

5 Affine algebraic varieties. Hilbert Nullstellensatz.

5.1 Affine algebraic varieties.

Definition 5.1. A nonempty affine algebraic set $V \subseteq k^n$ will be called an **affine algebraic variety** if the ideal $\mathcal{I}(V)$ of the ring $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is prime.

Definition 5.2. A nonempty affine algebraic set $V \subseteq k^n$ will be called **irreducible**, if for affine algebraic sets $A, B \subseteq k^n$:

$$V = A \cup B \Rightarrow V = A \vee V = B.$$

Theorem 5.3. A nonempty affine algebraic set $V \subseteq k^n$ is irreducible if and only if it is an affine algebraic variety.

Proof. Assume that an affine algebraic set $V \subseteq k^n$ is not irreducible. Then $V = A \cup B$, for some affine algebraic sets $A, B \subseteq k^n$, with $V \neq A$ and $V \neq B$. Since $V \supseteq A$, we see that $\mathcal{I}(V) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(A)$. Also, since $V \neq A$, by Remark 4.6.5 $\mathcal{I}(V) \neq \mathcal{I}(A)$. Thus there exists $f \in \mathcal{I}(A)$ with $f \notin \mathcal{I}(V)$. Likewise, there exists $g \in \mathcal{I}(B)$ with $g \notin \mathcal{I}(V)$. But $fg \in \mathcal{I}(V)$, as for $\underline{a} \in V$ either $\underline{a} \in A$ and then $f(\underline{a}) = 0$, or $\underline{a} \in B$ and then $g(\underline{a}) = 0$ – consequently, $fg(\underline{a}) = 0$. Therefore the ideal $\mathcal{I}(V)$ is not prime.

Conversely, suppose that V is irreducible and the ideal $\mathcal{I}(V)$ is not prime. Let $f, g \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be such that $fg \in \mathcal{I}(V)$ and $f \notin \mathcal{I}(V)$, $g \notin \mathcal{I}(V)$. Then

$$A = \mathcal{Z}(f) \cap V \quad \text{and} \quad B = \mathcal{Z}(g) \cap V$$

are both algebraic sets. We shall show that

$$V = A \cup B \quad \text{and} \quad V \neq A, V \neq B.$$

Indeed, if $\underline{a} \in V$ then, as $fg \in \mathcal{I}(V)$, $fg(\underline{a}) = f(\underline{a})g(\underline{a}) = 0$, so that either $f(\underline{a}) = 0$ or $g(\underline{a}) = 0$, and, consequently, $\underline{a} \in A$ or $\underline{a} \in B$. Hence $V \subseteq A \cup B$, and as $V \supseteq A$ and $V \supseteq B$, this yields $V = A \cup B$.

Moreover, suppose that $V = A$. Then $\mathcal{I}(V) = \mathcal{I}(A)$, but $f \in \mathcal{I}(A)$ with $f \notin \mathcal{I}(V)$. Thus $V \neq A$ and similarly $V \neq B$. \square

Theorem 5.4. Every affine algebraic set V is a finite sum of affine algebraic varieties:

$$V = V_1 \cup \dots \cup V_r, \quad r \geq 1.$$

If in the above decomposition the varieties V_i are incomparable (that is $V_i \not\subseteq V_j$ for $i \neq j$), then they are uniquely defined.

Proof. We shall prove the existence of such a decomposition first. Let

$$\mathcal{R} = \{V \subseteq k^n \mid V \text{ is algebraic and not a sum of affine algebraic varieties}\}.$$

Suppose $\mathcal{R} \neq \emptyset$. By Remark 4.15 there is a minimal element in \mathcal{R} , say Z , which is thus not a sum of affine algebraic varieties. It is not a variety itself then, and hence is not irreducible. Hence

$$Z = A \cup B \quad \text{and} \quad Z \neq A, Z \neq B,$$

for some affine algebraic sets $A, B \subseteq k^n$. By the minimality of Z , $A, B \notin \mathcal{R}$, so that both A and B are sums of affine algebraic varieties. But then so is Z – a contradiction.

For the proof of uniqueness, suppose that

$$V = V_1 \cup \dots \cup V_r = W_1 \cup \dots \cup W_s,$$

where $V_1, \dots, V_r, W_1, \dots, W_s \subseteq k^n$ are incomparable affine algebraic varieties. For a fixed $i \in \{1, \dots, r\}$:

$$V_i = V \cap V_i = (W_1 \cup \dots \cup W_s) \cap V_i = (W_1 \cap V_i) \cup \dots \cup (W_s \cap V_i),$$

and since V_i is a variety, hence an irreducible set, $V_i = W_{k_i} \cap V_i$, for some $k_i \in \{1, \dots, s\}$ and, in particular, $V_i \subseteq W_{k_i}$. Likewise, for every $j \in \{1, \dots, s\}$ there exists $l_j \in \{1, \dots, r\}$ such that $W_j \subseteq V_{l_j}$. Consequently, as V_i 's and W_j 's are incomparable, $V_i \subseteq W_{k_i} \subseteq V_{l_{k_i}}$ leads to $i = l_{k_i}$ and $V_i = W_{k_i}$. Therefore every V_i is equal to some of the W_j 's and $r \leq s$. Likewise, every W_j is equal to some of the V_i 's and $s \leq r$. This together means that $r = s$ and V_1, \dots, V_r differ from W_1, \dots, W_s at most by the order of appearance. \square

Remark 5.5. Let $V \subseteq k^n$ be an affine algebraic variety endowed with the Zariski topology inherited from k^n . Then every nonempty open subset $U \subseteq V$ is dense.

Proof. Let $U \subseteq V$ be a nonempty open subset of V , and denote by \bar{U} the closure of U in V . Then $V = \bar{U} \cup (V \setminus \bar{U})$ is a decomposition of V into two affine algebraic sets. But as V is a variety and hence irreducible, it follows that $V = \bar{U}$ or $V = V \setminus \bar{U}$, the latter case being impossible as U is nonempty. \square

Remark 5.6. Let $V \subseteq k^n$ be an affine algebraic variety endowed with the Zariski topology inherited from k^n . Then in V every two nonempty open sets have a nonempty intersection.

Proof. Let $U_1, U_2 \subseteq V$ be two open sets. Thus $U_1 = V \setminus V_1$ and $U_2 = V \setminus V_2$, for some affine algebraic sets $V_1, V_2 \subseteq k^n$. But then

$$V = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup [(V \setminus V_1) \cap (V \setminus V_2)] = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup (U_1 \cap U_2).$$

If $U_1 \cap U_2 = \emptyset$, then $V = V_1$ or $V = V_2$, as V is a variety and hence an irreducible set. But since $U_1, U_2 \neq \emptyset$, this is impossible. \square

Remark 5.7. Let $\text{Spec } k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ denote the **prime spectrum** of the ring $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, that is the set of all prime ideals. Let $\text{Var } k^n$ denote the set of all affine algebraic varieties in k^n . The map

$$\mathcal{I}: \text{Var } k^n \rightarrow \text{Spec } k[x_1, \dots, x_n], \quad V \mapsto \mathcal{I}(V)$$

is

1. injective,
2. surjective if and only if for every prime ideal \mathfrak{p} of the ring $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$

$$\mathfrak{p} = \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{p})).$$

Proof. The map \mathcal{I} is injective by Remark 4.6.5. Assume that the map \mathcal{I} is surjective, that is for every $\mathfrak{p} \in \text{Spec } k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, $\mathfrak{p} = \mathcal{I}(V)$, for some affine algebraic variety $V \subseteq k^n$. But then $\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{p}) = \mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{I}(V)) = V$, so that $\mathfrak{p} = \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{p}))$.

Conversely, assume that $\mathfrak{p} = \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{p}))$ for all $\mathfrak{p} \in \text{Spec } k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. But then $\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{p})$ is a variety, and the ideal \mathfrak{p} is its image via the map \mathcal{I} . \square

5.2 Hilbert Nullstellensatz.

Remark 5.8. Let $\mathfrak{a} \triangleleft k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. Then

$$\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \text{rad}(\mathfrak{a}) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{a})).$$

Proof. Fix $f \in \text{rad}(\mathfrak{a})$. Then $f^m \in \mathfrak{a}$, for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$. In particular, $f^m(\underline{a}) = 0$, for all $\underline{a} \in \mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{a})$, but then also $f(\underline{a}) = 0$, for all $\underline{a} \in \mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{a})$. Thus $f \in \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{a}))$. \square

Theorem 5.9. (Hilbert Nullstellensatz) *Let k be algebraically closed, let $\mathfrak{a} \triangleleft k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. Then $\text{rad}(\mathfrak{a}) = \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{a}))$.*

The proof follows from a series of lemmas which we shall prove now. We will also need some basic definitions and facts from the theory of extensions of rings.

Definition 5.10. *Let B be a domain and let A be a subring of B . An element $x \in B$ is **integral** over A if there exist $a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$ such that*

$$a_1 + a_2x + \dots + a_nx^{n-1} + x^n = 0;$$

*The set of all elements of B integral over A will be denoted by $C_B(A)$ and called the **integral closure** of A in B .*

Proposition 5.11. *Let B be a domain and let A be a subring of B . Then the integral closure $C_B(A)$ of A in B forms a ring.*

We shall give a somewhat old-fashioned proof here that utilizes the notions of symmetric polynomials^{5.1}, elementary symmetric polynomials^{5.2}, and the fundamental theorem on symmetric polynomials.^{5.3}

Proof. Let $f = a_1 + a_2x + \dots + a_nx^{n-1} + x^n \in A[x]$ and let $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ be the roots of f in some larger ring. By the Viète's formulas

$$a_n = -S_1(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n), a_{n-1} = S_2(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n), \dots, a_1 = \pm S_n(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n),$$

5.1. A polynomial $P(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in A[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is **symmetric** if for every permutation $\sigma \in S(n)$:

$$P(x_1, \dots, x_n) = P(x_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, x_{\sigma(n)}).$$

5.2. The **elementary symmetric polynomials** are defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} S_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= x_1 + \dots + x_n, \\ S_2(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= x_1x_2 + \dots + x_1x_n + x_2x_3 + \dots + x_{n-1}x_n, \\ &\vdots \\ S_k(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= \sum_{i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k} x_{i_1} \dots x_{i_k}, \\ &\vdots \\ S_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= x_1 \dots x_n. \end{aligned}$$

5.3. **Theorem (Fundamental Theorem on Symmetric Polynomials):** Every symmetric polynomial $P(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in A[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is equal to a polynomial in the elementary symmetric polynomials with coefficients in A , i.e. $P \in A[S_1, \dots, S_n]$.

that is the elementary symmetric polynomials in roots of f lie in A . Consequently, by the fundamental theorem on symmetric polynomials, every symmetric polynomial with coefficients from A in the roots of f lies in A . Moreover, every polynomial $g(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ with coefficients from A in the roots of f is a root of a monic polynomial in $A[x]$: indeed, the polynomial

$$h(x) = \prod_{\sigma \in S(n)} (x - g(\alpha_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, \alpha_{\sigma(n)}))$$

is a monic polynomial whose coefficients are symmetric polynomials in the α_i 's, and therefore lie in A . But $g(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ is one of the roots of h .

Now if α_1 and α_2 are two elements of B integral over A , then there exists a monic polynomial with coefficients in A having both α_1 and α_2 as roots. Take $g(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots) = \alpha_1 \pm \alpha_2$ and then $g(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots) = \alpha_1 \alpha_2$ to deduce that these elements are also integral over A . \square

Definition 5.12. Let A be a domain and B a subring of A . We say that A is **integrally closed in B** if $C_B(A) = A$. We say that A is **integrally closed**, if it is integrally closed in its own field of fractions.

Remark 5.13. Let A be an UFD. Then A is integrally closed.

Proof. Let k be the field of fractions of A . If $x \in C_k(A)$, then x is a root of a monic polynomial f with coefficients from A . If $x = \frac{a}{b}$ with $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, $a, b \in A$, then a is a divisor of the least, and b of the highest coefficient of f , so that, in particular, $b = \pm 1$ and $x = \pm a \in A$. \square

Lemma 5.14. Let k be a subfield of a commutative ring with identity A and let $L = k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be a subring of A generated by the elements $x_1, \dots, x_n \in A$ over k . If L is a field, then L is a finite extension of k .

Proof. We shall proceed by induction on n . For $n = 1$, assume that $K = k[x_1]$ is a field. We may also assume that $x_1 \neq 0$, and thus $\frac{1}{x_1} \in L$. By the definition of L , there exists a polynomial $g \in k[x]$ such that $g(x_1) = \frac{1}{x_1}$. Therefore $x_1 g(x_1) - 1 = 0$ which means that the element x_1 is algebraic over k . Thus $L = k[x_1]$ is a finite extension of k .

For $n > 1$ assume that $L = k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is a field. Thus L contains the subfield $k(x_1)$ and hence

$$L = k(x_1)[x_2, \dots, x_n].$$

By the inductive hypothesis the elements x_2, \dots, x_n are algebraic over $k(x_1)$ and it suffices to show that x_1 is algebraic over k .

Suppose then that x_1 is transcendental over k . The field $k(x_1)$ is the field of fractions of the ring $k[x_1]$. Since x_2, \dots, x_n are algebraic over $k(x_1)$, there exist polynomials $a_2(x_1), \dots, a_n(x_1) \in k[x_1]$ such that the elements $a_2(x_1)x_2, \dots, a_n(x_1)x_n$ are integral over $k[x_1]$. This follows from the following elementary claim: if x_i is a zero of a nonzero polynomial

$$f = c_0 + c_1x + \dots + c_{m-1}x^{m-1} + a_ix^m$$

with coefficients from the ring $k[x_1]$, then a_ix_i is a zero of the polynomial

$$c_0a_i^{m-1} + c_1a_i^{m-2}x + \dots + c_{m-1}x^{m-1} + x^m.$$

Clearly all elements of $k[x_1]$ are integral over $k[x_1]$, so, by Proposition 5.11 the elements $a_2(x_1)a_3(x_1)\dots a_n(x_1)x_i$, $i \in \{2, \dots, n\}$, are integral over $k[x_1]$. Let $a(x_1) = a_2(x_1)a_3(x_1)\dots a_n(x_1)$. Thus for every $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ there exists a sufficiently large $s \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$a(x_1)^s f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = g(x_1, a(x_1)x_2, \dots, a(x_1)x_n),$$

for some polynomial $g \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. In particular, for every element $\alpha \in k(x_1)$, there exists $s \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $a(x_1)^s \alpha$ is integral over $k[x_1]$. But $k[x_1]$ is a PID, hence an UFD, and thus is integrally closed. Therefore $a(x_1)^s \alpha \in k[x_1]$. This is obviously false, as it means that every rational function $\alpha \in k(x_1)$ is of the form

$$\alpha = \frac{h(x_1)}{a(x_1)^s},$$

for some $s \in \mathbb{N}$ and $h(x_1) \in k[x_1]$ ($\frac{1}{1+a(x_1)}$ is clearly not of that form). This contradiction shows that x_1 is, in fact, algebraic. \square

Lemma 5.15. *Let k be algebraically closed, let $\mathfrak{a} \triangleleft k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be a proper ideal. Then $\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{a}) \neq \emptyset$.*

Proof. Let $(1) \neq \mathfrak{a} \triangleleft k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. Let \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal that contains \mathfrak{a} . Since $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$, it follows that $\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{a}) \supseteq \mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{m})$, so that it suffices to show that $\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{m}) \neq \emptyset$ for every maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$.

Let $\mathfrak{m} \triangleleft k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be any maximal ideal. Then $L = k[x_1, \dots, x_n] / \mathfrak{m}$ is a field. Moreover, L is a homomorphic image of the ring $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ via the canonical epimorphism $\kappa: k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \rightarrow k[x_1, \dots, x_n] / \mathfrak{m} = L$. In particular, $\kappa(k)$ is a subfield of L isomorphic to k – we shall thus identify elements $a \in k$ with their images $a + \mathfrak{m} \in L$.

The generators x_1, \dots, x_n of the ring $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ are mapped by κ onto the generators $x_1 + \mathfrak{m}, \dots, x_n + \mathfrak{m}$ of L . Since L is a field, by Lemma 5.14 L is a finite extension of k . But k is algebraically closed, so that it does not have any proper finite extensions, and thus $k = L$. In particular $x_1 + \mathfrak{m}, \dots, x_n + \mathfrak{m} \in k$ and it suffices to show that every $f \in \mathfrak{m}$ vanishes at $(x_1 + \mathfrak{m}, \dots, x_n + \mathfrak{m})$. Indeed:

$$f(x_1 + \mathfrak{m}, \dots, x_n + \mathfrak{m}) = f(\kappa(x_1), \dots, \kappa(x_n)) = \kappa(f(x_1, \dots, x_n)) = f + \mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}. \quad \square$$

Lemma 5.16. *Let k be algebraically closed, let $\mathfrak{a} = \langle f_1, \dots, f_r \rangle \triangleleft k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. Then $\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{a}) = \emptyset$ if and only if there exist polynomials $h_1, \dots, h_r \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ such that*

$$f_1 h_1 + \dots + f_r h_r = 1.$$

Proof. If the condition of Lemma 5.16 is satisfied, then $\mathfrak{a} = (1)$ and thus $\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{a}) = \emptyset$. If it is not satisfied, then $\mathfrak{a} \neq (1)$ and by Lemma 5.15 $\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{a}) \neq \emptyset$. \square

Lemma 5.17. *Let k be algebraically closed, let $\mathfrak{a} \triangleleft k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ and let $f \in \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{Z}(\mathfrak{a}))$. Then $f \in \text{rad}(\mathfrak{a})$.*

Proof. The theorem is trivially satisfied when $f = 0$. Assume then $f \neq 0$ and let $\mathfrak{a} = \langle f_1, \dots, f_r \rangle$. Consider the ring of polynomials in $n + 1$ variables $k[x_1, \dots, x_n, z]$ and its elements

$$f_1, \dots, f_r, 1 - z \cdot f.$$

Let $g = 1 - z \cdot f$. The polynomials f_1, \dots, f_r, g have no common zero in k^{n+1} , as every common zero of f_1, \dots, f_r in k^{n+1} is also a zero of f and thus g takes there the value 1. By Lemma 5.16 there exist polynomials $g_1, \dots, g_r, h \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n, z]$ such that

$$f_1 g_1 + \dots + f_r g_r + (1 - z \cdot f) h = 1.$$

We might as well consider this equality holds in the function field $k(x_1, \dots, x_n, z)$ and then substitute $\frac{1}{f}$ for z . This yields

$$f_1 \hat{g}_1 + \dots + f_r \hat{g}_r = 1,$$

where the \hat{g}_i 's have denominators equal to powers of f . Multiplying both sides by a sufficiently large power of f we get

$$f_1 h_1 + \dots + f_r h_r = f^m,$$

for some $h_1, \dots, h_r \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. □

The Nullstellensatz now follows from Lemma 5.17 and Remark 5.8.