## 10 Geometric Applications

What are the benefits of projective geometry? We highlight two: the image of projective subvariety under a morphism is always closed, and the number of common zeros equals the product of the degrees of the polynomials.

### 10.0 Projective Elimination

What distinguishes projective subvarieties from affine subvarieties? The extra points in the ambient projective space make imagines easier to understand.
10.0.0 Example. The image of a morphism of affine subvarieties is not necessarily an affine subvariety. Consider the affine subvariety $X:=\mathrm{V}(x y-1) \subset \mathbb{A}^{2}$. Under the projection map $\pi_{2}: \mathbb{A}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^{1}$ defined by $(a, b) \mapsto b$, we see that $\pi_{2}(X)=\left\{b \in \mathbb{A}^{1} \mid b \neq 0\right\}$. To take advantage of projective geometry, regard $X \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{1} \times \mathbb{A}^{1}$ as a subset in $\mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{A}^{1}$ by identifying the first affine line with an affine open subset in the projective line. The Zariski closure $\bar{X} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{A}^{1}$ is $\bar{X}=\left\{\left(\left[a_{0}: a_{1}\right], b\right) \mid a_{1} b=a_{0}\right\}$. We still have the projection map $\pi_{2}: \mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{A}^{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^{1}$ given by $\left(\left[a_{0}: a_{1}\right], b\right) \rightarrow y$, but now $\pi_{2}(\bar{X})=\mathbb{A}^{1}$.
The new point $([0: 1], 0)$ is mapped to the origin.
10.0.1 Remark (Families of projective subvarieties). A polynomial $f$ in $\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]=\left(\mathbb{K}\left[y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]\right)\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ is homogeneous of degree $d$ in the variables $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ if there are $h_{u} \in \mathbb{K}\left[y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]$ such that $f=\sum_{|u|=d} x^{u} h_{u}$. For each such polynomial $f$, the hypersurface
$\mathrm{V}(f)=\left\{\left(\left[a_{0}: a_{1}: \cdots: a_{n}\right],\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{m}\right)\right) \in \mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{A}^{m} \mid f\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{m}\right)=0\right\}$
is well-defined. By intersecting hypersurfaces, we see that any ideal $I$ in the ring $\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]$ with generators that are homogeneous in the variables $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ determines a subvariety $\mathrm{V}(I) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{A}^{m}$.

Do all closed subsets come from homogeneous ideals? When $m=0$, we already know that each projective subvariety $X \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ corresponds to a homogeneous ideal. A similar argument produces the following mild generalization.
10.0.2 Proposition. For any subvariety $X \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{A}^{m}$, the ideal $\mathrm{I}(X)$ in the ring $\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]$ that is homogeneous the variables $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ and vanishes on $X$, is the intersection of the homogenizations of $I_{i}=I\left(U_{i} \cap X\right)$ where $U_{i} \subset \mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{A}^{m}$ is the distinguished open subset defined by $x_{i} \neq 0$ for all $0 \leqslant i \leqslant n$,.
10.0.3 Definition. The projective elimination ideal for an ideal $I$ in $\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]$, that is homogeneous in the variables $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$, is the ideal $\widehat{I}:=\left(I: \mathfrak{m}^{\infty}\right) \cap \mathbb{K}\left[y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{n}\right]$.
10.0.4 Theorem (Projective elimination). Let $\pi_{2}: \mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{A}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^{m}$ be the projection defined by $\left(\left[a_{0}: a_{1}: \cdots: a_{n}\right],\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{m}\right)\right) \mapsto\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{m}\right)$. For any ideal I in $\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]$ that is homogeneous in the variables $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$, we have $\pi_{2}(\mathrm{~V}(I)) \subseteq \mathrm{V}(\widehat{I})$. When the field $\mathbb{K}$ is algebraically closed, we also have $\pi_{2}(\mathrm{~V}(I))=\mathrm{V}(\widehat{I})$.

Proof. Suppose that the point $\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{m}\right) \in \pi_{2}(\mathrm{~V}(I))$ is the image of a point $\left(\left[a_{0}: a_{1}: \cdots: a_{n}\right],\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{m}\right)\right) \in \mathrm{V}(I)$. For each polynomial $f \in I$ that is homogeneous in the variables $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$, we have $f\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{m}\right)=0$. There exists $0 \leqslant i \leqslant n$ such that $a_{i} \neq 0$. For any $h \in \widehat{I}$, it follows that $x_{i}^{k} h \in I$ for some $k \gg 0$, so we have $a_{i}^{k} h\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{m}\right)=0$. We deduce that $h\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{m}\right)=0$ and $\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{m}\right) \in \mathrm{V}(\widehat{I})$.

It remains to prove the inclusion $\mathrm{V}(\hat{I}) \subseteq \pi_{2}(\mathrm{~V}(I))$. Suppose that there is a point $c:=\left(c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{m}\right) \in \mathrm{V}(\widehat{I})$ such that $c \notin \pi_{2}(\mathrm{~V}(I))$. Let $f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{r}$ be generators for the ideal $I$ that are homogeneous in the variables $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$. Since the homogeneous polynomials
$f_{1}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{m}\right), f_{2}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{m}\right), \ldots, f_{r}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{m}\right)$
in $\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ define the empty subvariety in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, the projective weak nullstellensatz implies that $\mathfrak{m}^{k} \subseteq\left\langle f_{1}(x, c), f_{2}(x, c), \ldots, f_{r}(x, c)\right\rangle$ for some $k \gg 0$. Hence, for each $x^{u}$ with $|u|=k$, there exists an expression $x^{u}=\sum_{i=1}^{r} f_{i}(x, c) p_{i, u}(x)$, where $p_{i, u} \in \mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ are homogeneous. For all $1 \leqslant j \leqslant\binom{ k+n}{k}$, there exists $1 \leqslant i_{j} \leqslant r$ and $v_{j} \in \mathbb{N}^{n+1}$ such that $g_{j}:=x^{v_{j}} f_{i_{j}}$ and the polynomials $g_{j}(x, c)$ form a $\mathbb{K}$-vector space basis for the homogeneous polynomials in $\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ having degree $k$. Setting $g_{j}=\sum_{|u|=k} x^{u} q_{j, u}$, we see that $\mathbf{Q}:=\left[q_{j, u}\right]$ is an $\left(\binom{k+n}{k} \times\binom{ k+n}{k}\right)$-matrix of polynomials in the ring $\mathbb{K}\left[y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]$. Hence, we have $D:=\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{Q}) \in \mathbb{K}\left[y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]$ and $D\left(c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{m}\right) \neq 0$. By Cramer's rule, we obtain

$$
D x^{u}=\sum_{j=1}^{\substack{k+n \\ k}} \ell_{j, u} g_{j}
$$

for a suitable matrix $\mathbf{L}=\left[\ell_{j, u}\right]$ with entries in $\mathbb{K}\left[y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]$. It follows that $D x^{u} \in\left\langle f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{r}\right\rangle=I$ and $D \in \widehat{I}$. However, this contradicts our assumption that $c \in \mathrm{~V}(\widehat{I})$.
10.0.5 Definition. An algebraic variety $X$ is complete if for all varieties $Y$, the projection morphism $\pi_{2}: X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ is a closed map (sends subvarieties to subvarieties).
10.0.6 Theorem. For any algebraically closed field $\mathbb{K}$ and any nonnegative integer $n$, the variety $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is complete.

Sketch of Proof. We must demonstrate that, for all varieties $Y$, the map $\pi_{2}: \mathbb{P}^{n} \times Y \rightarrow Y$ is closed. The problem is "local" on $Y$ so we may assume that $Y$ is affine. Since the projective elimination theorem shows that $\pi_{2}: \mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{A}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^{m}$, the claim follows.

### 10.1 Hilbert Functions

How do we obtain numerical invariants of projective subvarieties? Working with homogeneous rings and ideals provides new mechanisms for associating integers to projective subvarieties.
10.1.0 Definition. A graded $\mathbb{K}$-algebra $R$ is a ring with a direct-sum decomposition $R=\bigoplus_{j \in \mathbb{Z}} R_{j}$ as $\mathbb{K}$-vector spaces that is compatible with multiplication: for all integer $j$ and $k$, we have $R_{j} \cdot R_{k} \subseteq R_{j+k}$.
10.1.1 Examples. The polynomial ring $S:=\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ is graded where $S_{j}$ is $\mathbb{K}$-vector space spanned of all monomials of degree $j$.

When $I$ is a homogeneous ideal in $S$, the quotient ring $S / I$ is graded; the $\mathbb{K}$-vector space $(S / I)_{j}$ is spanned by the image of the monomials of degree $j$ under the canonical map $S \rightarrow S / J$.
10.1.2 Definition. For any graded $\mathbb{K}$-algebra $R$, the Hilbert function $h_{R}: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is defined, for all integers $j$, by $h_{R}(j):=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}} R_{j}$.
10.1.3 Examples. Counting the monomials of degree $j$ in $S$ via stars-and-bars, it follows that $h_{S}(j)=\binom{j+n}{n}$.

When $f$ is a homogenous polynomial of degree $m$ and $I:=\langle f\rangle$, we have $h_{S / I}(j)=\binom{j+n}{n}-\binom{j-m+n}{n}$ because the elements in the ideal $I$ of degree $j$ are of the form $f g$ where $g$ is a homogeneous polynomial of degree $j-m$.

Gröbner bases reduce the computation of Hilbert functions to monomial ideals.
10.1.4 Proposition (Macaulay). For any homogeneous ideal I is $S$, we have $h_{S / I}(j)=h_{S / \operatorname{LT}(I)}(j)$ for all integers $j$.

Proof. It suffices to show that the set $\mathcal{B}$ of all monomials not in the leading term ideal LT( $I$ ) forms a $\mathbb{K}$-vector space basis for $S / I$. We first establish that $\mathcal{B}$ is linearly independent. If there were a relation $g=c_{1} x^{u_{1}}+c_{2} x^{u_{2}}+\cdots+c_{\ell} x^{u_{\ell}} \in I$ with $x^{u_{j}} \in \mathcal{B}$ and $0 \neq c_{j} \in \mathbb{K}$, then

The analogous property for topological spaces characterizes compact spaces $X$.

This theorem is true over any field; Grothendieck gives a prove via Nakayama's Lemma and Chevalley gives a valuation-theoretic prove. Nagata exhibited the first example of a nonprojective complete variety. Chow showed that every complete variety is dominated by a projective variety with the same function field.

The adjective "direct-sum" means that every element $f$ in $R$ can be expressed uniquely as $f=\sum_{i} f_{i}$ where $f_{i} \in R_{i}$.
we would have $\mathrm{LT}(g) \in \mathrm{LT}(I)$. Since $\operatorname{LT}(g)$ is $c_{j} x^{u_{j}}$ for some $1 \leqslant j \leqslant \ell$ which are not in $\mathcal{B}$, this is a contradiction.

Suppose that $\mathcal{B}$ does not span the quotient $S / I$. Among the set of elements of $S$ that are not in the span of $I$ and $\mathcal{B}$, we may take $f$ to be one with minimal leading term. If $\operatorname{LT}(f)$ were in $\mathcal{B}$, we could subtract it, getting an element with still smaller leading term. It follows that $\mathrm{LT}(f) \in \mathrm{LT}(I)$. Subtracting an element of $I$ with the same leading term as $f$ results in a similar contradiction.
10.1.5 Example. Consider the ring $S:=\mathbb{Q}[w, x, y, z]$ equipped with a graded reverse lexicographic monomial order. The generators of the ideal $I:=\left\langle\underline{y^{2}}+x z, \underline{x y}-w z, \underline{x^{2}}-w y\right\rangle$ are a Gröbner basis. It follows that the monomials in

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{c}
1, w, z, w^{2}, w z, z^{2}, w^{3}, w^{2} z, w z^{2}, z^{3}, \ldots \\
x, w x, x z, w^{2} x, w x z, x z^{2}, \ldots \\
y, w y, y z, w^{2} y, w y z, y z^{2}, \ldots
\end{array}\right\}=\mathbb{Q}[w, z] \sqcup \mathbb{Q}[w, z] x \sqcup \mathbb{Q}[w, z] y
$$

are a $\mathbb{Q}$-vector space basis for the quotient $S / I$. Thus, we have
$h_{S / J}(0,1,2,3, \ldots)=(1,4,7,10, \ldots)$ or $h_{S / J}(J)=3 j+1$ for all $j \in \mathbb{N}$. $\diamond$
10.1.6 Theorem. For any homogeneous ideal I in $S$, there exists a unique $p_{S / I}(t) \in \mathbb{Q}[t]$, called Hilbert polynomial of the quotient $S / I$, such that $h_{S / I}(j)=p_{S / I}(j)$ for all $i \gg 0$.

Sketch of Proof. We proceed by induction on $n$. When $n=-1$, we have $S=\mathbb{K}$ and $h_{S / J}(j)=0$ for all positive integers $j$. Assume that $n \geqslant 0$ and each monomial ideal in $S^{\prime}:=\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right]$ has a Hilbert polynomial. Since $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}} I_{j}=\binom{j+n}{j}-h_{S / I}(j)$, it suffices to show that the function $j \mapsto \operatorname{dim}_{K} I_{j}$ agrees with a polynomial for all sufficiently large $j$.

For any nonnegative integers $k$, consider the auxiliary ideal

$$
I[k]:=\left\{f \in S^{\prime} \mid f x_{n}^{k} \in I\right\}
$$

It follows that chain $I[0] \subseteq I[1] \subseteq I[2] \subseteq \cdots$ of ideals is eventually stationary: $I[m]=I[m+1]=\cdots$ for some nonnegative integer $m$. The monomials in $I$ of degree $j$ are the disjoint union of the monomials in $I[k]_{j-k} x_{n}^{k}$ for all $0 \leqslant k \leqslant j$. Hence, we have
$\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}} I_{j}=\sum_{k=0}^{j} \operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}}\left(I[k]_{j-k} x_{n}^{k}\right)=\sum_{k=0}^{j} \operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}} I[k]_{j-k}=\sum_{k=m}^{j} \operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}} I[m]_{j-k}+\sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}} I[k]_{j-k}$.
The first part is a finite sum of polynomials and the second part is constant.
10.1.7 Definition. For a projective subvariety $X$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, the Hilbert polynomial $p_{X}$ is defined to be $p_{S / I} \in \mathbb{Q}[t]$ where $I$ is a homogeneous ideal in $S$ such that $X=\mathrm{V}(I)$. The dimension of $X$ is the degree of

One verifies that the Hilbert polynomial of $X$ is independent of choice of homogeneous ideal satisfying $X=\mathrm{V}(I)$.
its Hilbert polynomial, the degree of $X$ is $(\operatorname{dim} X)$ ! times the leading coefficient of its Hilbert polynomial, and the arithmetic genus of $X$ is $(-1)^{\operatorname{dim} X}\left(p_{X}(0)-1\right)$.
10.1.8 Example (Hypersurfaces). A hypersurface in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is determined by a homogeneous polynomial $f$ in $S$ of degree $m$. Since

$$
h_{S /\langle f\rangle}(j)=\binom{j+n}{n}-\binom{j-m+n}{n}=\frac{m}{(n-1)!} j^{n-1}+\cdots,
$$

this projective subvariety has dimension $n-1$, degree $m$, and arithmetic genus 0 .
10.1.9 Example (Rational normal curves). For a positive integer $m$, the Veronese map $v_{m}: \mathbb{P}^{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{m}$ is defined by

$$
\left[x_{0}: x_{1}\right] \mapsto\left[x_{0}^{m}: x_{0}^{m-1} x_{1}: \cdots: x_{1}^{m}\right]
$$

It follows that $h_{v_{m}\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}\right)}(j)=m j+1$, so the projective variety $v_{m}\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}\right)$ is 1-dimensional, degree $m$, and arithmetic genus 0 .
10.1.10 Example (Veronese embedding). For the map $v_{m}: \mathbb{P}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{N}$ where $N=\binom{n+m}{m}$ given by

$$
\left[x_{0}: x_{1}: \cdots: x_{n}\right] \mapsto\left[x_{0}^{m}: x_{0}^{m-1} x_{1}: \cdots: x_{n}^{m}\right]
$$

we have $h_{v_{m}\left(\mathbb{A}^{n}\right)}(t)=\binom{m t+n}{n}$.

### 10.2 Intersection Multiplicities

How do we count the number of points where two varieties meet? We want a method of counting that is well-defined even as varieties vary in families-it should satisfy a continuity principle.
10.2.0 Example. Set $\mathbb{K}\left[\mathbb{A}^{2}\right]=\mathbb{K}[x, y]$. Consider the plane curves $C_{t}:=\mathrm{V}\left(y+x^{2}-t\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2}$ and $D:=\mathrm{V}(y) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2}$. The intersection $C_{t} \cap D=\{( \pm \sqrt{t}, 0)\}$ is two distinct points for $t \neq 0$ and one point for $t=0$. The curve $C_{t}$ is tangent to $D$ if and only if $t=0$.
10.2.1 Example. Consider the plane curves $C_{t}:=\mathrm{V}\left(y-x^{3}-t x\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2}$ and $D:=\mathrm{V}(y) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2}$. The intersection $C_{t} \cap D=\{(0,0),( \pm \sqrt{t}, 0)\}$ which is three distinct points for $t \neq 0$ and one point for $t=0$. $\diamond$
10.2.2 Remark. Let $a:=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ be a point in $\mathbb{A}^{n}$ and let

$$
M_{a}=\left\langle x_{1}-a_{1}, x_{2}-a_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}-a_{n}\right\rangle
$$

be the associated maximal ideal in the ring $\mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$. Recall that any $M_{a}$-primary ideal $Q$ satisfies $M_{a}^{k} \subseteq Q \subseteq M_{a}$ for some $k \gg 0$. The induced quotient map

$$
\frac{\mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{M_{a}^{k}} \rightarrow \frac{\mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{Q}
$$

is surjective and $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}}\left(\mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] / M_{a}^{k}\right)=\binom{n+k-1}{n}$. Hence, the quotient $\mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] / Q$ is a finite-dimensional $\mathbb{K}$-vector space.
10.2.3 Definition. Let $I$ be an ideal in $\mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$. Assume that $M_{a}$ is a minimal associated prime of $I$, so that the corresponding primary ideal $Q$ is uniquely determined. Assuming that the field $\mathbb{K}$ is algebraically closed, the ideal $M_{a}$ is a minimal associated prime of $I$ if and only if the point $a$ is an irreducible component of the affine subvariety $\mathrm{V}(I)$. The multiplicity of ideal $I$ at the point $a$ is

$$
\operatorname{mult}(I, a)=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}}\left(\frac{\mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{Q}\right)
$$

When $M_{a} \nsupseteq I$, we have $\operatorname{mult}(I, a)=0$.
10.2.4 Example. Consider

$$
\left\langle y, y-t+x^{2}\right\rangle=\left\langle y, x^{2}-t\right\rangle= \begin{cases}\langle y, x-\sqrt{t}\rangle \cap\langle y, x+\sqrt{t}\rangle & t \neq 0 \\ \left\langle y, x^{2}\right\rangle & t=0\end{cases}
$$

When $t \neq 0$, each primary component has multiplicity 1 because $\{1\}$ is a $\mathbb{K}$-vector space basis for the quotient. When $t=0$, there is just one primary component with multiplicity 2 because $\{1, x\}$ is a $\mathbb{K}$-vector space basis for the quotient.
10.2.5 Example. Consider
$\left\langle y, y-x^{3}+t x\right\rangle=\left\langle y, x^{3}-t x\right\rangle= \begin{cases}\langle y, x\rangle \cap\langle y, x-\sqrt{t}\rangle \cap\langle y, x+\sqrt{t}\rangle & t \neq 0, \\ \left\langle y, x^{3}\right\rangle & t=0 .\end{cases}$
When $t \neq 0$, each primary component has multiplicity 1 because $\{1\}$ is a $\mathbb{K}$-vector space basis for the quotient. When $t=0$, there is just one primary component with multiplicity 3 because $\left\{1, x, x^{2}\right\}$ is a $\mathbb{K}$-vector space basis for the quotient.
10.2.6 Example. Consider $I=\left\langle y x,(x-2)^{2} x\right\rangle=\langle x\rangle \cap\left\langle y,(x-2)^{2}\right\rangle$.

The second component is associated to $M_{a}$ where $a=(2,0)$ and $\operatorname{mult}(I, a)=2$. The multiplicity at $(1,3)$ is zero and the multiplicity at $(0,0)$ is not defined.
10.2.7 Example. Consider the ideal $I=\left\langle y, y-x^{2}+x^{3}\right\rangle$ in $\mathbb{A}^{2}$. It follows that $\mathrm{V}(I)=\{(0,0),(1,0)\}$. We can compute mult $(I,(0,0))$ using colon ideals. Since $\left(I:\left(I:\langle x, y\rangle^{\infty}\right)\right)=\left\langle y, x^{2}\right\rangle$ and the monomials $1, x$ are not in this ideal, we deduce that $\operatorname{mult}(I,(0,0))=2$. Similarly, $\left(I:\left(I:\langle x-1, y\rangle^{\infty}\right)\right)=\langle y, x-1\rangle$ and the monomial 1 are not in this ideal, we deduce that $\operatorname{mult}(I,(1,0))=1$.
10.2.8 Proposition. For any ideal I in the ring $\mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ whose associated primes are all of the form $M_{a}$ for some point $a \in \mathbb{A}^{n}$, we have

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}} \frac{\mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{I}=\sum_{a \in \mathrm{~V}(I)} \operatorname{mult}(I, a)
$$

Sketch of Proof. Choose an irredundant primary decomposition of the ideal $I=Q_{1} \cap Q_{2} \cap \cdots \cap Q_{r}$ such that $\sqrt{Q_{i}}=M_{a_{i}}$ for all $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$. There is a linear map $\varphi: \mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] \rightarrow \oplus_{j=1}^{r} \mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] / Q_{j}$ defined by $f \mapsto\left(f+Q_{1}, f+Q_{2}, \ldots, f+Q_{r}\right)$. Since $\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)=I$, it suffices to show that $\varphi$ is surjective.

For all $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$ and any sufficiently large integer $k$, we have $Q_{i} \supseteq M_{a_{i}}^{k}$, so the quotients

$$
\frac{\mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{M_{a_{j}}^{k}} \rightarrow \frac{\mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{Q_{j}}
$$

are surjective. Hence, the map $\varphi$ is surjective provided that the map $\psi: \mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] \rightarrow \oplus_{j=1}^{r} \mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2} \ldots, x_{n}\right] / M_{a_{j}}^{k}$ is surjective.

We proceed by induction on $r$. The case $r=1$ is straightforward, because we may assume that $a_{1}$ is the origin. For the inductive step, consider the polynomials mapping to zero in $\mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] / M_{a_{j}}^{k}$ for all $1 \leqslant j<r$ which form an ideal $I^{\prime}$. It is enough to show that the induced map $\psi_{r}: I^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] / M_{a_{r}}^{k}$ is surjective. The image of $\psi_{r}$ is an ideal, so it suffices to check it contains a unit-an element that does not vanish at $a_{r}$. For all $1 \leqslant i<r$, let $L_{i}$ be a linear form with $L_{i}\left(a_{i}\right)=0$ but $L_{i}\left(a_{r}\right) \neq 0$. The polynomial $f=\prod_{i=1}^{r-1} L_{i}^{k} \in I^{\prime}$ but $f\left(a_{r}\right) \neq 0$.

### 10.3 The Bézout Theorem

What happens when two plane curves intersect? Using intersection multiplicities, we obtain a beautiful uniform result.
10.3.0 Lemma. For any homogeneous ideal I in $S:=\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ whose Hilbert polynomial $p_{S / I}$ has degree zero, the projective subvariety $\mathrm{V}(I)$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is a finite set of points.

Sketch of Proof. Suppose $\mathrm{V}(I)$ is contains infinity many points. One of the distinguished affine open sets $U_{i} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ contains infinitely many points of $\mathrm{V}(I)$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $i=0$. Let $J$ be the dehomogenization of $I$ with respect to the variable $x_{0}$. It follows that there are surjections

$$
R:=\frac{\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{I} \xrightarrow{\mu_{0}} \xrightarrow{\mathbb{K}\left[y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{n}\right]} \underset{J}{\mathbb{K}\left[U_{0} \cap \mathrm{~V}(J)\right] . . ~}
$$

For any $j \in \mathbb{N}$, set $W_{j}:=\operatorname{im}\left(R_{j} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}\left[U_{0} \cap \mathrm{~V}(J)\right]\right)$; this is the set of functions on $U_{0} \cap \mathrm{~V}(J)$ that can be realized as polynomials of degree at most $j$. We have $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}} W_{j} \leqslant \operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}} R_{j}$. Since $U_{0} \cap \mathrm{~V}(J)$ contains infinitely many points, we deduce that $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}} \mathbb{K}\left[U_{0} \cap \mathrm{~V}(J)\right]=\infty$ and $W_{j}$ is unbounded for $j \gg 0$. On the other hand, $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}} R_{j}$ is bounded because $p_{R}$ is constant which is a contradiction.

Surjectivity of $\psi$ means that there exists a polynomial with prescribed Taylor series of order $k$ at the points $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{r}$.
10.3.1 Lemma. Assume that the field $\mathbb{K}$ is algebraically closed. For any saturated homogeneous ideal I in $S:=\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ whose Hilbert polynomial $p_{S / I}$ is a nonzero constant, the associated primes of I are the ideals $\left\langle a_{1} x_{0}-a_{0} x_{1}, a_{2} x_{0}-a_{0} x_{2}, \ldots, a_{n} x_{n-1}-a_{n-1} x_{n}\right\rangle$ for some point $a \in \mathrm{~V}(I) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}(\mathbb{K})$.

Sketch of Proof. Since $p_{S / I}$ is nonzero, the projective Nullstellensatz establishes that $\mathrm{V}(I)$ is nonempty. The associated primes of any homogeneous ideal are also homogeneous. The only possible embedded prime is $\mathfrak{m}=\left\langle x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle$ which would correspond to an irrelevant primary component. In the saturated case, these do not appear.
10.3.2 Proposition. Assume that the field $\mathbb{K}$ is algebraically closed. For any homogeneous ideal I in the ring $S:=\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ whose Hilbert polynomial $p_{S / I}$ is a nonzero constant, we have

$$
\sum_{a \in \mathrm{~V}(I)} \operatorname{mult}(I, a)=p_{S / I}
$$

10.3.3 Theorem (Bézout 1779). Assume that the field $\mathbb{K}$ is algebraically closed. For any two projective curves $C$ and $D$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ having no common components, we have $\sum_{a \in C \cap D} \operatorname{mult}(\mathrm{I}(C \cap D), a)=\operatorname{deg}(C) \operatorname{deg}(D)$.
10.3.4 Examples. Two quadric curves intersect in four points, some of which may coincide. To properly account for all intersections, we may need to consider complex coordinates or points at infinity.

- Since the intersection of the homogeneous ideals $\left\langle x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle x^{2}+3 y^{2}-2 z^{2}\right\rangle$ is
$\langle x-y, \sqrt{2} y-z\rangle \cap\langle x-y, \sqrt{2} y+z\rangle \cap\langle x+y, \sqrt{2} y-z\rangle \cap\langle x+y, \sqrt{2} y+z\rangle$,
two quadrics can intersect in four distinct points. In this case, the intersection multiplicity at each point is 1 .
- Since the intersection of the homogeneous ideals $\left\langle x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle(x-z)^{2}+y^{2}\right\rangle$ is $\langle x-\mathrm{i} y, z\rangle \cap\langle x+\mathrm{i} y, z\rangle \cap\left\langle x-z, y^{2}\right\rangle$, two quadrics can intersect in three distinct points (two at infinity). In this case, the intersection multiplicity at the point $[1: 0: 1]$ is 2.
- Since the intersection of the homogeneous ideals $\left\langle x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle(x-z)^{2}+4 y^{2}-4 z^{2}\right\rangle$ is

$$
\left\langle x+z, y^{2}\right\rangle \cap\langle 3 x-z, 3 y-2 \sqrt{2} z\rangle \cap\langle 3 x-z, 3 y+2 \sqrt{2} z\rangle
$$

two quadrics can intersect in three distinct points. In this case, the intersection multiplicity at the point $[-1: 0: 1]$ is 2 .

- Since $\left\langle x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}, x^{2}+4 y^{2}-z^{2}\right\rangle=\left\langle x-z, y^{2}\right\rangle \cap\left\langle x+z, y^{2}\right\rangle$, two quadrics can intersect in two distinct points. The intersection multiplicity at both of the points $[ \pm 1: 0: 1]$ is 2 .
- Since the intersection of the homogeneous ideals $\left\langle x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle 5 x^{2}+6 x y+5 y^{2}+6 y z-5 z^{2}\right\rangle$ is

$$
\langle x-z, y\rangle \cap\left\langle y^{2}-2 z(x+z), y(x+z),(x+z)^{2}\right\rangle,
$$

two quadrics can intersect in two distinct points. In this case, the intersection multiplicity at the point $[-1: 0: 1]$ is 3 .

- Since

$$
\left\langle x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}, 4 x^{2}+y^{2}+6 x z+2 z^{2}\right\rangle=\left\langle y^{2}-2 x(x+z),(x+z)^{2}\right\rangle
$$

two quadrics can intersect at a unique point. In this case, the intersection multiplicity at the point $[-1: 0: 1]$ is 4 .

Extending this result to higher-dimensional varieties is an important problem in algebraic geometry. What is the "right" notion of multiplicity?
10.3.5 Example. Consider the subvarieties $X:=\mathrm{V}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \cup \mathrm{V}\left(x_{3}, x_{4}\right)$ and $Y:=\mathrm{V}\left(x_{1}-x_{3}, x_{2}-x_{4}\right)$ in $\mathbb{P}^{4}$. Since
$\frac{\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{4}\right]}{I+J} \cong \frac{\mathbb{K}\left[x_{0}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right]}{\left\langle x_{4}^{2}, x_{3} x_{4}, x_{3}^{2}\right\rangle}=\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{K}}(1) \oplus \bigoplus_{i \geqslant 1} \operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{K}}\left(x_{0}^{i}, x_{0}^{i-1} x_{3}, x_{0}^{i-1} x_{4}\right)$,
we see that $p_{X \cap Y}=3$. However, we also have $p_{X}=t^{2}+3 t+1$ and $p_{Y}=\frac{1}{2} t^{2}+\frac{3}{2} t+1$, so $\operatorname{deg}(X) \operatorname{deg}(Y)=2 \cdot 1=2<3$.

Fixing these problems leads to intersection theory:

- geometric approach: Fulton
- algebraic approach: Vogel
- intersection homology, standard homological conjectures.

