

Computational Algebraic Geometry

Geometry, Algebra and Algorithms

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Overview

Last time:

- Monomials and polynomials
- Polynomials as functions - link between algebra and geometry
- Affine varieties
- Rational parametric description and implicit representation

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Today:

- Ideals
 - Ideal generated by $f_1, \dots, f_s \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$
 - Finitely generated ideal
 - Vanishing ideal of an affine variety
- Polynomials in one variable
 - Division algorithm
 - A degree m polynomial has at most m roots
 - Greatest common divisor
 - Every ideal in $k[x]$ can be generated by one polynomial

Ideals

Definition

A subset $I \subset k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is an **ideal** if it satisfies:

- 1 $0 \in I$.
- 2 If $f, g \in I$, then $f + g \in I$.
- 3 If $f \in I$ and $h \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, then $hf \in I$.

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- the goal today is to introduce some naturally occurring ideals and to see how ideals relate to affine varieties
- the real importance of ideals is that they will give us a language for computing with affine varieties

Definition

Let $f_1, \dots, f_s$ be polynomials in $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. Then we set

$$\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^s h_i f_i : h_1, \dots, h_s \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \right\}.$$

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Lemma

*If $f_1, \dots, f_s \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, then $\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$ is an ideal of $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. We will call $\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$ the **ideal generated by $f_1, \dots, f_s$** .*

Proof: We want to show that

$\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$ is an ideal.

1) $0 \in \langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$ because

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^s 0 \cdot f_i$$

2) let $g, h \in \langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$. then

$$g = \sum_{i=1}^s g_i f_i, \quad g_i \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$$

$$h = \sum_{i=1}^s h_i f_i, \quad h_i \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$$

$$g+h = \sum_{i=1}^s (g_i + h_i) \cdot f_i \in \langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$$

3) let $g \in \langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$, $h \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$.

$$h \cdot g = \sum_{i=1}^s (h \cdot g_i) \cdot f_i \in \langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle.$$

Thus $\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$ is an ideal. $\square$

Interpretation in terms of polynomial equations

Given $f_1, \dots, f_s \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, we get the system of equations

$$f_1 = 0,$$

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If we multiply the first equation by $h_1 \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, the second by $h_2 \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ etc and then add the resulting equations, we get

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- The left-hand side is an element of the ideal $\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$.
- We can think of $\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$ as consisting of all “polynomial consequences” of the equations $f_1 = f_2 = \dots = f_s = 0$.

Ideals example

Consider the example

$$\begin{aligned}x &= 1 + t \\ y &= 1 + t^2.\end{aligned}$$

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In fact $x^2 - 2x + 2 - y$ is in the ideal $\langle x - 1 - t, y - 1 - t^2 \rangle$:

$$(x - 1 - t)(x - 1 + t) + (-1)(y - 1 - t^2) = x^2 - 2x + 2 - y$$

Definition

We say that an ideal I is **finitely generated** if there exist $f_1, \dots, f_s \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ such that $I = \langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$, and we say that $f_1, \dots, f_s$ forms a basis of I .

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- We will learn that every ideal of $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is finitely generated.
- A given ideal may have many different bases.
- An especially useful type of basis is Groebner basis.

Analogy with linear algebra

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Analogy with linear algebra

- the definition of an ideal is similar to the definition of a subspace
- both have to be closed under addition and multiplication (for a subspace multiply with scalars whereas for an ideal we multiply by polynomials)
- the ideal generated by polynomials $f_1, \dots, f_s$ is similar to the span of a finite number of vectors $v_1, \dots, v_s$
- in both cases one takes linear combinations, using field coefficients for the subspace and polynomial coefficients for the ideal

Proposition

If $f_1, \dots, f_s$ and $g_1, \dots, g_t$ are bases of the same ideal in $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, so that $\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle = \langle g_1, \dots, g_t \rangle$, then we have $\mathbb{V}(f_1, \dots, f_s) = \mathbb{V}(g_1, \dots, g_t)$.

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- $\langle 2x^2 + 3y^2 - 11, x^2 - y^2 - 3 \rangle = \langle x^2 - 4, y^2 - 1 \rangle$
- hence $\mathbb{V}(2x^2 + 3y^2 - 11, x^2 - y^2 - 3) = \mathbb{V}(x^2 - 4, y^2 - 1) = \{(\pm 2, \pm 1)\}$

Proof: Assume that

$$\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle = \langle g_1, \dots, g_t \rangle.$$

Let $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{V}(f_1, \dots, f_s).$

hence $f_i(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0.$

Since $g_j \in \langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle$, we can write $g_j = \sum_{i=1}^s h_i f_i$. Hence

$$g_j(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \sum_{i=1}^s (h_i f_i)(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0.$$

hence $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{V}(g_1, \dots, g_t).$

This proves $\mathbb{V}(f_1, \dots, f_s) \subseteq \mathbb{V}(g_1, \dots, g_t).$



The ideal of an affine variety

Definition

Let $V \subset k^n$ be an affine variety. Then we set

$$I(V) = \{f \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n] : f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0 \text{ for all } (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in V\}.$$

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- $I(\{0, 0\}) = \langle x, y \rangle$
- $I(k^n) = \{0\}$ when k is infinite
- $V = \mathbb{V}(y - x^2, z - x^3) \Rightarrow I(V) = \langle y - x^2, z - x^3 \rangle$

The ideal of an affine variety

polynomials $f_1, \dots, f_s \rightarrow$ variety $\mathbb{V}(f_1, \dots, f_s) \rightarrow$ ideal $I(\mathbb{V}(f_1, \dots, f_s))$

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Lemma

If $f_1, \dots, f_s \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, then $\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle \subset I(\mathbb{V}(f_1, \dots, f_s))$, although equality need not occur.

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Proposition

Let V and W be affine varieties in k^n . Then

- 1 $V \subset W$ if and only if $I(V) \supset I(W)$
- 2 $V = W$ if and only if $I(V) = I(W)$

Proof: ① " $\subseteq$ " Assume $V \subseteq W$. Take $f \in I(W)$.

Then for all $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in W$, we have

$f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0$. Since $V \subseteq W$, also

$f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0 \quad \forall (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in V$. Hence

$f \in I(V)$.

" $\supseteq$ " Assume $I(W) \subseteq I(V)$. Let $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in V$.

Then $\forall f \in I(V)$, we have $f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0$.

Hence $f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0$ for all $f \in I(W)$.

This means that $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in W$.

② This follows from $V=W$ being equivalent to $V \subseteq W$ and $W \subseteq V$. $\square$

Polynomials in one variable

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Given a nonzero polynomial $f \in k[x]$, let

$$f = a_0x^m + a_1x^{m-1} + \dots + a_m,$$

where $a_i \in k$ and $a_0 \neq 0$. Then we say that a_0x^m is the **leading term** of f , written $LT(f) = a_0x^m$.

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Quiz

What is the leading term of $f = 2x^3 - 4x + 3$?

Division algorithm

Proposition

Let g be a nonzero polynomial in $k[x]$. Then every $f \in k[x]$ can be written as

$$f = qg + r,$$

where $q, r \in k[x]$, and either $r = 0$ or $\deg(r) < \deg(g)$.

Furthermore, q and r are unique, and there is an algorithm for finding q and r .

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Proof.

Input: g, f

Output: q, r

$q := 0, r := f$

WHILE $r \neq 0$ AND $LT(g)$ divides $LT(r)$ DO

$q := q + LT(r)/LT(g)$

$r := r - (LT(r)/LT(g))g$



Example:

$$f = x^3 + 2x^2 + x + 1 \quad g = 2x + 1$$

$$* \quad q := 0 \quad r := x^3 + 2x^2 + x + 1$$

$$* \quad q_{\text{new}} := 0 + \frac{x^3}{2x} = \frac{1}{2} x^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} r_{\text{new}} &:= x^3 + 2x^2 + x + 1 - \frac{x^3}{2x} \cdot (2x + 1) = \\ &= \frac{3}{2} x^2 + x + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Proof: 1) We will show that at each step

$f = q \cdot g + r$. It clearly holds at the first step.

At each next step

$$\begin{aligned} \left(q + \frac{\text{LT}(r)}{\text{LT}(g)} \right) g + r - \frac{\text{LT}(r)}{\text{LT}(g)} \cdot g = \\ = q \cdot g + r = f. \end{aligned}$$

2) The algorithm terminates: At each step the degree of r decreases, because

$r - \frac{\text{LT}(r)}{\text{LT}(g)} \cdot g$ is either zero or smaller than the degree of r .

3) Uniqueness: Suppose $f = q \cdot g + r =$

$$= q' \cdot g + r'. \quad \text{Then}$$

$$r - r' = q' \cdot g - q \cdot g$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \deg(r - r') &= \deg(q' \cdot g - q \cdot g) \\ &= \deg((q' - q) \cdot g) = \deg(q' - q) + \deg(g) \\ &\geq \deg(g). \text{ This contradicts} \\ &\text{that } \deg(r) < \deg(g). \text{ Hence} \\ &r = r' \text{ and } q = q'. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Corollary

If k is a field and $f \in k[x]$ is a nonzero polynomial, then f has at most $\deg(f)$ roots in k .

Proof: We will use induction.

Basis: If f is a constant, then it has no roots.

Step: Assume that the statement holds for polynomials of degree $n-1$. Let f be a polynomial of degree n . If f has no roots, then we are done. Otherwise f has a root a . We will divide f by $x-a$:

$$f = q \cdot (x-a) + r. \quad \text{Evaluating both}$$

sides at a gives

$$f(a) = r \Rightarrow \text{hence } r=0 \text{ and}$$

$f = q \cdot (x-a)$. Now q has degree $n-1$ and by the ind. hypothesis has at most $n-1$ roots. Any root b of f different from a is a root of q , because

$$0 = f(b) = q(b)(b-a). \quad \text{Since } b$$

is a field, we have $q(b) = 0$.

This completes the proof. $\square$

Corollary

If k is a field, then every ideal of $k[x]$ can be written in the form $\langle f \rangle$ for some $f \in k[x]$. Furthermore, f is unique up to multiplication by a nonzero constant in k .

Proof: If $I = \{0\}$, then we are done.
Otherwise take f to be a lowest degree element in I . We claim that $I = \langle f \rangle$. The inclusion

$\langle f \rangle \subseteq I$ is obvious. Take $g \in I$.

Then $g = q \cdot f + r$ by the division algorithm, where $\deg(r) < \deg(f)$ or $r = 0$. Then $r = g - q \cdot f \in I$.

If $r \neq 0$, then $\deg(r) < \deg(f)$, which is a contradiction to f being a lowest degree element in I .

Hence $r = 0$ and $g = q \cdot f \in \langle f \rangle$.

Uniqueness: Suppose $\langle f \rangle = \langle f' \rangle$.

Hence $f = h' \cdot f'$ and $\deg(f) =$

$$\deg(h') + \deg(f') \geq \deg(f').$$

$$\text{Similarly } \deg(f') \geq \deg(f).$$

$$\text{Hence } \deg(f) = \deg(f') \text{ and}$$

f and f' differ up to
multiplication by a constant. $\square$

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- an ideal generated by one element is called a **principal ideal**
- $k[x]$ is a principal ideal domain
- how do we find a generator of the ideal $\langle x^4 - 1, x^6 - 1 \rangle$?

The greatest common divisor

Definition

A **greatest common divisor** of polynomials $f, g \in k[x]$ is a polynomial h such that:

- 1 h divides f and g .
- 2 If p is another polynomial which divides f and g , then p divides h . When h has these properties, we write $h = \text{GCD}(f, g)$.

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The greatest common divisor

Definition

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- 3 There is an algorithm for finding $\text{GCD}(f, g)$.

Proof: ①/② There exists h s.t. $\langle f, g \rangle = \langle h \rangle$.

We will show that $\text{GCD}(f, g) = h$.

The pol. h divides both f and g , because

$f, g \in \langle h \rangle$. Suppose p is another pol. that divides f and g . We can write

$f = A \cdot p$ and $g = B \cdot p$ for $A, B \in k[x]$.

Because $h \in \langle f, g \rangle$, we can write

$h = C \cdot f + D \cdot g$ for some $C, D \in k[x]$.

hence $h = C \cdot A \cdot p + D \cdot B \cdot p = (CA + DB) \cdot p$.

Thus p divides h and h is $\text{GCD}(f, g)$.

Uniqueness follows from the def. because h and h' would have to divide each other.

③ Notation: let $f, g \in k[x]$, $g \neq 0$.

We write $f = q \cdot g + r$ as in the division algorithm. We denote remainder $(f, g) := r$.

Euclidean algorithm:

Input: f, g

Output: h

$h := f$

$s := g$

WHILE $s \neq 0$ DO $\left[\begin{array}{l} h = q \cdot s + r \\ \text{remainder is } r \end{array} \right]$
 $\text{rem} := \text{remainder}(h, s)$
 $h_{\text{new}} := s$
 $s_{\text{new}} := \text{rem}$

* The algorithm terminates, since the degree of s decreases at each step.

* $\text{GCD}(f, g) = \text{GCD}(g, r)$

because $\langle f, g \rangle = \langle g, \overset{f - q \cdot g}{f - q \cdot g} \rangle$.

Similarly

$$\begin{aligned} \text{GCD}(f, g) &= \text{GCD}(g, r) = \text{GCD}(r, r') = \\ &= \text{GCD}(r', r'') = \dots \end{aligned}$$

where $r, r', r'', \dots$ are remainders obtained by the consecutive steps of the Euclidean algorithm. The last two remainders are the output h and 0 . Since $\text{GCD}(h, 0) = h$, we have $\text{GCD}(f, g) = \text{GCD}(h, 0) = h$. $\square$

The greatest common divisor

Quiz

Compute the GCD of $x^4 - 1$ and $x^6 - 1$.

The greatest common divisor

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Compute the GCD of $x^4 - 1$ and $x^6 - 1$.

Example

$$x^4 - 1 = 0(x^6 - 1) + x^4 - 1,$$

$$x^6 - 1 = x^2(x^4 - 1) + x^2 - 1,$$

$$x^4 - 1 = (x^2 + 1)(x^2 - 1) + 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{GCD}(x^4 - 1, x^6 - 1) = x^2 - 1$$

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$$\begin{aligned} & \text{GCD}(x^3 - 3x + 2, x^4 - 1, x^6 - 1) \\ &= \text{GCD}(x^3 - 3x + 2, \text{GCD}(x^4 - 1, x^6 - 1)) \\ &= \text{GCD}(x^3 - 3x + 2, x^2 - 1) = x - 1 \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\langle x^3 - 3x + 2, x^4 - 1, x^6 - 1 \rangle = \langle x - 1 \rangle$$

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- $x^3 + 4x^2 + 3x - 7 \in \langle x - 1 \rangle$?
- $x^3 + 4x^2 + 3x - 7 = (x^2 + 5x + 8)(x - 1) + 1$
- $x^3 + 4x^2 + 3x - 7$ is not in the ideal

Quiz: Does $x \in \langle x^3 - 3x + 2, x^4 - 1, x^6 - 1 \rangle$?

Conclusion

Today:

- Ideals
 - Ideal generated by $f_1, \dots, f_s \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$
 - Finitely generated ideal
 - Vanishing ideal of an affine variety
- Polynomials in one variable
 - Division algorithm
 - A degree m polynomial has at most m roots
 - Greatest common divisor
 - Every ideal in $k[x]$ can be generated by one polynomial

Next time:

- Gröbner bases
- Orderings of the monomials
- Division algorithm for polynomials in n variables