $\dim_k \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$  is the number of a minimal set of generators of  $\mathfrak{m}$ .

**Corollary 3.7.** Let R be ring and  $I = (x_1, \ldots, x_r) \neq R$ . If P is minimal among all primes containing I, then  $\operatorname{codim} P \leq r$ . In particular,  $\operatorname{codim} I \leq r$ .

*Proof.* Apply Theorem 3.4 to  $R_P$ .

**Corollary 3.8.** Let  $(R, \mathfrak{m})$  be a local ring and  $x \in \mathfrak{m}$  not a zero-divisor. Then  $\operatorname{codim}(x) = 1$  and  $\dim R/(x) = \dim R - 1$ .

*Proof.* By Corollary 3.7,  $\operatorname{codim}(x) \leq 1$ . If  $\operatorname{codim}(x) = 0$ , then (x) is contained in a minimal prime, which implies that x is a zero-divisor (Remark 1.11), a contradiction.

By definition,  $d = \dim R/(x) \leq \dim R - \operatorname{codim}(x) = \dim R - 1$ . On the other hand, if  $\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_d$  is a system of parameters of  $\dim R/(x)$ , then  $(x, x_1, \ldots, x_r) \subset \mathfrak{m}$  is not contained in other primes, so  $\dim R \leq d+1$ .  $\Box$ 

**Definition 3.9.** A local ring  $(R, \mathfrak{m}, k)$  is regular if dim  $R = \dim_k \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$ , or equivalently,  $\mathfrak{m}$  is generated by  $d = \dim R$  elements  $f_1, \ldots, f_d$  (called a regular system of parameters). A ring is regular if its localization at every prime is regular.

**Example 3.10.**  $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  is regular,  $k[x, y]/(x^2 - y^3)$  is not regular.

The following tells that a regular system is actually a regular sequence.

**Corollary 3.11.** Let  $(R, \mathfrak{m}, k)$  be a regular local ring and  $f_1, \ldots, f_d$  a regular system of parameters, then  $f_1, \ldots, f_d$  is a regular sequence.

*Proof.* We prove by induction on i that (1)  $R/(f_1, \ldots, f_i)$  is a regular local ring and dim  $R/(f_1, \ldots, f_i) = d - i$ , (2)  $f_{i+1}$  is not a zero-divisor on  $R/(f_1, \ldots, f_i)$ .

Note that (1) holds for i = 0 By the next corollary, a regular local ring is a domain, so if (1) holds for i, then (2) holds for i.

Finally, if (2) holds for i, then (1) holds for i + 1 by Corollary 3.8, as  $\dim R/(f_1, \ldots, f_{i+1}) = \dim R/(f_1, \ldots, f_i) - 1 = d - i - 1$  and its maximal ideal is generated by d - i - 1 elements.

### **Corollary 3.12.** Let $(R, \mathfrak{m}, k)$ be a regular local ring. Then R is a domain.

Proof. We do induction on  $d = \dim R$ . If d = 0, then  $\mathfrak{m} = 0$  and R is a field. If d > 0, then  $\mathfrak{m} \neq \mathfrak{m}^2$  and  $\mathfrak{m}$  is not minimal. So we can find  $x \in \mathfrak{m}$  not in  $\mathfrak{m}^2$  and not in any minimal primes of R (Why?). Consider S = R/(x). Then dim  $S < \dim R$  and dim  $S \ge \dim R - 1$ , so dim  $S = \dim R - 1$ . Take  $\mathfrak{n} = \mathfrak{m} \cap S$ . Note that  $\mathfrak{n}/\mathfrak{n}^2 = \mathfrak{m}/(\mathfrak{m}^2 + (x)) \subset \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$  is a proper subspace, it can be generated by d - 1 element, so S is regular of dimension d - 1. By induction hypothesis, S is a domain. So (x) is prime. There exists a minimal prime  $Q \subsetneq (x)$ . For any  $y \in Q$ , y = ax and  $x \notin Q$ , so  $a \in Q$ . This implies that Q = xQ, so Q = 0 by Nakayama's lemma.

# 3.4. Depth versus codimension, Cohen–Macaulay rings.

**Proposition 3.13.** Let R be a ring and I an ideal. Then depth $(I, R) \leq \operatorname{codim} I$ .

The geometric meaning of this proposition is easy to understand: if V(I) is contained in r hypersurfaces intersecting "properly", then its codimension is at most r.

*Proof.* Let  $x_1, \ldots, x_r$  be a maximal regular sequence in I. Since  $x_1$  is a nonzero-divisor,  $x_1$  is not contained in any minimal primes, so  $\operatorname{codim} I/(x_1) \leq \operatorname{codim} I - 1$ . By induction,  $\operatorname{codim} I/(x_1) \geq \operatorname{depth}(I/(x_1), R/(x_1)) = n - 1$ .

So it is interesting to investigate the equality case.

**Definition 3.14.** R is a Cohen-Macaulay ring if depth(I, R) = codim I for every proper ideal I.

**Theorem 3.15.** R is Cohen–Macaulay iff depth $(P, R) = \operatorname{codim} P$  for every maximal ideal P.

*Proof.* It suffices to show that if depth $(P, R) = \operatorname{codim} P$  for every maximal ideal P, then depth $(I, R) \ge \operatorname{codim} I$ .

We first show that depth(I, R) can be localized, that is, there exists a maximal ideal P such that depth $(I, R) = depth(I_P, R_P)$ . Using the Koszul complex (Theorem 2.15), depth(I, R) is the minimal integer r such that  $H^r(K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) \neq 0$ , where  $I = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ , so there exists a maximal ideal P such that  $H^r(K(x_1, \ldots, x_n))_P \neq 0$ , which implies that depth $(I, R) = depth(I_P, R_P)$ .

So after localization, we may assume that (R, P) is a local ring.

If P is the only prime containing I, then  $\operatorname{codim} P = \operatorname{codim} I$  by definition. We claim that depth  $P = \operatorname{depth} I$ . It suffices to show that depth  $P \leq \operatorname{depth} I$ . As R/I is a local ring which has only one prime P, it can be shown that  $P^k \subset I$  for some integer k (consider the radical of 0). Let  $x_1, \ldots, x_r$  be a maximal regular sequence in P, then  $x_1^k, \ldots, x_r^k \in I$ , which is also a regular sequence (see Exercise). So depth  $P \leq \operatorname{depth} I$ .

Suppose that P is the only prime containing I. By the Noetherian induction, we may assume that I is maximal among those satisfying depth $(I, R) < \operatorname{codim} I$ . We can take an element  $x \in P$  but not in any minimal primes containing I, then depth $(I + (x), R) = \operatorname{codim}(I + (x)) \ge \operatorname{codim} I + 1$ . So we finish the proof by showing  $r = \operatorname{depth}(I + (x), R) \le \operatorname{depth}(I, R) + 1$ . Suppose  $I = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  and  $I + (x) = (x_1, \ldots, x_n, x)$ . By the Koszul complex (Theorem 2.15),  $H^j(K(x_1, \ldots, x_n, x)) = 0$  for j < r, which implies that  $H^j(K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = 0$  for j < r - 1 by Corollary 2.24 and Nakayama's lemma, so depth $(I, R) \ge r - 1$ .

Finally we prove a property of CM ring.

**Theorem 3.16** (Exercise). Let  $(R, \mathfrak{m})$  be a local ring and  $x \in \mathfrak{m}$  is not a zero-divisor. Then R is CM iff R/(x) is CM.

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