Algebraic Curves

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Lecture 1: Introduction

Fri 25 Feb

Let K be a field, given a set of polynomials $S = \{f_1, \ldots\}$, we can consider $V(S) = \{(x_1, \ldots) \in K^n | f_i(x_1, \ldots) = 0 \forall i\}.$

Notice that if $a_1, \ldots \in K[x_1, \ldots]$ then also $\sum_i a_i(x) f_i(x) = 0$ only depends on the ideal generated by S.

If I(S) happens to be prime, we call V an algebraic variety.

1 Affine algebraic sets

1.1 Recollection on commutative algebra

All rings are commutative and with unit. Let R be a ring.

— R is an integral domain, or just domain if there are no zero divisors, ie, $\forall a,b \in R$ s.t.

$$a.b = 0 \implies a = 0 \text{ or } b = 0$$

- Any domain can be embedded into it's quotient ring.
- A proper ideal I is maximal if it's not contained in any other proper ideal
- A proper ideal I is prime if

$$\forall a, b \in R, ab \in I \implies a \in I \text{ or } b \in I$$

— A proper ideal I is radiccal if

$$a^n \in I \implies a \in I$$

— For any ideal $I \subset R$, the radical \sqrt{I} is the smallest radical ideal containing I

Lemme 1

 $I \subset R$ is maximal $\iff R/I$ is a field

Lemme 2

 $I \subset R$ is prime $\iff R/I$ is a domain

Lemme 3

 $radical \iff R/I \text{ has no nilpotent elements.}$

Given a subset $S \subset R$ we can consider the ideal generated by S

$$I(S) = \left\{ \sum_{i} a_{i} s_{i} \right\}$$

I is finitely generated if I = I(S) with S finite.

— We say that R is Noetherian $/\exists$ a chain of strictly increasing ideals. Equivalently, every ideal is finitely generated.

Theorème 4

— In fact, hilbert's basis theorem says that, if R is Noetherian, then R[x] is noetherian.

In particular $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is Noetherian

- I is in principal if it is generated by one element.
- A domain is called a principal ideal domain (PID) if every ideal is principal.
- $a \in R$ is irreducible if a is not a unit, nor zero and if

$$a = b.c$$

then either b or c are units.

- A pid $(a) \subset R$ is prime $\iff a$ is irreducible.
- R is a UFD if R is a domain and elements in R can be factored uniquely up to units and reordering into irreducible elements.

Theorème 5

 $R \text{ is a } UFD \implies R[x] \text{ is a } UFD$

And, if R is a PID, then R is a UFD

Theorème 6 (Gauss Lemma)

- R is a UFD and $a \in R[X]$ irreducible, then also $a \in Q(R)[X]$ is irreducible.
- Localization

Let R be a domain, if $S \subset R$ is a multiplicative subset, then the localization of R at S is defined as

$$S^{-1}R = \left\{ x \in Q(R) | x = \frac{a}{b}, b \in S \right\}$$

If M is an R-module, we have similarly

$$S^{-1}M = \left\{\frac{m}{s} | m \in M, s \in M\right\} / \left\{\frac{m}{s} = \frac{m'}{s'} \iff ms' = sm'\right\}$$

If $p \subset R$ is a prime ideal, then it's complement is a multiplicative subset and we define

$$R_p = (R \setminus p)^{-1}R$$

- There is a 1-1 correspondence between $p \subset R$ prime and ideals of R_p , furthermore R_p is a local ring
- Localization is exact, in particular, given $I \subset p$ the short exact sequence

$$o \to I \to R \to R/I \to 0$$

gets sent to

$$0 \to I_p \to R_p \to (R/I)_p \to 0$$

ie. localization commutes with taking quotients.

1.2 Polynomial rings

For $a \in \mathbb{N}^n$, we set

$$X^a = X_1^{a_1} \dots \in k[X_1, \dots]$$

Thus for any $F \in k[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$, we can write it as

$$F = \sum_{a \in \mathbb{N}^n} \lambda_a X^a$$

F is homogeneous or a form of degree d if the coefficients $\lambda_a = 0$ unless $a_1 + \ldots + a_n = d$.

Any F can be written uniquely as $F = F_0 + \ldots + F_d$ where F_i is a form of degree

The derivative of $F = \sum_{a \in \mathbb{N}^n} \lambda_a X^a$ with repsect to X_i is $F_{X_i} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial X_i}$. If F is a form of degree d we have

Theorème 7 (Euler's theorem)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial F}{\partial X_i} X_i = dF$$

Lecture 2: Affine space and algebraic sets

Wed 02 Mar

1.3 Affine spaces and algebraic sets

Let k be a field.

Definition 1

For every $n \geq 0$ the affine n -space \mathbb{A}^n_k the set k^n .

In particular \mathbb{A}^0 is a point, \mathbb{A}^1 is a line, \mathbb{A}^2 the affine plane. Given a subset $S \subset k[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ of polynomials, we set

$$V(S) = \{x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{A}^n | f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0 \forall f \in S\}$$

If S is finite, we write $V(f_1, \ldots, f_k)$ for V(S).

If the set S is a singleton, then we call V(S) a hyperplane.

Any subset of \mathbb{A}^n V algebraic if V = V(S) for some subset of polynomials.

Lemme 8

- Let $S \subset k[X_1, ..., X_n]$ and I the ideal generated by S, then V(S) = V(I).
- Let $\{I_{\alpha}\}$ be a collection of ideals, then

$$V(\bigcup_{\alpha} I_{\alpha}) = \bigcap_{\alpha} V(I_{\alpha})$$

- If $I \subset J$ then $V(J) \subset V(I)$
- For polynomials $f, g \in k[x_1, ..., x_n]$, then $V(f) \cup V(g) = V(f \cdot g)$ For ideals I, J ideals, then $V(I) \cup V(J) = V(I \cdot J)$ where $IJ = \{fg | f \in I, g \in J\}$
- For $a = (a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \mathbb{A}^n, v(\{x_1 a_1, \ldots\}) = \{a\}$

Preuve

- 1. Let $h \in \sum_i f_i g_i \subset I$ with $f_i \in S$ and $x \in V(S)$, then $f_i(x) = 0 \forall i$ hence $h(x) = 0 \implies x \in V(I) \implies V(S) \subset V(I)$. Furthermore, if $x \in V(I)$, then in particular $f(x) = 0 \forall f \in S \subset I$, hence $x \in V(S)$ and $V(S) \supset V(I)$
- 2. Let $x \in V(\cup I_{\alpha})$, then for any α and $f \in I_{\alpha}$, we must have f(x) = 0, hence $x \in V(I_{\alpha}) \implies x \in \bigcap_{\alpha} V(I_{\alpha})$.

 Conversely, if $x \in \bigcap_{\alpha} V(I_{\alpha})$ and $f \in \bigcup_{\alpha} I_{\alpha}$, then $f \in I_{\alpha}$ for some α , then f(x) = 0 hence $x \in V(\bigcup_{\alpha} I_{\alpha})$

By Hilbert's basis theorem $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is Noetherian hence every ideal is finitely generated.

Corollaire 9

Every algebraic set $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is of the form

$$V = V(f_1, \ldots, f_k) = V(f_1) \cap \ldots \cap V(f_k)$$

1.4 Ideals of a set of points and the nullstellensatz

Using the previous section, we have a map

$$V: \{ \text{ Ideals in } k[X_1, \dots, X_N] \} \mapsto \{ \text{ algebraic sets in } \mathbb{A}^n \}$$

Conversely, for any subset $X \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ we define

$$I(X) := \{ f \in k[X_1, \dots, X_N] | f(x) = 0 \forall x \in X \} \subset k[X_1, \dots, X_N]$$

Lemme 10

- 1. If $X \subset Y$ then $I(X) \supset I(Y)$
- 2. For $J \subset k[X_1, \dots, X_N]$ an ideal $I(V(J)) \supset J$
- 3. For $W \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ algebraic, V(I(W)) = W

Preuve

- 1. Let $f \in I(Y)$, then f vanishes on X and hence f in I(X)
- 2. $I(V(J)) = \{ f \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n] | f(x) = 0 \forall x \in V(J) \} \supset J$
- 3. By definition $V(I(X)) \supset X$ for any X. If in addition, if X = V(J) algebraic, then $V(I(X)) = V((I(V(J)))) \subset V(J) = X$

There are essentially two reasons why $I(V(J)) \supseteq J$ in general

1.
$$J = (x^n) \subset k[x] \implies V(x^n) = \{0\} \text{ and } I(\{0\}) = (x)$$

2.
$$(x^2 + 1) \subset \mathbb{R}[x]$$
 and $I(\emptyset) = \mathbb{R}[X]$

Lemme 11

For any $X \subset \mathbb{A}^n$, I(X) is a radical ideal

Preuve

If
$$f^n \in I(X)$$
 for some n, then $f(x)^n = 0$ and hence $f(x) = 0$

So the first phenomenon is related to the fact that J is not radical, the second is related to the fact that \mathbb{R} is not algebraically closed.

Theorème 12 (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz)

Let K be algebraically closed, $J \subset k[X_1, ..., X_n]$, then

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

Using this, there is a one to one correspondence

 $\{ \text{ radical ideals in } k[X_1, \dots, X_n] \} \leftrightarrow \{ \text{ algebraic subsets of } \mathbb{A}^n \}$

Theorème 13 (Weak Nullstellensatz)

Let K be algebraically closed, every maximal ideal $I \subset K[X_1, ..., X_n]$ is of the form $I = \{x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n\}$ with $a = (a_i) \in \mathbb{A}^n$

Corollaire 14

Let $I \subset K[X_1,...,X_n]$ be any ideal, then V(I) is a finite set \iff $k[X_1,\ldots,X_n]/I$ is a finite dimensional K-vector space.

In this case

$$|V(I)| \le \dim_k k[X_1, \dots, X_n]/I$$

Preuve

Let $I \subset k[X_1, ..., X_n]$ be any ideal and $P_1, ..., P_n \subset V(I)$ distinct.

We can choose (Exercise) $F_1, \ldots, F_r \in K[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$ s.t. $F_i(P_j) = \delta_{ij}$, then we write f_1, \ldots, f_r for the residues of F_1, \ldots, F_r in $K[X_1, \ldots, X_n]/I$. We claim f_1, \ldots, f_r are linearly independent.

Indeed suppose $\sum_i \lambda_i f_i = 0$, this implies $\sum_i \lambda_i F_i \in I$ hence $0 = \sum_i \lambda_i F_i(P_i)$ which implies $\lambda_j = 0$, hence the f_i are linearly independent.

It follows that $\dim_k K[X_1,\ldots,X_n]/I < \infty \implies |V(I)| < \infty$ and in this case $\dim_k K[X_1, \dots, X_n]/I \ge |V(I)|.$

Now assume V(I) is a finite set $\{P_1, \ldots, P_r\} \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ and write P_i (a_{i1}, \ldots, a_{in}) and define $F_j = \prod_{i=1}^r (X_j - a_{ij}).$

By construction $F_j \in I(V(I)) = \sqrt{I}$

 $\exists N>0 \ such \ that \ F_j^N\in I.$ Hence $f_j^N=0$ in $K[X_1,\ldots,X_n]/I$, but $f_j^N=(x_j^{Nr})+$ lower order terms .

This means that X_i^{Nr} is a K-linear combination of $\{1,\ldots,X_i^{Nr-1}\}$.

This means that X_j^s is a linear combination for any s > 0.

Hence taking products for different j's, we see that the set $\{x_1^{m_1}, \ldots, x_n^{m_n}\}$ generates $K[X_1, \ldots, X_n]/I$

Due to these theorems, we'll always suppose K is algebraically closed.

Lecture 3: Irreducible sets

Fri 11 Mar

1.5 Irreducible sets

Definition 2 (Irreducible set)

An algebraic set $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is irreducible if $\forall W_1, W_2 \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ algebraic s.t. $V = W_1 \cup W_2$, then either $W_1 = V$ or $W_2 = V$

Exemple

— Let $V = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is irreducible iff n = 1

— Let
$$f(X,Y) = Y(X^2 - Y), V = V(f) \subset \mathbb{A}^2$$
 is not irreducible by taking $W_1 = V(Y), W_2 = V(X^2 - Y)$

Proposition 16

An algebraic set V is irreducible iff I(V) is prime.

If
$$I(V)$$
 is not prime, let $F_1, F_2 \notin I(V)$ s.t. $F_1, F_2 \in I(V)$, then we can write $V = (V \cap V(F_1)) \cup (V \cap V(F_2))$.

Conversely, if $V = W_1 \cup W_2$ and $W_i \neq V$, then $I(W_i) \supsetneq I(V)$, pick $F_i \in I(W_i) \setminus I(V)$, then $F_1F_2 = I(W_1) \cap I(W_2) = I(V)$.

If $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is irreducible, we can decompose it into a union of irreducible sets. The union is always finite as the polynomial ring is noetherian.

Theorème 17 (Theorem name)

Every $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ algebraic can be written uniquely (up to ordering) as a $union\ of\ irreducible\ sets.$

$$V = V_1 \cup \ldots \cup V_k$$

where the V_i 's are irreducible and $V_i \not\subset V_j \forall i \neq j$

Definition 3 (Irreducible Components)

The $V_1 \dots V_k$ are irreducible components of V.

Remarque

Applying I in theorem 1.9, we get

$$I(V) = I(V_1) \cap \ldots \cap I(V_k)$$

and $I(V_i)$ is the primary decomposition of I(V)

In general, it is quite difficult to find this decomposition.

For hypersurfaces, it's easy, for I(F), write $F = F_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot \ldots F_k^{\alpha_k}$, then V(F) = $V(F_1) \cup \ldots \cup V(F_k)$.

Algebraic subsets of \mathbb{A}^2 1.6

Let $F, G \in k[X, Y]$ with no common factors, then $V(F) \cap V(G)$ is a finite set of points.

Preuve

By Gauss's lemma, F, G have no common factors in k(X)[Y]. Since k(x)[Y] is a PID $\exists A, B \in k(X)$ such that

$$AF + BG = 1$$

Now there exists $C \in k[X]$ such that $AC, BC \in k[X]$.

Let $(x,y) \in V(F,G)$, then C(x) = 0 and hence there are only finitely many x's possible.

By symmetry, the same is true for the Y coordinate, hence $|V(F,G)| < \infty \square$

Using this, we can now classify all algebraic subsets of \mathbb{A}^2 .

Corollaire 20

The irreducible algebraic subsets of \mathbb{A}^2 are \mathbb{A}^2 , V(F) with F irreducible or singletons.

2 Affine algebraic varieties

Definition 4 (Affine algebraic variety)

An affine algebraic variety is an irreducible affine algebraic set.

2.1 Zariski topology

Definition 5 (Zariski topology)

The Zariksi-topology on \mathbb{A}^n is the topology whose open sets are complements of algebraic sets.

Lemme 21

This indeed defines a topology on \mathbb{A}^n

Preuve

Certainly \emptyset , \mathbb{A}^n are algebraic, hence their complements are open. Let $\{U_i\}$ be a family of open sets, ie. such that

$$U_i = \mathbb{A}^2 \setminus V(I)$$

Then

$$\bigcup U_i = \bigcup \mathbb{A}^n \setminus V(I_i) = \mathbb{A}^n \setminus \bigcap_i V(I_i) = \mathbb{A}^n \setminus V(\bigcup I)$$

Similarly, if U_1, U_2 are open, then

$$U_1 \cap U_2 = \mathbb{A}^n \setminus I(V_1 V_2)$$

is again open.

Exemple

If n = 1, then algebraically closed sets are either \mathbb{A}^n, \emptyset are finite union of points so the Zariski topology is the cofinite topology. Hence the open sets are huge.

Definition 6

For $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ an algebraic variety or set, the Zariski topology on V is just the subspace topology.

Definition 7 (New definition of irreducibility)

A non-empty subset V of a topological space X is irreducible if it cannot be expressed as $V = W_1 \cup W_2$ where $W_1, W_2 \subsetneq V$ are closed subsets.

Lemme 23

A non-empty open subset of an irreducible topological space is again irreducible and dense.

Furthermore, if $V \subset X$ is irreducible, then so is \overline{V}

The proof is an exercise.

Definition 8 (Quasi-affine algebraic variety)

A quasi-affine variety is an open subset of an affine variety.

Remarque

By the lemma above, quasi-affine variety are also irreducible.

2.2 Regular functions and coordinate rings

Regular functions are the natural "continuous" functions on algebraic varieties.

2.2.1 Affine case

Definition 9

Let $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be an affine algebraic variety.

A map

$$f: V \to K = \mathbb{A}^1$$

is regular if $\exists F \in k[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ such that

$$f(X) = F(X) \forall X \in V$$

The set $\Gamma(V)$ of regular functions on V is a ring with the usual pointwise multiplication and addition. and is called the coordinate ring of V.

Lemme 25

If I = I(V) for some prime, then

$$\Gamma(V) \simeq k[X_1, \dots, X_n]/I(V)$$

In particular, $\Gamma(V)$ is a domain.

Preuve

By definition, we have a surjective morphism

$$k[X_1,\ldots,X_n]\to\Gamma(V)$$

Now note that $F \in \ker \phi \iff F(X) = 0 \forall x \in V \iff F \in I(V)$

Definition 10 (Subobjects)

An affine subvariety of V is an affine variety contained in V.

Lemme 26

There is a one-to-one correspondence between V and $\Gamma(V)$ where

$$\{ \ algebraic \ subsets \ of \ V \} \leftrightarrow \{ \ radical \ ideals \ of \ \Gamma(V) \}$$

$$\{ \ algebraic \ subvarieties \ of \ V \} \leftrightarrow \{ \ prime \ ideals \ of \ \Gamma(V) \}$$

$$\{ \ points \ of \ V \} \leftrightarrow \{ \ maximal \ ideals \ of \ \Gamma(V) \}$$

The proof is again an exercise.

Definition 11 (Morphism)

A morphism $\phi: V \to W$ between affine algebraic varieties $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n, W \subset \mathbb{A}^m$ is a map such that \exists polynomials $T_1, \ldots, T_m \in k[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$ such that

$$\phi(X) = (T_1(X), \dots, T_m(X))$$

Then ϕ is an isomorphism if there exists a morphism ψ such that $\phi \circ \psi = \operatorname{Id}$ and $\psi \circ \phi = \operatorname{Id}$.

Exemple

Take $V(X^2-Y)\subset \mathbb{A}^2$ the the projection $p:V(X^2-Y)\to \mathbb{A}^1$ on the first

coordinate is an isomorphism with inverse $\psi(X) = (X, X^2)$.

A non-example of a bijective map which is not an isomorphism:

$$\phi: \mathbb{A}^1 \to V(Y^2 - X^3), \ \phi(t) = (t^2, t^3).$$

One can check that ϕ is bijective but not an isomorphism.

Lecture 4: Morphisms of Affine Varieties

Fri 18 Mar

In general any morphism $\phi: V \to W$ induces a morphism of rings (of k-algebras) $\tilde{\phi}: \Gamma(W) \to \Gamma(V)$ by composition, ie.

$$\tilde{\phi}(f) = f \circ \phi$$

Proposition 28

This defines a one to one correspondence

 $\left\{ \text{ Morphisms } \phi: V \to W \right. \right\} \leftrightarrow \left\{ \text{ k-algebra homomorphisms } \tilde{\phi}: \Gamma(W) \to \Gamma(V) \right. \right\}$

In particular ϕ is an isomorphism iff $\tilde{\phi}$ is an isomorphism.

Preuve

Need to construct for any $\alpha: \Gamma(W) \to \Gamma(V)$ a morphism $\overline{\alpha}: V \to W$ s.t.

$$\tilde{\overline{\alpha}} = \alpha$$

Suppose $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n, W \subset \mathbb{A}^m$ and write

$$\Gamma(V) = k[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I(V)$$
 and $\Gamma(W) = k[y_1, \dots, y_m]/I(W)$

Choose lifts T_i of $\alpha([Y_i])$ in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$.

In particular $\forall f \in \Gamma(W)$ and F a lift,then

$$\alpha(f) = F(T_1, \dots, T_m) \mod I(V)$$

Then define $T: \mathbb{A}^n \to \mathbb{A}^m: x \mapsto (T_1(x) \dots T_m(x))$.

We claim that $T(V) \subset W$.

From the diagram, we see that for any $G \in I(W)$, $G(T_1, ..., T_m) \in I(V)$, hence for any $v \in V$, $0 = G(T_1, ..., T_m)(v) = G(T(v))$ which means that $T(v) \in W$.

Now

$$\tilde{\overline{\alpha}}: \Gamma(W) \to \Gamma(V)$$

satisfies $\forall v \in V \forall f \in \Gamma(W)$

$$\tilde{\overline{\alpha}}(v) = f(\overline{\alpha}(v)) = f(T(v)) = \alpha(f(v)) \implies \tilde{\overline{\alpha}} = \alpha \qquad \qquad \Box$$

Definition 12

The quotient field K(V) of $\Gamma(V)$ is called the field of rational function on V.

Let $f \in K(V)$ is defined at a point $p \in V$ if we can write f as the quotient $f = \frac{a}{b}$ and $b(p) \neq 0$.

The pole set of $f \in K(V)$ is the set of points where f is not defined.

Remarque

 $\Gamma(V)$ is not a UFD in general, and so the presentation $f = \frac{a}{h}$ is not unique.

Exemple

 $V=(xy-zw)\subset \mathbb{A}^4$ and let $\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z},\overline{w}\in \Gamma(V)$ be the respective images. Then $f=\frac{\overline{x}}{\overline{y}}=\frac{\overline{z}}{\overline{w}}$.

Hence f is defined whenever $Y \neq 0$ or $w \neq 0$

Hence the pole set of f is $\{Y = 0\} \cap \{W = 0\}$

Definition 13 (Local Ring)

The local ring of V at a point $p \in V$ is a subring K(V) defined by

$$\mathcal{O}_p(V) = \{ f \in K(V) | f \text{ defined at } p \}$$

We have natural inclusions $\Gamma(V) \subset \mathcal{O}_p(V) \subset K(V)$

Remarque

 $\Gamma(V)$, $\mathcal{O}_p(V)$ and K(V) are intrinsic to V, ie. if $V \simeq W$ then $\Gamma(V) \simeq \Gamma(W)$ and $\mathcal{O}_p(V) \simeq \mathcal{O}_{p'}(W)$

Proposition 32

Let $p \in V$ and $m_p \subset \Gamma(V)$ be the corresponding maximal ideal, then

$$\mathcal{O}_p(V) \simeq \Gamma(V)_{m_p}$$

In particular $\mathcal{O}_p(V)$ is a noetherian local domain and we have that

$$\Gamma(V) = \bigcap_{p \in V} \mathcal{O}_p(V) \subset K(V)$$

Preuve

Recall that $m_p = \{ f \in \Gamma(V) | f(p) = 0 \}$, then

$$\Gamma(V)_{m_p} = \left\{ f \in K(V) | f = \frac{a}{b}, b \notin m_p \right\}$$
$$= \mathcal{O}_p(V)$$

 $The\ rest\ follows\ from\ standard\ properties\ of\ localization.$

In particular for any domain R we have that

$$R = \bigcap_{m \in R, m \ maximal} R_m$$

Notice that the notions of regular functions is sufficient to define morphisms of local rings etc.

How can we extend this to quasi-affine varieties?

Exemple

Consider $V(XY-1) \subset \mathbb{A}^2$.

There is a natural projection $\phi: V(XY-1) \to x \in \mathbb{A}^1$.

The image of ϕ is $\mathbb{A}^n \setminus \{0\}$ quasi-affine and we'd like ϕ to be an isomorphism, ie.

$$\phi^{-1}(x) = (x, \frac{1}{x})$$

Ie. the map $x \to \frac{1}{x}$ should be a regular function on $\mathbb{A}^1 \setminus \{0\}$.

Definition 14

Let $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be quasi-affine.

A map $f: V \to \mathbb{A}^1 = k$ is called regular if $\forall v \in V$ there exists an open neighbourhood $v \in U \subset V$ and $g, h \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ s.t. $h(V) \neq 0 \forall x \in U$ and $f(x) = \frac{g(x)}{h(x)}$

Why do we need the U?

Exemple

Consider again $V = V(XY - ZW) \setminus V(Y, W)$ and consider $f = \frac{x}{w} = \frac{z}{y}$ on V. None of the two presentations works on V

Definition 15

Let $\mathcal{O}(V)$ be the ring of regular functions on V

Remarque

 $f: V\mathbb{A}^1 \setminus \{0\} \to \mathbb{A}^1: x \mapsto \frac{1}{x} \text{ is regular.}$

Then we may take U = V, it is not hard to see that

$$\mathcal{O}(V) = k[x][\frac{1}{x}, \frac{1}{x^2}, \ldots]$$

In particular $\mathcal{O}(V) \supseteq \Gamma(\mathbb{A}^1)$

If $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is affine, then we have $k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \to \mathcal{O}(V) : F \mapsto (v \mapsto F(v))$.

Proposition 36

For V affine, we have that $\Gamma(V) \simeq \mathcal{O}(V)$.

Preuve

We have
$$O(V) \subset O_p(V) \ \forall p \in V \ hence \ \Gamma(V) \hookrightarrow O(V) \hookrightarrow \bigcap_{p \in V} O_p(V) = \Gamma(V)$$

Lemme 37

Let V be a quasi-affine subset and $f: V \to \mathbb{A}^1$ regular, then f is continuous (with respect to the Zariski topology)

Preuve

It is enough to show that $f^{-1}(X)$ is closed for any closed X.

Without loss of generality $X = \{x\}$.

Let $V = \bigcup_{i} U_{i}i$ a cover such that $f|_{U_{i}} = \frac{g_{i}}{h_{i}}$ and $h_{i} \neq 0$ on U_{i} . Then $f^{-1}(X) \cap U_{i} = \left\{ v \in U_{i} | f(v) = \frac{g_{i}(v)}{h_{i}(v)} \right\} = \left\{ v \in U_{i} | x \cdot h_{i}(v) - g_{i}(v) = 0 \right\}$ which is an algebraic set.

Hence $f^{-1}(X) \cap U_i$ is closed which implies $f^{-1}(X)$ is closed.

Corollaire 38

Let $f,g\in O(V)$ and $U\subset V$ non empty and open s.t. $f|_U=g|_U$ then

Preuve

Using an exercise, open subsets are dense, since f, g are continuous

$$f|_U = g|_U \implies f|_{\operatorname{cl} U} = f|_{\operatorname{cl} V}$$

Remarque

Let $U \subset V$ open, then the restriction of functions induces $\mathcal{O}(V) \to \mathcal{O}(U)$. i.e. $\mathcal{O}(-)$ defines a sheaf of k-algebras on V.

Using this one can define a general algebraic as a topological space X with some sheaf \mathcal{O}_X which locally looks like a quasi-affine variety V with $\mathcal{O}(-)$.

We'll define $\mathcal{O}_p(V)$ and K(V) for V quasi-affine, but these depend only on "local structure".

We can guess $\mathcal{O}_p(V) = \mathcal{O}_p(\operatorname{cl} V)$ and similarly for the quotient field.

3 (Quasi-)Projective and general algebraic varieties

Affine varieties usually "go to infinity" when we draw them. This leads to complications in the theory

Exemple

Two distinct lines in \mathbb{A}^2 they will intersect in 1 point unless they're parallel

3.1 Projective space

Definition 16 (Projective n-space)

 \mathbb{P}^n is the set

$$\mathbb{P}^n = K^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}_{\sim}$$

Where we identify

$$(x_1, \ldots, x_{n+1}) \sim (y_1, \ldots, y_{n+1}) \text{ if } \exists \lambda \in K^* \text{ s.t. } x_i = \lambda y_i$$

Elements in \mathbb{P}^n are called points.

If $p \in \mathbb{P}^n$ is the equivalence classe of $(x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}) \in \mathbb{A}^{n+1}$ we write

$$p = [x_1 : \ldots : x_n]$$

 x_1, \ldots, x_n are the homogenuous coordinates of p.

Remarque

Any point in $\mathbb{A}^n \setminus \{0\}$ defines a line through the origin and $x, y \in \mathbb{A}^n \setminus \{0\}$ define the same line iff $x = \lambda y$

Lecture 5: Projective varieties

Fri 25 Mar

While the *i*-th coordinate x_i of a point $[x_1 : \ldots : x_{n+1}] \in \mathbb{P}^n$ is not well defined, the equation $x_i = 0$ or $x_i \neq 0$ is well defined.

Hence we can write

$$U_i = \{ [x_1 : \ldots : x_n] | x_i \neq 0 \}$$

Clearly $\mathbb{P}^n = \bigcup_i U_i$.

Furthermore for all i, we have a bijection

$$\phi_i: \mathbb{A}^n \to U_i$$

$$(x_1,\ldots,x_n)\mapsto [x_1:\ldots:x_{i-1}:1:x_{i+1}:\ldots:x_{n+1}]$$

And this is clearly a bijection.

We'll see in a bit, that the ϕ_i 's provide an open cover of \mathbb{P}^n by \mathbb{A}^n

Definition 17

The set

$$H_{\infty} := \mathbb{P}^n \setminus U_{n+1} = \{ x \in \mathbb{P}^n | x_{n+1} = 0 \}$$

is called the hyperplane at infinity.

One can identify $H_{\infty} = \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$

Thus

$$\mathbb{P}^n = U_{n+1} \prod H_{\infty} = \mathbb{A}^n \prod \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$$

Exemple

 $\mathbb{P}^0 = point$

 $\mathbb{P}^1 = \mathbb{A}^1 \coprod point$ is called the projective line.

Similarly \mathbb{P}^2 is called the projective plane.

3.2 Projective algebraic sets

For a general $F \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, the equation $F(x) = 0, x \in \mathbb{P}^n$ doesn't make sense.

But it does if F is homogeneous, say of degree d, since then

$$F(\lambda x) = \lambda^d F(x) = 0 \forall x \in \mathbb{A}^{n+1}, \lambda \in k^*$$

Definition 18 (Projective set)

For any set $S \subset k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ of homogeneous polynomials we set

$$V(S) = \{ [x_1 : \ldots : x_n] \in \mathbb{P}^n | F(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = 0 \forall F \in S \}$$

A subset of \mathbb{P}^n is algebraic if it is of the form V(S) as above.

Exemple

Take $V(X^2 - YZ) \subset \mathbb{P}^2$, how to draw it?

We draw the intersections $V \cap U_i$

Definition 19 (Homogeneous ideal)

An ideal $I \subset k[x_1, ..., x_n]$ is homogeneous if it is generated by homogeneous elements.

The for I a homogeneous ideal we set

$$V(I) = V(T) \subset \mathbb{P}^n$$

where T is the set of forms in I.

Remarque

Since the ring is noetherian, we can always find a finite number of homogeneous generators.

For $I = (x_1, \ldots, x_{n+1})$ we have $V(I) = \emptyset$, we denote this ideal by I_+ , it's called the irrelevant ideal.

Exemple

 (x, y^2) is homogeneous, $(x + y^2, y^2)$ is also homogeneous but $(x + y^2)$ is not.

Lemme 46

I is a homogeneous ideal if and only if for every $F \in I$, if we write $F = \sum_{i>0} F_i$ with F_i homogeneous of degree i.

Preuve

Let $G^{(1)}, \ldots, G^{(k)}$ be a set of homogeneous generators of I with degrees

Any $F = \sum F_i$ can be written as $F = \sum A^{(i)}G^{(i)}$ for some $A^{(i)}$.

Since the degree is additive we get $F_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{j-d_i}^{(i)} G^{(i)}$ For the other direction, let $G^{(1),\dots,G^{(k)}}$ any set of generators, then $G_j^{(i)} \in I$ and then the set of $G_i^{(i)}$ is a set of generators.

Furthermore, the sum, the product, the intersection and the radical of homogeneous ideals are homogeneous.

A homogeneous ideal is prime if for any homogeneous $f, g \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$

$$fg \in I \implies f \in I \text{ or } g \in I$$

Definition 20 (Zariski topology)

We define the Zariski topology on \mathbb{P}^n by taking the open sets to be the complements of algebraic sets.

This defines a topology using the properties above.

Definition 21

An algebraic set $V \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ is irreduciable if it is irreducible as a topological space.

As in the affine case, there is a correspondence

{ Algebraic subsets in \mathbb{P}^n } \leftrightarrow { Homogeneous ideals in $k[x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}]$ }

Where I(V) is the ideal generated by $\{F \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n] | F \text{ homogeneous }, F(v) = 0 \forall v \in V\}$

Remarque

If we need to distinguish between the affine and projective correspondence we'll write V_a , I_a and V_p , I_p respectively.

Definition 22 (Cone)

For $V \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ algebraic, we define the conve over V as

$$C(V) = \{(x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}) \in \mathbb{A}^{n+1} | [x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}] \in V\} \cup \{(0, \dots, 0)\}$$

Lemme 48

1. For $V \neq \emptyset$, then

$$I_p(V) = I_a(C(V))$$

2. If $I \subseteq k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ homogeneous, then

$$C(V_p(I)) = V_a(I)$$

Preuve

1. $G \in I_p(V)$ homogeneous and $(x_1, \ldots, x_{n+1}) \in C(V)$, then $G(x_1, \ldots, x_{n+1}) = 0$ Conversely, if $G \in I_a(C(V))$ write

$$G = \sum_{i} G_{i}$$
, G_{i} homogeneous

Then, for every $x \in C(V)$ and $\lambda \in k^*$ we have $\lambda x \in C(V)$ hence

$$0 = G(\lambda x) = \sum_{i} \lambda^{i} G_{i}(x)$$

Let $\tilde{G}(y) = \sum_i y^i G_i(x) \in K[Y]$, this has infinitely many 0's. Which in turn implies $G_i \in I_p(V)$

2. Notice for G homogeneous non-constant, then

$$C(V_p(G)) = V_a(G)$$

Since I is generated by homogeneous polynoials, the satement holds. \Box

Proposition 49 (Projective nullstellensatz)

Let I be a homogeneous ideal, then

- If
$$V_p(I) = \emptyset$$
, then $\sqrt{I} = k[x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}]$ or $\sqrt{I} = I_+$

- If
$$V_p(I) = \emptyset$$
 then $I_p(V_p(I)) = \sqrt{I}$

Preuve

- If
$$V_p(I) = \emptyset \iff V_a(I) \subset \{(0,\ldots,0)\}$$
 which implies $\sqrt{I} \supset (x_1,\ldots,x_{n+1})$.

$$-I_p(V_p(I)) = I_a(C(V_p(I))) = I_a(V_a(I)) = \sqrt{I}$$

Corollaire 50

There is a one-to-one correspondence between radical homogeneous ideals and projective algebraic sets.

Furthermore $V_p(I)$ is irreducible \iff I is prime.

Remarque

Points in \mathbb{P}^n do not correspond to maximal ideals.

We can also relate affine and projective algebraic sets through the charts

$$\phi_i: \mathbb{A}^n \to U_i$$

We'll focus on $\phi := \phi_{n+1} : \mathbb{A}^n \to U := U_{n+1}$ For $F \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ homogeneous, we define

$$F_*(x_1, \dots, x_n) = F(x_1, \dots, x_n, 1)$$

Conversely, for $G \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, we write

$$G = \sum_{i=0}^{d} G_i \text{ and define } G^*(x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}) = x_{n+1}^d G_0 + \dots + G_d = X_{n+1}^d G(\frac{x_1}{x_{n+1}}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_{n+1}})$$

Definition 23 (Homogenization)

 $(\cdot)_*$ and $(\cdot)^*$ are called dehomogenisation and homogenization.

For I an ideal, we denote by I^* be the homogeneous ideal generated by $\{F^*|F\in I\}.$

Conversely, if $V = V_a(I)$, we write

$$V^* = V_p(I^*)$$

 V^* is called the projective closudre of V in \mathbb{P}^n . Similarly if I is homogeneous, then

$$I_* = \{F_* | F \in I\}$$

and if $V = V_p(I)$, we set $V_* = V_a(I_*)$

Exemple

Let $F = X_1^2 - X_2$, then

$$F^* = X_1^2 - X_2 X_3$$

Lemme 53

If $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is closed, then $\phi(V) = V^* \cap U$ Conversely, if $V \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ is closed then $\phi^{-1}(V \cap U) = V_*$ In particular ϕ is a homeomorphism

Preuve

Recall that
$$\phi(x_1, ..., x_n) = [x_1 : ... : x_n : 1]$$
.
For $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ write $V = V_a(F_1, ..., F_k)$ then

$$V^* = V_p(F_1^*, \dots, F_k^*)$$

$$V^* = V_p(F_1^*, \dots, F_k^*)$$

$$But \ F_i^* = X_{n+1}^d F_i(\frac{x_1}{x_{n+1}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_{n+1}}}) \ F_i(v) = 0 \iff F_i^*(\phi(v)) = 0 \implies \phi(V) = V^* \cap U$$

Lecture 6: Algebraic varieties

Fri 01 Apr

Quasi-projective and general varieties

Definition 24

A projective variety is a closed irreducible subset of \mathbb{P}^n . A quasi-projective variety is an open subset of a projective variety.

An algebraic variety is one of the four types we've seen: affine, quasiaffine, projective or quasi-projective.

Remarque

In order to define morphisms between varieties, we need regular functions, ie. $\mathcal{O}(V)$ for V quasi-projective.

Definition 25

Let $V \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ be quasi-projective, a map $f: V \to k$ is regular at $p \in V$ if \exists an open neighbourhood $p \in U \subset V$ and $g,h \in k[x_1,\ldots,x_{n+1}]$ formes of the same degree such that $h(U) \neq 0$ and such that $f(u) = \frac{g(u)}{h(u)}$

Exemple

Set $V = \mathbb{P}^n$ and take also U = V in the definition, then $h(u) \neq 0 \forall u \in \mathbb{P}^n$ is only possible if h is constant.

In fact, constants are the only regular functions on \mathbb{P}^n and in fact on any projective variety.

Definition 26

We again, define $\mathcal{O}(V)$ the ring of regular functions on V.

Remarque

As in the quasi-affine case, regular functions are continuous for the Zariski topology.

3.4**Morphisms**

Definition 27 (Morphism)

A morphism between two algebraic varieties V, W is a continuous map $\phi: V \to W$ such that for every open $U \subset W$ and every $f \in \mathcal{O}(U)$ the map $\phi \circ f : \phi^{-1}(U) \to k$ is regular.

 ϕ is an isomorphism if $\exists \psi : W \to V$ such that $\phi \circ \psi$ and $\psi \circ \phi$ is the identity.

Remarque

In particular any $\phi: V \to W$ induces a map $\tilde{\phi}: \mathcal{O}(W) \to \mathcal{O}(V)$ a k-algebra homomorphism.

The converse is only true if W is affine.

Proposition 58

The maps $\phi_i : \mathbb{A}^n \to U_i \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ are isomorphisms.

In fact, for every $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ quasi-affine, $\phi_i|_V$ is an isomorphism onto it's image $\phi_i(V) \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ which is quasi-projective.

Preuve

We may take i = n + 1 and write $\phi = \phi_{n+1} : \mathbb{A}^n \to U$

We know that ϕ is a homeomorphism, hence $\phi(V)$ is quasi projective since

$$\phi(V) \subset \phi(\overline{V}) = \overline{\phi(V)} = \overline{\phi(V)}^* \cap U \subset \overline{\phi(V)}^*$$

Let F be some regular function on some open $W \subset \phi(V)$.

By shrinking if necessary we can write $F = \frac{G}{H}$ where G and H are forms of the same degree and $H(w) \neq 0 \forall w \in W$.

Then

$$F \circ \phi = \frac{G \circ \phi}{H \circ \phi} = \frac{G_*}{H_*}$$

and since G_* and H_* don't vanish on $\phi^{-1}(W)$, $F \circ \phi$ is regular.

Thus $\phi|_V$ is a morphism of algebraic varieties.

Conversely, we have $\phi^{-1}: U \to \mathbb{A}^n$, let $W \subset V$, take $F \in \mathcal{O}(W)$, up to shrinking.

Then
$$F \circ \phi^{-1}([x_1 : \ldots : x_{n+1}]) = \frac{G(\frac{x_1}{x_{n+1}}, \ldots)}{H(\frac{x_1}{x_{n+1}}, \ldots)} = x_{n+1}^{\alpha} \frac{G^*([x_1 : \ldots : x_{n+1}])}{H^*[x_1 : \ldots : x_{n+1}]}.$$

Now, if $\alpha \ge 0$ then x_{n+1}^{α} then $x_{n+1}^{\alpha}G^*$ and H^* are of the same degree.

If $\alpha < 0$, then G^* and $x_{n+1}^{-\alpha}H^*$. Hence $F \circ \phi^{-1} \in \mathcal{O}(\phi(V))$ and hence ϕ^{-1} is a morphism.

Definition 28

A variety is (quasi-) affine or quasi-projective if V is isomorphic to a quasi-affine or quasi-projective variety.

Corollaire 59

Any variety is quasi-projective.

Every quasi-projective variety admits a finite open cover by quasi-affine varieties namely $V = \bigcup_i V \cap U_i$

Preuve

projective implies quasi-projective and affine implies quasi-affine and the theorem above gives quasi-affine implies quasi-projective.

Furthermore, since $\mathbb{P}^n = \bigcup_i U_i \implies V = \bigcup V \cap U_i$.

If V is projective, $V \cap U_i \subset U_i \simeq \mathbb{A}^n$ is closed and irreducible, hence $V \cap U_i$. Finally, if $V \subset \overline{V} \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ quasi-projective, then $V \cap U_i \subset \overline{V} \cap U_i$ is quasi-affine.

Exemple

For any polynomial $f \in k[x_1, ..., x_n]$, $\mathbb{A}^n \setminus V(f)$ is affine, but $\mathbb{A}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ is not affine.

Remarque

The above also shows that if V is quasi-affine, then $\mathcal{O}(V) \simeq \mathcal{O}(\phi(V))$, hence all our definitions of $\mathcal{O}(-)$ are compatible.

The definition of a morphism is clean, but difficult to check in practice. It becomes easier if at least the target is affine:

Lemme 62

Let $\phi: V \to W$ be a map, suppose $W \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ affine, and $x_i: \mathbb{A}^n \to \mathbb{A}^1$ coordinate functions, then ϕ is a morphism $\iff x_i \circ \phi: V \to \mathbb{A}^1$ is regular.

Preuve

If ϕ is a morphism, then $x_i \circ \phi$ is regular by definition. Conversely, if $x_i \circ \phi$ is regular for all $1 \le i \le n$, then

$$f \circ \phi$$

is also regular for any $f \in k[x_1, ..., x_n]$. Since regular functions form a ring. Hence

$$\phi^{-1}(V(f_1,\ldots,f_k)\cap W) = \bigcap \phi^{-1}(V(f_i)\cap W)$$
$$= \bigcap (f\circ\phi)^{-1}(0)$$

Thus ϕ is continuous.

Now let $U \subset W$ be open and $f \in \mathcal{O}(U)$, after shrinking, we may suppose $f = \frac{g}{h}$ where $g, h \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n], h(u) \neq 0 \forall u \in U$.

$$f \circ \phi = \frac{g \circ \phi}{h \circ \phi}$$

where $g \circ \phi, h \circ \phi$ are regular and $h \circ \phi(v) \neq 0 \forall v \in V$. Thus $\frac{1}{h \circ \phi}$ is regular, therefore $\frac{g \circ \phi}{h \circ \phi}$ is regular.

Exemple

Now, the map $\mathbb{A}^1 \setminus \{0\} \to V(XY-1) \subset \mathbb{A}^2$ is a morphism.

Corollaire 64

Let V, W be two varieties and W affine, then there is a bijection

$$hom_{Var}(V, W) \simeq hom_{k-alg} (\mathcal{O}(W), \mathcal{O}(V))$$

sending $\phi \to \tilde{\phi}$

Remarque

If V is projective, we claim that $\mathcal{O}(V) \simeq k$

3.5 General rational functions an local rings

Let V be an algebraic variety and $p \in V$.

Definition 29 (Local ring)

The local ring of V at $p: \mathcal{O}_p(V)$ is the set of pairs $\langle U, f \rangle$, where $U \subset V$ is open containing p and f is a regular function on U, modulo the relation

$$[U, f] \sim [U', f'] \iff f = f' \text{ on } U \cap U'$$

Lemme 66

 \sim is an equivalence relation and $\mathcal{O}_p(V)$ is a ring with the operations

$$[U, f] + [U', f'] = [U \cap U', f + f']$$

and similarly for the product

$$[U, f] \cdot [U', f'] = [U \cap U', f \cdot f']$$

Furthermore $\mathcal{O}_p(V)$ is a local ring with maximal ideal

$$m = \{ [U, f] | f(p) = 0 \}$$

Preuve

Reflexivity and identity is obvious, we need to check transitivity, suppose $[U,f] \sim [U',f']$ and $[U'',f''] \sim [U',f']$ then clearly F = f'' on $U \cap U' \cap U''$ but

$$U \cap U' \cap U'' \subset U \cap U''$$

is open and dense and since f, f'' are continuous, f = f'' on $U \cap U''$. To show the ring is local, notice that there is an evaluation morphism

$$\mathcal{O}_p(V) \to k$$

$$[U, f] \to f(p)$$

This map is surjective since we have constant functions.

Hence m_p is a maximal ideal.

Finally $\mathcal{O}_p(V)$ is local since $[U, f] \notin m_p$ hence $f(p) \neq 0$.

Thus $\frac{1}{f}$ is regular in some neighbourhood of p.

Thus f is a unit.

Lecture 7: rational functions and dimension

Fri 08 Apr

3.6 The field of rational functions

Definition 30 (Field of rational functions)

K(V) is the set of pairs (U,f) with $U \subset V$ open and non-empty and f a regular function on U modulo the equivalence relation $(U,f) \sim (U',f')$ iff f = f' on $U \cap U'$.

Remarque

Since V is irreducible, any non-empty open is dense, hence $U \cap U'$ is non-empty and open as well.

Furthermore, note that [U, f] has $\frac{1}{f}$ as an inverse.

As in the affine case, we have inclusions

$$\mathcal{O}(V) \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O}_n(V) \hookrightarrow K(V)$$

Proposition 68

- 1. Let V be an algebraic variety and $U \subset V$ open and non-emtpy. Then K(V) = K(U) and $\mathcal{O}_p(V) = \mathcal{O}_p(U)$ for any $p \in U$
- 2. For any algebraic variety V and any $p \in V, K(V)$ is the quotient field of $\mathcal{O}_{p}(V)$.
- 3. If V is affine, then $\mathcal{O}_p(V) = \Gamma(V)_{m_p}$ for any $p \in V$ and K(V) is the quotient field at $\Gamma(V)$.

 In particular all definitions of K(V) and $\mathcal{O}_p(V)$ agree for affine varieties.

Remarque

1. For $V \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ quasi-projective and $P \in V \cap U_i$ for some i, then $\mathcal{O}_p(V) = \mathcal{O}_p(\overline{V}) = \mathcal{O}_p(\overline{V} \cap U_i)$.

Since $U_i = \mathbb{A}^n, \overline{V} \cap U_i$ is affine and $\mathcal{O}_p(\overline{V} \cap U_i) = \Gamma(\overline{V} \cap U_i)_{m_p}$.

Thus $\mathcal{O}_p(V)$ is always an explicit localization (as any variety is quasi-projective).

Preuve

- 1. Immediate from the definition : $[W, f] \in \mathcal{O}_p(V)$. We know that $[W, f] \sim [W \cap U, f] \in \mathcal{O}_p(U)$ so there is a bijection between the equivalence classes.
- 2. As in the remark, we can reduce to the affine case and then it follows from the third part of the proposition.
- 3. We have a map $\Gamma(V) \to \mathcal{O}_p(V)$ sending $\frac{f}{g} \to [V, \frac{f}{g}]$. It is injective by continuity (as V is open hence dense.). And also surjective by definition of $\mathcal{O}_p(V)$.

Indeed, any $[U,h] \in \mathcal{O}_p(V)$ is of the form $h = \frac{f}{g}$ with $g(u) \neq 0$ on U. Since U is quasi-affine, f and g are both quotients of regular functions on $V = \overline{U}$.

Similarly, we have an inclusion $Q(\Gamma(V)) \hookrightarrow K(V)$ sending $\frac{f}{g} \to [V, \frac{f}{g}].$

But any $[U,h] \in K(V)$ is contained in $\mathcal{O}_p(V) \subset Q(\Gamma(V))$ for any $p \in U$ so we also have a reverse inclusion.

3.7 Dimension of a Variety

Should be a basic invariant, in fact it isn't.

Definition 31 (Dimension of a topological space)

The dimension of a topological space X is the largest integer n such that there exists a chain $Z_n \supset \ldots \supset Z_1 \supset Z_0$ of distinct irreducible closed subsets of X.

Then, the dimension of an algebraic set is it's dimension as a topological

space.

So now we'd like to relate this definition with the dimension theory for rings.

Recall that in any ring A, the height ht(p) of a prime ideal $P \subset A$ is the supremum of all integers n such that \exists a chain $p_0 \subset \ldots \subset p_n = p$ of distinct prime ideals.

The krull dimension of A is defined as

$$\dim A = \sup \{ ht(p) | p \subset A \text{ prime } \}$$

Proposition 70

If $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is an affine algebraic variety, then

$$\dim V = \dim \mathcal{O}(V)$$

Premye

If $V_0 \subset V_1 \ldots \subset V_d = V$ is a maximal chain of irreducible closed subsets of V, then ($d < \infty$ by Noetherianity), applying I gives

$$I(V_1) \supset \ldots \supset I(V_d) = I(V)$$

is a chain of distinct prime ideals containing I(V), so in the quotient we get a chain

$$p_0 \supset \dots p_d = (0) \text{ in } \mathcal{O}(V)$$

So dim $\mathcal{O}(V) \ge \dim V$, we can of course go the other way to find dim $\mathcal{O}(V) \le \dim V$

Computing dimensions is hard, the main tool is the following theorem

Theorème 71

Let K be a field and B a domain, which is a finitely generated K-algebra, then_

$$\dim B = transcendence degree of {Q(B)}_K$$

— For any prime ideal $p \subset B$ we have

$$ht(p) + \dim B/p = \dim B$$

Corollaire 72

 $\dim \mathbb{A}^n = n$

Preuve

We have that

$$\dim \mathbb{A}^n = \dim K[x_1, \dots, x_n] = trdegK(x_1, \dots, x_n) = n$$

Corollaire 73

If $V \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ is a quasi-projective variety, then

$$\dim \overline{V} = \dim V$$

To prove this, we need the following lemma

Lemme 74

If X is a topological space and $\{U_i\}$ a family of open subsets covering X, then

$$\dim X = \sup_{i} \dim U_{i}$$

Preuve (Of the Corrolary)

Let U_1, \ldots, U_{n+1} be the open charts of \mathbb{P}^n , then $V_i = V \cap U_i$ gives an open cover of V by quasi-affine varieties and $\overline{V} \cap U_i = \overline{V_i}$ where the second closure is taken in $\mathbb{U}_i \simeq \mathbb{A}^n$.

If we know the corollary for quasi-affine varieties, we get that

$$\dim \overline{V} = \sup \dim \overline{V_i} = \sup \dim V_i = \dim V$$

Therefore, assume $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is quasi-affine of dimension d and let $Z_0 \subset \ldots \subset Z_d$ be a maximal chain of irreducibles in V.

Hence $Z_d = V$ and $Z_0 = \{x\}$.

Let $m \subset \mathcal{O}(\overline{V})$ be the maximal ideal corresponding to x, we claim that ht(m) = d.

If this is true, then we have

$$\dim \overline{V} = \dim \mathcal{O}(\overline{V}) = \dim \mathcal{O}(\overline{V})/m + ht(m) = d$$

So now we have to prove the claim.

Clearly $ht(m) \geq d$.

Let $p_0 \subset \ldots \subset p_r = m$ be a longer chain of distinct prime ideals in $\mathcal{O}(\overline{V})$.

Set
$$W_i = V(p_i) \to \overline{V} = W_0 \supset \ldots \supset W_r = \{x\}.$$

Intersecting with V gives

$$V = W_0 \cap V \supset \ldots \supset W_r \cap V = \{x\}$$

Since $W_i \cap V \subset W_i$ are open and non-empty, $W_i \cap V$ is irreducible. By maximality of the initial sequence $\exists i$ such that

$$W_i \cap V = W_{i+1} \cap V$$

But then $W_i = \overline{W_i \cap V} = \overline{W_{i+1} \cap V} = W_{i+1}$ which is a contradiction. \square

From linear algebra, we would expect that if V is given by r "independent" equations should have dimension n-r.

Proposition 75

- Let V be an affine variety of dim d and $H = V(F) \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ a hypersurface such that $V \subsetneq H$. Then every irreducible component of $V \cap H$ has dimension d-1.
- Let $I \subset K[x_1, ..., x_n]$ be an ideal that can be generated by r polynomials, then every irreducible component of V(I) has dimension $\geq n-r$

Note that it is <u>not</u> true that if we choose the minimal number of generators, we get equality

Exemple

If $I = (XY, YZ) \subset K[x, y, z]$, then

$$V(I) = V(Y) \cup V(X, Z)$$

Lecture 8: Dimension

Fri 29 Apr

We'll use the following without proof:

Theorème 77 (Krull's Hauptidealsatz)

Let A be a noetherian ring, $f \in A$ neither a 0-divisor nor a unit. Then any minimal ideal containing f has height 1.

We can now prove the above proposition.

Preuve

 $V \not\subset H = V(f)$ which means $f \neq 0$ in $\mathcal{O}(V)$.

Hence, f is not a zero-divisor.

If f is a unit in $\mathcal{O}(V)$, then $V \cap H = \emptyset$ and there is nothing to prove.

Otherwise every irreducible component of $V \cap H \subset V$ corresponds to a prime ideal p in $\mathcal{O}(V)$ and p is minimal.

Hence ht(p) = 1 and thus $\dim V(p) = \dim(\mathcal{O}(V)/p) = \dim(\mathcal{O}(V)) - ht(p) = \dim(\mathcal{O}(V))$

d-1

To prove the second statement we argue by induction.

For r = 0, this is trivially true.

Let $I = (f_1, \ldots, f_r)$ with $r \ge 1$ and W an irreducible component of V(I).

By induction any irreducible component W' of $V(f_1, ..., f_{r-1})$ has dimension n - (r - 1).

By a every irreducible component of $W' \cap V(f_r)$ has dimension $\geq n - r$. W is a union of irreducible components of $W' \cap V(f_r)$.

4 Local Properties of plane curves

Definition 32 (Plane curve)

Let $F, G \in K[x, y]$ are equivalent if $\exists \lambda \in K^{\times}$ such that $F = \lambda G$.

An affine plane curve is an equivalence class of non constant polynomials in K[x, y].

If $F = \prod F_i e^i$ with F_i irreducible.

We call F_i the components of F ad e_i the multiplicities. Note that we can recover the F_i from V(F) but not the e_i 's.

The degree of an affine plane curve is the degree of F as a polynomial.

A line is a curve of degree 1.

If F is irreducible, we write $\Gamma(F)$, $\mathcal{O}_p(F)$ for $\Gamma(V(F))$ etc.

Definition 33 (Singular point)

Let F be a plane curve and $P = (a, b) \in F$.

Then P is called a simple point if either

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial X}(p) = F_X(p) \neq 0 \text{ or } \frac{\partial F}{\partial Y}(p) \neq 0$$

Ie., if the jacobian of F has full rank. In this case, the line $L(x,y) = F_x(p)(X-a) + F_y(p)(Y-b)$ is the tangent line to F at p.

A point which is not simple is called singular or multiple.

A curve with only simple points is called non-singular or smooth.

We'll usually arrange things such that p = (0,0) is a singular point of F. Writing $F = F_m + \ldots + F_n$ for F_i forms of degree i, $(0,0) \in F \iff m \ge 1$

Definition 34

The integer $m = m_p(F)$ is called the multiplicity of F at p = (0,0)

We have that p = (0,0) is simple iff m = 1.

And in this case F_1 is the tangent line to F at (0,0).

If m = 2 then p = (0,0) is called a double point.

Since F_m is homogeneous and in two variables we can factor it as

$$F = \prod L_i^{r_i}$$

where L_i are distinct lines through the origin.

To see this, notice that the dehomonigenization $(F_m)_* = F_m(X,1)$ factors into linear terms.

Definition 35

The L_i are called the tangent lines to F at (0,0).

 L_i is a simple (double, triple,...) tangent if $r_i = 1(2,3)$.

A point P is an ordinary multiple point of F , if F has m distinct tangents at p.

An ordinary double point is called a node. It is in many ways the simplest example of a singular point.

Exemple

Let
$$F = Y^2 - X^3 - X^2 = F_2 + F_3$$
.

We can write
$$F_2 = (Y - X)(Y + X)$$

If
$$F = \prod_i F_i^{e_i}$$
 then $m_p(F) = \sum_i e_i m_p(F_i)$.

And if L is a tangent to F_i with multiplicity r_i , then L is a tangent to F with multiplicity $\sum e_i r_i$.

For
$$p = (a, b)$$
 let $T(x, y) = (x + a, y + b)$ and set $FT(x, y) = F(T(x, y))$.

We then define $m_p(F) = m_{(0,0)}(F^T)$ and similarly for tangent lines, multiple points etc.

Theorème 79

Let P be a point on an irreducible plane curve F and $\mathfrak{m}_p(F) \subset \mathcal{O}_p(F)$ the corresponding maximal ideal.

Then for sufficiently large n, we have that

$$m_p(F) = \dim_K \left(\mathfrak{m}_p(F)^n / \mathfrak{m}_p(F)^{n+1} \right)$$

Exemple

Let F = X and p = (0,0), then

$$\mathfrak{m}_P(F)=(Y,X)\subset \left(k[x,y]/(x)\right)_{(x,y)}$$

and

$$\mathfrak{m}_p(F)^n = (Y^n)$$

and thus $(Y^n)/(Y^{n+1})$ is generated by Y^n

We'll need the following lemma

Lemme 81

Let $I \subset K[X_1, ..., X_n]$ be an ideal such that $V(I) = \{P_1, ..., P_n\}$ is finite.

Let $\mathcal{O}_i = \mathcal{O}_{P_i}(\mathbb{A}^n)$.

Then there is an isomorphism

$$\Phi: K[x_1,\ldots,x_n]/I \to \prod \mathcal{O}_i/I \cdot \mathcal{O}_i$$

We'll prove the theorem assuming this.

Let's write $\mathcal{O}, \mathfrak{m}$ and m for $\mathcal{O}_p(F), \mathfrak{m}_p(F)$ and $m_p(F)$.

We have the exact sequence

$$0 \to \mathfrak{m}^n/\mathfrak{m}^{n+1} \to \mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{m}^{n+1} \to \mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{m}^n \to 0$$

The theorem follows if $\dim(\mathcal{O}_{\mathfrak{m}^n}) = n \cdot m + s$ and all $n \geq m$ Without loss of generality P = (0,0) and hence $\mathfrak{m}^n = I^n \mathcal{O}$.

Then

$$\mathcal{O}_{\mathfrak{m}^n} = \mathcal{O}_{I^n\mathcal{O}} = \mathcal{O}_p(\mathbb{A}^2)_{(F,I^n)} = K[x,y]_{(F,I^n)}$$

Notice $\forall G \in I^{n-m} \ GF \in I^n$.

We get a short exact sequence

$$K[x,y]_{I^{n-m}} \xrightarrow{F} k[x,y]_{I^n} \to K[x,y]_{(F,I^n)} \to 0$$

Since $\dim_k K[x,y]/I^n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ we have

$$\dim {}^{\textstyle K[x,y]}\!\!/_{\textstyle (F,I^n)} = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} - \frac{(n-m)(n-m+1)}{2} = mn - \frac{m(m-1)}{2}$$