Elliptic Curves

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1 Fermat's Method of Infinite Descent

Suppose we have a right-angled triangle Δ with side lengths a, b, c, so that by Pythagoras we have $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$, and area $(\Delta) = \frac{1}{2}ab$.

Definition 1.1. Δ *is* rational *if* $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q}$, and **primitive** *if* $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ *coprime*.

Lemma 1.2. Every primitive triangle is of the form $a = u^2 - v^2$, b = 2uv, $c = u^2 + v^2$ for coprime integers u > v > 0.

Proof. If a, b were both odd, then $a^2 + b^2 \equiv 2 \mod 4$, and we have no solutions for c. If a, b both even, then they are not coprime. So we may assume a is odd, b is even, c is odd.

Then $(\frac{b}{2})^2 = \frac{c+a}{2} \frac{c-a}{2}$, and the right hand side is a product of coprime positive integers. So by unique prime factorisation in the integers, $\frac{c+a}{2} = u^2$, $\frac{c-a}{2} = v^2$ for some coprime integers u, v. Rearranging, we have the lemma.

Definition 1.3. $D \in \mathbb{Q}_{>0}$ is a congruent number if it is the area of a rational triangle.

Note that, by scaling the triangle, it suffices to consider $D \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ squarefree.

For example, D = 5, 6 are congruent numbers. $6 = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 3 \cdot 4$, and $3^2 + 4^2 = 5^2$, and 5 is left as an exercise.

Lemma 1.4. $D \in \mathbb{Q}_{>0}$ is congruent if and only if $Dy^2 = x^3 - x$ for some $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}, y \neq 0$.

Proof. Lemma 1.2 shows that D is congruent if and only if $Dw^2 = uv(u^2 - v^2)$ for some $u, v, w \in \mathbb{Q}, w \neq 0$.

Setting
$$x = \frac{u}{v}, y = \frac{w}{v^2}$$
 finishes the proof.

Fermat showed that 1 is not a congruent number.

Theorem 1.5. There is no solution to

$$w^2 = uv(u+v)(u-v) \tag{*}$$

in integers u, v, w with $w \neq 0$.

Proof. Without loss of generality, u, v are coprime with u > 0, w > 0. If v < 0 then replace (u, v, w) by (-v, u, w). If u, v are both odd, then replace (u, v, w) by $(\frac{u+v}{2}, \frac{u-v}{2}, \frac{w}{2})$. So we may assume that all of u, v, u + v, u - v are coprime positive integers whose product is a square, and hence are all squares, say a^2, b^2, c^2, d^2 respectively, where $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.

Since $u \not\equiv v \mod 2$, both c,d are odd. Consider the right angled triangle with side lengths, $\frac{c+d}{2}, \frac{c-d}{2}, a$. This is a primitive triangle, and it has area $\frac{c^2-d^2}{8} = \frac{v}{4} = (\frac{b}{2})^2$.

Let $w_1 = \frac{b}{2}$. Then lemma **1.2** gives $w_1^2 = u_1 v_1 (u_1^2 - v_1^2)$ for some $u_1, v_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, giving a new solution to (*). But $4w_1^2 = b^2 = v|w^2$, and so $w_1 \leq \frac{1}{2}w$.

So by Fermat's method of infinite descent, if there were a solution we would have a strictly decreasing infinite sequence of positive integers $\frac{1}{4}$. Hence there is no solution to (*).

1.1 A Variant for Polynomials

Here, K is a field with char $K \neq 2$. The algebraic closure of K will be \overline{K} .

Lemma 1.6. Let $u, v \in K[t]$ be coprime. If $\alpha u + \beta v$ is a square for four distinct $(\alpha : \beta) \in \mathbb{P}^1$, then $u, v \in K$.

Proof. Without loss of generality we may assume $K = \overline{K}$, as that doesn't change the degree of polynomials, and every square is still a square.

Changing coordinates on \mathbb{P}^1 , we may assume the ratios $\alpha:\beta$ are $(1:0),(0:1),(1:-1),(1:-\lambda)$ for some $\lambda\in K\setminus\{0,1\}$, with $\mu=\sqrt{\lambda}$.

Then $u = a^2, v = b^2, u - v = (a + b)(a - b), u - \lambda v = (a + \mu b)(a - \mu b)$ are all squares. They are also coprime, and so by unique factorisation in K[t], (a + b), (a - b), $(a + \mu b)$, $(a - \mu b)$ are all squares.

But $\max\{\deg a, \deg b\} \leq \frac{1}{2} \max\{\deg u, \deg v\}$. So by Fermat's method of infinite descent, we get that the original $u, v \in K$.

Now we have some important definitions:

Definition 1.7.

- 1. An elliptic curve E over a field K is the projective closure of the affine curve $y^2 = f(x)$ where $f \in K[x]$ is a monic cubic polynomial with distinct roots.
- 2. For L/K any field extension, $E(L) = \{(x,y) \in L^2 : y^2 = f(x)\} \cup \{0\}$. 0 is called the **point** at infinity.

We call the point at infinity 0 because we will see that E(L) is naturally an abelian group under an operation we will denote by +, and 0 will be the identity for that group. In this course we will study E(L) for L a finite field, a local field, and a number field.

Lemma 1.4 and theorem 1.5 together imply that, if E is given by $y^2 = x^3 - x$, then $E(\mathbb{Q}) = \{0, (0,0), (\pm 1,0)\}$, which we will see is the group $C_2 \times C_2$.

Corollary 1.8. Let E/K be an elliptic curve. Then E(K(t)) = E(K).

Proof. Without loss of generality, $K=\overline{K}$. By a change of coordinates we may assume $E:y^2=x(x-1)(x-\lambda)$ for some $\lambda\in K\setminus\{0,1\}$. Suppose $(x,y)\in E(K(t))$. Write $x=\frac{u}{v}$ with $u,v\in K[t]$ coprime. Then $w^2=uv(u-v)(u-\lambda v)$ for some $w\in K[t]$.

Unique factorisation in K[t] gives $u, v, u-v, u-\lambda v$ are all squares, and so by lemma **1.6**, $u, v \in K$, and so $x, y \in K$.

2 Some Remarks on Algebraic Curves

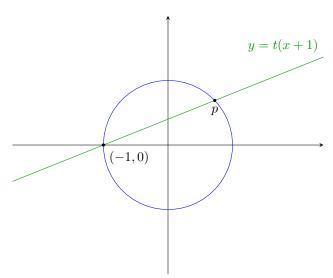
We will be working over an algebraically closed field K.

Definition 2.1. An (irreducible) plane algebraic curve $C = \{f(x,y) = 0\} \subset \mathbb{A}^2$ is rational if it has a rational parametrization, i.e. there are $\phi, \psi \in K(t)$ such that:

- 1. $\mathbb{A}^1 \to \mathbb{A}^2$; $t \mapsto (\phi(t), \psi(t))$ is injective on $\mathbb{A}^1 \setminus \{\text{finite set}\}.$
- 2. $f(\phi(t), \psi(t)) = 0$.

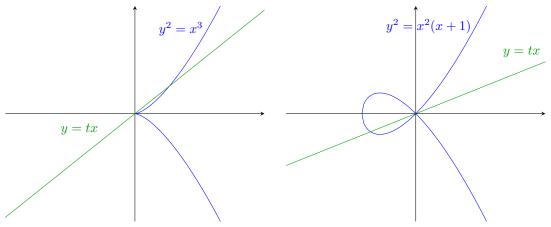
Examples 2.2.

1. Any nonsingular plane conic is rational. For example, take a circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Pick a point on it, (-1,0). Now draw a line through it with slope t, and solve for the points of intersection between the curve and the line.



Solving for the coordinates of p, we get the quadratic $x^2 + t^2(x+1)^2 = 1$, i.e. x = -1 or $\frac{1-t^2}{1+t^2}$. So we have the rational parametrization $(x,y) = \left(\frac{1-t^2}{1+t^2}, \frac{2t}{1+t^2}\right)$

2. Any singular plane cubic is rational.



- (a) Rational Parametrization $(x, y) = (t^2, t^3)$
- (b) Left as an example on the first sheet
- 3. Corollary 1.8 shows that elliptic curves are not rational.

Definition 2.3. The genus $g(C) \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ is an invariant of a smooth projective curve.

- If $K = \mathbb{C}$, then g(C) = genus of the Riemann surface C.
- A smooth plane curve $C \subset \mathbb{P}^2$ of degree d has genus $g(C) = \frac{(d-1)(d-2)}{2}$.

Proposition 2.4. Let C be a smooth projective curve over K, an algebraically closed field. Then:

- 1. C is rational \iff g(C) = 0.
- 2. C is an elliptic curve \iff g(C) = 1.

Proof. A proof of 1 is omitted from this course. For 2, we check (on the first example sheet) that elliptic curves are smooth plane curves. Then they have degree 3, so genus $\frac{2\cdot 1}{2} = 1$. For the other direction, see later on in the course.

2.1 Order of Vanishing

C will be an algebraic curve, and K(C) its function field, with $P \in C$ a smooth point. Write $\operatorname{ord}_P(f)$ to mean the order of vanishing of $f \in K(C)$ at P (negative if f has a pole).

Fact: $\operatorname{ord}_P : K(C)^{\times} \to \mathbb{Z}$ is a discrete valuation, i.e. $\operatorname{ord}_P(f_1 f_2) = \operatorname{ord}_P(f_1) + \operatorname{ord}_P(f_2)$ and $\operatorname{ord}_P(f_1 + f_2) \ge \min\{\operatorname{ord}_P(f_1), \operatorname{ord}_P(f_2)\}.$

We say $t \in K(C)^{\times}$ is a **uniformizer** at the point P if $\operatorname{ord}_{P}(t) = 1$.

Example 2.5. Let $C = \{g(x,y) = 0\} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^2$, where $g \in K[x,y]$ is irreducible. Then $K(C) = \operatorname{Frac} \frac{K[x,y]}{(g)}$, with $g = g_0 + g_1(x,y) + g_2(x,y) + \ldots, g_i$ homogeneous of degree i.

Suppose $P = (0,0) \in C$ is a smooth point, i.e. $g_0 = 0, g_1(x,y) = \alpha x + \beta y$ with α, β not both zero.

Let $\gamma, \delta \in K$. It is a fact that $\gamma x + \delta y \in K(C)$ is a uniformizer at P if and only if $\frac{\gamma}{\delta} \neq \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$, i.e. $\alpha \delta - \beta \gamma \neq 0$.

Example 2.6. $\{y^2 = x(x-1)(x-\lambda)\} \subset \mathbb{A}^2, \ \lambda \neq 0, 1$. We take the projective closure, i.e. homogenize the equation as $\{Y^2Z = X(X-Z)(X-\lambda Z)\} \subset \mathbb{P}^2$ by setting x = X/Z, y = Y/Z.

Have we got new points by taking projective closure? We only get these when Z=0, i.e. $0=X^3 \implies X=0, Y \neq 0$. Since we're in projective space, this is just one point: P=(0:1:0). We compute $\operatorname{ord}_P(x)$ and $\operatorname{ord}_P(y)$. Put t=X/Y, w=Z/Y (since we can't return to the original affine piece, as it doesn't contain Z=0). Then we get $w=t(t-w)(t-\lambda w)$. Now P is the point (t,w)=(0,0). This is a smooth point, as there are linear terms at that point (namely w). So $\operatorname{ord}_P(t)=\operatorname{ord}_P(t-2)=\operatorname{ord}_P(t-\lambda w)=1$, and $\operatorname{ord}_P(w)=1+1+1=3$.

Then:

$$\operatorname{ord}_{P}(x) = \operatorname{ord}_{P}(X/Z) = \operatorname{ord}_{P}(t/w) = 1 - 3 = -2$$

 $\operatorname{ord}_{P}(y) = \operatorname{ord}_{P}(Y/Z) = \operatorname{ord}_{P}(1/w) = -3$

2.2 Riemann Roch Spaces

Let C be a smooth projective curve. Then a **divisor** is a formal sum of points on C, say $D = \sum_{P \in C} n_P P$ where $n_P \in \mathbb{Z}$, and only finitely many n_P are nonzero, and let $\deg D = \sum_{P \in C} n_P$. These divisors form a group under addition, denoted $\operatorname{Div}(C)$.

D is said to be **effective**, written $D \ge 0$ if $n_p \ge 0$ for all $P \in C$.

If $f \in K(C)^{\times}$, we write $\operatorname{div}(f) = \sum_{P \in C} \operatorname{ord}_{P}(f) P$.

The Riemann Roch space of $D \in Div(C)$ is:

$$\mathscr{L}(D) = \{f \in K(C) : \operatorname{div}(f) + D \geq 0\} \cup \{0\}$$

i.e. the K-vector space of rational functions on C with "poles no worse than specified by D."

Theorem 2.7 (Riemann Roch for genus 1).

$$\dim \mathcal{L}(D) = \begin{cases} 0 & \deg D < 0 \\ 0 \text{ or } 1 & \deg D = 0 \\ \deg D & \deg D > 0 \end{cases}$$

Example 2.6 (revisited). Our curve is $\{y^2 = x(x-1)(x-\lambda)\} \subset \mathbb{A}^2$, together with P = (0:1:0), the point at infinity. Recall $\operatorname{ord}_P(x) = -2$, $\operatorname{ord}_P(x) = -3$.

We thus deduce that $\mathcal{L}(2P) = \langle 1, x \rangle, \mathcal{L}(3P) = \langle 1, x, y \rangle$.

Proposition 2.8. Let K be an algebraically closed field not of characteristic 2. Let $C \subset \mathbb{P}^2$ be a smooth plane cubic, and that $P \in C$ is a point of inflection. Then we may change coordinates such that:

$$C: Y^2Z = X(X - Z)(X - \lambda Z), \ \lambda \neq 0, 1$$

 $P = (0:1:0)$

Proof. We make a change of coordinates such that P = (0:1:0) and the tangent line to C at $P, T_P(C) = \{Z = 0\}$. Now let $C = \{F(X, Y, Z) = 0\}$.

Since $P \in C$ is a point of inflection, F(t, 1, 0) has a triple root at t = 0. But F is degree 3, so we have $F(t, 1, 0) = kt^3$ for k some constant. I.e., there are no terms in F of the form X^2Y, XY^2, Y^3 .

So $F \in \langle Y^2Z, XYZ, YZ^2, X^3, X^2Z, XZ^2, Z^3 \rangle$. The coefficient of Y^2Z is nonzero, as otherwise P would be singular. The coefficient of X^3 is also nonzero, as C is irreducible and otherwise $\{Z=0\} \subset C$.

We are free to rescale X, Y, Z, F, and so WLOG C is defined by

$$Y^{2}Z + a_{1}XYZ + a_{3}YZ^{2} = X^{3} + a_{2}X^{2}Z + a_{4}XZ^{2} + a_{6}Z^{3}$$

. We call this Weierstrass form.

Since our field doesn't have characteristic 2, we may complete the square by substituting $Y = Y - \frac{1}{2}a_1X - \frac{1}{2}a_3Z$, we may assume $a_1 = a_3 = 0$.

Now $C: Y^2Z = Z^3f(X/Z)$, where f is a monic cubic polynomial. Since C is smooth, f has distinct roots, which are WLOG $0, 1, \lambda$. So

$$C: Y^2Z = X(X - Z)(X - \lambda Z)$$

, which we call the Legendre form.

It may be shown that the points of inflection on $C=\{F=0\}\subset \mathbb{P}^2$ are given by $F=\det\left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial X_i\partial X_i}\right)=0$

2.3 The Degree of a Morphism

Let $\phi: C_1 \to C_2$ be a nonconstant morphism of smooth projective curves. Let $\phi^*: K(C_2) \to K(C_1), f \mapsto f \circ \phi$.

Definition.

- 1. $\deg \phi = [K(C_1) : \phi^*K(C_2)]$
- 2. ϕ is separable if $K(C_1)/\phi^*K(C_2)$ is a separable field extension (which by Galois theory is automatic if char K=0)

Suppose $P \in C_1, Q \in C_2, \phi : P \to Q$. Let $t \in K(C_2)$ be a uniformizer at Q. We then define $e_{\phi}(p) = \operatorname{ord}_{P}(\phi^*t)$, which is always ≥ 1 , and independent of t. $e_{\phi}(P)$ is called the **ramification index** of ϕ at p.

Theorem 2.9. Let $\phi: C_1 \to C_2$ be a nonconstant morphism of smooth projective curves. Then

$$\sum_{p \in \phi^{-1}(Q)} e_{\phi}(P) = \deg \phi$$

for any point $Q \in C_2$. Moreover, if ϕ is separable then $e_{\phi}(P) = 1$ with at most finitely many exceptions.

In particular:

- 1. ϕ is surjective
- 2. If ϕ is separable, $\#\phi^{-1}(Q) \leq \deg \phi$, with equality for all but finitely many choices of Q.

Remark 2.10. Let C be an algebraic curve. A rational map is given by $\phi: C \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^n, P \mapsto (f_0(P): \ldots: f_n(P))$, where $f_0, \ldots, f_n \in K(C)$ are not all zero. If C is smooth then ϕ is a morphism.

3 Weierstrass Equations

In this section, K is a perfect field (so that all finite extensions of K are separable), with algebraic closure \bar{K} .

Definition. An elliptic curve E over K is a smooth projective curve of genus 1 defined over K with a specified K-rational point O_E .

Example: Take $\{X^3 + pY^3 + p^2Z^3 = 0\} \subset \mathbb{P}^2$ for p prime. This is not an elliptic curve over \mathbb{Q} since there is no \mathbb{Q} -points.

Theorem 3.1. Every elliptic curve E is isomorphic over K to a curve in Weierstrass form via an isomorphism taking O_E to (0:1:0).

Proposition 2.8 treated the special case where E is a smooth plane cubic and O_E is a point of inflection.

If $D \in \text{Div}(E)$ is defined over K (i.e. fixed by the natural action of $\text{Gal}(\bar{K}/K)$, then $\mathcal{L}(D)$ has a basis in K(E), not just in $\bar{K}(E)$).

Proof. Note that

$$\mathcal{L}(2O_E) \subset \mathcal{L}(3O_E)$$

Pick bases of these spaces, say $\{1, x\}$ and $\{1, x, y\}$.

Note that $\operatorname{ord}_{O_E}(x) = -2, \operatorname{ord}_{O_E}(y) = -3$. The 7 elements $\{1, x, y, x^2, xy, x^3, y^2\}$ are rational functions with no pole except at O_E , where they have poles of degree at most 6, so they all lie in $\mathcal{L}(6O_E)$. Riemann-Roch tells us this space has dimension 6, so there is a dependence relation between these elements.

Leaving out x^3 or y^2 gives a basis for $\mathcal{L}(6O_E)$ since each term has a different order pole at O_E , so they are independent.

Therefore this dependence relation must involve both x^3 and y^2 . Rescaling x, y we get

$$y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6$$

Let E' be the curve defined by this equation (or rather its projective closure).

There is a morphism

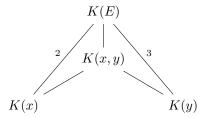
$$\phi: E \to E'$$

$$P \mapsto (x(P): y(P): 1) = \left(\frac{x}{y}(P): 1: \frac{1}{y}(P)\right)$$

$$O_P \mapsto (0:1:0)$$

$$\begin{split} [K(E):K(x)] &= \deg(E \xrightarrow{x} \mathbb{P}^1) = \operatorname{ord}_{O_E}\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = 2 \\ [K(E):K(y)] &= \deg(E \xrightarrow{y} \mathbb{P}^1) = \operatorname{ord}_{O_E}\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) = 3 \end{split}$$

This gives us a diagram of field extensions



So [K(E):K(x,y)] divides both 2 and 3 by the tower law, and hence K(E)=K(x,y), and hence $\deg(E\stackrel{\phi}{\to}E')=1$, and ϕ is birational. If E' is singular, then it is rational, and so E is also rational ξ . So E' is not singular and hence smooth, and we may use remark **2.10** to ϕ^{-1} to see that ϕ^{-1} is a morphism, and hence ϕ is an isomorphism.