# Homological Constructions over a Ring of Characteristic 2 

Michael S. Nelson

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# HOMOLOGICAL CONSTRUCTIONS OVER A RING OF CHARACTERISTIC 2 

by<br>MICHAEL NELSON<br>(Under the Direction of Saeed Nasseh)


#### Abstract

We study various homological constructions over a ring $R$ of characteristic 2 . We construct chain complexes over a field $K$ of characteristic 2 using polynomial rings and partial derivatives. We also provide a link from the homology of these chain complexes to the simplicial homology of simplicial complexes. We end by showing how to construct all finitely-generated commutative differential graded $R$-algebras using polynomial rings and partial derivatives.


INDEX WORDS: Classification of differential graded algebras, Characteristic 2, Homological algebra, Chain complexes, Simplicial complexes, Gröbner bases

2009 Mathematics Subject Classification: 15A15, 41A10

# HOMOLOGICAL CONSTRUCTIONS OVER A RING OF CHARACTERISTIC 2 

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## DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my father and my mother.

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## CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

In this thesis, we study various homological constructions over a ring $R$ of characteristic 2 . The reason we specialize to characteristic 2 is merely for simplicity. We believe that all of our results can be generalized to any characteristic.

In the second chapter, we introduce some preliminary material. Section 2.1 deals with the theory of Gröbner bases. The main references we used for this section are [1] and [2]. Section 2.2 deals with graded rings and modules. We used [2], [4], and [5] as references for this section. Section 2.3 deals with homological algebra. Our main reference in this section is [5], but we also used [3], [4], and [6] as well. Section 2.4 deals with simplicial complexes and simplicial homology. We use [7] as our reference here.

In the third chapter, we study some homological constructions over a field $K$ of characteristic 2 . In section 3.1, we construct some chain complexes over $K$ using the polynomial ring $K\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ and the differential $d:=\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}$. We then use the theory of Gröbner basis to show how $K\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] / I$ can be equipped with a differential so that it becomes a chain complex over $K$. In section 3.2, we study differential graded $K$-algebras. In particular, we classify which of the chain complexes we constructed in section 3.1 can be realized as differential graded $K$-algebras. In section 3.3, we do some basic homology computations. In section 3.4, we give a topological interpretation of these homologies. Namely, we show how these homologies are linked to simplicial homology.

In the fourth and final chapter, we study some homological constructions over a ring $R$ of characteristic 2 . In contrast to the third chapter, which has more of a topological flavor, this chapter has more of an algebraic flavor. In this chapter, we classify all finitely-genered commutative differential graded $R$-algebras. We show how Koszul complexes and blowup algebras can be interpreted as differential graded $R$-algebras under this classification. We end this chapter with some basic homology computations.

## CHAPTER 2

## PRELIMINARY MATERIAL

We begin by introducing some preliminary material.

### 2.1 Polynomial rings over a field and Gröbner bases

Throughout this section, let $K$ be a field and let $S$ denote the polynomial ring $K\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$. We state all of our lemmas, propositions, and theorems without proof. All of the proofs can be found in [1] and [2].

## Monomials and Polynomials in $S$

A monomial $m$ in $S$ is a product in $S$ of the form

$$
m=x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}
$$

where all of the exponents $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}$ are nonnegative integers. Sometimes we will use the notation $x^{\alpha}$ to denote a monomial, where $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}\right)$ is an $n$-tuple of nonnegative integers. Note that $x^{\alpha}=1$ when $\alpha=(0, \ldots, 0)$. If $m=x^{\alpha}$ is a monomial in $S$ then the degree of $m$, denoted $\operatorname{deg}(m)$ or $\left|x^{\alpha}\right|$, is the sum $\alpha_{1}+\cdots+\alpha_{n}$. We say that the monomial is squarefree if either $\alpha_{\lambda}=1$ or $\alpha_{\lambda}=0$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$.

A polynomial $f$ in $S$ is a finite linear combination of monomials. We will write a polynomial $f$ in the form

$$
f=\sum_{\alpha} a_{\alpha} x^{\alpha}, \quad a_{\alpha} \in K
$$

where the sum is over a finite number of $n$-tuples $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}\right)$. We call $a_{\alpha}$ the coefficient of the monomial $x^{\alpha}$. If $a_{\alpha} \neq 0$, then we call $a_{\alpha} x^{\alpha}$ a term of $f$, and we call $x^{\alpha}$ a monomial of $f$.

Remark 2.1. If we replace the field $K$ with a ring $R$, then the same terminology applies to the polynomial ring $R\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$.

## Monomial Orderings on $S$

A monomial ordering on $S$ is a total ordering $>$ on $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{n}$, or equivalently, a total ordering on the set of monomials $x^{\alpha}, \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{n}$, satisfying

$$
x^{\alpha}>x^{\beta} \Longrightarrow x^{\gamma} x^{\alpha}>x^{\gamma} x^{\beta}
$$

for all $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{n}$. We say $>$ is a global monomial ordering if $x^{\alpha}>1$ for all $\alpha \neq 0$.

Lemma 2.1.1. Let $>$ be a monomial ordering, then the following conditions are equivalent.

1. $>$ is a well-ordering, i.e. every nonempty set of monomials has a smallest element, or equivalently, every decreasing sequence

$$
x^{\alpha(1)}>x^{\alpha(2)}>x^{\alpha(3)}>\cdots
$$

eventually terminates.
2. $x_{i}>1$ for $i=1, \ldots, n$.
3. $>$ is global.
4. $\alpha \geq_{\text {nat }} \beta$ and $\alpha \neq \beta$ implies $x^{\alpha}>x^{\beta}$, where $\geq_{n a t}$ is a partial order on $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{n}$ defined by

$$
\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}\right) \geq \text { nat }\left(\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{n}\right) \text { if and only if } \alpha_{i} \geq \beta_{i} \text { for all } i .
$$

Remark 2.2. Throughout this thesis, we will only be dealing with global monomial orderings. Thus, whenever we introduce a monomial ordering, we will always assume that it is a global monomial ordering.

## Examples of Monomial Orderings

We now describe some important examples of monomial orderings: Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{n}$.

1. (Lexicographical ordering): We say $x^{\alpha}>_{l p} x^{\beta}$ if there exists $1 \leq i \leq n$ such that $\alpha_{1}=\beta_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{i-1}=\beta_{i-1}, \alpha_{i}>\beta_{i}$.
2. (Degree reverse lexicographical ordering) We say $x^{\alpha}>_{d p} x^{\beta}$ if $\left|x^{\alpha}\right|>\left|x^{\beta}\right|$ or $\left|x^{\alpha}\right|=$ $\left|x^{\beta}\right|$ and there exists $1 \leq i \leq n$ such that $\alpha_{n}=\beta_{n}, \ldots, \alpha_{i+1}=\beta_{i+1}, \alpha_{i}<\beta_{i}$.
3. (Degree lexicographical ordering) We say $x^{\alpha}>_{D p} x^{\beta}$ if $\left|x^{\alpha}\right|>\left|x^{\beta}\right|$ or $\left|x^{\alpha}\right|=\left|x^{\beta}\right|$ and there exists $1 \leq i \leq n$ such that $\alpha_{1}=\beta_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{i-1}=\beta_{i-1}, \alpha_{i}>\beta_{i}$.

## Multidegree, Leading Coefficients, Leading Monomials, and Leading Terms

Let $f=\sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} x^{\alpha}$ be a nonzero polynomial in $K\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ and let $>$ be a monomial ordering.

1. The multidegree of $f$ is

$$
\operatorname{multdeg}(f)=\max \left(\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{n} \mid c_{\alpha} \neq 0\right)
$$

2. The leading coefficient of $f$ is

$$
\operatorname{LC}(f)=c_{\operatorname{multdeg}_{(f)}} \in K
$$

3. The leading monomial of $f$ is

$$
\operatorname{LM}(f)=x^{\operatorname{multdeg}(f)}
$$

4. The leading term of $f$ is

$$
\operatorname{LT}(f)=\operatorname{LC}(f) \cdot \operatorname{LM}(f)
$$

Example 2.3. Let $f=4 x y^{2} z+4 z^{2}-5 x^{3}+7 x^{2} z^{2}$. With respect to lexicographical ordering we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{multdeg}(f) & =(3,0,0) \\
L C(f) & =-5 \\
L M(f) & =x^{3} \\
L T(f) & =-5 x^{3} .
\end{aligned}
$$

With respect to degree reverse lexicographical ordering we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{multdeg}(f) & =(1,2,1) \\
L C(f) & =4 \\
L M(f) & =x y^{2} z \\
L T(f) & =4 x y^{2} z .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Monomial Ideals

An ideal $I \subseteq S$ is a called a monomial ideal if it is generated by monomials. It is called a squarefree monomial ideal if it is generated by squarefree monomials.

Example 2.4. An example of a monomial ideal is given by

$$
I=\left\langle x^{4} y^{2}, x^{3} y^{4}, x^{2} y^{5}\right\rangle \subseteq K[x, y]
$$

A nontrivial example of a monomial ideal is given by

$$
J=\left\langle f_{1}, f_{2}, f_{3}, f_{4}\right\rangle=\left\langle x^{2}+x^{2} y^{3},-x^{2} y^{3}+y^{3}, x^{4}, y^{6}\right\rangle
$$

It is easy to see that $J \subset\left\langle x^{2}, y^{3}\right\rangle$. For the reverse inclusion, note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x^{2}=f_{1}-x^{2} f_{2}-y^{3} f_{3} \\
& y^{3}=y^{3} f_{1}+f_{2}-x^{2} f_{4} .
\end{aligned}
$$

So $\left\langle x^{2}, y^{3}\right\rangle \subset J$. Therefore $J=\left\langle x^{2}, y^{3}\right\rangle$.

## Lead Term Ideal

Throughout the rest of section 2.1, fix a monomial ordering on $S$.

## Lead Term Ideal

Let $I$ be a nonzero ideal in $S$.

1. We denote by $\mathrm{LT}(I)$ the set of lead terms of nonzero elements of $I$. Thus,

$$
\mathrm{LT}(I)=\left\{c x^{\alpha} \mid \text { there exists } f \in I \backslash\{0\} \text { with } \mathbf{L T}(f)=c x^{\alpha}\right\} .
$$

2. We denote by $\langle\mathrm{LT}(I)\rangle$ the ideal generated by the elements of $\operatorname{LT}(I)$.

## Gröbner Basis

Let $I$ be a nonzero ideal in $S$. The reduced Gröbner basis for $I$ is a subset $G=\left\{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{t}\right\}$ of polynomials in $S$ such that

1. $\left\langle\mathbf{L T}\left(g_{1}\right), \ldots, \mathbf{L T}\left(g_{t}\right)\right\rangle=\langle\mathbf{L T}(I)\rangle$,
2. $\mathrm{LC}(g)=1$ for all $g \in G$,
3. For all $g \in G$, no monomial of $g$ lies in $\langle\mathbf{L T}(G \backslash\{g\}\rangle$.

Remark 2.5. If a monomial ordering is fixed, then every ideal has a unique reduced Gröbner basis.

Given a polynomial $f$ in $S$, there are unique polynomials $\pi(f) \in I$ and $f^{G} \in S$ such that $f=\pi(f)+f^{G}$ and no term of $f^{G}$ is divisible by any of $\operatorname{LT}\left(g_{1}\right), \ldots, \operatorname{LT}\left(g_{t}\right)$. We call $f^{G}$ the normal form of $f$ with respect to $G$. It follows from uniqueness of $f^{G}$ and $\pi(f)$ that taking the normal form of a polynomial is a $K$-linear map $-{ }^{G}: S \rightarrow S$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{1} f_{1}^{G}+c_{2} f_{2}^{G}=\left(c_{1} f_{1}+c_{2} f_{2}\right)^{G} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $c_{1}, c_{2} \in K$ and $f_{1}, f_{2} \in S$. Another important property of $-{ }^{G}$ is that it preserves homogeneity.

### 2.2 Graded Rings and Modules Graded Rings

A graded ring $R$ is a ring together with a direct sum decomposition

$$
R=\bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}} R_{i},
$$

where the $R_{i}$ are abelian groups such that $R_{i} R_{j} \subseteq R_{i+j}$ for all $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. The $R_{i}$ are called homogeneous components of $R$ and the elements of $R_{i}$ are called homogeneous elements of degree $i$. If $r$ is a homogeneous element in $R$, then we denote the degree of $r$ by $\operatorname{deg}(r)$. When we say "Let $R$ be a graded ring", it is understood that the homogeneous components of $R$ are denoted $R_{i}$.

Example 2.6. An important example of a graded ring is a ring $R$ endowed with the trivial grading: The homogoneneous components of $R$ being $R_{0}:=R$ and $R_{i}:=0$ for all $i>0$. When we say "Let $R$ be a ring", then we will assume that $R$ is trivially graded.

## Weighted Polynomial Rings

Let $R$ be a ring and let $w:=\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)$ be an $n$-tuple of positive integers. We define the weighted polynomial ring $R\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]_{w}$ with respect to the weight $w$ to be the polynomial ring $R\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ endowed with the unique grading such that $\operatorname{deg}\left(x_{\lambda}\right)=w_{\lambda}$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$. We define the weighted degree of a monomial $m=x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}$, denoted $\operatorname{deg}_{w}(m)$, to be

$$
\operatorname{deg}_{w}(m):=\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} w_{\lambda} \alpha_{\lambda}
$$

This grading gives $S_{w}$ the structure of a graded ring, where the homogeneous components are given by

$$
\left.\left(S_{w}\right)_{i}:=\operatorname{Span}_{R}\left\langle m \in S_{w}\right| m \text { is monomial of weighted degree } i\right\rangle .
$$

Example 2.7. Let $K$ be a field and let $S_{w}$ denote the weighted polynomial ring $K[x, y, z]_{(1,2,3)}$. The first few homogeneous components of $S_{w}$ start out as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(S_{w}\right)_{0} & =K \\
\left(S_{w}\right)_{1} & =K x \\
\left(S_{w}\right)_{2} & =K x^{2}+K y \\
\left(S_{w}\right)_{3} & =K x^{3}+K x y+K z \\
\quad &
\end{aligned}
$$

## Graded $R$-Modules

Let $R$ be a graded ring. An $R$-module $M$, together with a direct sum decomposition

$$
M=\bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} M_{i}
$$

into abelian groups $M_{i}$ is called a graded $R$-module if $R_{i} M_{j} \subset M_{i+j}$ for all $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}$. The $M_{i}$ are called homogeneous components of $M$ and the elements of $M_{i}$ are called homogeneous of degree $i$. If $m$ is a homogeneous element in $M$, then we denote the degree of $m$ as $\operatorname{deg}(m)$. When we say "Let $M$ be a graded $R$-module", then it is understood that the the homogeneous components of $M$ are denoted by $M_{i}$.

Example 2.8. If $M$ is a graded $R$-module, then for $j \in \mathbb{Z}$, we define the $j$-th twist or the $j$-th shift of $M$ to be the graded $R$-module

$$
M(j):=\bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} M(j)_{i}
$$

where $M(j)_{i}:=M_{i+j}$.

## Graded $R$-Submodules

Let $R$ be graded ring and let $M$ be a graded $R$-module. A submodule $N \subseteq M$ is called a graded (or homogeneous) $R$-submodule of $M$ if it is generated by homogeneous elements.

Example 2.9. Let $K$ be a field, let $S_{w}$ denote the weighted polynoimal ring $K[x, y, z]_{(5,6,15)}$, and let $I=\left\langle y^{5}-z^{2}, x^{3}-z, x^{6}-y^{5}\right\rangle$ be an ideal $S_{w}$. Then $I$ is a homogeneous ideal in $S_{w}$.

Remark 2.10. Let $R$ be a graded ring, and let $I$ be a homogeneous ideal in $R$. Then the quotient $R / I$ has an induced structure as a graded ring, where the homogeneous component of $R / I$ is

$$
(R / I)_{i}:=\left(R_{i}+I\right) / I \cong R_{i} /\left(I \cap R_{i}\right)
$$

## Homomorphisms of Graded $R$-Modules

Let $M$ and $N$ be graded $R$-modules. An $R$-module homomorphism $\varphi: M \rightarrow N$ is called homogeneous (or graded) of degree $j$ if $\varphi\left(M_{i}\right) \subset N_{i+j}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $\varphi$ is homogeneous of degree zero then we will simply say $\varphi$ is homogeneous.

Example 2.11. Let $R$ denote the polynomial ring $K[x, y, z, t]$ with its natural grading. Then the matrix

$$
U:=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
x+y+z & w^{2}-x^{2} & x^{3} \\
1 & x & x y+z^{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

defines an $R$-module homomorphism $U: R(-1) \oplus R(-2) \oplus R(-3) \rightarrow R \oplus R(-1)$ which is graded of degree zero.

## Graded $R$-Algebras

Let $R$ be a graded ring and let $A$ be an $R$-algebra. We say $A$ is a graded $R$-algebra if $A$ is graded as a ring and $A_{0}=R$.

Remark 2.12. More general definitions of graded $R$-algebras can be found throughout the literature, but this definition we shall use in this thesis.

Example 2.13. Let $Q$ be an ideal in $R$. The blowup algebra of $Q$ in $R$ is the $R$-algebra

$$
B_{Q}(R):=R+t Q+t^{2} Q^{2}+t^{3} Q^{3}+\cdots \cong R \oplus Q \oplus Q^{2} \oplus Q^{3} \oplus \cdots
$$

where multiplication in $B_{Q}(A)$ is induced by the multiplication map $Q^{i} \times Q^{j} \rightarrow Q^{i+j}$.

## Homomorphisms of Graded $R$-Algebras

Let $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ be graded $R$-algebras. We say $\varphi: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ is an $R$-algebra homomorphism if

1. $\varphi$ is a homomorphism when viewed as a map of $R$-modules. In other words,

$$
\varphi\left(r_{1} a_{1}+r_{2} a_{2}\right)=r_{1} \varphi\left(a_{1}\right)+r_{2} \varphi\left(a_{2}\right)
$$

for all $r_{1}, r_{2} \in R$ and $a_{1}, a_{2} \in A$.
2. $\varphi$ preserves the algebra structure. In other words

$$
\varphi(a b)=\varphi(a) \varphi(b)
$$

for all $a, b \in A$.

Moreover, we say $\varphi$ is graded if $\varphi$ is a graded homomorphism when viewed as a map of graded $R$-modules.

## Finitely-Generated Graded $R$-Algebras

A graded $R$-algebra $A$ is said to be finitely-generated if it is finitely-generated as an $R$ algebra. The next proposition gives a classification of all finitely-generated commutative $R$-algebras.

Proposition 2.14. Every finitely-generated commutative graded $R$-algebra is isomorphic to a quotient of a weighted polynomial ring.

Proof. Let $A$ be a finitely-generated commutative $R$-algebra with generators $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$. Then for each $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$ we have $a_{\lambda} \in A_{w_{\lambda}}$, where $w_{\lambda} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. Let $S_{w}$ denote the weighted polynomial ring $R\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]_{\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)}$ and let $\varphi: S_{w} \rightarrow A$ be the unique morphism of graded $R$-algebras such that $\varphi\left(x_{\lambda}\right)=a_{\lambda}$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$. Then $\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$ is easily checked to be a homogeneous ideal of $S_{w}$, and moreover $A$ is isomorphic to $S_{w} / \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$ as graded $R$-algebras.

## Algorithmic Computations in the $K$-algebra $S / I$ using Gröbner Basis

Let $I$ be a homogeneous ideal in the polynomial ring $S=K\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$. Then $S / I$ is a graded $K$-algebra, where the homogeneous component $S_{i}$ is the $K$-vector space of all homogeneous polynomials $f \in S$ of degree $i$. Now fix a monomial ordering and let $G$ be the reduced Gröbner basis of $I$ with respect to this ordering. Define

$$
S_{I}:=\operatorname{Span}_{K}\left(x^{\alpha} \mid x^{\alpha} \notin\langle\mathbf{L T}(I)\rangle\right)
$$

There is an obvious decompostion of $S_{I}$ into $K$-vector spaces $\left(S_{I}\right)_{i}$, where

$$
\left(S_{I}\right)_{i}=\operatorname{Span}_{K}\left(x^{\alpha} \mid x^{\alpha} \notin\langle\mathbf{L T}(I)\rangle \text { and } \operatorname{deg}\left(x^{\alpha}\right)=i\right)
$$

In fact, $S / I$ and $S_{I}$ are isomorphic as graded $K$-modules. The isomorphism is given by mapping $\bar{f} \in S / I$ to $f^{G} \in S_{I}$. Indeed, $-^{G}$ is a $K$-linear map which preserves homogeneity. This makes $S / I$ isomorphic to $S_{I}$ as graded $K$-modules. Using this isomorphism, we can carry multiplication from $S / I$ over to $S_{I}$ to turn $S_{I}$ into a graded $K$-algebra: For $f_{1}, f_{2} \in S_{I}$, we define multiplication as

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{1} \cdot f_{2}=\left(f_{1} f_{2}\right)^{G} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Defining multilpication in this way makes $S_{I}$ isomorphic to $S / I$ as graded $K$-algebras. For computational purposes, it is easier to work with $S_{I}$ rather than $S / I$.

Example 2.15. Consider $S=K[x, y]$ and $I=\left\langle x y^{2}+y^{3}, x^{3}+x^{2} y\right\rangle$. Then

$$
G=\left\{x y^{2}+y^{3}, x^{3}+x^{2} y\right\}
$$

is the reduced Grobner basis with respect to graded reverse lexicographical ordering. In particular $L T(I)=\left\langle x y^{2}, x^{3}\right\rangle$. We write the first few homogeneous terms of $S_{I}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(S_{I}\right)_{0}=K \\
& \left(S_{I}\right)_{1}=K x+K y \\
& \left(S_{I}\right)_{2}=K x^{2}+K x y+K y^{2} \\
& \left(S_{I}\right)_{3}=K x^{2} y+K y^{3} \\
& \left(S_{I}\right)_{4}=K y^{4} \\
& \left(S_{I}\right)_{5}=K y^{5}
\end{aligned}
$$

Next, we multiply some elements together in $S_{I}$ in the multiplication table below

| $\cdot$ | $x$ | $y$ | $y^{3}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $x^{2} y$ | $y^{4}$ | $y^{4}$ | $y^{6}$ |
| $x^{2}$ | $x^{2} y$ | $x^{2} y$ | $y^{5}$ |
| $x$ | $x^{2}$ | $x y$ | $y^{4}$ |

Example 2.16. Consider $S=K[x, y]$ and $I=\left\langle x y+y^{2}, x^{3}\right\rangle$. We first use Singular to compute the reduced Grobner basis $G$ of I with respect to graded reverse lexicographical ordering. We obtain $G=\left\{x y+y^{2}, x^{3}, y^{4}\right\}$. Now we write down the first few homogeneous
components of $I, S / I$ and $S_{I}$
$I_{0}=0$
$(S / I)_{0}=K$
$\left(S_{I}\right)_{0}=K$
$I_{1}=0$
$(S / I)_{1}=K \bar{x}+K \bar{y} \quad\left(S_{I}\right)_{1}=K x+K y$
$I_{2}=K g_{1}$
$(S / I)_{2}=K \bar{x}^{2}+K \bar{y}^{2}$
$\left(S_{I}\right)_{2}=K x^{2}+K y^{2}$
$I_{3}=K x g_{1}+K y g_{1}+K g_{2}$
$(S / I)_{3}=K \bar{y}^{3}$
$\left(S_{I}\right)_{3}=K y^{3}$
$I_{4}=S_{4}$
$(S / I)_{4}=0$
$\left(S_{I}\right)_{4}=0$

### 2.3 Homological Algebra

Throughout this section, let $R$ be a ring.

## Chain Complexes over $R$

A chain complex $(A, d)$ over $R$, or simply $R$-complex, is a sequence of $R$-modules $A_{i}$ and morphisms $d_{i}: A_{i} \rightarrow A_{i-1}$

$$
(A, d):=\cdots \longrightarrow A_{i+1} \xrightarrow{d_{i+1}} A_{i} \xrightarrow{d_{i}} A_{i-1} \longrightarrow \cdots
$$

such that $d_{i} \circ d_{i+1}=0$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. The condition $d_{i} \circ d_{i+1}=0$ is equivalent to the condition $\operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{i}\right) \supset \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{i+1}\right)$. Thus we are able to define the $i$ th homology of the chain complex $(A, d)$ to be

$$
H_{i}(A, d):=\operatorname{Ker}\left(d_{i}\right) / \operatorname{Im}\left(d_{i+1}\right)
$$

Let $(A, d)$ and $\left(A^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)$ be two chain complexes. A chain $\operatorname{map} \varphi:(A, d) \rightarrow\left(A^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)$ is a sequence of $R$-module homomoprhisms $\varphi_{i}: A_{i} \rightarrow A_{i}^{\prime}$ such that $d_{i}^{\prime} \varphi_{i}=\varphi_{i-1} d_{i}^{\prime}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. We can view a chain map visually as illustrated in the diagram below:


## Simplifying Notation

To simplify notation in what follows, we think of $R$ as a trivially graded ring. If $(A, d)$ is an $R$-complex, then we think of $(A, d)$ as a graded $R$-module $A$ together with a graded endomorphism $d: A \rightarrow A$ of degree -1 such that $d^{2}=0$. We think of $d_{i}$ as being the restriction of $d$ to $A_{i}$ and we often refer to $d$ as the differential.

An element in $\operatorname{Ker}(d)$ is called a cycle of $(A, d)$ and an element in $\operatorname{Im}(d)$ is called a boundary of $(A, d)$. We define the homology of $(A, d)$ to be

$$
H(A, d):=\operatorname{Ker}(d) / \operatorname{Im}(d)
$$

Note that $H(A, d)=\bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} H_{i}(A, d)$. We sometimes write $H(A)$ instead of $H(A, d)$ if the differential is understood from context.

Let $(A, d)$ and $\left(A^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)$ be chain complexes. A chain map $\varphi:(A, d) \rightarrow\left(A^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)$ can be thought of as a homogeneous homomorphism of graded $R$-modules such that $\varphi d=d^{\prime} \varphi$.

## Homotopy Equivalence

Let $\varphi$ and $\psi$ be chain maps of chain complexes $(A, d)$ and $\left(A^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)$. We say $\varphi$ is homotopic to $\psi$ if there is a graded homomorphism $h: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ of degree 1 such that $\varphi-\psi=d^{\prime} h+h d$.

Proposition 2.17. Let $\varphi$ and $\psi$ be chain maps of chain complexes $(A, d)$ and $\left(A^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)$. Then $\varphi$ and $\psi$ induce the same map on homology.

Proof. The proof is straightforward and can be found in [5].

## Exact Sequences of Chain Complexes

Let $(A, d),\left(A^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)$, and $\left(A^{\prime \prime}, d^{\prime \prime}\right)$ be chain complexes and let $\varphi:\left(A^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow(A, d)$ and $\psi:(A, d) \rightarrow\left(A^{\prime \prime}, d^{\prime \prime}\right)$ be chain maps. Then we say that

$$
0 \longrightarrow A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\varphi} A \longrightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \longrightarrow 0
$$

is a short exact sequence of chain complexes if the following diagram is commutative with exact rows:


Given such a short exact sequence, we get induced maps $\varphi_{i}: H_{i}\left(A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{i}(A)$ and $\psi_{i}: H_{i}(A) \rightarrow H_{i}\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right)$, and connecting homomorphisms $\gamma_{i}: H_{i}\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{i-1}\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ which give rise to a long exact sequence in homology:


## Differential Graded Algebras

A differential graded $R$-algebra is a chain complex $(A, d)$ such that $A$ is a graded $R$ algebra and such that the differential $d$ satisfies the Leibniz law with respect to this algebra structure:

$$
\begin{equation*}
d(a b)=d(a) b+(-1)^{\operatorname{deg}(a)} a d(b) \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $a, b \in A$. We say that the differential graded $R$-algebra is commutative if

$$
a b=(-1)^{\operatorname{deg}(a) \operatorname{deg}(b)} b a
$$

## Homomorphisms of Differential Graded $R$-Algebras

Let $(A, d)$ and $\left(A^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)$ be differential graded $R$-algebras. We say $\varphi:(A, d) \rightarrow\left(A^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)$ is homomorphism of differential graded $R$-algebras if $\varphi$ is both a chain map and an $R$-algebra homomorphism.

## Differential Graded $A$-Modules

Let $(A, d)$ be a differential graded $R$-algebra. A differential graded $A$-module $(M, d)$ is a chain complex $(M, d)$ such that $M$ is an $A$-module and such that the differential $d$ satisfies the Leibniz law with respect to the algebra structure in $A$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
d(a m)=d(a) m+(-1)^{\operatorname{deg}(a)} a d(m) \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $a \in A$ and $m \in M$.

## Obtaining a Differential Graded $A$-Module from a Chain Complex

Let $\left(A, d_{A}\right)$ be a differential graded $R$-algebra and let $\left(B, d_{B}\right)$ be a chain complex. Then $A \otimes_{R} B$ is an $A$-module and a graded $R$-module whose homogeneous component in degree
$k$ is

$$
\left(A \otimes_{R} B\right)_{k}:=\bigoplus_{i+j=k} A_{i} \otimes_{R} B_{j}
$$

We define a differential $d$ on $A \otimes_{R} B$ by first definining it on the elementary tensors as

$$
d(a \otimes b):=d_{A}(a) \otimes b+(-1)^{\operatorname{deg}(a)} a \otimes d_{B}(b)
$$

for all $a \in A$ and $b \in B$, and then extending it $R$-linearly everywhere else.
A straightforward calculation shows that $d^{2}=0$ and that the differential satisfies Leibniz law (2.4). Moreover, if $B$ is a differential graded $R$-algebra, then $A \otimes_{R} B$ can realized as a differential graded $A$-algebra and a differential graded $B$-algebra. Multiplication in $A \otimes_{R} B$ is defined by

$$
(a \otimes b)\left(a^{\prime} \otimes b^{\prime}\right)=(-1)^{\operatorname{deg}\left(a^{\prime}\right) \operatorname{deg}(b)} a a^{\prime} \otimes b b^{\prime} .
$$

for all $a, a^{\prime} \in A$ and $b, b^{\prime} \in B$.

Remark 2.18. In particular, if $M$ is an $R$-module endowed with the trivial grading, then $\left(A \otimes_{R} M, d\right)$ is a differential graded $A$-module where the homogeneous componenet of degree $k$ in $A \otimes_{R} M$ is $\left(A \otimes_{R} M\right)_{k}:=A_{k} \otimes_{R} M$, and d acts on elementary tensors as $d(a \otimes m)=d(a) \otimes m$.

## Exterior Algebras and Koszul Complexes

## Exterior Algebras

Let $M$ an $R$-module and let $k \geq 2$. The $k$ th exterior power of $M$, denoted $\Lambda^{k}(M)$, is the $R$-module $M^{\otimes k} / J_{k}$ where $J_{k}$ is the submodule of $M^{\otimes k}$ spanned by all $m_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{k}$ with $m_{i}=m_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. For any $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k} \in M$, the coset of $m_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{k}$ in $\Lambda^{k}(M)$ is denoted $m_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{k}$. For completeness, we set $\Lambda^{0}(M)=R$ and $\Lambda^{1}(M)=M$. A general element in $\Lambda^{k}(M)$ will be denoted as $\omega$ or $\eta$.

Since $M^{\otimes k}$ is spanned by tensors $m_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{k}$, the quotient module $M^{\otimes k} / J_{k}=$ $\Lambda^{k}(M)$ is spanned by their images $m_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{k}$. That is, any $\omega \in \Lambda^{k}(M)$ is a finite $R$-linear combination

$$
\omega=\sum r_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}} m_{i_{1}} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{i_{k}}
$$

where there coefficients $r_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}}$ are in $R$ and the $m_{i}$ 's are in $M$. We call $m_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{k}$ an elementary wedge product. We define the exterior algebra of $M$ to be

$$
\Lambda(M):=\bigoplus_{k \geq 0} \Lambda^{k}(M)
$$

where the multiplication rule given by the wedge product. The exterior algebra of $M$ is a graded $R$-algebra, where the degree $k$ homogeneous component is $\Lambda^{k}(M)$. If $R$ does not have characteristic 2 , then the exterior algebra of $M$ is skew commutative. This means that if $\omega_{1}$ and $\omega_{2}$ are homogeneous elements, then

$$
\omega_{1} \wedge \omega_{2}=(-1)^{\operatorname{deg}\left(\omega_{1}\right) \operatorname{deg}\left(\omega_{2}\right)} \omega_{2} \wedge \omega_{1} .
$$

The construction of $\Lambda(M)$ is functioral in $M$. This means that if $N$ is another $R$ module and $\varphi: M \rightarrow N$ is an $R$-module homomorphism. Then $\varphi$ induces a graded $R$-algebra homomorphism $\wedge \varphi: \Lambda(M) \rightarrow \Lambda(N)$, where $\wedge \varphi$ takes the elementary wedge product $m_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{k}$ in $\Lambda(M)$ and maps it to the wedge product $\varphi\left(m_{1}\right) \wedge \cdots \wedge \varphi\left(m_{k}\right)$ in $\Lambda(N)$. We will write $\wedge^{k} \varphi$ to be the induced $R$-module homomorphism from $\Lambda^{k}(M)$ to $\Lambda^{k}(N)$. In particular, if $N$ is free of rank $n$, then $\Lambda^{n}(N) \cong R$, and if $\varphi: N \rightarrow N$ is an $R$-module homomorphism, then $\wedge^{n} \varphi$ is multiplication by the determinant of any matrix representing $\varphi$.

## Koszul Complexes

Let $R$ be a ring, $M$ an $R$-module, and $\varphi: M \rightarrow R$ an $R$-module homomorphism. The assignment

$$
\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right) \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^{k}(-1)^{i+1} \varphi\left(m_{i}\right) m_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge \widehat{m}_{i} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{k}
$$

defines an alternating $n$-linear map $M^{k} \rightarrow \Lambda^{k-1}(M)$. By the universal property of the $k$ th exterior power, there exists an $R$-linear $\operatorname{map} d_{\varphi}^{(k)}: \Lambda^{k}(M) \rightarrow \Lambda^{k-1}(M)$ with

$$
d_{\varphi}^{(k)}\left(m_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{k}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n}(-1)^{i+1} \varphi\left(m_{i}\right) m_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge \widehat{m}_{i} \wedge \cdots \wedge m_{k}
$$

for all $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k} \in L$. The collection of the maps $d_{\varphi}^{(k)}$ defines a graded $R$-homomorphism

$$
d_{\varphi}: \Lambda(M) \rightarrow \Lambda(M)
$$

of degree -1 . A straightforward calculation shows that $d_{\varphi}$ gives $\Lambda(M)$ the structure of a differential graded $R$-algebra. This differential graded $R$-algebra is called the Koszul complex of $\varphi$ and is denoted $\mathcal{K}_{\bullet}(\varphi)$. The dual Koszul complex of $\varphi$, denoted $\mathcal{K}^{\bullet}(\varphi)$, is the chain complex over $R$ whose underlying graded $R$-module is $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\mathcal{K} \cdot(\varphi), R)$ and whose differential is $d^{\star}$, where $d^{\star}$ is obtained by applying the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(-, R)$ to $d$.

Example 2.19. Suppose $R$ has characteristic 2. Let $\varphi: S_{1}:=\bigoplus_{\lambda=1}^{n} R x_{\lambda} \rightarrow R$ be the unique $R$-linear map such that $\varphi\left(x_{\lambda}\right)=r_{\lambda} \in R$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$. Then $\Lambda\left(S_{1}\right)$ is isomorphic to $S /\left\langle x_{1}^{2}, \ldots, x_{n}^{2}\right\rangle$ as graded $R$-algebras. Using this isomorphism, we give $S /\left\langle x_{1}^{2}, \ldots, x_{n}^{2}\right\rangle$ the structure of a differential graded $R$-algebra by carrying over the differential $d_{\varphi}$ for $\Lambda\left(S_{1}\right)$ to the differential dfor $S /\left\langle x_{1}^{2}, \ldots, x_{n}^{2}\right\rangle$, where $d=\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} r_{\lambda} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}$. We denote this Koszul complex as $\mathcal{K}\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)$.

### 2.4 Simplicial Complexes

A simplicial complex $\Delta$ on the set $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ is a collection of subsets of $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ such that

1. The simplicial complex $\Delta$ contains all singletons: $\left\{x_{\lambda}\right\} \in \Delta$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$.
2. The simplicial complex $\Delta$ is closed under containment: if $\sigma \in \Delta$ and $\tau \subset \sigma$, then $\tau \in \Delta$.

An element of a simplicial complex is called a face or simplex, and a simplex of $\Delta$ not properly contained in another simplex of $\Delta$ is called a facet. A simplex $\sigma \in \Delta$ of cardinality $i+1$ is called an $i$-dimensional face or an $i$-face of $\Delta$. The empty set $\emptyset$, is the unique face of dimension -1 , as long as $\Delta$ is not the void complex $\}$ consisting of no subsets of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. The dimension of $\Delta$, denoted $\operatorname{dim}(\Delta)$, is defined to be the maximum of the dimensions of its faces (or $-\infty$ if $\Delta=\{ \}$ ).

Example 2.20. The simplicial complex $\Delta$ on $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}\right\}$ consisting of all subsets of $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\},\left\{x_{2}, x_{4}\right\},\left\{x_{3}, x_{4}\right\}$, and $\left\{x_{4}\right\}$ is pictured below


Simplicial Homology

Let $\Delta$ be a simplicial complex on $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ and let $K$ be a field of characteristic 2 . For $i \in \mathbb{Z}$, let

$$
S_{i}(\Delta):=\operatorname{Span}_{K}(\sigma \in \Delta \mid \operatorname{dim}(\sigma)=i) \quad \text { and } \quad S(\Delta):=\bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} S_{i}(\Delta)
$$

Then $S(\Delta)$ is a graded $K$-module. Let $\partial: S(\Delta) \rightarrow S(\Delta)$ be the unique graded endomorphism of degree -1 such that

$$
\partial(\sigma)=\sum_{\lambda \in \sigma} \sigma \backslash\{\lambda\} .
$$

for all $\sigma \in \Delta$. By a direct calculation, we have $\partial^{2}=0$, and so $(S(\Delta), \partial)$ forms a $K$ complex; it is called the reduced chain complex of $\Delta$ over $K$. The $i$ th homology of $(S(\Delta), \partial)$ is called the $i$ th reduced homology of $\Delta$ over $K$, and is denoted $\widetilde{H}_{i}(\Delta, K)$.

Example 2.21. For $\Delta$ as in Example (2.20), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{2}(\Delta) & =\left\{\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}\right\} \\
S_{1}(\Delta) & =\left\{\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}\right\},\left\{x_{1}, x_{3}\right\},\left\{x_{2}, x_{3}\right\},\left\{x_{2}, x_{4}\right\},\left\{x_{3}, x_{4}\right\}\right\} \\
S_{0}(\Delta) & =\left\{\left\{x_{1}\right\},\left\{x_{2}\right\},\left\{x_{3}\right\},\left\{x_{4}\right\},\left\{x_{5}\right\}\right\} \\
S_{-1}(\Delta) & =\{\emptyset\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Choosing bases for the $S_{i}(\Delta)$ as suggested by the ordering of the faces listed above, the chain complex for $\Delta$ becomes

$$
\left.0 \longrightarrow\left(\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1 \\
1 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right) \quad K^{5} \xrightarrow{\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)} K^{5} \xrightarrow{\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right)} K \xrightarrow{ } \begin{array}{lll} 
\\
0
\end{array}\right)
$$

For example, $\partial_{2}\left(e_{\{1,2,3\}}\right)=e_{\{2,3\}}+e_{\{1,3\}}+e_{\{1,2\}}$, which we identify with the vector $(1,1,1,0,0)$. The mapping $\partial_{1}$ has rank 3 , so $\widetilde{H}_{0}(\Delta ; K) \cong \widetilde{H}_{1}(\Delta ; K) \cong K$ and the other homology groups are 0 . Intuitively, $\widetilde{H}_{0}(\Delta ; K) \cong K$ corresponds to the fact that $\Delta$ consists of two connected components and $\widetilde{H}_{1}(\Delta ; K) \cong K$ corresponds to the fact that $\Delta$ contains a triangle which is not the boundary of an element of $\Delta$, i.e. it contains a "hole".

## CHAPTER 3

## HOMOLOGICAL CONSTRUCTIONS OVER A FIELD OF CHARACTERISTIC 2

Throughout this chapter, let $K$ be a field of characteristic $2, S$ denote the polynomial ring $K\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right], I$ be a homogeneous ideal in $S$, and let $G=\left\{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{r}\right\}$ be the reduced Gröbner basis for $I$ with respect to a fixed monomial ordering.

### 3.1 Constructing $K$-Complexes

Let $d: S \rightarrow S$ be the graded $K$-linear map of degree -1 given by $d:=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \partial_{x_{k}}$. Since $K$ has characteristic 2 , we have $d^{2}=0$. Indeed, it suffices to show that $d^{2}(m)=0$ for all monomials $m$ in $S$. So let $m=x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}$ be a monomial in $S$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
d^{2}(m) & =\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} \partial_{x_{k}}\right)^{2}\left(x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right) \\
& =\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} \partial_{x_{k}}^{2}\right)\left(x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right) \\
& =\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_{k}\left(\alpha_{k}-1\right) x_{k}^{\alpha_{k}-2} \\
& =0
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus the differential $d$ gives the graded $K$-module $S$ the structure of a $K$-complex.

## Construction of $\left(S_{I}, d\right)$

Let $m=x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}$ be a monomial in $S$. We denote

$$
[m]_{o}=\left\{1 \leq \lambda \leq n \mid \alpha_{\lambda} \text { is odd }\right\} \quad \text { and } \quad[m]_{e}=\left\{1 \leq \mu \leq n \mid \alpha_{\mu} \text { is even }\right\}
$$

Using this notation, we can express the differential in another way:

$$
d(m)=\sum_{\lambda \in[m]_{o}} x_{\lambda}^{-1} m
$$

This makes it clear that the differential maps $S_{I}$ into $S_{I}$. Indeed, if $m$ is not in $\operatorname{LT}(I)$, then every term $x_{\lambda}^{-1} m$ of $d(m)$ is not in $\operatorname{LT}(I)$ either. Thus the differential $d$ gives the graded $K$-module $S_{I}$ the structure of a chain complex over $K$.

## Construction of $(S / I, \bar{d})$

Definition 3.1. We say I is d-stable if d maps I into I.

Suppose $I$ is $d$-stable. Then the differential $d: S \rightarrow S$ induces a graded linear map of degree -1 , denoted $\bar{d}: S / I \rightarrow S / I$, where

$$
\bar{d}(\bar{f})=\overline{d(f)} \text { for all } f \in S
$$

Indeed, the map $\bar{d}$ is well-defined since $d$ is $I$-stable. Moreover, the differential $\bar{d}$ gives $S / I$ the structure of a differential graded $K$-algebra since it inherits all of the necessary properties from $d$. For instance, to see that $\bar{d}$ satisfies Leibniz law, let $\bar{f}_{1}$ and $\bar{f}_{2}$ be in $S / I$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\bar{d}\left(\overline{f_{1} f_{2}}\right) & =\overline{d\left(f_{1} f_{2}\right)} \\
& =\overline{d\left(f_{1}\right) f_{2}+f_{1} d\left(f_{2}\right)} \\
& =\overline{d\left(f_{1}\right) f_{2}}+\overline{f_{1} d\left(f_{2}\right)} \\
& =\bar{d}\left(\overline{f_{1}}\right) \overline{f_{2}}+\overline{f_{1} d}\left(\overline{f_{2}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus if $I$ is $d$-stable, then the differential $\bar{d}$ gives the graded $K$-algebra $S / I$ the structure of a differential graded $K$-algebra.

## Construction of $(I, \underline{d})$

Our final construction involves the graded $K$-module $I$. Let $\underline{d}: I \rightarrow I$ be the graded $K$ linear map of degree -1 given by

$$
\underline{d}(f):=\pi(d(f))=d(f)+d(f)^{G}
$$

for all $f \in I$. Then $\underline{d}^{2}=0$. Indeed, for all $f \in I$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\underline{d}(\underline{d}(f)) & =\underline{d}\left(d(f)+d(f)^{G}\right) \\
& =d\left(d(f)+d(f)^{G}\right)+d\left(d(f)+d(f)^{G}\right)^{G} \\
& =d\left(d(f)^{G}\right)+d\left(d(f)^{G}\right)^{G} \\
& =d\left(d(f)^{G}\right)+d\left(d(f)^{G}\right) \\
& =0
\end{aligned}
$$

where $d\left(d(f)^{G}\right)^{G}=d\left(d(f)^{G}\right)$ since every term in $d\left(d(f)^{G}\right)$ is not in $I$. Thus the differential $\underline{d}$ gives the graded $K$-module $I$ the structure of a chain complex over $K$.

### 3.2 Differential Graded $K$-Algebras

Since $d$ is defined in terms of partial derivatives, it is clear that $d$ satisfies Leibniz law. Thus $(S, d)$ is more than just a chain complex over $K$; it is a differential graded $K$-algebra. Since $S_{I}$ is a graded $K$-algebra, it is natural wonder if $\left(S_{I}, d\right)$ is also a differential graded $K$-algebra. A quick counterexample shows that this is not necessarily the case:

Example 3.2. Consider $S=K[x]$ and $I=\left\langle x^{5}\right\rangle$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
d\left(x \cdot x^{4}\right) & =d\left(\left(x^{5}\right)^{G}\right) \\
& =d(0) \\
& =0
\end{aligned}
$$

but

$$
\begin{aligned}
d(x) \cdot x^{4}+x \cdot d\left(x^{4}\right) & =1 \cdot x^{4}+x \cdot 0 \\
& =\left(x^{4}\right)^{G}+0^{G} \\
& =x^{4}
\end{aligned}
$$

so $d\left(x \cdot x^{5}\right) \neq d(x) \cdot x^{4}+x \cdot d\left(x^{4}\right)$.

Thus, in order for $\left(S_{I}, d\right)$ to be a differential graded $K$-algebra, we need a condition on $I$ to be satisfied. This is given in the following theorem.

Theorem 3.3. $\left(S_{I}, d\right)$ is a differential graded $K$-algebra if and only if $d(g)=0$ for all $g \in G$.

Proof. Assume that $d(g)=0$ for all $g \in G$. We first prove that $d\left(f^{G}\right)=d(f)^{G}$ for all $f \in S$. Let $f \in S$. From the division algorithm, we have $f=g_{1} q_{1}+\cdots+g_{r} q_{r}+f^{G}$ for some $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{r} \in S$. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
d(f) & =d\left(g_{1} q_{1}+\cdots+g_{r} q_{r}+f^{G}\right) \\
& =d\left(g_{1} q_{1}\right)+\cdots+d\left(g_{r} q_{r}\right)+d\left(f^{G}\right) \\
& =g_{1} d\left(q_{1}\right)+\cdots+g_{r} d\left(q_{r}\right)+d\left(f^{G}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $g_{1} d\left(h_{1}\right)+\cdots+g_{r} d\left(h_{r}\right) \in I$ and no term of $d\left(f^{G}\right)$ is divisible by any element of $\mathbf{L T}(I)$, it follows from uniqueness of normal forms that $d\left(f^{G}\right)=d(f)^{G}$.

Now we show that this implies that $\left(S_{I}, d\right)$ is a differential graded $K$-algebra. Let $f_{1}, f_{2} \in S_{I}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
d\left(f_{1} \cdot f_{2}\right) & =d\left(\left(f_{1} f_{2}\right)^{G}\right) \\
& =\left(d\left(f_{1} f_{2}\right)\right)^{G} \\
& =\left(d\left(f_{1}\right) f_{2}+f_{1} d\left(f_{2}\right)\right)^{G} \\
& =\left(d\left(f_{1}\right) f_{2}\right)^{G}+\left(f_{1} d\left(f_{2}\right)\right)^{G} \\
& =d\left(f_{1}\right) \cdot f_{2}+f_{1} \cdot d\left(f_{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\left(S_{I}, d\right)$ is a differential graded $K$-algebra.
Now we prove the converse. Assume $\left(S_{I}, d\right)$ is a differential graded $K$-algebra. Let $g \in G$ and let $m$ be the lead term of $g$. We may assume $g$ is not a constant (otherwise we'd clearly have $d(g)=0$ ). Thus, there exists some $x_{\lambda}$ such that $x_{\lambda}$ divides $m$. Then on the
one hand, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
d\left(x_{\lambda} \cdot x_{\lambda}^{-1} m\right) & =d\left(m^{G}\right) \\
& =d(g+m) \\
& =d(g)+d(m),
\end{aligned}
$$

since $m^{G}=g+m$. On the other hand, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
d\left(x_{\lambda}\right) \cdot x_{\lambda}^{-1} m+x_{\lambda} \cdot d\left(x_{\lambda}^{-1} m\right) & =\left(x_{\lambda}^{-1} m\right)^{G}+\left(x_{\lambda} d\left(x_{\lambda}^{-1} m\right)\right)^{G} \\
& =x_{\lambda}^{-1} m+\left(x_{\lambda} d\left(x_{\lambda}^{-1} m\right)\right)^{G} \\
& =x_{\lambda}^{-1} m+\left(x_{\lambda}\left(x_{\lambda}^{-2} m+x_{\lambda}^{-1} d(m)\right)\right)^{G} \\
& =x_{\lambda}^{-1} m+\left(x_{\lambda}^{-1} m+d(m)\right)^{G} \\
& =x_{\lambda}^{-1} m+\left(x_{\lambda}^{-1} m\right)^{G}+d(m)^{G} \\
& =x_{\lambda}^{-1} m+x_{\lambda}^{-1} m+d(m)^{G} \\
& =d(m),
\end{aligned}
$$

since $\left(x_{\lambda}^{-1} m\right)^{G}=x_{\lambda}^{-1} m$ and $d(m)^{G}=d(m)$ (every term of $d(m)$ does not lie in $\langle\mathbf{L T}(G)\rangle$ ). Since $\left(S_{I}, d\right)$ is a differential graded $K$-algebra, we must have $d(g)=0$. This establishes this theorem.

Remark 3.4. We should note that the identity

$$
x_{\lambda} d\left(x_{\lambda}^{-1} m\right)=x_{\lambda}\left(x_{\lambda}^{-2} m+x_{\lambda}^{-1} d(m)\right)=x_{\lambda}^{-1} m+d(m)
$$

follows since d satisfies Leibniz law not just in $S$, but also in $S\left[x_{1}^{-1}, \ldots, x_{n}^{-1}\right]$. Again, this is because d is defined in terms of partial derivatives.

Example 3.5. Going back to Example (2.15), where $S=K[x, y], I=\left\langle x y^{2}+y^{3}, x^{3}+x^{2} y\right\rangle$, and $G=\left\{x y^{2}+y^{3}, x^{3}+x^{2} y\right\}$. We have $d\left(x y^{2}+y^{3}\right)=d\left(x^{3}+x^{2} y\right)=0$. Therefore Theorem (3.3) implies $\left(S_{I}, d\right)$ is a differential graded $K$-algebra.

Now we want to show that $\left(S_{I}, d\right)$ is a differential graded $K$-algebra if and only if $(S / I, \bar{d})$ is a differential graded $K$-algebra, and moreover, they are isomorphic to each other. We start with the following lemma.

Lemma 3.2.1. For all $g \in G=\left\{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{r}\right\}$, we have $d(g)=d(g)^{G}$.

Proof. We prove this in the case $g=g_{1}$. The other cases can be proved using a similar argument. If $d\left(g_{1}\right)=0$, then clearly we have $d\left(g_{1}\right)=d\left(g_{1}\right)^{G}$, so assume $d\left(g_{1}\right) \neq 0$. Since $G$ is a Gröbner basis, $d\left(g_{1}\right)=d\left(g_{1}\right)^{G}$ if and only if no term of $d\left(g_{1}\right)$ belongs to $\langle\mathbf{L T}(G)\rangle$. Every term in $d\left(g_{1}\right)$ has the form $x_{\lambda}^{-1} m$ where $m$ is some term of $g$. This term cannot belong to $\langle\mathbf{L T}(G)\rangle$, since if $x_{\lambda}^{-1} m \in\langle\mathbf{L T}(G)\rangle$, then $m \in\left\langle\mathbf{L T}\left(g_{2}\right), \ldots, \mathbf{L T}\left(g_{r}\right)\right\rangle$, and this contradicts the fact that $G$ is a reduced Gröbner basis.

Lemma 3.2.2. I is $d$-stable if and only if $d(g) \in I$ for all $g \in G$.

Proof. One direction is trivial, so we prove the other direction. Suppose $d(g) \in I$ for all $g \in G$ and let $f \in I$. Since $G$ generates $I$, we can write $f=\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r} q_{\lambda} g_{\lambda}$ for some $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{r} \in S$. Thus, by Leibniz law, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
d(f) & =d\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r} q_{\lambda} g_{\lambda}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r} d\left(q_{\lambda} g_{\lambda}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r}\left(d\left(q_{\lambda}\right) g_{\lambda}+q_{\lambda} d\left(g_{\lambda}\right)\right) \in I .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $I$ is $d$-stable.

Remark 3.6. The same proof shows that if $F$ is a generating set of $I$ such that $d(f) \in I$ for all $f \in F$, then I is $d$-stable.

Combining Lemma (3.2.1) and Proposition (3.2.2), we find that that $d(g)=0$ for all $g \in G$ if and only if $d(g) \in I$ for all $g \in G$ if and only if $I$ is $d$-stable. Combining this with

Theorem (3.3), we find that $\left(S_{I}, d\right)$ is a differential graded $K$-algebra if and only if $(S / I, \bar{d})$ is a differential graded $K$-algebra. Now we will show that they are in fact isomorphic to each other.

Theorem 3.7. Suppose I is $d$-stable. Then $\left(S_{I}, d\right)$ is isomorphic to $(S / I, \bar{d})$ as differential graded K-algebras.

Proof. Recall that $S / I$ is isomorphic to $S_{I}$ as graded $K$-algebras, where the isomorphism is given by mapping $\bar{f} \in S / I$ to $f^{G} \in S_{I}$. It remains to show that this isomorphism respects the differential graded algebra structure. In particular, we need to show that $d\left(f^{G}\right)=d(f)^{G}$ for all $f \in S$. This was already proven in Theorem (3.3).

## More Differential Graded $K$-algebras

Proposition 3.8. Suppose $I$ is $d$-stable and let $g$ be a homogeneous polynomial such that $d(g)=0$. Then $\left(S_{\langle I, g\rangle}, d\right)$ and $\left(S_{I: g}, d\right)$ are differential graded $K$-algebras.

Proof. We just need to show that $\langle I, g\rangle$ and $I: g$ are both $d$-stable. Since $d(g)=0$, it follows that $\langle I, g\rangle$ is $d$-stable. To prove that $I: g$ is $d$-stable, let $f \in I: g$. Then since $f g \in I, d(g)=0$, and $I$ is $d$-stable, it follows that

$$
d(f) g=d(f) g+f d(g)=d(f g) \in I
$$

Therefore $d(f) \in I: g$, which implies that $I: g$ is $d$-stable.

Example 3.9. Consider $S=K[x, y, z], g=x^{2} y+x^{2} z$, and $I=\left\langle f_{1}, f_{2}, f_{3}\right\rangle$ where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{1}=x y+x z+y z \\
& f_{2}=x^{4} y+x^{5} \\
& f_{3}=y^{3}+y^{2} z
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $d\left(f_{1}\right)=d\left(f_{2}\right)=d\left(f_{3}\right)=0 \in I$ implies $\left(S_{I}, d\right)$ is a differential graded $K$-algebra. The reduced Gröbner basis for I with respect to graded lexicographical ordering is $G=$ $\left\{g_{1}, g_{2}, g_{3}, g_{4}, g_{5}, g_{6}\right\}$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& g_{1}=x y+x z+y z \\
& g_{2}=y^{3}+y^{2} z \\
& g_{3}=y^{2} z^{2} \\
& g_{4}=x z^{4}+y z^{4} \\
& g_{5}=x^{5}+x^{4} z+x^{3} z^{2}+x^{2} z^{3} \\
& g_{6}=x^{4} z^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $d(g)=0$, we know that $\left(S_{\langle I, g\rangle}, d\right)$ and $\left(S_{I: g}, d\right)$ are also differential graded $K$ algebras. The reduced Gröbner basis for $I: g$ with respect to graded lexicographical ordering is $G^{\prime \prime}=\left\{g_{1}^{\prime \prime}, g_{2}^{\prime \prime}, g_{3}^{\prime \prime}\right\}$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& g_{1}^{\prime \prime}=y+z \\
& g_{2}^{\prime \prime}=z^{2} \\
& g_{3}^{\prime \prime}=x^{3}+x^{2} z
\end{aligned}
$$

and the reduced Gröbner basis for $\langle I, g\rangle$ with respect to graded lexicographical ordering is $G^{\prime}=\left\{g_{1}^{\prime}, g_{2}^{\prime}, g_{3}^{\prime}, g_{4}^{\prime}, g_{5}^{\prime}\right\}$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& g_{1}^{\prime}=x y+x z+y z \\
& g_{2}^{\prime}=y^{3}+y^{2} z \\
& g_{3}^{\prime}=x z^{2}+y z^{2} \\
& g_{4}^{\prime}=y^{2} z^{2} \\
& g_{5}^{\prime}=x^{5}+x^{4} z+x^{3} z^{2}+x^{2} z^{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 3.3 Homology Computations

In this section we record some basic homology computations.

Proposition 3.10. Suppose $I$ is $d$-stable. Then $H\left(S_{I}\right)=0$.
Proof. Let $f$ be a homogeneous polynomial in $S_{I}$ such that $d(f)=0$. Then for any $x_{\lambda} \in\left(S_{I}\right)_{1}$, we have

$$
d\left(x_{\lambda} f\right)=d\left(x_{\lambda}\right) f+x_{\lambda} d(f)=f
$$

Therefore $\operatorname{Ker}(d)=\operatorname{Im}(d)$, hence $H\left(S_{I}\right)=0$.
Proposition 3.11. The differential d induces isomorphisms $H_{i}(I) \cong H_{i-1}\left(S_{I}\right)$ for all $i>0$.
Proof. For all $f \in S$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\underline{d}(\pi(f)) & =\underline{d}\left(f+f^{G}\right) \\
& =d\left(f+f^{G}\right)+d\left(f+f^{G}\right)^{G} \\
& =d(f)+d\left(f^{G}\right)+d(f)^{G}+d\left(f^{G}\right)^{G} \\
& =d(f)+d\left(f^{G}\right)+d(f)^{G}+d\left(f^{G}\right) \\
& =d(f)+d(f)^{G} \\
& =\pi(d(f)),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $d\left(f^{G}\right)^{G}=d\left(f^{G}\right)$ because no term in $d\left(f^{G}\right)$ lies in $\operatorname{LT}(I)$. Therefore we have a short exact sequence of chain complexes over $K$ :

$$
0 \longrightarrow\left(S_{I}, d\right) \longleftrightarrow(S, d) \xrightarrow{\pi}(I, \underline{d}) \longrightarrow 0,
$$

which induces, for each $i>0$, the following short exact sequences:

$$
0=H_{i}(S) \longrightarrow H_{i}(I) \xrightarrow{d} H_{i-1}\left(S_{I}\right) \longrightarrow H_{i-1}(S)=0 .
$$

where $d$ is obtained from the connecting map. In more detail, $d$ maps the element $[f] \in$ $H_{i}(I)$ to the element $[d(f)] \in H_{i-1}\left(S_{I}\right)$.

## Decomposing $H_{i}\left(S_{I}\right)$

Let $g$ be a homogeneous polynomial of degree $j$ and let $G^{\prime}$ be the reduced Gröbner basis for $\langle I, g\rangle$ with respect to our fixed monomial ordering. In Commutative Algebra, we learn about the following short exact sequence of graded $S$-modules

$$
\begin{gathered}
0 \longrightarrow(S /(I: g))(-j) \xrightarrow{g} S / I \longrightarrow S /\langle I, g\rangle \longrightarrow 0 . \\
\bar{f} \longmapsto \overline{f g}
\end{gathered}
$$

We want to use this short exact sequence to our advantage. First, using the isomorphisms $S_{I: g} \cong S /(I: g), S_{I} \cong S / I$, and $S_{\langle I, g\rangle} \cong S /\langle I, g\rangle$, we get, for each $i$, a short exact sequence of $K$-vector spaces

$$
\begin{gathered}
0 \longrightarrow\left(S_{I: g}\right)_{j-i} \xrightarrow{\cdot g}\left(S_{I}\right)_{i} \xrightarrow{-G^{\prime}}\left(S_{\langle I, g\rangle}\right)_{i} \longrightarrow 0 \\
f \longmapsto(f g)^{G} \\
f \\
f \quad f^{G^{\prime}}
\end{gathered}
$$

or in other words, a short exact sequence of graded $K$-vector spaces

$$
0 \longrightarrow\left(S_{I: g}\right)(-j) \xrightarrow{\cdot g} S_{I} \xrightarrow{-G^{\prime}} S_{\langle I, g\rangle} \longrightarrow 0 .
$$

We want to know under what conditions this becomes a short exact sequence of chain complexes over $K$, that is, when does the following diagram commute?


The conditions which need to be satisfied are the following:

$$
\begin{gather*}
(g d(m))^{G}=d\left((g m)^{G}\right) \text { for all monomials } m \text { which are not in } \operatorname{LT}(I: g)  \tag{3.1}\\
d(m)^{G^{\prime}}=d\left(m^{G^{\prime}}\right) \text { for all monomials } m \text { which are not in } \operatorname{LT}(I) \tag{3.2}
\end{gather*}
$$

For the moment, let's assume that these conditions are satisfied so that we have a short exact sequence of chain complexes. Then by the usual argument, the short exact sequence of chain complexes gives rise to a long exact sequence in homology:


It is easy to see that the connecting maps $\lambda$ all induce the zero map. Thus, we get for each $i$, the short exact sequence of $K$-vector spaces:

$$
0 \longrightarrow H_{i-j}\left(S_{I: g}\right) \xrightarrow{\cdot g} H_{i}\left(S_{I}\right) \xrightarrow{-G^{\prime}} H_{i}\left(S_{\langle I, g\rangle}\right) \longrightarrow 0,
$$

and since the inclusion map $S_{\langle I, g\rangle} \hookrightarrow S_{I}$ splits the map $-G^{\prime}$, we obtain the following isomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{i-j}\left(S_{I: g}\right) \oplus H_{i}\left(S_{\langle I, g\rangle}\right) \cong H_{i}\left(S_{I}\right) \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we map the representative $\left(f_{1}, f_{2}\right)$ in $H_{i-j}\left(S_{I: g}\right) \oplus H_{i}\left(S_{\langle I, g\rangle}\right)$ to the representative $g f_{1}+f_{2}$ in $H_{i}\left(S_{I}\right)$. We summarize our findings in the form of a theorem.

Theorem 3.12. Let I be a homogeneous ideal and let $g$ be a homogeneous polynomial of degree $j$. Let $G$ be the reduced Gröbner basis for $I$ and $G^{\prime}$ be the reduced Gröbner basis for $\langle I, g\rangle$ with respect to our fixed monomial ordering. Suppose that the following conditions are satisfied:

1. $(g d(m))^{G}=d\left((g m)^{G}\right)$ for all monomials $m$ which are not in $L T(I: g)$.
2. $d(m)^{G^{\prime}}=d\left(m^{G^{\prime}}\right)$ for all monomials $m$ which are not in $L T(I)$.

Then we have an isomorphism

$$
H_{i-j}\left(S_{I: g}\right) \oplus H_{i}\left(S_{\langle I, g\rangle}\right) \cong H_{i}\left(S_{I}\right)
$$

given by mapping the representative $\left(f_{1}, f_{2}\right)$ in $H_{i-j}\left(S_{I: g}\right) \oplus H_{i}\left(S_{\langle I, g\rangle}\right)$ to the representative $g f_{1}+f_{2}$ in $H_{i}\left(S_{I}\right)$.

## Decomposing $H_{i}\left(S_{I}\right)$ in a Special Case

We will now discuss a special case of when the conditions in Theorem (3.12) are satisfied. Consider the case where $I$ is a monomial ideal and $g$ is a monomial of degree $j$ which is not in $I$. Then condition (3.1) is satisfied since if $m$ is not in $I: g$, then $g m$ is not in $I$, and so $(g m)^{G}=g m$ which implies $(g d(m))^{G}=g d(m)$.

For condition (3.2) first assume that $m$ is not in $\langle I, g\rangle$. Then then $m^{G^{\prime}}=m$, which implies $d(m)^{G^{\prime}}=d(m)=d\left(m^{G^{\prime}}\right)$. Thus condition (3.2) is satisfied in this case. Now assume that $m=g$. Then $m^{G^{\prime}}=0$, which implies $d\left(m^{G^{\prime}}\right)=0$. Thus, we must have $d(g)=$ 0 in order for condition (3.2) to be satisfied in this case. So assume $d(g)=0$ and consider the final case where $m=m_{1} g$. Since $d(g)=0$, we obtain $d(m)^{G^{\prime}}=\left(d\left(m_{1}\right) g\right)^{G^{\prime}}=0$, and thus (3.2) is satisfied in this case as well.

In the next example, we show how we can apply Theorem (3.12) recursively. In what follows, we frequently use the notation $I, g$ to mean $I+\langle g\rangle$ and $I: g$ to mean $I:\langle g\rangle$. For example, $I, g_{1}: g_{2}=\left\langle I, g_{1}\right\rangle:\left\langle g_{2}\right\rangle$, and $I: g_{1}, g_{2}=\left\langle\left(I: g_{1}\right),\left\langle g_{2}\right\rangle\right\rangle$, and so on.

Example 3.13. Consider $S=K[x, y, z]$ and $I=\left\langle x^{3} y, y z^{3}\right\rangle$. Then $d\left(x^{2}\right)=d\left(z^{2}\right)=0$,
and so

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{i}\left(S_{I}\right) & =x^{2} H_{i-2}\left(S_{I: x^{2}}\right) \oplus H_{i}\left(S_{I, x^{2}}\right) \\
& =x^{2}\left(z^{2} H_{i-4}\left(S_{I: x^{2} z^{2}}\right) \oplus H_{i-2}\left(S_{I: x^{2}, z^{2}}\right)\right) \oplus z^{2} H_{i-2}\left(S_{I, x^{2}: z^{2}}\right) \oplus H_{i}\left(S_{I, x^{2}, z^{2}}\right) \\
& =x^{2} z^{2} H_{i-4}\left(S_{I: x^{2} z^{2}}\right) \oplus x^{2} H_{i-2}\left(S_{I: x^{2}, z^{2}}\right) \oplus z^{2} H_{i-2}\left(S_{I, x^{2}: z^{2}}\right) \oplus H_{i}\left(S_{I, x^{2}, z^{2}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

We calculate

$$
\begin{array}{r}
I: x^{2}: z^{2}=\langle x y, y z\rangle \\
I, x^{2}: z^{2}=\left\langle x^{2}, y z\right\rangle \\
I: x^{2}, z^{2}=\left\langle x y, z^{2}\right\rangle \\
I, x^{2}, z^{2}=\left\langle x^{2}, z^{2}\right\rangle
\end{array}
$$

The only part which has nontrivial homology is $S_{I: x^{2}: z^{2}}$. Thus, $H_{5}\left(S_{I}\right)=\left[d\left(x^{3} y z^{2}\right)\right] K$ and $H_{i}\left(S_{I}\right)=0$ for all $i \neq 5$.

### 3.4 TOPOLOGICAL Interpretation of $H\left(S_{I}\right)$

In this section, we will give a topological interpretation of $H\left(S_{I}\right)$ in the case where $I$ is a squarefree monomial ideal. More specifically, we will show that $H\left(S_{I}\right)$ is isomorphic to the simplicial homology of a corresponding simplicial complex.

## Reinterpreting Simplicial Complexes

We want to reinterpret the theory simplicial complexes using the language of monomials. There is a bijection between the set of subsets of $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ and the set of squarefree monomials in the variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$. Indeed, if $m$ is a squarefree monomial, then the corresponding subset of $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ is $\operatorname{supp}(m):=\left\{x_{\lambda} \mid x_{\lambda}\right.$ divides $\left.m\right\}$. Moreover, if $m$ and $m^{\prime}$ are squarefree monomials, then $m$ divides $m^{\prime}$ if and only if $\operatorname{supp}(m) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}\left(m^{\prime}\right)$.

Example 3.14. Here's how we think of squarefree monomials in $x, y, z$ and how they sit on their corresponding faces.


Stanley-Reisner Rings

Let $\Delta$ be a simplicial complex on $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$. We denote by $I_{\Delta}$ to be the ideal of nonfaces of $\Delta$, that is, $I_{\Delta}$ is generated by the squarefree monomials $m$ in $S$ which are not in $\Delta$. We define the Stanley-Reisner ring $K[\Delta]$ of the simplicial complex $\Delta$ to be the $K$-algebra $K[\Delta]:=S / I_{\Delta}$. We will also denote by $I_{\Delta}^{\mathrm{sq}}$ to mean $I_{\Delta}^{\mathrm{sq}}:=I_{\Delta}+\left\langle x_{1}^{2}, \ldots, x_{n}^{2}\right\rangle$.

Conversely, if $I$ is a squarefree monomial ideal, then we denote by $\Delta_{I}$ the simplicial complex on $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ whose ideal of nonfaces is $I$. Thus, $\Delta_{I}$ consists of all squarefree monomials which do not belong to $I$.

Lemma 3.4.1. Suppose $I$ is a monomial ideal and let $\mathcal{M}=\left\{m_{1}, \ldots, m_{r}\right\}$ be the unique minimal basis of $I$. For each $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$, let $k_{\lambda}$ be a nonnegative even integer such that $x_{\lambda}^{k_{\lambda}}$ does not divide any monomial in $\mathcal{M}$. Then

$$
H\left(S_{I}\right) \cong H\left(S_{I+\left\langle x_{1}^{k_{1}}, \ldots, x_{n}^{k_{n}^{n}}\right\rangle}\right)
$$

Proof. We prove by induction on $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$. The base case $\lambda=1$ will follow if $H\left(S_{I: x_{1}^{k_{1}}}\right) \cong 0$, since

$$
H\left(S_{I}\right) \cong H\left(S_{I: x_{1}^{k_{1}}}\right) \oplus H\left(S_{\left\langle I, x_{1}^{k_{1}}\right\rangle}\right)
$$

by Theorem (3.12). Since $x_{1}^{k_{1}}$ does not divide any monomial in $\mathcal{M}$, a basis for $I: x_{1}^{k_{1}}$ is given by $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}=\left\{m_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, m_{r}^{\prime}\right\}$, where if $m_{\mu}=x_{1}^{\alpha_{\mu 1}} x_{2}^{\alpha_{\mu 2}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{\mu n}}$, then $m_{\mu}^{\prime}=x_{2}^{\alpha_{\mu 2}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{\mu n}}$
for all $\mu=1, \ldots, r$. In particular, if $f \in S_{I: x_{1}^{k_{1}}}$ represents a cycle in $H\left(S_{I: x_{1}^{k_{1}}}\right)$, then $x_{1} f \in S_{I: x_{1}^{k_{1}}}$ represents a boundary of $f$ in $H\left(S_{I: x_{1}^{k_{1}}}\right)$. Thus $H\left(S_{I: x_{1}^{k_{1}}}\right)=0$, and our claim is proved.

For the induction step, assume that

$$
H\left(S_{I}\right) \cong H\left(S_{\left\langle I, x_{1}^{k_{1}, \ldots, x_{\lambda}}{ }^{k_{\lambda}}\right)}\right)
$$

for some $1 \leq \lambda<n$. By the same argument as in the base case (with $I+\left\langle x_{1}^{k_{1}}, \ldots, x_{\lambda}^{k_{\lambda}}\right\rangle$ replaced with $I)$, we have $H\left(S_{\left.\left(I+\left\langle x_{1}^{k_{1}}, \ldots, x_{\lambda}^{k_{\lambda}}\right\rangle\right): x_{\lambda+1}^{k_{\lambda+1}}\right) \cong 0 \text {. Thus }}\right.$

$$
\begin{aligned}
H\left(S_{I}\right) & \cong H\left(S_{I+\left\langle x_{1}^{\left.k_{1}, \ldots, x_{\lambda}^{k}\right\rangle}\right.}\right) \\
& \cong H\left(S_{\left(I+\left\langle x_{1}^{k_{1}}, \ldots, x_{\lambda}^{k_{\lambda}}\right\rangle\right): x_{\lambda+1}^{k_{\lambda+1}}}\right) \oplus H\left(S_{I+\left\langle x_{1}^{k_{1}}, \ldots, x_{\lambda}^{k_{\lambda}}, x_{\lambda+1}^{\left.k_{\lambda+1}\right\rangle}\right.}\right) \\
& \cong H\left(S_{I+\left\langle x_{1}^{k_{1}}, \ldots, x_{\lambda}^{\left.k_{\lambda}, x_{\lambda+1}^{k_{\lambda+1}}\right\rangle}\right)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

This proves the induction step, and hence the lemma.

Theorem 3.15. Let $\Delta$ be a simplicial complex on $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$. Then

$$
H_{i}\left(S_{I_{\Delta}}\right) \cong H_{i}\left(S_{I_{\Delta}^{s q}}\right) \cong \widetilde{H}_{i-1}(\Delta ; K)
$$

for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. The first isomorphism $H_{i}\left(S_{I_{\Delta}}\right) \cong H_{i}\left(S_{I_{\Delta}^{\text {sq }}}\right)$ follows from Lemma (3.4.1). Indeed, $I_{\Delta}$ is a squarefree monomial ideal, and hence $x_{\lambda}^{2}$ does not divide any monomial in the minimal monomial basis of $I_{\Delta}$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$.

Now we will show that $H_{i}\left(S_{I_{\Delta}^{\mathrm{sq}}} \cong \widetilde{H}_{i-1}(\Delta ; K)\right.$. The map $\varphi: S_{I_{\Delta}^{\text {sq }}} \rightarrow S(\Delta)$, given by $\varphi(m)=\operatorname{supp}(m)$ for all monomials $m \in S_{I_{\Delta}^{\text {sa }}}$, is a graded isomorphism of degree -1 . Moreover, it is easy to check that $\varphi d=\partial \varphi$. Thus $\varphi$ induces an isomorphism $H_{i}\left(S_{I_{\Delta}^{\text {sa }}}\right) \cong$ $\widetilde{H}_{i-1}(\Delta ; K)$.

Corollary 3.16. Suppose I is a squarefree monomial ideal. Then

$$
H_{i}\left(S_{I}\right) \cong \widetilde{H}_{i-1}\left(\Delta_{I} ; K\right)
$$

## CHAPTER 4 <br> HOMOLOGICAL CONSTRUCTIONS OVER A RING OF CHARACTERISTIC 2

Throughout this chapter, let $R$ be a ring of characteristic 2 . The purpose of this chapter is to generalize some of our results from chapter 3. In particular, we will determine the structure of differential graded $R$-algebras which are finitely-generated and commutative. To avoid repetition, all differential graded $R$-algebras mentioned in this section are assumed to be finitely generated and commutative.

### 4.1 Constructing Differential Graded $R$-Algebras

Theorem 4.1. Let $S_{w}$ denote the weighted polynomial ring $R\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]_{\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)}$. Define the map

$$
d:=\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} f_{\lambda} \partial_{x_{\lambda}},
$$

where $f_{\lambda}$ is a nonzero homogeneous polynomial in $S_{w}$ of weighted degree $w_{\lambda}-1$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$. Then

1. $d$ is a graded endomorphism $d: S_{w} \rightarrow S_{w}$ of degree -1 which satisfies Leibniz law.
2. Moreover, let $I \subset S_{w}$ be any d-stable homogeneous ideal such that $d\left(f_{\lambda}\right) \in I$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$ and such that $I \subset\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle$. Then d induces a map $\bar{d}: S_{w} / I \rightarrow$ $S_{w} / I$, given by $\bar{d}(\bar{f})=\overline{d(f)}$ for all $\bar{f} \in S_{w} / I$, and $\left(S_{w} / I, \bar{d}\right)$ is a differential graded $R$-algebra.

Proof. We first show that $d$ is a graded endomorphism $d: S_{w} \rightarrow S_{w}$ of degree -1 which satisfies Leibniz law:

- $R$-linearity: We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
d\left(r_{1} g_{1}+r_{2} g_{2}\right) & =\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} f_{\lambda} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}\left(r_{1} g_{1}+r_{2} g_{2}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} f_{\lambda}\left(r_{1} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}\left(g_{1}\right)+r_{2} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}\left(g_{2}\right)\right) \\
& \left.=r_{1} \sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} f_{\lambda} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}\left(g_{1}\right)+r_{2} \sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} f_{\lambda} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}\left(g_{2}\right)\right) \\
& =r_{1} d\left(g_{1}\right)+r_{2} d\left(g_{2}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $r_{1}, r_{2} \in R$ and $g_{1}, g_{2} \in S_{w}$.

- Leibniz law: We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
d\left(g_{1} g_{2}\right) & =\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} f_{\lambda} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}\left(g_{1} g_{2}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} f_{\lambda}\left(\partial_{x_{\lambda}}\left(g_{1}\right) g_{2}+g_{1} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}\left(g_{2}\right)\right) \\
& \left.=\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} f_{\lambda} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}\left(g_{1}\right)\right) g_{2}+g_{1}\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} f_{\lambda} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}\left(g_{2}\right)\right)\right) \\
& =d\left(g_{1}\right) g_{2}+g_{1} d\left(g_{2}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $g_{1}, g_{2} \in S_{w}$.

- Graded of degree -1 : By $R$-linearity, we only need to check this on monomials. Let $x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}$ be a monomial of weighted degree $i$. A term in $d\left(x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right)$ has the form $\alpha_{\lambda} f_{\lambda} x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{\lambda}^{\alpha_{\lambda}-1} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}$ where $\alpha_{\lambda} \equiv 1 \bmod 2$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{deg}_{w}\left(\alpha_{\lambda} f_{\lambda} x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{\lambda}^{\alpha_{\lambda}-1} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right) & =\operatorname{deg}_{w}\left(f_{\lambda} x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{\lambda}^{\alpha_{\lambda}-1} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right) \\
& =\operatorname{deg}_{w}\left(f_{\lambda}\right)+\operatorname{deg}_{w}\left(x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{\lambda}^{\alpha_{\lambda}-1} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right) \\
& =w_{\lambda}-1+w_{1} \alpha_{1}+\cdots+w_{\lambda}\left(\alpha_{\lambda}-1\right)+\cdots+w_{n} \alpha_{n} \\
& =-1+w_{1} \alpha_{1}+\cdots+w_{\lambda} \alpha_{\lambda}+\cdots+w_{n} \alpha_{n} \\
& =-1+i .
\end{aligned}
$$

So every term in $d\left(x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right)$ has weighted degree $-1+i$. This implies that $d$ is graded of degree -1 .

Now we will show that $\left(S_{w} / I, \bar{d}\right)$ is a differential graded $R$-algebra. Since $I$ is $d$ stable, the map $\bar{d}$ is well-defined. The map $\bar{d}$ inherits the properties of being a graded endomorphism of degree -1 which satisfies Leibniz law from $d$, thus we just need to show that $\bar{d}^{2}=0$, or in other words, that $d^{2}(g) \in I$ for all $g \in S_{w}$. So let $g \in S_{w}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
d^{2}(g) & =d\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} f_{\lambda} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}(g)\right) \\
& =\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} d\left(f_{\lambda} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}(g)\right) \\
& =\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} d\left(f_{\lambda}\right) \partial_{x_{\lambda}}(g)+f_{\lambda} d\left(\partial_{x_{\lambda}}(g)\right) \\
& =\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} d\left(f_{\lambda}\right) \partial_{x_{\lambda}}(g) \in I,
\end{aligned}
$$

where we used the fact that $\partial_{x_{\lambda}}^{2}=0$ and $\partial_{x_{\mu}} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}=\partial_{x_{\lambda}} \partial_{x_{\mu}}$ to conclude that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} f_{\lambda} d\left(\partial_{x_{\lambda}}(g)\right) & =\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} f_{\lambda} \sum_{\mu=1}^{n} f_{\mu} \partial_{x_{\mu}}\left(\partial_{x_{\lambda}}(g)\right) \\
& =0
\end{aligned}
$$

## Remark 4.2.

1. We often denote this differential graded $R$-algebra as $\left(S_{w} / I, f_{1}, \ldots f_{n}\right)$ instead of $\left(S_{w} / I, \bar{d}\right)$.
2. When we write "let $\left(S_{w} / I, f_{1}, \ldots f_{n}\right)$ be a differential graded $R$-algebra", it is understood that the conditions in Theorem (4.1) are satisfied.

Proposition 4.3. Let $\left(S_{w}, d\right)$ be a differential graded $R$-algebra and let I be a homogeneous ideal in $S$. Then I is $d$-stable if and only iffor some generating set $\left\{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{r}\right\}$ of $I$, we have $d\left(g_{\lambda}\right) \in I$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, r$.

Proof. One direction is trivial, so let's prove the other direction. Let $\left\{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{r}\right\}$ be a generating set for $I$ such that $d\left(g_{\lambda}\right) \in I$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, r$ and let $g \in I$. Since $\left\{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{r}\right\}$ generates $I$, we can write $g=\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r} q_{\lambda} g_{\lambda}$ for some $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{r} \in S$. Thus, by Leibniz law, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
d(g) & =d\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r} q_{\lambda} g_{\lambda}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r} d\left(q_{\lambda} g_{\lambda}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r}\left(d\left(q_{\lambda}\right) g_{\lambda}+q_{\lambda} d\left(g_{\lambda}\right)\right) \in I
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $I$ is $d$-stable.
Proposition 4.4. Let $\left(S_{w} / I, f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}\right)$ be a differential graded $R$-algebra and let $g$ be a homogeneous polynomial in $S$ of degree $j$ such that $d(g)$ is in $I$. Then $\left(S_{w} /\langle I, g\rangle, f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}\right)$ and $\left(S /(I: g), f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}\right)$ are differential graded $R$-algebras.

Proof. First note that $d\left(f_{\lambda}\right) \in I$ implies $d\left(f_{\lambda}\right) \in\langle I, g\rangle$ and $d\left(f_{\lambda}\right) \in I: g$ for all $\lambda=$ $1, \ldots, n$. So we just need to show that $\langle I, g\rangle$ and $I: g$ are $d$-stable. Since $d(g)$ is in $I$, Proposition (4.3) implies that $\langle I, g\rangle$ is $d$-stable. To prove that $I: g$ is $d$-stable, let $f \in I: g$. Then since $f g \in I$ and $I$ is $d$-stable, it follows that $d(f g)=d(f) g+f d(g) \in I$, which implies $d(f) g \in I$, since $d(g) \in I$. Therefore $d(f) \in I: g$, which implies that $I: g$ is $d$-stable.

### 4.2 Classifying Differential Graded $R$-Algebras

Theorem 4.5. Every differential graded $R$-algebra is isomorphic to one described in Theorem (4.1).

Proof. Let $\left(A, d_{A}\right)$ be a differential graded $R$-algebra with generators $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$. Then for each $\lambda=1, \ldots n$, we have $a_{\lambda} \in A_{w_{\lambda}}$, where $w_{\lambda} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. Let $S_{w}$ denote the weighted polynomial ring $R\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]_{\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)}$, and let $\varphi: S_{w} \rightarrow A$ be the unique morphism of graded $R$-algebras such that $\varphi\left(x_{\lambda}\right)=a_{\lambda}$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$. Then $A$ is isomorphic to $S_{w} / \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$ as graded $R$-algebras. Choose $f_{\lambda} \in S_{w}$ such that $\varphi\left(f_{\lambda}\right)=d_{A}\left(a_{\lambda}\right)$ and define the map $d: S_{w} \rightarrow S_{w}$ by

$$
d:=\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} f_{\lambda} \partial_{x_{\lambda}} .
$$

Then $d$ is a graded endomorphism of degree -1 which satisfies Leibniz law, by Theorem (4.1). We claim that $\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$ is $d$-stable and that $d\left(f_{\lambda}\right) \in \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$. We do this in two steps:

Step 1: We will show that $\varphi d=d_{A} \varphi$. It suffices to show that for all monomials $m$, we have $\varphi(d(m))=d_{A}(\varphi(m))$. We prove this by induction on $\operatorname{deg}(m)$. For the base case $\operatorname{deg}(m)=1$, we have $m=x_{\lambda}$ for some $\lambda \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi\left(d\left(x_{\lambda}\right)\right) & =\varphi\left(f_{\lambda}\right) \\
& =d_{A}\left(a_{\lambda}\right) \\
& =d_{A}\left(\varphi\left(x_{\lambda}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Now suppose that $\varphi(d(m))=d_{A}(\varphi(m))$ for all monomials $m$ in $S$ of degree less than $i$, where $i>1$. Let $x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}$ be a monomial in $S$ whose degree is $i+1$. We may assume that $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{\lambda} \geq 1$ for some $\lambda \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Then using Leibniz law together with induction,
we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi\left(d\left(x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} x_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right)\right) & =\varphi\left(d\left(x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}}\right) x_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}+x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} d\left(x_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right)\right) \\
& =\varphi\left(d\left(x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}}\right)\right) \varphi\left(x_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right)+\varphi\left(x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}}\right) \varphi\left(d\left(x_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right)\right) \\
& =\varphi\left(d\left(x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}}\right)\right) a_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdots a_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}+a_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \varphi\left(d\left(x_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right)\right) \\
& =d_{A}\left(a_{1}^{\alpha_{1}}\right) a_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdots a_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}+a_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} d_{A}\left(a_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdots a_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right) \\
& =d_{A}\left(a_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} a_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdots a_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right) \\
& =d_{A}\left(\varphi\left(x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} x_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

This establishes Step 1.

Step 2: We show that $\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$ is $d$-stable and that $d\left(f_{\lambda}\right) \in \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$. Let $g \in \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$. Then by Step 1, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi(d(g)) & =d_{A}(\varphi(g)) \\
& =d_{A}(0) \\
& =0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $d(g) \in \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$, which implies $\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$ is $d$-stable. Step 1 also implies

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi\left(d\left(f_{\lambda}\right)\right) & =d_{A}\left(\varphi\left(f_{\lambda}\right)\right) \\
& =d_{A}\left(d_{A}\left(a_{\lambda}\right)\right) \\
& =0,
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$.

Now Theorem (4.1) implies that $\left(S_{w} / \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi), \bar{d}\right)$ is a differential graded $R$-algebra. Moreover, Step 1 implies $\varphi:\left(S_{w} / \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi), \bar{d}\right) \rightarrow\left(A, d_{A}\right)$ is an isomorphism of differential graded $R$-algebras.

## Differential Graded $R$-algebras of the Form $\left(S / I, r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)$

We now want to consider some special cases of Theorem (4.1). In particular, we want to consider the case where the weighted vector is $w=(1, \ldots, 1)$. As usual, we will write $S$ to denote the polynomial ring $R\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$. Let $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}$ be nonzero elements in $R$, and define $d: S \rightarrow S$ by

$$
d:=\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} r_{\lambda} \partial_{x_{\lambda}}
$$

Since $d\left(r_{\lambda}\right)=0$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$, it follows from Theorem (4.1) that $\left(S, r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)$ is a differential graded $R$-algebra. Moreover, if $I$ is a $d$-stable ideal, then $\left(S / I, r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)$ is a differential graded $R$-algebra.

## Koszul Complex

Recall from Example (2.19) that the Koszul complex $\mathcal{K}\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)$ is a differential graded $R$-algebra. Indeed, $\mathcal{K}\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)$ is isomorphic to the differential graded $R$-algebra $\left(S / I, r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)$, where $I$ is generated by $\left\{x_{1}^{2}, \ldots, x_{n}^{2}\right\}$. Clearly $I$ is $d$-stable since $d\left(x_{\lambda}^{2}\right)=0$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$.

Example 4.6. Let $R=\mathbb{F}_{2}[x, y] /\langle x y\rangle$ and let $r_{1}=x$ and $r_{2}=y$. Then $S=R[u, v]$ has $a$ differential graded $R$-algebra structure with the differential d given by

$$
d:=x \partial_{u}+y \partial_{v} .
$$

Using graded lexicographical ordering on the monomials, we can explicitly write $S$ as a chain complex over $R$ using matrices as the linear maps:

$$
\cdots \longrightarrow R^{4} \xrightarrow{\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
x & y & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & x & y
\end{array}\right)} R^{3} \xrightarrow{\left(\begin{array}{lll}
0 & y & 0 \\
0 & x & 0
\end{array}\right)} R^{2} \xrightarrow{\left(\begin{array}{cc}
x & y
\end{array}\right)} R \longrightarrow 0
$$

Now let I be the homogeneous ideal in $S$ generated by $\left\{x^{2}, y^{2}\right\}$. Then $\left(S / I, r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$ is isomorphic to the Koszul complex $\mathcal{K}\left(r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$. Using graded lexicographical ordering on the monomials, we can explicitly write $S / I$ as a chain complex over $R$ using matrices as the linear maps:

$$
0 \longrightarrow R \xrightarrow{\binom{y}{x}} R^{2} \xrightarrow{\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x & y
\end{array}\right)} R \longrightarrow 0
$$

## Blowup algebras

Proposition 4.7. Let $Q$ be a finitely generated ideal in $R$ with generating set $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}$. Then the blowup algebra $B_{Q}(R)$ can be given the structure of differential graded $R$ algebra.

Proof. Let $\varphi: S \rightarrow B_{Q}(R)$ be the unique graded $R$-algebra homomorphism such that $\varphi\left(x_{\lambda}\right)=t a_{\lambda}$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, n$ and let $d:=\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} a_{\lambda} \partial_{\lambda}$. We claim that $\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$ is $d$ stable. Indeed, let $f \in \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$. Since $\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$ is homogeneous, we may assume that $f$ is homogeneous. Write $f$ and $d(f)$ in terms of the monomial basis:

$$
f=\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r} b_{\lambda} x_{1}^{\alpha_{1 \lambda}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n \lambda}} \quad \text { and } \quad d(f)=\sum_{\substack{1 \leq \mu \leq n \\ 1 \leq \lambda \leq r}} \alpha_{\mu \lambda} a_{\mu} b_{\lambda} x_{1}^{\alpha_{1 \lambda}} \cdots x_{\mu}^{\alpha_{\mu \lambda}-1} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n \lambda}} .
$$

where $b_{\lambda} \in R$ and $\alpha_{\mu \lambda} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ for all $\lambda=1, \ldots, r$ and $\mu=1, \ldots n$. Observe that

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =\varphi(f) \\
& =\varphi\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r} b_{\lambda} x_{1}^{\alpha_{1 \lambda}} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n \lambda}}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r} b_{\lambda} \varphi\left(x_{1}\right)^{\alpha_{1 \lambda}} \cdots \varphi\left(x_{n}\right)^{\alpha_{n \lambda}} \\
& =t^{i}\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r} b_{\lambda} a_{1}^{\alpha_{1 \lambda}} \cdots a_{n}{ }^{\alpha_{n \lambda}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

implies that $\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r} b_{\lambda} a_{1}^{\alpha_{1 \lambda}} \cdots a_{n}{ }^{\alpha_{n \lambda}}=0$. Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi(d(f)) & =\varphi\left(\sum_{\substack{1 \leq \mu \leq n \\
1 \leq \lambda \leq r}} \alpha_{\mu \lambda} a_{\mu} b_{\lambda} x_{1}^{\alpha_{1 \lambda}} \cdots x_{\mu}^{\alpha_{\mu \lambda}-1} \cdots x_{n}^{\alpha_{n \lambda}}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\substack{1 \leq \mu \leq n \\
1 \leq \lambda \leq r}} \alpha_{\mu \lambda} a_{\mu} b_{\lambda} \varphi\left(x_{1}\right)^{\alpha_{1 \lambda}} \cdots \varphi\left(x_{\mu}\right)^{\alpha_{\mu \lambda}-1} \cdots \varphi\left(x_{n}\right)^{\alpha_{n \lambda}} \\
& =t^{i-1}\left(\sum_{\substack{1 \leq \mu \leq n \\
1 \leq \lambda \leq r}} \alpha_{\mu \lambda} a_{\mu} b_{\lambda} a_{1}^{\alpha_{1 \lambda}} \cdots a_{\mu}^{\alpha_{\mu \lambda}-1} \cdots a_{n}^{\alpha_{n \lambda}}\right) \\
& =t^{i-1}\left(\left(\sum_{\mu=1}^{n} \alpha_{\mu \lambda}\right)\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r} b_{\lambda} a_{1}^{\alpha_{1 \lambda}} \cdots a_{n}^{\alpha_{n \lambda}}\right)\right) \\
& =0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\left(S / \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi), a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ is a differential graded $R$-algebra where $S / \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi) \cong$ $B_{Q}(R)$.

Remark 4.8. It isn't too difficult to show that this differential graded $R$-algebra is $\left(B_{Q}(R), \partial_{t}\right)$, where $\partial_{t}$ is defined in the obvious way.

Example 4.9. Let $R=\mathbb{F}_{2}[x, y] /\left\langle y^{2}+x^{3}+x^{2}\right\rangle$, $\mathfrak{m}$ be the maximal ideal in $R$ generated by $\{\bar{x}, \bar{y}\}, S$ denote the polynomial ring $R[u, v]$, and $d=\bar{x} \partial_{u}+\bar{y} \partial_{v}$. There is a surjective $R$-algebra homomorphism from $S$ to the blowup algebra at $\mathfrak{m}$ given by

$$
\varphi: S:=\mathbb{F}_{2}[x, y, u, v] /\left\langle y^{2}+x^{3}+x^{2}\right\rangle \rightarrow B_{\mathfrak{m}}(R)
$$

where $\varphi$ is induced by $\varphi(u)=t \bar{x}$ and $v \mapsto t \bar{y}$. Using Singular, we find that the kernel of $\varphi$ is an ideal which is homogeneous in the variables $u, v$, and is generated by the set $\left\{f_{1}, f_{2}, f_{3}\right\}$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{1}=\bar{x} v+\bar{y} u \\
& f_{2}=\bar{x} u^{2}+u^{2}+v^{2} \\
& f_{3}=\bar{x}^{2} u+\bar{x} u+\bar{y} v
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $d\left(f_{1}\right)=d\left(f_{2}\right)=d\left(f_{3}\right) \in \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$. It follows from Proposition (4.3) that $\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$ is d-stable, which we already knew from Proposition (4.7).

### 4.3 Homology Computations

Proposition 4.10. Let $\left(S / I, r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)$ be a differential graded $R$-algebra. Suppose that there are $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n} \in R$ such

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} t_{\lambda} r_{\lambda}=1 \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $H\left(S / I, r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)=0$.

Proof. First note that $\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} t_{\lambda} x_{\lambda} \notin I$, otherwise $d\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} t_{\lambda} x_{\lambda}\right)=1 \notin I$ would imply that $I$ is not $d$-stable. Let $f$ be a homogeneous polynomial of degree $i$ such $d(f) \in I$; so $f$ represents a cycle of $(S / I, \bar{d})$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
d\left(\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} t_{\lambda} x_{\lambda}\right) f\right) & =d\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} t_{\lambda} x_{\lambda}\right) f+\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} t_{\lambda} x_{\lambda}\right) d(f) \\
& =\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} t_{\lambda} r_{\lambda}\right) f+\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} t_{\lambda} x_{\lambda}\right) d(f) \\
& =f+\left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} t_{\lambda} x_{\lambda}\right) d(f) \\
& \equiv f \bmod I .
\end{aligned}
$$

thus $\operatorname{Ker}(\bar{d})=\operatorname{Im}(\bar{d})$, which proves the claim.

Remark 4.11. The condition (4.1) is equivalent to saying that $\left\{r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right\}$ generates the unit ideal.

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