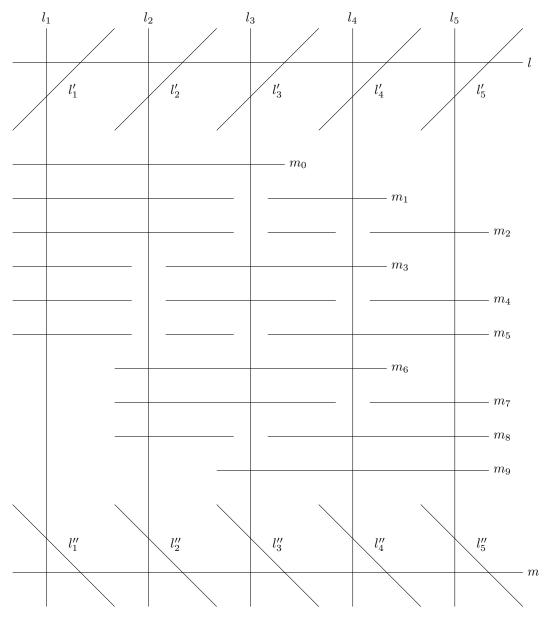
M4P33 Algebraic Geometry

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Syllabus

Affine varieties. Projective varieties. Morphisms. Rational maps. Nonsingular varieties. Intersections in projective space. The 27 lines on a cubic surface. Grassmannians. Divisors on curves. Elliptic curves.

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0 Introduction

I will not follow a particular book, but everything I am going to say will be contained in one of the following books.

Lecture 1 Friday 11/01/19

- I Shafarevich, Basic algebraic geometry, 1974
- R Hartshorne, Algebraic geometry, 1977
- $\bullet\,$ J Harris, Algebraic geometry: a first course, 1922
- $\bullet\,$ M Reid, Undergraduate algebraic geometry, 1988

1 Affine varieties

Notation 1.1.

- R is a commutative ring with unity.
- \bullet K is a field.
- $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is the ring of polynomials in n variables.
- \mathbb{A}^n is K^n as a set.

Definition 1.2. Let $S \subseteq K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ then

$$Z(S) = \{x \in \mathbb{A}^n \mid \forall f \in S, \ f(x) = 0\}$$

is called the **zero locus** of S. Subsets of \mathbb{A}^n that are of this form are called **affine varieties**.

Remark 1.3. Some authors call algebraic set the object Z(S). We will not follow this notation.

Example 1.4.

- Single points $p = (p_1, ..., p_n)$. p = Z(S) where $S = \{x_1 p_1, ..., x_n p_n\}$.
- $\bullet \ \mathbb{A}^n = Z(0).$
- $\emptyset = Z(1)$.
- Subspaces of $\mathbb{A}^n = K^n$.
- If $X = Z(f_1, \ldots, f_n) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ and $Y = Z(g_1, \ldots, g_m) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ are affine varieties then

$$X \times Y = Z(f_1, \dots, f_n, g_1, \dots, g_m) \subset \mathbb{A}^{n+m}$$

is a variety.

Remark 1.5. If $S \subseteq K[x_1, ..., x_n]$ and $I = \langle S \rangle$ then Z(S) = Z(I).

Theorem 1.6 (Hilbert's basis theorem). If R is Noetherian then R[x] is Noetherian.

Corollary 1.7. Every ideal in $K[x_1, ..., x_n]$ is finitely generated.

Definition 1.8. Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ then

$$I(X) = \{ f \in K [x_1, \dots, x_n] \mid \forall x \in X, \ f(x) = 0 \}.$$

Example 1.9. $I(p) = I((p_1, ..., p_n)) = \langle x_1 - p_1, ..., x_n - p_n \rangle$.

Goal is

Z(I(X)) = X but $I(Z(J)) \supseteq J$.

Example 1.10. $J = \langle x^2 + 1 \rangle \subseteq \mathbb{R}[x] = I(\emptyset) = I(Z(x^2 + 1)).$

Proposition 1.11.

- If $X \subseteq Y$ then $I(Y) \subseteq I(X)$. If $I \subseteq J$ then $Z(J) \subseteq Z(I)$.
- $X \subseteq Z(I(X))$ and $S \subseteq I(Z(S))$.
- If X is affine then Z(J(X)) = X. If X = Z(S) then take Z of $S \subseteq I(Z(S))$.

Example 1.12. Let $J \subseteq \mathbb{C}[x]$. $J = \langle f \rangle$, where $f = (x - x_1)^{k_1} \dots (x - x_n)^{k_n}$.

Definition 1.13. Let $I \subseteq K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ be an ideal.

$$I \subseteq \sqrt{I} = \{ f \in K [x_1, \dots, x_n] \mid \exists n \in \mathbb{N}, \ f^n \in I \}.$$

If $\sqrt{I} = I$, we say I is a **radical ideal**. (Exercise: \sqrt{I} is an ideal, $I \subseteq \sqrt{I}$, and $\sqrt{I} = \bigcap_{n \text{ prime } P} p$)

Theorem 1.14 (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz). $I(Z(J)) = \sqrt{J}$. If $\sqrt{J} = J$ then

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \{ \textit{affine varieties} \} & \longleftrightarrow & \{ \textit{radical ideals} \} \\ & X & \mapsto & I\left(X\right) \\ & Z\left(J\right) & \longleftrightarrow & J \end{array} .$$

Proposition 1.15.

- 1. $Z(S) \cup Z(T) = Z(ST)$.
- 2. $\bigcap_i Z(S_i) = Z(\bigcup_i S_i)$.
- 3. $Z(0) = \mathbb{A}^n \text{ and } Z(1) = \emptyset.$

Proof.

1. If $p \in Z(S) \cup Z(T)$, then f(p) = 0 for $f \in S$ or $f \in T$, so f(x) = 0 for $f \in ST$, where

$$ST = \left\{ \sum_{i \in I, \ I \ \text{finite}} s_i t_i \right\} \subseteq S \cap T,$$

with equality if S + T = R. If $p \in Z(ST)$, there exists f such that f(p) = 0 for $f \in S$ or f(p) = 0 for $f \in T$, so $p \in Z(S) \cup Z(T)$.

Definition 1.16. The **Zariski topology** on \mathbb{A}^n is the topology generated by closed sets of the form Z(S). By the above proposition this is a topology.

Example 1.17. \mathbb{A}^1 is not Hausdorff.

Definition 1.18. A topological space X is **irreducible** if it cannot be expressed as a union $X = A \cup B$, where A and B are proper and closed subsets. \emptyset is not considered irreducible.

Example 1.19. \mathbb{A}^1 .

Example 1.20. Any non-empty open set of irreducible X is dense and irreducible. Suppose A is open then $X = A^c \cup \overline{A}$. Since X is irreducible then $A^c = X$, a contradiction, or $\overline{A} = X$. Suppose A is reducible. Let $A = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$, where B and C are closed. Then $X = A^c \cup (B \cup C)$. $A^c = X$ or $B \cup C = X$, which are contradictions.

Example 1.21. If A is irreducible then \overline{A} is also irreducible. Suppose \overline{A} is not irreducible. $\overline{A} = (\overline{A} \cap B) \cup (\overline{A} \cap C)$. Take $\bigcap A$, $A = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$, a contradiction.

Definition 1.22. An affine variety is **irreducible** if it is irreducible as a topological space.

Remark 1.23. A quasi-affine variety is an open set of an affine variety.

Lecture 2 Monday 14/01/19

Proposition 1.24.

1. $I(X \cup Y) = I(X) \cap I(Y)$.

2.
$$Z(I(X)) = \overline{X}$$
 for any $X \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$.

Proof.

- 1. If $f \in I(X \cup Y)$ then f(p) = 0 for all $p \in X \cup Y$, so $f \in I(X)$ and $f \in I(Y)$.
- 2. We know that $X \subseteq Z(I(X))$ hence $\overline{X} \subseteq Z(I(X))$. Now, let Y be a closed set containing X, that is $X \subseteq Y$. Then

$$I(Y) \subset I(X) \implies Z(I(X)) \subset Z(I(X)) = Y,$$

so any closed set containing Y contains Z(I(X)).

Proposition 1.25. X is irreducible if and only if I(X) is prime.

Proof.

 \implies Let $f, g \in I(X)$.

$$X \subseteq Z(fg) = Z(f) \cup Z(g) \implies X = (X \cap Z(f)) \cup (X \cap Z(g)).$$

$$Z(f) \subseteq X$$
, so $f \in I(X)$, or $Z(g) \subseteq X$, so $g \in I(X)$.

 \iff Exercise.

Example 1.26. \mathbb{A}^n .

Definition 1.27. If $X \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$, the coordinate ring of X is

$$A(X) = \frac{A}{I(X)} = \frac{K[x_1, \dots, x_n]}{I(X)}.$$

Example 1.28. Let $f \in K[x_1, ..., x_n]$ be irreducible. If n = 3, Z(f) is a surface. If n = 2, Z(f) is a curve.

Example 1.29. Let $y - x^2 \in K[x, y]$. Then

$$\begin{split} A\left(X\right) &= \frac{K\left[x,y\right]}{\left\langle y - x^2 \right\rangle} \cong K\left[x,x^2\right] &\longrightarrow K\left[x\right] \\ &\sum_{i,j} a_{ij} x^i x^{2j} = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} x^{2j+i} &\longmapsto \sum_n b_n x^n \end{split}.$$

Example 1.30. Let $xy - 1 \in K[x, y]$. Then

$$A\left(X\right) = \frac{K\left[x,y\right]}{\left\langle xy - 1\right\rangle} \cong K\left[x,\frac{1}{x}\right].$$

A(X) cannot be K[x].

Definition 1.31. A **Noetherian** topological space X is a topological space such that if

$$C_1 \supseteq C_2 \supseteq \dots$$

is a decreasing chain of closed sets then there is a k such that $C_k = C_{k+1} = \dots$

Example 1.32. \mathbb{A}^n . Recall that if $A \subset B$ then $I(B) \subset I(A)$. So using the definition above,

$$I(C_1) \subseteq I(C_2) \subseteq \dots$$

Since $K[x_1, ..., x_n]$ is Noetherian then $I(C_i)$ stabilises. So $I(C_k) = I(C_{k+1}) = ...$, but taking Z, we recover C_k so C_k stabilises as well.

Lecture 3

Tuesday 15/01/19

Theorem 1.33. If X is Noetherian then any non-empty closed subset can be expressed as a finite union of irreducible closed sets $X = Y_1 \cup \cdots \cup Y_n$. Moreover, if we require that $Y_i \subseteq Y_i$ then this expression is unique.

Proof. Let C be the collection of closed sets that do not satisfy that property. Let Y be a minimum closed inside C, in particular Y is reducible, so $Y = Y' \cup Y''$, for Y', Y'' closed. Hence $Y', Y'' \not\subset C$, so they can be expressed as a finite union of irreducibles, a contradiction. If $Y_i \not\subset Y_j$, then suppose

$$Y_1 \cup \cdots \cup Y_n = X_1 \cup \cdots \cup X_n$$
.

Then $Y_1 \subset X_1 \cup X_n$, in particular $Y_1 = \bigcup_j (Y_1 \cap X_j)$, so there is a j such that $Y_1 \cap X_j = Y_1$, so $Y_1 \subset X_j$. We can assume j = 1 and repeat the same argument to find that $Y_1 = X_1$, so consider $\overline{Y \setminus Y_1} = Y_2 \cup \cdots \cup Y_n$. But

$$Y_2 \cup \cdots \cup Y_n = X_2 \cup \cdots \cup X_n$$
,

and the result follows by induction.

Corollary 1.34. Any affine variety in \mathbb{A}^n can be expressed equally as a union of irreducible algebraic varieties.

Definition 1.35. The **dimension** of a topological space is the supremum of n where

$$Y_0 \subset \cdots \subset Y_n$$

is a sequence of irreducible closed sets.

Example 1.36. Dimension of \mathbb{A}^1 is one.

Definition 1.37. Let A be a ring and \mathfrak{p} be a prime ideal, then the **height** of \mathfrak{p} is the supremum of n where

$$\mathfrak{p}_1 \subset \cdots \subset \mathfrak{p}_n \subset \mathfrak{p},$$

where \mathfrak{p}_i are prime. The **Krull dimension** of A is

$$\sup_{\mathfrak{p} \text{ prime}} height(\mathfrak{p}).$$

Proposition 1.38. If Y is affine then $\dim(Y) = \dim(A(Y))$.

Proof. Let C be a closed and irreducible set $C \subset Y$, then $I(C) \supset I(Y)$, then I(C) is prime.

Proposition 1.39. Let K be a field and B be an integral domain which is a finitely generated algebra, then

- $\dim(B)$ is the transcendence degree of K(B) over K, and
- if $\mathfrak{p} \subseteq B$ is prime, then

$$height(\mathfrak{p}) + \dim\left(\frac{B}{\mathfrak{p}}\right) = \dim(B).$$

Proof. Ativah Macdonald chapter 11.

Proposition 1.40 (Krull Hauptidealsatz). Let A be a Noetherian ring and $f \in A$ not a zero divisor and not a unit. Then every prime ideal containing f has height one.

Proof. Atiyah Macdonald page 122.

Lecture 4 Friday 18/01/19

Proposition 1.41. A Noetherian integral domain A is a UFD if and only if every prime ideal I of height one is principal.

Theorem 1.42. An irreducible variety $Y \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ has dimension n-1 if and only if Y = Z(f) where f is an irreducible polynomial in $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$.

Proof.

- \implies If Y has dimension n-1 then I(Y) has height one, by the above proposition $I(Y)=\langle f\rangle$, so Y=Z(f).
- \Leftarrow Let I = I(Y) then I is prime, by the Krull Hauptidealsatz we have that I has height one, so dim (Y) = n 1.

2 Projective varieties

Definition 2.1. The projective space \mathbb{P}^n is defined as

$$\mathbb{P}^n = \frac{\mathbb{A}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}}{\{x \sim \lambda x \mid \lambda \in K^*\}}.$$

A point in \mathbb{P}^n is written as $[a_0 : \cdots : a_n] = \overline{(a_0, \ldots, a_n)}$.

Definition 2.2. A graded ring R is a ring together with a decomposition

$$R = \bigoplus_{d>0} R_d,$$

where R_d are abelian groups and $R_k \cdot R_t \subseteq R_{k+t}$.

Example 2.3. $K[x_0,\ldots,x_n]$ is a graded ring, where R_d are monomials of degree d.

Notation 2.4. Let A be $K[x_0,\ldots,x_n]$ without the grading and S be $K[x_0,\ldots,x_n]$ as a graded ring.

Definition 2.5. An ideal $I \subseteq S$ is homogeneous if

$$I = \bigoplus_{d>0} \left(I \cap S_d \right).$$

If $f = f_0 + \cdots + f_d$, then $f_i \in I$.

Remark 2.6. I is homogeneous if and only if $I = \langle f_0, \dots, f_n \rangle$, where f_i are homogeneous.

Lemma 2.7. If I, J are homogeneous then

- 1. I + J is homogeneous,
- 2. IJ is homogeneous,
- 3. $I \cap J$ is homogeneous, and
- 4. \sqrt{I} is homogeneous.

Proof.

4. Let $f = f_0 + \cdots + f_d \in \sqrt{I}$ then

$$f^n = (f_0 + \dots + f_d)^n = f_d^n + \dots \in I \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad f_d^n \in I \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad f_d \in \sqrt{I},$$

so $f - f_d \in \sqrt{I}$, by induction $f_i \in \sqrt{I}$.

Definition 2.8. If f is homogeneous of degree k then

$$f(\lambda \cdot x) = \lambda^k \cdot f(x),$$

in particular f(x) = 0 if and only if $f(\lambda \cdot x) = 0$, so it makes sense to define

$$Z(f) = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{P}^n \mid f(x) = 0 \right\}.$$

More generally, if $I \subseteq S$ is a homogeneous ideal then

$$Z(I) = \{x \in \mathbb{P}^n \mid f \in I \text{ homogeneous}, \ f(x) = 0\}.$$

Definition 2.9. A subset $X \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ is called a **projective variety** if X = Z(T) for some homogeneous ideal T.

Proposition 2.10.

- $Z(S) \cup Z(T) = Z(ST)$.
- $\bigcap_{\alpha} Z(S_{\alpha}) = Z(\bigcup_{\alpha} S_{\alpha}).$
- $Z(0) = \mathbb{P}^n$ and $Z(1) = \emptyset$.

Definition 2.11. We define the **Zariski topology** on \mathbb{P}^n by taking closed sets to be Z(T) for some T.

Definition 2.12.

- A projective variety is **irreducible** if it is an irreducible topological space.
- An open subset of a projective variety is called a **quasi-projective variety**.
- The dimension of a projective variety is its dimension as a topological space.
- If $T \subseteq S$ then

$$I(T) = \langle f \in S \mid f \text{ homogeneous}, \forall p \in T, f(p) = 0 \rangle.$$

Definition 2.13. If X is a projective variety the homogeneous coordinate ring is

$$S\left(X\right) = \frac{S}{I\left(X\right)}.$$

Definition 2.14. If $f \in S$ is linear and homogeneous, we call Z(f) a hyperplane.

Lecture 5 Monday 21/01/19

Proposition 2.15.

$$\phi_i$$
: $U_i = \mathbb{P}^n \setminus Z(x_i) \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^n$

$$[x_0 : \dots : x_n] \longmapsto \left(\frac{x_0}{x_i}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_i}\right)$$

is a homeomorphism in the Zariski topology.

Proof. Let $\phi = \phi_0$ and $U = U_0$, let $C \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ be a closed set then we claim that $\phi^{-1}(C)$ is closed. Indeed, let C = Z(S), then $\phi^{-1}(C) = Z(S') \cup U$ where

$$S' = \left\{ x_0^d \cdot f\left(\frac{x_1}{x_0}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_0}\right) \mid f \in S \right\}.$$

Similarly, let $A \subseteq U$ is closed, we claim that $\phi(A)$ is closed. Let \overline{A} be its closure in \mathbb{P}^n , then $\overline{A} = Z(B)$, so $\phi(A) = Z(B')$ where

$$B' = \{ f(1, x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid f \in B \}.$$

So we conclude that ϕ is a homeomorphism.

Note. $\langle 1 \rangle = S$ and $\langle x_0, \dots, x_n \rangle \subsetneq S$ map to \emptyset under Z. So in order to have a one-to-one correspondence we need the following.

- $Z(I) = \emptyset$ if and only if $\sqrt{I} \supseteq \langle x_0, \dots, x_n \rangle$. If we consider Z(I) in \mathbb{A}^{n+1} , note that $x \in Z(I)$ if and only if $\lambda x \in Z(I)$. So $Z(I) = \emptyset$ if and only if $Z(I) \subseteq \{0\}$. So $\sqrt{I} \supseteq \langle x_0, \dots, x_n \rangle$.
- $I(Z(J)) = \sqrt{J}$ if $Z(J) \neq \emptyset$, since $I(Z(J)) = I(Z_a(J)) = \sqrt{J}$.

Corollary 2.16.

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\{ \text{ projective varieties } \} \iff \{ \text{ homogeneous radical ideals not } \langle x_0, \dots, x_n \rangle \},
\{ \text{ irreducible projective varieties } \} \iff \{ \text{ homogeneous radical prime ideals } \}.
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Example 2.17. \mathbb{P}^n is irreducible.

Proposition 2.18.

- \mathbb{P}^n is Noetherian, that is satisfies the descending chain condition.
- Every projective variety can be written as a unique union of irreducible projective varieties. We call irreducible components the irreducible varieties in that decomposition.

Theorem 2.19. Let $Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ be an irreducible projective variety. Then

$$\dim (S(Y)) = \dim (Y) + 1.$$

Proof. Let

$$\phi_i$$
: $U = \mathbb{P}^n \setminus Z(x_i) \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^n$

$$[x_0 : \dots : x_n] \longmapsto \left(\frac{x_0}{x_i}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_i}\right),$$

and $Y_i = \phi_i (Y \cap U_i)$. Let

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
K[x_1, \dots, x_n] & \longrightarrow & \left(S(Y)_{x_i}\right)_0 \\
f(x_1, \dots, x_n) & \longmapsto & \frac{x_i^{\partial f} f\left(\frac{x_1}{x_i}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_i}\right)}{x_i^{\partial f}},
\end{array}$$

then

$$A(Y_i) = \frac{K[x_1, \dots, x_n]}{I(Y_i)} \cong (S(Y)_{x_i})_0,$$

moreover $S(Y)_{x_i} \cong A(Y_i)[x_i, x_i^{-1}]$. So

$$\dim\left(S\left(Y\right)\right)=\dim\left(S\left(Y\right)_{x_{i}}\right)=\dim\left(A\left(Y_{i}\right)\left[x_{i},x_{i}^{-1}\right]\right)=tra\left(K\left(Y_{i}\right)\left(x_{i}\right)\right)=\dim\left(Y_{i}\right)+1.$$

Therefore if $Y_i \neq \emptyset$, dim $(Y_i) = \dim(S(Y)) - 1$ for all i, but since U_i cover Y we have dim $(Y) = \max\{\dim(Y_i)\}$. (Exercise: if $\{U_n\}_n$ is a finite cover of a topological space Y then dim $(Y) = \max\{\dim(Y_i)\}$) Since dim (Y_i) are the same if $Y_i \neq \emptyset$, we conclude that dim $(Y) = \dim(Y_d)$ for some d.

Lecture 6 Tuesday 22/01/19

Proposition 2.20. Every Noetherian topological space is compact.

Proof. Let X be a Noetherian topological space and let $\{U_n\}$ be a cover of X. So consider C, the collection of the union of finitely many open sets of $\{U_n\}$. Since X is Noetherian C has a maximum element, say $U_1 \cup \cdots \cup U_n$. If $U_1 \cup \cdots \cup U_n \subsetneq X$ then there is $x \in X$ not in the union, and we can find another $U_{\alpha_0} \ni x$. But then

$$U_1 \cup \cdots \cup U_n \cup U_{\alpha_0} \supseteq U_1 \cup \cdots \cup U_n$$
,

a contradiction. So $X = U_1 \cup \cdots \cup U_n$.

Corollary 2.21. \mathbb{P}^n , \mathbb{A}^n , affine varieties, and projective varieties are all compact in the Zariski topology.

Definition 2.22. A variety X is **complete** if for any other variety Y, the projection $X \times Y \to Y$ is closed.

Example 2.23. \mathbb{P}^n is complete. \mathbb{A}^n is not complete.

3 Morphisms

Definition 3.1. Suppose Y is a quasi-affine variety and $p \in Y$. We say that a function $f: Y \to \mathbb{A}^1$ is **regular** at p if there are $g, h \in K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ and $U \ni p$ such that f = g/h in U with $h \ne 0$. A function is **regular** if it is regular for every $p \in Y$.

Example 3.2. Local is not global. Let $X = Z(x_1x_4 - x_2x_3) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^4$ and $U = X \setminus Z(x_2, x_4)$. Then

$$\phi : U \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^{1}$$

$$(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}) \longmapsto \begin{cases} \frac{x_{1}}{x_{2}} & x_{2} \neq 0 \\ \frac{x_{3}}{x_{4}} & x_{4} \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

is a regular function.

Definition 3.3. Let Y be a quasi-projective variety, $f: Y \to \mathbb{A}^1$, and $p \in Y$. We say that f is **regular** at p if there are g, h homogeneous polynomials of the same degree and an open set $U \ni p$ such that f = g/h on U and $h \neq 0$.

Lemma 3.4. A regular function is continuous.

Proof. It is enough to show that $f^{-1}(p)$ is closed. Since f is regular f = g/h on some neighbourhood U, then

$$f^{-1}(p) \cap U = Z(g - ph) \cap U.$$

Remark 3.5. If X is irreducible then f = g on $U \subseteq X$, then f = g on X. Because the set where f - g = 0 is closed and dense.

Definition 3.6. We will use the term **variety** to denote an affine, quasi-affine, projective, or quasi-projective variety.

Definition 3.7. A morphism is $f: X \to Y$ if f is continuous and for every $U \subseteq Y$ and every function $g: U \to \mathbb{A}^1$ the composition $g \circ f$ is regular.

Remark 3.8.

- Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$ then the composition $g \circ f$ of these two morphisms is the composition of f and g as functions.
- A morphism $f: X \to Y$ is an **isomorphism** if there is a morphism $g: Y \to X$ such that $f \circ g = id$ and $g \circ f = id$.

Definition 3.9. Let X be a variety. Denote the set of all regular functions of X by $\mathcal{O}(X)$. If $p \in X$ the **local ring** at $p \in X$ is

$$\mathcal{O}_{p} = \underset{U \ni p}{\xrightarrow{\lim}} \left(\mathcal{O} \left(U \right) \right).$$

An element of \mathcal{O}_p is a pair (U, f), where $p \in U$ and f is regular at p, moreover $(U, f) \sim (V, g)$ if f = g on $U \cap V$.

Definition 3.10. Let Y be an irreducible variety, the function field K(Y) of Y is the field whose elements are pairs (U, f) where U is open and f is regular on U, and

Lecture 7 Friday 25/01/19

$$(U,f)+(V,g)=(U\cap V,f+g)\,.$$

Remark 3.11.

- K(Y) is indeed a field for if $(U, f) \neq 0$ then $U^{-1} = U \setminus Z(f)$, so $(U^{-1}, 1/f)$ is the inverse to (U, f).
- K(Y) is the quotient field of A(Y) or S(Y).
- $\mathcal{O}(Y) \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O}_p \hookrightarrow K(Y)$ for all $p \in Y$.

Theorem 3.12. If $Y \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ is an irreducible affine variety with coordinate ring A(Y) then

- 1. $\mathcal{O}(Y) = A(Y)$,
- 2. for all $p \in Y$, if $\mathfrak{m}_p = \{ f \in A(Y) \mid f(p) = 0 \}$ then we have a one-to-one correspondence $\{ \text{ points of } Y \} \iff \{ \text{ maximal ideals of } A(Y) \},$
- 3. for all $p \in Y$, $\mathcal{O}_p \cong A(Y)_{\mathfrak{m}_p}$ and $\dim(\mathcal{O}_p) = \dim(Y)$, and
- 4. K(Y) is the quotient field of A(Y).

Proof.

1. Notice that there is a natural map $A \to \mathcal{O}(Y)$ with kernel I(Y), so there is an injection $A(Y) \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O}(Y)$, that is

$$A\left(Y\right)\subseteq\mathcal{O}\left(Y\right)\subseteq\bigcap_{p\in Y}\mathcal{O}_{p}=\bigcap_{\mathfrak{m}_{p}}A\left(Y\right)_{\mathfrak{m}_{p}}=A\left(Y\right),$$

so
$$A(Y) = \mathcal{O}(Y)$$
.

- 2. We know that points of Y correspond to maximal ideals $\mathfrak{m}_p \supseteq I(Y)$. Taking the quotient, we get maximal ideals inside A(Y).
- 3. There is a natural map $A(Y)_{\mathfrak{m}_p} \to \mathcal{O}_p$, which is injective by $\alpha : A(Y) \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O}(Y)$, and it is surjective by definition of \mathcal{O}_p . Moreover,

$$\dim (\mathcal{O}_p) = \dim (A_p)_{\mathfrak{m}_p} = height(\mathfrak{m}_p) = \dim (Y).$$

4. The quotient field of A(Y) is the quotient field of \mathcal{O}_p for all p, by 3, which is K(Y) by definition.

Theorem 3.13. Let $Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ be irreducible and projective. Then

1.
$$O(Y) = K$$
,

- 2. for all $p \in Y$, \mathfrak{m}_p as before, $\mathcal{O}_p \cong \left(S(Y)_{\mathfrak{m}_p}\right)_0$, and
- 3. $K(Y) \cong \left(S(Y)_{(0)}\right)_0$.

Proof. Recall that

$$\phi_{i}$$
: $U_{i} = \mathbb{P}^{n} \setminus Z(x_{i}) \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^{n}$

$$[x_{0}:\dots:x_{n}] \longmapsto \left(\frac{x_{0}}{x_{i}},\dots,\frac{x_{n}}{x_{i}}\right)$$

gives $\phi_i^* : A(Y_i) \cong (S(Y)_{x_i})_0$ and $Y_i = \phi_i (Y \cap U_i)$.

1. $K \subseteq \mathcal{O}(Y)$. Take $f \in \mathcal{O}(Y)$, so f is regular at each Y_i , but $\mathcal{O}(Y_i) \cong A(Y_i)$, also by ϕ_i^* , $A(Y_i) \cong (S(Y)_{x_i})_0$. Thus $f = g_i/x_i^{n_i}$, where $n_i = \deg(g_i)$, in particular $x_i^{n_i} f \in S(Y)_{n_i}$. Now, set $N \ge \sum_i n_i$, then $S(Y)_N \cdot f \subseteq S(Y)_N$, so we can iterate this process to obtain $S(Y)_N \cdot f^q \subseteq S(Y)_N$. In particular $x_0^N f \subset S$, hence S(Y)[f] is contained in $x_0^{-N} S(Y)$. Therefore f is integral since S(Y)[f] is finitely generated. There are $a_i \in S$ such that

$$f^k + a_1 f^{k-1} + \dots + a_k = 0.$$

Since f is homogeneous of degree zero we can take the constant terms of a_i and still have an equation, hence $a_i \in K$.

- 2. Let $p \in Y$, then $p \in Y_i$, by the previous theorem we know that $\mathcal{O}_p \cong A(Y_i)_{\mathfrak{m}_p}$. By ϕ_i^* , $\mathcal{O}_p \cong \left(\left(S(Y)_{x_i}\right)_{\mathfrak{m}_p}\right)_0$, but since $x_i \notin \mathfrak{m}_p$, hence $\mathcal{O}_p \cong \left(S(Y)_{\mathfrak{m}_p}\right)_0$.
- 3. Recall that the quotient field of Y is $K(Y) = K(Y_i)$, but $K(Y_i)$ is the quotient field of the coordinate ring $A(Y_i)$, by ϕ_i^* , this is $\left(S(Y)_{(0)}\right)_0$.

Proposition 3.14. Let X be an irreducible variety and Y be an irreducible affine variety, then we have a bijection

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$$\alpha: Hom(X,Y) \xrightarrow{\sim} Hom(A(Y), \mathcal{O}(X)),$$

the set of morphisms from X to Y to the set of K-algebra homomorphisms.

Proof. Given a morphism $\phi: X \to Y$, by definition of morphism, ϕ takes regular functions at X to regular functions at X. So if $f \in A(Y)$ then $\phi \circ f \in \mathcal{O}(X)$. Conversely, let $h: A(Y) \to \mathcal{O}(X)$ be a homomorphism of K-algebras. Recall that

$$A(Y) = \frac{A}{I(Y)} = \frac{k[x_1, \dots, x_n]}{I(Y)}.$$

Take $\overline{x_i} \in A(Y)$ and let $y_i = h(\overline{x_i}) \in \mathcal{O}(X)$ and define

$$\psi : X \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^{n}$$

$$p \longmapsto (y_{1}(p), \dots, y_{n}(p)) .$$

We claim that $Im(\psi) \subseteq Y$, but since Y = Z(I(Y)), it is enough to show that if $f \in I(Y)$ then $f(\psi(p)) = 0$.

$$f(\psi(p)) = f(y_1(p), \dots, y_n(p)) = f(h(\overline{x_1}(p)), \dots, h(\overline{x_n}(p))) = h(f(x_1, \dots, x_n))(p) = 0.$$

Lemma 3.15. If X, Y are as before then $\psi : X \to Y$ is a morphism if and only if $\psi_i = x_i \circ \psi$ are regular functions.

Proof. Suppose ψ_i are regular functions, then if p is a polynomial $p \circ \psi$ is regular, but since regular functions are quotients of polynomials, we conclude that $f \circ \psi$ is regular for any regular function f.

Corollary 3.16. If X, Y are affine then $X \cong Y$ if and only if $A(X) \cong A(Y)$.

Corollary 3.17. The correspondence $X \mapsto A(X)$ induces an arrow reversing correspondence between the category of affine varieties and the category of K-integral domains.

Lecture 9 is a problem class.

Lecture 10 is a problem class.

Lecture 9 Tuesday 29/01/19 Lecture 10 Friday 01/02/19

4 Rational maps

Definition 4.1. Let X, Y be varieties. A **rational map** $f: X \dashrightarrow Y$ is a pair (U, f_U) where $U \subseteq X$ is open and f_U is a morphism on U and we identify $(U, f_U) \sim (V, g_V)$ if $f_U = g_V$ on $U \cap V$.

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Lemma 4.2. If X, Y are varieties and $\phi, \psi: X \to Y$ such that $\phi = \psi$ on $U \subseteq X$, then $\phi = \psi$ on X.

Proof. We can assume that $Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ for some n, and hence we reduce to the case where $Y = \mathbb{P}^n$. So the product is $\phi \times \psi : X \to \mathbb{P}^n \times \mathbb{P}^n$. Let $\Delta \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n \times \mathbb{P}^n = Z(x_iy_j - x_jy_i)$. Since $\phi = \psi$ on U, $(\phi \times \psi)(U) \subseteq A$, so $(\phi \times \psi)(\overline{U}) = (\phi \times \psi)(X) \subseteq \Delta$.

Definition 4.3.

- A dominant rational map is a rational map $f: X \dashrightarrow Y$, such that $f_U(U)$ is dense for some, and hence all, (U, f_U) .
- A birational map is a dominant rational map $f: X \longrightarrow Y$ such that f admits an inverse $g: Y \longrightarrow X$.

Theorem 4.4. For any two varieties X, Y we have a correspondence

```
\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \textit{dominant rational maps } f: X \rightarrow Y \end{array} \right\} \qquad \leftrightsquigarrow \qquad \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \textit{K-algebra homomorphisms } K\left(Y\right) \rightarrow K\left(X\right) \end{array} \right\}.
```

Proof. Given a rational map $f: X \dashrightarrow Y$ and let $g \in K(Y)$. Let f_U be a representative of f then we have that if $(V,g) = g, g \circ f_U \in K(X)$. Since we can cover Y using affine varieties, we can assume Y is affine then K(Y) = K(A(Y)). If we start with a homomorphism $\theta: K(Y) \to K(X)$, let $y_1, \ldots, y_n \in A(Y)$ be the generators of A(Y), then $\theta(y_i) \in K(X)$. We can find U such that $\theta(y_i)$ are regular at U. Then this induces a map $A(Y) \to \mathcal{O}(U)$. But then we have a morphism $U \to Y$, and moreover this is the inverse of the map we defined previously.

Definition 4.5.

- A field extension L/K is **separably generated** if there is a transcendence basis $\{x_i\}$ for L/K such that L is a separable algebraic extension of $K(\{x_i\})$.
- Primitive element theorem. If L/K is finite and separable then L/K (α) for some $\alpha \in L$. If L is infinite and β_1, \ldots, β_n are generators for L/K then $\alpha = c_1\beta_1 + \cdots + c_n\beta_n$ for $c_i \in K$.
- If K is perfect, any finitely generated extension L/K is separably generated.

Theorem 4.6. Any variety X of dimension n is birational to a hypersurface $Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n+1}$.

Proof. Since K(X) = K is finitely generated, by the theorem above it is separably generated. So we can find a transcendence basis $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in K$ such that $K/k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is finite and separable. By the primitive element theorem, $K = k(x_1, \ldots, x_n, y)$ for some y which is algebraic over $k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, so y is the solution of a polynomial equation f in $k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$. In particular if we clear denominators we get a polynomial $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n, y)$ in \mathbb{A}^{n+1} , by taking Z(f) we get a hypersurface and taking its projective closure we get a hypersurface in \mathbb{P}^n .

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Corollary 4.7. The following are equivalent.

- $F: X \dashrightarrow Y$ is birational.
- There exist U, V such that $F: U \to V$ is an isomorphism.
- $K(Y) \cong K(X)$.

Definition 4.8. The blow-up of \mathbb{A}^n at the origin 0, denoted by $\widetilde{\mathbb{A}^n}$, is

$$Z(x_iy_j - x_jy_i) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n \times \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$$
.

$$\widetilde{\mathbb{A}^n} \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{A}^n \times \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \xrightarrow[\mathbb{A}^n]{(x,y) \mapsto x}.$$

Proposition 4.9.

- 1. Let $P \in \mathbb{A}^n$, if $P \neq 0$ then $\pi^{-1}(P)$ is a single point, and $\widetilde{\mathbb{A}^n} \setminus \pi^{-1}(0) \cong \mathbb{A}^n \setminus \{0\}$.
- 2. $\pi^{-1}(0) \cong \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$.
- 3. Points of $\pi^{-1}(0)$ are in one-to-one correspondence with the set of lines through the origin.
- 4. $\widetilde{\mathbb{A}^n}$ is irreducible.

Proof.

- 1. If $P \neq 0$ then $y_j = x_j y_i / x_i$ and this is true for every j, so this gives a unique point in \mathbb{P}^{n-1} .
- 2. Obvious.
- 3. A line through the origin is given by $x_i = ta_i$ for $t \neq 0$. Taking π^{-1} of this line we get $x_i = ta_i$ and $y_i = ta_i = a_i$. In other words if $x \neq 0$, $\pi^{-1}(X) = (X, [X])$.
- 4. $\widetilde{\mathbb{A}^n} \setminus \pi^{-1}(0) \cong \mathbb{A}^n \setminus \{0\}$ is dense and irreducible, by 3.

Definition 4.10. If $Y \ni 0$ is a closed subvariety of \mathbb{A}^n we define the **blow-up** of Y at 0 by

$$\widetilde{Y} = \overline{\pi^{-1}(Y \setminus \{0\})}.$$

More generally, we can blow-up any point by taking an affine change of coordinates. We also get a birational map $\pi: \widetilde{Y} \to Y$.

Example 4.11. Let $Y = Z(y^2 - x^2(x+1))$. The equations of the blow-up are

$$\begin{cases} y^2 = x^2 (x+1) \\ xu = yt \end{cases},$$

where $[t:u] \in \mathbb{P}^1$. Suppose $t \neq 0$.

$$\begin{cases} y^2 = x^2 (x+1) \\ y = xu \end{cases} \implies (xu)^2 = x^2 (x+1) \implies x^2 (u^2 - x - 1) = 0.$$

Example 4.12. Let $y^2 = x^3$.

$$\begin{cases} y^2 = x^3 \\ y = xu \end{cases} \implies (xu)^2 = x^3 \implies x^2 (u^2 - x) = 0.$$

5 Nonsingular varieties

Definition 5.1. Let $Y \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ be an affine variety of dimension r, and suppose $I(Y) = \langle f_1, \dots, f_k \rangle$. Y is **nonsingular** at $P \in Y$ if $rank\left(\frac{\partial f_i(P)}{\partial x_j}\right) = n - r$. Y is **nonsingular** if it is nonsingular at every $P \in Y$.

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Example 5.2. Let $x^2 = x^4 + y^4 \subseteq \mathbb{A}^2$, so $f = x^2 - x^4 - y^4$.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x - 4x^3 = 0 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad x\left(1 - 2x^2\right) = 0 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad x = 0 \text{ or } 2x^2 = 1,$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = -9y^3 = 0$$
 \Longrightarrow $y = 0$ \Longrightarrow $x^2 = x^4$ \Longrightarrow $x = 0 \text{ or } x^2 = 1$,

so $Sing(Y) = \{(0,0)\}.$

Example 5.3. Let $Y = Z(f) = Z(y^2 - x^3)$.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = -3x^2 = 0, \qquad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2y = 0,$$

so $Sing(Y) = \{(0,0)\}.$

Definition 5.4. Let A be a Noetherian local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} , and residue field $A/\mathfrak{m} = K$. A is a **regular local ring** if $\dim_K (\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2) = \dim(A)$.

Note. $(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2)^*$ is called the **Zariski-tangent space**.

Claim that $\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$ is a K-vector space for $K = A/\mathfrak{m}$.

Theorem 5.5. Let $Y \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ be an affine variety. Then Y is nonsingular at P if and only if \mathcal{O}_P is a regular local ring.

Proof. Let $P = (a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in Y$ with corresponding maximal ideal $I_P = \langle x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n \rangle$. We define a map

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \theta_{P} & : & A = K\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] & \longrightarrow & K^{n} \\ & f & \longmapsto & \left(\frac{\partial f\left(P\right)}{\partial x_{1}}, \ldots, \frac{\partial f\left(P\right)}{\partial x_{n}}\right) \end{array}.$$

Note that $\theta\left(\left(x_i-a_i\right)\left(x_j-a_j\right)\right)=0$, hence $\theta_P\left(I_P^2\right)=0$, in particular we have an isomorphism $I_P/I_P^2\cong K^n$. By the isomorphism, if $\alpha=I\left(Y\right)=\langle f_1,\ldots,f_t\rangle$ then the rank of $\frac{\partial f_i(P)}{\partial x_j}$ corresponds to the dimension of α under the isomorphism, which is $\overline{\alpha}$ in I_P/I_P^2 , $(\alpha+I_P)/I_P^2$. Now $\mathcal{O}_P=(A/\alpha)_{I_P}$. If $\mathfrak{m}=(I_P+\alpha)/\alpha$ then $\mathfrak{m}^2=(I_P^2+\alpha)/\alpha$, so $\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2=I_P/\left(I_P^2+\alpha\right)$. So

$$r = \dim\left(\frac{\mathfrak{m}}{\mathfrak{m}^2}\right) = \dim\left(\frac{I_P}{I_P^2 + \alpha}\right) = \dim\left(\frac{I_P}{I_P^2}\right) - \dim\left(\frac{I_P^2 + \alpha}{I_P^2}\right) = n - rank\left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_i}\right).$$

So \mathcal{O}_P is regular if and only if $rank\left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}\right) = n - r$.

Definition 5.6. Let X be a variety. X is **nonsingular** at P if \mathcal{O}_P is a regular local ring.

Theorem 5.7. Let Y be a variety. Then Sing(Y) is a proper and closed set. The set of nonsingular points of Y is open and dense.

Proof. Prove that Sing(Y) is closed, first. We know that the rank of the Jacobian is at most n-r, therefore the singular points occurs when the rank is less than n-r, which is to say that Sing(Y) is given by the vanishing of the $(n-r)\times (n-r)$ minors of $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$ and I(Y), hence is closed. To prove that it is proper $Sing(Y) \subseteq Y$.

Lecture 14 is a problem class.

Lecture 15 is a problem class.

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6 Intersections in projective space

Theorem 6.1. Let $Y, Z \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ be varieties, with $\dim(Y) = r$ and $\dim(Z) = s$ then every irreducible component has dimension at least r + s - n.

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Proof. Suppose Z is a hypersurface. Then if $Y \subseteq Z$ the theorem holds, and if $Y \nsubseteq Z$ the theorem is true by homework 1. Let Z be general. Consider the diagonal in \mathbb{A}^{2n} given by the image of the isomorphism $P \mapsto P \times P$, then $Y \cap Z$ corresponds to $(Y \times Z) \cap \Delta$. Recall that

$$\Delta = Z(x_1 - y_1) \cap \cdots \cap Z(x_n - y_n),$$

by the first case n times we have that each irreducible component has dimension

$$(r+s) - n - 2n = r + s - n.$$

Theorem 6.2. Let $Y, Z \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ be varieties, where $\dim(Y) = r$ and $\dim(Z) = s$, then each irreducible component of $Y \cap Z$ has dimension at least r + s - n. Moreover, if $r + s - n \ge 0$ then $Y \cap Z \ne \emptyset$.

Proof. Take the affine cone of Y and Z, C(Y) and C(Z), since $0 \in C(Y) \cap C(Z)$ we apply the previous theorem to get

$$(r+1) + (s+1) - (n+1) = r + s - n + 1,$$

so therefore $Y \cap Z \neq \emptyset$.

Definition 6.3. A numerical polynomial is a polynomial $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ such that $f(n) \in \mathbb{Z}$ for $n \gg 0$, for n sufficiently large.

Theorem 6.4.

1. If $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is a numerical polynomial then there are $c_0, \ldots, c_r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$f(x) = c_0 \begin{pmatrix} x \\ r \end{pmatrix} + \dots + c_r \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

2. If for $n \gg 0$, $\Delta f = f(n+1) - f(n) = q$ and q is a numerical polynomial, then there exists p such that for $n \gg 0$, p(n) = f(n).

Proof.

1. By linear algebra we can find $c_0, \ldots, c_r \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that

$$f(x) = c_0 \begin{pmatrix} x \\ r \end{pmatrix} + \dots + c_r \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

then

$$\Delta f = c_0 \begin{pmatrix} x \\ r-1 \end{pmatrix} + \dots + c_{r-1} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

By induction on the degree of f we have that $c_0, \ldots, c_{r-1} \in \mathbb{Z}$, but since $f(n) \in \mathbb{Z}$ for $n \gg 0$ then $c_r \in \mathbb{Z}$.

2. If

$$q = c_0 \begin{pmatrix} x \\ r \end{pmatrix} + \dots + c_r \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

set

$$p = c_0 \begin{pmatrix} x \\ r+1 \end{pmatrix} + \dots + c_r \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

 $\Delta p = q$ gives $\Delta (f - p)(n) = 0$.

Definition 6.5.

• Let S be a graded ring. A graded S-module is a module M with a decomposition

$$M = \bigoplus_{d \in \mathbb{Z}} M_d,$$

such that $S_k \cdot M_d \subseteq M_{d+k}$.

- Let $l \in \mathbb{Z}$. The **twisted module** M(l) is the graded S-module given by $M(l)_k = M_{l+k}$.
- $Ann(M) = \{x \in S \mid xM = 0\}.$

Theorem 6.6. Let M be a finitely generated graded S-module. Then there is a filtration

$$0 = M^0 \subset \cdots \subset M^r = M$$
,

such that $M^i/M^{i-1} \cong (S/\mathfrak{p}_i)$ (l) for some \mathfrak{p}_i prime ideals and $l_i \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that

- prime $\mathfrak{p} \supseteq Ann(M)$ if and only if $\mathfrak{p} \subseteq \mathfrak{p}_i$, that is \mathfrak{p}_i are minimal primes of M, and
- for each minimal prime \mathfrak{p} of M the number of times \mathfrak{p} appears in the set $\{\mathfrak{p}_1,\ldots,\mathfrak{p}_r\}$ is $len_{S_{\mathfrak{p}}}(M_{\mathfrak{p}})$.

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Definition 6.7. Let \mathfrak{p} be a minimal prime of a graded S-module M. Then the **multiplicity** of M at \mathfrak{p} is $len_{S_{\mathfrak{p}}}(M_{\mathfrak{p}})$.

Definition 6.8. Let M be a graded $S = K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ -module. The **Hilbert function** of M is $\phi_M(l) = \dim_K(M_l)$.

Theorem 6.9. Let M be a graded $S = K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ -module. Then for $n \gg 0$, there is a unique polynomial $P_M \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ such that $\phi_M(n) = P_M(n)$. P_M is called the **Hilbert polynomial**. It is a polynomial of degree $\dim (Z(Ann(M)))$.

Proof. By the previous theorem, M has a filtration

$$0 = M^0 \subset \cdots \subset M^r = M$$
.

such that M^i/M^{i-1} is of the form $(S/\mathfrak{p}_i)(l_i)$. Without loss of generality we can assume $M=S/\mathfrak{p}$, since l_i amounts to a translation $z\mapsto z+l_i$. If $\mathfrak{p}=\langle x_0,\ldots,x_n\rangle$ then $S/\mathfrak{p}\cong K$, in particular $\phi_M(l_i)=0$ if $l_i>0$, but then take $P_M=0$. We can assume dim (0)=-1 and dim $(\emptyset)=-1$. Suppose $\mathfrak{p}\neq\langle x_0,\ldots,x_n\rangle$. Then there is $x_i\notin\mathfrak{p}$ and consider the short exact sequence

$$0 \to M \xrightarrow{x_i} M \to \frac{M}{x_i M} = M^{\prime\prime} \to 0.$$

Taking Hilbert function we get that

$$\phi_{M''}(l) = \phi_M(l) - \phi_M(l-1) = \Delta\phi_M(l-1).$$

Note that $Ann(M'') = Ann(M) \cup \{x_i\}$, so $Z(Ann(M'')) = Z(\mathfrak{p}) \cap Z(x_i)$. Note that

$$\dim (Ann (M'')) = \dim (Z (\mathfrak{p})) - 1,$$

so we apply induction over dim (Ann(M)). Thus $\phi_{M''}$ agrees with a polynomial $P_{M''}(n)$ for $n \gg 0$ but then $\Delta \phi_M = P_{M''}$ for $n \gg 0$, so ϕ_M agrees with a polynomial of degree

$$\dim (Ann (M'')) + 1 = \dim (Z (\mathfrak{p})).$$

Definition 6.10. If $Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ of dimension r, the **Hilbert polynomial** of Y is the Hilbert polynomial of S(Y). The degree of Y is r! times the leading coefficient of P_Y .

Theorem 6.11.

1. If $Y \neq \emptyset$, then $\deg(Y) \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.

2. $deg(\mathbb{P}^n) = 1$.

3. If $Y = Y_1 \cup Y_2$ with dim $(Y_i) = r$ and dim $(Y_1 \cap Y_2) < r$ then deg $(Y) = \deg(Y_1) + \deg(Y_2)$.

4. If H is a hypersurface generated by f then deg(H) = deg(f).

Proof.

1. Obvious.

2.

$$\phi_{\mathbb{P}^n}(z) = {z+n \choose n} = \frac{1}{n!}(z)\dots(n+1) = \frac{1}{n!}z^n + \dots$$

3. Let I = I(Y), $I_1 = I(Y_1)$, and $I_2 = I(Y_2)$. Consider the short exact sequence

$$0 \to \frac{S}{I} \to \frac{S}{I_1} \oplus \frac{S}{I_2} \to \frac{S}{I_1 + I_2} \to 0.$$

Taking Hilbert function,

$$\phi_{\frac{S}{I_1+I_2}} = \phi_{\frac{S}{I_1} \oplus \frac{S}{I_2}} - \phi_{\frac{S}{I}}.$$

Since $Z(I_1 + I_2) = Y_1 \cap Y_2$ and $\dim(Y_1 \cap Y_2) < r$ we have that $\phi_{S/I_1 \oplus S/I_2}$ and $\phi_{S/I}$ have the same leading coefficients, hence $\deg(Y) = \deg(Y_1) + \deg(Y_2)$.

4. Suppose deg(f) = d then consider the short exact sequence

$$0 \to S\left(-d\right) \xrightarrow{f} S \to \frac{S}{\langle f \rangle} \to 0.$$

Taking Hilbert functions,

$$\phi_{\frac{S}{\langle f \rangle}}(z) = \phi_S(z) - \phi_S(z - d) = {z + n \choose n} - {z - d + n \choose n} = \frac{d}{(n-1)!}z^{n-1} + \dots$$

Let $Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ be a projective variety and H a hypersurface then $Y \cap H = Z_1 \cup \cdots \cup Z_k$, where each Z_j has dimension $r-1 = \dim(Y) - 1$. Suppose $I(Z_j) = \mathfrak{p}_j$, then each \mathfrak{p}_j is a minimal prime of $S/(I_Y + I_H)$, then the **intersection multiplicity** $i(Y, H; Z_j)$ is the multiplicity of $S/(I_Y + I_H)$ at \mathfrak{p}_j .

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Theorem 6.12. Let $Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ be a variety and H a hypersurface such that $Y \nsubseteq H$. If $Y \cap H = Z_1 \cup \cdots \cup Z_k$ then

$$\sum_{j=1}^{k} i(Y, H; Z_j) \deg(Z_j) = \deg(Y) \deg(H).$$

Corollary 6.13 (Bézout's theorem). If $Y, H \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$ are curves and $Y \cap H = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ then

$$\sum_{j=1}^{k} i(Y, H; P_j) = \deg(Y) \deg(H).$$

Proof. Suppose H is generated by f, where $\deg(f) = d$, and let I = I(Y).

$$0 \to \left(\frac{S}{I}\right)(-d) \xrightarrow{f} \frac{S}{I} \to \frac{S}{I + I_H} \to 0.$$

Taking Hilbert polynomials we get

$$\phi_{\frac{S}{I_1+I_2}}(z) = \phi_{\frac{S}{I_Y}}(z) + \phi_{\frac{S}{I_Y}}(z-d).$$

Let deg(Y) = e, then the right hand side is

$$\frac{e}{r!}z^r + \dots - \left(\frac{e}{r!}(z-d)^r + \dots\right) = \frac{de}{(r-1)!}z^{r-1} + \dots$$

Now on the left hand side, by the structure theorem, there is a filtration

$$0 = M^0 \subseteq \dots \subseteq M^s = M,$$

where $M = S/(I_Y + I_H)$. Then

$$P_M = \sum_{i=1}^{s} P_i = \sum_{i=1}^{s} P_{\frac{M^i}{M^{i-1}}},$$

where each $M^i/M^{i-1} = (S/\mathfrak{p}_i)(l_i)$. Since we want to compare the leading coefficient from this with the one from the right hand side, we only care about the P_i 's with degree r-1. So the $\mathfrak{p}_j = I(Z_j)$ and the leading term is

$$\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{k} i(Y, H; Z_j) \deg(Z_j)}{(r-1)!} + \dots$$

7 The 27 lines on a cubic surface

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Theorem 7.1. Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{P}^3$ be a nonsingular cubic surface given by a polynomial f(x, y, z, t). Then S has exactly 27 lines.

We start with a lemma.

Lemma 7.2.

- 1. Given a point $p \in S$ then there are at most three lines through p. If there are two or three they must be spheres.
- 2. Every plane π intersect S in
 - an irreducible cubic,
 - a conic and a line, or
 - three distinct lines.

Proof.

- 1. $l \subseteq S$ gives $T_p(l) = l \subseteq T_p(S)$, by 2, $T_p(S)$ intersect S in at most three lines.
- 2. We have to prove that there are no multiple lines in the intersection $S \cap \pi$. Changing coordinates if necessary, we can suppose $\pi = \{f = 0\}$ and $l = \{z = 0\}$ is the line in the intersection.

$$f = z^2 \cdot a(x, y, z, t) + t \cdot b(x, y, z, t).$$

Claim that S is singular at z = t = b = 0.

$$Jac(f) = \begin{pmatrix} z^2a_x + tb_x & z^2a_y + tb_y & 2za + z^2a_z + tb_z & z^2a_t + b + tb_t \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since S is smooth there are no multiple lines.

Lemma 7.3. S has a line.

Proof.

• Let $P \in S$ and consider $T_P(S)$. Then $T_P(S)$ intersects S in a plane cubic $C = S \cap T_P(S)$ which is singular at P. Otherwise we are done. Then C has to be a nodal or a cuspidal curve. So assume that C is a cuspidal curve, and change coordinates if necessary, assume that P = [0:0:1:0] and $T_P(S) = \{t = 0\}$. So the equation of f has the shape

$$f = x^2z - y^3 + at.$$

for some g of homogeneous degree two.

• We consider the point $P_{\alpha} = [1 : \alpha : \alpha^3 : 0] \in C \subset S$, consider the plane x = 0 and the line $P_{\alpha}Q$ in \mathbb{P}^3 passing through P_{α} and intersecting this plane x = 0 at Q = (0, y, z, t). The line through P_{α} and Q is $\lambda P_{\alpha} + \mu Q$ and it lies inside S if

$$f\left(\lambda P_{\alpha} + \mu Q\right) = 0.$$

After expanding this we have

$$P_{\alpha}Q \subset S \iff A(y,z,t) = B(y,z,t) = C(y,z,t) = 0,$$

for A,B,C to be determined. There is a polynomial $R\left(\alpha\right)$ of degree 27 such that $R\left(\alpha\right)=0$ if and only if A=B=C have a common zero.

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• Let f(x, y, z, t) be a polynomial, then the **polar form** of f is

$$f_1(x, y, z, t, x', y', z', t') = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot x' + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot y' + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \cdot z' + \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \cdot t',$$

where P = (x, y, z, t) and Q = (x', y', z', t'). Then

$$f(\lambda P + \mu Q) = \lambda^3 f(P) + \lambda^2 \mu f_1(P, Q) + \lambda \mu^2 f_1(Q, P) + \mu^3 f(Q)$$

The polar form of $f = x^2z - y^3 + gt$ is

$$f_1 = 2xzx' - 3y^2y' + x^2z' + g(x, y, z, t)t' + tg_1,$$

where g_1 is the polar form of g. Recall $P_{\alpha} = (1, \alpha, \alpha^2, 0)$ and Q = (0, y, z, t), so

$$\{f(\lambda P + \mu Q) = 0\} = PQ \subseteq S \qquad \iff \qquad f(P) = f_1(P,Q) = f_1(Q,P) = f(Q) = 0.$$

Thus

$$\begin{cases} A=z-3\alpha^2y+g\left(1,\alpha,\alpha^3,0\right)t\\ B=-3\alpha y^2+g_1\left(1,\alpha,\alpha^3,0,0,y,z,t\right)t\\ C=-y^3+g\left(0,y,z,t\right)t \end{cases}.$$

• Note that

$$g(1,\alpha,\alpha^3,0) = a^6 + \dots$$

If l=0.

$$z = 3\alpha^2 y + g(P) t = 3\alpha^2 y + \lceil a^6 \rceil t.$$

Applying this to B = 0 we have

$$B = -3\alpha y^2 + g_1(1, \alpha, \alpha^3, 0, 0, y, 3\alpha^2 y - [a^6]t, t)t = b_0 y^2 + b_1 y t + b_2 t^2,$$

where

$$b_0 = -3\alpha$$
, $b_1 = 6\alpha^5 + \dots$, $b_2 = -2\alpha^9 + \dots$

Substituting z in C we get

$$C = c_0 y^3 + c_1 y^2 t + c_2 y t^2 + c_3 t^3,$$

where

$$c_0 = -1,$$
 $c_1 = 9\alpha^4 + \dots,$ $c_2 = -6\alpha^8 + \dots,$ $c_3 = \alpha^{12} + \dots$

By Sylvester theorem B and C have a common zero if and only if

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} -3\alpha & 6\alpha^5 & -2\alpha^9 \\ & -3\alpha & 6\alpha^5 & -2\alpha^9 \\ & & -3\alpha & 6\alpha^5 & -2\alpha^9 \\ -1 & 9\alpha^4 & -6\alpha^8 & \alpha^{12} \\ & -1 & 9\alpha^4 & -6\alpha^8 & \alpha^{12} \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

if and only if

$$\alpha^{27} \det \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 6 & -2 \\ -3 & 6 & -2 \\ & -3 & 6 & -2 \\ -1 & 9 & -6 & 1 \\ & -1 & 9 & -6 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \alpha^{27} + \dots = 0.$$

This concludes the proof that S has a line because we know that the matrix has at least one root and for each root we get a value of α such that the line $P_{\alpha}Q \subseteq S$.

Proposition 7.4. Let l be a line in S, then there are five pairs of lines (l_i, l'_i) intersecting l such that

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- $l \cup l_i \cup l'_i$ is coplanar, and
- $(l_i \cup l'_i) \cap (l_j \cup l'_j) = \emptyset$.

Proof. Given any plane $\Pi \subseteq \mathbb{P}^3$, if Π contains a line l of S then $\Pi \cap S$ is l and a conic. l is given by z = t = 0.

$$f = Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F, \qquad A, B, C, D, E, F \in K\left[z,t\right].$$

We want to prove that there are exactly five planes Π_i such that $f|_{\Pi_i}$ is a singular conic. The conic given by f is singular if and only if

$$\Delta = \det \begin{pmatrix} A & B & D \\ B & C & E \\ D & E & F \end{pmatrix} = 4ACF + BDE - AE^2 - B^2F - CD^2 = 0.$$

 Δ is four times the usual determinant if $char(K) \neq 2$. Notice that Δ is a form of degree five in two variables z and t. We know that l, l_i, l'_i could be of two types.

- 1. $l:(t=0), l_1:(x=0), l'_1=(y=0).$
- 2. $l:(t=0), l_1:(x=0), l'_1=(x=t).$

Assume we are in case 1. Suppose z=0 is a solution, then we have to prove that z^2 is not a solution. Then the equation of f is

$$f = txy + qz$$
.

So B=t+az, where $a\in K$, then $\Delta\equiv -t^2F\mod z^2$. If $F\neq 0$ then Δ is non-zero, but F is non-zero because F is nonsingular, thus there are no multiple roots.

Corollary 7.5. S has at least two distinct lines.

Proof. Just take l_1 and l_2 .

Lemma 7.6. If $l_1, \ldots, l_4 \in \mathbb{P}^3$ are disjoint lines then

- either all four lines lie on a smooth quadric and they have an infinite number of transversals,
- or the four lines do not lie in any quadric and they have either one or two common transversals.

Proof. Any three lines lie in a smooth quadric Q.

Lemma 7.7.

- Any line not the 17 lines intersect exactly three of the lines l_1, \ldots, l_5 .
- Conversely, given $ijk \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ there is a line passing through l_i, l_j, l_k .

8 Grassmannians

Definition 8.1. Let V be a vector space of dimension n, then

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$$G(k; n) = \{S \subseteq V \mid S \text{ subspace of dimension } k\}.$$

Remark 8.2. A point in G(k;n) can be expressed as a basis $[v_1,\ldots,v_k]$ for a k-dimensional space.

Theorem 8.3. The map

$$p : G(k; n) \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}\left(\bigwedge^{k}(V)\right) \cong \mathbb{P}^{nC_{k}-1}$$
$$[v_{1}, \dots, v_{k}] \longmapsto [v_{1} \wedge \dots \wedge v_{k}]$$

is an embedding. That is, image of p is closed.

Example 8.4. Claim that a line $L \subseteq \mathbb{P}^3$ gives a point in $G(2;4) \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^5$. G(2;4) is a quadric in \mathbb{P}^5 given by Z(xs - yt + zw).

Proof. Now we will see the coordinates of the map p. Given a vector space V of dimension n and a vector subspace $S \subseteq V$ of dimension k, then let v_1, \ldots, v_n be a basis for V, and s_1, \ldots, s_k be a basis for S, then the basis for S can be seen as a $k \times n$ matrix

$$M_S = \begin{pmatrix} s_{11} & \dots & s_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ s_{k1} & \dots & s_{kn} \end{pmatrix}.$$

If we change the basis for S then the matrix above gets multiplied by an invertible $k \times k$ matrix. Then this $k \times k$ matrix acts on the $k \times k$ minors of M_S . Suppose the first minor K_1 is non-zero then choose the inverse of that minor as a base change so that M_S will have the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & b_{11} & \dots & b_{1n-k} \\ & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & 1 & b_{k1} & \dots & b_{kn-k} \end{pmatrix}.$$

This gives a correspondence between matrices M_S with first non-zero minor and $\mathbb{A}^{k(n-k)}$. Therefore, the image of p has dimension k(n-k).

Similarly, we can define flag varieties. Given a vector space V and flag

$$0 \subset V_1 \subset \cdots \subset V_n \subset V$$

of vector subspaces of dimension V_i , the flag variety denoted by F(V) is the set of flags on V.

9 Divisors on curves

Definition 9.1. A Weil divisor is a formal finite sum

$$D = \sum_{i} a_i Y_i, \qquad a_i \in \mathbb{Z},$$

of algebraic subvarieties of codimension one.

Definition 9.2. More generally, an **algebraic cycle** is a formal sum of codimension p subvarieties

$$C = \sum_{i} a_i Y_i \subseteq X, \quad a_i \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

By integrating algebraic cycles, we get a map from the space of p-cycles into the cohomology of the variety. **Hodge conjecture** states that this defines a bijection.

Example 9.3. In case dim (X) = 1, then a divisor is just a sum of points with multiplicity. If $K = \mathbb{C}$ and

$$f = \frac{(z-1)(z-2)}{(z-3)(z-4)},$$

then $(f) = \overline{1} + \overline{2} - \overline{3} - \overline{4}$.

Definition 9.4. Let $K = \mathbb{C}$ and dim (X) = 1. Let $D, V \subseteq X$. Then **linear equivalence** is $D \sim V$ if and only if D - V = (f) for $f \in K(x)$.

Definition 9.5. The class group is divisors modulo \sim .

Definition 9.6. Let $X \subseteq Y$ be a subvariety, then

$$\mathcal{O}_{X,Y} = \{(U, f) \mid f \text{ regular at } U, \ U \cap Y \neq \emptyset\}.$$

Let f be a rational function, then

$$(f) = \sum_{Y} v_Y(f) Y,$$

where v_Y is the valuation associated to $\mathcal{O}_{X,Y}$.

Definition 9.7. Let X be a smooth projective curve.

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- A divisor D is a formal sum $K_1p_1 + \cdots + K_np_n$ of points, where $K_i \in \mathbb{Z}$,
- We say a divisor D is **effective** if $K_i \geq 0$.
- Given two divisors $D, E, D \ge E$ if and only if $D E \ge 0$.
- The **degree** of D, denoted deg (D), is the sum $\sum_{i=1}^{n} K_i$.

Remark 9.8. Degree gives a map deg : $Div \to \mathbb{Z}$. The set of all divisors on X has a natural group structure given by addition, we denote this group by Div(X).

Notation 9.9. The subgroup of **degree zero divisors** is denoted by $Div^{0}(X)$.

Definition 9.10.

• For a non-zero homogeneous polynomial $f \in S(X)$ the **divisor** of f is

$$(f) = div(f) = \sum_{a \in V_X(f)} mult_a(f) \cdot a \in Div(f).$$

By Bézout's theorem, $\deg(div(f)) = \deg(X) \deg(f)$.

• If $Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$ not containing X, then the **intersection** of X and Y is

$$X \cdot Y = \sum_{a \in X \cap Y} mult_a(X, Y) \cdot a.$$

Example 9.11. Let $X = Z(xz - y^2)$ and Y = Z(z) then $X \cap Y = \{[1:0:0]\}$, so

$$X \cdot Y = 2 \cdot [1:0:0].$$

Lemma 9.12. $mult_a(fg) = mult_a(f) + mult_a(g)$ gives div(fg) = div(f) + div(g).

Proof. Recall that $\operatorname{mult}_a(f) = \operatorname{len}(\mathcal{O}_a/\langle f \rangle) = \dim_K(\mathcal{O}_a/\langle f \rangle)$. Thus there is a short exact sequence

$$0 \to \frac{\mathcal{O}_a}{\langle f \rangle} \xrightarrow{g} \frac{\mathcal{O}_a}{\langle f g \rangle} \to \frac{\mathcal{O}_a}{\langle g \rangle} \to 0.$$

Definition 9.13. Let $f \in K^*(X)$, then if f = g/h we define $mult_a(f) = mult_a(g) - mult_a(h)$.

If we take a different representation of f, say f = g'/h', then g/h = g'/h' gives gh' = hg', so

$$\begin{cases} mult_{a}\left(gh'\right) = mult_{a}\left(g\right) + mult_{a}\left(h'\right) \\ mult_{a}\left(hg'\right) = mult_{a}\left(h\right) + mult_{a}\left(g'\right) \end{cases} \implies mult_{a}\left(g\right) - mult_{a}\left(h\right) = mult_{a}\left(g'\right) - mult_{a}\left(h'\right).$$

Analogously, we have

$$div\left(f\right) = \sum_{a \in Z(g) \cup Z(h)} mult_{a}\left(f\right) a = div\left(g\right) \cdot div\left(h\right).$$

Example 9.14. Let $f = xy/(x-y)^2$ on \mathbb{P}^1 . Then

$$div(f) = [1:0] + [0:1] - 2[1:1].$$

Remark 9.15. Note that deg(div(f)) is always zero because

$$\deg(div(f)) = \deg(div(g)) - \deg(div(h)) = (\deg(X))(\deg(g)) - (\deg(X))(\deg(h)) = 0.$$

Definition 9.16. A divisor on X is called principal if it is of the form div(f) for some $f \in K^*(X)$. We denote the subgroup of all principal divisors by Prin(X).

Definition 9.17. The quotient

$$Pic(X) = \frac{Div(X)}{Prin(X)}$$

is called the **Picard group** of X. Restricting to degree zero divisors, we get

$$Pic^{0}(X) = \frac{Div^{0}(X)}{Prin(X)},$$

where $Div^{0}(X)$ are the divisors of degree zero.

By the degree map $deg : Div(X) \to \mathbb{Z}$ we have

$$\frac{Pic\left(X\right)}{Pic^{0}\left(X\right)}\cong\frac{Div\left(X\right)}{Div^{0}\left(X\right)}\cong\mathbb{Z}.$$

Example 9.18. Every degree zero divisor is principal. Suppose

$$D = K_1 [a_{1,0} : a_{1,1}] + \dots + K_n [a_{n,0} : a_{n,1}], \qquad \sum_{i=1}^n K_i = 0,$$

then set

$$f[x_0:x_1] = \prod_{i=1}^n (a_{i,1}x_0 - a_{i,0}x_1)^{K_i}.$$

So $Pic^0(\mathbb{P}^1) = \{0\}$ so $Pic(\mathbb{P}^1) = \mathbb{Z}$.

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Lemma 9.19 (Nakayama lemma). If R is local with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and M is finitely generated then $M = \mathfrak{m} M$ gives M = 0.

Corollary 9.20. If R is local with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} then $\langle t_1, \ldots, t_n \rangle = \mathfrak{m}$ if and only if $\langle \overline{t_1}, \ldots, \overline{t_n} \rangle = \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$.

Proof. Let $N = \langle t_1, \dots, t_n \rangle \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$. Suppose $\langle \overline{t_1}, \dots, \overline{t_m} \rangle = \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$. Then

$$N+\mathfrak{m}^2=\mathfrak{m}+\mathfrak{m}^2 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \frac{N+\mathfrak{m}^2}{N}=\frac{\mathfrak{m}+\mathfrak{m}^2}{N} \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \mathfrak{m}\left(\frac{\mathfrak{m}}{N}\right)=\frac{\mathfrak{m}}{N} \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \frac{\mathfrak{m}}{N}=0,$$

so $\langle t_1, \ldots, t_n \rangle = \mathfrak{m}$.

Lemma 9.21. Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$ be a smooth curve, and $I_a \subseteq \mathcal{O}_a$ be the maximal ideal of the local ring \mathcal{O}_a .

- 1. I_a is principal, so $I_a = \langle \phi_a \rangle$ with mult_a $(\phi_a) = 1$.
- 2. Any non-zero $\phi \in \mathcal{O}_a$ can be written as $c\phi_a^m$, where $m = mult_a(\phi)$.

Proof.

- 1. Since \mathcal{O}_a is regular, dim $(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2) = 1$, in particular $\mathfrak{m} \neq \mathfrak{m}^2$ and we can find $\phi_a \in \mathfrak{m} \setminus \mathfrak{m}^2$, so $\langle \phi_a \rangle = \mathfrak{m}$. Thus any ideal has to be of the form $\langle \phi_a^k \rangle$ since $\langle \phi_a \rangle$ is maximal.
- 2. Take $\phi \in \mathcal{O}_a$ non-zero then $\langle \phi \rangle = \langle \phi_a^m \rangle$ gives $\phi = c \phi_a^m$, so

$$mult(\phi) = mult(c\phi_a^m) = mult(c) + mult(\phi_a^m) = m \cdot mult(\phi_a) = m.$$

Lemma 9.22. Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$ be a smooth curve, and $a \in X$.

- 1. If $f,g \in S$, of same degree with mult $(X,f) \geq m$ and mult $(X,g) \geq m$ then
 - $mult_a(X, \lambda f + \mu g) \geq m$, and
 - there exist λ, μ such that $mult_a(X, \lambda f + \mu g) \geq m + 1$.
- 2. Let $Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$ be another curve and $m = mult_a(X,Y)$. If $f \in S$ with $mult_a(X,f) \geq m$ then $mult_a(Y,f) \geq m$.

Proof.

- 1. Write $f = u\phi_a^m$ and $g = v\phi_a^m$, so for any λ , μ we have $\lambda f + \mu g = (\lambda u + \mu v)\phi_a^m$ so $mult_a(\lambda f + \mu g) \ge m$, and we can find λ' , μ' such that $\lambda' u + \mu' v = 0$ at a, so that $mult_a(\lambda f + \mu g) \ge m + 1$.
- 2. Let $I(X) = \langle g \rangle$, $I(Y) = \langle h \rangle$, and $k = mult_a(X, f) \ge m = mult_a(X, h)$. $f = u\phi_a^k$ and $h = v\phi_a^m$, so $\langle f \rangle \subset \langle h \rangle$. $\langle f, g \rangle \subset \langle g, h \rangle$, and we also have $\langle f, h \rangle \subset \langle g, h \rangle$, so $mult_a(f, h) \ge mult_a(g, h)$ gives $mult_a(Y, f) \ge mult_a(X, Y) = m$.

Lemma 9.23. Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^2$ be smooth and $g, h \in S(X)$.

- 1. If div(g) = div(h) then g, h are linearly dependent on S(X).
- 2. If h is linear and $div(g) \ge div(h)$ then $h \mid g$ in S(X).

Proof.

1. By Bézout's theorem, $\deg(X) \cdot \deg(g) = \deg(X) \cdot \deg(h)$, so $\deg(g) = \deg(h)$. We know by the previous lemma that $\operatorname{mult}_a(\lambda g + \mu h) \geq m_a$, and we can find $b \in X$ such that $\operatorname{mult}_b(\lambda g + \mu h) \geq m_b + 1$. Summing up, we have

$$\sum_{a \in X} mult_a (\lambda g + \mu h) \ge d \deg(X) + 1,$$

but $\lambda g + \mu h$ has degree d, so this is a contradiction unless $\lambda g + \mu h = 0$, that is g, h are linearly dependent.

2. Exercise.

Proposition 9.24. Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$ be a smooth cubic. Then for all distinct $a, b \in X$ we have $a - b \neq 0$, so there is no rational function ϕ such that $div(\phi) = a - b$.

Proof. Assume that the result is false. Then there are $f,g\in S\left(X\right)$ of degree d such that

• there are points a_1, \ldots, a_{3d-1} and $a \neq b$ on X such that

$$div(g) = a_1 + \dots + a_{3d-1} + a, \quad div(f) = a_1 + \dots + a_{3d-1} + b,$$

• among a_1, \ldots, a_{3d-1} , there are at least 2d distinct points, since we can multiply f and g by a linear polynomial with distinct roots so the degree increases by one but the number of distinct points increases by three.

Pick a minimal d. If d = 1 then

$$div(g) = a_1 + a_2 + a,$$
 $div(f) = a_1 + a_2 + b,$

so $a = b = \Psi(a_1, a_2)$, a contradiction. So d > 1. Consider $(\lambda f + \mu g)$, so

$$div(\lambda f + \mu g) \ge a_1 + \dots + a_{3d-1}.$$

We can choose λ, μ such that

$$div(\lambda f + \mu g) \ge a_1 + \dots + a_{3d-1} + c$$
,

for any given c. By Bézout's theorem,

$$div (\lambda f + \mu g) = a_1 + \dots + a_{3d-1} + c.$$

So we can choose a and b, so that $a = \Psi(a_1, a_2)$ and $b = \Psi(a_1, a_3)$.

$$div(f) = (a_1 + a_2 + \Psi(a_1, a_2)) + a_3 + \dots + a_{3d-1}, \quad div(g) = (a_1 + a_3 + \Psi(a_1, a_3)) + a_2 + \dots + a_{3d-1}.$$

Set l, l' linear polynomials such that

$$div(l) = a_1 + a_2 + \Psi(a_1, a_2), \quad div(l) = a_1 + a_3 + \Psi(a_1, a_3).$$

The quotient by div(l) and div(l') gives a polynomial whose divisor is

$$a_4 + \cdots + a_{3d-1} + a_3, \quad a_4 + \cdots + a_{3d-1} + a_2,$$

but since we chose d minimum this gives a contradiction.

10 Elliptic curves

Definition 10.1. An **abelian variety** A is a smooth connected projective variety which has a group structure such that addition and taking inverse are regular functions.

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Definition 10.2. An elliptic curve is a one-dimensional abelian variety.

Proposition 10.3. Let X be an elliptic curve in \mathbb{P}^2 , and fix $a_0 \in X$, then there is a bijection

$$\Phi \quad : \quad X \quad \longrightarrow \quad Pic^{0}\left(X\right) = \frac{Div^{0}\left(X\right)}{Prin\left(X\right)} \ .$$

$$a \quad \longmapsto \quad a - a_{0}$$

Proof.

- Φ is injective by the last proposition.
- \bullet Φ is surjective. Suppose

$$D = a_1 + \dots + a_m - b_1 - \dots - b_m.$$

Consider the function l with $div(l) = a_1 + a_2 + \Psi(a_1, a_2)$, so

$$D = D + div(l) = div(l) - \Psi(a_1, a_2) + a_3 + \dots$$

So we can assume $D = a_1 - b_1 = \Phi(\cdot)$.

$$a_0 + a_1 + \Psi(a_0, a_1) - b_1 - \Psi(a_0, a_1) - \Psi(b_1, \Psi(a_0, a_1)) = 0,$$

so

$$D = a_1 - b_1 = \Psi(b_1, \Psi(a_0, a_1)) - a_0 = \Phi(\Psi(b_1, \Psi(a_0, a_1))).$$

Thus Φ is surjective.

We know that $X \cong Pic^0(X)$, which is a group. But what is the expression for $g_1 + g_2$ for $g_1, g_2 \in X$? $\Phi(g_1 + g_2) = \Phi(g_1) + \Phi(g_2)$, so

$$g_1 + g_2 = \Phi^{-1} \left(\Phi \left(g_1 \right) + \Phi \left(g_2 \right) \right) = \Phi^{-1} \left(g_1 - g_0 + g_2 - g_0 \right) = \Phi^{-1} \left(\Psi \left(g_0, \Psi \left(g_1, g_2 \right) \right) - g_0 \right)$$
$$= \Phi^{-1} \left(\Phi \left(\Psi \left(g_0, \Psi \left(g_1, g_2 \right) \right) \right) \right) = \left(\Phi^{-1} \circ \Phi \right) \left(\Psi \left(g_0, \Psi \left(g_1, g_2 \right) \right) \right) = \Psi \left(g_0, \Psi \left(g_1, g_2 \right) \right).$$

Let X be an elliptic curve and $a_0 \in X$, can consider the group law based on a_0 . Then for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we can define $n \times a = a + \cdots + a$.

Note. Given $a, b \in X$, the problem of finding whether or not there exists n such that $a = n \times b$ is extremely hard.

Lecture 26 is a problem class.

Lecture 27 is a problem class.

Lecture 28 is a problem class.

Lecture 29 is a problem class.

What's next in Lecture 30?

Lecture 26 Monday 11/03/19 Lecture 27 Tuesday 12/03/19 Lecture 28

15/03/19 Lecture 29 Monday 18/03/19 Lecture 30 Tuesday

19/03/19

Friday