## Project Sigma

# **Algebraic Geometry**

Yunhai Xiang

June 24, 2021

## **Contents**

1	Algebraic Varieties	5
	1.1 Affine Algebraic Set	5
2	Sheaves and Schemes	9
	2.1 Presheaves and Sheaves	9

CONTENTS 4

## Chapter 1

## **Algebraic Varieties**

#### 1.1 Affine Algebraic Set

Let k be a field and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then the *affine space*  $\mathbb{A}^n(k)$  of dimension n, or simply  $\mathbb{A}^n$  if it does not cause confusion, is the same structure as the n-dimensional vector space  $k^n$  over k, except with affine maps as morphisms, where an affine map is a linear map shifted by a constant.

**Definition 1.1.1.** Suppose that  $S \subseteq k[X_1, ..., X_n]$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we define

$$\mathcal{V}(S) = \{ x \in \mathbf{A}^n(k) : \forall f \in S, f(x) = 0 \}$$

as the zero-locus of S. A subset of  $A^n(k)$  that is the zero-locus of some S is called (affine) algebraic.

For example, in  $A^2(\mathbf{R})$ , the sets  $\mathcal{V}(\{Y\})$  and  $\mathcal{V}(\{X\})$  are the X-axis and the Y-axis respectively, and the set  $\mathcal{V}(\{X,Y\})$  is the origin. These are all examples of algebraic sets. As a non-example, the set  $\{(\cos t, \sin t, t) \in A^3(\mathbf{R}) : t \in \mathbf{R}\}$  is not algebraic, as there is a line whose intersection with it is a infinite discrete set of points. Next, we claim that to find all algebraic sets, we need not consider all subsets of  $k[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$ . Let R be a commutative ring, we recall the following theorems.

**Theorem 1.1.2.** *R* is noetherian iff all ideals  $I \subseteq R$  are finitely generated.

**Theorem 1.1.3** (Hilbert's Basis theorem). If R is noetherian, then so is  $R[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$ .

Therefore  $k[X_1,\ldots,X_n]$  is noetherian, and hence every for each  $S\subseteq k[X_1,\ldots,X_n]$ , the ideal  $\langle S\rangle$  is generated by some  $f_1,\ldots,f_m\in k[X_1,\ldots,X_n]$ . We claim that  $\mathcal{V}(S)=\mathcal{V}(\langle S\rangle)=\mathcal{V}(\{f_1,\ldots,f_m\})$ . First, we know that  $\mathcal{V}(\langle S\rangle)\subseteq\mathcal{V}(S)$  since  $S\subseteq \langle S\rangle$ . Conversely, suppose that  $f\in \langle S\rangle$ , then there exists  $g_1,\ldots,g_\ell\in S$  and  $\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_\ell\in k[X_1,\ldots,X_n]$  with  $f=\lambda_1g_1+\cdots+\lambda_\ell g_\ell$ . Suppose that  $p\in\mathcal{V}(S)$ , then  $f(p)=\lambda_1g_1(p)+\cdots+\lambda_\ell g_\ell(p)=0$ . Since all  $p\in\mathcal{V}(S)$  is a zero of all  $f\in \langle S\rangle$ , we must have  $\mathcal{V}(S)\subseteq\mathcal{V}(\langle S\rangle)$ , and hence  $\mathcal{V}(S)=\mathcal{V}(\langle S\rangle)$ . The equality  $\mathcal{V}(\langle S\rangle)=\mathcal{V}(\{f_1,\ldots,f_m\})$  is derived similarly. Therefore, it is a common abuse of notation to write  $\mathcal{V}(f_1,\ldots,f_n)$  instead of  $\mathcal{V}(\{f_1,\ldots,f_n\})$ . Conversely, we can define an ideal  $\mathcal{I}(X)$  for each  $X\subseteq \mathbf{A}^n(k)$ .

**Definition 1.1.4.** Let  $X \subseteq \mathbf{A}^n(k)$ , then define the ideal  $\mathcal{I}(X)$  of  $k[X_1, \dots, X_n]$  as

$$\mathcal{I}(X) = \{ f \in k[X_1, ..., X_n] : \forall p \in X, f(p) = 0 \}$$

which is a well-defined ideal as we can verify easily.

In fact, not only is  $\mathcal{I}(X)$  an ideal, it is also a radical ideal. We recall that an radical ideal of a commutative ring R is an ideal  $I \subseteq R$  with  $I = \sqrt{I}$  where  $\sqrt{I} = \{r \in R : \exists m > 0, r^m \in I\}$ . In other words, a radical ideal is an ideal  $I \subseteq R$  where for all  $r \in R$ , if  $r^m \in I$  for some m > 0, then  $r \in I$ . To see that  $\mathcal{I}(X)$  is a radical ideal, note that if  $f^m \in \mathcal{I}(X)$  for some m > 0, then  $f^m(p) = 0$  for all  $p \in X$ , then f(p) = 0 for all  $p \in X$  as k is a field, hence  $f \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ .

Similar to how  $\mathcal{V}(S) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(T)$  when  $T \subseteq S \subseteq k[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ , we easily have  $\mathcal{I}(X) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(Y)$  when  $Y \subseteq X \subseteq \mathbf{A}^n(k)$ . Let  $f \in S \subseteq k[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ , then by definition f vanishes on all of  $\mathcal{V}(S)$ , therefore  $f \in \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(S))$ . Let  $p \in X \subseteq \mathbf{A}^n(k)$ , then by definition p is a zero of all polynomials of  $\mathcal{I}(X)$ , therefore  $p \in \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(X))$ . Hence we have  $S \subseteq \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(S))$  and  $X \subseteq \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(X))$ . From these facts, we derive that  $\mathcal{I}(X) = \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(X)))$  and  $\mathcal{V}(S) = \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(S)))$ . In fact, we have the following.

```
Theorem 1.1.5 (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz). There is a bijective correspondance
```

{radical ideals of  $k[X_1, ..., X_n]$ }  $\longleftrightarrow$  {algebraic sets of  $\mathbf{A}^n(k)$ }

given by  $I \mapsto \mathcal{V}(I)$  and  $X \mapsto \mathcal{I}(X)$ .

whose proof we will delay until later in this note. This observation is central to algebraic geometry. We observe that for a nonempty family of ideals  $I_{\alpha} \subseteq k[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$  indexed by  $\alpha$ , we have  $\mathcal{V}(\sum_{\alpha} I_{\alpha}) = \mathcal{V}(\bigcup_{\alpha} I_{\alpha}) = \bigcap_{\alpha} \mathcal{V}(I_{\alpha})$ . This should be easy to verify, and it tells us that the arbitrary intersection of algebraic sets is algebraic. Next, we observe that for ideals  $I, J \subseteq k[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$ , we have  $\mathcal{V}(I \cap J) = \mathcal{V}(I \cup J) = \mathcal{V}(I) \cup \mathcal{V}(J)$ , where the set  $I \cdot J = \{fg : f \in I, g \in J\}$ . Suppose that  $p \in \mathcal{V}(I) \cup \mathcal{V}(J)$ , assume without loss of generality that  $p \in \mathcal{V}(I)$ . For all  $f \in I \cap J$ , we have  $f \in I$ , so f(p) = 0, hence  $p \in \mathcal{V}(I \cap J)$ , thus  $\mathcal{V}(I) \cup \mathcal{V}(J) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(I \cap J)$ . On the other hand, for each  $fg \in I \cdot J$ , we have (fg)(p) = f(p)g(p) = 0, thus we have  $\mathcal{V}(I) \cup \mathcal{V}(J) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(I \cdot J)$ . Conversely, if  $p \notin \mathcal{V}(I) \cup \mathcal{V}(J)$ , then there exists  $f \in \mathcal{V}(I)$  and  $g \in \mathcal{V}(J)$  such that  $f(p) \neq 0$  and  $g(p) \neq 0$ , and hence  $(fg)(p) = f(p)g(p) \neq 0$  as k is a field. Since we know that  $fg \in I \cdot J$  and  $fg \in I \cap J$ , we have  $p \notin \mathcal{V}(I \cdot J)$  and  $p \notin \mathcal{V}(I \cap J)$ . Thus  $\mathcal{V}(I \cap J)$ ,  $\mathcal{V}(I \cdot J) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(I) \cup \mathcal{V}(J)$ , and hence we completed the proof. Moreover, since  $IJ \subseteq I \cap J$ , we have  $\mathcal{V}(I) \cup \mathcal{V}(J) = \mathcal{V}(I \cap J) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(IJ)$ , and since  $I \cdot J \subseteq IJ$ , we have  $\mathcal{V}(IJ) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(I \cdot J) = \mathcal{V}(I \cdot J) = \mathcal{V}(I) \cup \mathcal{V}(J)$ . Hence  $\mathcal{V}(IJ) = \mathcal{V}(I) \cup \mathcal{V}(J)$  as well.

**Definition 1.1.6.** An algebraic set V is *irreducible* if it cannot be written as  $V = V_1 \cup V_2$  where the algebraic sets  $V_1, V_2 \subset V$  properly, and such a set is called an (*algebraic*) variety.

**Exercise 1.1.7.** If  $\mathcal{I}(X) = \mathcal{I}(Y)$  for algebraic sets X, Y, then X = Y.

**Lemma 1.1.8.** An algebraic set V is a variety iff  $\mathcal{I}(V)$  is prime.

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\mathcal{I}(V)$  is not prime, that  $fg \in \mathcal{I}(V)$  and  $f,g \notin \mathcal{I}(V)$ . We claim that

$$V = (V \cap \mathcal{V}(f)) \cup (V \cap \mathcal{V}(g))$$

Let  $p \in V$ , then (fg)(p) = f(p)g(p) = 0, thus f(p) = 0 or g(p) = 0 since k is a field. Hence we have  $p \in \mathcal{V}(f)$  or  $p \in \mathcal{V}(g)$ . Therefore  $V \subseteq (V \cap \mathcal{V}(f)) \cup (V \cap \mathcal{V}(g))$ , the other direction  $(V \cap \mathcal{V}(f)) \cup (V \cap \mathcal{V}(g)) \subseteq V$  is obvious. Since  $f \notin \mathcal{I}(V)$ , exists  $p \in V$  with  $f(p) \neq 0$ . Thus  $p \notin \mathcal{V}(f)$ . Thus  $V \neq V \cap \mathcal{V}(f)$ . Similarly,  $V \neq V \cap \mathcal{V}(g)$ , so V is reducible. Conversely, assume  $V = V_1 \cup V_2$  where  $V_1, V_2 \subset V$  properly. We have  $\mathcal{I}(V) \subset \mathcal{I}(V_1), \mathcal{I}(V_2)$  properly. Choose  $f \in V$ 

 $\mathcal{I}(V_1) \setminus \mathcal{I}(V)$  and  $g \in \mathcal{I}(V_2) \setminus \mathcal{I}(V)$ . For  $p \in V$ , we have  $p \in V_1$  or  $p \in V_2$ , thus f(p) = 0 or g(p) = 0, so (fg)(p) = f(p)g(p) = 0. Hence  $fg \in \mathcal{I}(V)$ , so  $\mathcal{I}(V)$  is not prime.

Take, for example, the algebraic set  $V = \mathcal{V}(f,g) \subseteq \mathbf{A}^3(\mathbf{R})$  where  $f(x,y,z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 4$  and  $g(x,y,z) = y^2 + z^2 - 1$ . Then V is the intersection of the sphere of radius 2, and the cylinder of radius 1. In fact, we have a decomposition of V

$$V = \mathcal{V}(x - \sqrt{3}, y^2 + z^2 - 1) \cup \mathcal{V}(x + \sqrt{3}, y^2 + z^2 - 1)$$

into algebraic varieties. This is easy to visualize and check that it is true. In fact, we can do even better. We will show that each algebraic set has a unique decomposition into algebraic varieties. Suppose that *R* is a commutative ring, we recall the following theorem.

**Theorem 1.1.9.** *R* is noetherian iff every nonempty set of ideals has a maximal element.

**Theorem 1.1.10.** If V is an algebraic set, then V has a unique decomposition  $V = V_1 \cup \cdots \cup V_m$ , where  $V_1, \ldots, V_m$  are varieties such that no one of them is contained in another.

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\mathcal{L}$  is the set of algebraic sets that do not admit a finite variety decomposition, we will show that  $\mathcal{L} = \emptyset$ . Suppose the contrary, then  $\mathcal{L}$  has a minimal element V w.r.t inclusion by Theorem 1.1.9 on  $\mathcal{I}[\mathcal{L}]$ . Since  $V \in A$ , we have V is reducible, hence  $V = V_1 \cup V_2$  with algebraics sets  $V_1, V_2 \subset V$  properly. Since V is minimal, we must have  $V_1, V_2 \notin \mathcal{L}$ . Thus  $V_1, V_2$  admit finite variety decompositions, contradiction. Next, we show the uniqueness. Let  $V = V_1 \cup \cdots \cup V_m = W_1 \cup \cdots \cup W_h$  be decompositions, then  $V_i = (V_i \cap W_1) \cup \cdots \cup (V_i \cap W_h)$ , which by the irreducibility of  $V_i$ , tells us that  $V_i \subseteq W_{\sigma(i)}$  for some  $\sigma(i)$ . Similarly  $W_j \subseteq V_{\delta(j)}$  for some  $\delta(j)$ . Thus  $V_i \subseteq W_{\sigma(i)} \subseteq V_{\delta(\sigma(i))}$ . However,  $V_i \subseteq V_{\delta(\sigma(i))}$  implies that  $V_i = V_{\delta(\sigma(i))}$ , so  $i = \delta(\sigma(i))$  and  $V_i = W_{\sigma(i)}$ .

**Proposition 1.1.11.** Suppose that k is algebraically closed and F is a nonconstant polynomial in k[X,Y] with decomposition  $F = F_1^{n_1} \cdots F_r^{n_r}$ , then  $\mathcal{V}((F)) = \mathcal{V}((F_1)) \cup \cdots \cup \mathcal{V}((F_r))$  is the decomposition of  $\mathcal{V}((F))$ , and  $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}((F))) = (F_1 \cdots F_r)$ .

## **Chapter 2**

### **Sheaves and Schemes**

#### 2.1 Presheaves and Sheaves

**Definition 2.1.1.** A presheaf  $\mathcal{F}$  of sets on a topological space X contains the following information:

- (i) for each open  $U \subseteq X$ , a set  $\mathcal{F}(U)$ , the elements of which are called the *sections* of  $\mathcal{F}$  over U,
- (ii) for each inclusion  $U \hookrightarrow V$  of open sets, a *restriction* map  $\operatorname{Res}_U^V : \mathcal{F}(V) \to \mathcal{F}(U)$ , such that
  - for all  $U \subseteq X$ , the map  $Res_U^U$  is the identity map,
  - if  $U \hookrightarrow V \hookrightarrow W$  are inclusions of open sets then the diagram

$$\mathcal{F}(W) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Res}_{U}^{W}} \mathcal{F}(V) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Res}_{U}^{V}} \mathcal{F}(U)$$

commutes, in other words,  $Res_U^W = Res_U^V \circ Res_V^W$ 

Moreover, suppose that  $\mathcal{F}$ ,  $\mathcal{G}$  are presheaves of sets on X, then a morphism  $\phi : \mathcal{F} \to \mathcal{G}$  is the data of a map  $\phi(U) : \mathcal{F}(U) \to \mathcal{G}(U)$  for each open  $U \subseteq X$  such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathcal{F}(V) & \xrightarrow{\phi(V)} & \mathcal{G}(V) \\
\operatorname{Res}_{U}^{V} & & & & & \\
\mathbb{F}(U) & \xrightarrow{\phi(U)} & \mathcal{G}(U)
\end{array}$$

commutes whenever  $U \hookrightarrow V$  is an inclusion of open sets (where we abuse the notation  $\operatorname{Res}_U^V$ ).

In fact, we can see that a presheaf of sets on a topological space is exactly the same information of a contravariant functor from the category of open sets of *X*, which is the category consisting of all open sets of *X* as objects and inclusions as morphisms, to the category of sets.

**Definition 2.1.2.** Let  $\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{D}$  be categories where  $\mathcal{C}$  is small, then a  $\mathcal{D}$ -valued presheaf on  $\mathcal{C}$  is a functor  $\mathcal{C}^{op} \to \mathcal{D}$ , and the category of  $\mathcal{D}$ -valued presheaf on  $\mathcal{C}$  is the functor category  $[\mathcal{C}^{op}, \mathcal{D}]$ .

Many examples of presheaves come from different classes of functions (with the obvious restriction map). For example, we can define  $\mathcal{F}(U) = \mathcal{C}^0(U)$  as the set of continuous real-valued functions on U, or we can define  $\mathcal{F}(U) = \mathcal{B}(U)$  as the set of complex-valued functions on U that are bounded. There is also the *constant presheaf* associated with a set S where  $\mathcal{F}(U) = S$  for all open  $U \subseteq X$ , and the retriction map is the identity map on S.

**Definition 2.1.3.** Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a presheaf on a topological space X, then we define the *stalk*  $\mathcal{F}_p$  of  $\mathcal{F}$  at a point  $p \in X$ , whose elements are called *germs* of  $\mathcal{F}$  at p, as

$$\mathcal{F}_p = \left\{ (f, U) : \begin{array}{l} f \in \mathcal{F}(U), \text{ and } U \subseteq X \text{ is an open neighborhood of } p \end{array} \right\} / \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (f, U) \sim (g, V) \text{ if and only if exists} \\ W \subseteq U \cap V \text{ such that } \mathrm{Res}_W^U f = \mathrm{Res}_W^V g \end{array} \right\}$$

In other words,  $\mathcal{F}_p$  is the colimit  $\varinjlim \mathcal{F}(U)$  indexed over open neighborhoods U of p with inclusion.

Moreover, in many cases like the examples mentioned above where  $\mathcal{F}(U)$  is a set of functions, we can define a ring structure on the stalk  $\mathcal{F}_p$  by defining  $[(f,U)]+[(g,V)]=[(f+g,U\cap V)]$  and  $[(f,U)][(g,V)]=[(fg,U\cap V)]$ . We can check that this is well-defined. Hence, in many situations, we will consider  $\mathcal{F}_p$  as a ring (which is an abuse of notation). Stalks capture the local properties of a (pre)sheaf, which we will elaborate later.

**Definition 2.1.4.** A presheaf  $\mathcal{F}$  on a topological space X is a *sheaf* if for any open set  $U \subseteq X$  and any open cover  $\{U_i\}_{i\in\mathcal{I}}$  of U the following two axioms are satisfied:

- (i) *identity axiom*: if  $f, g \in \mathcal{F}(U)$ , then  $\operatorname{Res}_{U}^{U} f = \operatorname{Res}_{U}^{U} g$  for all  $i \in \mathcal{I}$  implies that f = g, and
- (ii) gluability axiom: if  $f_i \in \mathcal{F}(U_i)$  for all  $i \in \mathcal{I}$  is such that  $\operatorname{Res}_{U_i \cap U_j}^{U_i} f_i = \operatorname{Res}_{U_i \cap U_j}^{U_j} f_j$  for all  $i, j \in \mathcal{I}$ , then there exists some  $f \in \mathcal{F}(U)$  such that  $\operatorname{Res}_{U_i}^{U} f = f_i$  for all  $i \in \mathcal{I}$ .