Remark 0.1. The original version of these notes were co-written with Sangjun Ko for our Rutgers Math 452 (Abstract Algebra II) final project in Spring 2022. (In particular, the quote was read out loud at the beginning of the talk.) Thus, the prerequisites required are pretty minimal - if you know what a quotient ring and a homomorphism are, you're probably good. The content which requires point-set topology can be skipped. As a consequence, the scope of these notes are rather limited; algebraic geometry is a huge, deep field, and these notes do not even begin to scratch the surface of what lies out there. For further deep dives into algebraic geometry, I recommend [Gathmann, 2022] and [Vakil, 2017]. I've done some light edits from the original notes to produce this version. Enjoy!

Algebra is the offer made by the devil to the mathematician. The devil says: "I will give you this powerful machine, and it will answer any question you like. All you need to do is give me your soul: give up geometry and you will have this marvellous machine." ... the danger to our soul is there, because when you pass over into algebraic calculation, essentially you stop thinking: you stop thinking geometrically, you stop thinking about the meaning. (Sir Michael Atiyah)

1 Introduction

It is with this provocative quote that we begin our discussion: indeed, algebra provides a powerful tool by which we can study, well, geometry. In particular, our goal here will be to furnish a proof of Hilbert's Null-stellensatz, which essentially states that there is a one-to-one correspondence between geometric objects (varieties) to ideals of polynomial rings. Thus if we want to study geometry, we turn to this powerful machine that is algebra.... Some of the following material is based on [Artin, 2011], but the primary references were [Reid, 2013] and [Smith et al., 2000], with [Aluffi, 2009] as well. But first, we'll discuss a baby version of our end goal.

Proposition 1.1. Let F be a field. The maximal ideals of F[x] are the principal ideals generated by the monic irreducible polynomials.

Proof. This is extremely similar in style to the proof that the maximal ideals of \mathbb{Z} are the ideals generated by prime integers. (In particular, F[x] is indeed a PID).

Corollary 1.2. There is a bijective correspondence between the maximal ideals of $\mathbb{C}[x]$ and points in \mathbb{C} . The maximal ideal M_a that corresponds to a point $a \in \mathbb{C}$ is the kernel of the substitution homomorphism which sends x to a. Indeed, $M_a = \langle x - a \rangle$.

Proof. The kernel of the substitution homomorphism is all polynomials which have α as a root. So, they must be divisible by $x-\alpha$, and $M_{\alpha}=\langle x-\alpha\rangle$. On the other hand, if M is a maximal ideal of $\mathbb{C}[x]$, then by Proposition 1.1 we know M is generated by the monic irreducible polynomials of $\mathbb{C}[x]$, which are simply $x-\alpha$.

2 Affine Algebraic Varieties

Definition 2.1. Suppose $\{f_i\}_{i\in I}$ is an indexed collection, not necessarily finite or countable, of polynomials in $\mathbb{C}[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$. The common zero set

$$\mathbb{V}(\{f_i\}_{i\in I}) := \{x \in \mathbb{C}^n \mid f_i(x) = 0 \text{ for all } i \in I\}$$

is called an **affine algebraic variety**, or simply **variety** for short. Similarly, an **affine algebraic subvariety** is a variety which is itself a subset of a variety.

Example 2.2. By definition, a complex line in \mathbb{C}^2 is made of the solutions to the equation ax + by + c = 0, so it is an affine algebraic variety. Similarly, the point (a, b) is an affine algebraic variety since it is the common solution of the equations x - a and y - b. The empty set is the solution of the constant function, $\emptyset = \mathbb{V}(1)$, and the whole space is the solution of the constant function $\mathbb{C}^2 = \mathbb{V}(0)$, and so are both affine algebraic varieties.

Example 2.3. We can identify $\mathrm{Mat}_{n\times n}(\mathbb{C})$ with $\mathbb{C}^{n\times n}$. det: $\mathrm{Mat}_{n\times n}\to\mathbb{C}$ is a polynomial function, and so

$$SL(n, \mathbb{C}) = \{A \in Mat_{n \times n}(\mathbb{C}) \mid det A - 1 = 0\}$$

is an affine algebraic variety.

It is an interesting fact that the arbitrary intersection of affine algebraic varieties is still a variety. Indeed, for two varieties we can write

$$\mathbb{V}(\{f_i\}_{i\in I})\cap\mathbb{V}(\{f_i\}_{i\in I})=\mathbb{V}(\{f_i\}_{i\in I\cup I}).$$

Likewise, it is also easy to see that the union of two varieties is a variety. Indeed,

$$\mathbb{V}(\{f_i\}_{i\in I})\cap\mathbb{V}(\{f_i\}_{i\in I})=\mathbb{V}(\{f_if_i\}_{(i,i)\in I\times I}),$$

and in particular for polynomials $f_1, f_2 \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n], \mathbb{V}(f_1) \cup \mathbb{V}(f_2) = \mathbb{V}(f_1 f_2)$.

Since we also established the empty set and \mathbb{C}^n are varieties in Example 2.2, we conclude that varieties exactly follow the properties of closed sets of a certain topology, whose open sets are the complements of varieties. This topology is known as the **Zariski topology**, and compared to other topologies used in analysis, it is rather exotic. In particular, it is not Hausdorff.

Remark 2.4. Note that every affine algebraic variety is closed in the standard Euclidean topology for \mathbb{C}^n . In this topology, every polynomial is continuous; hence for any polynomial p, $p^{-1}(\{0\})$ is closed since a singleton is closed in the standard topology. Then every affine algebraic variety is an intersection of closed sets, and thus is closed. Then, from the discussion in Example 2.3, we conclude that $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$ is not an affine algebraic variety for all n since it is not closed.

3 Hilbert's Basis Theorem

Definition 3.1 (Noetherian Ring). We say that a ring R is **Noetherian** if every ideal $I \triangleleft R$ is finitely generated; that is, if $I \triangleleft R$, then there exists $f_1, \ldots, f_k \in I$ such that $I = \langle f_1, \ldots, f_k \rangle$.

Proposition 3.2. Let R be a ring. The following are equivalent:

- (i) R is Noetherian.
- (ii) R satisfies the ascending chain condition (a.c.c): if $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \cdots$ is an increasing chain of ideals, then the chain terminates; that is, there exists an n such that $I_{n-1} \subseteq I_n = I_{n+1} = \cdots$.
- (iii) Every nonempty collection of ideals of R has a maximal element ordered by inclusion.

Proof. ((i) \Rightarrow (ii)) Let $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \cdots$ be an ascending chain of ideals, and set $I := \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} I_j$. This is an ideal by Homework 1, and so it is finitely generated, say $I = \langle f_1, \dots, f_k \rangle$. Then each f_i must be in some I_{m_i} for some m_i , and take $m := max\{m_i \mid 1 \le i \le k\}$, we have that $I = I_m$, and so the chain terminates after m.

 $((ii)\Rightarrow (iii))$ For the contrapositive, suppose that R has a family $\mathcal F$ of ideals without a maximal element. Then pick $I_1\in \mathcal F$; since this is not a maximal element, then there exists an $I_2\in \mathcal F$ such that $I_1\subset I_2$ a proper inclusion. Now inductively we may define, for $I_n\in \mathcal F$, an $I_{n+1}\in \mathcal F$ such that $I_n\subset I_{n+1}$ since I_n is not maximal in $\mathcal F$; then we have an ascending chain $I_1\subset I_2\subset \cdots \subset I_n\subset I_{n+1}\subset \cdots$ that does not terminate.

 $((iii) \Rightarrow (i))$ Let $I \triangleleft R$ be an ideal, and let $\mathcal{F} = \{J \subseteq I \mid J \text{ is a finitely generated ideal}\}$. Then certainly $\{0\} \in \mathcal{F}$ so $\mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset$. Thus \mathcal{F} must have a maximal element by inclusion, call it M. Then M = I, since if not, there is an element $f \in I \setminus M$, and M + Rf must be another finitely generated element which strictly contains M, a contradiction.

Example 3.3. Every field is a Noetherian ring, since it only has two ideals, namely the trivial ideal and the whole field

Example 3.4. Every PID is a Noetherian ring since every ideal is generated by a single element. In particular, F[x] is a Noetherian ring if F is a field.

Now we are ready to prove the main theorem of this section.

Theorem 3.5 (Hilbert's Basis Theorem). If R is a Noetherian ring, then R[x] is also Noetherian.

Proof. Let $J \triangleleft R[x]$ be an ideal. Our aim will be to show that J is finitely generated. Define $J_n \subseteq R$ to be the set of leading coefficients of polynomials in J of degree n:

$$J_n := \{a_n \in R \mid \text{ there exists } f \in J \text{ such that } f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0\}.$$

Then J_n inherits its ideal property from J, and moreover for each n, $J_n \subseteq J_{n+1}$ since if $\alpha \in J$, then there exists an $f \in J$ such that α is the leading coefficient of f. Taking xf(x), we see that α can also be the leading coefficient of a polynomial of degree n+1. Now since R is Noetherian, it satisfies a.c.c, and so there exists some N such that $J_N = J_{N+1} = \cdots$. Now each J_i , $i \le N$, is finitely generated since R is Noetherian, say $\alpha_{i_1}, \ldots, \alpha_{i_{m_1}}$ be the generators of J_i . Then associated to each α_{i_k} is a function $f_{i_k} \in J$ with degree i and leading coefficient α_{i_k} . Then we claim that $\{f_{i_k}\}$ generates J. Let $g \in J$, and let deg g = m. Write the leading coefficient of g as g, and then g is g in g. Now take the generators in g in g in g in g.

$$b = \sum c_{\mathfrak{m}'_k} \mathfrak{a}_{\mathfrak{m}'_k},$$

where m' = m if $m \le N$, and m' = N if m > N. Now define

$$g_1 \coloneqq g - x^{m-m'} \cdot \sum c_{m'_k} f_{m'_k}.$$

This subtraction "deletes" the leading coefficient of g, and so $\deg g_1 \leqslant \deg g - 1$. Now by induction, we can write g as a combination of f_{i_k} , which implies that they generate j.

Corollary 3.6. If R is a Noetherian ring, then $R[x_1,...,x_n]$ is also Noetherian. In particular, $\mathbb{C}[x_1,...,x_n]$ is Noetherian for all n.

Proof. By induction.

4 The Correspondences \mathbb{V} and \mathbb{I}

Now with similar notation as in Section 2, we may refine our notion of what \mathbb{V} is: it is a function that takes sets of polynomials and maps it to subsets of \mathbb{C}^n . On the other hand, we define the "inverse map" \mathbb{I} , if V is a subset of \mathbb{C}^n , not necessarily an affine algebraic variety,

$$\mathbb{I}(V) \coloneqq \{ f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n] \mid f(x) = 0 \text{ for all } x \in V \}.$$

It is straightforward to see that $\mathbb{I}(V)$ is an ideal.

Next, we ask the question if \mathbb{I} and \mathbb{V} are inverses; note that $V \subseteq \mathbb{V}(\mathbb{I}(V))$ since \mathbb{I} contains all functions vanishing on V, and $\mathbb{V}(\mathbb{I}(V))$ is the vanishing set of $\mathbb{I}(V)$. However, the reverse inclusion may not hold, and this brings us to the next proposition:

Proposition 4.1. If $V \subset \mathbb{C}$, then $V = \mathbb{V}(\mathbb{I}(V))$ if and only if V is an affine algebraic variety.

Proof. Suppose $V = \mathbb{V}(\mathbb{I}(V))$. Then V is the image of some ideal under \mathbb{V} , which is by definition an affine algebraic variety. Conversely, suppose V is an algebraic variety. We have shown one inclusion always holds; we need to show the reverse inclusion. If $x \in \mathbb{V}(\mathbb{I}(V))$, then f(x) = 0 for all $f \in \mathbb{I}(V)$, but V is the vanishing set of all $\{f_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{I}}$, and so each $f_i \in \mathbb{I}(V)$ and it follows that $x \in V$, and so $\mathbb{V}(\mathbb{I}(V)) \subseteq V$, and the equality follows. \square

Now, from Corollary 3.6 we have that $\mathbb{C}[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ is a Noetherian ring, and so if V is an affine algebraic variety in \mathbb{C}^n , $\mathbb{I}(V)$ is an ideal and so it is *finitely generated*. Therefore we have that every affine algebraic variety is the zero set of finitely many polynomials. Thus every affine algebraic variety can be described by finitely many polynomials, a rather surprising and powerful fact.

Our discussion above gives us a set to which the restriction of $\mathbb{V} \circ \mathbb{I}$ is the identity map: namely, the collection of all affine algebraic varieties. Now we consider the natural follow-up question: are there necessary and sufficient conditions for which $\mathbb{I} \circ \mathbb{V}$ is the identity map? Certainly for any ideal I, one has $I \subseteq \mathbb{I}(\mathbb{V}(I))$, but this inclusion may be a strict one. Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ and consider f^{α} for $\alpha \geqslant 2$. Then one has f(x) = 0 if and only if $f(x)^{\alpha} = 0$, which implies $\mathbb{V}(f) = \mathbb{V}(f^{\alpha})$, which would imply that $f \in \mathbb{I}(\mathbb{V}(f^{\alpha}))$, but in general $f \notin \langle f^{\alpha} \rangle$. Our hopes are now dashed, and this motivates the need for Hilbert's Nullstellensatz.

5 Hilbert's Nullstellensatz

The proof of Hilbert's Nullstellensatz is a bit long, but for the sake of completeness the authors feel compelled to discuss it. To do that, a definition is necessary.

Definition 5.1. Let $I \triangleleft R$. Then the **radical** of I is defined as

$$\sqrt{I} := \{ f \in R \mid \text{there exists some } n \text{ such that } f^n \in I \}.$$

An ideal I is called a **radical ideal** if $\sqrt{I} = I$.

Proposition 5.2. For $I \triangleleft R$, \sqrt{I} is an ideal.

Proof. First let $f \in \sqrt{I}$, and say $f^n \in I$. Then if $h \in R$, $(fh)^n = h^n f^n \in I$ and so $fh \in \sqrt{I}$. If $f, g \in \sqrt{I}$, say $f^n, g^m \in I$, then by the binomial theorem

$$(f+g)^{r} = \sum_{\alpha=0}^{r} \binom{r}{\alpha} f^{\alpha} g^{r-\alpha},$$

and from here it makes sense that for sufficiently large r one has $(f+g)^r \in \sqrt{I}$.

Example 5.3. Every prime ideal is a radical ideal. It is easy to see that $I \subseteq \sqrt{I}$, and conversely suppose $f \in \sqrt{I}$. Then there exists an n such that $f^n \in I$, and since $f^n = ff^{n-1}$, either $f \in I$ or $f^{n-1} \in I$, and proceed inductively.

Example 5.4. If V is an affine algebraic variety, then $\mathbb{I}(V)$ is a radical ideal, since if $(f(x))^n = 0$ then f(x) = 0. So given any f^n which vanishes, we know f vanishes as well.

Now we are ready to state and prove the main theorem.

Theorem 5.5 (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz).

(i) Every maximal ideal of the polynomial ring $\mathbb{C}[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ is of the form $\langle x_1-a_1,\ldots,x_n-a_n\rangle$ for some $a=(a_1,\ldots,a_n)\in\mathbb{C}^n$. Thus there is a one-to-one correspondence

$$\{maximal\ ideals\ of\ \mathbb{C}[x_1,\ldots,x_n]\}\longleftrightarrow \{points\ of\ \mathbb{C}^n\}.$$

- (ii) If $I \triangleleft \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is an ideal, then $\mathbb{V}(I) = \emptyset$ if and only if $I = \langle 1 \rangle$.
- (iii) For any $I \lhd \mathbb{C}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$,

$$\mathbb{I}(\mathbb{V}(\mathbf{I})) = \sqrt{\mathbf{I}}.$$

Remark 5.6. The word "Nullstellensatz" is German for "theorem of zeros." Item (ii) is sometimes referred to as the weak Nullstellensatz, and item (iii) is sometimes referred to as the strong Nullstellensatz. However,

"stick to the German if you don't want to be considered an ignorant peasant" [Reid, 2013].

We can also replace $\mathbb C$ with any algebraically closed field k, but for our sakes we will just consider $\mathbb C$.

We will first state a lemma which will be crucial in our proof of (i), but in the interest of brevity and clarity we will not prove it. For the curious, [Artin, 2011] contains the proof.

Lemma 5.7 (Zariski).

(i) Let R be a ring that has \mathbb{C} as a subring. The laws of composition on R can be used to make R into a complex vector space.

- (ii) As a vector space, the field $\mathfrak{F} = \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]/M$ is spanned by a countable set of elements.
- (iii) Let V be a vector space spanned by a countable set of vectors. Then every independent subset of V is either finite or countably infinite.
- (iv) Taking $\mathbb{C}(x)$ as a vector space over \mathbb{C} , the uncountable set of rational functions $(x \alpha)^{-1}$ with α in \mathbb{C} is independent.

Now assuming the lemma, we will furnish a proof for Theorem 5.5.

Proof. We first prove (i). Let $s_\alpha: \mathbb{C}[x_1,\ldots,x_n] \to \mathbb{C}$ be the substitution homomorphism of α , and M_α be the kernel of s_α . We know that s_α is surjective, so since \mathbb{C} is a field M_α must be a maximal ideal. To verify that every maximal ideal is of the form in (a), we can see that if $\alpha=(0,0,\ldots,0)$ then every monomial that appears in $f\in s_0$ must be divisible by at least one of the variables, so f can be written as a linear combination of the variables with polynomial coefficients. For the general case we can simply make the variable substitution $x_i=x_i'+\alpha_i$ to move α to the origin.

The harder part is showing that all maximal ideals have the form described in M_{α} . Let M be a maximal ideal, and $\mathcal{F}=\mathbb{C}[x_1,\ldots,x_n]/M$. If we restrict the canonical map $\pi:\mathbb{C}[x_1,\ldots,x_n]\to\mathcal{F}$ to the subring $\mathbb{C}[x_1]$, then we get a homomorphism $\phi_1:\mathbb{C}[x_1]\to\mathcal{F}$. Then the kernel of ϕ_1 is either the zero ideal or one of the maximal ideals $\langle x_1-a_1\rangle$ of $\mathbb{C}[x_1]$. (Note that we could've easily swapped out x_1 for any such x_i .) This will mean that M contains some M_{α} , and since M_{α} is maximal then $M=M_{\alpha}$. Seeking a contradiction, suppose $\ker \phi=\langle 0\rangle$. Then we can show \mathcal{F} contains a field isomorphic to $\mathbb{C}(x)$.

Now we use Lemma 5.7. Parts (ii) and (iii) of Lemma 5.7 show every independent set of \mathcal{F} is finite or countably infinite. But we showed \mathcal{F} contains a subfield isomorphic to $\mathbb{C}(x)$, so by (iv) \mathcal{F} contains an uncountable independent set, a contradiction.

Now we will show that (i) implies (ii). We showed that $\mathbb{V}(1)=\varnothing$ earlier. For the other direction, assume $I\neq\langle 1\rangle$. Then there exists some maximal ideal m of $\mathbb{C}[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ such that $I\subset m$ from the a.c.c. From (a) we know that

$$m = \langle x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n \rangle$$
,

so we conclude f(a) = 0 for all $f \in I$, and thus $a \in V(I)$.

Now we will finally show that (ii) implies (iii). Since we know by definition $I \subseteq \mathbb{I}(\mathbb{V}(I))$, by Example 5.4 we conclude $\sqrt{I} \subseteq \sqrt{\mathbb{I}(\mathbb{V}(I))} = \mathbb{I}(\mathbb{V}(I))$. To show the reverse direction, we use a "fiendishly clever" argument known as the Rabinowitsch trick, named after the original name of George Yuri Rainich. To quote our sources,

"this requires a cunning trick" [Reid, 2013].

"the argument is not difficult ... but it is fiendishly clever" [Aluffi, 2009].

Take some $f\in\mathbb{I}(\mathbb{V}(I)).$ Now, introduce another variable y and consider the ideal

$$I_1 = \langle I, fy - 1 \rangle \lhd \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n, y].$$

We claim that $\mathbb{V}(I_1) = \emptyset$, since any point $q = (a_1, \dots, a_n, b)$ in $\mathbb{V}(I_1)$ must have that $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{V}(I)$. But this means that $(fy - 1)(q) = f(a_1, \dots, a_n)b - 1 = -1$, which implies that $q \notin \mathbb{V}(I_1)$, a contradiction.

Then by (b), we know that $I_1 = \langle 1 \rangle$. So there exist $f_i \in I$, $g_0, g_1 \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n, y]$ such that

$$1 = \sum g_{\mathfrak{i}} f_{\mathfrak{i}} + g_0(fy - 1).$$

Viewing this equality as an identity in the field of fractions $\mathbb{C}(x_1,\ldots,x_n,y)$, we can let $y=f^{-1}$ and see that

$$1 = \sum g_{\mathfrak{i}}(x_1, \dots, x_n, f^{-1}) f_{\mathfrak{i}}(x_1, \dots, x_n, f^{-1}).$$

But $g_i \in I \triangleleft \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, so the extra y variable does not matter to them, and

$$f_i = \frac{\hat{f}_i}{f^m},$$

for some $\hat{f_i} \in \mathbb{C}[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$, for some sufficiently large integer m. Then we can multiply out by f^m to see that

$$f^{\mathfrak{m}} = \sum g_{\mathfrak{i}} \widehat{f}_{\mathfrak{i}} \in I$$

meaning $f \in \sqrt{I}$, as desired.

Corollary 5.8. The correspondences V and I induce bijections

 $\{\textit{radical ideals}\} \longleftrightarrow \{\textit{algebraic subvarieties}\}.$

6 References

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