Algebraic Geometry

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Preface

This text is based on the lecture notes of the Mastermath course Algebraic Geometry given during the Spring of 2009 at the UvA by Bas Edixhoven and Lenny Taelman. Those notes were typed, as the course went on, by Michiel Kosters.

In this version for the course in the Spring of 2011 given by Bas Edixhoven, we have included the exercises, an index and a bibliography, and we have incorporated suggestions by Michiel Vermeulen, Remke Kloosterman, Ariyan Javanpeykar, Samuele Anni, Jan Rozendaal.... We have also spent time on better typesetting and on improving minor issues. We thank all those who have contributed to this version.

The reader will see that this course does not give a systematic introduction to algebraic geometry. Instead, we have chosen a clear goal, André Weil's proof of the Riemann hypothesis for curves over finite fields using intersection theory on surfaces. Our approach has the advantage that it gets somewhere, but also the disadvantage that there will be gaps in the exposition, that the reader will have to accept or fill. Nevertheless, we think that this text is a good introduction to algebraic geometry. A student who will not continue in this matter will have seen beautiful mathematics and learned useful material. A student who will continue in this area will be motivated for reading the tougher treatments (ideally, he/she should of course read all of [EGA], and much much more, a quantity of material for which there is unfortunately not enough time in all mastermath courses together), and will have a bigger chance of not getting stuck in technicalities. More seriously, we hope that in the near future a more advanced course in algebraic geometry will be organised in the context of WONDER, the Dutch graduate school in mathematics (Wiskunde Onderzoeksschool), for which both this course and [Looij] are sufficient as background.

This syllabus is divided into 14 lectures. The first two lectures are meant as motivation: the generalisation of Riemann's zeta function to zeta functions of rings of finite type, and the statement of the Hasse-Weil inequality from which the Riemann hypothesis for curves over finite fields follows. After that the theory of algebraic varieties over algebraically closed fields is developped, up to the Riemann-Roch theorem and Serre duality for curves. Lecture 12 establishes. Lecture 13 treats intersection theory on surfaces, and in Lecture 14 this is used to prove the Riemann hypothesis for zeta functions for curves over finite fields.

The prerequisites for this course are the standard undergraduate algebra courses on groups, rings and fields (see for example the syllabi [Stev] (in Dutch), or [Lang]), and some basic topology. No prior knowledge of algebraic geometry is necessary.

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Lecture 1

Introduction: zeta functions and the Riemann hypothesis

1.1 The Riemann zeta function

We start with the definition of the classical Riemann zeta function.

Definition 1.1.1 We define the *Riemann zeta function* as $\zeta(s) = \sum_{n>0} n^{-s}$.

We have some facts about this function.

Fact 1.1.2 The Riemann zeta function $\zeta(s)$ converges absolutely for $\Re(s) > 1$. This can be easily deduced from the fact that for s = a + bi with $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ we have that $|n^{-s}| = |n^{-a}|$ and the fact that $\sum_{n>0} n^{-a}$ converges (absolutely) for a > 1.

Fact 1.1.3 The Riemann zeta function $\zeta(s)$ extends (uniquely) to a holomorphic function on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{1\}$. This extension has the property that $\zeta(-2n) = 0$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.

Conjecture 1.1.4 (Riemann hypothesis) All other zeros $s \in \mathbb{C}$ of the Riemann zeta function ζ satisfy $\Re(s) = 1/2$.

Remark 1.1.5 We also have an Euler product formula for the Riemann zeta function. For $s \in \mathbb{C}$ with $\Re(s) > 1$:

$$\zeta(s) = \prod_{\substack{p > 0 \\ p \text{ prime}}} \frac{1}{(1 - p^{-s})}.$$

This last expression will be generalized to define the zeta function of a ring of finite type.

1.2 Rings of finite type

Definition 1.2.1 Let R be a ring. A generating subset of R is a subset S such that for all rings $R' \subset R$ with $S \subset R'$ we have that R' = R.

Definition 1.2.2 A ring R is said to be of *finite type*, or *finitely generated*, if it has a finite generating subset.

Examples 1.2.3 Here are some examples of rings of finite type:

- i. \mathbb{Z} (take $S = \emptyset$);
- ii. Any finite ring R (take S = R);
- iii. If R is a ring of finite type then so is R[X] (take $S' = S \cup \{X\}$);
- iv. If R is of finite type and $I \subset R$ an ideal then R/I is finitely generated (take $S' = \{\overline{s} : s \in S\}$, where \overline{s} denotes the image of s in R/I).

Examples 1.2.4 Not all rings are of finite type:

- i. $\mathbb{Z}[X_1, X_2, \ldots]$ is not of finite type (given a finite candidate generating set S let $\{X_{i_1}, \ldots, X_{i_k}\}$ be the finite set of variables occurring in the polynomials in S. Then S is contained in the strict subring $\mathbb{Z}[X_{i_1}, \ldots, X_{i_k}]$ of $\mathbb{Z}[X_1, X_2, \ldots]$);
- ii. \mathbb{Q} is not of finite type (given a finite candidate generating set S let N be the least common multiple of the denominators of the elements of S. Take $R' = \mathbb{Z}[1/N] = \{a/N^b : a \in \mathbb{Z}, b \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Then $S \subset R' \subsetneq \mathbb{Q}$.)

Theorem 1.2.5 Let R a ring of finite type which is a field. Then R is a finite field.

For a proof, see [Eis], Theorem 4.19. Chapter 4 of this reference provides the proper context for this result: integral dependence and Hilbert's Nullstellensatz. See also [Looij].

Corollary 1.2.6 Let R be a ring of finite type and $\mathfrak{m} \subset R$ a maximal ideal. Then the quotient R/\mathfrak{m} is a finite field.

1.3 Zeta functions of rings of finite type

Definition 1.3.1 Let R be a ring of finite type. The *zeta function* of R is defined as follows (for $s \in \mathbb{C}$ with $\Re(s)$ sufficiently large):

$$\zeta(R,s) = \prod_{\substack{\mathfrak{m} \subset R\\\mathfrak{m} \text{ maximal ideal}}} \frac{1}{1 - (\#R/\mathfrak{m})^{-s}}$$

Examples 1.3.2

- i. $\zeta(\mathbb{Z}, s) = \zeta(s);$
- ii. $\zeta(\{0\}, s) = 1$ (since there are no maximal ideals);

iii. Let k be a field of q elements. Then $\zeta(k,s) = (1-q^{-s})^{-1}$ (since 0 is the unique maximal ideal).

Fact 1.3.3 Let *R* be a ring of finite type. Then there is a $\rho \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\zeta(R, s)$ converges absolutely for $\Re(s) > \rho$.

Remark 1.3.4 From now on we will manipulate certain products and series without carefully looking at convergence. We implicitly assume that these manipulations are done in the domain of absolute convergence.

1.4. ZETA FUNCTIONS OF \mathbb{F}_P -ALGEBRAS

Proposition 1.3.5 Let R be a ring of finite type. Then

$$\zeta(R,s) = \prod_{\text{primes } p \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}} \zeta(R/(p),s)$$

Proof Let $\mathfrak{m} \subset R$ be a maximal ideal of R. Since R/\mathfrak{m} is a finite field, it has a finite characteristic p > 0. This gives us the element $p = \sum_{i=1}^{p} 1 \in \mathfrak{m}$. Moreover, we have the following bijection, where we only consider maximal ideals:

$$\begin{aligned} \{\mathfrak{m} \subset R | \ p \in \mathfrak{m} \} & \stackrel{1:1}{\longleftrightarrow} & \{\mathfrak{m}' \subset R/(p) \} \\ \mathfrak{m} & \mapsto & \mathfrak{m}/(p) \\ \mathfrak{m}' + (p) & \longleftrightarrow & \mathfrak{m}' \end{aligned}$$

Now recall that

$$R/\mathfrak{m} \cong R/(p)/\mathfrak{m}/(p),$$

so they have the same number of elements.

In general one has the following conjecture (Riemann hypothesis for rings of finite type).

Conjecture 1.3.6 Let R be a ring of finite type. Then $s \mapsto \zeta(R, s)$ extends to a meromorphic function on \mathbb{C} , and for every s in \mathbb{C} at which $\zeta(R, -)$ has a pole or a zero we have $2\Re(s) \in \mathbb{Z}$.

For $R = \mathbb{Z}$ this conjecture is equivalent to the Riemann hypothesis, as the zeros and poles of $\zeta(\mathbb{Z}, -)$ with $\Re(s) > 1$ or $\Re(s) < 0$ are known. The main result of this course implies the conjecture for R that are an \mathbb{F}_p -algebra (for some prime number p) generated by two elements.

1.4 Zeta functions of \mathbb{F}_p -algebras

For p a prime number we denote by \mathbb{F}_p the finite field $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$. A ring R in which p = 0 has the property that *the* ring morphism $\mathbb{Z} \to R$ factors as $\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{F}_p \to R$. Such rings are called \mathbb{F}_p -algebras. Proposition 1.3.5 allows us to express the zeta function of a ring of finite type as a product of zeta functions of \mathbb{F}_p -algebras.

If R is an \mathbb{F}_p -algebra of finite type and $\mathfrak{m} \subset R$ a maximal ideal then R/\mathfrak{m} is a field with $q = p^n$ elements for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$. We write $\deg(\mathfrak{m}) = n$.

Definition 1.4.1 Let R be an \mathbb{F}_p -algebra of finite type. We define Z(R, t) as follows:

$$Z(R,t) = \prod_{\substack{\mathfrak{m} \subset R \\ \mathfrak{m} \text{ maximal ideal}}} \frac{1}{1 - t^{\deg(\mathfrak{m})}} \in \mathbb{Z}[[t]].$$

Remark 1.4.2 Note that $\zeta(R, s) = Z(R, p^{-s})$.

Here is a deep theorem of Bernard Dwork and Alexander Grothendieck that we will not use, nor prove. See [Dwork] and [SGA5].

Theorem 1.4.3 Let p be a prime number and R an \mathbb{F}_p -algebra of finite type. Then there exist f and g in $\mathbb{Z}[t]$ such that Z(R, t) = f/g.

This implies the meromorphic continuation of Conjecture 1.3.6 for \mathbb{F}_p -algebras of finite type. Pierre Deligne has proved Conjecture 1.3.6 for \mathbb{F}_p -algebras of finite type; see [Del].

Now let $\mathbb{F}_p \to \overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$ be an algebraic closure of \mathbb{F}_p and for n in $\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ let \mathbb{F}_{p^n} be the unique subfield of $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$ of p^n elements, that is, \mathbb{F}_{p^n} is the set of roots in $\overline{\mathbb{F}}$ of $X^{p^n} - X$. For R an \mathbb{F}_p -algebra of finite type we let $\nu_n(R)$ be the number of ring morphisms from R to \mathbb{F}_{p^n} .

Remark 1.4.4 Let p be prime and $R = \mathbb{F}_p[X_1, \ldots, X_r]/I$ with I the ideal generated by polynomials f_1, \ldots, f_m . What are the ring morphisms $R \to \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$? We first note that a ring morphism is completely determined by its values at the generators X_i . Suppose a ring morphism sends X_i to $x_i \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$. Since a ring morphism sends 0 to 0, it follows that $f_j(x_1, \ldots, x_r) = 0$ in \mathbb{F}_{p^n} for all j. On the other hand, if we have (x_1, \ldots, x_r) in $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}^r$ such that $f_j(x_1, \ldots, x_r) = 0$ for all j, the ring morphism from $\mathbb{F}_p[X_1, \ldots, X_r]$ to \mathbb{F}_{p^n} that sends X_i to x_i factors through R. Hence we get:

$$\nu_n(R) = \#\{(x_1, \dots, x_r) \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}^r : f_i(x_1, \dots, x_r) = 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, m\}.$$

Definition 1.4.5 The *logarithm* (of power series) is defined as the map

$$\log : 1 + x \mathbb{Q}[[x]] \quad \to \quad \mathbb{Q}[[x]]$$
$$1 - a \in 1 + x \mathbb{Q}[[x]] \quad \mapsto \quad -\sum_{n>0} \frac{a^n}{n}$$

Remark 1.4.6 Note that this sum converges to a formal power series: since x divides a, only finitely many terms contribute to the coefficient of x^n in $\log(1 - a)$.

Fact 1.4.7 The logarithm is a group morphism from the multiplicative group $1 + x\mathbb{Q}[[x]]$ to the additive group $\mathbb{Q}[[x]]$.

The following theorem gives a very convenient expression for Z(R, t).

Theorem 1.4.8 For p prime and R an \mathbb{F}_p -algebra of finite type, we have:

$$\log Z(R,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\nu_n(R)t^n}{n}$$

Proof First of all we have the following bijection:

$$\begin{aligned} \{ \text{ring morphisms } \beta \colon R \to \mathbb{F}_{p^n} \} & \stackrel{\text{l:l}}{\longleftrightarrow} & \{ (\mathfrak{m}, \alpha) \colon \alpha \text{ a ring morphism } R/\mathfrak{m} \to \mathbb{F}_{p^n} \} \\ \beta & \mapsto & (\ker(\beta), \overline{\beta} \colon R/\ker(\beta) \to \mathbb{F}_{p^n}) \\ R \to R/\mathfrak{m} \xrightarrow{\alpha} \mathbb{F}_{p^n} & \longleftrightarrow & (\mathfrak{m}, R/\mathfrak{m} \xrightarrow{\alpha} \mathbb{F}_{p^n}). \end{aligned}$$

Let now \mathfrak{m} be a maximal ideal of R. Note that R/\mathfrak{m} has deg \mathfrak{m} embeddings in \overline{F}_p and that the image of each embedding is $\mathbb{F}_{p^{\deg}(\mathfrak{m})}$. Recall that the subfields of \mathbb{F}_{p^n} are the \mathbb{F}_{p^d} with d dividing n. Hence the number of ring morphisms $R/\mathfrak{m} \to \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ is deg(\mathfrak{m}) if deg(\mathfrak{m}) divides n and is zero otherwise. This gives us:

$$\nu_n(R) = \sum_{d \mid n} d \cdot \# \{ \mathfrak{m} \subset R \mid \deg(\mathfrak{m}) = d \}.$$

Now we just calculate:

$$\log Z(R,t) = \log \prod_{\mathfrak{m}} \frac{1}{1 - t^{\deg(\mathfrak{m})}} = \sum_{\mathfrak{m}} \log \left(\frac{1}{1 - t^{\deg(\mathfrak{m})}} \right) = \sum_{\mathfrak{m}} \sum_{i>0} \frac{t^{i \cdot \deg(\mathfrak{m})}}{i}$$
$$= \sum_{\mathfrak{m}} \sum_{i>0} \frac{t^{i \cdot \deg(\mathfrak{m})}}{i \cdot \deg(\mathfrak{m})} \cdot \deg(\mathfrak{m}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n} \sum_{d|n} d \cdot \#\{\mathfrak{m} \subset R| \ \deg(\mathfrak{m}) = d\} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \nu_n(R) \cdot \frac{t^n}{n}$$

1.5. EXERCISES

1.5 Exercises

Exercise 1.5.1 Let *n* be a positive integer. Compute $\zeta(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, s)$.

Exercise 1.5.2 Let q be a prime power and $R = \mathbb{F}_q[X, Y]/(XY - 1)$. Compute Z(R, t) and show that it is a rational function of t.

Exercise 1.5.3 Same as the previous one but with $R = \mathbb{F}_q[X, Y, Z]/(X + Y^2 + Z^3)$.

Exercise 1.5.4 Same as the previous one but with $R = \mathbb{F}_3[X, Y]/(X^2 + Y^2 + 1)$.

In the following exercises you may assume that $\Re(s)$ is sufficiently large so that all occurring infinite products are absolutely convergent.

Exercise 1.5.5 Let R_1 and R_2 be rings of finite type. Show that $R_1 \times R_2$ is of finite type and that $\zeta(R_1 \times R_2, s) = \zeta(R_1, s)\zeta(R_2, s)$.

Exercise 1.5.6 Show that $\zeta(\mathbb{Z}[X]/(X^n), s) = \zeta(\mathbb{Z}, s)$.

Exercise 1.5.7 Let R be a ring of finite type. Show that R[X] is of finite type and that

$$\zeta(R[X], s) = \zeta(R, s - 1).$$

Exercise 1.5.8 Let *R* be the ring $\mathbb{F}_2[X,Y]/(Y^2 + Y + X^3 + 1)$. Later in this course we will show that there exists an $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ with

$$Z(R,t) = \frac{(1-\alpha t)(1-\bar{\alpha}t)}{1-2t}.$$

In this exercise you may *assume* this. Denote the number of solutions of $y^2 + y + x^3 + 1 = 0$ with x and y in the field \mathbb{F}_{2^n} by ν_n .

- i. Show that $\nu_n = 2^n \alpha^n \bar{\alpha}^n$ for all positive integers n;
- ii. compute ν_1 and ν_2 and use this to determine α ;
- iii. compute ν_3 by counting solutions and verify that the formula obtained in (i) and (ii) is correct in these cases;
- iv. determine all the zeroes of $\zeta(R, s) = Z(R, 2^{-s})$.

Optional exercise: use a computer algebra package to do (iii) for ν_n with larger values of n.

14 LECTURE 1. INTRODUCTION: ZETA FUNCTIONS AND THE RIEMANN HYPOTHESIS

Lecture 2

Hasse-Weil inequality and some compact Riemann surfaces

This week is still intended as introduction to the subject; the real work starts next week.

2.1 The Hasse-Weil inequality

The goal of this course is to present a proof by Weil of the Riemann Hypothesis for curves over finite fields. The main step in this proof is to establish the Hasse-Weil inequality, as in exercise V.1.10 of [Hart]. The statement is as follows (the terminology will be explained later).

Theorem 2.1.1 (Hasse-Weil inequality) Let C be a projective non-singular absolutely irreducible curve over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q . Then:

$$|\#C(\mathbb{F}_q) - (q+1)| \le 2 \cdot g(C) \cdot q^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Remark 2.1.2 This inequality does not look at all like the Riemann Hypothesis, which is about the zeros of ζ -functions. However, to deduce the Riemann Hypothesis for $\zeta(C, s)$ from the Hasse-Weil inequality together with rationality and a functional equation for $\zeta(C, s)$ is not hard. It is one of the exercises in at the end of this lecture, and is the same as exercise 5.7 of Appendix C of [Hart].

Remark 2.1.3 The terminology used in Theorem 2.1.1 will be explained during the course; g(C) is the genus of C, an integer greater than or equal to zero. The aim of *this lecture* is to give some explicit examples of Theorem 2.1.1, and give you some idea what such a C can be, and what its genus is.

Example 2.1.4 (of Theorem 2.1.1) Let q be a prime power, $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$. Let $f \in \mathbb{F}_q[x, y, z]_n$ be a homogeneous polynomial of degree n. Write

$$f = \sum_{\substack{i,j,k \ge 0 \\ i+j+k=n}} f_{i,j,k} x^i y^j z^k$$

and assume that f, $\partial f/\partial x$, $\partial f/\partial y$, $\partial f/\partial z$ have no common zero in $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_q^3 - \{0\}$. In this case the genus is equal to (n-1)(n-2)/2. Then we have:

$$\left|\frac{\#\{(a,b,c)\in\mathbb{F}_q^3-\{0\}:f(a,b,c)=0\}}{q-1}-(q+1)\right|\leq 2\cdot\frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}\sqrt{q}$$

Here one should really think of $\mathbb{P}^2(\mathbb{F}_q) = (\mathbb{F}_q^3 - \{0\})/\mathbb{F}_q^{\times}$, the set of lines through 0 in \mathbb{F}_q^3 ; the "projective plane".

Note that for n equal to 1 or 2 the theorem gives an equality that we can check, and it also shows why we need the "points at ∞ ", that is, why we must "compactify". Indeed, for n = 1 we have a non-zero linear homogeneous polynomial. In $\mathbb{F}_q^3 - \{0\}$ we find $q^2 - 1$ points satisfying the equation given by f, and indeed $(q^2 - 1)/(q - 1) = q + 1$. For the case n = 2 one has to think of parametrising a conic using a rational point.

Projective spaces will be discussed later in more detail. Now, we want to discuss some examples which should clarify the concept "genus" a bit more.

2.2 The Riemann sphere

Consider $\mathbb{C}[x] = \{f : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C} : f \text{ is polynomial}\}$. Notice that the polynomial x is the identity function on \mathbb{C} . We want to view, for some non-zero f in $\mathbb{C}[x]$, its degree deg(f) as the "order of the pole of f at ∞ ".

We do this as follows. For $f = f_0 + f_1 x + \ldots + f_d x^d$ with $f_d \neq 0$ and $z \in \mathbb{C}$ with $z \neq 0$ we have $f(1/z) = f_0 + f_1 z^{-1} + \ldots + f_d z^{-d}$, so $z \mapsto f(1/z)$, $\mathbb{C}^{\times} \to \mathbb{C}$, has a pole of order d at 0. What we are doing can be explained in the following diagram:



We now make a geometric object $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$ using the isomorphism $\mathbb{C}^{\times} \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{C}^{\times}, z \mapsto z^{-1}$.

As a set we take the quotient $q: \mathbb{C} \coprod \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$ of the disjoint union $\mathbb{C} \coprod \mathbb{C} = \mathbb{C} \times \{0, 1\}$ by the equivalence relation \sim given by: $(z, i) \sim (w, j)$ if and only if $((i = j \text{ and } z = w) \text{ or } (i \neq j \text{ and } zw = 1))$. For $z \neq 0$ the element (z, 1) is equivalent to (1/z, 0). The set $\mathbb{C} \times \{0\} \coprod \{(0, 1)\}$ is a set of representatives for \sim , and so q is a bijection from that set to $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$. Hence we can write $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C}) = \mathbb{C} \coprod \{\infty\}$.

We give $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$ the quotient topology: for U a subset of $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$ we let U be open if and only if $q^{-1}U \subset \mathbb{C} \coprod \mathbb{C}$ is open. Here $\mathbb{C} \coprod \mathbb{C} = \mathbb{C} \times \{0,1\}$ has the product topology, where $\{0,1\}$ has the discrete topology.

We also have a notion of holomorphic functions. Later we will describe "regular" functions on "open" subsets of $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$ for a topology to be defined. On \mathbb{C} these regular functions will just be the polynomial ones.

A nice visualisation of $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$ is as follows. We define $D_0 = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| \leq 1\}$ in the first chart $\mathbb{C} \times \{0\}$, and $D_{\infty} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| \leq 1\}$ in the second chart $\mathbb{C} \times \{1\}$. Then the quotient map q glues these two discs along their boundaries via the map $z \mapsto z^{-1}$. As a topological space $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$ is isomorphic to the two-dimensional sphere S^2 . See Wikipedia (Riemann sphere) for more information.

Let $u: \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$, $z \mapsto z$ be the "standard coordinate" on the \mathbb{C} that contains the point at ∞ . Then, on $\mathbb{C}^{\times} \subset \mathbb{C}$, we have $u = x^{-1}$. So in this second chart, on replacing x by u^{-1} , we get the function $f_0 + f_1 u^{-1} + \ldots + f_d u^{-d}$. This function has a pole of order d at the origin of this second chart, that is at ∞ : $\operatorname{ord}_{\infty}(f) = -d$.

Note that $\mathbb{C}[x] = \bigoplus_{i \ge 0} \mathbb{C} \cdot x^i$ is an infinite dimensional \mathbb{C} -vectorspace. Now the philosophy is that on a compact space, such as $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$, imposing suitable conditions at all points gives finite dimensional vector spaces of functions. These dimensions will mean something (we will see this later).

2.3. A FAMILY OF COMPACT CURVES

In this case, for $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$, the \mathbb{C} -vector space

$$\{f \in \mathbb{C}[x] : \operatorname{ord}_{\infty}(f) \ge -m\}$$

is the space $\mathbb{C}[x]_{\leq m}$ of polynomials of degree at most m. It has a basis $(1, x, \ldots, x^m)$. It has dimension m + 1. Note that there are no gaps in the sense that for all m in $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ there is an f in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ such that $\operatorname{ord}_{\infty}(f) = -m$. This relfects the fact that the genus of $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$ is zero: it is a sphere with zero handles attached to it.

2.3 A family of compact curves

In this section we construct some more complicated compact surfaces.

Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$. Let $f_n := -y^n + x^{n-1} - 1 \in \mathbb{C}[x, y]$. We consider f_n as a function from \mathbb{C}^2 to \mathbb{C} . Now let

$$C := \{(a,b) \in \mathbb{C}^2 : f_n(a,b) = 0\} = \{(a,b) \in \mathbb{C}^2 : b^n = a^{n-1} - 1\}.$$

We give C the topology induced by the (usual) topology on \mathbb{C}^2 . On this C we have the projection x on the first coordinate induced from the projection of the first coordinate on \mathbb{C}^2 . This projection has the following property for $a \in \mathbb{C}$:

$$\#x^{-1}\{a\} = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } a^{n-1} \neq 1; \\ 1 & \text{if } a^{n-1} = 1. \end{cases}$$

In particular, C is not bounded (as a subset of \mathbb{C}^2) and hence not compact.

We compactify C as follows. We start with the equation $y^n = x^{n-1} - 1$. If we replace x by u^{-1} and y by $u^{-1}v$ we obtain the equation $v^n = u - u^n$, which corresponds to the curve C'. In a diagram this looks as follows:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} C & \supset & C \cap (\mathbb{C}^{\times} \times \mathbb{C}) & \stackrel{\sim}{\longrightarrow} & C' \cap (\mathbb{C}^{\times} \times \mathbb{C}) & \subset & C' := \{(c,d) \in \mathbb{C}^2 | \ d^n = c - c^n\} \\ & \cap & & \cap & & \cap \\ & & \cap & & & \cap \\ & & \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C} & \supset & \mathbb{C}^{\times} \times \mathbb{C} & \stackrel{\sim}{\longrightarrow} & \mathbb{C}^{\times} \times \mathbb{C} & \subset & \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C} \end{array}$$

$$(a,b) \longmapsto (a^{-1}, ba^{-1})$$

$$(c^{-1}, dc^{-1}) \longleftrightarrow (c, d)$$

On the $\mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C}$ at the left in the diagram we have coordinates x, y, and on the $\mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C}$ at the right we have coordinates u, v. These coordinates are related by $x = u^{-1}$, $y = vu^{-1}$ and $u = x^{-1}$, $v = yx^{-1}$. Notice that $(-y^n + x^{n-1} - 1)x^{-n} = -(y/x)^n + 1/x - 1/x^n = -v^n + u - u^n$. We obtain a map to $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$ as follows:

This map x is well defined since if $a \neq 0$ then the point (a, b) on the first chart is mapped to a on the first chart of $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$, and the corresponding point $(a^{-1}, a^{-1}b)$ is mapped to a^{-1} on the second chart of $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$, and these points coincide in $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$.

Let us prove that \overline{C} is compact: \overline{C} is covered by the two sets

$$\{(a,b): b^n = a^{n-1} - 1, |a| \le 1\} \quad \text{and}\{(c,d): d^n = c - c^n, |c| \le 1\}.$$

Both are closed and bounded in \mathbb{C}^2 , hence compact.

Also notice that \overline{C} is non-singular: f_n , $\partial f_n/\partial x$, and $\partial f_n/\partial y$ have no common zeros in \mathbb{C}^2 , and similarly for the equation on the second chart, $-v^n + u - u^n$, $1 - u^{n-1}$, and nv^{n-1} .

Note that $x^{-1}\{\infty\} = u^{-1}\{0\} = \{(0,0)\} =: \infty_{\overline{C}}$. And as $n \ge 2$, the curve C' with equation $-v^n + u - u^n = 0$ is tangent to the v-axis.

In order to proceed, we must know the order at ∞ of the functions x, y, u and v. We start with v. We find the zeros of v on C' by solving the equations $v^n = u - u^n$ and v = 0. Substituting v = 0 in the first equation gives $u(1 - u^{n-1}) = 0$, which has 0 as a solution with multiplicity one. Hence v has a simple zero at ∞ : $\operatorname{ord}_{\infty}(v) = 1$. Likewise, to find the zeros of u on C' we solve the equations $v^n = u - u^n$ and u = 0. Substituting u = 0 in the first equation gives $v^n = 0$, which has 0 as solution with multiplicity n. Therefore, $\operatorname{ord}_{\infty}(u) = n$. Now we recall that $x = u^{-1}$, hence $\operatorname{ord}_{\infty}(x) = -n$. And as $y = vu^{-1}$, $\operatorname{ord}_{\infty}(y) = 1 - n$.

We can now look at the dimension of some vector spaces again. We look at

$$\begin{split} \{f: C \to \mathbb{C} | \ f \text{ ``regular''}\} &= \mathbb{C}[x, y] / (-y^n + x^{n-1} - 1) \\ &= \bigoplus_{\substack{0 \leq i \\ 0 \leq j < n}} \mathbb{C} \cdot x^i y^j. \end{split}$$

In the last step we did division with remainder by $-y^n + x^{n-1} - 1$ in $\mathbb{C}[x][y]$, hence viewed as monic polynomial in y with coefficients in $\mathbb{C}[x]$.

For $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ we define

$$l(\overline{C}, m \cdot \infty) := \dim_{\mathbb{C}} \{ f \colon C \to \mathbb{C} \text{ "regular"} : \operatorname{ord}_{\infty}(f) \ge -m \}.$$

Notice that $-\operatorname{ord}_{\infty}(x^i y^j) = in + j(n-1)$, and that all these values are distinct:

$$in+j(n-1)=i'n+j'(n-1) \Longleftrightarrow n(i-i')=(n-1)(j'-j)$$

This implies that n|(j'-j) and hence j = j' and i = i'. So

$$l(\overline{C}, m \cdot \infty) = \#\{(i, j) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 | \ 0 \le i, \ 0 \le j < n, \ in + j(n-1) \le m\}.$$

Before we actually compute this number for $m \gg 0$, we do a few examples.

- n = 2: $-\operatorname{ord}_{\infty}(x) = 2$, $-\operatorname{ord}_{\infty}(y) = 1$. Observe that $\langle 1, 2 \rangle = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \ldots\}$, so there are no gaps and hence $l(\overline{C}, m \cdot \infty) = m + 1$.
- n = 3: We have $\langle 2, 3 \rangle = \{0, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, ...\}$ so there is 1 gap and $l(\overline{C}, m \cdot \infty) = m + 1 1 = m$ for $m \ge 1$.
- n = 4: We have (3,4) = {0,3,4,6,7,8,...}. This time we have 3 gaps 1, 2, 5, so for m ≥ 5 we have l(C, m·∞) = m + 1 3 = m 2.

We will now compute the general case:

$$l(\overline{C}, m \cdot \infty) = \#\{(i, j) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : 0 \le i, \ 0 \le j \le n - 1, \ ni + (n - 1)j \le m\}.$$

The reader is strongly advised to draw a picture of the region in \mathbb{R}^2 defined by these four inequalities.

First a bit of notation: for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ write $x = \lfloor x \rfloor + \langle x \rangle$ with $\lfloor x \rfloor \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\langle x \rangle \in [0, 1)$. For $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ we have $\langle x/n \rangle = (x \mod n)/n$.

2.4. EXERCISES

Assume that $m \ge n(n-1)$. We then obtain:

$$\begin{split} l(\overline{C}, m \cdot \infty) &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \left(\lfloor \frac{m - j(n-1)}{n} \rfloor + 1 \right) \\ &= n + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \lfloor \frac{m - j(n-1)}{n} \rfloor \\ &= n + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{m - j(n-1)}{n} - \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \langle \frac{m - j(n-1)}{n} \rangle \\ &= n + n \cdot \frac{m}{n} - \frac{n-1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot n(n-1) - \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{(m+j) \text{mod}(n)}{n} \\ &= m + n - \frac{1}{2}(n-1)^2 - \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{j}{n} \\ &= m + n - \frac{1}{2}(n-1)^2 - \frac{1}{2}(n-1) \\ &= m + 1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}(n-1)^2 - \frac{1}{2}(n-1)\right) \\ &= m + 1 - \frac{1}{2}(n-1)(n-2) \end{split}$$

This (n-1)(n-2)/2 is the genus of \overline{C} .

It is a fact that the series of gaps depends on the point of \overline{C} (we used ∞ here), but the number of gaps depends only on \overline{C} . One of the exercises below shows that the number (n-1)(n-2)/2 is determined by the topological space of \overline{C} (\overline{C} is a sphere with g = (n-1)(n-2)/2 handles attached to it).

2.4 Exercises

Exercise 2.4.1 Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$, and let C, C' and \overline{C} be as in Section 2.3. The aim of this exercise is to understand where the topological space \overline{C} of this lecture lies in the classification of compact oriented connected surfaces. The purpose is to see the relation between the genus of \overline{C} (as in the lecture) and the topology of \overline{C} . If you have not much background in algebraic topology, then don't worry: these exercises are there for illustrative purposes only.

- i. Show that the maps $x: C \to \mathbb{C}$, $(a, b) \mapsto a$ and $u: C' \to \mathbb{C}$, $(c, d) \mapsto c$ are compatible with the gluing isomorphism, and give a map $x: \overline{C} \to \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$.
- ii. For each point P in $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$, determine $\#x^{-1}\{P\}$.
- iii. Convince yourself that \overline{C} is a compact, oriented connected surface.
- iv. Let $R \subset \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$ be the set of P with $\#x^{-1}\{P\} < n$. Give a triangulation of $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$ such that its set V of vertices contains R.
- v. Convince yourself that \overline{C} is triangulated by the closures of the connected components of the $x^{-1}f^o$, where f runs through the faces of your triangulation and where f^o denotes the interior of f.
- vi. Let \tilde{V} , \tilde{E} , and \tilde{F} denote the sets of vertices, edges and faces of the triangulation of \overline{C} . Compute $\#\tilde{V}$, $\#\tilde{E}$, and $\#\tilde{F}$, and the Euler characteristic of \overline{C} .
- vii. For $g \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$, compute the Euler characteristic of the sphere with g handles.

viii. Conclude that \overline{C} is a sphere with (n-1)(n-2)/2 handles, and note that this number is the genus of \overline{C} as in the lecture.

Exercise 2.4.2 This is exercise 5.7 of Appendix C of [Hart] (the very last exercise of the book!), with some explanations added. It shows how the Riemann hypothesis for the zeta function of (non-singular, projective, absolutely irreducible) curves over finite fields follows from the Hasse-Weil inequality, plus rationality and functional equation. You do not need to know what a curve is, for this exercise.

Let q be a prime power, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}, \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{2g} \in \mathbb{C}$ and let Z(t) in $\mathbb{C}(t)$ be the rational function with:

$$Z(t) = \frac{P_1(t)}{(1-t)(1-qt)}, \quad P_1(t) = \prod_{i=1}^{2g} (1-\alpha_i t).$$

i. Define the complex numbers ν_n $(n \ge 1)$ by:

$$\log Z(t) = \sum_{n \ge 1} \frac{\nu_n}{n} t^n$$

Show that $\nu_n = q^n + 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{2g} \alpha_i^n$.

ii. Assume that for all $n \ge 1$: $|q^n + 1 - \nu_n| \le 2gq^{n/2}$. Prove that for all $n \ge 1$:

$$\left|\sum_{i=1}^{2g} \alpha_i^n\right| \le 2gq^{n/2}.$$

iii. (This is the essential step!) Prove that for all $i: |\alpha_i| \le q^{1/2}$. Hints. There are at least two strategies. First, you can consider the power series expansion of $\sum_{i=1}^{2g} \alpha_i t/(1 - \alpha_i t)$ and use a little bit of complex function theory. Or as follows, by contradiction: assume that for some *i* one has $|\alpha_i| > q^{1/2}$. Renumber the α_i such that the first *m* are non-zero, and the others are zero. Let

$$\beta = (\alpha_1/|\alpha_1|, \dots, \alpha_m/|\alpha_m|) \in (S^1)^m$$

be the *m*-tuple of arguments of the α_i . Show that the sequence $(\beta^n)_{n\geq 1}$ has a convergent subsequence. Show that it has a subsequence that converges to $1 = (1, \ldots, 1)$. Get a contradiction.

iv. Assume that Z(t) satisfies the following functional equation:

$$Z(1/qt) = q^{1-g} t^{2-2g} Z(t)$$

Prove that for all $i \in \{1, ..., 2g\}$ there is a $j \in \{1, ..., 2g\}$ such that $\alpha_i \alpha_j = q$. Deduce that for all $i: |\alpha_i| = q^{1/2}$, and that all the zeros of $\zeta(s) := Z(q^{-s})$ have real part equal to 1/2.

Lecture 3

Affine space and algebraic sets

In this lecture we will basically treat Section I.1 of [Hart]. Let k be an algebraically closed field. Note that k is not a finite field.

3.1 The Zariski topology

Definition 3.1.1 For n in \mathbb{N} we define *affine* n-space, denoted by \mathbb{A}^n , as k^n . Elements of \mathbb{A}^n will be called points. Furthermore, \mathbb{A}^1 is called the *affine line* and \mathbb{A}^2 is called the *affine plane*.

Let $A = k[x_1, ..., x_n]$. We can view an element f of A as a function from \mathbb{A}^n to k by evaluating f at point of \mathbb{A}^n .

Definition 3.1.2 We define the zero set of an f in A to be $Z(f) = \{p \in \mathbb{A}^n : f(p) = 0\}$. For $S \subset A$ we define $Z(S) = \{p \in \mathbb{A}^n : \forall f \in S, f(p) = 0\}$.

Example 3.1.3 Let S be the subset $\{x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1, x_1\}$ of $k[x_1, x_2]$. Then $Z(S) = \{(0, 1), (0, -1)\} \subset \mathbb{A}^2$.

Remark 3.1.4 Let $S \subset A$ and $I \subset A$ be the ideal generated by S. Then Z(I) = Z(S), by the following argument. Since $S \subset I$, we obviously have $Z(I) \subset Z(S)$. On the other hand, let $p \in Z(S)$ and $f \in I$. Write f as a finite sum $f = \sum_{s \in S} f_s s$ with f_s in A. Then $f(p) = \sum_s f_s(p)s(p) = 0$. Hence p is in Z(I). Therefore we also have the other inclusion $Z(I) \subset Z(S)$.

Definition 3.1.5 A subset $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is called *algebraic* if there exists some $S \subset A$ such that Y = Z(S). By the previous remark we can replace "some $S \subset A$ " by "some ideal $I \subset A$ " without changing the meaning.

Example 3.1.6 We consider the case n = 1. Since A = k[x] is a principal ideal domain (every non-zero ideal is generated by its monic element of smallest degree; use division with remainder), the algebraic subsets are of the form Z((f)) = Z(f) for some f in A. If f = 0 we get $Z(0) = \mathbb{A}^1$. If $f \neq 0$ then f has only a finite number of zeros, hence Z(f) is a finite set. On the other hand for every finite subset Y of \mathbb{A}^1 we have $Y = Z(\prod_{p \in Y} (x-p))$. This shows that the algebraic subsets of \mathbb{A}^1 are \mathbb{A}^1 itself together with the finite subsets of \mathbb{A}^1 .

Proposition 3.1.7 Let n be in \mathbb{N} .

- i. Let $Y_1, Y_2 \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be algebraic sets. Then $Y_1 \cup Y_2$ is an algebraic set.
- ii. If $\{Y_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha}$ is a collection of algebraic subsets of \mathbb{A}^n , then $\cap_{\alpha} Y_{\alpha} \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is algebraic.

- iii. \mathbb{A}^n is algebraic.
- iv. \emptyset is algebraic.

Proof i. We claim that for S_1 and S_2 subsets of A we have

$$Z(S_1) \cup Z(S_2) = Z(S_1S_2), \quad \text{where} \quad S_1S_2 = \{ fg : f \in S_1, \ g \in S_2 \}.$$

Obviously we have $Z(S_1) \cup Z(S_2) \subset Z(S_1S_2)$. For the other inclusion, assume that $p \in Z(S_1S_2)$ and $p \notin Z(S_1)$. Then there is an f in S_1 such that $f(p) \neq 0$. But we have for all g in S_2 that 0 = (fg)(p) = f(p)g(p). Since $f(p) \neq 0$, we get that g(p) = 0 for all $g \in S_2$, and hence $p \in Z(S_2)$.

- ii. We obviously have $Z(\cup_{\alpha}S_{\alpha}) = \cap_{\alpha}Z(S_{\alpha})$.
- iii. Note that $Z(\emptyset) = Z(0) = \mathbb{A}^1$.
- iv. Note that $Z(1) = \emptyset$.

Corollary 3.1.8 The algebraic subsets of \mathbb{A}^n are the closed subsets of a topology on \mathbb{A}^n . We will call this topology the Zariski topology.

Remark 3.1.9 By Example 3.1.6 the Zariski topology on \mathbb{A}^1 is equal to the co-finite topology on \mathbb{A}^1 .

Definition 3.1.10 On a subset $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ we define the *Zariski topology* as the induced topology from the Zariski topology on \mathbb{A}^n .

Definition 3.1.11 A topological space X is *irreducible* if (1) $X \neq \emptyset$ and (2) if $X = Z_1 \cup Z_2$ with Z_1 and Z_2 closed subsets of X then $Z_1 = X$ or $Z_2 = X$.

Examples 3.1.12 The affine line \mathbb{A}^1 is irreducible, since \mathbb{A}^1 is infinite. The real line \mathbb{R} with its usual topology is not irreducible, because $\mathbb{R} = (-\infty, 0] \cup [0, \infty)$.

Remark 3.1.13 Let Y be a non-empty subset of \mathbb{A}^n . Then Y is irreducible if and only if for all closed subsets Z_1 and Z_2 of \mathbb{A}^n with $Y \subset Z_1 \cup Z_2$ one has $Y \subset Z_1$ or $Y \subset Z_2$.

3.2 The Nullstellensatz

Let n be in N and $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Recall that k is an algebraically closed field. In the previous subsection we defined a map:

 $Z: \{ \text{subsets of } A \} \to \{ \text{closed subsets of } \mathbb{A}^n \}.$

We would like to "invert" this map Z. Note that Z is surjective, but not injective, not even when we restrict to the set of ideals: for example $Z((x)) = Z((x^2)) \subset \mathbb{A}^1$. The problem comes from the fact that if $f^m(p) = 0$ for some $f \in A$ and $m \ge 1$ then f(p) = 0 as well.

Definition 3.2.1 We define the following map:

$$I : \{ \text{subsets of } \mathbb{A}^n \} \to \{ \text{ideals of } A \}$$
$$Y \mapsto I(Y) := \{ f \in A : \forall p \in Y, \ f(p) = 0 \}$$

Definition 3.2.2 A ring R is *reduced* if its only nilpotent element is 0 (examples: integral domain, fields, products of integral domains, subrings of reduced rings). An ideal I in a ring R is *radical* if for all a in R and m in $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ such that $a^r \in I$, a is in I.

Remark 3.2.3 Let R be a ring and I an ideal in R. Then I is radical if and only if R/I is reduced.

Example 3.2.4 In the ring k[x] the ideal (x) is radical but (x^2) is not.

For any subset Y of \mathbb{A}^n the ideal I(Y) is radical. Hence the image of the map I in Definition 3.2.1 is contained in the set of radical ideals. Hilbert's famous Nullstellensatz says that when we restrict to this set of ideals, the maps Z and I are inverses of each other.

Theorem 3.2.5 (Nullstellensatz, Hilbert, 1893) Let n be in \mathbb{N} . The maps Z and I above, when restricted to the set of radical ideals in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ and the set of closed subsets of \mathbb{A}^n are inverses of each other. They reverse the partial orderings on these sets given by inclusion: for I and J radical ideals in A we have $I \subset J \Leftrightarrow Z(I) \supset Z(J)$.

We encourage the reader to see [Eis], Chapter 4, Theorem 1.6, or see [Looij] for a proof. The two ingredients that go into the proofs given there are the (immediate) generalisation of Theorem 1.2.5 to k-algebras of finite type, plus the basic fact that if R is a ring and f in R is not nilpotent, then the ring R[x]/(xf-1) is not zero.

Definition 3.2.6 An *integral domain* is a ring R such that (1) $1 \neq 0$ in R and (2) for $a \neq 0$ and $b \neq 0$ in R, $ab \neq 0$. A *prime ideal* of a ring R is an ideal I of R such that R/I is an integral domain.

Remark 3.2.7 Let *I* be an ideal in a ring *R*. The following two properties are each equivalent with *I* being prime:

i. $I \neq R$ and for all $x, y \in R$ we have that $xy \in I \implies x \in I$ or $y \in I$;

ii. $I \neq R$ and for all ideals $J, K \subset R$ we have that $JK \subset I \implies J \subset I$ or $K \subset I$.

We let the reader verify that maximal ideals are prime, and prime ideals are radical, and show by examples that the converse statements are not true.

Proposition 3.2.8 Let $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be closed. Then:

- i. I(Y) is a maximal ideal if and only if Y consists of a single point;
- ii. I(Y) is a prime ideal if and only if Y is irreducible.

Proof We start with i. Assume that I(Y) is a maximal ideal. Then $Y \neq \emptyset$, since the radical ideal that corresponds to the empty set under the bijection from the Nullstellensatz is A. So by the Nullstellensatz Y is a minimal non-empty algebraic set. Since points are closed, Y is a point.

Now assume that Y is a point, say $Y = \{p\}$. The evaluation map $A \to k$, $f \mapsto f(p)$ is surjective, and its kernel is I(Y), by definition. Hence A/I(Y) = k and I(Y) is a maximal ideal.

Now we prove ii. Assume that I(Y) is a prime ideal of A and that $Y \subset Z_1 \cup Z_2$ with Z_1 and $Z_2 \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ closed. Then

$$I(Z_1)I(Z_2) \subset I(Z_1) \cap I(Z_2) = I(Z_1 \cup Z_2) \subset I(Y).$$

Hence by Remark 3.2.7 $I(Z_1) \subset I(Y)$ or $I(Z_2) \subset I(Y)$. So $Y \subset Z_1$ or $Y \subset Z_2$. So, Y is irreducible.

On the other hand suppose that Y is irreducible, we show that I(Y) is a prime ideal. Suppose $fg \in I(Y)$. Then $Y \subset Z(fg) = Z(f) \cup Z(g)$. Hence $Y \subset Z(f)$ or $Y \subset Z(g)$ by the irreducibility of Y. So we have that $f \in I(Y)$ or $g \in I(Y)$. So, I(Y) is a prime ideal. \Box

Corollary 3.2.9 \mathbb{A}^n is irreducible.

Proof The ring $A = k[x_1, ..., x_n]$ is an integral domain, so $(0) \subset A$ is a prime ideal, hence by the previous proposition $\mathbb{A}^n = Z((0))$ is irreducible.

Definition 3.2.10 Let $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be a subset. We define A(Y) to be A/I(Y).

If f and g are elements of A with $f-g \in I(Y)$ then f(p) = g(p) for all $p \in Y$. So elements of the quotient ring A(Y) can be interpreted as functions from Y to k. We note that if Y is irreducible, then A(Y) is an integral domain.

3.3 Decomposition of closed sets in \mathbb{A}^n

Definition 3.3.1 A ring R is called *Noetherian* if every ideal of R is finitely generated, or equivalently, if for every chain of ideals $I_1 \subset I_2 \subset \cdots$ there is an r such that $I_r = I_{r+1} = \cdots$.

Theorem 3.3.2 (Hilbert basis theorem) If R is Noetherian, then so is R[x].

See [Eis], Chapter 4, or [Looij] for a proof. The main ingredient of the proof is the "leading term" of a non-zero element of R[x].

Corollary 3.3.3 The $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is Noetherian.

If $Y_1 \supset Y_2 \supset Y_3 \supset \ldots$ are closed subsets of \mathbb{A}^n , then there is an r > 0 such that $I(Y_r) = I(Y_{r+1}) = \cdots$ so by the Nullstellensatz we conclude that $Y_r = Y_{r+1} = \cdots$.

Proposition 3.3.4 If $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is closed then $Y = Y_1 \cup \ldots \cup Y_t$ for a finite collection of closed and irreducible $Y_i \subset \mathbb{A}^n$.

Proof Assume Y is not a finite union of closed irreducibles, in particular Y is not irreducible. So we can write $Y = Z_1 \cup Z_2$ with $Z_1 \subsetneq Y$, $Z_2 \subsetneq Y$ and Z_1, Z_2 closed. Hence at least one of Z_1, Z_2 is not a finite union of closed irreducibles, say Z_1 . Put $Y_1 = Z_1$ and repeat. This gives us an infinite strictly decreasing chain, a contradiction.

Proposition 3.3.5 If $Y = Y_1 \cup Y_2 \cup \cdots \cup Y_t$ with Y_i closed, irreducible and with the property that $Y_i \subset Y_j \implies i = j$, then the Y_i are uniquely determined by Y up to ordering.

Proof Let $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be closed. Assume $Y'_1 \cup \cdots \cup Y'_s = Y = Y_1 \cup \cdots \cup Y_t$ with Y_i and Y'_i irreducible, closed and $Y_i \subset Y_j \implies i = j$ and $Y'_i \subset Y'_j \implies i = j$. Assume that the two decompositions are different. Without loss of generality we may assume that there is an i with $Y_i \neq Y'_j$ for all j. Then we have $Y_i = Y_i \cap Y = (Y_i \cap Y'_1) \cup \cdots \cup (Y_i \cap Y'_s)$. Since Y_i is irreducible we obtain $Y_i \subset (Y_i \cap Y'_j)$ for some j. So $Y_i \subset Y'_j$. Now repeat the above argument to find a k such that $Y'_j \subset Y_k$. So $Y_i \subset Y'_j \subset Y_k$, hence $Y_i = Y_k$ and $Y_i = Y'_j$, contradiction.

3.4 Dimension

Definition 3.4.1 If $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is irreducible, then $\dim(Y)$ is the biggest integer m such that there is a chain $Y = Y_m \supseteq Y_{m-1} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq Y_0 = \{\text{pt}\}$ with $Y_i \subset Y$ irreducible and closed (in Y).

Example 3.4.2 dim $\mathbb{A}^1 = 1$, since the longest chain is $\mathbb{A}^1 \supseteq \{ pt \}$.

Theorem 3.4.3 Let *n* be in \mathbb{N} and *Y* an irreducible subset of \mathbb{A}^n . Then dim(*Y*) is the transcendence degree of the field of fractions of the integral domain A(Y) as extension of *k*. In particular, dim(\mathbb{A}^n) = *n*.

See [Eis], Chapter 13, Theorem 13.1 and Theorem A.

Proposition 3.4.4 Let $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be closed and irreducible. Then $\dim(Y) = n - 1$ if and only if Y = Z(f) for some irreducible $f \in A$.

Warning 3.4.5 One may be tempted to believe that something more general is true: that for every closed irreducible $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ of dimension d there are $f_1, \ldots, f_{n-d} \in A$ so that $Y = Z((f_1, \ldots, f_{n-d}))$. This is *wrong* in general.

Definition 3.4.6 A closed irreducible algebraic subset Y is called a *hypersurface in* \mathbb{A}^n if dim(Y) = n-1 or equivalently Y = Z(f) for some irreducible $f \in A$. An irreducible algebraic subset $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ of dimension 1 is called an *affine curve*. An irreducible algebraic subset $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ of dimension 2 is called an *affine surface*.

3.5 Application: the theorem of Cayley-Hamilton

Theorem 3.5.1 (Cayley-Hamilton) Let a be an m by m matrix over k and let $P_a \in k[X]$ be its characteristic polynomial, then $P_a(a) = 0$.

Lemma 3.5.2 If a has m distinct eigenvalues, then $P_a(a) = 0$.

Proof Assume that a has no multiple eigenvalues. Then a is diagonisable, so $a = qdq^{-1}$ for some invertible matrix q and a diagonal matrix d. We find that $P_a(a) = qP_a(d)q^{-1} = 0$.

Proof (of Theorem 3.5.1) Put $n = m^2$ and view \mathbb{A}^n with the set of all m by m matrices over k by ordering the coefficients in some way.

Let $Z_1 \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be the subset of all matrices a that satisfy $P_a(a) = 0$. Note that Z_1 is closed since it is defined by n polynomials in the entries of a.

Let $Z_2 \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be the subset of all matrices a that have multiple eigenvalues. Also Z_2 is closed since $a \in Z_2$ if and only if the discriminant of P_a is zero, and the discriminant of P_a is a polynomial in the entries of a.

The lemma shows that $\mathbb{A}^n = Z_1 \cup Z_2$. Also $\mathbb{A}^n \neq Z_2$ since there exist matrices without multiple eigenvalues. By the irreducibility of \mathbb{A}^n (Corollary 3.2.9) we conclude that $\mathbb{A}^n = Z_1$, which proves the theorem.

3.6 Exercises

Exercise 3.6.1 Let $Y = \{P_1, \dots, P_r\} \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be a finite set consisting of r distinct points. Give generators for the ideal $I(Y) \subset k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$.

Exercise 3.6.2 ([Hart, I.1.1])

- i. Let $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^2$ be the zero set of $y x^2$. Show that A(Y) is isomorphic to a polynomial ring in one variable.
- ii. Let $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^2$ be the zero set of xy 1. Show that A(Y) is not isomorphic to a polynomial ring in one variable.

Exercise 3.6.3 Let $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^2$ be the zero set of $x^2 + y^2 - 1$. Show that A(Y) is not isomorphic to a polynomial ring in one variable if the characteristic of k is different from 2. What is A(Y) if k is of characteristic 2?

Exercise 3.6.4 Let $X \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be an irreducible closed subset. Show that X, endowed with the Zariski topology, is connected.

Exercise 3.6.5 Show that the map $\mathbb{A}^n \to \mathbb{A}^1$ defined by a polynomial $f \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is continuous when both \mathbb{A}^n and \mathbb{A}^1 are endowed with the Zariski topology.

Exercise 3.6.6 ([Hart, I.1.3]) Let $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^3$ be the common zero set of the polynomials $x^2 - yz$ and xz - x. Show that Y is the union of three irreducible components. Describe them and find their prime ideals.

Exercise 3.6.7 ([Hart, I.1.4]) If one identifies \mathbb{A}^2 with $\mathbb{A}^1 \times \mathbb{A}^1$ in the natural way, show that the Zariski topology on \mathbb{A}^2 is not the product topology of the Zariski topologies on the two copies of \mathbb{A}^1 .

Exercise 3.6.8 Assume that the characteristic of k is not 3. Show that the common zero set in \mathbb{A}^3 of the polynomials $x^2 - yz$ and $y^2 - xz$ is the union of four irreducible components. Describe them and find their prime ideals.

Exercise 3.6.9 Let $X \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be an irreducible closed subset and let $U \subset X$ be a non-empty open subset. Show that U is dense in X.

Exercise 3.6.10 ([Hart, I.1.5]) Show that a k-algebra B is isomorphic to A(Y) for some algebraic set Y in some affine space \mathbb{A}^n if and only if B is a finitely generated k-algebra that is reduced.

Lecture 4

Projective space and its algebraic sets

In this lecture we discuss a part of Section I.2 of [Hart], although rather differently, putting more emphasis on the origin of the graded rings that enter the stage. The reader is advised to read that section of [Hart] separately. As in the previous lecture, we let k be an algebraically closed field.

4.1 \mathbb{P}^n as a set

In this section, we do not need the assumption that k is algebraically closed.

Definition 4.1.1 For $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ we define the *projective n-space* \mathbb{P}^n as the quotient of $k^{n+1} - \{0\}$ by the equivalence relation \sim , where $a \sim b \iff \exists \lambda \in k^{\times}$ such that $b = \lambda a$.

Remarks 4.1.2 i. ~ is the equivalence relation given by the action of k^{\times} on $k^{n+1} - \{0\}$: $(\lambda, a) \mapsto \lambda \cdot a$. So $a \sim b \iff a$ and b are in the same orbit under this action of k^{\times} .

ii. $a \sim b \iff k \cdot a = k \cdot b \iff a$ and b lie on the same line through the origin. So we can view \mathbb{P}^n as the set $\{k \cdot a : a \in k^{n+1} - \{0\}\}$ of 1-dimensional k-vector spaces in k^{n+1} .

Remark 4.1.3 If $k = \mathbb{R}$, then $\mathbb{P}^n = S^n / \sim$ where $a \sim b \iff a = \pm b$, so we identify antipodal points.

Notation 4.1.4 Let $q: k^{n+1} - \{0\} \to \mathbb{P}^n$ be the quotient map. For $a = (a_0, \ldots, a_n)$ in $k^{n+1} - \{0\}$ we write $q(a_0, \ldots, a_n) = (a_0 : \cdots : a_n)$. These are the so called *homogeneous coordinates*, and the ":" (colons) express the fact that we are dealing with ratios.

Examples 4.1.5 In these examples, we will discuss \mathbb{P}^n for certain n.

i. $\mathbb{P}^0 = (k^1 - \{0\}) / \sim = \{(1)\}, \mathbb{P}^0 \text{ is a 1-point set.}$ ii. $\mathbb{P}^1 = \{(a_0, a_1) \in k^2 : (a_0, a_1) \neq (0, 0)\} / \sim = \{(a : 1) : a \in k\} \sqcup \{(1 : 0)\} = \mathbb{A}^1 \sqcup \{\infty\}.$ iii We can generalise the procedure for n = 1 to the general case as follows:

$$\mathbb{P}^{n} = \{(a_{0}:\dots:a_{n-1}:1):a_{0},\dots,a_{n-1}\in k\} \sqcup \{(a_{0}:\dots:a_{n-1}:0):0\neq(a_{0},\dots,a_{n-1})\in k^{n}\} \\
= \mathbb{A}^{n} \sqcup \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \\
= \mathbb{A}^{n} \sqcup \mathbb{A}^{n-1} \sqcup \dots \sqcup \mathbb{A}^{1} \sqcup \mathbb{A}^{0}.$$

Remark 4.1.6 We can even make the decomposition of for example \mathbb{P}^1 visible in a picture. For this first draw the affine plane \mathbb{A}^2 with coordinates x_0 and x_1 . Now \mathbb{P}^1 is the set of lines through the origin. We now fix some line not passing through the origin, say the line given by the equation $x_1 = 1$. Now a point on this line, say $(a_0, 1)$ gives rise to a line through the origin, $Z(x_0 - a_0x_1)$, and if we vary a_0 we get all

the lines through the origin, except the one line which is running parallel to the chosen line (in this case with the equation $x_1 = 0$), this is our point at infinity.

For $i \in \{0, ..., n\}$, consider the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} U_i & \coloneqq \{(a_0:\dots:a_n) \in \mathbb{P}^n \mid a_i \neq 0\} & = \{(a_0:\dots:a_{i-1}:1:a_{i+1}:\dots:a_n) \mid a_j \in k\} \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \varphi_i & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \mathbb{A}^n & & & \left(\frac{a_0}{a_i},\dots,\frac{a_{i-1}}{a_i},\frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i},\dots,\frac{a_n}{a_i}\right). \end{array}$$

Notice that φ_i is a bijection, its inverse is given by

$$(b_0, \ldots, b_{i-1}, b_{i+1}, \ldots, b_n) \mapsto (b_0 : \cdots : b_{i-1} : 1 : b_{i+1} : \cdots : b_n).$$

4.2 \mathbb{P}^n as a topological space

Let $A = k[x_0, ..., x_n]$, the k-algebra of polynomial functions on $k^{n+1} = \mathbb{A}^{n+1}$.

We have $q: \mathbb{A}^{n+1} - \{0\} \to \mathbb{P}^n$, where q is the quotient map previously defined. We give $\mathbb{A}^{n+1} - \{0\}$ the topology induced from the Zariski topology on \mathbb{A}^{n+1} : a subset U of $\mathbb{A}^{n+1} - \{0\}$ is open if and only if it is open as subset of \mathbb{A}^{n+1} . We give \mathbb{P}^n the quotient topology induced via q. Let Y be a subset of \mathbb{P}^n . Then Y is closed if and only if $q^{-1}Y \subset \mathbb{A}^{n+1} - \{0\}$ is closed, that is, if and only if there exists s closed subset Z of \mathbb{A}^{n+1} such that $q^{-1}Y = Z \cap (\mathbb{A}^{n+1} - \{0\})$. Since a point is closed, this is equivalent to $q^{-1}Y \cup \{0\}$ being closed in \mathbb{A}^{n+1} .

So we have the following bijection:

{closed subsets of
$$\mathbb{P}^n$$
} $\tilde{\rightarrow}$ {closed k^{\times} -invariant subsets of \mathbb{A}^{n+1} containing 0}
 $Y \mapsto q^{-1}Y \cup \{0\}$

Recall that we have the Nullstellensatz:

$$\{ \text{closed subsets of } \mathbb{A}^{n+1} \} \stackrel{\text{l:1}}{\longleftrightarrow} \{ \text{radical ideals } I \subset A \}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} Y & \mapsto & I(Y) \\ Z(I) & \leftarrow & I \end{array}$$

We now ask the following question: what does the property k^{\times} -invariant become on the right hand side?

The group k^{\times} acts on \mathbb{A}^{n+1} : an element $\lambda \in k^{\times}$ acts as the multiplication map $\lambda : \mathbb{A}^{n+1} \to \mathbb{A}^{n+1}$, $a \mapsto \lambda \cdot a$. Now k^{\times} also acts on the set of functions from \mathbb{A}^{n+1} to k as follows. Let $a \in \mathbb{A}^{n+1}$. Then $((\lambda \cdot)^* f)(a) := f(\lambda a)$. This means that we have the following commutative diagram:



The set $\{f: \mathbb{A}^{n+1} \to k\}$ of functions from \mathbb{A}^{n+1} to k is a k-algebra: (f+g)a = fa + ga and $(fg)a = (fa) \cdot (ga)$ (we prefer not to write unnecessary parentheses, such as in f(a)). For each λ in

4.2. \mathbb{P}^n AS A TOPOLOGICAL SPACE

 k^{\times} the map $(\lambda \cdot)^*$ from $\{f \colon \mathbb{A}^{n+1} \to k\}$ to itself is a k-algebra automorphism (its inverse is $(\lambda^{-1} \cdot)^*$). For example, we check the additivity. Let f and g be functions $\mathbb{A}^{n+1} \to k$, then

$$((\lambda \cdot)^*(f+g))a = (f+g)(\lambda a) = f(\lambda a) + g(\lambda a) = ((\lambda \cdot)^*f)a + ((\lambda \cdot)^*g)a = ((\lambda \cdot)^*f + (\lambda \cdot)^*g)a.$$

As this is true for all a in \mathbb{A}^{n+1} , we have $(\lambda \cdot)^* f + (\lambda \cdot)^* g$.

Recall that $A = k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$. It is a sub-k-algebra of $\{f : \mathbb{A}^{n+1} \to k\}$. We claim that it is preserved by the k^{\times} -action: for f in A and λ in k^{\times} , the function $(\lambda \cdot)^* f$ is again in A. Indeed, for $f = \sum_i f_i x^i$ (multi-index notation) the function $(\lambda \cdot)^* f : \mathbb{A}^{n+1} \to k$ is given by

$$a \mapsto \lambda \cdot a \mapsto f(\lambda a) = \sum_{i_0, \dots, i_n} f_{i_0, \dots, i_n} \lambda^{i_0} a_0^{i_0} \cdots \lambda^{i_n} a_n^{i_n} = \sum_{i_0, \dots, i_n} f_{i_0, \dots, i_n} \lambda^{i_0 + \dots + i_n} a_0^{i_0} \cdots a_n^{i_n}.$$

Hence we see that

$$(\lambda \cdot)^*f = \sum_{i_0,\dots,i_n} f_{i_0,\dots,i_n} \lambda^{i_0+\dots+i_n} x_0^{i_0} \cdots x_n^{i_n} \in A.$$

We conclude that each $(\lambda \cdot)^* \colon A \to A$ is a k-algebra automorphism, with inverse $(\lambda^{-1} \cdot)^*$. So k^{\times} acts on the k-algebra A.

Now observe that for f in A, λ in k^{\times} , and a in \mathbb{A}^{n+1} we have:

$$a \in Z((\lambda \cdot)^* f) \iff ((\lambda \cdot)^* f)(a) = 0 \iff f(\lambda \cdot a) = 0 \iff \lambda \cdot a \in Z(f).$$

So: $Z((\lambda \cdot)^* f) = \lambda^{-1} \cdot Z(f)$. And for $S \subset A$ we have $Z((\lambda \cdot)^* S) = \lambda^{-1} \cdot Z(S)$. Hence restricting the bijection from the Nullstellensatz on both sides to the subset k^{\times} -invariant subsets gives the bijection:

$$\{\text{closed } k^{\times} \text{-invariant subsets} \quad \stackrel{1:1}{\longleftrightarrow} \quad \{k^{\times} \text{-invariant radical ideals } \mathfrak{a} \subset A \\ \text{of } \mathbb{A}^{n+1} \text{ containing } 0\} \qquad \qquad \text{with } \mathfrak{a} \subset (x_0, \dots, x_n) = Ax_0 + \dots + Ax_n\}$$

We now want to know which ideals are k^{\times} -invariant. For this, we first decompose A into eigenspaces for the action of k^{\times} . An eigenspace under the action of k^{\times} is exactly the set of homogeneous polynomials of a certain degree together with the 0 polynomial: A is graded as a k-algebra. This means that

$$A = \bigoplus_{d \ge 0} A_d, \quad A_d = \bigoplus_{d_0 + \dots + d_n = d} k \cdot x_0^{d_0} \cdots x_n^{d_n}, \quad f \in A_d, \ g \in A_e \implies f \cdot g \in A_{d+e}.$$

The sub-k-vectorspace A_d of A is called the space of homogeneous polynomials of degree d. For $f \in A$ we can write $f = \sum_d f_d$ with $f_d \in A_d$, and such a decomposition is unique. The f_d are called the homogeneous parts of f. Then for $\lambda \in k^{\times}$ we get $(\lambda \cdot)^* f = \sum_d \lambda^d f_d$.

Definition 4.2.1 An ideal \mathfrak{a} is homogenous if for all f in \mathfrak{a} the homogeneous parts f_d are also in \mathfrak{a} .

Proposition 4.2.2 Let $\mathfrak{a} \subset A$ be an ideal. Then \mathfrak{a} is k^{\times} -invariant if and only if \mathfrak{a} is homogeneous.

Proof \Leftarrow : Assume a is homogeneous. Let $f \in \mathfrak{a}, \lambda \in k^{\times}$. Then $(\lambda \cdot)^* f = \sum_d \lambda^d f_d \in \mathfrak{a}$ because $f_d \in \mathfrak{a}$ for all d.

⇒: Assume $\mathfrak{a} \subset A$ is a k^{\times} -invariant ideal. Let $f \in \mathfrak{a}$. Write $f = f_0 + \cdots + f_N$ with $f_i \in A_i$ for some $N \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. Take $\lambda_0, \ldots, \lambda_N \in k^{\times}$ distinct (we can do this since k is algebraically closed, hence infinite). We have: $\mathfrak{a} \ni (\lambda_i \cdot)^* f = f_0 + \lambda_i f_1 + \cdots + \lambda_i^N f_N$. In matrix form this gives:

$$\begin{pmatrix} (\lambda_0 \cdot)^* f \\ \vdots \\ (\lambda_N \cdot)^* f \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \lambda_0 & \lambda_0^2 & \cdots & \lambda_0^N \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \lambda_N & \lambda_N^2 & \cdots & \lambda_N^N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f_0 \\ \vdots \\ f_N \end{pmatrix}$$

Now use that this Vandermonde matrix is invertible to get f_0, \ldots, f_N in \mathfrak{a} (we can express f_i as a k-linear combination of the $(\lambda_j \cdot)^* f$ in \mathfrak{a}).

Theorem 4.2.3 (Homogeneous Nullstellensatz) The following maps are inverses:

$$\begin{aligned} \{ \text{closed subsets of } \mathbb{P}^n \} & \stackrel{1:1}{\longleftrightarrow} & \{ \text{homogeneous radical ideals } \mathfrak{a} \subset A \text{ with } \mathfrak{a} \subset (x_0, \dots, x_n) \} \\ Y & \mapsto & I(q^{-1}Y \cup \{0\}) \\ q(Z(\mathfrak{a}) - \{0\}) & \longleftrightarrow & \mathfrak{a} \end{aligned}$$

and under this bijection we have that Y is irreducible if and only if $I(q^{-1}Y \cup \{0\})$ is prime and not equal to (x_0, \ldots, x_n) .

Proof The proof of the first part follows from the previous observations. The proof of the second part is one of the exercises below. \Box

4.3 A more direct description of the closed subsets of \mathbb{P}^n

Definition 4.3.1 For a homogeneous element f in some $A_d \subset A$ we define

$$Z_{\text{proj}}(f) := \{ (a_0 : \dots : a_n) \in \mathbb{P}^n : f(a_0, \dots, a_n) = 0 \}$$

Note that the condition makes sense, as it is independent of the chosen representative (a_0, \ldots, a_n) of $(a_0 : \cdots : a_n)$. In fact, $Z_{\text{proj}}(f) = q(Z(f) - \{0\})$ where $Z(f) \subset \mathbb{A}^{n+1}$.

The following proposition is a direct consequence of the results of the previous section.

Proposition 4.3.2 The closed subsets of \mathbb{P}^n are the $Z_{\text{proj}}(T) = \bigcap_{f \in T} Z_{\text{proj}}(f)$ for subsets T of the set $A^{\text{hom}} = \bigcup_{d \geq 0} A_d$ of homogeneous elements of A.

We first consider a special case: $T \subset A_1$, the case of linear equations. These $Z_{\text{proj}}(T)$ are called linear subspaces of \mathbb{P}^n . Using linear algebra you can say a lot about them. For example two lines in \mathbb{P}^2 are equal or intersect in exactly one point, see exercise I.2.11 of [Hart]. A hyperplane is a Z(f) with $0 \neq f \in A_1$. We also have coordinate hyperplanes : $H_i = Z(x_i)$ for $0 \leq i \leq n$. Also we have the standard affine opens: $U_i = \mathbb{P}^n - H_i = \{a \in \mathbb{P}^n : a_i \neq 0\}.$

Proposition 4.3.3 For $i \in 0, 1, ..., n$ the map $\varphi_i : U_i \to \mathbb{A}^n$,

$$(a_0:\cdots:a_n)\mapsto (\frac{a_0}{a_i},\ldots,\frac{a_{i-1}}{a_i},\frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i},\ldots,\frac{a_n}{a_i})$$

is a homeomorphism.

Proof We have already seen that φ_i is bijective. Now consider the following diagram:



We first claim that $\varphi_i \circ q \colon a \mapsto (a_0/a_i, \ldots, a_{i-1}/a_i, a_{i+1}/a_i, \ldots, a_n/a_i)$ is continuous. It suffices to show that for any f be in $k[y_1, \ldots, y_n]$ the set $(\varphi_i \circ q)^{-1}Z(f)$ is closed. So, let f be in $k[y_1, \ldots, y_n]$, of degree at most some d in \mathbb{N} . Then, for a in $q^{-1}U_i$, the following conditions are equivalent:

$$a \in (\varphi_i \circ q)^{-1} Z(f)$$

$$f((\varphi_i \circ q)a) = 0$$

$$f(a_0/a_i, \dots, a_{i-1}/a_i, a_{i+1}/a_i, \dots, a_n/a_i) = 0$$

$$a_i^d f(a_0/a_i, \dots, a_{i-1}/a_i, a_{i+1}/a_i, \dots, a_n/a_i)) = 0$$

$$a \in Z(x_i^d f(x_0/x_i, \dots, x_{i-1}/x_i, x_{i+1}/x_i, \dots, x_n/x_i)).$$

Hence $(\varphi_i \circ q)^{-1}Z(f) = Z(x_i^d f(x_0/x_i, \dots, x_{i-1}/x_i, x_{i+1}/x_i, \dots, x_n/x_i)) \cap q^{-1}U_i$. Hence $\varphi_i \circ q$ is continuous. Since U_i has the quotient topology for q, φ_i is continuous.

On the other hand, the map $s_i \colon \mathbb{A}^n \to \mathbb{A}^{n+1} - Z(x_i) = q^{-1}U_i$,

$$(b_0, \ldots, b_{i-1}, b_i, \ldots, b_n) \mapsto (b_0, \ldots, b_{i-1}, 1, b_{i+1}, \ldots, b_n)$$

is continuous because for any $b = (b_0, \ldots, b_{i-1}, b_i, \ldots, b_n)$ and any f in $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ we have that $f(s_i(b)) = 0$ if and only if $f(b_0, \ldots, b_{i-1}, 1, b_{i+1}, \ldots, b_n) = 0$, hence $s_i(b) \in Z(f)$ if and only if $b \in Z(f(x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1}, 1, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n))$. Hence $\varphi_i^{-1} = q \circ s_i$ is continuous.

4.4 How to administrate \mathbb{P}^n

On \mathbb{A}^{n+1} we have the coordinate functions x_0, \ldots, x_n and the k-algebra $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ generated by them. Now φ_i is given by n functions on U_i : $x_{i,j}, 0 \le j \le n, j \ne i$, with $x_{i,j} \circ q = x_j/x_i$. So $\varphi_i(P) = (x_{i,0}(P), \ldots, x_{i,i-1}(P), x_{i,i+1}(P), \ldots, x_{i,n}(P))$.

Now for $f \in A_d$ we have that $x_i^{-d} f$ is a k^{\times} -invariant function on $q^{-1}U_i$, and it is a polynomial in the $x_{i,j}, j \neq i$. We have: $\varphi_i(Z_{\text{proj}}(f)) = Z(x_i^{-d}f)$.

Example 4.4.1 Let $f = x_1^n - x_0^{n-1}x_2 + x_2^n \in k[x_0, x_1, x_2]_n$. Then:

$$\varphi_0(Z_{\text{proj}}(f) \cap U_0) = Z(x_{0,1}^n - x_{0,2} + x_{0,2}^n)$$

$$\varphi_1(Z_{\text{proj}}(f) \cap U_1) = Z(1 - x_{1,0}^{n-1}x_{1,2} + x_{1,2}^n)$$

$$\varphi_2(Z_{\text{proj}}(f) \cap U_2) = Z(x_{2,1}^n - x_{2,0}^{n-1} + 1)$$

These equations were already introduced in the second lecture.

Vice versa: For $g \in k[\{x_{i,j} : j \neq i\}]$ of degree d you can "homogenise" to go back to $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$: just replace $x_{i,j}$ by x_j/x_i and multiply by x_i^d .

4.5 Exercises

We recall: k is an algebraically closed field. We also recall that a topological space X is irreducible if and only if first of all it is not empty and secondly has the property that if U and V are non-empty open subsets of X, then $U \cap V$ is non-empty.

Exercise 4.5.1 Let X and Y be topological spaces, $f: X \to Y$ continuous. Assume that X is irreducible and that f is surjective. Show that Y is irreducible.

Exercise 4.5.2 Let X and Y be topological spaces, $f: X \to Y$ a map, not necessarily continuous, and $Z \subset Y$. Assume that f is *open*: for every open U in X, fU is open in Y. Show that $f: f^{-1}Z \to Z$ is open, if Z and $f^{-1}Z$ are equipped with the topologies induced from Y and X.

Exercise 4.5.3 Let X and Y be topological spaces, $f: X \to Y$ continuous. Assume that f is open and that for every y in Y the subset $f^{-1}{y}$ of X, with its induced topology, is irreducible. Assume that Y is irreducible. Show that X is irreducible.

Exercise 4.5.4 Let X be a topological space, and $x \in X$. Assume that X is not equal to $\{x\}$, that $\{x\}$ is closed, and that $\{x\}$ is not open. Show that $X - \{x\}$ is irreducible if and only if X is irreducible.

Exercise 4.5.5 Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$, and $q: \mathbb{A}^{n+1} - \{0\} \to \mathbb{P}^n$ as in todays lecture. Show that q is open and that for all $P \in \mathbb{P}^n$, $q^{-1}\{P\}$ is irreducible.

Exercise 4.5.6 Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. Let $Y \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ be a closed subset. Let $I \subset A = k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ be the ideal of $q^{-1}Y \cup \{0\}$. Show that Y is irreducible if and only if I is prime and not equal to (x_0, \ldots, x_n) .

Exercise 4.5.7 Let $P_1 = (0,0)$, $P_2 = (1,0)$, $P_3 = (0,1)$ and $P_4 = (1,1)$. Let $Y = \{P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4\}$ and let $I \subset k[x, y]$ be the ideal of Y.

- i. Show that the affine coordinate ring A(Y) = k[x, y]/I of Y has dimension 4 as k-vector space. Hint: consider the k-algebra morphism $k[x, y] \rightarrow k^4$ sending f to $(f(P_1), f(P_2), f(P_3), f(P_4))$, or use the Chinese Remainder Theorem.
- ii. Show that I = (f, g), where $f = x^2 x$ and $g = y^2 y$. Hint: show that $(f, g) \subset I$, then that (1, x, y, xy) gives a k-basis for k[x, y]/(f, g) using divisions with remainder, then that the natural morphism $k[x, y]/(f, g) \to A(Y)$ is an isomorphism.
- iii. Draw a picture of Y, Z(f) and Z(g).

Exercise 4.5.8 We assume now that $k \not\supseteq \mathbb{F}_2$. Let $Z = \{P_1, P_2, P_3\} \subset \mathbb{A}^2$, with the P_i as in Exercise 4.5.7. Let $J \subset k[x, y]$ be the ideal of Z. Our aim is to show that J can be generated by two elements. We view \mathbb{A}^2 as a standard open affine subset of \mathbb{P}^2 via $(a, b) \mapsto (a : b : 1)$. Let $P'_4 = (1 : 1 : 0) \in \mathbb{P}^2$, and let $Y' = \{P_1, P_2, P_3, P'_4\} \subset \mathbb{P}^2$.

- i. Draw a picture of Y', the lines P_1P_2 , $P_3P'_4$, P_1P_3 and $P_2P'_4$, and the line at infinity.
- ii. Give linear equations for the lines P_1P_2 , $P_3P'_4$, P_1P_3 and $P_2P'_4$, and deduce from this your two candidate generators f and g for J.
- iii. Show that J = (f, g). Hint: same strategy as in Exercise 4.5.7.ii; $\dim_k A(Z) = 3$; show that $xy \in (f, g)$.

Remark 4.5.9 Later it will be easier for us to show that J = (f, g), by decucing it from the fact that $Z(f) \cap Z(g) = Y$, with "transversal intersection". More generally, there are standard algorithms based on the concept of Gröbner basis, with which one can compute in quotients such as k[x, y]/(f, g).

Lecture 5

Geometry in projective space

Let k be an algebraically closed field.

5.1 Points and lines in \mathbb{P}^2

In this section we do not need the assumption that k is algebraically closed. First recall the following (see the previous lecture):

$$\mathbb{P}^2 = (k^3 - \{0\})/k^{\times} = \{\text{lines in } k^3 \text{ through } 0\} = \mathbb{A}^2 \sqcup \mathbb{P}^1$$

In this last description, \mathbb{A}^2 is the set of points of the form (a:b:1), and \mathbb{P}^1 is the set of points of the form (c:d:0) with $(c,d) \neq (0,0)$. A line in \mathbb{P}^2 is Z(f) where f = ax + by + cz with $(a,b,c) \neq (0,0,0)$. A line in \mathbb{A}^2 is Z(f) where f = ax + by + c with $(a,b) \neq (0,0)$.

Let $l_1, l_2 \subset \mathbb{A}^2$ be *distinct* lines. Then the intersection $l_1 \cap l_2$ is empty if l_1 and l_2 are parallel, and otherwise it consists of one point. In \mathbb{P}^2 the situation is much nicer: two distinct lines always intersect in a unique point. Indeed, this follows from a dimension argument from linear algebra. The lines l_1 and l_2 as seen in $\mathbb{A}^3 = k^3$ are just two distinct linear subspaces of dimension 2, whose intersection is then of dimension one, which corresponds to a point in \mathbb{P}^2 .

Using projective space, many theorems in affine geometry become easier to prove. Here is an example:

Proposition 5.1.1 In the following configuration (say in \mathbb{R}^2), the points A, P, Q lie on a line.



Proof First consider this problem in \mathbb{P}^2 instead of \mathbb{A}^2 . After a linear change of coordinates we may assume that A = (1 : 0 : 0) and B = (0 : 1 : 0). Indeed, A and B are distinct 1-dimensional subspaces

of k^3 , hence we can take a basis of k^3 with these lines as the first two coordinate axes. The line AB is then the line at infinity, and therefore the two lines that intersect in A are parallel in \mathbb{A}^2 and similarly for the two lines that intersect in B. So we then have the following picture.



But in this case, the result is obvious, and so we are done.

5.2 Curves in \mathbb{P}^2



We have seen that the intersection of two distinct lines in \mathbb{P}^2 consists of one point. The following classical theorem from projective geometry generalizes this.

Theorem 5.2.2 (Bézout) Let f_1 and f_2 in k[x, y, z] be homogeneous irreducible polynomials of degrees d_1 and d_2 , respectively. Assume $Z(f_1) \neq Z(f_2)$. Then $\#Z(f_1) \cap Z(f_2) = d_1d_2$ "counted with multiplicity".

Only later in this course we will be able to define the "multiplicity" occurring in the statement, but let us remark already now that it should be thought of as an "order of contact". So if the multiplicity of an intersection point is higher than one, this means that the curves are "tangent" to one another in that point.

Already the case $d_1 = d_2 = 1$ illustrates that it is important to work in the projective plane, instead of the affine plane. Below is another illustration.

Example 5.2.3 Assume that 2 is nonzero in k. Let $f_1 = x^2 + y^2 - z^2$ and $f_2 = (x - z)^2 + y^2 - z^2$. Here is a (real, affine) picture:



From the picture one can immediately read of two intersection points, namely $(1/2 : \sqrt{3}/2 : 1)$ and $(1/2 : -\sqrt{3}/2 : 1)$, and by putting z = 0 we find two more intersection points on the line at infinity: $(1 : \sqrt{-1} : 0)$ and $(1 : -\sqrt{-1} : 0)$. These two points at infinity correspond to the asymptotes. These asymptotes are not visible in the real affine picture, but become visible in \mathbb{C}^2 .

5.3 Projective transformations

For n in $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ we denote the group of invertible n by n matrices with coefficients in k with matrix multiplication by $\operatorname{GL}_n(k)$. It is the automorphism group of the k-vector space k^n .

5.4. AFFINE TRANSFORMATIONS

Let n be in $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. Since a linear map sends 0 to 0, the group $\operatorname{GL}_{n+1}(k)$ acts on $k^{n+1} - \{0\}$. Since matrix multiplication commutes with scalar multiplication, this induces an action of $\operatorname{GL}_{n+1}(k)$ on the quotient \mathbb{P}^n .

The normal subgroup k^{\times} of scalar matrices in $\operatorname{GL}_{n+1}(k)$ acts trivially on \mathbb{P}^n . Therefore the action of $\operatorname{GL}_{n+1}(k)$ on \mathbb{P}^n induces an action of the quotient $\operatorname{PGL}_{n+1}(k) := \operatorname{GL}_{n+1}(k)/k^{\times}$ on \mathbb{P}^n . An element of $\operatorname{PGL}_{n+1}(k)$ is called a projective transformation.

For f in $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$, viewed as function from \mathbb{A}^{n+1} to k, and for g in $\mathrm{GL}_{n+1}(k)$, the function

$$g^*f \colon \mathbb{A}^{n+1} \to k \colon P \mapsto f(gP)$$

is again in $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$. This operation is an action of $\operatorname{GL}_{n+1}(k)$ on the k-algebra $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$. The polynomial g^*f is homogeneous of degree d if and only if f is homogeneous of degree d. Also, given a homogeneous polynomial $f \in k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ and a point $P \in \mathbb{P}^n$ we have $P \in Z(f)$ if and only if $g^{-1}P \in Z(g^*f)$. It follows that $\operatorname{GL}_{n+1}(k)$, and hence also $\operatorname{PGL}_{n+1}(k)$, act on \mathbb{P}^n by homeomorphisms.

Remark 5.3.1 The proof of Proposition 5.1.1 could have started with "There exists a projective transformation $g \in PGL_2$ such that gA = (1:0:0) and gB = (0:1:0), so we may assume that A = (1:0:0) and B = (0:1:0)."

5.4 Affine transformations

Definition 5.4.1 We define the group of affine transformations as follows:

$$\operatorname{Aff}_{n} = \operatorname{Aff}_{n}(k) = \left\{ \left(\begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) : a \in \operatorname{GL}_{n}, b \in k^{n} \right\} \subset \operatorname{GL}_{n+1}.$$

It is the stabiliser in GL_{n+1} of the element x_n in $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$, and therefore it stabilises all the hyperplanes $Z(x_n - a)$, with $a \in k$. The group Aff_n acts on \mathbb{P}^n . This action of Aff_n on \mathbb{P}^n induces a morphism of groups $\operatorname{Aff}_n \to \operatorname{PGL}_n$. This morphism is injective and its image is the stabiliser in PGL_n of $Z(x_0)$, the hyperplane at infinity. This means that Aff_n acts on $\mathbb{P}^n - Z(x_n) = \mathbb{A}^n$ and on $Z(x_n) = \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ as well.

Example 5.4.2 Consider the case where n = 1. An element of Aff_n has the form $g = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ with $a \in k^{\times}$ and $b \in k$. Now let $P \in \mathbb{A}^1$ be the point with coordinate $p \in k$. In \mathbb{P}^1 this point has homogeneous coordinates (p:1) and it is mapped by g to (ap + b : 1), so $gP \in \mathbb{A}^1$ has coordinate ap + b.

In the same way as before there is a compatible action of Aff_n on $k[x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1}]$. Explicitly:

$$g = \left(\begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right)$$

sends the polynomial f, viewed as function on k^n , to $g^*f := (x \mapsto f(ax + b))$. Note that P lies on Z(f) if and only if $g^{-1}P$ lies on $Z(g^*f)$. In particular it follows that Aff_n acts as homeomorphisms on \mathbb{A}^n .

Remark 5.4.3 The dimension of Aff₁ is 2, but that of PGL₂ is 3. Hence the projective line has more symmetry than the affine line. In general Aff_n has dimension $n^2 + n$ (we can pick n^2 entries for the linear part, and then we can pick a vector to translate over, this gives an extra n) while PGL_{n+1} has dimension $(n + 1)^2 - 1 = n^2 + 2n$.

5.5 Pascal's theorem

In this section, we will prove Pascal's theorem. We first state a Euclidian version of it.

Theorem 5.5.1 Suppose that X is a circle and $A, B, C, A', B', C' \in X$ are distinct points on this circle. Let $P = B'C \cap BC', Q = AC' \cap CA', R = A'B \cap AB'$, assuming these intersections exist (see the picture below). Then P, Q, R lie on a line.



To prove this it is convenient to generalize this to a projective statement.

Theorem 5.5.2 (Pascal) Let X = Z(g) with $g \in k[x_1, x_2, x_3]$ homogeneous of degree 2 and irreducible. Let $A, B, C, A', B', C' \in X$ be distinct points. Let $P = B'C \cap BC', Q = AC' \cap CA', R = A'B \cap AB'$. Then P, Q, R lie on a line.

Proof Note that no three of the six points A, B, C, A', B', C' can lie on a line, for otherwise this would contradict Bézout's theorem (together with the irreducibility of X).

So, without loss of generality we may assume that A' = (1 : 0 : 0), B' = (0 : 1 : 0), C' = (0 : 0 : 1).We now write down the equation for X:

$$g = g_{11}x_1^2 + g_{22}x_2^2 + g_{33}x_3^2 + g_{12}x_1x_2 + g_{13}x_1x_3 + g_{23}x_2x_3$$

Since A' = (1:0:0) lies on this quadric, we see that $g(1,0,0) = g_{11} = 0$. In the same manner, one obtains $g_{22} = g_{33} = 0$. So

$$g = g_{12}x_1x_2 + g_{13}x_1x_3 + g_{23}x_2x_3.$$

Note that none of g_{12} , g_{13} , g_{23} are zero, for otherwise our g would be reducible. After applying the projective transformation

$$\begin{pmatrix} g_{23} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & g_{13} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & g_{12} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{PGL}_2$$

we may assume that

$$g = x_1 x_2 + x_2 x_3 + x_3 x_1.$$

Note that A', B' and C' are fixed under this transformation.

Now let A, B, C be the points $(a_1 : a_2 : a_3)$, $(b_1 : b_2 : b_3)$ and $(c_1 : c_2 : c_3)$, respectively. Let us compute the coordinates of the point $P = B'C \cap BC'$. The line B'C is given by $c_3x_1 = c_1x_1$, and BC' is given by $b_2x_1 = x_2b_1$. So we find that $P = (1 : b_2/b_1 : c_3/c_1)$. Note that b_1 is not zero, since B lies on X and B is distinct from B' and C', similarly a_i , b_i , c_i are all non-zero. By symmetry, we find that
5.6. EXERCISES

 $Q = (a_1/a_2 : 1 : c_3/c_2)$ and $R = (a_1/a_3 : b_2/b_3 : 1)$. To check that P, Q and R lie on a line, it is enough to show that

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & b_2/b_1 & c_3/c_1 \\ a_1/a_2 & 1 & c_3/c_2 \\ a_1/a_3 & b_2/b_3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

But this is true. The sum of the rows is zero, this follows since A, B and C lie on our quadric. For example, for the first coordinate:

$$1 + \frac{a_1}{a_2} + \frac{a_1}{a_3} = \frac{a_2a_3 + a_1a_3 + a_1a_2}{a_2a_3} = \frac{g(a_1, a_2, a_3)}{a_2a_3} = 0.$$

5.6 Exercises

Exercise 5.6.1 Consider $Y_1 = Z(y - x^2)$ and $Y_2 = Z(xy - 1)$ in \mathbb{A}^2 . Denote by $i : \mathbb{A}^2 \to \mathbb{P}^2$ the map $(a, b) \mapsto (a : b : 1)$. Let X_1 and X_2 be the closures of iY_1 and iY_2 , respectively.

- i. Show that there is no affine transformation α such that $\alpha Y_1 = Y_2$;
- ii. give equations for X_1 and X_2 ;
- iii. describe $X_2 iY_2$ and $X_1 iY_1$;
- iv. show that there is a projective transformation β such that $\beta X_1 = X_2$.

Exercise 5.6.2 Let P_1 , P_2 and P_3 be three distinct points in \mathbb{P}^1 . Show that there is a unique projective transformation that maps P_1 to (1:0), P_2 to (0:1), and P_3 to (1:1).

Exercise 5.6.3 Let P_1 , P_2 , P_3 and P_4 be four points in \mathbb{P}^3 such that there is no hyperplane in \mathbb{P}^3 containing all four of them. Show that there is a unique projective transformation that maps P_1 to (1 : 0 : 0), P_2 to (0 : 1 : 0), P_3 to (0 : 0 : 1), and P_4 to (1 : 1 : 1).

Exercise 5.6.4 ([Hart, 2.14]) Given positive integers r and s consider the map

 $((a_1,\ldots,a_r),(b_1,\ldots,b_s)) \rightarrow (a_1b_1:a_1b_2:\cdots:a_rb_s)$

from $(\mathbb{A}^r - \{0\}) \times (\mathbb{A}^s - \{0\})$ to \mathbb{P}^{rs-1} .

i. Show that the map factors through $\mathbb{P}^{r-1} \times \mathbb{P}^{s-1}$;

Denote the resulting map from $\mathbb{P}^{r-1} \times \mathbb{P}^{s-1}$ to \mathbb{P}^{rs-1} by Ψ .

- (b) Show that Ψ is injective;
- (c) Show that the image of Ψ is closed in \mathbb{P}^{rs-1} .

The map Ψ is called the *Segre embedding* of $\mathbb{P}^{r-1} \times \mathbb{P}^{s-1}$ in \mathbb{P}^{rs-1} .

Exercise 5.6.5 ([Hart, 2.15]) Consider the Segre embedding $\Psi : \mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1 \to \mathbb{P}^3$. Let $Q \subset \mathbb{P}^3$ be the image of Ψ .

- i. Give equations for Q.
- ii. Show that for all $P \in \mathbb{P}^1$ the images of $\{P\} \times \mathbb{P}^1$ and $\mathbb{P}^1 \times \{P\}$ are lines in \mathbb{P}^3 lying on Q.

- iii. Show that all lines in \mathbb{P}^3 lying on Q can be obtained in this way (hint: choose points (A_1, A_2) and (B_1, B_2) in $\mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1$ and verify that the line through $\Psi((A_1, A_2))$ and $\Psi((B_1, B_2))$ lies on Q if and only if $A_1 = B_1$ or $A_2 = B_2$).
- iv. For any pair of lines L_1, L_2 lying on Q determine their intersection $L_1 \cap L_2$.
- v. Draw a picture of Q.
- vi. Describe all closed subsets of $\mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1$ with the product topology.
- vii. Show that Ψ is not continuous when $\mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1$ is equipped with the product topology and Q is equipped with the induced topology from \mathbb{P}^3 .

In fact, as we will see later, the topology on Q, and *not* the product topology, is the "right one" for the product $\mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1$.

Lecture 6

Regular functions and algebraic varieties

In this lecture we discuss Section I.3 of [Hart], and more. We advise the reader to read that section for her/himself. As usual, k is an algebraically closed field.

6.1 Regular functions on closed subsets of \mathbb{A}^n

It is now time to make geometric objects of the closed subsets of \mathbb{A}^n and \mathbb{P}^n that we have seen so far: until now they are just topological spaces, and moreover, the topology is quite weird. The difference between topology and differential geometry comes from the kind of functions that are allowed: continuous versus differentiable. In algebraic geometry, the functions chosen are called "regular."

Lemma 6.1.1 For $f \in k[x_1, ..., x_n]$ we set $D(f) := \{P \in \mathbb{A}^n \mid f(P) \neq 0\} = \mathbb{A}^n - Z(f)$, so the D(f) are open in the Zariski topology. The set of all D(f) actually is a basis for the Zariski topology on \mathbb{A}^n .

The proof is left to the reader in Exercise 6.4.1

Definition 6.1.2 Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$, $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ closed, $V \subset Y$ open (for the induced topology on Y), and $f: V \to k$ a function. Then, for $P \in V$, f is called *regular at* P if there is an open subset $U \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ with $P \in U$, and elements $g, h \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ such that for all $Q \in U$, $h(Q) \neq 0$ and for all $Q \in U \cap V$: f(Q) = g(Q)/h(Q). A function $f: V \to k$ is called *regular* if it is regular at all $P \in V$.

The set of regular functions on $V \subset Y$ is denoted by $\mathcal{O}_Y(V)$. It is a k-algebra for point-wise addition and multiplication. We have made the topological space Y into a "ringed space."

Lemma 6.1.3 Let X be a topological space, and Y a subset of X. Then Y is closed if and only if X can be covered by open subsets $U_i \subset X$ such that for all $i, Y \cap U_i$ is closed in U_i .

Proof If Y is closed, just take the the covering $\{X\}$. Conversely, if $Y \cap U_i$ is closed in U_i for all i then every point in the complement X - Y has an open neighborhood in X - Y, hence Y is closed in X. \Box

Lemma 6.1.4 Let *n* be in \mathbb{N} , $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be closed, $V \subset Y$ be open, and $f \in \mathcal{O}_Y(V)$. Then $f: V \to k = \mathbb{A}^1$ is continuous.

Proof Since k has the co-finite topology, it is enough to show that for any $a \in k$, $f^{-1}\{a\} \subset V$ is closed. By the previous lemma it is enough to give for every $P \in V$ an open $U \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ with $P \in U$ such that $f^{-1}\{a\} \cap U$ is closed in $U \cap V$. So let $P \in V$ be given and take an open $U \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ and g and h in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ as in Definition 6.1.2. Then for $Q \in U \cap V$ the condition f(Q) = a is equivalent to $Q \in Z(g - ah)$. So $f^{-1}\{a\} \cap U = Z(g - ah) \cap (U \cap V)$, hence closed in $U \cap V$.

Corollary 6.1.5 Let $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be closed and irreducible, $V \subset Y$ open, non-empty, f and g in $\mathcal{O}_Y(V)$ such that $f|_U = g|_U$ for some open nonempty $U \subset V$. Then f = g.

Proof Note that f - g is regular, hence continuous by the previous lemma. So $(f - g)^{-1}\{0\}$ is closed. As $(f - g)^{-1}\{0\}$ contains U and V is irreducible, $(f - g)^{-1}\{0\}$ is dense in V, hence equal to V.

The following theorem generalizes Theorem 3.2(a) of [Hart].

Theorem 6.1.6 Let *n* be in $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ and let $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be closed. Then the *k*-algebra morphism φ from $A := k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ to $\mathcal{O}_Y(Y)$ that sends a polynomial to the function that it defines is surjective and has kernel I(Y), the ideal of Y. Hence it induces an isomorphism from A/I(Y) = A(Y) to $\mathcal{O}_Y(Y)$.

Proof By definition $\ker(\varphi) = \{f \in A : \forall P \in Y, f(P) = 0\} = I(Y)$. So we only need to prove the surjectivity of φ , the rest follows immediately.

Let $f \in \mathcal{O}_Y(Y)$. We want to show that f is in $\operatorname{im}(\varphi)$, or, equivalently, that its class \overline{f} in the quotient A-module $\mathcal{O}_Y(Y)/\operatorname{im}(\varphi)$ is zero. Let $J \subset A$ be the annihilator of \overline{f} , that is, $J = \{h \in A : \varphi(h)f \in \operatorname{im}(\varphi)\}$. Then J is an ideal. We want to show that $1 \in J$, or, equivalently, J = A. Note that $I(Y) \subset J$ since for $h \in I(Y)$ we have $hf = \varphi(h)f = 0 \cdot f = 0$.

Suppose that $J \neq A$. Take $\mathfrak{m} \subset A$ a maximal ideal such that $J \subset \mathfrak{m}$. By the Nullstellensatz there is a $P \in \mathbb{A}^n$ such that $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}_P$, the maximal ideal corresponding to P. So $I(Y) \subset J \subset \mathfrak{m}_P$, hence $P \in Y$. Since f is a regular function on Y we can take h_1, h_2, g_2 in A such that

- $P \in D(h_1)$,
- for all $Q \in D(h_1)$ we have $h_2(Q) \neq 0$,
- for all $Q \in D(h_1) \cap Y$ we have $f(Q) = g_2(Q)/h_2(Q)$.

Then $\varphi(h_2)f = \varphi(g_2)$ on $D(h_1) \cap Y$. Hence $\varphi(h_1h_2)f = \varphi(h_1g_2)$ on Y (both are zero on $Y \cap Z(h_1)$), and h_1h_2f is in $\operatorname{im}(\varphi)$. So $h_1h_2 \in J$. But $(h_1h_2)(P) = h_1(P)h_2(P) \neq 0$ (by construction), this gives a contradiction. Hence J = A and we are done.

6.2 Regular functions on closed subsets of \mathbb{P}^n

We also make closed subsets of \mathbb{P}^n into ringed spaces. First we do this for \mathbb{P}^n itself. Let $A = k[x_0, \dots, x_n]$.

Definition 6.2.1 Let $U \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ be open, $f: U \to k$, $P \in U$. Then f is called *regular at* P if there exists a $d \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$, $g, h \in A_d$ such that $h(P) \neq 0$ and f = g/h in a neighborhood of P. (Note that for $Q \in \mathbb{A}^{n+1}$ with $h(Q) \neq 0$ and $\lambda \in k^{\times}$: $(g/h)(\lambda Q) = g(\lambda Q)/h(\lambda Q) = \lambda^d g(Q)/\lambda^d h(Q) = (g/h)(Q)$.) Also, f is called *regular* if f is regular at all $P \in U$. Notation: $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n}(U) = \{f: U \to k: f \text{ is regular}\}$

Definition 6.2.2 Let $Y \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ be closed, $V \subset Y$ open, $f: V \to k$, and $P \in V$. Then f is called *regular at* P if there exists an open $U \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ and $g \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n}(U)$ such that $P \in U$ and for all $Q \in V \cap U : f(Q) = g(Q)$.

Remark 6.2.3 For $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ closed we could have done the same thing: first define $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{A}^n}$ and then continue as above.

Theorem 6.2.4 (Generalises Theorem I.3.4(a) of [Hart]). Let $Y \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ be closed. Then

$$\mathcal{O}_Y(Y) = \{ f : Y \to k : f \text{ is locally constant.} \}$$

Proof The proof will be given later.

6.3 The category of algebraic varieties

Now we get at a point where we really must introduce morphisms. For example, we want to compare $U_i \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ via the map $\varphi_i \colon U_i \to \mathbb{A}^n$ and we would like to call φ_i an isomorphism, so both φ_i and φ_i^{-1} should be morphisms. We know that φ_i and φ_i^{-1} are continuous. The idea is then to ask for a continuous function to be a morphism, that, by composition, it sends regular functions to regular functions. We formalize this as follows.

Definition 6.3.1 A *k-space* is a pair (X, \mathcal{O}_X) , with X a topological space, and for every $U \subset X$ open, $\mathcal{O}_X(U) \subset \{f : U \to k\}$ a sub-*k*-algebra such that:

- i. for all $V \subset U$ (both open) and for all f in $\mathcal{O}_X(U)$, $f|_V$ is in $\mathcal{O}_X(V)$;
- ii. for all U open and for all $f: U \to k$, f is in $\mathcal{O}_X(U)$ if and only if for all $P \in U$ there is an open $U_P \subset U$ such that $P \in U_P$ and $f|_{U_P}$ is in $\mathcal{O}_X(U_P)$.

We call this \mathcal{O}_X the *sheaf of admissible functions*. The second condition in Definition 6.3.1 means that the "admissibility" condition is a local condition: a function verifies it if and only if it does so locally.

Examples 6.3.2 The (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) as defined above for closed subsets Y of \mathbb{A}^n or \mathbb{P}^n are k-spaces (they obviously satisfy both properties).

Definition 6.3.3 Let (X, \mathcal{O}_X) and (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) be k-spaces. A morphism from (X, \mathcal{O}_X) to (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) is a map $\varphi \colon X \to Y$ such that:

- i. φ is continuous;
- ii. for all $U \subset Y$ open, for all $f \in \mathcal{O}_Y(U)$, $\varphi^* f \colon = f \circ \varphi \colon \varphi^{-1}U \to k$ is in $\mathcal{O}_X(\varphi^{-1}U)$.

The k-spaces and their morphisms form a category: k-Spaces. This us the notion of an isomorphism: a morphism φ from (X, \mathcal{O}_X) to (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) is an isomorphism if there is a morphism ψ from (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) to (X, \mathcal{O}_X) with $\psi \circ \varphi = \mathrm{id}_{(X, \mathcal{O}_X)}$ and $\varphi \circ \psi = \mathrm{id}_{(Y, \mathcal{O}_Y)}$. For further theory on categories, one can read Lang's Algebra [Lang].

Remark 6.3.4 This category k-Spaces, which looks rather ad hoc, is also used by Springer in [Spri].

For (X, \mathcal{O}_X) a k-space and U an open subset of X we define $\mathcal{O}_X|_U$, the restriction of \mathcal{O}_X to U, by: for $V \subset U$ open, $\mathcal{O}_X|_U(V) = \mathcal{O}_X(V)$. We can now define what (very abstract) algebraic varieties are.

Definition 6.3.5 Let k be an algebraically closed field. An algebraic variety over k is a k-space (X, \mathcal{O}_X) such that for all $x \in X$ there is an open $U \subset X$ with $x \in U$ such that $(U, \mathcal{O}_X|_U)$ is isomorphic (in k-Spaces) to a (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) with $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ closed for some n, and \mathcal{O}_Y the sheaf of regular functions (that is, is an *affine* algebraic variety over k). If (X, \mathcal{O}_X) and (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) are algebraic varieties over k, a morphism from (X, \mathcal{O}_X) to (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) is just a morphism in k-Spaces. The category of algebraic varieties over k is denoted vaVar(k). A variety is called *projective* if it is isomorphic to a (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) with Y a closed subset of some \mathbb{P}^n and \mathcal{O}_Y its sheaf of regular functions. A variety is called *quasi-projective* if it is isomorphic to an open subvariety of a projective variety.

Remark 6.3.6 Our notion of variety in vaVar(k) is much more general than that in the first chapter of [Hart]: those must be irreducible (which we don't suppose) and quasiprojective (open in a closed $Y \subset \mathbb{P}^n$, which we don't suppose either). For those who would rather do schemes: vaVar(k) is equivalent to the category of k-schemes that are reduced, and locally of finite type.

Proposition 6.3.7 (I.3.3 in [Hart]) Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$, $i \in \{0, ..., n\}$, $U_i \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ as before, and $\varphi_i \colon U_i \to \mathbb{A}^n$ the map $(a_0 : \cdots : a_n)$ to $(a_0/a_i, \ldots, a_{i-1}/a_i, a_{i+1}/a_i, \ldots, a_n/a_i)$. Then φ_i is an isomorphism in vaVar(k). Hence \mathbb{P}^n is an algebraic variety.

Proof We have already seen that φ_i and its inverse are continuous. It remains to be shown that the conditions "regular at P" and "regular at $\varphi_i(P)$ " correspond, that is, for $f: U \to k$ with U a neighborhood of $\varphi_i(P)$, f is regular at $\varphi_i(P)$ if and only if $\varphi_i^* f$ is regular at P.

Let P be in U_i , and $U \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ open containing $\varphi(P)$, and $f: U \to k$ a function. Then f is regular at $\varphi_i(P)$ if and only if there exist $g, h \in k[\{x_{i,j} : j \neq i\}]$ such that $h(\varphi_i(P)) \neq 0$ and f = g/h in a neighborhood of $\varphi_i(P)$.

And $\varphi_i^* f$ is regular at P if and only if there exist $d \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ and $g', h' \in k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]_d$ such that $h'(P) \neq 0$ and $\varphi_i^* f = g'/h'$ in a neighborhood of P.

Suppose that f is regular function at $\varphi_i(P)$, locally given by g/h. Let $d = \max(\deg(g), \deg(h))$ and notice that for a in a neighborhood of P

$$(\varphi_i^*(g/h))(a_0:\dots:a_n) = g(\varphi_i(a_0:\dots:a_n))/h(\varphi_i(a_0:\dots:a_n))$$
$$= g((a_j/a_i)_{j\neq i})/h((a_j/a_i)_{j\neq i})$$
$$= a_i^d g((a_j/a_i)_{j\neq i})/a_i^d h((a_j/a_i)_{j\neq i})$$
$$= (g'/h')(a_0:\dots:a_n)$$

where $g' = x_i^d g((x_j/x_i)_{j \neq i})$ and $h' = x_i^d h((x_j/x_i)_{j \neq i})$ are in $k[x_0, \dots, x_n]_d$. Hence $\varphi_i^* f$ is regular at P.

Suppose now that $\varphi_i^* f$ is regular at P, locally given as g'/h' in $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]_d$ for some d. Then f is locally given by g/h with $g = x_i^{-d}g'$ and $h = x_i^{-d}h'$, showing that f is regular at $\varphi_i(P)$.

Corollary 6.3.8 Let $Y \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ be closed, then (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) is an algebraic variety.

Proof This follows since locally $(Y_i, \mathcal{O}_Y|_{Y_i})$ with $Y_i = U_i \cap Y$ is an algebraic variety by the above theorem.

We will now prove some things which will be useful later.

Proposition 6.3.9 (I.3.6 in [Hart]) Let X be an algebraic variety, $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ closed, $\psi: X \to Y$ a map of sets. For i in $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ let $\psi_i = \operatorname{pr}_i \circ \psi$, hence for all P in X, $\psi(P) = (\psi_1(P), \ldots, \psi_n(P))$. Then ψ is a morphism if and only if for all i, ψ_i is in $\mathcal{O}_X(X)$.

Proof Assume that ψ is a morphism. Let *i* be in $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. The restriction of the function $x_i \colon A^n \to k$ to *Y* is in $\mathcal{O}_Y(Y)$ and we denote it still by x_i . Then $\psi_i = \psi^*(x_i)$ is in $\mathcal{O}_X(X)$.

Assume that all ψ_i are regular. We have to show that ψ is a morphism. We start with showing that ψ is continuous. For f in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, $\psi^* f$ is the function $P \mapsto f(\psi_1(P), \ldots, \psi_n(P))$, hence $\psi^* f = f(\psi_1, \ldots, \psi_n)$, the image in $\mathcal{O}_X(X)$ of f under the k-algebra morphism that sends x_i to ψ_i . Hence for all f in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ we have:

$$\psi^{-1}Z(f) = \{P \in X \mid f(\psi(P)) = 0\} = (\psi^* f)^{-1}\{0\}.$$

Now $\psi^* f \in \mathcal{O}_X(X)$ is continuous, because continuity is a local statement and Lemma 6.1.4. Now we show that ψ is a morphism. Let $U \subset Y$ be open and $f \in \mathcal{O}_Y(U)$. We must show that $\psi^* f \colon \psi^{-1}U \to k$ is regular.

This is a local condition by the second part of Definition 6.3.1. By Definition 6.3.5 we may and do assume that X is an affine variety, embedded as closed subset in \mathbb{A}^m , say. We must show that for all P in $\psi^{-1}U$, $\psi^* f$ is regular at P. So let P be in $\psi^{-1}(U)$. Write f = g/h in a neighborhood of $\psi(P)$, with g and h in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Then $\psi^* f = g(\psi_1, \ldots, \psi_n)/h(\psi_1, \ldots, \psi_n)$ in a neighborhood of P, hence a quotient of the two elements $g(\psi_1, \ldots, \psi_n)$ and $h(\psi_1, \ldots, \psi_n)$ in $\mathcal{O}_X(X)$, with $(h(\psi_1, \ldots, \psi_n))P = h(\psi(P)) \neq 0$. Hence, by Definition 6.1.2, $\psi^* f$ is regular at P.

We have the following theorem, which is needed for the exercises below. The proof will be given in the next lecture, see Corollary 7.1.6.

Theorem 6.3.10 Let $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be closed, $h \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, and let V the intersection $Y \cap D(h)$ then $(V, \mathcal{O}_Y|_V)$ is an affine variety, that is, isomorphic to a closed subset of some \mathbb{A}^m with its regular functions.

6.4 Exercises

Exercise 6.4.1 Prove Lemma 6.1.1.

Exercise 6.4.2 Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. For $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f \in A_d$ $(A = k[x_0, \dots, x_n])$ let $D_+(f) := \{a \in \mathbb{P}^n \mid f(a) \neq 0\}$. Show that the set of all $D_+(f)$ is a basis for the topology on \mathbb{P}^n .

Exercise 6.4.3 Let $pt = \mathbb{A}^0$. Let X be a variety. Show that all maps of sets $pt \to X$ and $X \to pt$ are morphisms.

Exercise 6.4.4 Let X be a variety, and $U \subset X$ an open subset, equipped with the induced topology. Show that $(U, \mathcal{O}_X|_U)$ is a variety and that the inclusion map $j: U \to X$ is a morphism. (Hint: you can use Theorem 6.3.10.) We call U an open subvariety of X. Let (Z, \mathcal{O}_Z) be a variety and $f: Z \to U$ a map of sets. Show that f is a morphism if and only if $j \circ f$ is a morphism.

Exercise 6.4.5 Let (X, \mathcal{O}_X) and (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) be varieties, and $f: X \to Y$ a map of sets. Show that f is a morphism if and only if for each $x \in X$ there are open subsets $U \subset X$ and $V \subset Y$ such that $x \in U$, $fU \subset V$, and $f|_U: (U, \mathcal{O}_X|_U) \to (V, \mathcal{O}_Y|_V)$ is a morphism.

Exercise 6.4.6 Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and let a_1, \ldots, a_n be distinct elements of k. Show that the union of $\{x^i : i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and $\{(x-a_j)^{-l} : j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $l \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}\}$ is a k-basis of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{A}^1}(\mathbb{A}^1 - \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\})$. Give also a k-basis for $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^1}(\mathbb{P}^1 - \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\})$.

Exercise 6.4.7 Let X be a variety, and $Y \subset X$ a closed subset, equipped with the induced topology. For $V \subset Y$ open, $f: V \to k$, and $P \in V$, we define f to be regular at P if and only if there is an open $U \subset X$ and a $g \in \mathcal{O}_X(U)$ such that $P \in U$, and for all $Q \in V \cap U$, f(Q) = g(Q). Notation: $\mathcal{O}_Y(V)$. Show that (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) is a variety and that the inclusion map $i: Y \to X$ is a morphism. We call Y a closed subvariety of X. Let (Z, \mathcal{O}_Z) be a variety and $f: Z \to Y$ a map of sets. Show that f is a morphism if and only if $i \circ f$ is a morphism.

Exercise 6.4.8 Do Exercise I.3.4 of [Hart] for n = 1 and d = 2. Hint: do not do all of [Hart], Exercise I.2.12, but use as much as you can the exercises above (6.4.4, 6.4.5 and 6.4.7). So, just show that the image Y of $\varphi \colon \mathbb{P}^1 \to \mathbb{P}^2$ is closed (by giving equations for it), and show that the inverse $\psi \colon Y \to \mathbb{P}^1$, on suitable standard open subsets, is given by the inclusion followed by a projection.

LECTURE 6. REGULAR FUNCTIONS AND ALGEBRAIC VARIETIES

Lecture 7

The category of varieties (continued)

Here are some references for categories, functors, equivalence of categories:

- i. the wikipedia pages category, functor, equivalence of categories;
- ii. the section "categories and functors" in Lang's book "Algebra";
- iii. The chapter "Categorieën en functoren" in [Stev].

7.1 Affine varieties

Definition 7.1.1 A variety (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) is called *affine* if there is an $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ and $Z \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ closed such that $(Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) \cong (Z, \mathcal{O}_Z)$ where \mathcal{O}_Z is the sheaf of regular functions on Z.

Suppose $\varphi \colon (X, \mathcal{O}_X) \to (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y)$ is a morphism of k-spaces. Then we obtain a map φ^* from $\mathcal{O}_Y(Y)$ to $\mathcal{O}_X(X), f \mapsto f \circ \varphi$. This φ^* is a morphism of k-algebras, for example, for every P in X,

$$(\varphi^*(f+g))P = (f+g)(\varphi P) = f(\varphi P) + g(\varphi P) = (\varphi^*f)P + (\varphi^*g)P = (\varphi^*f + \varphi^*g)P.$$

This procedure *is* a contravariant functor from the category *k*-Spaces to that of *k*-algebras, sending an object (X, \mathcal{O}_X) to $\mathcal{O}_X(X)$, and a morphism $\varphi \colon X \to Y$ to $\varphi^* \colon \mathcal{O}_Y(Y) \to \mathcal{O}_X(X)$. Indeed, for $\varphi \colon (X, \mathcal{O}_X) \to (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y)$ and $\psi \colon (Y, \mathcal{O}_Y) \to (Z, \mathcal{O}_Z)$ in *k*-Spaces, we get $(\psi \circ \varphi)^* = \varphi^* \circ \varphi^*$.

Proposition 7.1.2 Let X be a variety and Y an affine variety. Then the map

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{vaVar}(k)}(X,Y) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{k-\operatorname{algebras}}(\mathcal{O}_Y(Y),\mathcal{O}_X(X)), \quad \varphi \mapsto \varphi^*$$

is a bijection.

Proof We may and do assume that Y a closed subset of \mathbb{A}^n , with its sheaf of regular functions, as Y is isomorphic to such a k-space. We construct an inverse of $\varphi \mapsto \varphi^*$. So let $h: \mathcal{O}_Y(Y) \to \mathcal{O}_X(X)$ be a k-algebra morphism. We have $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \to \mathcal{O}_Y(Y)$, surjective, and with kernel I := I(Y), see Theorem 6.1.6. Let $\tilde{h}: k[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \to \mathcal{O}_X(X)$ be the composition of this morphism with h. Let $\psi_i := h(x_i)$. Let $\psi: X \to \mathbb{A}^n$ be the map $P \mapsto (\psi_1(P), \ldots, \psi_n(P))$. Then ψ is a morphism of varieties by Proposition 6.3.9. We claim that $\psi(X)$ is contained in Y. Indeed, for $P \in X$ we have the following commuting diagram (where $eval_P$ is the k-algebra morphism which evaluates a function from X to k in P):



We see that $\operatorname{eval}_P \circ \tilde{h}$ is the composition of two k-algebra morphisms, hence a k-algebra morphism. So as $x_i \mapsto \psi_i \mapsto \psi_i(P)$, f in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ goes to $f(\psi_1(P), \ldots, \psi_n(P))$. Hence for f in I(Y) and and P in X we have:

$$f(\psi(P)) = f(\psi_1(P), \dots, \psi_n(P)) = (\operatorname{eval}_P \circ \tilde{h})f = \operatorname{eval}_P(\tilde{h}f) = \operatorname{eval}_P(0) = 0.$$

We will now check that the two given maps are inverse to each other. We will write ψ_h for the map $\psi: X \to Y$ obtained in the previous part of this proof for $h: \mathcal{O}_Y(Y) \to \mathcal{O}_X(X)$.

Let $\varphi : X \to Y$ be a morphism in vaVar(k). Then we have, for all $P \in X$:

$$\psi_{\varphi^*}(P) = ((\varphi^* x_1)P, \dots, (\varphi^* x_n)P) = (x_1(\varphi P), \dots, x_n(\varphi P)) = \varphi(P).$$

This shows that $\psi_{\varphi^*} = \varphi$.

For h in $\operatorname{Hom}_{k-\operatorname{algebra}}(\mathcal{O}_Y(Y), \mathcal{O}_X(X))$ and $P \in X$ we have, writing x_i for its image in $\mathcal{O}_Y(Y)$:

$$(\psi_h^* x_i)(P) = x_i(\psi_h P) = x_i((hx_1)P, \dots, (hx_n P)) = (hx_i)P.$$

Hence $(\psi_h)^*$ and h have the same value on each x_i , hence are equal (the x_i generate $\mathcal{O}_Y(Y)$).

Remark 7.1.3 Let (X, \mathcal{O}_X) be an affine variety, closed in some \mathbb{A}^n . Then $\mathcal{O}_X(X) = A(X)$ by Theorem 6.1.6. Hence the k-algebra $\mathcal{O}_X(X)$ is reduced and finitely generated. On the other hand, by Exercise 3.6.10 every reduced finitely generated k-algebra occurs as A(Y) for some closed Y in some \mathbb{A}^n . Actually, we have a bit more, as the following theorem tells us.

Theorem 7.1.4 We have the following anti-equivalence of categories:

$$\{ affine \ varieties \} \rightarrow \{ reduced \ k-algebras \ of \ finite \ type \}$$
$$(X, \mathcal{O}(X)) \mapsto \mathcal{O}_X(X)$$
$$\varphi \mapsto \varphi^*$$

Proof For the reader who knows some category theory: a functor is an equivalence of categories if and only if it is fully faithful and essentially surjective. By Proposition 7.1.2 we see that the functor is fully faithful, and the remarks above tell us that it is essentially surjective. \Box

This theorem basically tells us that "the only categorical difference between the two categories is the direction of the arrows".

Now let f be in $k[x_1, ..., x_n]$ and consider $D(f) := \{P \in \mathbb{A}^n : f(P) \neq 0\} = \mathbb{A}^n - Z(f)$. By Exercise 6.4.4 D(f) becomes a variety $(D(f), \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{A}^n}|_{D(f)})$ where for $U \subset D(f)$ open (hence open in \mathbb{A}^n) we set $\mathcal{O}_{D(f)}(U) = \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{A}^n}(U)$. The following theorem says that this is an affine variety.

Theorem 7.1.5 Let $f \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Then $(D(f), \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{A}^n}|_{D(f)})$ is an affine variety.

Proof Consider the closed subset $Z := Z(x_{n+1}f - 1) \subset \mathbb{A}^{n+1}$. Then we have the following maps:

$$D(f) \to Z, \quad (a_1, \dots, a_n) \mapsto \left(a_1, \dots, a_n, \frac{1}{f(a_1, \dots, a_n)}\right)$$

and

$$Z \to D(f), \quad (a_1, \dots, a_n, a_{n+1}) \mapsto (a_1, \dots, a_n)$$

These maps are inverses of each other. Both maps are morphisms since they are given by regular functions (Proposition 6.3.9). So D(f) is an affine variety and $\mathcal{O}_{D(f)}(D(f)) \cong k[x_1, \ldots, x_{n+1}]/(x_{n+1}f - 1)$. \Box

We now easily obtain the following corollaries:

Corollary 7.1.6 Let $X = Z(g_1, \ldots, g_r) \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be a closed subset, and let f be in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Then $(X \cap D(f), \mathcal{O}|_{X \cap D(f)})$ is an affine variety isomorphic to $Z(g_1, \ldots, g_r, x_{n+1}f - 1) \subset \mathbb{A}^{n+1}$ with its regular functions.

Corollary 7.1.7 Every variety has a basis for the topology consisting of affine open subvarieties.

7.2 **Products of varieties**

This is a special case of Theorem II.3.3 of [Hart]. We will first construct products in the affine case. Let $X \subset \mathbb{A}^m$ and $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be closed. Let I = I(X) and let f_1, \ldots, f_a in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_m]$ be a system of generators. Similarly, let J = I(Y) with system of generators g_1, \ldots, g_b in $k[y_1, \ldots, y_n]$.

Lemma 7.2.1 In this situation, $X \times Y \subset \mathbb{A}^{m+n}$ is closed, and $I(X \times Y)$ is generated by the subset $\{f_1, \ldots, f_a, g_1, \ldots, g_b\}$ of $k[x_1, \ldots, x_m, y_1, \ldots, y_n]$.

Proof We have $X \times Y = (X \times \mathbb{A}^n) \cap (\mathbb{A}^m \times Y)$. Hence $X \times Y$ is closed, and $I(X \times Y)$ is equal to $I(X \times \mathbb{A}^n) + I(\mathbb{A}^m \times Y)$. Hence (by symmetry) it is enough to show that $I(X \times \mathbb{A}^n) = (I) = (f_1, \ldots, f_a)$, equality of ideals in $k[x_1, \ldots, y_n]$. So let $h \in I(X \times \mathbb{A}^n)$. Write $h = \sum h_i y^i$ with $h_i \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_m]$ (multi-index notation). Then $\forall a \in X, \forall b \in \mathbb{A}^n$: $0 = h(a, b) = \sum_i h_i(a)b^i$, hence $\forall a \in X, \sum_i h_i(a)y^i$ is zero on \mathbb{A}^n . This shows that $\forall a, \forall i, h_i(a) = 0$. Hence $\forall i, h_i \in I$.

Definition 7.2.2 For closed subvarieties $X \subset \mathbb{A}^m$ and $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ as above, we let $\mathcal{O}_{X \times Y}$ be the sheaf of regular functions on $X \times Y$ induced from those on \mathbb{A}^{m+n} . This makes $X \times Y$ into an affine variety.

Example 7.2.3 Consider $\mathbb{A}^m \times \mathbb{A}^n = \mathbb{A}^{m+n}$. Note that the Zariski topology is larger than the product topology. For example, the diagonal in \mathbb{A}^2 is not closed in the product topology on $\mathbb{A}^2 = \mathbb{A}^1 \times \mathbb{A}^1$.

Remark 7.2.4 In the situation of Definition 7.2.2 we have:

 $\mathcal{O}_{X\times Y}(X\times Y) = k[x_1,\ldots,x_m,y_1,\ldots,y_n]/(f_1,\ldots,f_a,g_1,\ldots,g_b) = \mathcal{O}_X(X)\otimes_k \mathcal{O}_Y(Y).$

Remark 7.2.5 The projections $p_X : X \times Y \to X$, and $p_Y : X \times Y \to Y$ are morphisms. This follows from Proposition 6.3.9.

Theorem 7.2.6 (Universal property of the product) Let X and Y be affine varieties and Z a variety. Let $f: Z \to X$ and $g: Z \to Y$ be morphisms. Then there exists a unique morphism $h: Z \to X \times Y$ such that $p_X \circ h = f$ and $p_Y \circ h = g$. This means that we have the following commuting diagram:



Proof For h as a map of sets, there is a unique solution, namely for $P \in Z$ we set h(P) = (f(P), g(P)). This map is a morphism by Proposition 6.3.9.

Corollary 7.2.7 The topology on $X \times Y$ and the sheaf $\mathcal{O}_{X \times Y}$ do not depend on the embeddings of X and Y in affine spaces.

Proof The proof goes as follows. Suppose we have another product with the same universal property, say $(X \times Y)'$ with projections p'_X and p'_Y , obtained from other closed embeddings of X and Y in affine spaces. This means that $(X \times Y)'$ is, as a set, $X \times Y$, but with maybe another topology and another sheaf of regular functions. We apply the universal property in the following situation:



and conclude that the identity map of sets of $X \times Y$ to itself is a morphism of varieties from $(X \times Y)'$ to $X \times Y$. By symmetry, the same holds for the identity map of sets from $X \times Y$ to $(X \times Y)'$.

Now let X, Y be arbitrary varieties. We will construct $X \times Y$. As a set, just take $X \times Y$. As a topological space, we do the following. We now let a basis be the open sets of $W \subset U \times V$ (as defined before) where $V \subset X$ and $U \subset Y$ are open and affine (we leave it to the reader to show that this indeed gives a basis, we still need to show that $W \cap W'$ is a union of such W''). We still need to define the regular functions. We only need to define this on the basis above (since a function is regular iff it is locally regular). A function $W \to k$ (with W as above) is regular if it is regular on $W \subset U \times V$.

Theorem 7.2.8 The projections p_X and p_Y are morphisms and the product $X \times Y$ with its projections has the universal property (as in the affine case).

Proof Apply Exercise 6.4.5 to see that we only need to prove it locally. The local case follows by Theorem 7.2.6

Theorem 7.2.9 The product of projective varieties is a projective variety.

Proof Exercise 7.4.7.

7.3 Separated varieties

(Compare with Section II.4 of [Hart].)

Lemma 7.3.1 Let X be a topological space, and $\Delta \subset X \times X$ be the diagonal, that is, Δ is the subset $\{(x, x) : x \in X\} \subset X \times X$. Then X is Hausdorff if and only if $\Delta \subset X \times X$ is closed (where $X \times X$ has the product topology).

Proof Let $x, y \in X$ with $x \neq y$. Then $(x, y) \notin \Delta$ has an open neighborhood U with $U \cap \Delta = \emptyset$ if and only if there are $V \subset X$, $W \subset X$ open with $x \in V, y \in W$ with $V \times W \cap \Delta = \emptyset$ (since the sets of the form $V \times W$ with $V, W \subset X$ open form a basis of the product topology). Note that $V \times W \cap \Delta = \emptyset$ if and only if $V \cap W = \emptyset$.

We take this description of the Hausdorff property in the case of a variety.

Definition 7.3.2 A variety X is separated if $\Delta = \{(x, x) : x \in X\}$ is closed in $X \times X$ (product of varieties).

7.4. EXERCISES

Examples 7.3.3 \mathbb{A}^n is separated. Indeed, $\Delta \subset \mathbb{A}^n \times \mathbb{A}^n$ is the zero set of $(x_1 - y_1, \ldots, x_n - y_n)$. Let $X \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be closed. Then X is separated. Indeed, let $X = Z(f_1, \ldots, f_r)$. Then $\Delta_X \subset X \times X \subset \mathbb{A}^n \times \mathbb{A}^n$ is given by $Z(f_1, \ldots, f_r, f'_1, \ldots, f'_r, x_1 - y_1, \ldots, x_n - y_n)$ where the f_i are the polynomials in the x_i , and the f'_i the corresponding polynomials in the y_i . Even all quasi-projective varieties are separated (exercise).

7.4 Exercises

Exercise 7.4.1 Show that \mathbb{P}^n is not affine if n > 0. (Use Theorem 6.2.4.)

Exercise 7.4.2 Let $f: X \to Y$ be a morphism of affine varieties and assume that the corresponding morphism of k-algebras $f^*: \mathcal{O}_Y(Y) \to \mathcal{O}_X(X)$ is surjective. Show that f is injective, that fX is closed in Y and that f defines an isomorphism of X to the closed subvariety fX of Y.

Exercise 7.4.3 Let $f: X \to Y$ be a morphism of affine varieties and assume that the corresponding morphism of k-algebras $f^*: \mathcal{O}_Y(Y) \to \mathcal{O}_X(X)$ is injective. Show that fX is dense in Y. Give an example with $fX \neq Y$.

Exercise 7.4.4 Consider the open subvariety $X = \mathbb{A}^2 - \{0\}$ of \mathbb{A}^2 . Denote the embedding by $i: X \to \mathbb{A}^2$. Show that $i^*: \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{A}^2}(\mathbb{A}^2) \to \mathcal{O}_X(X)$ is an isomorphism of k-algebras and deduce that X is not an affine variety. Give a presentation of X (see Section 8.3).

Exercise 7.4.5 Let q and n be positive integers. Show that

 $f: \mathbb{P}^n \to \mathbb{P}^n, \quad (a_0: \dots: a_n) \mapsto (a_0^q: \dots: a_n^q)$

is a morphism of varieties. Assume now that k has characteristic p > 0 and that $q = p^d$ for some integer d > 0. Show that f is bijective but not an isomorphism of varieties. Find all $P \in \mathbb{P}^n$ such that f(P) = P.

Exercise 7.4.6 Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^2$ be the curve given by $y^n = zx^{n-1} - z^n$. In the lecture we have seen a presentation of this variety. Give a presentation of the product $X \times X$.

Exercise 7.4.7 Let $\Psi : \mathbb{P}^{m-1} \times \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \to \mathbb{P}^{mn-1}$ be the Segre map (of sets):

 $((a_1:\cdots:a_m),(b_1:\cdots:b_n))\mapsto (a_1b_1:\cdots:a_mb_n).$

Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^{m-1}$ and $Y \subset \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ be closed.

- i. Show that $\Psi(\mathbb{P}^{m-1} \times \mathbb{P}^{n-1})$ is closed in \mathbb{P}^{mn-1} .
- ii. Show that Ψ is an isomorphism from the product variety $\mathbb{P}^{m-1} \times \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ to the projective variety $\Psi(\mathbb{P}^{m-1} \times \mathbb{P}^{n-1})$.
- iii. Show that Ψ restricts to an isomorphism from the product variety $X \times Y$ to the projective variety $\Psi(X \times Y)$.
- iv. Show that the diagonal $\Delta_{\mathbb{P}^{n-1}}$ is closed in $\mathbb{P}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$.
- v. Show that projective varieties are separated.

Lecture 8

Presentations, smooth varieties and rational functions

8.1 Separated varieties (continued)

Recall that a variety X is separated if and only if $\Delta_X = \{(x, x) : x \in X\} \subset X \times X$ is closed.

Example 8.1.1 In the previous lecture, and in the exercises, we have already seen that affine and quasiprojective varieties are separated. Exercise 8.6.2 gives an example of a variety which is not separated. This variety "looks" like:



Proposition 8.1.2 Let X be a separated variety, and let U and $V \subset X$ be open and affine. Then $U \cap V$ is open and affine.

Proof Consider the following diagram:

$$U \cap V \xrightarrow{\sim} (U \times V) \cap \Delta_X \subset X \times X$$
$$\cap \qquad \cap$$
$$X \xrightarrow{\sim} \Delta_X \subset X \times X.$$

The map from $X \to \Delta_X$ just sends a point x to (x, x), and one can show that this is an isomorphism (using the universal property, use the identity morphisms on X and for the inverse use a projection). This isomorphism restricts to an isomorphism on $U \cap V \to U \times V \cap \Delta_X$. Now $U \times V \cap \Delta_X$ is closed in the affine space $U \times V$, hence it is affine.

8.2 Glueing varieties

We now want to construct new varieties from varieties that we already have. The process will be similar to the construction of topological spaces in topology by glueing. Assume that:

- i. I a set;
- ii. $\forall i \in I, X_i \text{ is a variety;}$

- iii. $\forall i, j \in I, X_{ij} \subset X_i$ is an open subvariety;
- iv. $\forall i, j \in I, \varphi_{ij} \colon X_{ij} \xrightarrow{\sim} X_{ji}$ is an isomorphism of varieties.

Assume moreover that these data satisfy the following compatibility conditions:

- v. $\forall i, j, k \in I, \varphi_{ij}(X_{ij} \cap X_{ik}) = X_{ji} \cap X_{jk};$
- vi. $\forall i, j, k \in I, \varphi_{jk} \circ \varphi_{ij} = \varphi_{ik} \text{ on } X_{ij} \cap X_{ik};$
- vii. $\forall i \in I, X_{ii} = X_i \text{ and } \varphi_{ii} = \mathrm{id}_{X_i}.$

Example 8.2.1 Let X be a variety, and let $X_i \subset X$ be open subvarieties for some set I. Now let $X_{ij} = X_i \cap X_j$ and let $\varphi_{ij} \colon X_{ij} \to X_{ji}$ be the identity.

We construct a variety from these glueing data. The first step is to define the disjoint union $X' := \bigsqcup_{i \in I} X_i$ of the X_i as a variety. As a set it is simply the disjoint union, and for every i in I we have the inclusion map $j_i: X_i \to X'$. We give X the quotient topology for the maps $(j_i)_{i \in I}$: a subset U of X' is open if and only if for each i in I the subset $j_i^{-1}U$ of X_i is open. This simply means that all the j_i are open immersions, that is, $j_i(X_i)$ is open in X' and j_i is a homeomorphism from X_i to $j_i(X_i)$ with the topology induced from X'. For $U \subset X'$ we define $\mathcal{O}_{X'}(U)$ as the set of functions $f: U \to k$ such that for all i in I the function $j_i^* f$ from $j_i^{-1}U$ to k is in $\mathcal{O}_{X_i}(j_i^{-1}U)$. We leave it to the reader to check that $(X', \mathcal{O}_{X'})$ is a variety and that the $j_i: X_i \to X'$ are open immersions. The pair $((X', \mathcal{O}_{X'}), (j_i)_{i \in I})$ has the following universal property: for any variety Y and any set of morphisms $f_i: X_i \to Y$, there exists a unique morphism $f: X' \to Y$ such that for all i in I, $f_i = f \circ j_i$. Note that up to now we have only used the set I and the collection of varieties $(X_i)_{i \in I}$.

The second step is to define a quotient $q: X' \to X$ as a set. In order to simplify our notation we view X_i as a subset of X', that is, we omit the inclusion maps j_i . We define a relation \sim on X' by:

 $(x \sim y)$ if and only if (there exist $i, j \in I$ such that $x \in X_{ij}, y \in X_{ji}$, and $\varphi_{ij}(x) = y$).

The reader is asked to check that this is indeed an equivalence relation. This gives us the quotient $q: X' \to X$ as a map of sets. The third step is to make X into a topological space. We simply give it the quotient topology.

The fourth and last step is to define the notion of regular functions on X. For U an open subset of X we define $\mathcal{O}_X(U)$ to be the set of functions $f: U \to k$ such that $q^*f: q^{-1}U \to k$ is in $\mathcal{O}_{X'}(q^{-1}U)$. Then \mathcal{O}_X is a sheaf of k-algebras on X.

We state without proof:

Proposition 8.2.2 The k-space X is a variety and the $j_i: X_i \to X$ are open immersions.

Example 8.2.3 We construct \mathbb{P}^1 by glueing two copies of \mathbb{A}^1 . So let $X_0 = \mathbb{A}_1$ and $X_1 = \mathbb{A}_1$. Let $X_{00} = X_0, X_{11} = X_1$ and $X_{01} = \mathbb{A}^1 - \{0\} \subset X_0$ and $X_{10} = \mathbb{A}^1 - \{0\} \subset X_1$. Let φ_{00} and φ_{11} be the identities, $\varphi_{01} \colon X_{01} \to X_{10}, t \mapsto t^{-1}$, and $\varphi_{10} \coloneqq \varphi_{01}^{-1}$. Then $X = \mathbb{A}^1 \sqcup \mathbb{A}_1 / \sim \mathbb{P}^1$. (Compare with Section 2.2.)

8.3 **Presentations of varieties**

We want to give presentations of varieties, that is, we want to be able to write down a variety in a finite amount of data, so that for example it can be put into a computer. We assume that we can write down elements of k. This is not a trivial assumption: k might be uncountable!

8.4. SMOOTH VARIETIES

For an affine variety we can just write down equations defining the variety (we can take a finite set of equations, since $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is Noetherian). We can also use the equivalence of categories between affine varieties and finitely generated reduced k-algebras (which basically amounts to the same).

Here is a more general case. Let X be a variety and assume that $X = \bigcup_{i \in I} X_i$ with I a finite set, X_i open affine and $X_{ij} = X_i \cap X_j$ affine. (The last condition is implied by the other ones if X is separated by Proposition 8.1.2). Then X is determined by the following data, called a *presentation* of X:

- i. $\forall i \in I$, the finitely generated reduced k-algebra $\mathcal{O}_X(X_i)$;
- ii. $\forall i, j \in I$, the finitely generated reduced k-algebra $\mathcal{O}_X(X_{ij})$;
- iii. $\forall i, j \in I$, the restriction morphism $\mathcal{O}_X(X_i) \to \mathcal{O}_X(X_{ij})$ coming from the inclusion $X_{ij} \to X_i$;
- iv. $\forall i, j \in I$, the isomorphism (identity map, in fact) of k-algebras $\mathcal{O}_X(X_{ij}) \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathcal{O}_X(X_{ji})$ coming from the identity map $X_{ji} \rightarrow X_{ij}$.

Indeed, using the equivalence between affine varieties and finitely generated reduced k-algebras these determine glueing data for X.

Example 8.3.1 Let $X = \mathbb{P}^2$. Write $X = X_0 \cup X_1 \cup X_2$ with $X_i = D(x_i) = U_i$, the standard open affine cover. Then, as in Section 4.4, $\mathcal{O}_X(X_0) = k[x_{01}, x_{02}]$, $\mathcal{O}_X(X_1) = k[x_{10}, x_{12}]$ and $\mathcal{O}_X(X_2) = k[x_{20}, x_{21}]$. We describe for example $\mathcal{O}_X(X_{01})$ and its maps to $\mathcal{O}_X(X_1)$ and $\mathcal{O}_X(X_2)$. By Theorem 7.1.5 we know that $\mathcal{O}_X(X_{01}) = k[x_{01}, x_{02}, x_{10}, x_{12}]/(x_{01}x_{10} - 1, x_{01}x_{12} - x_{02})$. We can now directly describe the map from say $\mathcal{O}_X(X_0)$ to $\mathcal{O}_X(X_{01})$, which just sends x_{01} to x_{01} and x_{02} to x_{02} and analogously for the other map(s).

8.4 Smooth varieties

One often sees other terminology for the word smooth: regular, non-singular. See also Section I.5 of [Hart], and Section 16.9 in [Eis].

To define this notion, we need the concept of partial derivatives of polynomials. For n in \mathbb{N} and f in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ the partial derivatives $\partial f/\partial x_i$ in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ are defined formally, that is, the partial derivatives $\partial/\partial x_i : k[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \to k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ are k-linear, satisfy the Leibniz rule and satisfy $\partial(x_j)/\partial x_i = 1$ if j = i and is zero otherwise. For example, for $m \in \mathbb{N}$, $\partial(x_1^m)/\partial x_1 = mx_1^{m-1}$. This is a purely algebraic operation on $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ and there is no need to take limits of any kind. But note that in characteristic p we have $\partial(x^p)/\partial x = px^{p-1} = 0$.

Definition 8.4.1 Let X be a variety and d in N. For P in X, X is smooth of dimension d at P if there is an open subvariety U of X containing P and an isomorphism $\varphi: U \xrightarrow{\sim} Z(f_1, \ldots, f_{n-d}) \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ for some n and f_1, \ldots, f_{n-d} , such that the rank of the n by n - d matrix over k:

$$\left(\frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_j}(\varphi P)\right)_{i,j}$$

equals n - d. The variety X is smooth of dimension d if it is smooth of dimension d at all its points. The variety X is smooth at P if it is smooth of dimension d at P for some d. Finally, X is smooth if at every point P it is smooth of some dimension d_P .

Remark 8.4.2 The matrix of partial derivatives of the f_j at the point P is called the Jacobian matrix. For those who have learned some differential topology (manifolds) it should be a familiar object. The Jacobian matrix at φP has rank n - d if and only if the map $f = (f_1, \ldots, f_{n-d})$ from \mathbb{A}^n to \mathbb{A}^{n-d} has surjective derivative at φP , that is, is a submersion at φP , if and only if the fibre of φP , $f^{-1}{f\varphi P}$ is smooth at φP . In other words, X is smooth of dimension d at P if locally at P, X can be given as the zero set of n-d equations in n variables, for some n, such that the gradients of the equations are linearly independent at P. For linear subspaces of \mathbb{A}^n this linear independence is indeed sufficient and necessary for the dimension to be d.

In Lecture 9 we will see how the Jacobian matrix arises naturally from the definition of the tangent space of X at P: the tangent space is the kernel of $k^n \to k^{n-d}$, $v \mapsto Jv$, with J the Jacobian matrix. This will prove that for X a variety, P in X and U any affine open neighborhood of P, and φ an isomorphism of U with a closed subset Y of \mathbb{A}^n , and (f_1, \ldots, f_m) a set of generators of I(Y), the integer $n - \operatorname{rank}(J)$, where J is the Jacobian matrix at φP , is the dimension of the tangent space of X at P and hence does not depend on the choice of U nor φ .

Finally, there are relations with the dimension of varieties as in Section 3.4 them we state in the following theorem.

Theorem 8.4.3 Let X be a variety.

- *i.* If X is connected and smooth of dimension d, then X is irreducible and its dimension as a topological space is d.
- ii. If X is irreducible and of dimension d, and P is a point of X, then X is smooth at P if and only if the dimension of the tangent space of X at P is d.
- iii. The set of P in X such that X is smooth at P is a dense open subset.
- iv. The variety X is smooth of dimension d if and only if for all P in X the dimension of the tangent space of X at P is d.

Example 8.4.4 The affine space \mathbb{A}^d is smooth of dimension *d*. Indeed, it is given by zero equations as subset of \mathbb{A}^d .

Example 8.4.5 Consider $X := Z(xy) \subset \mathbb{A}^2$. We have the following picture of X:



We see that X is the union of the x and y axes, and it appears to have a 1 dimension tangent space at all points except at the origin (where it is 2-dimensional). Later we will see more about the connection between the tangent space and smoothness.

It is easy to check that X is smooth of dimension one at all $P \neq (0,0)$. Theorem 8.4.3 shows that X is not smooth of any dimension at (0,0) because every open neighborhood in X of (0,0) is connected but not irreducible.

8.5 Rational functions

Definition 8.5.1 Let X be a variety. Now let

 $K(X) := \{(U, f) : U \subset X \text{ is open and dense and } f \in \mathcal{O}_X(U)\} / \sim$

where $(U, f) \sim (V, g)$ if and only if there is an open and dense $W \subset X$ such that f = g on W (or equivalently f = g on $U \cap V$). Elements of K(X) are called rational functions on X.

Remark 8.5.2 The set K(X) is a k-algebra, because addition and multiplication are compatible with \sim : we just define $(U, f) + (V, g) = (U \cap V, f + g)$ and $(U, f) \cdot (V, g) = (U \cap V, f \cdot g)$.

Proposition 8.5.3 Let X be a variety.

i. If $U \subset X$ is open and dense then $K(U) \to K(X) \colon (V, f) \mapsto (V, f)$ is an isomorphism;

ii. If X is irreducible and affine then K(X) is the field of fractions of $\mathcal{O}_X(X)$;

iii. If X is irreducible then K(X) is a field (which we will call the function field of X).

Proof i. We have an obvious inverse, namely $K(X) \to K(U), (V, f) \mapsto (V \cap U, f|_{V \cap U})$.

ii. Suppose $X \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ is affine and irreducible. Let $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ and I(X) = I which is prime (since X is irreducible). Then $\mathcal{O}_X(X) = A/I$. Hence A/I is a domain and it has a field of fractions $Q(\mathcal{O}_X(X)) = Q(A/I)$. We now have the map $Q(A/I) \to K(X)$ given by $g/h \mapsto (X \cap D(h), g/h)$, where of course $h \notin I$. Notice that $X \cap D(h)$ is dense (every non-empty open set in an irreducible space is dense) and g/h is regular on $D(h) \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ by definition. This map is a k-algebra morphism, and it is automatically injective since Q(A/I) is a field. We just need to show that it is surjective. That it is surjective follows from the definition of a regular function on an open part of an affine variety (Definition 6.1.2).

iii. Use i. and ii.

8.6 Exercises

Exercise 8.6.1 Let $X = Z(xy) \subset \mathbb{A}^2$. Show that K(X) is not a field.

Exercise 8.6.2 Let X be the variety obtained from the following gluing data: $X_1 = X_2 = \mathbb{A}^1$ and $X_{12} = X_{21} = \mathbb{A}^1 - \{0\}$ with $\varphi_{12} = \text{id}$. Give the presentation of X corresponding to this glueing data. Describe the topology on X and the sheaf of regular functions on X. What is the diagonal $\Delta_X \subset X \times X$? What is the closure of the diagonal? Conclude that X is not separated.

Exercise 8.6.3 Consider the open subvariety $X = \mathbb{A}^2 - \{0\}$ of \mathbb{A}^2 . Denote the embedding by $i: X \to \mathbb{A}^2$. Show that $i^*: \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{A}^2}(\mathbb{A}^2) \to \mathcal{O}_X(X)$ is an isomorphism of k-algebras and deduce that X is not an affine variety. Give a presentation of X.

Exercise 8.6.4 If X is smooth of dimension m and Y smooth of dimension n show that $X \times Y$ is smooth of dimension m + n.

Exercise 8.6.5 Let *n* be in $\mathbb{Z}_{>1}$ an integer and *k* an algebraically closed field. Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}_k^2$ be the curve given by $y^n = zx^{n-1} - z^n$ (see Lecture 2). Give a presentation of *X* using an index set of 2 elements. Is *X* smooth? (The answer can depend on both *n* and the characteristic of *k*.)

Exercise 8.6.6 Let X be a variety and d a positive integer. Assume given for all $i \in I := \{1, ..., d\}$ an open $X_i \subset X$, such that $X = \bigcup_{i \in I} X_i$. Put $X_{ij} := X_i \cap X_j$. Consider the diagram of k-vector spaces

$$\mathcal{O}_X(X) \xrightarrow{\delta_0} \prod_{i \in I} \mathcal{O}_X(X_i) \xrightarrow{\delta_1} \prod_{\substack{i,j \in I \\ i < j}} \mathcal{O}_X(X_{ij})$$

with

$$\delta_0: f \mapsto (f_{|X_i})_i \quad \text{and} \quad \delta_1: (f_i)_i \mapsto \left((f_i)_{|X_{ij}} - (f_j)_{|X_{ij}} \right)_{ij}$$

Show that δ_0 is injective and that its image is the kernel of δ_1 .

Now let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^2_k$ be the curve given by $y^n = zx^{n-1} - z^n$, let d = 2 and let X_1 and X_2 be the two open affines that you used in the previous exercise.

Show that $\mathcal{O}_X(X) = k$.

Show that the dimension of the cokernel of δ_1 is (n-1)(n-2)/2. (Hint: work with bases for the infinite-dimensional vector spaces $\mathcal{O}_X(X_1)$, $\mathcal{O}_X(X_2)$ and $\mathcal{O}_X(X_{12})$ that are as simple as possible.) Compare with Lecture 2.

(Note that the same argument works for any curve of degree n, as long as it does not contain the point (0:1:0).)

Lecture 9

Tangent spaces and 1-forms

9.1 Tangent spaces of embedded affine varieties

See also Exercise I.5.10 of [Hart].

Definition 9.1.1 Let $X \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ be an affine variety and let $I \subset A := k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ be its ideal. Let (f_1, \ldots, f_r) be a system of generators for I. For $a \in X$ we define the tangent space of X at a as:

$$T_X(a) = \{ v \in k^n : \forall f \in I, \ \lambda \mapsto f(a + \lambda v) \text{ has order} \ge 2 \text{ at } 0 \}$$

= $\{ v \in k^n : \forall f \in I, \ \frac{\partial f}{\partial v}(a) := \left(\frac{d}{d\lambda} f(a + \lambda v) \right)(0) = 0 \}$
= $\{ v \in k^n : \forall i, \ \sum_j \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(a) \cdot v_j = 0 \}$
= $\ker \left(\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(a) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n}(a) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_r}{\partial x_1}(a) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_r}{\partial x_n}(a) \end{pmatrix} : k^n \to k^r \right)$

Example 9.1.2 Assume that $k \not\supseteq \mathbb{F}_2$. Let $X = Z(x^2 + y^2 - z^2) \subset \mathbb{A}^3$; note that $x^2 + y^2 - z^2$ is irreducible, so $I = (x^2 + y^2 - z^2)$. It is a good idea to make a drawing of X: it is a cone. Let $P = (a, b, c) \in X$. Then we obtain:

$$T_Z(P) = \{(u, v, w) \in k^3 : 2au + 2bv - 2cw = 0\}$$

So dim $T_X(P) = 2$ if $P \neq 0$, and dim $T_X(0) = 3$.

9.2 Intrinsic definition of the tangent space

Notation as in Definition 9.1.1. We let $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}_a \subset A$ be the maximal ideal of $a = (a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in X \subset \mathbb{A}^n$, so $\mathfrak{m} = (x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n)$. Let $B := A/I = \mathcal{O}_X(X)$, let $\overline{\mathfrak{m}} = (\overline{x_1 - a_1}, \ldots, \overline{x_n - a_n})$ be the maximal ideal in B of a. This gives us the following exact sequences:

$$0 \to I \to A \to B \to 0, \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \to I \to \mathfrak{m} \to \overline{\mathfrak{m}} \to 0.$$

The image of \mathfrak{m}^2 in *B* equals $\overline{\mathfrak{m}}^2$, so the inverse image in \mathfrak{m} of $\overline{\mathfrak{m}}^2$ is $I + \mathfrak{m}^2$. This gives us the following exact sequence:

$$0 \to (I + \mathfrak{m}^2)/\mathfrak{m}^2 \to \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2 \to \overline{\mathfrak{m}}/\overline{\mathfrak{m}}^2 \to 0.$$

Now consider the following map:

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathfrak{m} \times T_{\mathbb{A}^n}(a) \to k, \quad (f, v) \mapsto \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial v}\right)(a).$$

Lemma 9.2.1 The map $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is bilinear and induces a perfect pairing $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2 \times T_{\mathbb{A}^n}(a) \to k$ of *k*-vector spaces ("perfect" means that each side is identified with the dual of the other side).

Proof The map $(f, v) \mapsto \langle f, v \rangle$ is obviously linear in f. It is linear in v as $\langle f, v \rangle = \sum_{j} (\partial f / \partial x_j)(a) \cdot v_j$. Hence it is bilinear. Now $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ gives a map $\mathfrak{m} \to T_{\mathbb{A}^n}(a)^{\vee}$, $f \mapsto \langle f, \cdot \rangle$. The kernel of this map is $\{f \in \mathfrak{m} : \forall i, (\partial f / \partial x_i)(a) = 0\}$. By translation, we may assume that a = 0. Let f be in the kernel. We write $f = \sum_i f_i$, with f_i homogeneous of degree i. Since f(0) = 0, the constant term f_0 is zero and since all the partial derivatives at 0 vanish, f_1 is zero as well. This shows that $f \in (x_1, \ldots, x_n)^2 = \mathfrak{m}^2$. So we have an injection $\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2 \to T_{\mathbb{A}^n}(a)^{\vee}$. Note that $T_{\mathbb{A}^n}(a) = k^n$ and that $(\overline{x_1 - a_1}, \ldots, \overline{x_n - a_n})$ is a k-basis of $\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$, so since the dimensions agree, our map is surjective and hence we have an isomorphism. \Box

Proposition 9.2.2 The pairing $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ induces a perfect pairing $\overline{\mathfrak{m}}/\overline{\mathfrak{m}}^2 \times T_X(a) \to k$.

Proof Remember that we have the following exact sequence:

$$0 \to (I + \mathfrak{m}^2)/\mathfrak{m}^2 \to \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2 \to \overline{\mathfrak{m}}/\overline{\mathfrak{m}}^2 \to 0$$

By Lemma 9.2.1, we have the perfect pairing $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2 \times T_{\mathbb{A}^n}(a) \to k$. By definition:

$$T_X(a) = \{ v \in k^n : \langle \overline{f}, v \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } \overline{f} \in (I + \mathfrak{m}^2) / (\mathfrak{m}^2) \subset \mathfrak{m} / \mathfrak{m}^2. \}$$

So we get a perfect pairing between $T_X(a)$ and the quotient $(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2)/((I+\mathfrak{m}^2)/\mathfrak{m}^2)$, which is $\overline{\mathfrak{m}}/\overline{\mathfrak{m}}^2$ by the short exact sequence above. Here we have used that if $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is a perfect pairing between finite dimensional k-vector spaces V and W, and W' is a subspace of W, then we get an induced perfect pairing between V/V' and W', with V' the orthogonal complement of W'.

Definition 9.2.3 For X a variety, $x \in X$, we define $T_X(x) = (\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2)^{\vee}$, where $U \subset X$ is an affine open containing x and $\mathfrak{m} \subset \mathcal{O}_X(U)$ is the maximal ideal of x (this is independent of the chosen affine open U).

9.3 Derivations and differentials

See also Section II.8 of [Hart] or [Serre]. In this section we introduce differential forms. We will use the pairing $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ of the previous section, although we will change the order of its arguments.

Let X be an affine variety and let $A := \mathcal{O}_X(X)$. For $x \in X$ and $v \in T_X(x)$ we have a map (notice that $f - f(x) \in \mathfrak{m}$): $\partial_v : A \to k, f \mapsto \partial_v f := \langle v, \overline{f - f(x)} \rangle$. These maps ∂_v are k-linear and satisfy the Leibniz rule: $\partial_v (f \cdot g) = f(x) \partial_v g + g(x) \partial_v f$. Indeed:

$$\begin{split} \langle v, \overline{fg - f(x)g(x)} \rangle &= \langle v, \overline{(f - f(x))g} + \overline{f(x)(g - g(x))} \rangle \\ &= \langle v, \overline{(f - f(x))(g - g(x))} + \overline{(f - f(x))g(x)} + \overline{f(x)(g - g(x))} \rangle \\ &= \langle v, g(x)\overline{(f - f(x))} \rangle + \langle v, f(x)\overline{(g - g(x))} \rangle \\ &= f(x)\partial_v g + g(x)\partial_v f. \end{split}$$

In order to define the algebraic analogue of C^{∞} -vector fields on manifolds we introduce the concept of *k*-derivations of *A*-modules. Recall that $A = \mathcal{O}_X(X)$.

Definition 9.3.1 Let M be an A-module. A k-derivation $D : A \to M$ is a k-linear map $D : A \to M$ such that for all $f, g \in A$: D(fg) = fD(g) + gD(f). We denote the set of those derivations by $\text{Der}_k(A, M)$.

Remark 9.3.2 Notice that $D(1) = D(1 \cdot 1) = 1 \cdot D(1) + 1 \cdot D(1)$. Hence D(1) = 0 and by k linearity we see for $c \in k$ that D(c) = 0.

Example 9.3.3 Let $x \in X$, $A \to k = A/\mathfrak{m}_x$: $f \mapsto f(x)$. This makes k into an A-module and $\operatorname{Der}_k(A, A/\mathfrak{m}) = T_X(x)$ (Exercise 9.6.3).

Proposition 9.3.4 There is a universal pair (Ω_A^1, d) : Ω_A^1 is an A-module, $d: A \to \Omega_A^1$ is a k-derivation, such that for any A-module M and any derivation $D: A \to M$ there exists a unique A-linear map φ making the following diagram commute:



Proof Let N be the free A-module with basis the symbols da for all a in A: $N = \bigoplus_{a \in A} A da$. Let $N' \subset N$ be the submodule generated by the relations $d(\lambda a) = \lambda \cdot d(a)$, d(a + b) = d(a) + d(b) and $d(ab) = a \cdot db + b \cdot da$ for all $a, b \in A, \lambda \in k$. We claim that we can take Ω^1_A to be N/N' with d which sends a to $\overline{da} \in N/N'$. Indeed one easily checks that (N/N', d) satisfies the universal property. \Box

Example 9.3.5 For $A = k[x_1, ..., x_n]/(f_1, ..., f_r)$ one has:

$$\Omega_A^1 = \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^n A \cdot dx_i\right) / \left(A \cdot df_1 + \dots + A \cdot df_r\right)$$

where $df_i = \sum_j (\partial f_i / \partial x_j) dx_j$. Hence Ω^1_A is presented as follows:

$$A^{r} \xrightarrow{J} A^{n} \to \Omega^{1}_{A} \to 0, \quad \text{where} \quad J = \begin{pmatrix} \partial f_{1} / \partial x_{1} & \cdots & \partial f_{r} / \partial x_{1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \partial f_{1} / \partial x_{n} & \cdots & \partial f_{r} / \partial x_{n} \end{pmatrix}$$

A proof is given in Exercise 9.6.5.

Remark 9.3.6 Let $\varphi: A \to B$ be a morphism of k-algebras and M a B-module. Then M becomes an A-module via $\varphi: a \cdot m := \varphi(a)m$. This gives a map $\text{Der}_k(B, M) \to \text{Der}_k(A, M), D \mapsto D \circ \varphi$. Indeed, we check the Leibniz rule (where the last part follows from the A module structure on M):

$$\begin{split} (D \circ \varphi)(fg) &= D(\varphi(fg)) \\ &= D(\varphi(f)\varphi(g)) \\ &= \varphi(f)D(\varphi(g)) + \varphi(g)D(\varphi(f)) \\ &= fD(\varphi(g)) + gD(\varphi(f)). \end{split}$$

In particular we have a unique A-linear map $\Omega^1(\varphi)$ making the following diagram commute:



For morphisms of k-algebras $\varphi_1 \colon A_1 \to A_2$ and $\varphi_1 \colon A_1 \to A_2$ one has $\Omega^1(\varphi_2 \circ \varphi_1) = \Omega^1(\varphi_2) \circ \Omega^1(\varphi_1)$.

9.4 1-forms on varieties

Let X be a variety, obtained from glueing data:

$$\left(I, (X_i)_{i \in I}, \left(\varphi_{i,j} : X_{i,j} \xrightarrow{\sim} X_{j,i}\right)_{i,j \in I}\right)$$

in which all X_i and $X_{i,j}$ are affine (this is no restriction if the variety X is separated). Then we define the $\mathcal{O}_X(X)$ -module of 1-forms on X:

$$\Omega^1_X(X) = \{ (\omega_i \in \Omega^1_{\mathcal{O}_{X_i}(X_i)})_{i \in I} : \forall i, j, \ \Omega^1(\varphi^*_{ij}) : \omega_j |_{X_{j,i}} \mapsto \omega_i |_{X_{i,j}} \}.$$

More precisely, the compatibility condition between the ω_i is that for all i and j in I, the images of ω_i and ω_j in $\Omega^1_{\mathcal{O}(X_{i,j})}$ and $\Omega^1_{\mathcal{O}(X_{j,i})}$ obtained by applying Ω^1 to the restriction maps $\mathcal{O}(X_i) \to \mathcal{O}(X_{i,j})$ and $\mathcal{O}(X_j) \to \mathcal{O}(X_{j,i})$ correspond to each other via the isomorphism $\Omega^1(\varphi^*_{i,j})$ from $\Omega^1_{\mathcal{O}(X_{j,i})}$ to $\Omega^1_{\mathcal{O}(X_{i,j})}$.

It is a fact that $\Omega^1_X(X)$ does not depend on the choice of presentation of X.

Remark 9.4.1 For simplicity of notation we will sometimes omit the subscript "X" in $\mathcal{O}_X(U)$ and $\Omega^1_X(U)$.

Example 9.4.2 Let X be an affine variety. Then we have $\Omega^1_X(X) = \Omega^1_{\mathcal{O}_X(X)}$. For $x \in X$, Example 9.3.3 gives:

$$T_X(x) = \operatorname{Der}_k(\mathcal{O}_X(X), \mathcal{O}_X(X)/\mathfrak{m}_x) = \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{O}_X(X)}(\Omega^1_X(X), k) = \left(\Omega^1_X(X)/\mathfrak{m}\Omega^1_X(X)\right)^{\vee}$$

Example 9.4.3 For $X = \mathbb{A}^n$: $\Omega^1(\mathbb{A}^n) = \{\sum_{i=1}^n f_i dx_i : f_i \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]\}$; it is a free $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ -module with basis $\{dx_1, \dots, dx_n\}$.

Example 9.4.4 Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$, $X = Z(-y^n + x^{n-1} - 1) \subset \mathbb{A}^2$ and suppose that $n(n-1) \in k^{\times}$. Let $A := \mathcal{O}_X(X) = k[x, y]/(f)$ where $f = -y^n + x^{n-1} - 1$. Then:

$$\Omega^1_A = \left(A \cdot dx \oplus A \cdot dy\right) / \left(-ny^{n-1}dy + (n-1)x^{n-2}dx\right)$$

On $D(y) \subset X$ we have: $dy = \frac{n-1}{n} \frac{x^{n-2}}{y^{n-1}} dx$, so $\Omega^1(D(y))$ is free over $\mathcal{O}_X(D(y))$ with basis dx. On $D(x) \subset X$: $dx = \frac{n}{n-1} \frac{y^{n-1}}{x^{n-2}} dx$. Hence $\Omega^1(D(x)) = \mathcal{O}_X(D(x)) dy$ (so it is free again). Note that $X = D(x) \cup D(y)$. We say that Ω^1_X is locally free of rank 1.

Remark 9.4.5 For X a variety, and for varying $U \subset X$ open, $U \mapsto \Omega^1(U)$ is a sheaf, denoted Ω^1_X . It is a "coherent sheaf of \mathcal{O}_X -modules". For X smooth of dimension d, Ω^1_X is locally free of rank d. If X is moreover irreducible, then the equivalence classes of (U, ω) with $U \subset X$ non-empty open and $\omega \in \Omega^1(U)$ form the d-dimensional K(X)-vector space of "rational 1-forms", $\Omega^1_{K(X)}$.

9.5 1-forms on smooth irreducible curves

Definition 9.5.1 Let X be a smooth irreducible curve. Hence for all $x \in X$, $\dim(\mathfrak{m}_x/\mathfrak{m}_x^2) = 1$.

i. For $0 \neq \omega \in \Omega^1_{K(X)}$ and $x \in X$ we define $v_x(\omega) \in \mathbb{Z}$ as follows. Let $U \ni x$ be an affine open and $t \in \mathcal{O}(U)$ such that $t \in \mathfrak{m}_x$, $t \notin \mathfrak{m}_x^2$. Then there is a unique $g \in K(X)$ such that $\omega = g \cdot dt$ in $\Omega^1_{K(X)}$. We put $v_x(\omega) = v_x(g)$; this is independent of the choice of t. Such a t is called a *parameter* or *uniformizer* at x.

ii. For $\omega \in \Omega^1_{K(X)}$ and $x \in X$ we define $\operatorname{res}_x(\omega)$, the *residue* of ω at x, as follows. Write $\omega = g \cdot dt$ with t a parameter at x. If $v_x(g) \ge 0$, then $\operatorname{res}_x(\omega) := 0$. If $v_x(g) = -n$ with $n \ge 1$, write $g = a_{-n}t^{-n} + \cdots + a_{-1}t^{-1} + h$ with $h \in K(X)$ regular at x. Then $\operatorname{res}_x(\omega) := a_{-1}$. This is independent of the choice of t. See III.7.14 in [Hart] for more details.

Remark 9.5.2 To compute the a_i for i in $\{-n, \ldots, x1\}$, write $t^n g = a_{-n} + a_{-n+1}t + \cdots + a_{-1}t^{n-1}$ in $\mathcal{O}(U)/\mathfrak{m}_x^n \mathcal{O}(U)$, using that $\dim_k(\mathfrak{m}_x^i/\mathfrak{m}_x^{i+1}) = 1$, with basis \overline{t}^i .

9.6 Exercises

Exercise 9.6.1 Let k be a field, A a k-algebra and M an A-module. Show that $\text{Der}_k(A, M)$ is an A-module for the addition and multiplication defined by $(D_1 + D_2)g = D_1g + D_2g$, (fD)g = f(Dg).

Exercise 9.6.2 Show that if $\varphi \colon A \to B$ is a morphism of k-algebras and $D \in \text{Der}_k(B, M)$, then $D \circ \varphi$ is in $\text{Der}_k(A, M)$ (what is the A-module structure on M?).

Exercise 9.6.3 Let k be a field, A a k-algebra and $m \subset A$ a maximal ideal such that the morphism $k \to A \to A/m = k$ is an isomorphism.

- i. Let $D \in \text{Der}_k(A, A/m)$. Show that D is zero on m^2 , and hence factors through a derivation $\overline{D}: A/m^2 \to k$.
- ii. Show that the map $\operatorname{Der}_k(A, A/m) \to (m/m^2)^{\vee}, D \mapsto \overline{D}|_{m/m^2}$ is an isomorphism of A-modules.

Exercise 9.6.4 Let k be a field, $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Show that (dx_1, \ldots, dx_n) is an A-basis of Ω_A^1 , and give a formula for df, where $f \in A$.

Exercise 9.6.5 Let k and A be as in the previous exercise. Let $I = (f_1, \ldots, f_r)$ be an ideal in A, and let $q: A \to B := A/I$ be the quotient map.

- i. Show that, for any *B*-module M, q^* : $Der_k(B, M) \to Der_k(A, M)$ is injective and has image the set of those *D* such that for all *i* one has $D(f_i) = 0$.
- ii. Use the universal property of Ω^1_A to show that $d: B \to \Omega^1_A/(A \cdot df_1 + \cdots A \cdot df_r)$ is a universal derivation.

Exercise 9.6.6 Consider the rational 1-form $x^{-1}dx$ on \mathbb{P}^1 . Compute its order and residue at all $P \in \mathbb{P}^1$.

Exercise 9.6.7 Prove that for all rational 1-forms ω on \mathbb{P}^1 we have $\sum_P \operatorname{res}_P(\omega) = 0$, where the sum is over all $P \in \mathbb{P}^1$. Hint: write $\omega = f \cdot dx$, with $f \in k(x)$, and use a suitable k-basis of k(x).

Exercise 9.6.8 Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$, $X = Z(-x_1^n + x_0^{n-1}x_2 - x_2^n) \subset \mathbb{P}^2$. Assume that n(n-1) is in k^{\times} . We have already seen that X is smooth. You may now use without proof that X is irreducible (in fact, Bezout's theorem implies that reducible plane projective curves are singular). Let $U := X \cap \mathbb{A}^2$. Then U = Z(f) with $f = -y^n + x^{n-1} - 1$.

- i. Show that in $\Omega^1(U)$ we have $(n-1)x^{n-2}dx = ny^{n-1}dy$.
- ii. We define a rational 1-form ω_0 by:

$$\omega_0 = \frac{dx}{ny^{n-1}} = \frac{dy}{(n-1)x^{n-2}}.$$

Show that ω_0 has no poles on U. Hint: $U = (U \cap D(x)) \cup (U \cap D(y))$.

iii. Show that ω_0 has no zeros on U. Hint: both dx and dy are multiples of ω_0 , and, for each $P \in U$, at least one of dx and dy is a generator of $\Omega^1(U)/m_P\Omega^1(U)$. Hence (you do not need to prove this) $\Omega^1(U)$ is a free $\mathcal{O}(U)$ -module, with basis ω_0 .

- iv. Let $P = X \cap Z(x_2)$ be the point at infinity of X. Compute $v_P(\omega_0)$.
- v. For $n \in \{2, 3, 4\}$, give a basis (and hence the dimension) of $\Omega^1(X)$ (hint: use computations from Lecture 2; do not do these computations again, just give the result).

Lecture 10

The theorem of Riemann-Roch

10.1 Exact sequences

In the next sections, we use the concept of complexes and exact sequences of k-vector spaces and some properties of these.

Definition 10.1.1 A sequence of k-vector spaces is a diagram of k-vector spaces

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\alpha_0} V_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} V_2 \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} V_3 \xrightarrow{\alpha_3} \cdots$$

with k-vector spaces V_i and linear maps α_i indexed by i in \mathbb{Z} . Such a sequence is called a *complex* if for all i in \mathbb{Z} , $\alpha_{i+1} \circ \alpha_i = 0$, and most often the maps α_i are then denoted d_i . A complex is called *exact* or an *exact sequence* if for all i in \mathbb{Z} , ker $(\alpha_{i+1}) = im(\alpha_i)$. When writing sequences, terms that are omitted are zero. A short exact sequence is an exact sequence of the following form:

$$0 \xrightarrow{\alpha_0} V_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} V_2 \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} V_3 \xrightarrow{\alpha_3} 0$$

In other words, this means that α_1 is injective, im $\alpha_1 = \ker \alpha_2$ and α_2 is surjective. In still other words: V_3 is the quotient of V_2 by V_1 .

Lemma 10.1.2 Let

$$0 \xrightarrow{\alpha_0} V_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} V_2 \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} \cdots \xrightarrow{\alpha_{n-1}} V_n \xrightarrow{\alpha_n} 0$$

be an exact sequence of finite dimensional vector spaces. Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (-1)^{i} \dim(V_{i}) = 0$$

Proof For all *i* define $V'_i = \ker \alpha_i = \operatorname{im} \alpha_{i-1}$ and choose a subspace $V''_i \subset V_i$ such that $V_i = V'_i \oplus V''_i$. Then α_i restricts to an isomorphism $V''_i \to V'_{i+1}$ hence $\dim V''_i = \dim V'_{i+1}$ for all *i*. Together with the identity $\dim V_i = \dim V'_i + \dim V''_i$ for all *i* this proves the lemma.

10.2 Divisors on curves

From now on in this syllabus, the meaning of the word "curve" is as in the following definition. We do not assume curves to be smooth. The reason is that in Lecture 13 we need the generality of this section for treating divisors on surfaces. As we do not even discuss local rings at points on varieties and therefore we cannot use that these rings for smooth curves are "discrete valuation rings," this greater generality is not felt at all.

Definition 10.2.1 Let k be an algebraically closed field. A *curve over* k is a quasi-projective algebraic variety over k all of whose irreducible components are of dimension one.

Let X be an irreducible curve. Let $P \in X$ and $f \in K(X)^{\times}$. We want to define an integer $v_P(f)$, the order of vanishing of f at P. Intuitively it should satisfy:

$$v_P(f) = 0$$
 if $f(P) \neq 0, \infty$,
< 0 if f has a pole at P,
> 0 if f has a zero at P.

We will now give an example, which one can justify with the definition given later (see Exercise 10.5.1.

Example 10.2.2 Let $X = \mathbb{P}^1$. By Proposition 8.5.3, $K(\mathbb{P}^1) = K(\mathbb{A}^1) = Q(k[x]) = k(x)$. Let $f \in K(\mathbb{P}^1)^{\times}$, so f = g/h with $g, h \in k[x]$ both non-zero. Let P be in \mathbb{A}^1 . Then we can write $g = (x - P)^l g'$ and $h = (x - P)^m h'$ for $g', h' \in k[x]$ with $g'(P), h'(P) \neq 0$ and we set $v_P(f) = l - m$. For the point $P = (1:0) = \infty$, we set $v_{\infty}(f) = \deg(h) - \deg(g)$.

Definition 10.2.3 Let X be an irreducible curve, $P \in X$ and $f \in K(X)^{\times}$. If there exists an affine open $U \subset X$ with $P \in U$ such that $f|_U \in \mathcal{O}_X(U)$ and f has no zeros on $U - \{P\}$, then we define:

$$v_P(f) = \dim_k \mathcal{O}_X(U)/(f|_U).$$

Proposition 10.2.4 In the situation of Definition 10.2.3, and with g satisfying the same conditions as f, we have:

- i. $v_P(f) < \infty$;
- ii. $v_P(f)$ does not depend on U;
- iii. $v_P(fg) = v_P(f) + v_P(g)$.

Proof i: *P* corresponds to a maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} \subset \mathcal{O}_X(U)$. We have $\sqrt{(f)} \supset \mathfrak{m}$. Write $\mathfrak{m} = (f_1, \ldots, f_t)$ with $f_i \in \mathcal{O}_X(U)$ (recall that $\mathcal{O}_X(U)$ is Noetherian). Since \mathfrak{m} is maximal, it follows that either f is a unit or $\mathfrak{m} = \sqrt{(f)}$. It follows that there exists $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ such that $f_i^{a_i} \in (f)$. Now let $a = \sum_{i=1}^t a_i$, then by the pigeon hole principle $\mathfrak{m}^a \subset (f)$. And this gives:

$$\dim \mathcal{O}_X(U)/(f) \leq \dim \mathcal{O}_X(U)/\mathfrak{m}^a = \dim \mathcal{O}_X(U)/\mathfrak{m} + \dim \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2 + \dots + \dim \mathfrak{m}^{a-1}/\mathfrak{m}^a$$

Notice that $\mathcal{O}_X(U)/\mathfrak{m} = k$. It is enough to show that $\dim \mathfrak{m}^b/\mathfrak{m}^{b+1} < \infty$ (for any $b \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$). First observe that $\mathfrak{m}^b/\mathfrak{m}^{b+1}$ is a finitely generated $\mathcal{O}_X(U)$ module (Noetherianity). Now $\mathfrak{m} \subset \mathcal{O}_X(U)$ acts trivially on $\mathfrak{m}^b/\mathfrak{m}^{b+1}$ (indeed, if $x \in \mathfrak{m}^b$ and $y \in \mathfrak{m}$, then $xy \in \mathfrak{m}^{b+1}$). So $\mathfrak{m}^b/\mathfrak{m}^{b+1}$ is even a finitely generated $\mathcal{O}_X(U)/\mathfrak{m}$ -module, hence a finite dimensional k-vector space. So $\dim_k \mathcal{O}_X(U)/(f) < \infty$.

ii: Left to the reader. Hint: let U and V be two such opens; reduce to the case where $V \subset U$; consider the multiplication by f on the short exact sequence $0 \to \mathcal{O}_X(U) \to \mathcal{O}_X(V) \to \mathcal{O}_X(V) / \mathcal{O}_X(U) \to 0$, prove that multiplication by f on $\mathcal{O}_X(V) / \mathcal{O}_X(U)$ is an isomorphism, and use the five-lemma.

iii: Consider the following short exact sequence:

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_X(U)/(g) \xrightarrow{f} \mathcal{O}_X(U)/(fg) \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_X(U)/(f) \longrightarrow 0,$$

where f is multiplication f. Lemma 10.1.2 gives $\mathcal{O}_X(U)/(fg) = \dim \mathcal{O}_X(U)/(f) + \dim \mathcal{O}_X(U)/(g)$, that is, $v_P(fg) = v_P(f) + v_P(g)$.

10.3. H^0 AND H^1

Definition 10.2.5 Let X be an irreducible curve, $P \in X$ and $f \in K(X)^{\times}$. Then choose U affine open containing P, and $g, h \in \mathcal{O}_X(U)$ such that f = g/h (Proposition 8.5.3) such that g and h have no zeros on $U - \{P\}$ and define $v_P(f) = v_P(g) - v_P(h)$.

Definition 10.2.6 Let X be a curve. A *divisor* on X is a \mathbb{Z} -valued function D on X such that for at most finitely many P in X, $D(P) \neq 0$. In other words, it is a function $D: X \to \mathbb{Z}$ with finite support. The \mathbb{Z} -module of divisors is $\mathbb{Z}^{(X)}$, the free \mathbb{Z} -module with basis X. Often a divisor D is written as a formal finite sum $D = \sum_{P \in X} D(P) \cdot P$. The degree of a divisor D is defined as $\deg(D) = \sum_{P \in D} D(P)$.

Example 10.2.7 A typical element of $\mathbb{Z}^{(X)}$ looks something like 2P + 3Q - R for some $P, Q, R \in X$. The degree of this divisor is 4.

Lemma 10.2.8 Let X be an irreducible curve, and f in $K(X)^{\times}$. Then the set of P in X with $v_P(f) \neq 0$ is finite.

Proof Recall that our standing assumption is that curves are quasi-projective. Hence X can be covered by finitely many nonempty open affines U_i , such that for each of them, $f|_{U_i} = g_i/h_i$ with g_i and h_i in $\mathcal{O}_X(U_i)$, both non-zero. For each *i*, as U_i is irreducible and affine and of dimension one, hence $Z(g_i)$ and $Z(h_i)$ are zero-dimensional affine varieties, hence finite.

Definition 10.2.9 Let $f \in K(X)^{\times}$. Then we define the *divisor of* f as $\operatorname{div}(f) = \sum_{P \in X} v_P(f)P$.

Theorem 10.2.10 Let X be an irreducible curve. The map $K(X)^{\times} \to \mathbb{Z}^{(X)}$, $f \mapsto \operatorname{div}(f)$, is a group morphism.

Proof This is a direct consequence of Proposition 10.2.4 iii.

Definition 10.2.11 Let X be an irreducible curve, and D and D' divisors on X. Then we say that $D \le D'$ if for all $P \in X$, $D(p) \le D'(p)$. This relation " \le " is a partial ordering.

Example 10.2.12 Let P, Q and R be disctinct points on X. Then $P - 3Q + R \le 2P - 2Q + R$. Note however that $P + Q \le 2Q$ and that $2Q \le P + Q$, so the partial ordering is not a total ordering.

10.3 H^0 and H^1

Definition 10.3.1 For X an irreducible curve, D a divisor on X, and $U \subset X$ open and non-empty, we define

$$H^{0}(U, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)) := \{ f \in K(X)^{\times} : \operatorname{div}(f|_{U}) + D|_{U} \ge 0 \} \cup \{ 0 \}.$$

We will often abbreviate $H^0(U, \mathcal{O}_X(D))$ to $H^0(U, D)$ and $H^0(U, \mathcal{O}_X(0))$ to $H^0(U, \mathcal{O}_X)$.

Example 10.3.2 Let X be an irreducible curve, $U \subset X$ open and non-empty, and P in X. If P is not in U then $H^0(U, P)$ is the set of rational functions f with no pole in U. If P is in U, then $H^0(U, P)$ is the set of rational functions f with a pole of order at most 1 at P and no other poles in U.

We will state the following result without proof.

Proposition 10.3.3 Let X be an irreducible curve.

- i. If X is projective then $H^0(X, D)$ is a k-vector space of finite dimension.
- ii. If $U \subset X$ is open, non-empty and smooth, then $H^0(U, \mathcal{O}_X) = \mathcal{O}_X(U)$.

Example 10.3.4 Let A be the sub-k-algebra $k[t^2, t^3]$ of k[t]. It is finitely generated and it is an integral domain. Let X be the affine variety such that $\mathcal{O}_X(X) = A$; it is irreducible. Then $H^0(X, \mathcal{O}_X) = k[t]$, which is strictly larger than A. Note that X is not smooth: it is the curve $Z(y^2 - x^3)$ in \mathbb{A}^2 (the morphism $k[x, y] \to A, x \mapsto t^2, y \mapsto t^3$ is surjective and has kernel $(y^2 - x^3)$).

Corollary 10.3.5 Let X be a smooth irreducible projective curve. Then $\mathcal{O}_X(X) = H^0(X, 0) = k$.

Proof Proposition 10.3.3 says that $\mathcal{O}_X(X) = H^0(X, 0)$, and that this is a finite dimensional k-vector space. It is a sub-k-algebra of K(X), hence an integral domain. Hence it is a field (indeed, for f nonzero in $\mathcal{O}(X)$, multiplication by f on $\mathcal{O}(X)$ is injective, hence surjective, hence there is a g in $\mathcal{O}(X)$ such that fg = 1. So, $k \to \mathcal{O}(X)$ is a finite field extension. As k is algebraically closed, $k = \mathcal{O}(X)$.

Let X be an irreducible smooth curve. Then there exist nonempty open and affine subsets U_1 and U_2 of X such that $X = U_1 \cup U_2$ (see Exercise 10.5.4). In Exercise 8.6.6 we saw that $\mathcal{O}_X(X) = H^0(X, \mathcal{O}_X)$ is the kernel of the map $\delta \colon H^0(U_1, \mathcal{O}_X) \oplus H^0(U_2, \mathcal{O}_X) \to H^0(U_1 \cap U_2, \mathcal{O}_X), (f_1, f_2) \mapsto f_1|_{U_1 \cap U_2} - f_2|_{U_1 \cap U_2}$. In the same way, one can verify that $H^0(X, D)$ is the kernel of the map:

(10.3.6) $\delta: H^0(U_1, D) \oplus H^0(U_2, D) \to H^0(U_1 \cap U_2, D), \quad (f_1, f_2) \mapsto f_1|_{U_1 \cap U_2} - f_2|_{U_1 \cap U_2}.$

Definition 10.3.7 Let δ be as in (10.3.6). We define $H^1(X, D) := \operatorname{coker}(\delta)$.

Facts 10.3.8 i. $H^1(X, D)$ does not depend on the choice of U_1 and U_2 . For example, if U'_1 and U'_2 are non-empty open affines contained in U_1 and U_2 , respectively, and cover X, then the restriction maps induce a map from $\operatorname{coker}(\delta)$ to $\operatorname{coker}(\delta')$. The claim is that such maps are isomorphisms and that all open affine covers can be related via common refinements, resulting in unique isomorphisms between the $\operatorname{coker}(\delta)$'s.

ii. If X is affine, then $H^1 = 0$.

Definition 10.3.9 Let X be a smooth irreducible projective curve. Then dim $H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X)$ is called the *genus* of X.

Example 10.3.10 We have already calculated the genus of a particular curve; see Exercise 8.6.6.

10.4 The Riemann-Roch theorem

Theorem 10.4.1 Let X be a smooth, irreducible projective curve. Let g be the genus of X and D a divisor on X. Then dim $H^0(X, D) - \dim H^1(X, D) = 1 - g + \deg(D)$.

Proof Note that the statement is true for D = 0, as dim $H^0(X, 0) = 1$ and dim $H^1(X, 0) = g$. It now suffices to show that for all D and all $P \in X$, the statement is true for D if and only if it is true for D' := D + P.

We have the following two exact sequences (with the notations from above):

$$0 \to H^0(X, D) \to H^0(U_1, D) \oplus H^0(U_2, D) \to H^0(U_1 \cap U_2, D) \to H^1(X, D) \to 0$$

$$0 \to H^0(X, D') \to H^0(U_1, D') \oplus H^0(U_2, D') \to H^0(U_1 \cap U_2, D') \to H^1(X, D') \to 0$$

We also have the following inclusions:

$$\alpha: H^0(U_1, D) \oplus H^0(U_2, D) \to H^0(U_1, D') \oplus H^0(U_2, D')$$

$$\beta: H^0(U_1 \cap U_2, D) \to H^0(U_1 \cap U_2, D')$$

Now we can form a large diagram as follows (with exact rows and columns):



In this diagram A and B are the cokernels of α respectively β ; γ is the map induced by the δ 's above it and A' and B' are the kernel and cokernel of γ , respectively.

We can now apply the snake lemma (see for example Wikipedia), and we obtain the following exact sequence:

$$0 \to H^0(X, D) \to H^0(X, D') \to A' \to H^1(X, D) \to H^1(X, D') \to B' \to 0.$$

We apply Lemma 10.1.2 a few times. From the last column of the large diagram, we see:

$$\dim B' - \dim A' = \dim B - \dim A.$$

From the exact sequence obtained from the snake lemma and from the previous line we get:

$$(\dim H^0(X, D) - \dim H^1(X, D)) - (\dim H^0(X, D') - \dim H^1(X, D'))$$

= dim B' - dim A'
= dim B - dim A.

So it suffices to show that dim A and dim B are finite and that dim $A - \dim B = 1$. We claim that for $U \subset X$ open affine and non-empty:

dim coker
$$(H^0(U, D) \to H^0(U, D')) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } P \notin U \\ 1 & \text{if } P \in U \end{cases}$$

If $P \notin U$, the claim is obvious as $D|_U = D'|_U$.

Suppose that $P \in U$. Let us first argue that the cokernel of $H^0(U, D) \to H^0(U, D')$ has dimension at most one. Let $t \in \mathcal{O}_X(V)$ be a uniformiser at P, with V open in U. Let n := -D'(P). As in Definition 9.5.1 and Remark 9.5.2, each element f in $H^0(U, D')$ can be written uniquely as $f = a_n(f)t^n + t^{n+1}h$ with $a_n(f)$ in k and h in K(X) regular at P. Such an f is in $H^0(U, D)$ if and only if $a_n(f) = 0$. Hence $H^0(U, D)$ is the kernel of the map $H^0(U, D') \to k$, $f, \mapsto a_n(f)$. Hence the cokernel has dimension at most one. To prove that it is one, it suffices to show that there is an f in $H^0(U, D')$ that is not in $H^0(U, D)$. We put $g := t^n$. Then g is in $K(X)^{\times}$, and $v_P(g) = n = -D'(P)$. We claim that there exists an h in $\mathcal{O}_X(U)$ such that h(P) = 1 and $f := h \cdot g$ is in $H^0(U, D')$. A element $h \neq 0$ in $\mathcal{O}_X(U)$ has this property if and only if h(P) = 1 and for all Q in $U, v_Q(h) \ge -v_Q(g) - D'(Q)$. This means that h(P) = 1 and at a finite number of distinct points Q_1, \ldots, Q_r , and elements n_i in \mathbb{N} , we must have $v_{Q_i}(h) \ge n_i$. This is a consequence of the Chinese remainder theorem, that says that the morphism of *k*-algebras $\mathcal{O}_X(U) \to \mathcal{O}_X(U)/\mathfrak{m}_P \times \prod_{i=1}^r \mathcal{O}_X(U)/\mathfrak{m}_{Q_i}^{n_i}$ is surjective. This finishes the proof of the claim.

Using the claim, we can now finish the proof. From the claim we get:

	$\dim A$	$\dim B$
$P \in U_1 \cap U_2$	2	1
$P \not\in U_1 \cap U_2$	1	0

So indeed dim $B - \dim A = -1$, and we are done with the proof.

10.5 Exercises

Exercise 10.5.1 Consider the standard affine $\mathbb{A}^1 \subset \mathbb{P}^1$, and denote by ∞ the point (0 : 1), so that $\mathbb{P}^1 = \mathbb{A}^1 \cup \{\infty\}$. Let g and h be nonzero elements of $k[x] = \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{A}^1}(\mathbb{A}^1)$. Verify using the definition that $v_{\infty}(g/h) = \deg(h) - \deg(g)$.

Exercise 10.5.2 In this exercise we consider divisors on \mathbb{P}^1 .

- i. Compute dim $(H^0(\mathbb{P}^1, \mathcal{O}(n\infty)))$;
- ii. Show that for every $P \in \mathbb{P}^1$ there exists an $f \in K(\mathbb{P}^1)$ with $\operatorname{div}(f) = P \infty$;
- iii. Show that the dimensions of $H^0(\mathbb{P}^1, \mathcal{O}(D))$ and $H^1(\mathbb{P}^1, \mathcal{O}(D))$ depend only on the degree of D. Give formulas for these dimensions.

Exercise 10.5.3 Let X be a smooth projective and irreducible curve and P a point of X. Use the Riemann-Roch theorem to show that $\mathcal{O}_X(X - \{P\})$ is infinite-dimensional.

Exercise 10.5.4 Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ be a projective curve. Show that there exists hyperplanes H_1 and H_2 in \mathbb{P}^n such that $H_1 \cap H_2 \cap X = \emptyset$. Deduce that X is the union of two open affine subsets. Now generalise this as follows (quite a lot harder): for $X \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ a quasi-projective curve there exist hypersurfaces $Z(f_1)$ and $Z(f_2)$ in \mathbb{P}^n such that $Z(f_1) \cap Z(f_2) \cap X = \emptyset$ and $X \cap D(f_i)$ is closed in $D(f_i)$ for both i.

Exercise 10.5.5 Let X be a smooth, projective and irreducible curve. Let $f: X \to \mathbb{P}^1$ be a morphism of varieties.

- i. Show that f is either constant or surjective (hint: use that all morphisms from X to \mathbb{A}^1 are constant);
- ii. Let U be the complement of $f^{-1}((1 : 0))$ and assume that U is non-empty. Show that $f_{|U}$, seen as a map to $\mathbb{A}^1 = k$ defines an element \tilde{f} of K(X);
- iii. Show that $f \mapsto \tilde{f}$ defines a bijection between the set of morphisms $X \to \mathbb{P}^1$ whose image is not $\{(1:0)\}$ and K(X).
- iv. Let $X = \mathbb{P}^1$ and $f: X \to \mathbb{P}^1$ an isomorphism. Show that there exist $a, b, c, d \in k$ such that $\tilde{f} = (ax+b)/(cx+d)$, where we have identified $K(\mathbb{P}^1)$ with the field of fractions of $k[x] = \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^1}(\mathbb{A}^1)$. Deduce that $\mathrm{PGL}_2(k)$ is the group of automorphisms of the variety \mathbb{P}^1 .

Exercise 10.5.6 Let $X \subset \mathbb{A}^2$ be the curve defined by $x^3 - y^2$.

- i. Show that X is irreducible;
- ii. Show that X is not smooth;
- iii. Let P be the point (0,0). Show that there is no pair (U, f) with $P \in U \subset X$ open affine, $f \in \mathcal{O}_X(U)$ and $v_P(f) = 1$. (Hint: consider $k[x, y]/m^2$ with m = (x, y).)

Lecture 11

Serre duality, varieties over \mathbb{F}_q and their zeta function

11.1 Serre duality

Let X be an irreducible projective smooth curve and let $D = \sum_{P \in X} D(P)P$ be a divisor on X. For $\omega \in \Omega^1_{K(X)}$ a non-zero rational 1-form on X we define:

$$\operatorname{div}(\omega) = \sum_{P \in X} v_P(\omega) P.$$

We define:

$$H^{0}(X, \Omega^{1}(-D)) := \{ 0 \neq \omega \in \Omega^{1}_{K(X)} : \operatorname{div}(\omega) - D \ge 0 \} \cup \{ 0 \}$$
$$= \{ 0 \neq \omega \in \Omega^{1}_{K(X)} : \forall P \in X, \ v_{P}(\omega) \ge a(P) \} \cup \{ 0 \}.$$

Fact 11.1.1 $H^0(X, \Omega^1(-D))$ is finite dimensional.

Recall that we have the following map for $X = U_1 \cup U_2$, U_1, U_2 affine open:

$$\delta \colon H^0(U_1, D) \oplus H^0(U_2, D) \to H^0(U_1 \cap U_2, D), \quad (f_1, f_2) \mapsto f_1|_{U_1 \cap U_2} - f_2|_{U_1 \cap U_2}.$$

The cokernel of this map was defined to be $H^1(X, D)$. We define the following pairing:

(11.1.2)
$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : H^0(U_1 \cap U_2, D) \times H^0(X, \Omega^1(-D)) \to k, \quad (g, \omega) \mapsto \sum_{P \in X - U_2} \operatorname{res}_P(g \cdot \omega).$$

Theorem 11.1.3 Let *X* be a smooth irreducible projective curve. The pairing in (11.1.2) induces a perfect pairing

$$H^1(X,D) \times H^0(X,\Omega^1(-D)) \to k.$$

It does not depend on the choice of the pair (U_1, U_2) in the same sense as in Facts 10.3.8.

Remark 11.1.4 We have chosen to sum over residues at the points missing U_2 . One can also decide to do it for the points missing U_1 , and this would change the pairing by a factor -1. To see this, first notice that $U_1^c \cap U_2^c = \emptyset$ and by definition $g \cdot \omega$ is regular at the points of $U_1 \cap U_2$. Furthermore, one can show that for

all $\theta \in \Omega^1_{K(X)}$ one has $\sum_{P \in X} \operatorname{res}_P(\theta) = 0$. This gives:

$$0 = \sum_{P \in X} \operatorname{res}_{P}(g \cdot \omega)$$

=
$$\sum_{P \in X - U_{1}} \operatorname{res}_{P}(g \cdot \omega) + \sum_{P \in X - U_{2}} \operatorname{res}_{P}(g \cdot \omega) + \sum_{P \in U_{1} \cap U_{2}} \operatorname{res}_{P}(g \cdot \omega)$$

=
$$\sum_{P \in X - U_{1}} \operatorname{res}_{P}(g \cdot \omega) + \sum_{P \in X - U_{2}} \operatorname{res}_{P}(g \cdot \omega).$$

Corollary 11.1.5 Let X be a smooth irreducible projective curve. Then $H^0(X, \Omega^1)$ and $H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X)$ are both of dimension g, the genus of X.

Proof By Theorem 11.1.3 the finite dimensional k-vector spaces $H^0(X, \Omega^1)$ and $H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X)$ isomorphic to eachother's dual, hence they have the same dimension.

Using Riemann-Roch and Serre duality, one obtains the following theorem.

Theorem 11.1.6 Let X be a smooth irreducible projective curve, and D a divisor on X. Then

 $\dim H^0(X, D) - \dim H^0(X, \Omega^1(-D)) = \deg(D) + 1 - g.$

Definition 11.1.7 Let X be a smooth irreducible projective curve. For $\omega_0 \in \Omega^1_{K(X)}$ non-zero, the divisor $\operatorname{div}(\omega_0)$ is called *a canonical divisor*.

Remark 11.1.8 Let X be a smooth irreducible projective curve. For $\omega = f \cdot \omega_0$ with $f \in K(X)^{\times}$ and ω_0 as above, $\operatorname{div}(\omega) = \operatorname{div}(\omega_0) + \operatorname{div}(f)$, so two canonical divisors differ by a principal divisor.

Lemma 11.1.9 Let X be a smooth irreducible projective curve. For D a divisor on X, consider the following map $\varphi \colon K(X) \to \Omega^1_{K(X)}, f \mapsto f \cdot \omega_0$. This map induces an isomorphism of k-vector spaces $H^0(X, \operatorname{div}(\omega_0) - D) \to H^0(X, \Omega^1(-D))$.

Proof Notice that:

$$f \cdot \omega_0 \in H^0(X, \Omega^1(-D)) \iff \operatorname{div}(f \cdot \omega_0) - D \ge 0$$
$$\iff \operatorname{div}(f) + (\operatorname{div}(\omega_0) - D) \ge 0$$
$$\iff f \in H^0(X, \operatorname{div}(\omega_0) - D).$$

Theorem 11.1.10 Let *X* be a smooth irreducible projective curve.

i. Let $\omega_0 \in \Omega^1_{K(X)}$ be non-zero. Then $\deg(\operatorname{div}(\omega_0)) = 2g - 2$. In other words, every canonical divisor on X has degree 2g - 2.

ii. Let f be in $K(X)^{\times}$. Then $\deg(\operatorname{div}(f)) = 0$. In other words, every principal divisor has degree zero. iii. Let D be a divisor on X. Then $H^0(X, D) = \{0\}$ if $\deg D < 0$, and $\dim H^0(X, D) = \deg D + 1 - g$ if $\deg D > 2g - 2$.

Proof i. We use Theorem 11.1.6 with $D = \operatorname{div}(\omega_0)$ in combination with the above lemma and Corollary 11.1.5. We get:

$$deg(D) = g - 1 + \dim H^0(X, D) - \dim H^0(X, \Omega^1(-D))$$

= g - 1 + dim H⁰(X, \Omega^1(0)) - dim H⁰(X, 0)
= g - 1 + g - 1
= 2g - 2.

11.2. PROJECTIVE VARIETIES OVER \mathbb{F}_q

ii. Let f be in $K(X)^{\times}$. Take $\omega \in \Omega^1_{K(X)}$ nonzero. Then $\operatorname{div}(f \cdot \omega) = \operatorname{div}(f) + \operatorname{div}(\omega)$. Hence $\operatorname{div}(f)$ is the difference of two canonical divisors and therefore it has degree zero.

Here is another proof. Let D be a divisor on X, and let $D' = D - \operatorname{div}(f)$. Then multiplication by f induces an isomorphism from $H^0(X, D)$ to $H^0(X, D')$ and from $H^1(X, D)$ to $H^1(X, D')$. Riemann-Roch now gives:

$$deg(D) + 1 - g = dim H^{0}(X, D) - dim H^{1}(X, D)$$

= dim H⁰(X, D') - dim H¹(X, D')
= deg(D') + 1 - g

So $\deg(D) = \deg(D') = \deg(D) - \deg(\operatorname{div}(f))$. Hence $\deg(\operatorname{div}(f)) = 0$.

iii. The first case follows directly from ii. For the second case, notice that $H^0(X, \Omega^1(-D)) = \{0\}$ and apply Theorem 11.1.6.

Remark 11.1.11 We note that 2 - 2g is the Euler characteristic of the sphere with g handles attached to it.

11.2 Projective varieties over \mathbb{F}_q

Let \mathbb{F}_q be a finite field with $\#\mathbb{F}_q = q$ elements. Let $\mathbb{F}_q \to \mathbb{F}$ be an algebraic closure. Now consider $\sigma \colon \mathbb{F} \to \mathbb{F}, a \mapsto a^q$. Then σ is an automorphism of \mathbb{F} and $\mathbb{F}_q = \{a \in \mathbb{F} : \sigma(a) = a\}$.

Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^n = \mathbb{P}^n(\mathbb{F})$ be closed and let $I \subset \mathbb{F}[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ be its ideal; I homogeneous and radical. Assume that I is generated by elements in $\mathbb{F}_q[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$, that is, $I = (f_1, \ldots, f_r)$ with $f_i \in \mathbb{F}_q[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ for all i. We say: "X is defined over \mathbb{F}_q ." This gives X some extra structures.

- i. The q-Frobenius endomorphism $F_X \colon X \to X$, $a = (a_0 \colon \cdots \colon a_n) \mapsto (a_0^q \colon \cdots \colon a_n^q)$. This is a morphism of varieties over \mathbb{F} . Note that for a in X, $F_X(a) = a$ if and only if $a \in X(\mathbb{F}_q) := \mathbb{P}^n(\mathbb{F}_q) \cap X$.
- ii. An affine presentation of X "defined over \mathbb{F}_q ." Let $X_i = Z(f_{i,1}, \ldots, f_{i,r}) \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ with

$$f_{i,k} = f_k(x_{i,0}, \dots, x_{i,n}) \in \mathbb{F}_q[\{x_{i,j} : j \neq i\}]$$

and $X_{i,j} = D(x_{i,j}) \cap X_i$ with $\varphi_{i,j} \colon X_{i,j} \xrightarrow{\sim} X_{j,i}$ where $\varphi_{i,j}$ is defined by polynomials over \mathbb{F}_q .

Definition 11.2.1 The category of projective varieties over \mathbb{F}_q has as objects the pairs (X, F_X) as above, and as morphisms the $f: X \to Y$ (morphisms of varieties over \mathbb{F}) such that $F_Y \circ f = f \circ F_X$.

Remark 11.2.2 We will not use the morphisms very often, but the definition is given because the authors of this syllabus like it. However, do not try to use such a definition in the more general context of \mathbb{F}_q -schemes, because Frobenius endomorphisms kill nilpotents.

11.3 Divisors on curves over \mathbb{F}_q

Let $X_0 := (X, F_X)$ be a projective variety over \mathbb{F}_q , with X irreducible and smooth of dimension 1 (so X is a smooth irreducible projective curve).

Definition 11.3.1 A *prime divisor* on X_0 of degree d is a divisor $D = x_1 + \cdots + x_d$ on X with the x_i in X distinct and transitively permuted by F_X . We let deg(D) = d.

Example 11.3.2 If $X_0 = (\mathbb{P}^1, F_{\mathbb{P}^1})$ and D is a prime divisor on X_0 , then either $D = \infty$ or there is an irreducible $f \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$ such that D is the sum of the zeros of f in \mathbb{F} .

Note that $\dim_{\mathbb{F}_q}(\mathbb{F}_q[x]/(f)) = \deg(f) = \deg(D)$. So the prime divisors are closely related to prime ideals of a certain ring, and this motivates our next definition.

Definition 11.3.3 We define the zeta function of X_0 as

$$Z(X_0,t) := \prod_{D \text{ prime}} \frac{1}{1 - t^{\deg D}} \in \mathbb{Z}[[t]].$$

Remark 11.3.4 This product indeed converges because for all $r \ge 1$, $X(\mathbb{F}_{q^r}) \subset \mathbb{P}^n(\mathbb{F}_{q^r})$ is finite. So the number of F_X -orbits of length r is finite.

Definition 11.3.5 Let P be the set of prime divisors on X_0 . We define the group of divisors on X_0 as $\text{Div}(X_0) := \mathbb{Z}^{(P)}$, and $\text{Div}(X_0)^+ := \mathbb{N}^{(P)}$, the subset of effective divisors.

Proposition 11.3.6 We have $Z(X_0, t) = \sum_{n \ge 0} d_n \cdot t^n$, with $d_n = \#\{D \in \text{Div}(X_0)^+ : \deg(D) = n\}$.

Proof This is the same argument as used for establishing the Euler product for the Riemann zeta function:

$$Z(X_0, t) = \prod_{D \in P} \frac{1}{1 - t^{\deg(D)}} = \prod_{D \in P} \sum_{n \ge 0} t^{n \cdot \deg(D)} = \sum_{n \ge 0} d_n t^n.$$

We want to study $\text{Div}(X_0)$ using finite dimensional \mathbb{F}_q -vector spaces $H^0(X_0, D)$. We take the shortest route to define these: via the action of σ on K(X).

Let $U \subset X$ be a nonempty open affine subset, defined over \mathbb{F}_q : U is closed in \mathbb{A}^n , $I(U) = (f_1, \ldots, f_r)$, with $f_i \in \mathbb{F}_q[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Then σ acts on $\mathbb{F}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, $g = \sum_i g_i x^i$ is mapped to $\sigma g := \sum_i (\sigma g_i) x^i$. Note that $\sigma(I(U)) = I(U)$, since the f_i are fixed by σ . So we even have an induced action of σ on $\mathcal{O}(U) = \mathbb{F}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]/I(U)$. One can show that this action of σ on $\mathcal{O}(U)$ is independent of the chosen embedding in \mathbb{A}^n .

Now recall that $K(X) = Q(\mathcal{O}(U))$ (the fraction field), so we have an action on K(X) as well. We put $K(X_0) := K(X)^{\sigma} = \{f \in K(X) : \sigma(f) = f\}$. For $D \in \text{Div}(X_0)$ we have an induced action of σ on $H^0(X, D)$ and we put $H^0(X_0, D) := H^0(X, D)^{\sigma}$.

Theorem 11.3.7 In this situation, $\dim_{\mathbb{F}_a} H^0(X_0, D) = \dim_{\mathbb{F}} H^0(X, D)$.

Now consider the following exact sequence (where $Pic(X_0) := coker(div)$):

$$0 \to \mathbb{F}_q^{\times} \to K(X_0)^{\times} \stackrel{\text{div}}{\to} \text{Div}(X_0) \to \text{Pic}(X_0) \to 0$$

We also have the degree map deg: $\text{Div}(X_0) \to \mathbb{Z}$. Since the degree of an element coming from $K(X_0)^{\times}$ is zero, this factors through $\text{Pic}(X_0)$, so we obtain a map deg: $\text{Pic}(X_0) \to \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 11.3.8 The map deg: $Div(X_0) \to \mathbb{Z}$ is surjective.

Proof We use the Hasse-Weil inequality, which will be proved later, but not using the results of this lecture and the next.

If there is a point in $X_0(\mathbb{F}_q)$, then we directly find an element with degree 1, and we are done. So suppose that this does not happen. Let r be prime, and large enough such that $q^r + 1 - 2g \cdot q^{r/2} > 0$. Then by the Hasse-Weil inequality $X_0(\mathbb{F}_{q^r}) \neq \emptyset$, hence there is a prime divisor of degree r. Now take two such primes r to find divisors which have coprime degree and hence our map is surjective.
11.4. EXERCISES

11.4 Exercises

Exercise 11.4.1 Let X be an irreducible affine curve, $x \in X$, $t \in \mathcal{O}(X) := \mathcal{O}_X(X)$ non-zero with $\operatorname{div}(t) = x$, and $m \subset \mathcal{O}(X)$ the maximal ideal of x.

- i. Show that m = (t). Hint: we have $(t) \subset m$; consider $\mathcal{O}(X)/(t) \to \mathcal{O}(X)/m$.
- ii. Show that for $f \in \mathcal{O}(X)$ with f(x) = 0, there is a unique $g \in \mathcal{O}(X)$ with f = tg.
- iii. Let $f \in \mathcal{O}(X)$ be non-zero, with $\operatorname{div}(f) = nx$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. Show that there is a unique invertible element $g \in \mathcal{O}(X)$ such that $f = t^n g$.

Exercise 11.4.2 Let X be an irreducible smooth projective curve, let $f \in K(X)^{\times}$ and $D \in \mathbb{Z}^{(X)}$.

- i. Let U_1 and U_2 be open affine subsets of X such that $X = U_1 \cup U_2$. Put $D' = D \operatorname{div}(f)$. Show that $f \colon K(X) \to K(X)$ (multiplication by f) induces isomorphisms of k-vector spaces $H^0(U_i, D) \to H^0(U_i, D'), H^0(U_i \cap U_j, D) \to H^0(U_i \cap U_j, D')$, and $H^0(X, D) \to H^0(X, D')$.
- ii. In the situation of the previous part, show that $f \cdot$ induces an isomorphism $H^1(X, D) \to H^1(X, D')$.
- iii. Use Riemann-Roch to show that deg(div(f)) = 0.
- iv. Suppose that $0 \neq f \in H^0(X, D)$. Show that $\deg(D) \ge 0$.
- v. Suppose that $0 \neq \omega \in H^0(X, \Omega^1(-D))$. Show that $\deg(D) \leq 2g 2$.

Exercise 11.4.3 Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.

- i. Compute a k-basis for $H^1(\mathbb{P}^1, -n \cdot 0)$.
- ii. Compute a k-basis for $H^0(\mathbb{P}^1, \Omega^1(n \cdot 0))$.
- iii. Give the Serre duality pairing explicitly.

Exercise 11.4.4 Let X and D and g and ω be as in (11.1.2). Show that $\sum_{P \in X - U_2} \operatorname{res}_P(g\omega)$ does not depend on the choice of representative g in the class \overline{g} , i.e., for $g_1 \in H^0(U_1, D)$ show that

$$\sum_{P \in X - U_2} \operatorname{res}_P((g + g_1)\omega) = \sum_{P \in X - U_2} \operatorname{res}_P(g\omega),$$

and similarly for $g_2 \in H^0(U_2, D)$. Here, you can use that for any $\eta \in \Omega^1_{K(X)}$ one has $\sum_{P \in X} \operatorname{res}_P(\eta) = 0$.

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Lecture 12

Rationality and functional equation

12.1 Divisors of given degree

Let $\mathbb{F}_q \to \mathbb{F}$ be an algebraic closure, $X \subset \mathbb{P}^n = \mathbb{P}^n(\mathbb{F})$ be closed, irreducible, smooth of dimension 1 and defined over \mathbb{F}_q . Let $X_0 = (X, F_X)$ be the corresponding variety over \mathbb{F}_q . We introduce some more notation concerning (effective) divisors and divisor classes. Let $\text{Div}(X_0)^+ \subset \text{Div}(X_0)$ be the space of effective divisors (that is, those divisors $D \ge 0$). Let φ : $\text{Div}(X_0)^+ \to \text{Pic}(X_0)$ be the map that sends an effective divisor to its class in the Picard group.

Definition 12.1.1 For $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, let $\operatorname{Div}^n(X_0) := \operatorname{deg}^{-1}\{n\}$, the set of divisors of degree n. Also, let $\operatorname{Div}^n(X_0)^+ := \operatorname{Div}^n(X_0) \cap \operatorname{Div}(X_0)^+$ and $\operatorname{Pic}^n(X_0) := \operatorname{deg}^{-1}\{n\}$.

The zeta function of X_0 is $Z(X_0, t) = \sum_{n>0} d_n t^n$, where $d_n = \# \operatorname{Div}^n(X_0)^+$.

Remark 12.1.2 As the degree map is a surjective morphism of groups, there are bijections, for all integers n, $\text{Div}^0(X_0) \to \text{Div}^n(X_0)$ and $\text{Pic}^0(X_0) \to \text{Pic}^n(X_0)$.

Now comes an important lemma.

Lemma 12.1.3 Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $D \in \text{Div}^n(X_0)$. Write \overline{D} for the image of D in $\text{Pic}^n(X_0)$. Then the map

$$(H^0(X_0, D) - \{0\}) / \mathbb{F}_q^{\times} \longrightarrow \varphi^{-1}\{\overline{D}\}, \quad \overline{f} \mapsto \operatorname{div}(f) + D$$

is a bijection.

Proof For $f \in K(X_0)^{\times}$ we have $f \in H^0(X_0, D)$ if and only if $\operatorname{div}(f) + D \ge 0$. For $f_1, f_2 \in K(X_0)^{\times}$ we have $\operatorname{div}(f_1) = \operatorname{div}(f_2)$ if and only if $f_1 = \lambda f_2$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_q^{\times}$. Lastly, observe that $\varphi^{-1}\{\overline{D}\}$ consists precisely of the $E \in \operatorname{Div}^n(X_0)^+$ such that $D - E = \operatorname{div}(f)$ for some $f \in K(X_0)^{\times}$. \Box

Corollary 12.1.4 For all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have

$$d_n = \sum_{D \in \operatorname{Pic}^n(X_0)} \frac{q^{h^0(D)} - 1}{q - 1},$$

where $h^0(D) = \dim_{\mathbb{F}_q} H^0(X_0, D)$.

Corollary 12.1.5 For all $n \ge 2g - 1$, we have

$$d_n = (\# \operatorname{Pic}^n(X_0)) \frac{q^{n+1-g} - 1}{q-1}.$$

The group $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(X_{0})$ is finite.

12.2 The zeta function of X_0

We are now ready to prove the rationality of the zeta function.

Theorem 12.2.1 There is a $P \in \mathbb{Z}[t]_{\leq 2g}$ such that

$$Z(X_0, t) = \frac{P(t)}{(1-t)(1-qt)}.$$

Proof This is now a direct computation:

$$Z(X_0, t) = \sum_{n \ge 0} d_n t^n$$

= $\sum_{n=0}^{2g-2} d_n t^n + (\# \operatorname{Pic}^0(X_0)) \sum_{n \ge 2g-1} \frac{q^{n+1-g} - 1}{q-1} t^n$
= $\sum_{n=0}^{2g-2} d_n t^n + \frac{\# \operatorname{Pic}^0(X_0)}{q-1} t^{2g-1} \left(\frac{q^g}{1-qt} - \frac{1}{1-t}\right).$

The next step is to use Serre duality to deduce the functional equation for $Z(X_0, t)$. Let $\omega \in \Omega^1_{K(X_0)}$ non-zero. Then the involution $D \mapsto \operatorname{div}(\omega) - D$ on $\operatorname{Div}(X_0)$ induces for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ bijections

$$\operatorname{Div}^{n}(X_{0}) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Div}^{2g-2-n}(X_{0}) \text{ and } \operatorname{Pic}^{n}(X_{0}) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Pic}^{2g-2-n}(X_{0}).$$

From Serre duality we know that $h^0(D) - h^0(\operatorname{div}(\omega) - D) = \operatorname{deg}(D) + 1 - g$.

Lemma 12.2.2 For all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ we have

$$d_n - q^{n+1-g} d_{2g-2-n} = \frac{q^{n+1-g} - 1}{q-1} \# \operatorname{Pic}^0(X_0).$$

Proof Let $D \in \text{Div}^n(X_0)$. Recall that

$$\#\varphi^{-1}(\overline{D}) = \frac{q^{h^0(D)} - 1}{q - 1}$$

and

$$\#\varphi^{-1}(\overline{\operatorname{div}(\omega) - D}) = \frac{q^{h^0(\operatorname{div}(\omega) - D)} - 1}{q - 1} = \frac{q^{h^0(D) - (n + 1 - g)} - 1}{q - 1}.$$

From this we see that

$$\#\varphi^{-1}(\overline{D}) - q^{n+1-g} \#\varphi^{-1}(\overline{\operatorname{div}(\omega) - D}) = \frac{q^{n+1-g} - 1}{q-1}$$

The result follows by summing over all classes in $\operatorname{Pic}^{n}(X_{0})$.

For the rest of the proof of the functional equation we will do our bookkeeping in the $\mathbb{Q}[t, t^{-1}]$ module

$$\mathbb{Q}[[t,t^{-1}]] = \left\{ \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_n t^n : \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, \ a_n \in \mathbb{Q} \right\}.$$

Despite the notation, this object is *not* a ring. It contains $\mathbb{Q}[[t]]$ and $\mathbb{Q}[[t^{-1}]]$.

12.3. EXERCISES

Note that $d_n = 0$ for n < 0, so we have $Z(X_0, t) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} d_n t^n$ and

$$Z(X_0, (qt)^{-1}) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} d_n (qt)^{-n} = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} d_{-n} q^n t^n.$$

Hence we have

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} q^{n+1-g} d_{2g-2-n} t^n = (t^2 q)^{g-1} Z(X_0, (qt)^{-1}).$$

So in $\mathbb{Q}[[t, t^{-1}]]$, we have

$$Z(X_0,t) - (t^2 q)^{g-1} Z(X_0, (qt)^{-1}) = \frac{\# \operatorname{Pic}^0(X_0)}{q-1} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (q^{n+1-g} - 1) t^n.$$

The sum on the right-hand side splits as

$$q^{1-g}\sum_{n\in\mathbb{Z}}(qt)^n - \sum_{n\in\mathbb{Z}}t^n.$$

The first sum is annihilated by 1 - qt and the second one by 1 - t, so in $\mathbb{Q}[[t, t^{-1}]]$ we have

$$(1-t)(1-qt)\left(Z(X_0,t) - (t^2q)^{g-1}Z(X_0,(qt)^{-1})\right) = 0.$$

Rearranging the terms, we see that

$$(1-t)(1-qt)Z(X_0,t) = (1-t)(1-qt)(t^2q)^{g-1}Z(X_0,(qt)^{-1}).$$

The left-hand side is in $\mathbb{Q}[[t]]$ and the right-hand side is in $t^{2g}\mathbb{Q}[[t^{-1}]]$. It follows that both sides are in $\mathbb{Q}[t]_{\leq 2g}$ and are equal. This not only gives us the functional equation, but also proves the rationality in a different way. In conclusion, we have proven the following theorem.

Theorem 12.2.3 In $\mathbb{Q}(t)$, we have $Z(X_0, t) = (t\sqrt{q})^{2g-2}Z(X_0, (qt)^{-1})$.

Corollary 12.2.4 We have $P(t) = (t\sqrt{q})^{2g}P((qt)^{-1})$. That is, if we write $P(t) = P_0t^0 + \cdots + P_{2g}t^{2g}$, then $P_{2g-n} = q^{g-n}P_n$.

Corollary 12.2.5 There are $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_g \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$P(t) = (1 - \alpha_1 t) \cdots (1 - \alpha_q t) (1 - (q/\alpha_1)t) \cdots (1 - (q/\alpha_q)t).$$

12.3 Exercises

Exercise 12.3.1 Let k be an arbitrary algebraically closed field, and X an irreducible projective variety over k, smooth of dimension one, and of genus zero. Let P, Q and R in X be distinct.

- i. Using RR+SD, show that there is a unique $f \in K(X)^{\times}$ such that $\operatorname{div}(f) = P R$ and f(Q) = 1.
- ii. Show that the morphism of k-algebras $k[x] \to \mathcal{O}_X(X \{R\})$ that sends x to f is an isomorphism. Hint: use that $\mathcal{O}_X(X - \{R\})$ is the union of the $H^0(X, n \cdot R)$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
- iii. Similar for $k[x^{-1}] \to \mathcal{O}_X(X \{P\}), x^{-1} \mapsto f^{-1}$.
- iv. Show that f gives an isomorphism $X \to \mathbb{P}^1$.

Exercise 12.3.2 Let k be an arbitrary algebraically closed field, and X an irreducible projective variety over k, smooth of dimension one, and of genus one.

- i. Show, using RR+SD, that the map of sets $X \to \operatorname{Pic}^1(X), P \mapsto \overline{P}$, is bijective.
- ii. Let $O \in X$. Show that the map $\varphi \colon X \to \operatorname{Pic}^0(X), P \mapsto \overline{P O}$ is bijective.
- iii. Deduce that given P and Q in X there is a unique R in X such that (R+O) (P+Q) is a principal divisor, and that the map (of sets) $\oplus : X \times X \to X$, $(P,Q) \mapsto R$ defines a group law on X with O as neutral element.

Exercise 12.3.3 Let $\mathbb{F}_2 \to \mathbb{F}$ be an algebraic closure. Let $X = Z(x_1^2x_2 + x_1x_2^2 + x_0^3 + x_2^3) \subset \mathbb{P}^2(\mathbb{F})$; it is defined over \mathbb{F}_2 and we let X_0 denote this variety over \mathbb{F}_2 . You may assume that $x_1^2x_2 + x_1x_2^2 + x_0^3 + x_2^3$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{F}[x_0, x_1, x_2]$. The intersection $X \cap D_+(x_2) \subset \mathbb{A}^2$ (notation as in Exercise 6.4.2) is given by the equation $y^2 + y = x^3 + 1$, where $x = x_0/x_2$ and $y = x_1/x_2$, hence this is the affine curve studied in the first homework set. Note that X has exactly one point $\infty := (0:1:0)$ on $Z(x_2)$.

- i. Show that X is smooth of dimension 1.
- ii. Show that the rational 1-form $\omega := dx = x^{-2}dy$ has no poles and no zeros on X. Deduce that the genus of X is 1.
- iii. List the elements of $X(\mathbb{F}_2)$ and $X(\mathbb{F}_4)$. Use the following notation for \mathbb{F}_4 : $\mathbb{F}_4 = \{0, 1, z, z^{-1}\}$, with $z^2 + z + 1 = 0$.
- iv. Show that $Z(X_0, t) = (1 + 2t^2)/(1 t)(1 2t)$.
- v. Compute $\# \operatorname{Div}^2(X_0)^+$ by expanding $Z(X_0, t)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[[t]]$ up to order 2.
- vi. List all the elements of $\text{Div}^2(X_0)^+$. For example, 2∞ and $(0, z) + (0, z^{-1})$ are two of them.
- vii. Compute the divisors of the functions x, x + 1, y, y + 1, x + y and y + x + 1.
- viii. Give explicitly the map $\operatorname{Div}^2(X_0)^+ \to \operatorname{Pic}^2(X_0), D \mapsto \overline{D}$; you may use without proof that $\operatorname{Pic}^0(X_0) = \{0, \overline{(1,0)} \infty, \overline{(1,1)} \infty\}$ (this works as in Exercise 12.3.2).

Lecture 13

Curves on surfaces

In this lecture, for closed curves Z_1 and Z_2 on a smooth irreducible projective surface X, we will define their intersection number $Z_1 \cdot Z_2$. This intersection product will be important for the proof of the Hasse-Weil inequality.

13.1 Divisors

Let X be a connected, quasi-projective variety, smooth of dimension d. So in particular X is irreducible.

Definition 13.1.1 A prime divisor on X is a closed irreducible subset $Z \subset X$ of dimension d - 1.

Definition 13.1.2 A *divisor* is an element of the free abelian group generated by the prime divisors. We denote this group by Div(X).

So divisors are formal expressions of the form $\sum_{Z} n_{Z} Z$ with Z ranging over the set of prime divisors, and with the n_{Z} integers, all but finitely many zero. We state without proof the following proposition (which uses the smoothness of X).

Proposition 13.1.3 Let X be a smooth, connected, quasi-projective variety. Let $Z \subset X$ be a prime divisor. Then there is a finite open affine cover $\{U_i\}_i$ of X, such that there are nonzero $f_i \in \mathcal{O}_X(U_i)$ with the property that $I(Z \cap U_i) = (f_i)$ as ideals in $\mathcal{O}_X(U_i)$.

Now we want to associate a valuation to a prime divisor. Let $Z \subset X$ be a prime divisor. Use an affine cover $\{U_i : i \in I\}$ as in the above proposition. Then choose an i with $Z \cap U_i \neq \emptyset$. For $0 \neq f \in \mathcal{O}_X(U_i)$ we define:

 $v_Z(f) :=$ the largest integer n such that $f \in (f_i^n)$.

Such a largest integer exists and it does not depend on the chosen cover $\{U_i : i \in I\}$ and the particular choice of *i*. This v_Z has the property $v_Z(fg) = v_Z(f) + v_Z(g)$. As usual we extend this to a morphism $v_Z : K(X)^{\times} \to \mathbb{Z}$.

Definition 13.1.4 Let X be a smooth, connected, quasi-projective variety. Then we define the divisor map

$$\operatorname{div}: K(X)^{\times} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Div}(X), \quad f \mapsto \operatorname{div}(f) := \sum_{Z \text{ prime}} v_Z(f) Z$$

To see that the sum occurring in $\operatorname{div}(f)$ is finite, first reduce to the case that X is affine (it has a cover by finitely many), then write f as g/h and note that nonzero coefficients only occur at Z that are irreducible components of Z(g) or Z(h).

Definition 13.1.5 For X a smooth, connected, quasi-projective variety we define the *Picard group* as $Pic(X) := Div(X)/div(K(X)^{\times})$, that is, the quotient of Div(X) by the subgroup of principal divisors.

Example 13.1.6 We determine the Picard group of $X = \mathbb{A}^d$. Recall that the prime divisors of \mathbb{A}^d are the Z(f) for $f \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_d]$ irreducible. But then every prime divisor is principal, hence hence $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathbb{A}^d) = 0$.

Proposition 13.1.7 Let $X = \mathbb{P}^d$ with $d \in \mathbb{Z}_{>1}$. Then $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathbb{P}^d) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, generated by the class of a hyperplane.

Proof We first determine the prime divisors of \mathbb{P}^d . These are the Z(f) where $f \in k[x_0, \ldots, x_d]$ is homogeneous and irreducible. We now define $\deg(Z(f)) = \deg(f)$ (indeed, Z(f) determines f up to scalar multiple). We extend this to a morphism of groups and obtain a map deg as follows:

deg: Div
$$(X) \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}$$
, $\sum_{Z} n_Z Z \mapsto \sum_{Z} n_Z \deg(Z)$.

We now claim that $\sum_{Z} n_Z Z$ is principal if and only if $\deg(\sum_{Z} n_Z Z) = 0$. Indeed, consider a divisor $\operatorname{div}(f)$ for some $f \in K(X)^{\times}$ and write f = g/h with g and h in $k[x_0, \ldots, x_d]$ homogeneous of the same degree. Decompose g and h into irreducibles, $g = \prod_i g_i^{n_i}$ and $h = \prod_i h_i^{m_i}$, then

$$\deg(\operatorname{div}(f)) = \sum_{i} n_i \operatorname{deg}(g_i) - \sum_{i} m_i \operatorname{deg}(h_i) = \operatorname{deg}(g) - \operatorname{deg}(h) = 0.$$

On the other hand, if $\deg(\sum n_i Z_i) = 0$, then let $Z_i = Z(f_i)$ and consider $f := \prod f_i^{n_i}$. By construction $\deg(f) = 0$ and so $f \in K(X)^{\times}$ and $\operatorname{div}(f) = \sum n_i Z_i$.

So the degree factors through an injective map $Pic(X) \to \mathbb{Z}$. The map is also surjective, since for example deg $Z(x_0) = 1$.

13.2 The intersection pairing on surfaces

Let X be a smooth projective surface. In this section we define the intersection pairing on Div(X), show that it factors through Pic(X), and derive Bézout's theorem for \mathbb{P}^2 as a very simple consequence.

For prime divisors Z_1 and Z_2 on X the intersection number $Z_1 \cdot Z_2$ in \mathbb{Z} is defined as the degree on Z_1 of a locally free \mathcal{O}_{Z_1} -module of rank one, $\mathcal{O}_X(Z_2)|_{Z_1}$. As we have not defined these notions (lack of time) we give the procedure that produces $Z_1 \cdot Z_2$ in terms of concepts that we have defined, and that one would use even if one had the notions that we did not define. This definition of $Z_1 \cdot Z_2$ does not assume that Z_1 and Z_2 are distinct.

Definition 13.2.1 Let Z_1 and Z_2 be prime divisors on X.

- i. Choose open subsets $(U_i)_{i \in I}$ $(I = \{1, ..., r\}$ for some r) in X and f_i in $\mathcal{O}_X(U_i)$ such that the U_i cover Z_2 , each U_i meets Z_2 , and such that $\operatorname{div}(f_i) = Z_1 \cap U_i$ on U_i . In particular, $I(Z_1 \cap U_i) = (f_i)$ (as in Proposition 13.1.3).
- ii. Since f_i and f_j generate the same ideal of $\mathcal{O}_X(U_{ij})$ there are unique f_{ij} in $\mathcal{O}_X(U_{ij})^{\times}$ such that $f_i = f_{ij}f_j$ in $\mathcal{O}_X(U_{ij})$. Note that $f_{ij} \cdot f_{jk} = f_{ik}$ on $U_{ijk} := U_i \cap U_j \cap U_k$.
- iii. Define $g_i := f_{i1} \in \mathcal{O}_{Z_2}(Z_2 \cap U_{i1})^{\times}$. Remark that $g_1 = 1$ and that $g_i = f_{ij}g_j$ in $\mathcal{O}_{Z_2}(Z_2 \cap U_{ij})$. This shows that $g_i \neq 0$ in $\mathcal{O}_{Z_2}(Z_2 \cap U_{i1})$. For $P \in Z_2$ and i such that $P \in U_i$, the number $v_P(g_i)$ depends only on P. We finally define:

$$Z_1 \cdot Z_2 := \sum_{P \in \mathbb{Z}_2} v_P(g_{i_P}), \quad \text{where } i_P \in I \text{ such that } P \in U_{i_P}.$$

As promised, we will show that this really is a good definition. We will make frequent use of the following fact, which we will not prove. Note that we did see a proof in the smooth case.

Proposition 13.2.2 If f is a rational function on an irreducible projective curve X then $\deg \operatorname{div}(f) = 0$.

Lemma 13.2.3 The integer $Z_1 \cdot Z_2$ does not depend on the choice of the f_i .

Proof Assume that f'_i for i in I satisfy the same conditions as the f_i . Then $f'_i = u_i f_i$ with $u_i \in \mathcal{O}_X(U_i)^{\times}$, and $f'_{ij} := f'_i/f'_j = (u_i/u_j)f_{ij}$ and $g'_i = (u_i/u_1)g_i$. This then gives (we use that $v_P(u_i) = 0$ for all $P \in U_i$ and that the degree of a principal divisor is 0):

$$(Z_1 \cdot Z_2)' = Z_1 \cdot Z_2 + \sum_P v_P(u_{i_P}/u_1) = Z_1 \cdot Z_2 + \deg(\operatorname{div}(1/u_1)) = Z_1 \cdot Z_2.$$

Lemma 13.2.4 The integer $Z_1 \cdot Z_2$ does not depend on the choice of 1 in $\{1, \ldots, r\}$ in step iii.

Proof Assume that we use U_2 instead. Then $g'_i = f_{i2} = f_{i1}f_{12} = g_if_{12}$. Hence:

$$(Z_1 \cdot Z_2)' = Z_1 \cdot Z_2 + \deg(\operatorname{div}(f_{12})) = Z_1 \cdot Z_2$$

Lemma 13.2.5 The integer $Z_1 \cdot Z_2$ does not depend on the choice of the open cover $\{U_i : i \in I\}$.

Proof Given two covers $\{U_i : i \in I\}$ and $\{U'_j : j \in J\}$, one can consider a common refinement (given by for example the open $\{U_i \cap U'_j : i \in I, j \in J\}$). So it is enough to show that the lemma holds for a refinement, and this is just a calculation which we leave to the reader.

As Div(X) is the free \mathbb{Z} -module with basis the set of prime divisors on X, the map "·" extends bilinearly and obtain a bilinear map:

$$: \operatorname{Div}(X) \times \operatorname{Div}(Z) \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad (Z_1, Z_2) \mapsto Z_1 \cdot Z_2.$$

Proposition 13.2.6 Let $Z_1 \neq Z_2$ be prime divisors. Then $Z_1 \cap Z_2$ is finite. For all P in $Z_1 \cap Z_2$ there is an open affine $U_P \subset X$ with $P \in U_P$ such that $U_P \cap Z_1 \cap Z_2 = \{P\}$ and $f_{1,P}$ and $f_{2,P} \in \mathcal{O}_X(U_P)$ such that $I(Z_1 \cap U_P) = (f_{1,P})$ and $I(Z_2 \cap U_P) = (f_{2,P})$. For such a collection of U_P we have:

$$Z_1 \cdot Z_2 = \sum_{P \in Z_1 \cap Z_2} \dim \mathcal{O}_X(U_P) / (f_{1,P}, f_{2,P}).$$

Proof As $Z_1 \cap Z_2$ is closed in the projective curve Z_1 , and not equal to Z_1 , it is finite. The existence of a collection of $(U_P, f_{1,P}, f_{2,P})$ as in the proposition follows from the fact that the set of open affines in X is a basis for the topology, together with Proposition 13.1.3. But note that $Z_1 \cap Z_2$ may be empty. We extend this collection of $(U_P, f_{1,P}, f_{2,P})$ to one $(U_i, f_{1,i}, f_{2,i})$, $i \in I$, such that the $U_i \cap Z_1 \cap Z_2$ have at most one element and are disjoint, and the conditions in step i of Definition 13.2.1 are met: the U_i cover Z_2 and all meet Z_2 . For P in Z_2 , let i_P be an $i \in I$ such that U_i contains P; this i_P is unique if P is in $Z_1 \cap Z_2$.

As Z_1 and Z_2 are distinct all $f_{1,i} \in \mathcal{O}_X(U_i)$ are not identically zero on $Z_2 \cap U_i$, and give nonzero rational functions on Z_2 , regular on $U_i \cap Z_2$, that we still denote by $f_{1,i}$. Definition 13.2.1 gives

$$Z_1 \cdot Z_2 = \sum_{P \in Z_2} v_P(f_{1,i_P}/f_{1,1}).$$

As for every *i* we have $\mathcal{O}_{Z_2}(U_i \cap Z_2) = \mathcal{O}_X(U_i)/(f_{2,i})$, and the degree of a principal divisor on a projective curve is zero, and for $i \in I$ such that $U_i \cap Z_1 \cap Z_2$ is empty, $\mathcal{O}_X(U_i)/(f_{1,i}, f_{2,i}) = 0$, we get:

$$Z_1 \cdot Z_2 = \sum_{P \in Z_2} v_P(f_{1,i_P}) - \sum_{P \in Z_2} v_P(f_{1,1}) = \sum_{P \in Z_2} \dim \mathcal{O}_{Z_2}(Z_2 \cap U_{i_P}) / (f_{1,i_P})$$
$$= \sum_{P \in Z_2} \dim \mathcal{O}_X(U_{i_P}) / (f_{2,i_P}, f_{1,i_P})$$
$$= \sum_{P \in Z_1 \cap Z_2} \dim \mathcal{O}_X(U_{i_P}) / (f_{1,i_P}, f_{2,i_P}).$$

Corollary 13.2.7 If $Z_1 \neq Z_2$ are distinct then $Z_1 \cdot Z_2 \ge 0$.

Remark 13.2.8 If $Z_1 = Z_2$, then $Z_1 \cdot Z_2$ can be negative, as can be seen in Exercise 13.3.1.

Corollary 13.2.9 The intersection pairing $: \text{Div}(X) \times \text{Div}(X) \to \mathbb{Z}, (Z_1, Z_2) \mapsto Z_1 \cdot Z_2$ is symmetric.

Proof In view of Proposition 13.2.6 this is now obvious.

Proposition 13.2.10 Situation as in Proposition 13.2.6. If $Z_1 \neq Z_2$ and for all P in $Z_1 \cap Z_2$ the tangent spaces $T_{Z_1}P$ and $T_{Z_2}P$ are distinct (as subspaces of T_XP), then $Z_1 \cdot Z_2 = \#(Z_1 \cap Z_2)$. In this case we say that Z_1 and Z_2 intersect transversally.

Theorem 13.2.11 The intersection pairing $: \operatorname{Div}(X) \times \operatorname{Div}(X) \to \mathbb{Z}$ factors through $\operatorname{Pic}(X) \times \operatorname{Pic}(X)$.

Proof It suffices (by symmetry) to verify that $Z_1 \cdot Z_2 = 0$ for $Z_1 = \operatorname{div}(f)$ for some $f \in K(X)^{\times}$ and Z_2 a prime divisor. Write $Z_1 = \sum_Z Z_1(Z)Z$ with Z ranging over the set of prime divisors on X. We take an open cover $\{U_i : i \in I\}$ such that for all the Z with $Z_1(Z) \neq 0$ and for each i in I we have an $f_{i,Z} \in \mathcal{O}_X(U_i)$ such that $\mathcal{O}_X(U_i) \cdot f_{i,Z}$ is the ideal of $Z \cap U_i$ (take a common refinement if necessary). Then for each i there is a u_i in $\mathcal{O}_X(U_i)^{\times}$ such that $\prod_Z f_{i,Z}^{Z_1(Z)} = u_i f$. Linearity in Z_1 , Definition 13.2.1, the fact that $v_P(u_{i_P}) = 0$, and Theorem 11.1.10 ii, give

$$Z_1 \cdot Z_2 = \sum_Z Z_1(Z) \sum_{P \in Z_2} v_P(f_{i_P,Z}/f_{1,Z}) = \sum_{P \in Z_2} v_P\left(\frac{\prod_Z f_{i_P,Z}^{n_Z}}{\prod_Z f_{1,Z}^{n_Z}}\right) = \sum_{P \in Z_2} v_P\left(\frac{u_{i_P}f}{u_1f}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{P \in Z_2} v_P(u_{i_P}/u_1) = -\sum_{P \in Z_2} v_P(u_1) = -\deg(\operatorname{div}(u_1|_{Z_2})) = 0.$$

Corollary 13.2.12 (Bézout) Let Z_1 and Z_2 be prime divisors in \mathbb{P}^2 , then $Z_1 \cdot Z_2 = \deg(Z_1) \cdot \deg(Z_2)$.

Proof By Theorem 13.2.11 the intersection pairing is given by $: \operatorname{Pic}(\mathbb{P}^2) \times \operatorname{Pic}(\mathbb{P}^2) \to \mathbb{Z}$. The degree map deg $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathbb{P}^2) \to \mathbb{Z}$ is an isomorphism by Lemma 13.1.7. The induced bilinear map $: \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ is determined by the value of (1, 1). So it suffices to prove that there are two lines Z_1 and Z_2 in \mathbb{P}^2 such that $Z_1 \cdot Z_2 = 1$. Take the lines $Z_1 = Z(x_1)$ and $Z_2 = Z(x_2)$, and apply Proposition 13.2.6.

13.3. EXERCISES

13.3 Exercises

Exercise 13.3.1 Assume that the characteristic of k is not 3. Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^3$ be the surface given by $x_0^3 - x_1^3 + x_2^3 - x_3^3 = 0$. Verify that X is smooth. Let $Z \subset X$ be the line consisting of the points (s:s:t:t) with $(s,t) \in k^2 - \{0\}$. Compute the intersection number $Z \cdot Z$.

Exercise 13.3.2 Show that any morphism $f: \mathbb{P}^2 \to \mathbb{P}^1$ is constant. Hint: if not show that f is surjective and that $f^{-1}(0:1)$ and $f^{-1}(1:0)$ are curves. Use Bézout to obtain a contradiction.

Exercise 13.3.3 Assume that 3 is invertible in k. Let $C \subset \mathbb{P}^2$ be a smooth curve given by a homogeneous polynomial $f \in k[x_0, x_1, x_2]$ of degree 3. Given a point $P \in C$ denote by $L_P \subset \mathbb{P}^2$ the tangent line in P to C.

- i. Show that L_P intersects C in only the point P if and only if $L_P \cdot C = 3$. If this is the case P is called a flex-point of C.
- ii. Show that $P = (p_0 : p_1 : p_2)$ is a flex point if and only if the determinant of the matrix $(\partial^2 f / \partial x_i \partial x_j)$ is zero at $(x, y, z) = (p_0, p_1, p_2)$.
- iii. Show that C has 9 flex-points.

Exercise 13.3.4 Consider $X = \mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1$ and use coordinates x : y on the first factor and u : v on the second factor.

If $f \in k[x, y, u, v]$ is polynomial which is homogeneous of degree d in x, y and homogeneous of degree e in u, v then we say that f is bihomogeneous and has bidegree (d, e). For example, $x^3u + xy^2v - y^3v$ is bihomogeneous of bidegree (3, 1).

Denote the prime divisors $\{(0:1)\} \times \mathbb{P}^1$ and $\mathbb{P}^1 \times \{(0:1)\}$ by H and V, respectively.

- i. Show that H is equivalent with $H' = \{(1:1)\} \times \mathbb{P}^1$ and deduce that $H \cdot H = 0$. Same for $V \cdot V$.
- ii. Show that $H \cdot V = 1$.
- iii. If f is irreducible and bihomogeneous of bidegree (d, e) show that

$$Z(f) = \{ ((a_0:a_1), (b_0:b_1)) \in \mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1 : f(a_0, a_1, b_0, b_1) = 0 \}$$

is a prime divisor on $\mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1$ which is equivalent with dH + eV.

Exercise 13.3.5 Now assume moreover that k is of characteristic p and that q is a power of p. Let

$$F: \mathbb{P}^1 \to \mathbb{P}^1, \quad (a_0:a_1) \mapsto (a_0^q:a_1^q)$$

be the q-Frobenius endomorphism. Let $\Delta \subset \mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1$ be the diagonal and let $\Gamma = \{(P, F(P)) : P \in \mathbb{P}^1\}$ be the graph of the q-Frobenius.

- i. Show that $\Delta = Z(f)$ for some f which is irreducible and bihomogeneous of bidegree (1, 1).
- ii. Show that $\Gamma = Z(f)$ for some f which is irreducible and bihomogeneous of bidegree (q, 1).
- iii. Compute the four by four symmetric matrix whose entries are the intersection products of all pairs of divisors in $\{H, V, \Delta, \Gamma\}$.

LECTURE 13. CURVES ON SURFACES

Lecture 14

Proof of the Hasse-Weil inequality

14.1 Introduction

Recall that the goal of this course is to prove the Riemann Hypothesis for curves X over finite fields. In the exercises in Lecture 2, we have shown that the Riemann Hypothesis follows from the rationality of Z(X, t), the functional equation of Z(X, t), and the Hasse-Weil inequality. The rationality of Z(X, t) is given by Theorem 12.2.1, and the functional equation by Theorem 12.2.3. In this lecture we prove Theorem 14.1.1, the Hasse-Weil inequality, using the Hodge index theorem (that we admit without proof) and intersection theory on the surface $X \times X$.

Theorem 14.1.1 Let X/\mathbb{F}_q be a smooth projective irreducible (as a variety over $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_q$) curve of genus g. Then:

$$|\#X(\mathbb{F}_q) - (q+1)| \le 2g\sqrt{q}$$

14.2 Self-intersection of the diagonal

(here we assume that k is any algebraically closed field) In this section we will sketch a proof of the following theorem:

Theorem 14.2.1 Let X be a smooth irreducible projective curve, g its genus, and $\Delta \subset X \times X$ the diagonal. Then $\Delta \cdot \Delta = 2 - 2g$.

Remark 14.2.2 Note that 2 - 2g is minus the degree of a canonical divisor, and we will give a proof relating $\Delta \cdot \Delta$ with the degree of such a canonical divisor.

We start with some affine geometry. Let Y be an affine variety and $A(Y) = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]/(f_1, \ldots, f_s)$ its coordinate ring. Then the coordinate ring of $Y \times Y$ is

$$A(Y \times Y) = k[x, y] / (f_1(x), \dots, f_s(x), f_1(y), \dots, f_s(y))$$

where $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ and $y = (y_1, \ldots, y_n)$. The projection $\operatorname{pr}_1 \colon Y \times Y \to Y$, $(P, Q) \mapsto P$ gives the *k*-algebra morphism $\operatorname{pr}_1^* \colon A(Y) \to A(Y \times Y)$. It sends \overline{x}_i in A(Y) to \overline{x}_i in $A(Y \times Y)$. It makes $A(Y \times Y)$ into an A(Y)-algebra. We also have the diagonal embedding:

$$\Delta \colon Y \longrightarrow Y \times Y, \quad P \mapsto (P, P),$$

giving us a k-algebra morphism in the other direction:

$$\Delta^* \colon A(Y \times Y) \longrightarrow A(Y), \quad x_i \mapsto x_i, \quad y_i \mapsto x_i.$$

Let I be the kernel of Δ^* . This is the ideal of Δ . It is an A(Y)-module via pr_1^* , and it is generated by the $(\overline{y}_i - \overline{x}_i)_{1 \le i \le s}$.

Proposition 14.2.3 The map $D: A(Y) \to I/I^2$, $f \mapsto \overline{\mathrm{pr}_1^* f - \mathrm{pr}_2^* f}$ is a derivation, and the induced morphism of A-modules $\Omega^1_{A(Y)} \to I/I^2$ is an isomorphism.

Proof For f in A(Y) we have $\Delta^*(\operatorname{pr}_1^* f - \operatorname{pr}_2^* f) = f - f = 0$, hence $\operatorname{pr}_1^* f - \operatorname{pr}_2^* f \in I$. We claim that D is indeed a derivation. That D is k-linear is obvious. We check that the Leibniz rule is satisfied:

$$\begin{split} D(fg) &= (\mathrm{pr}_1^*f)(\mathrm{pr}_1^*g) - (\mathrm{pr}_2^*f)(\mathrm{pr}_2^*g) \\ &= (\mathrm{pr}_1^*f)(\mathrm{pr}_1^*g) - (\mathrm{pr}_2^*f)(\mathrm{pr}_2^*g) + ((\mathrm{pr}_1^*f) - (\mathrm{pr}_2^*f))((\mathrm{pr}_1^*g) - (\mathrm{pr}_2^*g)) \\ &= (\mathrm{pr}_1^*f)((\mathrm{pr}_1^*g) - (\mathrm{pr}_2^*g)) + (\mathrm{pr}_1^*g)((\mathrm{pr}_1^*f) - (\mathrm{pr}_2^*f)) \\ &= f \cdot Dg + g \cdot Df. \end{split}$$

As $D: A(Y) \to I/I^2$ is a k-derivation, there is a unique morphism of A-modules $\varphi: \Omega^1_{A(Y)} \to I/I^2$ such that $D = \varphi \circ d$.

We give an inverse to φ . Let $\psi: k[x, y] \to \Omega^1_{A(Y)}$ be the k-linear map that sends, for all f and g in k[x], $(\operatorname{pr}_1^*f)(\operatorname{pr}_2^*g)$ to $-f \cdot dg$; to see that this exists, use the k-basis of all monomials. Then for f in I(Y), and g in k[x], $\psi((\operatorname{pr}_1^*f)(\operatorname{pr}_2^*g)) = 0$ and $\psi((\operatorname{pr}_1^*g)(\operatorname{pr}_2^*f)) = 0$, hence ψ factors through $k[x, y] \to A(Y \times Y)$. The resulting k-linear map $\psi: A(Y \times Y) \to \Omega^1_{A(Y)}$ is a morphism of A(Y)-modules. We claim that ψ is zero on I^2 . As ψ is k-linear, even A(Y)-linear, and I is generated as ideal by the $\operatorname{pr}_1^*f - \operatorname{pr}_2^*f$, it suffices to show that ψ is zero on all elements of the form $(\operatorname{pr}_1^*f - \operatorname{pr}_2^*f)(\operatorname{pr}_1^*g - \operatorname{pr}_2^*g)\operatorname{pr}_2^*h$, with f, g, and h in A(Y). This computation is as follows. We have

$$(\mathrm{pr}_1^*f - \mathrm{pr}_2^*f)(\mathrm{pr}_1^*g - \mathrm{pr}_2^*g)\mathrm{pr}_2^*h = (\mathrm{pr}_1^*(fg))(\mathrm{pr}_2^*h) - (\mathrm{pr}_1^*f)(\mathrm{pr}_2^*(gh)) - (\mathrm{pr}_1^*g)(\mathrm{pr}_2^*(fh)) + \mathrm{pr}_2^*(fgh).$$

Under ψ , this is sent to:

$$\begin{split} -fg\cdot dh + f\cdot d(gh) + g\cdot d(fh) - d(fgh) \\ = -fg\cdot dh + fg\cdot dh + fh\cdot dg + gf\cdot dh + gh\cdot df - gh\cdot df - fh\cdot dg - fg\cdot dh = 0. \end{split}$$

So, we have our morphism $\psi: I/I^2 \to \Omega^1_{A(Y)}$, and, for f in A(Y), it sends $\overline{\operatorname{pr}_1^* f - \operatorname{pr}_2^* f}$ to 0 - (-df) = df. Therefore, this ψ is the inverse of φ .

Remark 14.2.4 The notation and some arguments in our proof of Proposition 14.2.3 would be much simpler if we used the tensor product, $A(Y \times Y) = A(Y) \otimes_k A(Y)$, and even more simple and very conceptual if we had developed relative differentials. So, the reader should not be worried by the complicated notation here, and by the seemingly meaningless computations.

Proposition 14.2.5 Let P be in X, and $t \in \mathcal{O}_X(U)$ a uniformiser at P, regular on U. Then there is an open neighborhood V of (P, P) in $X \times X$ such that $\operatorname{pr}_1^* t - \operatorname{pr}_2^* t$ is a generator for the ideal of $\Delta \cap V$.

Proof By Proposition 13.1.3, there is an open affine neighborhood V of (P, P) on which the ideal of Δ is generated by some f in $\mathcal{O}_{X \times X}(V)$. By intersecting with $U \times U$, we may and do assume that $\operatorname{pr}_1^* t - \operatorname{pr}_2^* t$ is regular on V. As $\operatorname{pr}_1^* t - \operatorname{pr}_2^* t$ is zero on Δ , there is a unique g in $\mathcal{O}_{X \times X}(V)$ such that $\operatorname{pr}_1^* t - \operatorname{pr}_2^* t = gf$. Let $i: X \to X \times X$ be the map $Q \mapsto (Q, P)$. Then, under $i^*: \mathcal{O}_{X \times X}(V) \to \mathcal{O}_X(i^{-1}V)$ we get $t = (i^*g) \cdot (i^*f)$. But t is not in m^2 , where m is the maximal ideal of P, and i^*f is in m, so i^*g is not in m. Hence $g(P, P) \neq 0$, and g is a unit on a neighborhood of (P, P).

14.3. HODGE'S INDEX THEOREM

Proof (of Theorem 14.2.1) We follow the procedure in Definition 13.2.1. By Proposition 14.2.5 there are an r in \mathbb{N} , non-empty affine opens V_i in $X \times X$, covering Δ and all meeting Δ , open affines U_i in X and t_i in $\mathcal{O}_X(U_i)$, such that the ideal of $\Delta \cap U_i$ is generated by $\operatorname{pr}_1^* t_i - \operatorname{pr}_2^* t_i$. Then we have:

$$\Delta \cdot \Delta = \sum_{P \in X} v_{(P,P)} \left(\left. \frac{\operatorname{pr}_1^* t_{i_P} - \operatorname{pr}_2^* t_{i_P}}{\operatorname{pr}_1^* t_1 - \operatorname{pr}_2^* t_1} \right|_{\Delta} \right), \quad \text{where } (P,P) \text{ is in } V_{i_P}.$$

Let ω be the rational one-form dt_1 on X. Then we have:

$$\begin{split} \deg(\operatorname{div}(\omega)) &= \sum_{P \in X} v_P(\omega) \\ &= \sum_{P \in X} v_P\left(\frac{\omega}{dt_{i_P}}\right) \quad (dt_{i_P} \text{ generates } \Omega^1_X \text{ at } P \text{ by Proposition 14.2.3}) \\ &= \sum_{P \in X} v_{(P,P)} \left(\left. \frac{\operatorname{pr}_1^* t_1 - \operatorname{pr}_2^* t_1}{\operatorname{pr}_1^* t_{i_P} - \operatorname{pr}_2^* t_{i_P}} \right|_{\Delta} \right) \quad (\omega = dt_1 \text{ and Proposition 14.2.3}) \\ &= -\sum_{P \in X} v_{(P,P)} \left(\left. \frac{\operatorname{pr}_1^* t_{i_P} - \operatorname{pr}_2^* t_{i_P}}{\operatorname{pr}_1^* t_1 - \operatorname{pr}_2^* t_1} \right|_{\Delta} \right) \\ &= -\Delta \cdot \Delta. \end{split}$$

14.3 Hodge's index theorem

Hodge's index theorem is discussed in Theorem V.1.9 and Remark V.1.9.1 in [Hart]. Let S be a connected smooth projective surface over an algebraically closed field k. We have the intersection pairing $: \operatorname{Pic}(S) \times \operatorname{Pic}(S) \to \mathbb{Z}$. It is symmetric and bilinear. Let N be its kernel:

$$N = \{ x \in \operatorname{Pic}(S) : \forall y \in \operatorname{Pic}(S), \ x \cdot y = 0 \}.$$

Let $\operatorname{Num}(S) := \operatorname{Pic}(S)/N$. Then the intersection pairing on $\operatorname{Pic}(S)$ induces a non-degenerate symmetric bilinear pairing $\cdot: \operatorname{Num}(S) \times \operatorname{Num}(S) \to \mathbb{Z}$. It is a theorem by Néron and Severi (see the discussion in [Hart]) that $\operatorname{Num}(S)$ is finitely generated as \mathbb{Z} -module. Hence it is free of some finite rank d, because the intersection pairing injects it into $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}-\operatorname{Mod}}(\operatorname{Num}(S),\mathbb{Z})$. Choosing a \mathbb{Z} -basis $b = (b_1, \ldots, b_d)$ of $\operatorname{Num}(S)$ gives the intersection pairing as a symmetric d by d matrix with coefficients in \mathbb{Z} and with nonzero determinant. One can take a basis c of $\mathbb{Q} \otimes \operatorname{Num}(S)$ such that the matrix of the intersection pairing with respect to c is diagonal. The diagonal coefficients of c are then non-zero, and it is a well-known result in linear algebra (over \mathbb{R} if you want) that the numbers of positive and of negative coefficients do not depend on the choice of the basis c. Hodge's index theorem tells us what these numbers are.

Theorem 14.3.1 (Hodge index theorem) The intersection pairing on $\mathbb{Q} \otimes \text{Num}(S)$ has exactly one +.

Remark 14.3.2 Another way to state Hodge's index theorem (without using Néron-Severi first) is that for any morphism of \mathbb{Z} -modules $f : \mathbb{Z}^d \to \operatorname{Pic}(S)$, the symmetric bilinear form on \mathbb{Z}^d given by sending (x, y)to $(fx) \cdot (fy)$ has, after extending scalars to \mathbb{R} and diagonalisation, at most one +, and there are f for which there is exactly one +.

14.4 Hasse-Weil inequality

Let X/\mathbb{F}_q as in the statement of the Hasse-Weil inequality (Theorem 14.1.1) and let $F: X \to X$ be the Frobenius map. We now work with four prime divisors, each isomorphic to X and we will calculate the

matrix of the intersection pairing for the subspace generated by these four prime divisors. The divisors are:

$$H = \{ (x, pt) : x \in X \}, \quad V = \{ (pt, x) : x \in X \}, \\ \Delta = \{ (x, x) : x \in X \}, \quad \Gamma = \{ (x, F(x)) : x \in X \}.$$

We calculate the tangent spaces at the point (P,Q) (assuming that it lies on the divisor), as seen as a subspace of $T_X(P) \times T_X(Q) = T_{X \times X}(P,Q)$. One then finds:

$$T_H(P,Q) = k \cdot (1,0), \quad T_V(P,Q) = k \cdot (0,1), \quad T_\Delta(P,Q) = k \cdot (1,1).$$

For the tangent space to Γ consider the two projection maps to X. The first one

$$\operatorname{pr}_1: \Gamma \to X, \quad (P, F(P)) \to P$$

is an isomorphism (an inverse is given by $P \mapsto (P, F(P))$), so induces an isomorphism on tangent spaces. If we use pr_1 to identify Γ with X then pr_2 is the same as the Frobenius map $F: X \to X$. The Frobenius map induces the zero map on tangent spaces since the derivative of any p-th power of a function is zero. So we get:

$$T_{\Gamma}(P,Q) = k \cdot (1,0).$$

Notice that Γ is not constant horizontal, but its tangent direction is everywhere horizontal. (Compare with the function $x \mapsto x^q$ which is non-constant, but its derivative is 0).

We compute the intersection matrix. Here we have to do 10 calculations (by symmetry):

- *H*·*H* = 0. If *H* = *X* × {pt}, then find a divisor *D* on *X* with *D* ~ {pt} such that *D* and {pt} are disjoint. Then *H*·*H* = *H*·(*X* × *D*) = 0, since *H* ∩ *X* × *D* = Ø.
- $H \cdot V = 1$. Indeed, we have one intersection point and the intersection is transversal there (see the calculation of the tangent spaces).
- $H \cdot \Delta = 1$. Again, we have a transversal intersection.
- *H*·Γ = *q*. This requires some computation. We have one intersection point since *F*: *X* → *X* is a bijection, but we don't have a transversal intersection here, so we need to do more computations. In the end one has to calculate dim *k*[*x*, *y*]/(*y*, *x^q* − *y*) = *q* (a basis consists of 1, *x*, ..., *x^{q-1}*).
- $V \cdot V = 0$. By symmetry, $V \cdot V = H \cdot H$.
- $V \cdot \Delta = 1$. By symmetry, $V \cdot \Delta = H \cdot \Delta$.
- $V \cdot \Gamma = 1$. Since $F: X \to X$ is a bijection, we have one intersection point, but this time we have a transversal intersection.
- $\Delta \cdot \Delta = 2 2g$. This is Theorem 14.2.1.
- $\Delta \cdot \Gamma = \# X(\mathbb{F}_q) := N$. We have a transversal intersection again. We calculate:

$$\Delta \cdot \Gamma = \#\Delta \cap \Gamma = \#\{(x, y) : x = y, F(x) = y\} = \#X(\mathbb{F}_q)$$

 Γ·Γ = q(2 - 2g). This is again a harder case (it uses some techniques which we don't have yet). Consider (F, id): X × X → X × X. This inverse image under this map of Δ is Γ. One then obtains (from a general theorem) that Γ·Γ = deg(F, id)·(Δ·Δ). This degree is the degree of the corresponding extension of function fields, and one can show that this degree is q in our case. We put these calculations in a matrix with respect to H, V, Δ, Γ . One then gets:

$$\left(\begin{array}{cccc} 0 & 1 & 1 & q \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2-2g & N \\ q & 1 & N & q(2-2g) \end{array}\right)$$

Now one can make some entries 0 by choosing some other divisors (by some linear invertible transformation), namely $H, V, \Delta - V - H, \Gamma - qV - H$. With these divisors one gets the following matrix A:

$$A := \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2g & N - 1 - q \\ 0 & 0 & N - 1 - q & -2gq \end{array} \right)$$

Remark that this matrix consists of two diagonal blocks. There are now two cases to consider. In the first case H, V, Δ, Γ are dependent in $Num(X \times X)$. Then det(A) = 0. In the other case, H, V, Δ, Γ are independent in $Num(X \times X)$. Then Theorem 14.3.1 tells us that there is at most 1 positive eigenvalue. Notice that the eigenvalues of the first block are 1 and -1. Hence the second block has determinant ≥ 0 . In other words:

$$4g^2q - (N - 1 - q)^2 \ge 0.$$

Hence $|N-1-q| \leq 2g\sqrt{q}$. This finishes the proof of the Hasse-Weil inequality.

Corollary 14.4.1 All zeros s of $\zeta(X/\mathbb{F}_q, s) = Z(X, q^{-s})$ satisfy $\Re(s) = 1/2$.

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