

All rings are commutative with unity.

Rings and Ideals

Def'n: An integral domain (or domain) is a ring with no zero divisors.

A domain R equipped with a size function $\sigma: R \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ is called

a Euclidean domain if for every $a, b \in R$ there are $q, r \in R$ such that

$$b = aq + r \text{ and } r = 0 \text{ or } \sigma(r) < \sigma(a).$$

Def'n: Let R be a ring. A subset $I \subseteq R$ is an ideal if:

- $0 \in I$;
- $a - b \in I$ whenever $a, b \in I$;
- $ar \in I$ whenever $a \in I, r \in R$.

Remark: If $a_1, \dots, a_n \in R$, then $(a_1, \dots, a_n) := \{r_1 a_1 + \dots + r_n a_n \mid (r_1, \dots, r_n) \in R^n\}$

is an ideal. We call (a_1, \dots, a_n) the ideal generated by $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$.

More generally, if $S \subseteq R$ is a set, $(S) = \{r_1 s_1 + \dots + r_n s_n \mid r_i \in R, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is an ideal.

Def'n: A principal ideal is an ideal that can be generated by a single element.

We call a domain a principal ideal domain (PID) if all its ideals are principal.

Theorem: Any Euclidean domain is a PID.

Proof: Let R be a Euclidean domain with size function σ .

Let $I \subseteq R$ be an ideal. Assume $I \neq (0)$.

Choose $a \in I$ such that $\sigma(a) \leq \sigma(b)$ for all $b \in I$.

We claim that $I = (a)$. The reverse inclusion is immediate.

Let $b \in I$. Then $b = qa + r$ for some $q, r \in R$, $r = 0$ or $\sigma(r) < \sigma(a)$.

But $\sigma(a)$ is minimal, so $r = 0$. Hence $b \in (a)$. □

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(a) $a, b \in R$ are associates if there is a unit $u \in R$ such that $a = ub$.

(b) $a \in R$ is irreducible if a is not a unit and $a = bc$ for some $b, c \in R$ implies b or c is a unit.

(c) $a \in R$ is prime if $a = bc$ implies $a|b$ or $a|c$.

(d) A proper ideal $P \subseteq R$ is prime if $ab \in P$ implies $a \in P$ or $b \in P$.

(e) A proper ideal $M \subseteq R$ is maximal if for any ideal $M \subseteq I \subseteq R$, then $I = M$ or $I = R$.

Proposition: Let R be a domain and $I \subseteq R$ an ideal.

(a) I is prime if and only if R/I is a domain.

(b) I is maximal if and only if R/I is a field.

Proof:

(a) Suppose I is prime.

Suppose $ab = 0$ for some $a, b \in R/I$. Then $a \in I$ or $b \in I$.

Hence, R/I is a domain. The converse is similar.

(b) Suppose I is maximal. We have that R/I is a field if and only if its only non-zero ideal is R/I . Let $\tilde{J} \subseteq R/I$ be an ideal. Then we can lift

\tilde{J} to an ideal $J \subseteq R$ containing I . If I is maximal, then $J = I$ or $J = R$.

If R/I is a field, then we can start with J to get $\tilde{J} = (0) = I$ or $\tilde{J} = R/I$.

Hence I is maximal. □

Corollary: Any maximal ideal is prime.

Def'n: Let R be a ring. The spectrum of R is $\text{Spec}(R) = \{P \subseteq R \mid P \text{ is prime}\}$.

The underlying set forms a topology, which we call the Zariski topology.

Multivariate Polynomials

Let k be a field.

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$x_1^{\alpha_1} \dots x_n^{\alpha_n}$ for some $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$.

The total degree of x^α is $|\alpha| = \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n$.

The degree of a polynomial $p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m x^{\alpha_i}$ is $\deg(p) = \max_{i=1, \dots, m} (|\alpha_i|)$.

Def'n: A monomial ordering on $K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is a total ordering of monomials so that

(a) $<$ is well-ordered;

(b) if $x^\alpha < x^\beta$, then $x^\alpha x^\gamma < x^\beta x^\gamma$ for all $\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$.

Examples:

(1) Lexicographic Ordering: $x^\alpha <_{\text{lex}} x^\beta$ if and only if the first non-zero entry of $\beta - \alpha$ is positive.

(2) Graded Lexicographic Ordering: $x^\alpha <_{\text{glex}} x^\beta$ if and only if $|\alpha| < |\beta|$ or $|\alpha| = |\beta|$ and $x^\alpha <_{\text{lex}} x^\beta$.

(3) Reverse Graded Lex.: $x^\alpha < x^\beta$ if and only if $|\alpha| < |\beta|$ or $|\alpha| = |\beta|$ and the rightmost non-zero entry of $\beta - \alpha$ is positive.

Def'n: Let $p \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ and fix a monomial order $<$.

The multidegree of p is $\text{mdeg}(p)$, the largest exponent of the monomials in p .

Define the leading monomial of p , $\text{LM}(p)$, as the corresponding monomial.

If $c \in K$ is the coefficient of this monomial, the leading term of p is $\text{LT}(p) = c \text{LM}(p)$.

Gröbner Bases and the Division Algorithm

The division algorithm for multivariate polynomials is dividing the leading monomials and

subtracting: let $f, g \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. Set $g_0 = g$, and $g_n = g_{n-1} - \frac{\text{LT}(g)}{\text{LT}(f)} f$.

Def'n: A monomial ideal is an ideal generated by monomials

Given an ideal $I \subseteq K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, the leading term ideal of I is $\text{LT}(I) := (x^\alpha \mid x^\alpha = \text{LM}(f) \text{ for some } f \in I)$.

We say that f_1, \dots, f_r is a Gröbner basis of I if $\text{LT}(I) = (\text{LT}(f_1), \dots, \text{LT}(f_r))$.

Key Lemma: Let $I = (x^\alpha)_{\alpha \in \Gamma}$ be a monomial ideal. If $x^\beta \in (x^\alpha)_{\alpha \in \Gamma}$, then $x^\alpha \mid x^\beta$ for some $\alpha \in \Gamma$.

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Proof: Write $x^\beta = \sum_{i=1}^N x^{\alpha_i} p_i$ for some $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^n$, $p_i \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$.

Then x^β occurs in some $x^{\alpha_i} p_i$, so $x^{\alpha_i} \mid x^\beta$. \square

Proposition: Let $<$ be a monomial order and $I \subseteq k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ an ideal.

Suppose f_1, \dots, f_r is a Gröbner basis of I . If $LT(g)$ is not divisible by $LT(f_1), \dots, LT(f_r)$, then $LT(g) \notin LT(I)$.

Proof: If $LT(g) \in LT(I)$, then by the key lemma $LT(f_i) \mid LT(g)$ for some $i = 1, \dots, r$. \square

Remark: This proposition implies $g \notin I$.

Lemma: Let $I \subseteq k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be an ideal. If $x^\beta \in LT(I)$, then there is $f \in I$ such that $x^\beta = LM(f)$.

Proof: By the key lemma, $x^\beta \in LT(I)$ gives the existence of $x^\alpha \in \{x^\alpha \mid \exists g \in I, x^\alpha = LM(g)\}$ such that $x^\beta = x^\alpha x^r$ for some $r \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^n$. Then $x^\beta = LM(x^r g)$. \square

Theorem: Let $f_1, \dots, f_r \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ and fix a monomial order $<$. Suppose $I \subseteq k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is an ideal.

Then f_1, \dots, f_r is a Gröbner basis for I if and only if for all $g \in I$, dividing g by f_1, \dots, f_r returns zero.

Proof: " \Rightarrow " Suppose $g \in I$ does not return 0 when divided by f_1, \dots, f_r .

Let $r \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be the remainder. Then $r \in I$ by the division algorithm, but $LT(r)$ is not divisible by each $LT(f_i)$. By the proposition, $r \notin I$, a contradiction.

" \Leftarrow " Suppose instead f_1, \dots, f_r is not a Gröbner basis of I .

Then we may choose $g \in LT(I) \setminus (LT(f_1), \dots, LT(f_r))$ a monomial. By the lemma, there is $h \in I$ so that $g = LT(h)$. By assumption, dividing h by f_1, \dots, f_r gives 0 remainder, a contradiction. \square

Normal Forms: Uniqueness of the Remainder

Theorem: Let $I \subseteq K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be an ideal and fix a monomial ordering $<$.

Suppose I has a Gröbner basis. Then for every $g \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ there is

a unique finite sum $\sum_{i=1}^N c_i x^{\alpha_i}$, where $c_i \in K$, $x^{\alpha_i} \notin LT(I)$, such that $g \equiv \sum_{i=1}^N c_i x^{\alpha_i} \pmod{I}$.

This finite sum is called the normal form of g .

Proof:

Existence: Suppose $g \in I$ has no normal form. Then the set $S = \{LM(h) \mid h \text{ has no normal form}\}$

is non-empty. Choose $x^\beta = LM(h) \in S$ minimal. Either $x^\beta \in LT(I)$ or $x^\beta \notin LT(I)$.

In the first case, we may choose $\tilde{h} \in I$ so that $x^\beta = LT(\tilde{h})$.

Then $\hat{h} = h - \frac{LT(h)}{LT(\tilde{h})} \tilde{h}$ has multidegree strictly less than h and $h \equiv \hat{h} \pmod{I}$.

The former fact gives that \hat{h} must have a normal form. But then $h \equiv \hat{h} \pmod{I}$ gives that h has a normal form, a contradiction.

Assume now that $x^\beta \notin LT(I)$. Let $h_* = h - LT(h)$. Then h_* has a normal form.

Let $\sum_{i=1}^N c_i x^{\beta_i}$ be a normal form of h_* . Then $LT(h) + \sum_{i=1}^N c_i x^{\beta_i}$ is a normal form

of g , a contradiction. Hence, g has a normal form.

Uniqueness: Let $\sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} x^{\alpha}$, $\sum_{\alpha} d_{\alpha} x^{\alpha}$ be normal forms of g .

If some $c_{\alpha} - d_{\alpha} \neq 0$, then $x^{\alpha} \in LT(I)$, which is impossible. \square

Noetherian Rings: Existence of a Gröbner basis.

Def'n: A ring R is Noetherian if it satisfies the ascending chain condition (ACC).

Theorem: Let R be a ring. Then R is Noetherian if and only if each ideal in R is finitely generated.

Proof: " \Rightarrow " Suppose R is Noetherian and let $I \subseteq R$ be an ideal.

Proof: " \Rightarrow " Suppose R is Noetherian and let $I \subseteq R$ be an ideal.

Write $I = (f_\alpha)_{\alpha \in T}$ for some set of generators. Assume I is not finitely generated. Then given finitely many f_α , say $(f_{\alpha_1}, \dots, f_{\alpha_n})$, we can find $f_{\alpha_{n+1}}$ so that $(f_{\alpha_1}, \dots, f_{\alpha_n}) \subsetneq (f_{\alpha_1}, \dots, f_{\alpha_n}, f_{\alpha_{n+1}})$, as if not, then $I = (f_{\alpha_1}, \dots, f_{\alpha_n})$.

But R is Noetherian, so this process terminates.

" \Leftarrow " Let $I_1 \subseteq \dots \subseteq I_n \subseteq \dots$ be an increasing chain of ideals in R .

Then $I = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} I_i$ is an ideal. Hence $I = (a_1, \dots, a_k)$ for some $a_i \in R$.

Hence R is Noetherian. \square

Theorem (Hilbert's Basis Theorem): If R is Noetherian, then so is $R[x]$.

The proof is omitted.

Proposition: Let $I \subseteq K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be an ideal with Gröbner basis f_1, \dots, f_r . Then $I = (f_1, \dots, f_r)$.

Proof: This is immediate by running the division algorithm on $g \in I$ using f_1, \dots, f_r . \square

Theorem (Dickson's Lemma): Every monomial ideal in $K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ has a finite set of monomial generators.

The proof is omitted. We immediately get the following corollary:

Corollary: Every ideal $I \subseteq K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ has a Gröbner basis.

Proof: By Dickson's Lemma, we can write $I = (x^{a_1}, \dots, x^{a_k})$.

Lifting these generators to $f_i \in I$ such that $LM(f_i) = x^{a_i}$ completes the proof. \square

Buchberger's Criterion

Def'n: The least common multiple of monomials x^A, x^B is $LCM(x^A, x^B) = x_1^{\max(a_1, b_1)} \dots x_n^{\max(a_n, b_n)}$.

For $f_1, f_2 \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, we define the S-polynomial of f_1 and f_2 as

$$S(f_1, f_2) = \frac{x^r}{LM(f_1)} f_1 - \frac{x^y}{LM(f_2)} f_2, \text{ where } x^r = LCM(LM(f_1), LM(f_2)).$$

Theorem (Buchberger's Criterion): Let $I \subseteq K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be an ideal. Write $I = (f_1, \dots, f_r)$. Then

Theorem (Buchberger's Criterion): Let $I \subseteq K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be an ideal. Write $I = (f_1, \dots, f_r)$. Then f_1, \dots, f_r is a Gröbner basis of I if and only if $S(f_i, f_j)$ is divisible by f_1, \dots, f_r with zero remainder.

In particular, we need not check divisibility of all polynomials in I .

We omit the proof.

Buchberger's Algorithm comes from this theorem.

To construct a Gröbner basis, we may repeatedly add S -polynomials of the generators until it forms a Gröbner basis. This procedure terminates since $K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is Noetherian.

Spec and Vanishing Sets

Let A be a ring. We noted that $\text{Spec}(A)$ is a topological space.

Def'n: Let X be a non-empty set. We call τ a topology on X if

- (1) $\emptyset, X \in \tau$,
- (2) $\bigcap_{i=1}^N A_i \in \tau \quad \forall A_i \in \tau, N \in \mathbb{N}$,
- (3) $\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Gamma} A_\alpha \in \tau \quad \forall \{A_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \Gamma} \subseteq \tau$.

A set in τ is called open.

The complement of an open set is called closed.

The standard topology on $\text{Spec}(A)$ is called the Zariski topology.

where closed sets are of the form $V(S) = \{P \in \text{Spec}(A) \mid S \subseteq P\}$

for any set $S \subseteq P$. We call $V(S)$ the vanishing set of S .

Def'n: Any topological space of the form $\text{Spec}(A)$ is called an affine scheme with coordinate ring A . For $A = K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, we call $\text{Spec}(A) = \mathbb{A}_K^n$ affine n -space.

More generally, if $I \subseteq A$ is an ideal, we call $\text{Spec}(A/I)$ an affine variety.

Remark: Let $f_1, \dots, f_k \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. Then $V(f_1, \dots, f_k) = V(f_1) \cap \dots \cap V(f_k)$.

Proof: Let $P \in V(f_1, \dots, f_k)$. Then $(f_1, \dots, f_k) \subseteq P$. Immediately, $(f_i) \subseteq P$ for all $i=1, \dots, k$.

Conversely, if $P \in V(f_1) \cap \dots \cap V(f_k)$, then $(f_i) \subseteq P$ for each $i=1, \dots, k$.

Then $(f_1, \dots, f_k) \subseteq P$, so $P \in V(f_1, \dots, f_k)$. \square

Def'n: Let $\mathfrak{m} \in \text{Spec}(A)$ be maximal. We call A/\mathfrak{m} the residue field of \mathfrak{m} .

Remark: Evaluating polynomials in $A = k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ can be thought of as looking at the image of the polynomial in the coefficient ring.

Theorem: The Zariski topology is a topology, where the vanishings are the closed sets.

Proof: We show three things:

(1) $\emptyset, \text{Spec}(A)$ are closed: We have $V(A) = \emptyset$, so \emptyset is closed.

Also, $\text{Spec}(A) = V(\emptyset)$, so $\text{Spec}(A)$ is closed.

(2) $\text{Spec}(A)$ is closed under intersections: Let $\{V(S_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in I} \subseteq \text{Spec}(A)$ be closed.

Then $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} V(S_\alpha) = V\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} S_\alpha\right)$, so $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} V(S_\alpha)$ is closed.

(3) $\text{Spec}(A)$ is closed under finite unions: Let $V(A_1), \dots, V(A_n) \in \text{Spec}(A)$.

Then $\bigcup_{i=1}^n V(A_i) = V\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i\right)$. \square

Remark: (a) Let $S \subseteq A$ and $I = (S)$. Then $V(S) = V(I)$.

(b) Let $I, J \subseteq A$ be ideals. Then $V(I+J) = V(I) \cap V(J)$.

(c) $V(I) \cup V(J) = V(I \cap J) = V(IJ)$.

Proof: (a) is immediate.

(b) follows from noticing that $I \subseteq I+J \subseteq P$.

(c) We have that $I \cap J \supseteq IJ$, so $V(I \cap J) \subseteq V(IJ)$.

Assume $P \in V(IJ)$ but $P \notin V(I \cap J)$. Then there is $a \in (I \cap J) \setminus P$.

But $a^2 \in P$, so $a \in P$, a contradiction. \square

Zariski Closure

Let A be a ring.

Def'n: The closure of a set S in a topological space is \bar{S} :

- ▷ the smallest closed set containing S .
- ▷ the intersection of all closed supersets of it.

Def'n: The Zariski closure of $Z \in \text{Spec}(A)$ is $\bar{Z} = \bigcap_{\substack{Z \in V(J) \\ J \in A \text{ ideal}}} V(J)$.

We have: $Z \subseteq V(J) \iff P \in V(J)$ for all $P \in Z$

$$\iff J \subseteq P \text{ for all } P \in Z$$

$$\iff J \subseteq \bigcap_{P \in Z} P.$$

Thus, $\bar{Z} = \bigcap_{J \subseteq \bigcap_{P \in Z} P} V(J)$. But $\bigcap_{P \in Z} P$ is an ideal, so $V(\bigcap_{P \in Z} P) \subseteq \bar{Z}$.

Hence, $\bar{Z} = V(\bigcap_{P \in Z} P)$.

Def'n: For any $Z \subseteq \text{Spec}(A)$, define $I(Z) = \bigcap_{P \in Z} P$, so that $\bar{Z} = V(I(Z))$.

Vanishings and Affine n -space.

Consider $A = \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$.

Let $S \subseteq A$. Define $V(S) = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{C}^n \mid f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in S\}$.

We take the following as a fact:

Fact: The maximal ideals of $\mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ are of the form $(x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n)$, $a_i \in \mathbb{C}$.

Then $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in V(S) \iff f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0$ for all $f \in S$

$$\iff f \in (x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n) \text{ for all } f \in S$$

$$\iff (x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n) \in V(S).$$

Hence, we get a one-to-one correspondence between points in \mathbb{C}^n and

Hence, we get a one-to-one correspondence between points in \mathbb{C}^n and maximal ideals in $\mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$.

In this context, $I(E) = \{f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n] \mid f \in \mathfrak{m}_s \text{ for each maximal ideal corresponding to a point } s \in E\}$, where $E \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$. This set is equivalent to the set $\bigcap_{s \in E} \mathfrak{m}_s$. i.e. points can be thought of as maximal ideals.

The Affine Plane $\mathbb{A}_{\mathbb{C}}^2$

We completely classify the prime ideals of $\mathbb{C}[x, y]$.

Proposition: Each element of $\mathbb{A}_{\mathbb{C}}^2$ is of one of the following forms:

- (a) (0) ,
- (b) $(x-a, y-b)$ for every $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$,
- (c) (f) for any irreducible $f \in \mathbb{C}[x, y]$.

Before proving this, we need unique factorization domains (UFDs).

Def'n: A domain R is a UFD if: (a) Factoring of any $r \in R \setminus \{0\}$ terminates.

(b) Any factorization of R into irreducibles is unique up to associates.

Proposition: Let R be a UFD. If $r \in R$ is irreducible, then r is prime.

Proof: Let r be irreducible and suppose $r \mid ab$ for some $a, b \in R$.

Write $rs = ab$ for some $s \in R$. Since r is its own factorization, it must appear in either a or b . □

Remark: Any PID is a UFD, and any Euclidean domain is a PID.

To summarize, we have:

- (a) In a domain, prime implies irreducible.
- (b) In a UFD, irreducible is equivalent to prime.

(b) In a UFD, irreducible is equivalent to prime.

(c) In a PID, prime ideals are maximal.

(d) In any domain, maximal ideals are prime.

(e) In any domain, irreducible is equivalent to maximal among principal ideals.

Def'n: Let K be a field. We call $K(x) = \text{Frac}(K[x]) = \left\{ \frac{a(x)}{b(x)} \mid a, b \in K[x], b \neq 0 \right\}$

the field of rational functions or fraction field over K .

Theorem (Gauss's Lemma): $f \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is irreducible if and only if all its coefficients in $K[x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}]$ do not share a common factor and f is irreducible in $K(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})[x_n]$.

Theorem: $\mathbb{A}_{\mathbb{C}}^2 = \{ (0) \} \cup \{ (x-a, y-b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{C} \} \cup \{ (f) \mid f \in \mathbb{C}[x, y] \text{ is irreducible} \}$.

Proof: We proceed in 2 steps.

1. We show each of these are prime.

Notice that $\mathbb{C}[x, y]_{(0)} \cong \mathbb{C}[x, y]$ and $\mathbb{C}[x, y]_{(x-a, y-b)} \cong \mathbb{C}$, so these cases are done.

Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x, y]$ be irreducible. Then (f) is prime since $\mathbb{C}[x, y]$ is a UFD.

2. These are the only prime ideals.

Let $P \subseteq \mathbb{C}[x, y]$ be a non-trivial prime ideal.

If P is principal, then we are done. Assume P is not principal.

Since $\mathbb{C}[x, y]$ is Noetherian, we may write $P = (f_1, \dots, f_r)$ for some $f_i \in P$.

Moreover, we may choose the f_i to be irreducible. Let $h = \gcd(f_1, f_2) \in \mathbb{C}(x)[y]$.

Since f_1, f_2 are irreducible, Gauss's Lemma gives that $h \in \mathbb{C}(x)$ as f_1, f_2 are irreducible in $\mathbb{C}(x)[y]$.

Choose $p_1, p_2 \in \mathbb{C}(x)[y]$ so that $h = p_1 f_1 + p_2 f_2$.

Cleaving denominators, we have a new equation $\tilde{h} = \tilde{p}_1 f_1 + \tilde{p}_2 f_2 \in P$.

Since P is prime, some divisor $x-a$ of \tilde{h} is in P .

Since P is prime, some divisor $x-a$ of h is in P .

Repeating this argument, $y-b \in P$ for some $b \in \mathbb{C}$. But $(x-a, y-b)$ is maximal, so $P = (x-a, y-b)$. \square

Localization

Def'n: Let R be a ring and $S \subseteq R$ a multiplicative set containing unity.

The localization of R at S is $R[S^{-1}] := \{ \frac{r}{s} \mid r \in R, s \in S \} / \sim$, where

\sim is the equivalence relation $\frac{r}{s} \sim \frac{r'}{s'}$ if and only if there is a $u \in S$

such that $u(rs' - r's) = 0$.

Proposition: \sim is an equivalence relation.

Proof: Reflexivity and symmetry are immediate.

Let $\frac{r_1}{s_1} \sim \frac{r_2}{s_2}$ and $\frac{r_2}{s_2} \sim \frac{r_3}{s_3}$. Then there is $u, v \in S$ so that

$$u(r_1 s_2 - r_2 s_1) = 0, \text{ hence } s_3 u v (r_1 s_2 - r_2 s_1) = s_3 u v (r_2 s_3 - r_3 s_2) = 0.$$

Thus, subtracting these gives $uv(r_1 s_2 s_3 - \cancel{s_3 r_2 s_1} - \cancel{s_1 r_2 s_3} + s_1 r_3 s_2) = uv s_2 (r_1 s_3 - r_3 s_1) = 0$.

Since $uv s_2 \in S$, this gives $\frac{r_1}{s_1} \sim \frac{r_3}{s_3}$. □

We define $\frac{r_1}{s_1} + \frac{r_2}{s_2} = \frac{r_1 s_2 + r_2 s_1}{s_1 s_2}$ and $\frac{r_1}{s_1} \cdot \frac{r_2}{s_2} = \frac{r_1 r_2}{s_1 s_2}$, so that $R[S^{-1}]$ is a ring.

Notation:

(a) For $x \in R$ and $S = \{1, x, x^2, \dots\}$, we let $R_x := R[S^{-1}] = \{ \frac{r}{x^k} \mid r \in R, k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \}$.

(b) For $P \subseteq R$ a prime ideal, $S = R \setminus P$ is multiplicative. Denote $R_P := R[S^{-1}]$.

(c) If R is a domain, $R_{(0)} = \text{Frac}(R)$ is the field of fractions of R .

(d) For $K[x]$, we have $K(x) := K[x]_{(0)}$.

We define a ring homomorphism $\varphi: R \rightarrow R[S^{-1}]$ by $\varphi(r) = \frac{r}{1}$ for all $r \in R$.

Proposition: φ is injective if and only if S has no zero divisors.

Proof: " \Rightarrow " Let $s \in S$ be a zero divisor, with $rs = 0$ for some $r \in R \setminus \{0\}$.

Then $\ker(\varphi) = \{0, r\}$, so φ is not injective.

" \Leftarrow " If φ is not injective, then $\varphi(r) = 0$ for some $r \in R \setminus \{0\}$.

Hence S has a zero divisor. \square

Theorem (Universal Property of Localization): Let R be a ring and $S \subseteq R$ a multiplicative set with unity. Let $\varphi: R \rightarrow R[S^{-1}]$, $r \mapsto \frac{r}{1}$. Let A be any ring and suppose $f: R \rightarrow A$ is a ring homomorphism such that $f(S) \subseteq R^*$.

Then there is a unique homomorphism $g: R[S^{-1}] \rightarrow A$ such that

the diagram $\begin{array}{ccc} R & & \\ \varphi \downarrow & & \downarrow f \\ R[S^{-1}] & \xrightarrow{g} & A \end{array}$ commutes. i.e. $f = g \circ \varphi$.

Proof: For each $\frac{r}{s} \in R[S^{-1}]$, define $g(\frac{r}{s}) = \frac{f(r)}{f(s)}$.

Well-defined: Let $\frac{r_1}{s_1} \sim \frac{r_2}{s_2}$. We show $f(r_1 s_2 - r_2 s_1) = 0$. Choose $u \in S$ so that $u(r_1 s_2 - r_2 s_1) = 0$.

Applying f gives $f(u r_1 s_2 - u r_2 s_1) = 0$.

Homomorphism: Let $\frac{r_1}{s_1}, \frac{r_2}{s_2} \in R[S^{-1}]$. Then $g(\frac{r_1}{s_1} + \frac{r_2}{s_2}) = \frac{f(r_1 s_2 + r_2 s_1)}{f(s_1 s_2)} = \frac{f(r_1)}{f(s_1)} + \frac{f(r_2)}{f(s_2)} = g(\frac{r_1}{s_1}) + g(\frac{r_2}{s_2})$.

Similarly, $g(\frac{r_1}{s_1} \cdot \frac{r_2}{s_2}) = g(\frac{r_1}{s_1}) g(\frac{r_2}{s_2})$.

Uniqueness: The definition of g is forced by commutativity. \square

Theorem: Let $\beta \in R$. Then $R_\beta \cong R[x]/(x\beta - 1)$.

Proof: Define a ring homomorphism $f: R \rightarrow R[x]/(x\beta - 1)$ by $f(r) = [r]$. Then $f(\beta)$ is a unit (and all its powers too). By the universal property, there is a unique $g: R_\beta \rightarrow R[x]/(x\beta - 1)$

so that $f = g \circ \varphi$. We can also define a homomorphism $\tilde{g}: R[x]/(x\beta - 1) \rightarrow R_\beta$ as

any ring homomorphism $R[x] \rightarrow R_\beta$ is determined by a homomorphism $R \rightarrow R_\beta$ (say φ) and a choice of where x is mapped. i.e. $\tilde{g}|_R = \varphi$ and $\tilde{g}(x) = \frac{1}{\beta}$ defines a homomorphism.

Then we can factor \tilde{g} through the quotient $R[x] \xrightarrow{\pi} R[x]/(x\beta - 1) \rightarrow R_\beta$.

P.S. $\forall R-1 \mapsto 1$ under these maps $\tilde{g} \circ \pi = \tilde{g} \circ \varphi = 1$

Then we can factor g through the quotient $R[x] \rightarrow R[x]/(x^p-1) \xrightarrow{\sim} R_p$.

But $x^p-1 \mapsto 0$ under these maps, so we have $g \circ \tilde{g} = \tilde{g} \circ g = \text{id}$. □

Theorem: Let R be a ring and $S \subseteq R$ a multiplicative set.

Then there is a bijection between elements of $\text{Spec}(R[S^{-1}])$ and prime ideals of R that are disjoint from S .

Proof: Let $E = \{P \subseteq R \mid P \text{ is prime, } P \cap S = \emptyset\}$. We show $\text{Spec}(R[S^{-1}]) \longleftrightarrow E$.

" \rightarrow " We take $p \mapsto \Psi^{-1}(p)$. Since preimages of prime ideals are prime, $\Psi^{-1}(p)$ is prime.

Let $s \in S \cap \Psi^{-1}(p)$. Then $\Psi(s)$ is a unit in p , a contradiction.

" \leftarrow " We take $P \mapsto (\Psi(P))$. Notice that each element of $(\Psi(P))$ is of the form $\frac{a}{b}$ for some $a \in P, b \in S$. Take $\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} \in (\Psi(P))$ for some $a, c \in R, b, d \in S$.

Then $\frac{ac}{bd} = \frac{e}{f}$ for some $e \in P, f \in S$. Then there is $u \in S$ so that $u(acf - bde) = 0$.

Hence $ac(uf) = bde \in P$. Since $u, f \notin P$, we have $ac \in P$. But P is prime, so at least one of a or b is in P .

Inverses: Notice, $(\Psi(\Psi^{-1}(p))) = (p) = p$.

Conversely, we show $\Psi^{-1}((\Psi(P))) = P$. The " \supseteq " direction is immediate.

Let $a \in \Psi^{-1}((\Psi(P)))$. Then $\Psi(a) = \frac{a}{1} = \frac{b}{c}$ for some $b \in P, c \in S$.

Choose $u \in S$ so that $a(uc) = bu \in P$. Since $u, c \notin P$, $a \in P$. □

Elimination Theory

Def'n: A monomial order on $K[x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_m]$ is an elimination order for x_1, \dots, x_n if each polynomial with leading monomial in $K[y_1, \dots, y_m]$ is in $K[y_1, \dots, y_m]$.

Theorem (Elimination Theorem): Let $J \subseteq K[x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_m]$ be an ideal with Gröbner

basis f_1, \dots, f_r with respect to an elimination order $<$. Then $J \cap K[y_1, \dots, y_m] = (f_i \mid f_i \in K[y_1, \dots, y_m])$.

basis t_1, \dots, t_i with respect to an elimination order $<$. Then $\cup (K[y_1, \dots, y_m]) = \{f_i \mid f_i \in K[y_1, \dots, y_m]\}$.

Proof: Assume instead there is $g \in \cap K[y_1, \dots, y_m] \setminus \{f_i \mid f_i \in K[y_1, \dots, y_m]\}$ with $LM(g)$ minimal.

Then $LM(g)$ is divisible by $LM(f_i)$ for some f_i . Since $LM(g)$ is minimal, $LM(g) \in K[y_1, \dots, y_m]$.

Since $<$ is an elimination order, $f_i \in K[y_1, \dots, y_m]$.

Then $\tilde{g} = g - \frac{LT(g)}{LT(f_i)} f_i$ contradicts minimality of g . □

This helps us find solutions to systems of polynomial equations, as we can isolate variables when computing a Gröbner basis of a given ideal.

Morphisms of Schemes

Def'n: Let A be a ring, K a field, and $I \subseteq K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ an ideal. We define an

- (i) affine scheme as $\text{Spec } A$,
- (ii) affine n -space as $\text{Spec}(K[x_1, \dots, x_n])$.
- (iii) affine variety as $\text{Spec}(K[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I)$.

Def'n: A morphism of schemes $\text{Spec } A \rightarrow \text{Spec } B$ consists of:

- (i) a ring homomorphism $\phi^*: B \rightarrow A$ - the pullback map, and
- (ii) a continuous (with respect to the Zariski topology) map $\phi: \text{Spec } A \rightarrow \text{Spec } B$.

Remark: ϕ is induced by ϕ^* and is necessarily continuous.

Proof: Let $V(I)$ be closed in $\text{Spec}(B)$, where $I \subseteq B$ is an ideal. Then

$$\phi^{-1}(V(I)) = \{P \in \text{Spec}(A) \mid I \subseteq \phi^{*-1}(P)\} = \{P \in \text{Spec}(A) \mid \phi^*(I) \subseteq P\} = V(\phi^*(I)).$$

Thus, ϕ is continuous. □

We restrict our attention to affine space.

We consider pullback maps $\phi^*: K[y_1, \dots, y_m] \rightarrow K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ that fix K , so that ϕ is entirely determined by its action on the y_i . Let $y_i \mapsto \phi_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ for some $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_m \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$.

Lemma: The morphism $\phi: \mathbb{A}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^m$ induced by ϕ^* is given by $\phi(a_1, \dots, a_n) = (\phi_1(a_1, \dots, a_n), \dots, \phi_m(a_1, \dots, a_n))$.

Likewise, any ϕ defined in this way induces a pullback map $\phi^*: K[y_1, \dots, y_m] \rightarrow K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ given by $\phi^*(y_i) = \phi_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.
i.e., morphisms are in a one-to-one correspondence with homomorphisms of this type.

Proof: We show that $(\phi_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) - \phi_i(a_1, \dots, a_n), \dots, \phi_m(x_1, \dots, x_n) - \phi_m(a_1, \dots, a_n)) \in (x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n)$.

Consider the homomorphism $\pi: \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]/(x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n) \cong \mathbb{C}$. Then $\phi_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) - \phi_i(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \ker(\pi)$, proving the claim. Thus, $(y_1 - \phi_1(a_1, \dots, a_n), \dots, y_m - \phi_m(a_1, \dots, a_n)) = \phi((\phi_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) - \phi_1(a_1, \dots, a_n), \dots, \phi_m(x_1, \dots, x_n) - \phi_m(a_1, \dots, a_n)))$. □

Note: We can think of \mathbb{A}^n as points since $\sqrt{0} = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{m}} \mathfrak{m}$ for \mathfrak{m} maximal.

In the case of $K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ for K algebraically closed, we have $\mathfrak{m} = (x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n)$ for some $a_i \in K$.

Morphisms of Varieties

Let $V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ be a variety, i.e., $V = \text{Spec}(K[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I)$ for some ideal I . The pullback of a morphism

$\phi: V \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^m$ is a ring homomorphism $\phi^*: K[y_1, \dots, y_m] \rightarrow K[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I$.

$\phi: V \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^m$ is a ring homomorphism $\phi^*: k[y_1, \dots, y_m] \rightarrow k[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I$.

We can view the pullback as a composition $k[y_1, \dots, y_m] \xrightarrow{\phi^*} k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \xrightarrow{\pi} k[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I$.
 $y_i \mapsto \phi_i \mapsto [\phi_i]_I$

Let $W = \text{Spec}(k[y_1, \dots, y_m]/J) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^m$ be another variety.

How can we restrict a morphism $\phi: V \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^m$ to $\tilde{\phi}: V \rightarrow W$? Consider the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} k[y_1, \dots, y_m] & \xrightarrow{\phi^*} & k[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I \\ \pi \downarrow & \nearrow \tilde{\phi}^* & \\ k[y_1, \dots, y_m]/J & & \end{array}$$

The map $\tilde{\phi}^*$ exists if $J \subseteq \ker(\phi^*)$, giving a criterion for the existence of morphisms $V \rightarrow W$.

Rational Maps

Def'n: A rational map consists of a map $\rho: \mathbb{A}^n \dashrightarrow \mathbb{A}^m$ and a pullback $\rho^*: k[y_1, \dots, y_m] \rightarrow k(x_1, \dots, x_n)$

where $\rho^*(y_i) = \phi_i \in k(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ for each $i = 1, \dots, m$.

This can also be extended to varieties as in the case of morphisms.

Def'n: The resolution of a rational map $\rho: \mathbb{A}^n \dashrightarrow \mathbb{A}^m$ is the morphism $\eta: \mathbb{A}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^m$ induced by the homomorphism $\eta^*: k[y_1, \dots, y_m] \rightarrow k[x_1, \dots, x_n]_g$, where g is the least common multiple of the denominators of the ϕ_i . We call $V(g)$ the indeterminacy locus of ρ .

Remark: We have that $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]_g \cong k[x_1, \dots, x_n, z]/(1 - zg)$, so η^* uses z to eliminate the denominators.

Dominant Maps

Def'n: A morphism (rational map) of varieties $\phi: V \rightarrow W$ is dominant if $\phi(V)$ is dense in W .

Def'n: Let J be an ideal of $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. Define $V(J) = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{A}^n \mid f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0 \forall f \in J\}$.

Let $V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ be a variety. Define $I(V) = \{f \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \mid f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0 \forall (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in V\}$.

Proposition: ϕ is dominant if and only if ϕ^* is injective.

Proof: First assume ϕ is not dominant. Then there is Z closed so that $\phi(V) \subseteq Z \subsetneq W$.

In particular, $I(W) \subsetneq I(Z)$, so we may choose $f \in I(Z) \setminus I(W)$. Then $\tilde{f} \in k[y_1, \dots, y_m]/I(W)$ is non-zero.

Observe that $\phi(V) \subseteq Z \subseteq W$ if and only if $\phi^*(I(Z)) \subseteq I(V)$.

Hence, $f \in \ker(\phi^*)$.

Conversely, if ϕ^* is not injective, then there is $g \notin I(W)$ with $\phi^*(g) \in I(V)$.

Then $\phi^*(I(W) + (g)) \subseteq I(V)$. By the observation, $\phi(V) \subseteq W \cap \{a \in W \mid g(a) = 0\} \subsetneq W$. \square

Def'n: Two varieties V, W are birational if there are dominant rational maps $\rho: V \dashrightarrow W, \eta: W \dashrightarrow V$

Def'n: Two varieties V, W are birational if there are dominant rational maps $\rho: V \dashrightarrow W, \eta: W \dashrightarrow V$ so that $\eta \circ \rho = \text{id}_V$ and $\rho \circ \eta = \text{id}_W$.

Proposition: V and W are birational if and only if their field of fractions are isomorphic.

Implitization

Theorem: Let $\pi: \mathbb{A}^{n+m} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^m$ be the projection morphism. Let $V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n+m}$ be a variety.

Then $\pi(\overline{V}) = V(I(V) \cap K[y_1, \dots, y_m])$.

Proof: " \subseteq " Let $f \in I(V) \cap K[y_1, \dots, y_m]$ and $(b_1, \dots, b_m) \in \pi(\overline{V})$. Then

There is $(a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_m) \mapsto (b_1, \dots, b_m)$. We have $f(b_1, \dots, b_m) = f(a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_m) = 0$.

" \supseteq " We show $I(\pi(\overline{V})) \subseteq I(V) \cap K[y_1, \dots, y_m]$. If $g \in I(\pi(\overline{V}))$, then $g \in K[y_1, \dots, y_m]$, or else g does not vanish everywhere on $\pi(\overline{V})$. Thus, g vanishes on V . □

Def'n: Let $\phi: V \rightarrow W$ be a morphism of affine varieties. The graph of ϕ is

$\Gamma_\phi = \{(a, \phi(a)) \mid a \in V\} \subseteq V \times W \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n \times \mathbb{A}^m \cong \mathbb{A}^{n+m}$.

To find $\overline{\phi(V)}$, we observe that $\overline{\phi(V)}$ is the projection of Γ_ϕ onto \mathbb{A}^m , namely, $I(\Gamma_\phi) \cap K[y_1, \dots, y_m]$.

Theorem: Let ϕ be as above. Then $I(\Gamma_\phi) \cong (I(V)) + (y_i - \phi_i, \dots, y_m - \phi_m)$.

Proof: For any $f \in (I(V))$, we immediately have $f \in I(\Gamma_\phi)$. Moreover, each $y_i - \phi_i$ vanishes on Γ_ϕ by definition.

Hence, the " \supseteq " direction is shown.

For the converse, let $f \in I(\Gamma_\phi)$. Consider the quotient maps

$K[x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_m] \rightarrow K[x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_m] / (y_i - \phi_i, \dots, y_m - \phi_m) \rightarrow K[x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_m] / (I(V) + (y_i - \phi_i)_{i=1}^m)$.

Then $f \mapsto f(x_1, \dots, x_n, \phi_1, \dots, \phi_m) \mapsto 0$. □

Applying elimination theory lets us compute the image of morphisms.

$J = (f_1, \dots, f_r)$. Define $\tilde{J} := (f_1, \dots, f_r, 1 - zg) \subseteq \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n, z]$. We claim that $V(\tilde{J}) = \emptyset$.

Let $(a_1, \dots, a_n, a_{n+1}) \in \mathbb{A}_{\mathbb{C}}^{n+1}$. If $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \notin V(J)$, then $(a_1, \dots, a_n, a_{n+1}) \notin V(\tilde{J})$.

Suppose $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in V(J)$. Then $1 - a_{n+1}g(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 1 \neq 0$, so $(a_1, \dots, a_n, a_{n+1}) \notin V(\tilde{J})$.

Thus, $V(\tilde{J}) = \emptyset$, so $\tilde{J} = \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n, z]$. Hence, there are $c_1, \dots, c_r, c \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n, z]$ such that

$c_1 f_1 + \dots + c_r f_r + c(1 - zg) = 1$, and evaluating z at $\frac{1}{g}$ gives $\sum_{i=1}^r c_i(x_1, \dots, x_n, \frac{1}{g}) f_i = 1$.

Clearing denominators, we have $g^m = \sum_{i=1}^r \tilde{c}_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) f_i \in J$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$. //

(c) \Rightarrow (b) We have $V(J) = \emptyset$, so $\sqrt{J} = I(V(J)) = \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, by definition of $I(\emptyset)$.

In particular, $1 \in \sqrt{J}$, so $1 \in J$. Hence, $J = \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. □

Essentially, Nullstellensatz is a way to go back and forth between ideals and their vanishings.

Irreducible Varieties

Def'n: A variety is reducible if it is the union of two smaller varieties.

A variety that is not reducible is called irreducible.

Proposition: Any variety is the union of finitely many irreducible varieties.

Proof: Let V be a reducible variety. Suppose $V = V_1 \cup V_2$ for some varieties $V_1, V_2 \subseteq V$.

If V_1, V_2 are irreducible, then we are done. Suppose, without loss, that V_1 is reducible.

Continuing in this way, we find a decreasing sequence of varieties $V_1 = W_1 \supseteq W_2 \supseteq \dots$.

Thus, $I(W_1) \subseteq I(W_2) \subseteq \dots$ is an ascending chain of ideals. Since $\mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is

Noetherian, we are done. □

Proposition: An affine variety W is irreducible if and only if $I(W)$ is prime.

That is, W is irreducible if and only if $\mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I(W)$ is an integral domain.

Proof: " \Rightarrow " Let $fg \in I(W)$. Then $W = I(V(W)) \subseteq V(fg) = V(f) \cup V(g)$.

Then $W = W \cap (V(f) \cup V(g)) = (W \cap V(f)) \cup (W \cap V(g))$. But W is irreducible, so

$V(f) \subseteq W$ or $V(g) \subseteq W$.

" \Leftarrow " Let $I(W)$ be prime and write $W = V_1 \cup V_2$ for some varieties $V_1, V_2 \subseteq W$, $V_1 \neq W$.

Then $I(W) \subseteq I(V_1) \subseteq I(V_1 \cup V_2) = I(W)$. $I(W) \subseteq I(V_1) \subseteq I(W)$ implies $I(W) = I(V_1)$. □

\Leftarrow Let $I(W)$ be prime and write $W = V_1 \cup V_2$ for some varieties $V_1, V_2 \subseteq W$, $V_1 \neq W$.

Then $I(W) \subsetneq I(V_1)$. Let $f \in I(V_1) \setminus I(W)$ and $g \in I(V_2)$. Then fg vanishes on W .

Hence, $fg \in I(W)$. But $I(W)$ is prime and $f \notin I(W)$, so $g \in I(W)$. Hence, $V_2 = W$. \square

Projective Space

Def'n: Projective n -space, \mathbb{P}^n , is in bijection with $(\mathbb{A}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\})/\sim$, where $[a_1, \dots, a_{n+1}] \sim [b_1, \dots, b_{n+1}]$ if there is $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}^*$ such that $[a_1, \dots, a_{n+1}] = \lambda [b_1, \dots, b_{n+1}]$.

In particular, \mathbb{P}^n consists of lines in $(n+1)$ -space intersecting but not attaining the origin.

Remark: Projective space is compact, whereas affine space is not.

We define the canonical injection of \mathbb{A}^n into \mathbb{P}^n by $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \mapsto [a_1, \dots, a_n, 1]$.

Def'n: The extension of a polynomial $f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ to a polynomial with solutions in \mathbb{P}^n is the homogenization of f , $\tilde{f} \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n, z]$, where \tilde{f} is the homogeneous polynomial formed by multiplying each monomial in f by suitable powers of z . i.e. $\tilde{f}|_{z=1} = f$.

Remark: Homogenization solves the issue of equivalence classes.

Def'n: The intersection multiplicity of $f, g \in \mathbb{C}[x, y]$ at a common zero $(a, b) \in \mathbb{C}^2$ is the dimension of the vector space $(\mathbb{C}[x, y]/(f, g))_{(x-a, y-b)}$ over \mathbb{C} .

Remark: Localization "remembers" tangent information.

Theorem (Bezout): Let V, W be irreducible curves cut out by $f, g \in \mathbb{C}[x, y]$ respectively.

i.e. $V = V(f)$, $W = V(g)$ in \mathbb{P}^2 . Then, counting with multiplicity, the number of intersection points of f and g in \mathbb{P}^2 is $\deg(f) \cdot \deg(g)$.

Remark: \mathbb{P}^2 gives more solutions than in \mathbb{A}^n .