## PMATH 464 Notes

# Intro to Algebraic Geometry Winter 2024

Based on Professor Changho Han's Lectures

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### 1 Affine Algebraic Sets

#### 1.1 Zero-Sets and Ideals

**Note.** In this course, k is an algebrically closed base field with characteristic 0. Let  $\mathbb{N} = \text{set}$  of non-negative integers. We also assume all rings are commutative with 1.

**Definition.** For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the **affine** n-space over k, denoted  $\mathbb{A}^n_k$  (or just  $\mathbb{A}^n$ ), is the set  $k^n$ .

We will look at polynomials and their zero sets on  $\mathbb{A}^n$ . We will use the notation:

$$k[\mathbb{A}^n] := k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$$

to denote the polynomial ring on  $\mathbb{A}^n$ . We will see later where this notation comes from.

**Definition.** The affine algebraic set corresponding to the set  $S \subseteq k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  is:

$$V(S) = \{x \in \mathbb{A}^n : f(x) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in S\}$$

This is also called the **zero set** of S (a set of polynomials) in  $\mathbb{A}^n$ . Moreover, we say  $X \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$  is an affine algebraic set if X = V(S) for some  $S \subseteq k[\mathbb{A}^n]$ .

**Remark.** If  $S = \{f_1, \dots, f_m\}$  is finite, we just write  $V(S) = V(f_1, \dots, f_m)$ .

**Example.** Since k is algebraically closed, we have:

$$V(\lbrace 0 \rbrace) = V(\emptyset) = \mathbb{A}^n \text{ and } V(k[x_1, \dots, x_n]) = \emptyset$$

**Example.** In  $\mathbb{A}^n$  we have  $V(x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n) = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n)\} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ . This means singleton sets are algebraic sets.

**Example.** If n=2, then  $V(x^2+y^2-1)$  is a circle in  $\mathbb{A}^2=k^2$ . If  $k=\mathbb{C}$ , then

$$(\sqrt{2}, i) \in V(x^2 + y^2 - 1) \in \mathbb{C}^2$$

However  $|\sqrt{2}|^2 + |i|^2 = 3 \neq 1$ , which means:

$$V(x^2 + y^2 - 1) \neq S^3 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{C}^2 : |x|^2 + |y|^2 = 1\}$$

**Example.** If n = 3, the set  $V(y - x^2, z - x^3)$  is called the **affine twisted cubic** (defined over k).

**Lemma 1.1.** If  $S_1 \subseteq S_2 \subseteq k[\mathbb{A}^n]$ , then  $V(S_1) \supseteq V(S_2)$ .

**Proof.** Let  $x \in V(S_2)$ , then f(x) = 0 for all  $f \in S_2$ . Since  $S_1 \subseteq S_2$ , we know f(x) = 0 for all  $f \in S_1$  as well. Therefore  $V(S_2) \subseteq V(S_1)$ .

**Example.**  $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^1$  is NOT an affine algebraic set! Suppose  $\mathbb{Z} = V(S)$  for some  $S \subseteq k[x]$ , then  $S \neq \emptyset$ . Take  $p(x) \in S$ , then by the lemma we have  $V(S) \subseteq V(p)$ . However,  $p(x) \in k[x]$  has only finitely many roots. It follows that V(p) is finite, so  $\mathbb{Z}$  is finite as well, contradiction.

**Definition.** Let  $X \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ , the ideal of X is:

$$I(X) = \{ f \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n] : f(x) = 0 \text{ for all } x \in X \}$$

which is indeed an ideal of  $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ .

**Proof.** Take  $f, g \in I(X)$ , then (f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x) = 0 for all  $x \in X$ . Hence we have  $f + g \in I(X)$ . Take  $f \in I(X)$  and take  $h \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ , then:

$$(hf)(x) = h(x)f(x) = h(x) \cdot 0 = 0$$

for all  $x \in X$ . Hence  $hf \in I(X)$ , so I(X) is an ideal.

**Lemma 1.2.** If  $X \subseteq Y \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ , then  $I(X) \supseteq I(Y)$ .

**Proof.** Let  $f \in I(Y)$ , then f(x) = 0 for all  $x \in Y \supseteq X$ , hence f(x) = 0 for all  $x \in X$ . It means  $f \in I(X)$ , as desired.

**Definition.** Let S be a subset of a ring R, the ideal generated by S is:

$$RS = (S) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{m} g_i f_i \in R : g_i \in R, \ f_i \in S, \ n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$$

**Proposition 1.3.** Let  $S \subseteq k[\mathbb{A}^n]$  and let I = (S) be the ideal generated by S. Then V(S) = V(I).

**Proof.** Note that  $S \subseteq I$ , so  $V(I) \subseteq V(S)$ . Conversely, we need to show  $V(S) \subseteq V(I)$ . Take  $x \in V(S)$ , we want to show f(x) = 0 for all  $f \in I$ . We let:

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^{m} g_i f_i$$

be an element in I = (S), where  $f_i \in S$  and  $g_i \in k[\mathbb{A}^n]$ . Hence  $f_i(x) = 0$  for all i so that:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} g_i(x) f_i(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} 0 = 0$$

It follows that  $V(S) \subseteq V(I)$  as well.

#### 1.2 Finite Presentation

**Question:** Let X = V(I) with  $I \subseteq k[x, 1 \cdots, x_n]$  ideal, but I has too many elements! Is I finitely generated? That is, can we write  $I = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$  for some  $f_i \in I$ ? Yes we can!

**Definition.** A ring R is **Noetherian** if every ideal of R is finitely generated.

Theorem 1.4 (Hilbert Basis Theorem). Let R be a ring. If R is Noetherian, then R[x] is also Noetherian.

Corollary 1.5. The ring  $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  is Noetherian.

**Proof.** The ring  $k[x_1]$  is Noetherian by Hilbert Basis Theorem. Using the fact that:

$$k[x_1,\cdots,x_n]=k[x_1,\cdots,x_{n-1}][x_n]$$

and induction, we can prove the result.

Therefore, given an affine algebraic set  $X \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ , we can write X = V(I) for some ideal I. Since  $I \subseteq k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  and the ring  $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  is finitely Noetherian, we can write  $I = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$  for some  $f_i \in I$ . Hence:

$$X = V(f_1, \dots, f_m) = V(f_1) \cap \dots \cap V(f_m)$$

That is, every affine algebraic set X is a finite intersection of V(f) for some polynomials f that vanishes on X.

#### 1.3 Hilbert's Nullstellensatz

We saw that there is a correspondence between:

{subsets of 
$$\mathbb{A}^n$$
}  $\longleftrightarrow$  {ideals of  $k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ }

by taking the operations  $V(\cdot)$  and  $I(\cdot)$ . However, we can note that:

$$V(I(\mathbb{Z})) = V(\emptyset) = \mathbb{A}^1 \ \text{ and } \ I(V(x^2)) = I(\{0\}) = (x)$$

This means the two operations are NOT inverses of each other, so this correspondence is NOT one-to-one. Our strategy is to restrict to some subsets of  $\mathbb{A}^n$  and  $k[\mathbb{A}^n]$  so that the operations are inverses of each other.

**Definition.** Let R be a ring and  $I \subseteq R$  be an ideal. The **radical** of I is:

$$\sqrt{I} = \{ f \in R : f^m \in I \text{ for some } m \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \}$$

We say an ideal I is a **radical ideal** if  $I = \sqrt{I}$ . Note that  $I \subseteq \sqrt{I}$  holds for any ideal I.

**Proposition 1.6.** I(X) is a radical ideal for every  $X \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ .

**Proof.** If  $f \in \sqrt{I(X)}$ , then  $f^m \in I(X)$  for some m > 0. This means  $f(x)^m = 0$  for all  $x \in X$ , which means f(x) = 0 for all  $x \in X$ . It follows that  $f \in I(X)$  so  $\sqrt{I(X)} \subseteq I(X)$ .

#### Theorem 1.7 (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz).

- 1. If  $X \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$  is an affine algebraic set, then V(I(X)) = X.
- 2. If  $J \subseteq k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  is an ideal, then  $I(V(J)) = \sqrt{J}$ .
- 3. There is a inclusion-reversing correspondence:

{affine algebraic subsets of  $\mathbb{A}^n$ }  $\longleftrightarrow$  {radical ideals of  $k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ }

by taking the operations  $X \mapsto I(X)$  and  $J \mapsto V(J)$ .

**Recall.** Every ideal  $I \subseteq k[\mathbb{A}^n]$  is contained in some maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$  so that  $V(I) \supseteq V(\mathfrak{m})$ .

**Theorem 1.8.** For all maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m} \subseteq k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ , there exist  $a_1, \cdots, a_n \in k$  such that:

$$\mathfrak{m}=(x_1-a_1,\cdots,x_n-a_n)$$

**Proof.** See Noether's Normalization Lemma in PMATH 446.

Corollary 1.9 (Weak Nullstellensatz). Let  $I \subsetneq k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  be an proper ideal, then  $V(I) \neq \emptyset$ .

**Proof.** Since I is proper.  $I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$  for some maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$ . Then we have  $V(\mathfrak{m}) \subseteq V(I)$ . By the previous theorem we have  $\mathfrak{m} = (x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n)$  so we have  $V(\mathfrak{m}) = \{(a_1, \dots, x_n)\} \neq \emptyset$ . It follows that  $V(I) \neq \emptyset$ .

**Proof of Hilbert's Nullstellensatz.** Note that (1) and (2) implies (3).

(1). There are two inclusions. We first show  $X \subseteq V(I(X))$ . Take  $x \in X$ , by definition, f(x) = 0 for all  $f \in I(X)$ . Hence  $x \in V(I(X))$ . Conversely, write X = V(J) for some ideal J. By (2) we have:

$$I(X) = I(V(J)) \supseteq \sqrt{J} \supseteq J$$

which follows that  $V(I(X)) \subseteq V(J) = X$ . WARNING: We used one inclusion of (2) before we proved it, but we will prove that inclusion of (2) independent from part (1).

(2). Two inclusions. If  $f \in J$ , then f(x) = 0 for all  $x \in V(J)$ , so  $f \in I(V(J))$ . Hence  $J \subseteq I(V(J))$ . Also, I(V(J)) is radical, so  $\sqrt{J} \subseteq I(V(J))$ . Here is the result we used in (1)! Now we want to show  $I(V(J)) \subseteq \sqrt{J}$ . By Hilbert Basis:

$$J=(f_1,\cdots,f_m)$$

for some  $f_i \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ . Cleary  $0 \in \sqrt{J}$ . Therefore let  $h \in I(V(J)) \setminus 0$ , by part (a) we have:

$$V(h) \supseteq V(I(V(J))) = V(J)$$

Then consider the ideal  $\tilde{J}=(f_1,\cdots,f_m,x_{h+1}h-1)\subseteq k[x_1,\cdots,x_n,x_{n+1}]$ . If  $y=(y_1,\cdots,y_{n+1})\in V(\tilde{J})$ , then we have  $(y_1,\cdots,y_n)\in V(J)$ . However  $V(h)\supseteq V(J)$ , so  $h(y_1,\cdots,y_n)=0$  and thus:

$$y_{n+1}h(y_1, \cdots, y_n) - 1 = 0 - 1 \neq 0$$

It follows that  $y \notin V(\tilde{J})$ , contradiction! Hence  $V(\tilde{J}) = \emptyset$ , which implies  $\tilde{J} = k[x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}]$  by Weak Nullstellensatz. Then  $1 \in \tilde{J}$ , so we can write:

$$1 = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i f_i + \beta (x_{n+1}h - 1)$$

for some  $\alpha_i, \beta \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}]$ . Let us work in  $k(x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1})$  and set  $x_{n+1} = 1/h$ . Then:

$$1 = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i \left( x_1, \dots, x_n, \frac{1}{h} \right) f_i + \beta \left( h \cdot \frac{1}{h} - 1 \right) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i \left( x_1, \dots, x_n, \frac{1}{h} \right) f_i$$

Here the rational function  $\alpha_i\left(x_1,\dots,x_n,\frac{1}{h}\right)$  has numerator  $h^{n_i}$  for some  $n_i \geq 0$ . Hence there exists  $N \geq 0$  such that multiplying by  $h^N$  clears the denominators and get:

$$h^{N} = \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{m} h^{N} \alpha_{i} \left( x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}, \frac{1}{h} \right)}_{\in k[x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}]} f_{i}$$

It follows that  $h^N \in J$  and thus  $h \in \sqrt{J}$ . It proved  $I(V(J)) \subseteq \sqrt{J}$ .

Corollary 1.10. There is a one-to-one correspondence:

$$\{\text{points in } \mathbb{A}^n\} \longleftrightarrow \{\text{maximal ideals of } k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]\}$$

by Weak Nullstellensatz.

Corollary 1.11. Let  $I \subseteq k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  be an ideal, then:

$$\sqrt{I} = \bigcap_{\substack{I \subseteq \mathfrak{m} \\ \mathfrak{m} \text{ maximal}}} \mathfrak{m}$$

In particular, any radical ideal I is equal to the intersection of all maximal ideal above it.

#### 2 Affine Varieties

We start from some informal discussions. Recall from Calculus 3 (MATH 247) and Differential Geometry (PMATH 365) that a **space** consists of set, topolgy and functions.

**Example.** We know  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a space. The set is  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the usual Euclidean topology. Functions on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are differential functions  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ . These also induce notion of topology and functions on any subset  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Goal: We want to define topolgy and functions on affine algebraic sets.

#### 2.1 Zariski Topology

**Definition.** A topology on a set X is a set  $\mathcal{C}_X$  of subsets of X such that:

- 1.  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{C}_X$  and  $X \in \mathcal{C}_X$ .
- 2. If  $A, B \in \mathcal{C}_X$ , then  $A \cup B \in \mathcal{C}_X$ .
- 3. If  $(A_i)_{i\in I}$  is a collection of elements in  $\mathcal{C}_X$ , then  $\bigcap_{i\in I} A_i \in \mathcal{C}_X$ .

We say  $A \subseteq X$  is **closed** if  $A \in \mathcal{C}_X$  and  $U \subseteq X$  is **open** if  $X \setminus U$  is closed.

**Definition.** A topological space is a set X equipped with a topology  $\mathcal{C}_X$ .

**Definition.** The collection of affine algebraic sets of  $\mathbb{A}^n$  is a topology on  $\mathbb{A}^n$ , called the **Zariski** topology.

**Proposition 2.1.** The Zariski topology is indeed a topology. That is:

- 1. If  $I, J \subseteq k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  are ideals, then  $V(I) \cup V(J) = V(IJ) = V(I \cap J)$ .
- 2. If  $(I_j)_{j\in J}$  is a collection of ideals of  $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ , then:

$$\bigcap_{j \in J} V(I_j) = V\left(\sum_{j \in J} I_j\right)$$

**Proof.** (1). Clearly  $I \supseteq IJ$  by definition, then  $V(I) \subseteq V(IJ)$ . Therefore we get:

$$V(I) \cup V(J) \subseteq V(IJ)$$

Similarly we have  $V(I) \cup V(J) \subseteq V(I \cap J)$ . For the other inclusion, we can consider the contrapositive. Suppose  $x \notin V(I) \cup V(J)$ , then there is  $f \in I$  and  $g \in J$  such that  $f(x) \neq 0 \neq g(x)$ . Hence  $f(x)g(x) \neq 0$  so  $x \notin V(fg) \supseteq V(IJ)$ . It follows that:

$$V(I) \cup V(J) \supseteq V(IJ)$$

Then we have  $V(I) \cup V(J) \supseteq V(IJ) \supseteq V(I \cap J)$ , which proved the result.

(2). Let  $I = \sum_{j \in J} I_j$ . For all  $j \in J$ , we have  $I_j \subseteq I$ , thus  $V(I_j) \supseteq V(I)$ . It follows that  $V(I) \subseteq \bigcap_{j \in J} V(I_j)$ . Conversely, let  $x \in \bigcap_{j \in J} V(I_j)$ . We claim that  $x \in V(I)$ . Let  $f \in I$ , then:

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i f_{n_i}$$

for some  $\alpha_i \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  and  $f_i \in I_i$  for some  $n_i \in J$ . Then f(x) = 0 as well since each  $f_{n_i}(x) = 0$ , hence we get  $x \in V(I)$  as desired.

**Example.** In  $\mathbb{A}^2$  with  $k[\mathbb{A}^2] = k[x, y]$ . Then:

$$V(y-x^2) \cap V(y) = V(y,y-x^2) = V(x^2,y) = V(x,y) = \{(0,0)\}\$$

Geometrically this makes sense. The parabola intersects x-axis at the origin.

**Example.** Let us look at the Zariski topolgoy on  $\mathbb{A}^1$  when  $k = \mathbb{C}$ . Since  $\mathbb{C}[x]$  is a PID, for any ideal  $I \subseteq \mathbb{C}[x]$  we have:

$$V(I) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{A}_{\mathbb{C}} = \mathbb{C} & \text{if } I = (0) \\ \text{some finite set} & \text{if } I = (f) \neq (0) \end{cases}$$

This means closed sets of  $\mathbb{A}_{\mathbb{C}}$  are  $\mathbb{C}$  and all finite subsets. The unit ball  $\mathbb{D} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| < 1\}$  is open in Euclidean topology but NOT in Zariski topology because  $\mathbb{A}_{\mathbb{C}} \setminus B$  is not finite nor  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition.** Let X be a topological space with topology  $\mathcal{C}_X$  and  $Y \subseteq X$ . Define:

$$\mathcal{C}_Y = \{ Y \cap A : A \in \mathcal{C}_X \}$$

Then  $C_Y$  is a topology on Y and is called the **subspace topology** on Y. We say Y is a **subspace** of X.

**Proposition 2.2.** Given  $X = V(J) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ . Then  $Y \subseteq X$  (with subspace topological of X) is closed if and only if Y = V(J') for some ideal J' with  $J \subseteq J'$ .

**Proof.** ( $\Rightarrow$ ). If Y is closed, then  $Y = X \cap Y'$  for some Y' closed in  $\mathbb{A}^n$ . That is,  $Y' = V(J_1)$  for some ideal  $J_1$ . Then:

$$Y = V(J) \cap V(J_1) = V(J + J_1) = V(J')$$

where we defined  $J' = J + J_1$ . Then  $J \subseteq J'$ , as desired.

( $\Leftarrow$ ). We have  $Y = V(J') \subseteq V(J) = X$ . Since Y = V(J'), by definition Y is closed in  $\mathbb{A}^n$ . Hence  $Y = Y \cap X$  is closed in X by the definition of subspace topology. □

#### 2.2 Irreducibility

**Example.** Note that we have:

$$V(xy) = V(x) \cup V(y)$$

However,  $V(x) \neq V(I) \cup V(J)$  for any ideal I, J unless V(x) = V(I) or V(J). This is because V(x) is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{A}^1$  as topological spaces and  $\mathbb{A}^1 \neq B_1 \cup B_2$  with closed subsets  $B_1, B_2 \subsetneq \mathbb{A}^1$ .

**Definition.** A topological space X is **reducible** if there exist  $Y_1, Y_2 \subsetneq X$  closed subsets such that  $X = Y_1 \cup Y_2$ . We say a non-empty topological space X is **irreducible** if it is not reducible.

**Proposition 2.3.** An affine algebraic set X is irreducible if and only if I(X) is a prime ideal.

**Proof.** ( $\Rightarrow$ ). If I(X) is a proper ideal but not prime, then there exist  $f, g \notin I(X)$  but  $fg \in I(X)$ . Hence  $X \subseteq V(fg)$ . Since  $f, g \notin I(X)$  we have:

$$X \cap V(f) \subseteq X$$
 and  $X \cap V(g) \subseteq X$ 

Now it follows that:

$$(X \cap V(f)) \cup (X \cap V(g)) = X \cap (V(f) \cap V(g)) = X \cap V(fg) = X$$

It follows from definition that X is reducible.

 $(\Leftarrow)$ . Assume  $X = X_1 \cup X_2$  is reducible, where  $X_1, X_2 \subsetneq X$  are proper closed subsets. By Nullstellensatz we know that  $I(X_1), I(X_2) \supsetneq I(X)$ . There exists  $f \in I(X_1) \setminus I(X)$  and  $g \in I(X_2) \setminus I(X)$ . Now we have:

$$V(fg) = V(f) \cup V(g) \supseteq X_1 \cup X_2 = X$$

Hence  $fg \in I(X)$  but  $f, g \notin I(X)$ . This proved I(X) is not a prime ideal.

**Example.**  $\mathbb{A}^n$  is irreducible because  $I(\mathbb{A}^n) = 0$  is prime in  $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ .

**Example.** For any  $\ell \geq 0$ , the space  $V(x_{\ell+1}, \dots, x_n) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$  is irreducible because the corresponding ideal is  $(x_{\ell+1}, \dots, x_n)$ , which is prime.

**Lemma 2.4.** A ring R is Noetherian if and only if R satisfies the ascending chain condition [every ascending chain of idels in R stabilizes. That is, if  $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \cdots$  is an increasing sequence of ideals in R, then there is  $N \ge 1$  such that  $I_n = I_N$  for all  $n \ge N$ .]

**Proof.** ( $\Rightarrow$ ). Let  $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \cdots$  be an ascending chain. Define the ideal  $I = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} I_n$ . This is an ideal of R because  $I_i$  is an ascending chain. Since R is Noetherian,  $I = (f_1, \dots, f_\ell)$  for some  $f_i \in I$ . There is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $f_1, \dots, f_\ell \in I_N$ . Hence  $I_n = I_N$  for all  $n \geq N$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ). Suppose there exists an ideal  $I \subseteq R$  that is not finitely generated. Then  $(f_1) \neq R$  for any  $f_1 \in I$ . There is  $f_2 \in R \setminus (f_1)$  and  $(f_1, f_2) \neq R$ . Inductively we get a sequence  $(f_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  in R such

that  $f_{k+1} \notin (f_1, \dots, f_k)$  for any  $k \ge 1$ . Therefore:

$$(f_1) \subseteq (f_1, f_2) \subseteq (f_1, f_2, f_3) \subseteq \cdots$$

is an ascending chain of ideals in R that does not stabilize. Contradiction.

**Definition.** A topological space X is **Noetherian** if it satisfies the descending chain condition, which means every descending chain of closed sets stabilizes.

**Remark.** By Lemma 2.4, we know  $\mathbb{A}^n$  is Noetherian because for every descending chain of closed sets in  $\mathbb{A}^n$ :

$$X_1 \supseteq X_2 \supseteq \cdots$$

we can take  $I(\cdot)$  and get an ascending chain of ideals:

$$I(X_1) \subseteq I(X_2) \subseteq \cdots$$

in  $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ . Since  $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  is Noetherian, this chain stabilizes at  $I(X_N)$ , which means the original chain stabilizes at  $X_N$ .

**Theorem 2.5.** Let X be a Noetherian topological space. For any closed subset  $Y \subseteq$  there exists a unique irreducible decomposition of  $Y = Y_1 \cup \cdots \cup Y_m$ , where  $Y_i \subset Y$  is irreducible for all  $i \in \{1, \cdots, m\}$  and  $Y_i \not\subseteq Y_j$  for all  $i \neq j$ .

**Proof.** Let  $\Sigma = \{$ closed subsets of X that does not admit the irreducible decomposition $\}$ . We want to show  $\Sigma = \emptyset$ . Assume  $\Sigma \neq \emptyset$ , then  $\Sigma$  must have a minimal element (with respect to inclusion). Why? If there is no minimal element, we can find a descending chain that does not stabilize. This contradicts the assumption that X is Noetherian. Let Y be this minimal element. If Y is irreducible, then it admits an irreducible decomposition Y = Y. If  $Y = Y_1 \cup Y_2$  is reducible, then by the minimality of Y we have  $Y_1, Y_2 \notin \Sigma$ . Therefore  $Y_1 = U_1 \cup \cdots \cup U_n$  and  $Y_2 = V_1 \cup \cdots \cup V_m$  admit irreducible decompositions. Hence  $Y = U_1 \cup \cdots \cup U_n \cup V_1 \cup \cdots \cup V_m$  admits an irreducible decomposition. This is a contradiction. The uniqueness is proved in A2.

**Definition.** Let X be a Noetherian topological space. Each  $X_i$  in the irreducible decomposition  $X = X_1 \cup \cdots \cup X_m$  is called an **irreducible component** of X.

**Example.** In  $\mathbb{A}^2$  we have  $V(xy) = V(x) \cup V(y)$ . Geometrically, V(xy) is the xy-axis, which is the union of the x-axis and the y-axis.

**Remark.** If  $X = X_1 \cup \cdots \cup X_m$  is the irreducible decomposition. The irreducible components  $X_i$  are the *largest* irreducible subset of X. To see this, we let Y be an irreducible subset of X, then:

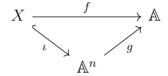
$$Y = Y \cap X = (Y \cap X_1) \cup \cdots \cup (Y \cap X_m)$$

By the irreducibility of Y, there is n such that  $Y \cap X_n = Y$ . Therefore  $Y \subseteq X_n$ . In the setting of algebraic sets, an irreducible component of X corresponds to a minimal prime ideal containing I(X).

#### 2.3 Regular Functions

So far, affine algebraic sets and Zariski topology are defined in terms of polynomials. It makes sense to define functions in terms of polynomials!

**Definition.** Let  $X \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$  be an affine algebraic set. A function  $f: X \to k = \mathbb{A}$  is called **regular** if there exists  $g \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  such that f(x) = g(x) for all  $x \in X$ .



**Example.** Consider X = V(xy - 1) in  $\mathbb{A}^2$ . The map  $f: X \to \mathbb{A}$  by f(x, y) = y is regular. The range of this function misses the point 0.

To define a regular function  $g: X \to \mathbb{A}$ , we note that g and g+h are the same function on X for any  $h \in I(X)$ . This is because h(a) = 0 for all  $a \in X$ .

**Definition.** The **coordinate ring** of an affine algebraic set  $X \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$  is:

$$k[X] := k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]/I(X)$$

This is the ring of regular functions on X.

**Example.** In  $\mathbb{A}^n$ , we have  $I(\mathbb{A}^n) = (0)$ . Therefore we have  $k[\mathbb{A}^n] = k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ . This explained our notation from the beginning.

**Example.** We know  $\mathbb{A}^0 = \{0\}$  is a singleton point, so  $k[\mathbb{A}^0] = k$ .

**Proposition 2.6.** An affine algebraic set X is irreducible if and only if k[X] is a domain.

**Proof.** X is irreducible  $\iff$  I(X) is prime  $\iff$  k[X] is a domain.

**Remark.** Using the coordinate ring k[X], we can directly characterize affine algebraic sets.

**Definition.** For a subset  $S \subseteq k[X]$ , we define:

$$V_X(S) := \{ x \in X : f(x) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in S \}$$

to be the **affine algebraic subset** of X defined by S.

**Definition.** For a subset  $Y \subseteq X$ , we define:

$$I_X(Y) := \{ f \in k[X] : f(y) = 0 \text{ for all } y \in Y \}$$

to be the **ideal** of Y in X.

Theorem 2.7 (Relative Nullstellensatz). Let X be an affine algebraic set, there is a inclusion-reversing 1-1 correspondence:

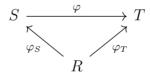
 $\{\text{affine algebraic subsets of } X\} \longleftrightarrow \{\text{radical ideals of } k[X]\}$ 

by taking  $I_X(\cdot)$  and  $V_X(\cdot)$ .

**Proof.** Use the fact that there is a 1-1 correspondence between radical ideals of k[X] and radical ideals of  $k[\mathbb{A}^n]$  containing I(X).

**Definition.** Let R be a ring. An R-algebra is a ring S with a ring homomorphism  $\varphi_S: R \to S$ .

**Definition.** Let S, T be R-algebras (with ring homomorphisms  $\varphi_S$  and  $\varphi_T$ ). We say a map  $\varphi : S \to T$  is an R-algebra homomorphism if  $\varphi$  is a ring homomorphism and  $h \circ \varphi_S = \varphi_T$ .



**Definition.** An R-algebra S is **finitely generated** if there is  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  and a surjective R-algebra homomorphism  $f: R[x_1, \dots, x_m] \to S$ . In other word:

$$S \cong R[x_1, \cdots, x_m] / \ker f$$

is a quotient of a polynomial ring over R.

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