

What is algebraic geometry? | Lec 1 |

Algebraic geometry is the study of geometric objects defined algebraically.

Example: Let k be a field, and consider a set of polynomial equations in n variables x_1, \dots, x_n with coefficients in k , say

$$P_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0$$

$$\vdots$$
$$P_m(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0.$$

This gives rise to a geometric object, namely the solution set

$$V = \left\{ (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in k^n \mid \begin{array}{l} P_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0 \\ \vdots \\ P_m(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0 \end{array} \right\}$$

Understanding the geometry of such V is a building block of algebraic geometry.

What does "Understanding the geometry" mean?

① Local geometry - Take $k = \mathbb{C}$, $n = 2$
and $m = 1$ (2 variables, 1 equation)

$$\underline{y^2 = x}$$

Here the solution set V is in bijection with \mathbb{C} via the map $(x, y) \rightarrow y$.

The inverse is $y \mapsto (y^2, y)$

Note that both maps are continuous, so V is homeomorphic to \mathbb{C}



Smooth manifold

$$\underline{y^2 = x^2}$$

Here the solution set has two "components"

$$V_1 : y = x \text{ or}$$

$$V_2 : y = -x$$

Each one is homeomorphic to \mathbb{C} , and they intersect in one point so



Not a smooth manifold

geometry

Q: When is the solution set a smooth manifold?

② Global geometry:- Again $k = \mathbb{C}$, and suppose V is a manifold. But which one? What is its Euler characteristic? Cohomology? -----

Ex: • $\{y^2 = x\} \cong \mathbb{C} \cong \mathbb{C}P^1 \setminus \{pt\}$.

Do this if time permits: • $\{y^2 = x^2 + 1\} \cong \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$
 • $\{(y-x)(y+x) = 1\} \cong \mathbb{C}P^1 \setminus 2 \text{ pts.}$

state but don't prove • $\{y^2 = x^3 + 1\} \cong \text{Torus} \setminus \{pt\}$



• $\{y^2 = x^4 + 1\} \cong \text{Torus} \setminus \{2 \text{ pts}\}$

Thm: $V = \{y^2 = f(x)\}$ is smooth iff

$f(x)$ has no repeated roots. In this

case $d = \text{deg } f$. $V \cong \begin{cases} \text{Surf. of genus } \frac{d-1}{2} \setminus 1 \text{ pt if } d \text{ odd} \\ \text{surf of genus } \frac{d}{2} \setminus 2 \text{ pts if } d \text{ even.} \end{cases}$

Why polynomial equations?

① Simplest - only use $+$, x , $-$

⇓
Most widely applicable! Make sense whenever we have a commutative ring.

So we don't have to take $k = \mathbb{C}$.
Can take any ring k .

This has a profound advantages.

$(k = \mathbb{C})$ ← geometric intuition

⇓
Algebraic formulation

⇓
Apply geometric ideas to algebraic situations where no obvious geometry exists!

Example: Can define (and use!) genus of $y^2 = f(x)$
where the coeff of f are in \mathbb{F}_p !

② A lot of naturally occurring objects
are algebraic (defined using polynomial
equations).

ex. Projective spaces
Grassmannians
Flag varieties
Matrix groups
...

Affine algebraic sets

Lect 2

Let k be a field.

Define \mathbb{A}_k^n , called the affine n space over k , by

$$\mathbb{A}_k^n = \{ (P_1, \dots, P_n) \mid x_i \in k \} = k^n.$$

Recall $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ = The ring of polynomials in variables x_1, \dots, x_n with coeff in k .

Every $f \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ defines a function $\mathbb{A}^n \rightarrow k$

$$P = (P_1, \dots, P_n) \mapsto f(P_1, \dots, P_n) = f(p)$$

Let $S \subset k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be any set.

The affine algebraic set defined by S is the set

$$V(S) \subset \mathbb{A}^n$$
$$V(S) = \{ P \in \mathbb{A}^n \mid f(P) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in S \}$$

A subset $Z \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is called an affine algebraic set if $Z = V(S)$ for some S .

Examples

- ① \emptyset is algebraic $\emptyset = V(1)$
- ② \mathbb{A}^n is algebraic $\mathbb{A}^n = V(0)$
- ③ Single point $\{p\}$
 $\{p\} = V(x_1 - p_1, \dots, x_n - p_n)$
- ④ Algebraic subsets of \mathbb{A}^1
" "
Finite subsets of \mathbb{A}^1 or \mathbb{A}^1

Non examples

- ④ The unit cube in $\mathbb{A}^1_{\mathbb{R}}$
- ⑤ Rational points in $\mathbb{A}^n_{\mathbb{C}}$.
- ⑥ ...

Today's main thm: Let $Z \subset \mathbb{A}^n_k$ be an algebraic set. Then there exists a finite set S such that $Z = V(S)$.

This will follow from an algebraic fact - that $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is a Noetherian ring. Let us recall this notion & prove it.

First, recall the def. of an ideal.

Next, recall the def. of an ideal generated by a set S .

Proposition: Let $\langle S \rangle$ be the ideal generated by S . Then $V(\langle S \rangle) = V(S)$.

Pf. Show $V(\langle S \rangle) \subset V(S)$ and
 $V(S) \subset V(\langle S \rangle)$.

Details skipped. (but will do in class)
 \square

Recall the def. of a Noetherian ring.

Prop: TFAE

- ① Every ideal of R is generated by finitely many elements of R . ("finitely generated")
- ② Every infinite chain of ideals
 $I_1 \subset I_2 \subset I_3 \subset \dots$

stabilizes.

Pf: Skip if students seem familiar with this.

Def: A Noetherian ring R is one where the above conditions hold.

Ex. ① $R = \mathbb{Z}$
② $R = \text{field}$.

Thm (Hilbert basis thm): If R is Noetherian, then so is $R[x]$.

Cor: $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is Noetherian.

Pf of thm: Let $I \subset R[x]$ be an ideal.
Let us find a finite generating set for I .
For every m , define

$$J_m = \{ \text{leading coeff}(f) \mid f \in I, \deg(f) \leq m \} \cup \{0\}.$$

Then $J_m \subset R$ is an ideal.

Also $J_m \subset J_{m+1}$. Since R is Noeth.
the chain $J_0 \subset J_1 \subset J_2 \subset \dots$ stabilizes.

$$\text{Say } J_m = J_{m+1} = \dots = J.$$

Also each J_1, \dots, J_m is finitely gen.

Say $J_\ell = \langle G_\ell \rangle$ $G_\ell \subset R$ finite.

For each $g \in G_\ell$, let $P_g \in I$ be of $\deg \leq \ell$ such that $\text{lead coeff}(P_g) = g$.

We claim that

$$I = \langle P_g \mid g \in G_0 \cup \dots \cup G_m \rangle.$$

\supset is clear.

For C , take $f \in I$.

We induct on $\deg(f)$.

If $\deg(f) = 0$, then $f \in J_0 = \langle G_0 \rangle$
and for $g \in G_0$, $P_g = g$, so done.

Otherwise, we use the division alg.

Let $d = \deg(f)$. Say

$$f = a_d x^d + \dots$$

Then $a_d \in J_d = \langle G_d \rangle$.

Say $G_d = \langle g_1, \dots, g_r \rangle$ and

$$a_d = c_1 g_1 + \dots + c_r g_r.$$

Recall we have P_{g_1}, \dots, P_{g_r} of $\deg \leq d$
such that $g_i = \text{lead coeff}(P_{g_i})$

Then

$$f - c_1 x^{d-\deg(P_{g_1})} P_{g_1} - \dots - c_r x^{d-\deg(P_{g_r})} P_{g_r}$$

is in I and has lower degree
than f . By induction, it lies in

$$\langle P_g \mid g \in G_0 \cup \dots \cup G_m \rangle$$

But then f also lies in this set.

The induction step is complete

\square .

Conseq: If $Z \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is algebraic
then $Z = V(S)$ for S finite

Pf: $Z = V(T)$ for some T
 $= V(\langle T \rangle)$

but $\langle T \rangle = \langle S \rangle$ for some finite S

so

$$Z = V(S).$$

□

If time permits

- Examples of Non-Noetherian rings.
- The ring of continuous functions $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is not Noetherian.

Prop: R Noetherian, $I \subset R$ ideal
 $\Rightarrow R/I$ Noetherian.

i.e. R Noetherian & $R \rightarrow S$ surj ring
hom. $\Rightarrow S$ Noetherian.

Pf - If there is time.

Caution - Subrings of Noeth. rings not
necessarily Noetherian!

Zariski Topology

[Lec 3]

Recall from last time

$$\mathbb{A}_k^n = \{ (P_1, \dots, P_n) \mid P_i \in k \}$$

$S \subset k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \rightsquigarrow V(S) \subset \mathbb{A}^n$
An ²affine algebraic set.

These subsets define a topology on \mathbb{A}^n called the Zariski topology. In this lecture we will see how.

Recall the definition of a topology on a set X . Usually it is defined by specifying a collection of subsets of X which are called the "open sets", which satisfy certain axioms. We can equivalently specify a topology by specifying the complements of the open sets, which are called "closed sets".

The collection of closed sets must satisfy the following axioms

- ① \emptyset and X are closed.
- ② Arbitrary intersections of closed sets are closed.
- ③ Finite unions of closed sets are closed.

Set $X = \mathbb{A}_k^n$ and let the closed sets be the affine algebraic subsets of X , namely the sets $V(S)$ for various S .

Prop: The above defines a topology on X .

Pf: Check all the axioms. The key things are the following—

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \emptyset = V(1) \quad X = V(0).$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \text{If } X_i = V(S_i), \text{ then} \\ \bigcap X_i = V(\bigcup S_i)$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \text{If } X_1 = V(S_1) \quad X_2 = V(S_2) \\ \text{then} \\ X_1 \cup X_2 = V(S_1 S_2).$$

The first two are easy so I will skip the details in the notes (and decide to do them in class depending on the students).

For ③, remember

$$S_1 S_2 = \{f_1 f_2 \mid f_1 \in S_1, f_2 \in S_2\}$$

easy:

$$X_1 \cup X_2 \subset V(S_1 S_2)$$

For the reverse inclusion, let $p \in V(S_1 S_2)$.

We want $p \in X_1 \cup X_2$. Suppose

$p \notin X_1$. We want $p \in X_2$.

$p \notin X_1 \Rightarrow \exists f_1 \in S_1$ s.t. $f_1(p) \neq 0$.

But $p \in V(S_1 S_2)$

$$\text{so } f_1 f_2(p) = 0 \quad \forall f_2 \in S_2$$

$$\text{so } f_2(p) = 0 \quad \forall f_2 \in S_2$$

$$\Rightarrow p \in X_2$$

□

③ + induction \Rightarrow finite union property.

So we have a topology.

Ex. $X = \mathbb{A}^1$.

Then the closed sets are \mathbb{A}^1 or finite sets.

(so for $k = \mathbb{C}$ this is a much coarser topology than the usual topology).

On the topic of the usual topology.

If $k = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} , $\mathbb{A}^n = k^n$ already has a topology, namely the usual (Euclidean) topology.

Prop.: A Zariski closed/open set is also closed/open in the usual topology.

BUT NOT conversely! The Zariski topology has really few open sets compared to the Euclidean topology.

Rem. (optional) In general, if k is a topological field, then the same holds. - Zariski topology is always coarser than

the topology of \mathbb{A}^n_k coming from k .

In general, however, the Zariski topology is the only one we have on \mathbb{A}^n .

So whenever we say closed/open, we now on mean the Zariski top.

(otherwise we specify by saying "Euclidean" etc).

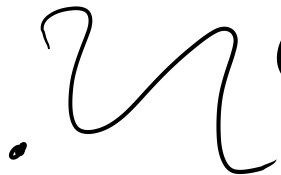
Prop: Let $f \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. Then the function

$f: \mathbb{A}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^1$
defined by f is continuous.

Pt: Do just for warm up.

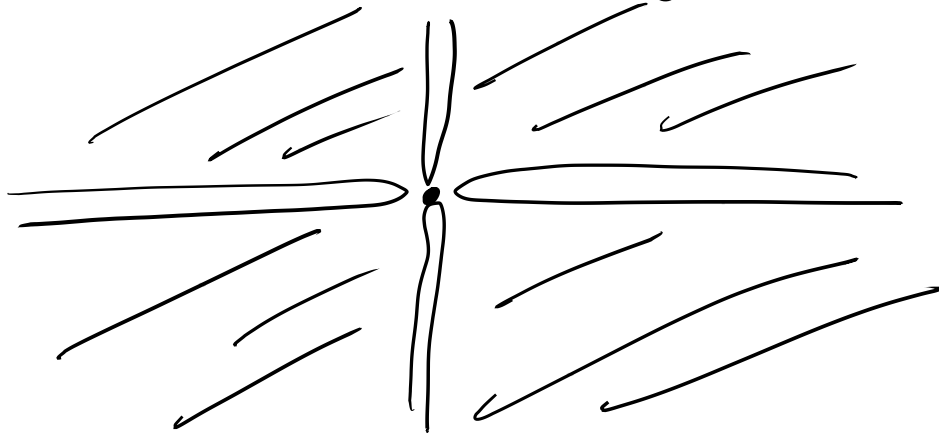
Examples: Zariski closed subsets of \mathbb{A}^2 ,

①  (curve)

②  (curve
∪
pts)

Example: A set that is Neither
closed nor open

\mathbb{A}^2 - axes \cup origin



(Spend some time explaining).

Recall from topology. X a top sp.

Closure of a set S = smallest closed set containing S

S is dense if closure of S is X .

Ex. $S = \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{A}^1_{\mathbb{C}}$
what is the closure of S ?

Observe: Zariski topology on \mathbb{A}^n_k is
not Hausdorff (if k is infinite).