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Tutorial

WEEK 1

1. PRELIMINARIES ON RINGS

Definition 1.0.1. A triple (R, \cdot) is a ring if $(R, +)$ is an abelian group and the multiplication \cdot is distributive on both sides, i.e.

$$a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c, \quad (b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$$

and \cdot is associative.

Example 1.0.1. • \mathbb{Z}

- $2\mathbb{Z}$ (but not the "odds")
- $\mathbb{R}[x]$ - the ring of polynomials
- Any field
- $K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$
- $K[k_1, \dots]$ ring with infinitely many variables, still each element in this ring is a finite collection of symbols
- $Mat_{n \times n}(K)$
- $R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ letting R be a ring and not a field is still ok!

Definition 1.0.2. We say R is a ring with a unit if there is $1 \in R$ s.t. $a \cdot 1 = a = 1 \cdot a$

Exercise 1.0.1. In a ring- the units 0,1 are unique

Definition 1.0.3. A ring R is called commutative if (R, \cdot) is commutative.

Exercise 1.0.2. Which ring above are commutative

From now on we will only deal with commutative rings with unit!

Definition 1.0.4. A ring R is called an integral domain if $a \cdot b = 0 \rightarrow a = 0$ or $b = 0$

Definition 1.0.5. The set I in a ring R is called an ideal, and denoted $I \triangleleft R$ if $(I, +)$ is an abelian subgroup of $(R, +)$ and for any $r \in R$ $a \in I$, $a \cdot r \in I$.

Note: for non commutative rings we need to separate right and left ideals.

Exercise 1.0.3. Let $S \subset R$, TFAE:

- $I = \bigcap_{S \subset J \triangleleft R} J$
- $I \triangleleft R$ (unique) minimal ideal containing S
- $I = \{s_1 r_1 + \dots + s_n r_n : n \in \mathbb{N}, s_i \in S, r_i \in R\}$

Definition 1.0.6. Let S and R as above. We call this ideal "The ideal generated by S and denote it by $\langle S \rangle$.

If S is a singleton then $\langle S \rangle$ is called a principle ideal.

Definition 1.0.7. Let R be a (commutative unital..) ring, if any ideal I in R is principle we say that R is a principle ideal domain - PID.

Exercise 1.0.4. Show that \mathbb{Z} is PID.

Exercise 1.0.5. Show that $K[x]$ is PID. (Hint- look at the degree of polynomial)

Exercise 1.0.6. Show that $\mathbb{C}[x, y]$ is NOT PID. ($\langle x, y \rangle$). Same for \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Z}

2. SOME MORE ON IDEALS

Definition 2.0.1. Let I be an ideal in R , the radical of I denoted by \sqrt{I} is the set $\sqrt{I} := \{r \in R : r^n \in I \text{ for some } n\}$

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

Exercise 2.0.1. Show that the radical is indeed an ideal.

Exercise 2.0.2. What is $\sqrt{n\mathbb{Z}}$ in the ring \mathbb{Z} .

Lemma 2.0.1. Let R be an integral domain, and I an ideal

- R/I is a field iff I is maximal

3. FIELDS

Definition 3.0.1. We say that $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ is algebraic over \mathbb{Q} if there exist $p \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ (non trivial) s.t. $p(\alpha) = 0$.

If no such polynomial exist then we call α transcendental.

Recall notation, $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ is polynomials in α i.e. formal sums $\sum_i q_i \alpha^i$, if α is algebraic then this ring is actually a field, this condition is iff.

Definition 3.0.2. For $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ the field $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ is the minimal sub-field of \mathbb{Q} containing α .

Let $K \subset L$ be a field extension, define $Gal(L/K)$ (The Galois group of L over K to be all field automorphism of L that fix K).

If the extension is finite (as dim vector space viewpoint) then the field fixed by elements of $Gal(L/K)$ is exactly K .

Let $f \in K[x]$ be a polynomial if $f(\alpha) = 0$ then $K(\alpha)/K$ is a finite extension.

Set $G := Gal(K(\alpha)/K)$ we get that $p_\alpha := \prod_{\sigma \in G} (x - \sigma(\alpha))$ is in $K[x]$ since all coefficients are fixed by G .

Also $f(\sigma(\alpha)) = 0$ for any element in the Galois group. Hence $p_\alpha \mid f$. (This is how we went down a degree for our induction claim in class.)

4. CURVES

In class we saw a definition of an algebraic curve, it is the "zero set" in \mathbb{C}^2 of a polynomial in two variables $f \in \mathbb{C}[x, y]$ we denote the zero set as $\mathcal{Z}(f) := \{(x, y) : f(x, y) = 0\}$ (z for zeros/Zariski).

By corollary of theorem we saw in class ($|\mathcal{Z}(f) \cap \mathcal{Z}(g)| < \infty$) we will often refer to the polynomial itself as the curve, notice any constant times a curve is the same curve.

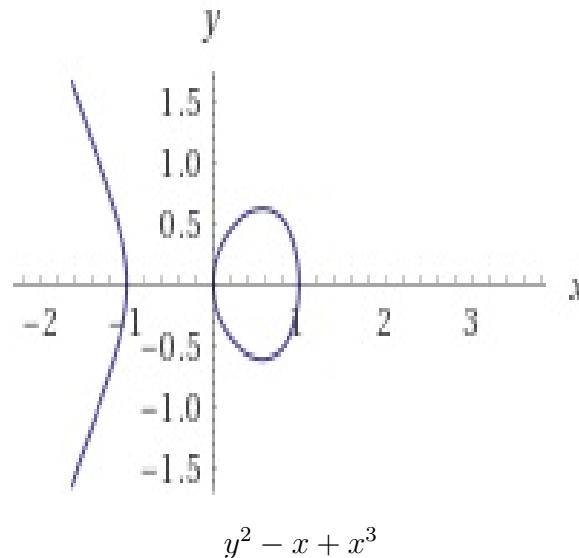
Example 4.0.1. The curve $f(x, y) = x + y$ is the anti diagonal line, the curve $f(x, y) = xy$ is the two axis.

Can we say how these curves are different?
One is irreducible and one is reducible.

Definition 4.0.1. A curve $C = \mathcal{Z}(f)$ is called irreducible if it is reducible as a polynomial, and reducible otherwise i.e. if $f = g \cdot h$ (g, h non units)

We can look at the drawing of the curve and see the difference between the reducible and irreducible ones- but caution!

Exercise 4.0.1 (For home). Describe the curve $f(x, y) = y^2 - x + x^3$ prove that it is irreducible.



Notice that this is just the "real" picture of the curve, for example the curve $x^2 + y^2 + 1$ is empty in "Real life" but actually is non empty over the complex field.

Some fact are true also over non algebraically closed fields.

5. GENERIC POINTS

A generic point over field is a transcendental number, for example π over \mathbb{Q} .

The fact about these point is that given a field k , and π generic over k , then $k(\pi) \cong k(x)$.

For example given a curve $f(x, y)$ with coefficients in \mathbb{Q} we may regard $f(\pi, y) \in \mathbb{Q}(\pi)[y]$ (a polynomial in one variable defined over a sub-field of \mathbb{C}) we know by fundamental theorem of algebra that this polynomial has at most $\deg(f)$ solutions.

(The idea behind the generic point is the if we look at the field K which is the field generated by coefficients, and look at the topology in \mathbb{C}^n generated by closed subsets defined as zeros of polynomials in $K[X]$ we get that the generic point is a dense set. i.e. any algebraic statement true for a generic point is true in general.)

Exercise 5.0.1 (Saw in lecture). If $f(x, y)$ irreducible then so is $f(\pi, y)$

Example 5.0.1. The polynomial $x^2 - 2$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} but reducible over \mathbb{R} so we should be careful when just saying irreducible in general.

6. PROJECTION TO AXIS

Given a curve $f(x, y)$ we may project the curve to the x -axis.

$$Prj_X(f) = \{x \in \mathbb{C} : \exists y \in \mathbb{C} f(x, y) = 0\}$$

Exercise 6.0.1 (In class). Show that besides a finite number of points the fiber over each point is finite.

Write $f(x, y) = a_0(x) + a_1(x)y + a_2(x)y^2 + \dots + a_n(x)y^n$. If fiber if x_0 is infinite then $|\{y \in \mathbb{C} : f(x_0, y) = \sum_i a_i(x_0)y^i = 0\}| = \infty$ thus $a_i(x_0) = 0$ there are only finite many x_0 that satisfy this condition.

Exercise 6.0.2 (In class). Let F_q be a finite field with q elements. Let $f(x, y) \in F_q[x, y]$ of degree d , then $|\mathcal{Z}(f)| \leq q \cdot d$.

Since:

$|\mathcal{Z}(f)| = \sum_{x \in F_q} |\{y \in F_q : f(x, y) = 0\}|$ if $f(x_0, y) \in F_q[x]$ is the zero polynomial by writing $f(x, y) = a_0(x) + a_1(x)y + a_2(x)y^2 + \dots + a_n(x)y^n$. We have that $a_i(x_0) = 0$ for any i . Let $h := \gcd(\{a_i\}) \in F_q[x, y]$ then of course $h \mid f$ so there exist $g \in F_q[x, y]$ s.t. $f = h \cdot g$. Notice that $f(x', y') = 0$ if either $h(x', y') = 0$ or $g(x', y') = 0$.

Assume $f(x', y') = 0$, If $h(x', y') = 0$ then $h(x', y) = 0$ for all y . This happens when x' is a root of h thus the amount of such pair is bounded by $\deg(h) \cdot q$.

If $h(x', y') \neq 0$ then $g(x', y') = 0$ and for any such x' there are at most $\deg(g)$ such y that give zero thus the amount of such pair is bounded by $\deg(g) \cdot q$ we get that

$$|\mathcal{Z}(f)| \leq \deg(g) \cdot q + \deg(h) \cdot q = \deg(f) \cdot q$$

as needed!

Exercise 6.0.3 (For home or in class if time permits). Let $f(x, y) \in \mathbb{C}[x, y]$ non constant, then $|\mathcal{Z}(f)| = \aleph$.

7. AFFINE ALGEBRAIC VARIETIES

In the previous part of the course we regarded a single polynomial in 2 variables. In this part we consider any collection of polynomials in many variables.

Definition 7.0.1. Given a sub collection of polynomials $S \subset \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, we define $\mathcal{Z}(S) := \{x \in \mathbb{C}^n : s(x) = 0 \forall s \in S\}$.

Exercise 7.0.1. Notice the following

- If $S_1 \subset S_2$ then $\mathcal{Z}(S_2) \subset \mathcal{Z}(S_1)$
- $\mathcal{Z}(S_1 \cup S_2) = \mathcal{Z}(S_1) \cap \mathcal{Z}(S_2)$, $\mathcal{Z}(S_1 \cdot S_2) = \mathcal{Z}(S_1) \cup \mathcal{Z}(S_2)$
- $\mathcal{Z}(S) = \mathcal{Z}(\langle S \rangle) = \mathcal{Z}(\sqrt{\langle S \rangle})$

So an "algebraic set" or a "Zariski closed set" is the zero-locus of a radical ideal.

Q: What is a closure of a set with respect to this topology?

Definition 7.0.2. Given any set $X \subset \mathbb{C}^n$ we define $\mathcal{I}(X) := \{f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n] : f(x) = 0 \forall x \in X\}$.

Notice this is radical ideal.

Exercise 7.0.2. We have the following

- If $X_1 \subset X_2$ then $\mathcal{I}(X_2) \subset \mathcal{I}(X_1)$.
- $\mathcal{I}(X_1 \cap X_2) = \sqrt{\mathcal{I}(X_1) + \mathcal{I}(X_2)}$ (Notice that for radical ideal $I_1 + I_2$ does not need to be radical (take $x, x - y^2$))
- $\mathcal{I}(X_1 \cup X_2) = \mathcal{I}(X_1) \cdot \mathcal{I}(X_2)$
- $I \triangleleft \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n], I \subset \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{Z}(I))$
- $X \subset \mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{I}(X))$

We may think of the NSS in the following formulation (seen in class)

Theorem 7.0.1 (NSS).

$$\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{Z}(S)) = \sqrt{\langle S \rangle}$$

And notice that the closure of a set Y is $\bar{Y} = \mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{I}(Y))$

EXAMPLES OF AFFINE VARIETIES

Example 7.0.1. Examples of algebraic sets:

- matrix SL_n
- the set GL_n of invertible matrices is open (Later we will follow Rabinowitz trick to show how it can be thought of as a closed set)

Definition 7.0.3. Let G be a group, a representation of G is an n dimensional a homomorphism $\pi: G \rightarrow GL_n(\mathbb{C})$. Using HBT we can show the following:

Theorem 7.0.2. Let Γ be a finitely generated group (not necessarily finitely presented) then there exist a finitely represented group Δ with a surjection $\Delta \twoheadrightarrow \Gamma$ such that Δ and Γ have same representations for every dimension n .

Proof. What we will show is that the set of n -dimensional representations of Γ is an algebraic set.

Assume $\Gamma = \langle \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_k \rangle$ (maybe take $k = 2$ for convenience).

Define the following n^2 tuples in $\mathbb{C}^{(2k)n^2}$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1,n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n,1} & \dots & a_{n,n} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & \dots & b_{1,n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{n,1} & \dots & b_{n,n} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & \dots & A_{1,n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{n,1} & \dots & A_{n,n} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} B_{11} & \dots & B_{1,n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ B_{n,1} & \dots & B_{n,n} \end{bmatrix}$$

One lower case and one upper case (matrix) for each generators.

And define the polynomials that state $A_{i,j}a_{i,j} = Id_{i,j}$ and all relations etcetera... Since Γ is not necessarily finitely presented there can be infinite amount of polynomials defining this set. From *HBT* there are just finitely many polynomials defining this set. Take all relations that include such a polynomial from the defining set. And define $\Delta = \langle \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_k \rangle$ to be the group generated by $\{\gamma_i\}$ but only with the selected relations.

What we have show is that if the representation satisfies the relations of Δ then it satisfies the relations for Γ . \square

Note that there are unaccountably many finitely generated groups but just countably many finitely presented ones.