

# Elliptic Curves

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# 1 Fermat's Method of Infinite Descent

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

**Definition 1.1.**  $\Delta$  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  $a^2 + b^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ , 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  $(\frac{b}{2})^2 = \frac{c+a}{2} \cdot \frac{c-a}{2}$ , 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.  $\square$

**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.  $\square$

Fermat showed that 1 is not a congruent number.

**Theorem 1.5.** There is no solution to

$$w^2 = uv(u+v)(u-v) \quad (*)$$

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  $u \not\equiv v \pmod{2}$ , 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  $w_1^2 = u_1v_1(u_1^2 - v_1^2)$  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  $\nexists$ . Hence there is no solution to (\*).  $\square$

## 1.1 A Variant for Polynomials

Here,  $K$  is a field with  $\text{char } K \neq 2$ . 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  $u, v \in K$ .  $\square$

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  $x, y \in K$ .  $\square$

## 2 Some Remarks on Algebraic Curves

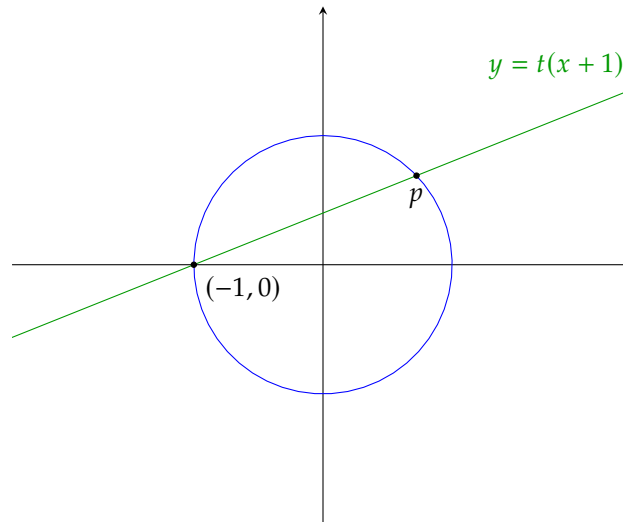
We will be working over an algebraically closed field  $K$ .

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

### Examples 2.2.

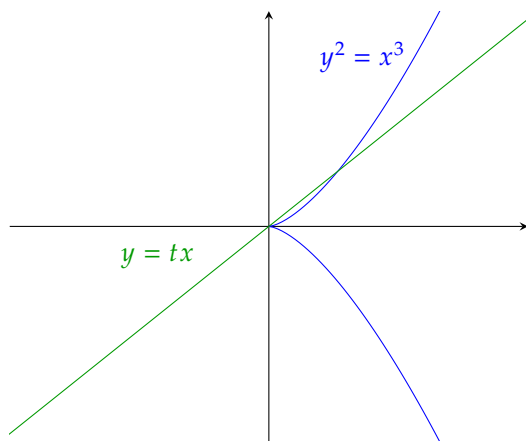
1. Any nonsingular plane conic is rational. For example, take a circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ . Pick a point on it,  $(-1, 0)$ . Now draw a line through it with slope  $t$ , and solve for the points of intersection between the curve and the line.



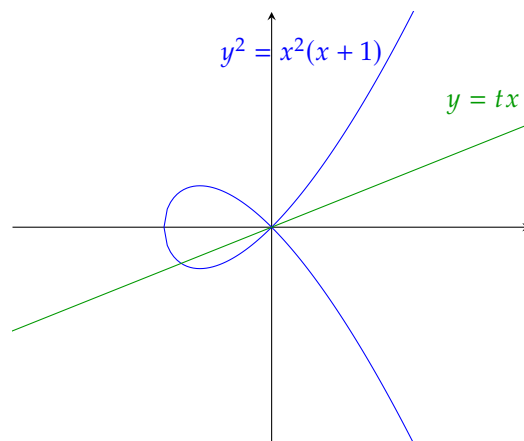
Solving for the coordinates of  $p$ , we get the quadratic  $x^2 + t^2(x + 1)^2 = 1$ , i.e.  $x = -1$  or  $\frac{1-t^2}{1+t^2}$ .

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**  $g(C) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  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.  $\square$

## 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  $\text{ord}_P(f)$  to mean the order of vanishing of  $f \in K(C)$  at  $P$  (negative if  $f$  has a pole).

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

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

**Example 2.5.** Let  $C = \{g(x, y) = 0\} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^2$ , where  $g \in K[x, y]$  is irreducible. Then  $K(C) = \text{Frac} \frac{K[x, y]}{(g)}$ , with  $g = g_0 + g_1(x, y) + g_2(x, y) + \dots$ ,  $g_i$  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  $\alpha, \beta$  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  $\{Y^2 Z = X(X-Z)(X-\lambda Z)\} \subset \mathbb{P}^2$  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  $\text{ord}_P(x)$  and  $\text{ord}_P(y)$ . 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  $\text{ord}_P(t) = \text{ord}_P(t-2) = \text{ord}_P(t-\lambda w) = 1$ , and  $\text{ord}_P(w) = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3$ .

Then:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{ord}_P(x) &= \text{ord}_P(X/Z) = \text{ord}_P(t/w) = 1 - 3 = -2 \\ \text{ord}_P(y) &= \text{ord}_P(Y/Z) = \text{ord}_P(1/w) = -3\end{aligned}$$

## 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  $\text{Div}(C)$ .

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

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

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

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

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  $\text{ord}_P(x) = -2, \text{ord}_P(y) = -3$ .

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:

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

*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

$$Y^2Z + a_1XYZ + a_3YZ^2 = X^3 + a_2X^2Z + a_4XZ^2 + a_6Z^3$$

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  $F = \det \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial X_i \partial X_j} \right) = 0$

### 2.3 The Degree of a Morphism

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

**Definition.**

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

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

**Theorem 2.9.** Let  $\phi : C_1 \rightarrow C_2$  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  $\phi$  is separable then  $e_\phi(P) = 1$  with at most finitely many exceptions.

In particular:

1.  $\phi$  is surjective
2. If  $\phi$  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  $\phi : C \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^n, P \mapsto (f_0(P) : \dots : f_n(P))$ , where  $f_0, \dots, f_n \in K(C)$  are not all zero. If  $C$  is smooth then  $\phi$  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  $\text{ord}_{O_E}(x) = -2, \text{ord}_{O_E}(y) = -3$ . 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

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

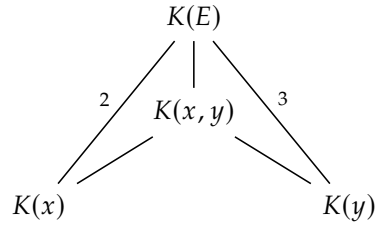
Let  $E'$  be the curve defined by this equation (or rather its projective closure).

There is a morphism

$$\begin{aligned}\phi : E &\rightarrow E' \\ P &\mapsto (x(P) : y(P) : 1) = \left( \frac{x}{y}(P) : 1 : \frac{1}{y}(P) \right) \\ O_E &\mapsto (0 : 1 : 0)\end{aligned}$$

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

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  $\deg(E \xrightarrow{\phi} E') = 1$ , and  $\phi$  is birational. If  $E'$  is singular, then it is rational, and so  $E$  is also rational  $\frac{1}{2}$ . So  $E'$  is not singular and hence smooth, and we may use remark 2.10 to  $\phi^{-1}$  to see that  $\phi^{-1}$  is a morphism, and hence  $\phi$  is an isomorphism.  $\square$

**Proposition 3.2.** *Let  $E, E'$  be elliptic curves over  $K$  in Weierstrass form. Then  $E \cong E'$  over  $K$  if and only if the Weierstrass equations are related by a change of variables of the form*

$$\begin{aligned}x &= u^2x' + r \\ y &= u^3y' + u^2sx' + t\end{aligned}$$

for  $u, r, s, t \in K, u \neq 0$ .



*Proof.* Using the notation of the previous proof,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle 1, x \rangle &= \mathcal{L}(2O_E) = \langle 1, x' \rangle \\ \langle 1, x, y \rangle &= \mathcal{L}(3O_E) = \langle 1, x', y' \rangle \\ \implies \begin{cases} x = \lambda x' + r & \lambda_1 r \in K, \lambda \neq 0 \\ y = \mu y' + \sigma x' + t & \mu, \sigma, t \in K, \mu \neq 0 \end{cases}\end{aligned}$$

Looking at the coefficients of  $x^3$  and  $y^2$ ,  $\lambda^3 = \mu^2 \implies (\lambda, \mu) = (u^2, u^3)$  for  $u \in K^\times$ .

Put  $s = \sigma/u^2$  □

The effect of this transformation on the coefficients  $a_i$  is on the formula sheet for this course. A Weierstrass equation defines an elliptic curve if and only if it defines a smooth curve, if and only if  $\Delta(a_1, \dots, a_6) \neq 0$  where  $\Delta$  is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}b_2 &:= a_1^2 + 4a_2 \\ b_4 &:= 2a_4 + a_1a_3 \\ b_6 &:= a_3^2 + 4a_6 \\ b_8 &:= a_1^2a_6 + 4a_2a_6 - a_1a_3a_4 + a_2a_3^2 - a_4^2 \\ \Delta &:= -b_2^2b_8 - 8b_4^3 - 27b_6^2 + 9b_2b_4b_6\end{aligned}$$

If  $\text{char } K \neq 2, 3$ , then we can reduce to the case

$$\begin{aligned}E : y^2 &= x^3 + ax + b \\ \Delta &= -16(4a^3 + 27b^2)\end{aligned}$$

**Corollary 3.3.** Assume  $\text{char } K \neq 2, 3$ . If we have two elliptic curves

$$\begin{aligned}E : y^2 &= x^3 + ax + b \\ E' : y^2 &= x^3 + a'x + b'\end{aligned}$$

then they are isomorphic over  $K$  if and only if

$$\begin{aligned}a' &= u^4a \\ b' &= u^6b\end{aligned}$$

for some  $u \in K^\times$ .

*Proof.*  $E$  and  $E'$  are related as in 3.2 with  $r = s = t = 0$ . □

**Definition.** The *j-invariant* is  $j(E) = \frac{1728(4a^3)}{4a^3 + 27b^2}$ . Note that the denominator is nonzero since the discriminant is nonzero.

**Corollary 3.4.**  $E \cong E' \implies j(E) = j(E')$ , and the converse holds if  $K = \bar{K}$ .

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
E \cong E' &\iff a' = u^4 a; b' = u^6 b \text{ for some } u \in K^\times \\
&\implies (a^3 : b^2) = ((a')^3 : (b')^2) \\
&\iff j(E) = j(E')
\end{aligned}$$

and the reverse implication holds in the second line if  $K = \bar{K}$ . □

## 4 Group Law

Let  $E \subset \mathbb{P}^2$  be a smooth plane cubic, and  $O_E \in E(K)$ . Since  $E$  is of degree 3, it meets each line in 3 points counted with multiplicity. Hence, given two points  $P, Q$  on  $E$ , the line  $\overline{PQ}$  meets  $E$  at a third point  $S$ . Then the line  $\overline{O_E S}$  meets  $E$  at a third point  $R$ . We then define  $P \oplus Q = R$ .

If  $P = Q$ , then we take the tangent line at  $P$ , likewise if  $S = O_E$ . We can view this diagrammatically as follows:

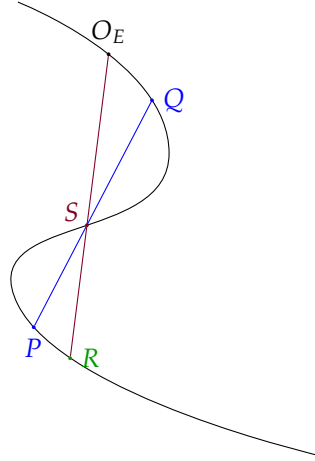


Figure 2: Illustration of the group operation on an elliptic curve

We call this the “chord and tangent process”.

**Theorem 4.1.**  $(E, \oplus)$  is an abelian group.

*Proof.*

- (i)  $P \oplus Q = Q \oplus P$  by construction.
- (ii)  $O_E$  is the identity.
- (iii) For inverses, let  $S$  be the third point of intersection of  $T_{O_E}$  and  $E$ , and  $Q$  be the third point of intersection of  $\overline{PS}$  and  $E$ . Then  $P \oplus Q = O_E$ .
- (iv) Associativity is much harder.

□

**Definition.**  $D_1, D_2 \in \text{Div}(E)$  are **linearly equivalent** (written  $D_1 \sim D_2$ ) if there is  $f \in \tilde{K}(E)^\times$  such that  $\text{div}(f) = D_1 - D_2$ . Then we will let  $[D] = \{D' : D' \sim D\}$ .

**Definition.** The **Picard group of  $E$** ,  $\text{Pic}(E) = \text{Div}(E)/\sim$ . We write  $\text{Div}^0(E) := \ker \left( \text{Div}(E) \xrightarrow{\deg} \mathbb{Z} \right)$  for the group of degree 0 divisors on  $E$ , and then  $\text{Pic}^0(E) = \text{Div}^0(E)/\sim$ . Sometimes  $\text{Pic}^0$  is called the Jacobian.

**Proposition 4.2.** Let  $\psi : E \rightarrow \text{Pic}^0(E); P \mapsto [(P) - (O_E)]$ . Then:

1.  $\psi(P \oplus Q) = \psi(P) + \psi(Q)$
2.  $\psi$  is a bijection

*Proof.*

1. Referring back to Fig. 2, let  $\{\ell = 0\}$  be the line  $\overline{PQ}$ , and  $\{m = 0\}$  be the line  $\overline{O_ER}$ . Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{div}(\ell/m) &= (P) + (S) + (Q) - (R) - (S) - (O_E) \\ &= (P) + (Q) - (O_E) - (P \oplus Q) \\ \implies (P \oplus Q) + (O_E) &\sim (P) + (Q) \\ \implies (P \oplus Q) - (O_E) &\sim (P) - (O_E) + (Q) - (O_E) \\ \implies \psi(P \oplus Q) &= \psi(P) + \psi(Q) \end{aligned}$$

2. For injectivity, suppose  $\psi(P) = \psi(Q)$ . Then there is  $f \in \tilde{K}(E)^\times$  such that  $\text{div}(f) = P - Q$ . Then  $\deg \left( E \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{P}^1 \right) = \text{ord}_P(f) = 1$ . But then  $f$  is a birational morphism, so an isomorphism, and  $E \cong \mathbb{P}^1$ .

For surjectivity, let  $[D] \in \text{Pic}^0(E)$ . Then  $D + (O_E)$  has degree 1 (as  $D$  had degree 0). Then Riemann-Roch tells us  $\dim \mathcal{L}(D + (O_E)) = 1$ , and so there exists some  $f \in \tilde{K}(E)^\times$  such that  $\text{div}(f) + D + (O_E) \geq 0$ . Since  $f$  is rational,  $\deg \text{div}(f) = 0$ , and  $\deg D = 0$ . So the coefficients of  $\text{div}(f) + D + (O_E)$  are non-negative and sum to 1, hence one of them is 1 and the rest are 0. So  $\text{div}(f) + D + (O_E) = (P)$  for some  $P \in E$ . But then  $(P) - (O_E) \sim D$ , i.e.  $\psi(P) = [D]$ .

□

So  $\psi$  is a bijection respecting the group law, and so we deduce that  $\oplus$  is associative, and then  $(E, \oplus) \cong (\text{Pic}^0 E, +)$ .

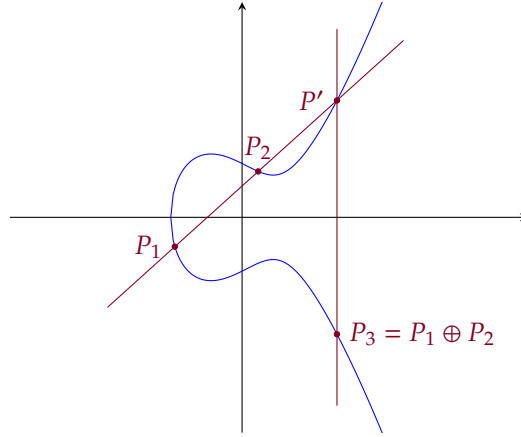
## 4.1 Explicit Formulae for the Group Law

We consider  $E$  in Weierstrass form, with  $O_E$  the point at infinity:

$$y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6 \quad (*)$$

Note that  $O_E$  is a point of inflection. Now  $P_1 \oplus P_2 \oplus P_3 = O_E \iff P_1, P_2, P_3$  are collinear.

We will use the following notation:



and put  $P_i = (x_i, y_i)$ ,  $P' = (x', y')$ .

Now  $\ominus P_1 = (x_1, -(a_1x_1 + a_3) - y_1)$ , just by setting  $y = -y_1$  in (\*).

The line through  $P_1, P_2$  has equation say  $y = \lambda x + \nu$ . Substituting into (\*) and looking at the coefficient of  $x^2$ , we get:

$$\lambda^2 + a_1\lambda - a_2 = x_1 + x_2 + x'$$

Since  $x_3 = x'$ , we have:

$$\begin{aligned} x_3 &= \lambda^2 + a_1\lambda - a_2 - x_1 - x_2 \\ y_3 &= -(a_1x' + a_3) - y' \\ &= -(\lambda + a_1)x_3 - \nu - a_3 \end{aligned}$$

It remains to find  $\lambda$  and  $\nu$ . There are 3 cases:

1.  $x_1 = x_2, P_1 \neq P_2$ .

Then  $P_1 \oplus P_2 = O_E$ .

2.  $x_1 \neq x_2$ .

$$\lambda = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}, \quad \nu = y_1 - \lambda x_1 = \frac{y_1x_2 - y_2x_1}{x_2 - x_1}$$

3.  $P_1 = P_2$ .

Here we have to compute the equation of the tangent line etc. The solutions are:

$$\lambda = \frac{3x_1^2 + 2a_2x_1 + a_4 - a_1y_1}{2y_1 + a_1x_1 + a_3}, \quad \nu = \frac{-x_1^3 + a_4x_1 + 2a_6 - a_3y_1}{2y_1 + a_1x_1 + a_3}$$

**Corollary 4.3.**  $E(K)$  is an abelian group.

*Proof.* It is a subgroup of  $E (= E(\bar{K}))$ .

Identity:  $O_E \in E(K)$  by definition.

Closure: See formulae above.

Inverses: See formulae above.

Associativity: Inherited from  $E(\bar{K})$ .

Commutativity: Inherited from  $E(\bar{K})$ .

□

If there is no ambiguity (i.e. we are not also adding numbers at the same time), the circles will be dropped from the group operation.

**Theorem 4.4.** *Elliptic curves are group varieties.*

i.e.,  $[-1] : E \rightarrow E; P \mapsto -P$  and  $+: E \times E \rightarrow E; (P, Q) \mapsto P + Q$  are morphisms of algebraic varieties.

*Proof.* The above formulae show that  $[-1]$  and  $+$  are rational maps. We know immediately that  $[-1]$  is a morphism, as it is a rational map from a smooth curve to a projective variety.

The formulae also show that  $+$  is regular on the set

$$U = \{(P, Q) \in E \times E \mid P, Q, P + Q, P - Q \neq O_E\}$$

For  $P \in E$ , let  $\tau_P : E \rightarrow E; X \mapsto P + X$  be the “translation by  $P$ ” map.

Then  $\tau_P$  is a rational map from a smooth curve to a projective variety, so is a morphism.

We factor  $+$  as:

$$E \times E \xrightarrow{\tau_{-A} \times \tau_{-B}} E \times E \xrightarrow{\tau_{A+B}} E \xrightarrow{\tau_{A+B}} E$$

Now  $+$  is regular on  $(\tau_A \times \tau_B)(U)$  for all  $A, B \in E$ , and so  $+$  is regular on  $E \times E$ .

□

**Definition.** For any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ , let  $[n] : E \rightarrow E; P \mapsto P + \dots + P$ ,  $n$  times, and  $[-n] = [-1] \circ [n]$ ,  $[0] : P \mapsto O_E$  (i.e., the standard way of turning an abelian group into  $\mathbb{Z}$  module).

**Definition.** The  $n$ -torsion subgroup of  $E$  is  $E[n] = \ker([n] : E \rightarrow E)$ .

**Lemma 4.5.** *If  $\text{char}(K) \neq 2$ , and  $E : y^2 = (x - e_1)(x - e_2)(x - e_3)$ .*

*Then  $E[2] = (0, (e_1, 0), (e_2, 0), (e_3, 0)) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^2$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $P = (x, y) \in E$ . Then  $[2]P = 0 \iff P = -P \iff (x, y) = (x, -y) \iff y = 0$ . □

## 4.2 Elliptic Curves over $\mathbb{C}$

Let  $\Lambda = \{a\omega_1 + b\omega_2 : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ , where  $\omega_1, \omega_2$  form a basis for  $\mathbb{C}$  over  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Then the meromorphic functions on the Riemann surface (or lattice)  $\mathbb{C}/\Lambda$  are the same as the  $\Lambda$ -invariant meromorphic functions on  $\mathbb{C}$  (i.e.  $f(z) = f(z + \lambda)$  for  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ ).

This set of functions is a field, and is generated by  $\wp(z)$  and  $\wp'(z)$ , where:

$$\wp(z) = \frac{1}{z^2} + \sum_{0 \neq \lambda \in \Lambda} \left( \frac{1}{(z - \lambda)^2} - \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \right)$$

They satisfy  $\wp'(z)^2 = 4\wp(z)^3 - g_2\wp(z) - g_3$ , for some  $g_1, g_3 \in \mathbb{C}$  depending on  $\lambda$ . We call  $\wp$  the *Weierstrass  $p$ -function*.

One can show that  $\mathbb{C}/\Lambda \cong E(\mathbb{C})$ , where  $E$  is the elliptic curve  $y^2 = 4x^3 - g_2x - g_3$ . This is an isomorphism, not only of Riemann surfaces, but moreover of groups

**Theorem 4.6** (Uniformisation Theorem). *Every elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{C}$  arises in this way.*

Thus, for elliptic curves  $E/\mathbb{C}$ , we have:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad E[n] \cong (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^2$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \deg[n] = n^2$$

We will show that  $\textcircled{2}$  holds over any field  $K$ , and  $\textcircled{1}$  holds if  $\text{char } K \nmid n$ .

Summary of Results (N.B. the isomorphisms in 1, 2, 4 respect the relevant topologies)

- |                                  |  |
|----------------------------------|--|
| 1. $K = \mathbb{C}$              | $E(\mathbb{C}) \cong \mathbb{C}/\Lambda \cong \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$  |
| 2. $K = \mathbb{R}$              | $E(\mathbb{R}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} & \Delta > 0 \\ \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} & \Delta < 0 \end{cases}$ |
| 3. $K = \mathbb{F}_q$            | $ \#E(\mathbb{F}_q) - (q + 1)  \leq 2\sqrt{q}$   |
| 4. $[K : \mathbb{Q}_p] < \infty$ | $E(K)$ has a subgroup of finite index isomorphic to $(\mathcal{O}_K, +)$   |
| 5. $[K : \mathbb{Q}] < \infty$   | $E(K)$ is a finitely generated abelian group.  |

## 5 Isogenies

Let  $E_1, E_2$  be elliptic curves.

**Definition.** An *isogeny*  $\phi : E_1 \rightarrow E_2$  is a non-constant morphism taking  $O_{E_1}$  to  $O_{E_2}$ , and we say  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are *isogenous* if there is an isogeny  $E_1 \rightarrow E_2$ .

**Definition.**  $\text{Hom}(E_1, E_2) = \{\text{isogenies } E_1 \rightarrow E_2\} \cup \{0\}$ . This is a group under  $(\phi + \psi)(P) = \phi(P) + \psi(P)$ .

If  $E_1 \xrightarrow{\phi} E_2 \xrightarrow{\psi} E_3$  are isogenies, then  $\psi\phi$  is an isogeny. The tower law tells us that  $\deg(\psi\phi) = \deg(\phi)\deg(\psi)$ .

**Lemma 5.1.** *If  $0 \neq n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $[n] : E \rightarrow E$  is an isogeny.*

*Proof.* Theorem 4.4 tells us that  $[n]$  is a morphism. We must show that  $[n] \neq 0$ .

Assume  $\text{char } K \neq 2$ , then we can use Lemma 4.5. If  $n = 2$ , then  $\#E[2] = 4$ , and so  $[2] \neq 0$ .

If  $n$  is odd, then there is  $0 \neq T \in E[2]$ . Then  $nT = T \neq 0$ , so  $[n]$  is not the zero map.

Now  $[m][n] = [m] \circ [n]$ , and any  $n = 2^k m$  for  $m$  odd, so  $[n]$  is not the zero map for any  $n \neq 0$ .

If  $\text{char } K = 2$ , then replace 4.5 with a lemma computing  $E[3]$ . □

**Corollary.**  $\text{Hom}(E_1, E_2)$  is torsion-free as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.

**Lemma 5.2.** *Let  $\phi : E_1 \rightarrow E_2$  be an isogeny. Then  $\phi(P + Q) = \phi(P) + \phi(Q)$  for all  $P, Q \in E_1$ .*

*Sketch proof.*  $\phi$  induces a map  $\phi_* : \text{Div}^0(E_1) \rightarrow \text{Div}^0(E_2)$  given by  $\sum_{P \in E_1} n_P P \mapsto \sum_{P \in E_2} n_P \phi(P)$ .

Recall that, via a pullback,  $\phi^* : K(E_2) \hookrightarrow K(E_1)$ .

If  $f \in K(E_1)^*$ , then  $\phi_*(\text{div } f) = \text{div}(N_{K(E_1)/K(E_2)} f)$  - this is a fact that we'll take for granted.

So  $\phi_*$  takes principal divisors to principal divisors. Since  $\phi(O_{E_1}) = O_{E_2}$ , the following diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E_1 & \xrightarrow{\phi} & E_2 \\ \downarrow \psi_1 & & \downarrow \psi_2 \\ \text{Pic}^0(E_1) & \xrightarrow{\phi_*} & \text{Pic}^0(E_2) \end{array} \quad \text{where } \psi_1 : P \mapsto [(P) - (O_{E_1})], \psi_2 : Q \mapsto [(Q) - (O_{E_2})].$$

Since  $\phi_*$  is a group homomorphism,  $\phi$  is also a group homomorphism.  $\square$

**Lemma 5.3.** *Let  $\phi : E_1 \rightarrow E_2$  be an isogeny. Then there is a morphism  $\xi$  making the following diagram commute:*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E_1 & \xrightarrow{\phi} & E_2 \\ \downarrow x_1 & & \downarrow x_2 \\ \mathbb{P}^1 & \xrightarrow{\xi} & \mathbb{P}^1 \end{array}$$

where  $x_i$  is the  $x$ -coordinate in a Weierstrass equation for  $E_i$ .

Moreover, if  $\xi(t) = \frac{r(t)}{s(t)}$  for  $r, s \in K[t]$  coprime, then  $\deg \phi = \deg \xi = \max(\deg r, \deg s)$ .

*Proof.* For  $i = 1, 2$ ,  $K(E_i)/K(x_i)$  is a degree 2 extension, since the extension is given by adjoining  $y_i$ , which satisfies a quadratic (see the Weierstrass equation). Moreover, it is Galois, as  $[-1]^*$  is a non-trivial automorphism of  $K(E_i)$  fixing  $K(x_i)$ .

Since  $\phi$  is a group homomorphism, we have that  $\phi(-P) = -\phi(P)$ , i.e.  $\phi \circ [-1] = [-1] \circ \phi$ .

If  $f \in K(x_2)$ , then  $[-1]^* f = f$ , and  $[-1]^*(\phi^* f) = \phi^*([-1]^* f) = \phi^* f$ . Hence  $\phi^* f$  is fixed by  $[-1]$ , so is in  $K(x_1)$ , and  $K(x_2) \leq K(x_1)$ .

Taking  $f = x_2$ , then  $\phi^* x_2 \in K(x_1)$ , say  $\xi(x_1)$  for some rational function  $\xi$ . Then  $\xi$  is as required.

Since  $[K(E_1) : K(x_1)] = [K(E_2) : K(x_2)] = 2$ , we have the following diagram of field extensions:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & K(E_1) & & \\ & \swarrow 2 & & \searrow \deg \phi & \\ K(x_1) & & & & K(x_2) \\ & \searrow \deg \xi & & \swarrow 2 & \\ & & K(x_2) & & \end{array}$$

Using the tower law,  $\deg \phi = \deg \xi$ . Now,  $K(x_2) \hookrightarrow K(x_1)$  via  $x_2 \mapsto \xi(x_1) = \frac{r(x_1)}{s(x_1)}$  for  $r, s \in K[t]$  coprime.

The minimal polynomial of  $x_1$  over  $K(x_2)$  is  $f(t) = r(t) - s(t)x_2 \in K(x_2)[t]$  - this is clearly a polynomial for  $x_1$ , but we need to check it's irreducible.

$f$  is irreducible in  $K[t][x_2] = K[x_2][t]$  as it is of degree 1 in  $x_2$ , so one of the factors must be constant in  $x_2$ , so divide both  $r$  and  $s$  which are coprime. Then we can use Gauss's lemma, and it is irreducible in  $K(x_2)[t]$ .

Hence  $\deg \phi = \deg \xi = [K(x_1) : K(x_2)] = \deg(r(t) - s(t)x_2) = \max(\deg r, \deg s)$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 5.4.**  $\deg[2] = 4$

*Proof.* Assume  $\text{char } K \neq 2, 3$ . Then  $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b = f(x)$ .

If  $P = (x, y)$ , then  $x(2P) = \left(\frac{3x^2+a}{2y}\right)^2 - 2x = \frac{(3x^2+a)^2 - 8xf(x)}{4f(x)} = \frac{x^4 + \dots}{4f(x)}$ .

The numerator and denominator are coprime - suppose there was a common factor. Then  $\exists \theta \in \bar{K}$  with  $f(\theta) = (3\theta^2 + a)^2 = f'(\theta) = 0$ , and so  $f$  has a multiple root. But  $E$  is an elliptic curve so  $f$  doesn't have multiple roots.

Hence  $\deg[2] = \max(\deg x^4 + \dots, \deg 4f(x)) = \max(4, 3) = 4$ .  $\square$

**Definition.** Let  $A$  be an abelian group. We say that  $q : A \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  is a *quadratic form* if it satisfies

1.  $q(nx) = n^2 q(x) \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, x \in A$ .
2.  $(x, y) \rightarrow q(x + y) - q(x) - q(y)$  is  $\mathbb{Z}$ -bilinear.

**Lemma 5.5.**  $q : A \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  is a quadratic form if and only if it satisfies the parallelogram law:

$$q(x + y) + q(x - y) = 2q(x) + 2q(y) \forall x, y \in A$$

*Proof.* For the forwards direction, let  $\langle x, y \rangle = q(x + y) - q(x) - q(y)$ .

Then  $\langle x, x \rangle = q(2x) - 2q(x) = 2q(x)$ .

Then  $\frac{1}{2}\langle x + y, x + y \rangle + \frac{1}{2}\langle x - y, x - y \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle$  by bilinearity, and hence  $q(x + y) + q(x - y) = 2q(x) + 2q(y)$ .

The reverse direction is left as an exercise on example sheet 2.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.6.**

$$\deg : \text{Hom}(E_1, E_2) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$$

is a quadratic form.

*Proof.* For the proof, we will assume  $\text{char } K \neq 2, 3$  for simplicity - the result still holds in those characteristics.

We write  $E_2 : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ .

Let  $P, Q \in E_2$  with  $P, Q, P + Q, P - Q \neq 0$ , and let  $x_1, \dots, x_4$  be the  $x$ -coordinates of these 4 points. Then we have:

**Lemma 5.7.** There exists  $w_0, w_1, w_2 \in \mathbb{Z}[a, b][x_1, x_2]$  of degree  $\leq 2$  in  $x_1$  and in  $x_2$  such that  $(1 : x_3 + x_4 : x_3 x_4) = (w_0 : w_1 : w_2)$ .



*Proof.* We could prove this by direct calculation, leading to the formulae:

$$\begin{aligned} w_0 &= (x_1 - x_2)^2 \\ w_1 &= 2(x_1x_2 + a)(x_1 + x_2) + 4b \\ w_2 &= x_1^2x_2^2 - 2ax_1x_2 - 4b(x_1 + x_2) + a^2 \end{aligned}$$

As an alternative proof, let  $y = \lambda x + \nu$  be the line through  $P$  and  $Q$ . Then

$$x^3 + ax + b - (\lambda x + \nu)^2 = (x - x_1)(x - x_2)(x - x_3) = x^3 - s_1x^2 + s_2x - s_3$$

where  $s_i$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  symmetric polynomial in  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ .

Comparing coefficients:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda^2 &= s_1 \\ -2\lambda\nu + a &= s_2 \\ \nu^2 - b &= s_3 \end{aligned}$$

Eliminating  $\lambda, \nu$ , we have  $F(x_1, x_2, x_3) := (s_2 - a)^2 - 4s_1(s_3 + b) = 0$ . Then  $F$  has degree at most 2 in each  $x_i$ .

$x_3$  is a root of the quadratic polynomial  $W(t) = F(x_1, x_2, t)$ , and repeating this for the line through  $P$  and  $-Q$  shows that  $x_4$  is the other root. Hence

$$w_0(t - x_3)(t - x_4) = W(t) = w_0t^2 - w_1t + w_2$$

And so  $(1 : x_3 + x_4 : x_3x_4) = (w_0 : w_1 : w_2)$ . □

We then show that, if  $\phi, \psi \in \text{Hom}(E_1, E_2)$ , then

$$\deg(\phi + \psi) + \deg(\phi - \psi) \leq 2\deg(\phi) + 2\deg(\psi)$$

We may assume  $\phi, \psi, \phi + \psi, \phi - \psi \neq 0$ , as otherwise the result is trivial.

$$\begin{aligned} \phi &: (x, y) \mapsto (\xi_1(x), \dots) \\ \psi &: (x, y) \mapsto (\xi_2(x), \dots) \\ \phi + \psi &: (x, y) \mapsto (\xi_3(x), \dots) \\ \phi - \psi &: (x, y) \mapsto (\xi_4(x), \dots) \end{aligned}$$

Then 5.7 gives  $(1 : \xi_3 + \xi_4 : \xi_3\xi_4) = ((\xi_1 - \xi_2)^2 : \dots : \dots)$ .

Put  $\xi_i = \frac{r_i}{s_i}$  where  $r_i, s_i \in K[x]$  are coprime:

$$(s_3s_4 : r_3s_4 + r_4s_3 : r_3r_4) = ((r_1s_2 - r_2s_2)^2 : \dots : \dots) \quad (*)$$

So we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \deg(\phi + \psi) + \deg(\phi - \psi) &= \max(\deg r_3, \deg s_3) + \max(\deg r_4, \deg s_4) \\ &= \max(\deg(s_3s_4), \deg(r_3s_4 + r_4s_3), \deg(r_3r_4)) \end{aligned}$$

Suppose  $(s_3s_4, r_3s_4 + r_4s_3, r_3r_4)$  are not coprime, so that  $p$  irreducible divides all 3. Then  $p$  divides one of  $r_3, r_4$ , and one of  $s_3, s_4$ .  $p$  can't divide both  $s_i$  and  $r_i$  as they are coprime, so wlog  $p$  divides  $r_3$  and  $s_4$  and not  $r_4$  nor  $s_3$ . Then  $p$  doesn't divide  $r_3s_4 + r_4s_3$ . Hence these polynomials are coprime.

Hence the polynomials on RHS of (\*) must be multiples of polynomials on the LHS by some irreducible polynomial, and hence each have degree  $\geq$  their corresponding polynomial on LHS, and thus, as  $w_i$  are of degree  $\leq 2$  in  $r_1, s_1, r_2, s_2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \deg(\phi + \psi) + \deg(\phi - \psi) &\leq \max(\deg(w_0), \deg(w_1), \deg(w_2)) \\ &\leq 2 \max(\deg r_1, \deg s_1) + 2 \max(\deg r_2, \deg s_2) \\ &= 2 \deg \phi + 2 \deg \psi \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Now replace  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  by  $\phi + \psi$  and  $\phi - \psi$  to get

$$\deg(2\phi) + \deg(2\psi) \leq 2 \deg(\phi + \psi) + 2 \deg(\phi - \psi)$$

Since  $\deg[2] = 4$ ,

$$2 \deg(\phi) + 2 \deg(\psi) \leq \deg(\phi + \psi) + \deg(\phi - \psi) \tag{2}$$

(1) and (2) together give

$$2 \deg(\phi) + 2 \deg(\psi) = \deg(\phi + \psi) + \deg(\phi - \psi)$$

so  $\deg$  satisfies the parallelogram law, and hence is a quadratic form.  $\square$

**Corollary 5.8.**

$$\deg(n\phi) = n^2 \deg(\phi) \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, \phi \in \text{Hom}(E_1, E_2)$$

In particular,  $\deg[n] = n^2$ .

**Example 5.9.** Let  $E/K$  be an elliptic curve, suppose  $\text{char } K \neq 2$ , and let  $O_E \neq T \in E(K)[2]$ .

Then we may take  $E : y^2 = x(x^2 + ax + b)$ ,  $a, b \in K, b(a^2 - 4b) \neq 0, T = (0, 0)$

Then if  $P = (x, y)$  and  $P' = P + T = (x', y')$ , then:

$$\begin{aligned} x' &= (y/x)^2 - a - x = \frac{x^2 + ax + b}{x} - x - a = \frac{b}{x} \\ y' &= -(y/x)x' = \frac{-by}{x^2} \end{aligned}$$

Then let  $\xi = x + x' + a = \frac{x^2 + ax + b}{x} = \left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^2$ , and  $\eta = y + y' = \frac{y}{x}(x - \frac{b}{x})$

$$\text{Then } \eta^2 = \left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^2 \left[\left(x + \frac{b}{x}\right)^2 - 4b\right] = \xi((\xi - a)^2 - 4b) = \xi(\xi^2 - 2a\xi + a^2 - 4b)$$

Let  $E' : y^2 = x(x^2 + a'x + b')$  where  $a' = -2a, b' = a^2 - 4b$ . Then there is an isogeny  $\phi : E \rightarrow E'$  given by  $(x, y) \mapsto \left(\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^2 : \frac{y(x^2 - b)}{x^2} : 1\right); O_E \mapsto (0 : 1 : 0)$

5.3 tells us, as  $x' = \left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^2 = \frac{x^2 + ax + b}{x}$ , that  $\deg(\phi) = \max(2, 1) = 2$ , and we say  $\phi$  is a 2-isogeny.

## 6 The Invariant Differential

Let  $C$  be an algebraic curve over an algebraically closed field. Then the *space of differentials*  $\Omega_C$  is a vector space over the function field of the curve  $K(C)$ , generated by  $df$  for  $f \in K(C)$  subject to the relations

1.  $d(f + g) = df + dg$
2.  $d(fg) = f dg + g df$
3.  $da = 0$  for  $a \in K$

It turns out that  $\dim \Omega_C = \dim C$ , and since  $C$  is a curve,  $\Omega_C$  is a 1-dimensional  $K(C)$ -vector space.

Let  $0 \neq \omega \in \Omega_C$ , and let  $P \in C$  be a smooth point, with  $t \in K(C)$  a uniformizer at  $P$  (has order of vanishing 1 at  $P$ ). Then  $\omega = f dt$  for some  $f \in K(C)$ .

We define  $\text{ord}_P(\omega) = \text{ord}_P(f)$ . This does not depend on the choice of uniformizer.

Suppose we have  $f \in K(C)^*$ , and  $\text{ord}_P(f) = n \neq 0$ . Then, if  $\text{char } K \nmid n$ ,  $\text{ord}_P(df) = n - 1$ .

If  $C$  is now a smooth projective curve, we define the divisor of  $\omega \in \Omega_C$  to be

$$\text{div}(\omega) = \sum_{P \in C} \text{ord}_P(\omega) P \in \text{Div}(C)$$

using the fact that  $\text{ord}_P(\omega)$  is zero at all but finitely many points  $P \in C$ .

The *space of regular differentials* is the finite dimensional vector space over  $K$  of all  $\omega \in \Omega_C$  for which  $\text{div}(\omega)$  is effective, i.e. there are no poles. The dimension of this space is called the *genus* of  $C$ ,  $g(C)$ .

As a consequence of Riemann-Roch, we have, for  $0 \neq \omega \in \Omega_C$ ,  $\deg(\text{div}(\omega)) = 2g(C) - 2$ .

**Lemma 6.1.** Assume  $\text{char } K \neq 2$ . Take an elliptic curve  $E : y^2 = (x - e_1)(x - e_2)(x - e_3)$ , where  $e_1, e_2, e_3$  distinct.

Then  $\omega = \frac{dx}{y}$  is a differential on  $E$ , and has no zeros and no poles, and so  $g(E) = 1$ .

Moreover, the space of regular differentials is just  $\langle \omega \rangle$ .

*Proof.* Let  $T_i = (e_i, 0)$ , so that  $E[2] = \{O, T_1, T_2, T_3\}$ .

Then  $\text{div}(y) = (T_1) + (T_2) + (T_3) - 3(O)$  - we know the zeros at  $T_i$  are simple as  $y$  is rational, so  $\deg \text{div}(y) = 0$ .

Then for  $P \in E$ ,  $\text{div}(x - x_P) = (P) + (-P) - 2(O)$ , in the same way as above.

If  $P \in E \setminus E[2]$ , then  $\text{ord}_P(x - x_P) = 1$ , so  $\text{ord}_P(d(x - x_P)) = \text{ord}_P(dx) = 1 - 1 = 0$ .

If  $P = T_i$ , then  $P = -P$ , and  $\text{ord}_P(x - x_P) = 2$ , so  $\text{ord}_P(dx) = 2 - 1 = 1$

If  $P = O$ , then  $\text{ord}_P(x) = -2$ , so  $\text{ord}_P(dx) = -3$ .

Hence  $\text{div}(dx) = (T_1) + (T_2) + (T_3) - 3(O) = \text{div}(y)$ .

So  $\text{div}(dx/y) = \text{div}(dx) - \text{div}(y) = 0$ . Then Riemann-Roch gives  $g(E) = 1$ , and so the space of regular differentials is 1-dimensional, so generated by  $\omega$ .  $\square$

**Definition.** If  $\phi : C_1 \rightarrow C_2$  is a non-constant morphism, then we can pull back to

$$\phi^* : \Omega_{C_1} \rightarrow \Omega_{C_2}; f dg \mapsto \phi^* f d(\phi^* g)$$

**Lemma 6.2.** Let  $P \in E$ ,  $\tau_P : E \rightarrow E; X \mapsto P + X$ , and  $\omega = dx/y$  be as above.

Then  $\tau_P^* \omega = \omega$ , and so  $\omega$  is called the **invariant differential**.

*Proof.* Since  $\omega$  had no poles,  $\tau_P^* \omega$  is again a regular differential, and hence equal to  $\lambda_P \omega$  for some  $\lambda_P \in K$ , as the regular differentials are a 1-dimensional vector space over  $K$ .

The map  $E \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^1; P \mapsto \lambda_P$  is a morphism of smooth projective curves, but is not surjective as it misses 0 and  $\infty$ , and so this morphism is constant, by 2.8.

So  $\lambda$  is independent of  $P$ . Take  $P = O_E$ , then  $\tau_P$  is the identity map, and so  $\lambda$  is 1.  $\square$

If  $K = \mathbb{C}$ , then  $\mathbb{C}/\Lambda \cong E(\mathbb{C})$ , via  $z \mapsto (\wp(z), \wp'(z))$ . Then  $\frac{dx}{y} = \frac{\wp'(z)dz}{\wp'(z)} = dz$ , which is invariant under  $z \mapsto z + \text{const.}$

**Lemma 6.3.** Let  $\phi, \psi \in \text{Hom}(E_1, E_2)$ ,  $\omega$  the invariant differential on  $E_2$ . Then

$$(\phi + \psi)^*(\omega) = \phi^* \omega + \psi^* \omega$$

*Proof.* Write  $E = E_2$ , and consider the maps:

$$\begin{aligned} E \times E &\rightarrow E \\ \mu : (P, Q) &\mapsto P + Q \\ \text{pr}_1 : (P, Q) &\mapsto P \\ \text{pr}_2 : (P, Q) &\mapsto Q \end{aligned}$$

$\Omega_{E \times E}$  is a 2-dimensional  $K(E \times E)$  vector space with basis  $\text{pr}_1^* \omega$  and  $\text{pr}_2^* \omega$ .

Then  $\mu^* \omega = f \text{pr}_1^* \omega + g \text{pr}_2^* \omega$  for some  $f, g \in K(E \times E)$ .

For  $Q \in E$ , let  $\iota_Q : E \rightarrow E \times E; P \mapsto (P, Q)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \iota_Q^*(\mu^* \omega) &= (\mu \circ \iota_Q)^* \omega = \iota_Q^* f (\text{pr}_1 \circ \iota_Q)^* \omega + \iota_Q^* g (\text{pr}_2 \circ \iota_Q)^* \omega \\ \tau_Q^* \omega &= \iota_Q^* f \omega + 0 \\ \omega &= \iota_Q^* f \omega \end{aligned}$$

So  $\iota_Q^* f = 1$  for all  $Q \in E$ , so  $f(P, Q) = 1$  for all  $P, Q \in E$ .

Similarly,  $g(P, Q) = 1$ .

So  $\mu^* \omega = \text{pr}_1^* \omega + \text{pr}_2^* \omega$ . Now pull back by  $E \rightarrow E \times E; P \mapsto (\phi(P), \psi(P))$  to get  $(\phi + \psi)^* \omega = \phi^* \omega + \psi^* \omega$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 6.4.** If  $\phi : C_1 \rightarrow C_2$  is a non-constant morphism, then  $\phi$  is separable if and only if  $\phi^* : \Omega_{C_2} \rightarrow \Omega_{C_1}$  is nonzero

*Proof.* Omitted.  $\square$

Example: Let  $\mathbb{G}_m = \mathbb{A}^1 \setminus \{0\} = \mathbb{P}^1 \setminus \{0, \infty\}$ , with group law  $\mathbb{G}_m \times \mathbb{G}_m \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_m; (x, y) \mapsto xy$ .

Let  $n \geq 2$  be an integer,  $\alpha : \mathbb{G}_m \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_m; x \mapsto x^n$ .

Then  $\alpha^*(dx) = d(\alpha x) = d(x^n) = nx^{n-1}dx$ . So if  $\text{char } K \nmid n$ , then  $\alpha$  is separable. So  $\#\alpha^{-1}(Q) = \deg \alpha$  for all but finitely many  $Q \in \mathbb{G}_m$ .

But  $\alpha$  is group homomorphism, so all fibres have the same size, and  $\#\alpha^{-1}(Q) = \#\ker \alpha$ , hence  $\#\ker \alpha = \deg \alpha = n$ . So  $K(= \bar{K})$  contains exactly  $n$   $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity.

**Theorem 6.5.** *If  $\text{char } K \nmid n$ , then  $E[n] \cong (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^2$ .*

*Proof.* By 6.3 and induction,  $[n]^*\omega = n\omega$ . So if  $\text{char } K \nmid n$ ,  $[n]$  is separable. So all but finitely many fibres of  $[n]$  have size  $\deg[n]$ , and since  $[n]$  is a group homomorphism, all fibres have the same size, and hence  $\#[n]^{-1}(O_E) = \#E[n] = \deg[n] = n^2$ .

By the structure theorem for finite abelian groups,  $E[n] \cong \mathbb{Z}/d_1\mathbb{Z} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}/d_t\mathbb{Z}$  with  $d_i | d_{i+1}$ . Since this group is killed by multiplication by  $n$ , all  $d_i | n$  as well, and  $\prod_{i=1}^t d_i = n^2$  by the previous paragraph.

If  $p$  is a prime with  $p | d_1$ , then  $E[p] \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^t$ , and by the first paragraph,  $t = 2$ . Then  $d_1 | d_2 | n$ , and  $d_1 d_2 = n^2$ , hence  $d_1 = d_2 = n$ .  $\square$

Remark (not to be used on example sheet 2). If  $\text{char } K = p$ , then  $[p]$  is not separable. It can be shown that  $E[p^r] \cong \mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z}$  for all  $r \geq 1$  or  $E[p] = 0$ . The first case is described as “ordinary”, and the second case is “supersingular”.

## 7 Elliptic Curves over Finite Fields

**Lemma 7.1.** *Let  $A$  be an abelian group and  $q : A \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  a positive definite quadratic form. If  $x, y \in A$  then  $\langle x, y \rangle := |q(x+y) - q(x) - q(y)| \leq 2\sqrt{q(x)q(y)}$ .*

*Proof.* We may assume  $x \neq 0$  otherwise the result is clear. Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\leq q(mx + ny) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \langle mx + ny, mx + ny \rangle \\ &= m^2 q(x) + mn \langle x, y \rangle + n^2 q(y) \\ &= q(x) \left( m + \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{2q(x)} n \right)^2 + n^2 \left( q(y) - \frac{\langle x, y \rangle^2}{4q(x)} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Take  $m = \langle x, y \rangle$ ,  $n = -2q(x)$ , we deduce  $\langle x, y \rangle^2 \leq 4q(x)q(y)$ , so  $|\text{angle } x, y| \leq 2\sqrt{q(x)q(y)}$ .  $\square$

Recall that  $\text{Gal}(\mathbb{F}_{q^r}/\mathbb{F}_q)$  is cyclic of order  $r$  generated by the Frobenius map  $x \mapsto x^q$ .

**Theorem 7.2 (Hasse).** *Let  $E/\mathbb{F}_q$  be an elliptic curve. Then  $|\#E(\mathbb{F}_q) - (q+1)| \leq 2\sqrt{q}$*

*Proof.* Let  $E$  have Weierstrass equation with coefficients  $a_1, \dots, a_6 \in \mathbb{F}_q$ . Define the Frobenius endomorphism  $\phi : E \rightarrow E; (x, y) \mapsto (x^q, y^q)$ , which is an isogeny of degree  $q$ .

Then  $E(\mathbb{F}_q) = \{P \in E : \phi(P) = P\} = \ker(1 - \phi)$ .

$$\phi^* \omega = \phi^* \left( \frac{dx}{y} \right) = \frac{dx^q}{y^q} = \frac{qx^{q-1}dx}{y^q} = 0, \text{ since } q \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

So  $(1 - \phi)^* \omega = 1^* \omega - \phi^* \omega = \omega - 0 = \omega \neq 0$ , so  $1 - \phi$  is separable.

Hence the size of all but finitely many fibres is  $\deg 1 - \phi$ , and  $1 - \phi$  is a group homomorphism, so  $\#E[\mathbb{F}_q] = \# \ker(1 - \phi) = \deg(1 - \phi)$ .

By 5.6,  $\deg : \text{End}(E) := \text{Hom}(E, E) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  is a positive definite quadratic form.

By 7.1,  $|\deg(1 - \phi) - 1 - \deg \phi| \leq 2\sqrt{\deg \phi}$ , and hence  $|\#E(\mathbb{F}_q) - (q + 1)| \leq 2\sqrt{q}$ .  $\square$

## 7.1 Zeta Functions

For  $K$  a number field:

$$\zeta_K(s) = \sum_{\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathcal{O}_K} \frac{1}{(N_{\mathfrak{a}})^s} = \prod_{\mathfrak{p} \subset \mathcal{O}_K \text{ prime}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{(N_{\mathfrak{p}})^s} \right)^{-1}$$

For  $K$  a function field, e.g.  $K = \mathbb{F}_q(C)$  for  $C/\mathbb{F}_q$  a smooth projective curve:

$$\zeta_K(s) = \prod_{x \in |C|} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{(Nx)^s} \right)^{-1}$$

where  $|C|$  is the set of closed points (i.e. orbit of action of  $\text{Gal}(\bar{\mathbb{F}}_q/\mathbb{F}_q)$ ) on  $C(\bar{\mathbb{F}}_q)$ , and  $Nx = q^{\deg x}$ , where  $\deg x$  is the size of the orbit.

We have that  $\zeta_K(s) = F(q^{-s})$  for  $F \in \mathbb{Q}[[T]]$ , where

$$\begin{aligned} F(T) &= \prod_{x \in |C|} (1 - T^{\deg x})^{-1} \\ \log F(T) &= \sum_{x \in |C|} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m} T^{m \deg x} \\ \frac{d}{dT} \log F(T) &= \sum_{x \in |C|} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \deg x T^{m \deg x} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{\substack{x \in |C| \\ \deg x | n}} \deg x \right) T^n \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \#C(\mathbb{F}_{q^n}) T^n \\ \implies F(T) &= \exp \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\#C(\mathbb{F}_{q^n})}{n} T^n \right) =: Z_C(T) \end{aligned}$$

For  $\phi, \psi \in \text{Hom}(E_1, E_2)$ , we put:

$$\langle \phi, \psi \rangle = \deg(\phi + \psi) - \deg(\phi) - \deg(\psi)$$

We define the *trace map*  $\text{tr} : \text{End}(E) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}; \psi \mapsto \langle \psi, 1 \rangle$ .

**Lemma 7.3.** If  $\psi \in \text{End}(E)$  then  $\psi^2 - [\text{tr } \psi]\psi + [\deg \psi] = 0$ , where  $[n]$  means the multiplication by  $n$  endomorphism.

*Proof.* Example sheet 2. □

**Definition.** The *zeta function of a variety*  $V/\mathbb{F}_q$  is

$$Z_v(T) = \exp \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\#V(\mathbb{F}_{q^n})}{n} T^n \right)$$

**Lemma 7.4.** Let  $E/\mathbb{F}_q$  be an elliptic curve, with  $\#E(\mathbb{F}_q) = q + 1 - a$ . Then

$$Z_E(T) = \frac{1 + aT + qT^2}{(1 - T)(1 - qT)}$$

*Proof.* Let  $\phi : E \rightarrow E$  be the  $q$ -power Frobenius map. By the proof of Hasse's theorem,

$$\#E(\mathbb{F}_q) = \deg(1 - \phi) = q + 1 - \text{tr}(\phi)$$

Then  $\text{tr}(\phi) = a$ ,  $\deg(\phi) = q$ .

Then lemma 7.3 gives  $\phi^2 - a\phi + q = 0$ . Composing with  $\phi^n$  for  $n \geq 0$  gives

$$\begin{aligned} \phi^{n+2} - a\phi^{n+1} + q\phi^n &= 0 \\ \text{tr}(\phi^{n+2}) - a \text{tr}(\phi^{n+1}) + q \text{tr}(\phi^n) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

This second-order difference equation with initial conditions  $\text{tr}(\phi^0) = \text{tr}(1) = 2$ ,  $\text{tr}(\phi^1) = a$  has solutions

$$\text{tr}(\phi^n) = \alpha^n + \beta^n$$

where  $\alpha, \beta$  are the roots of  $x^2 - ax + q = 0$ .

Hence  $\#E(\mathbb{F}_{q^n}) = \deg(1 - \phi^n) = 1 + \deg(\phi^n) - \text{tr}(\phi^n) = 1 + q^n - \alpha^n - \beta^n$ .

Substituting, we have:

$$Z_E(T) = \exp \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{T^n}{n} + \frac{(qT)^n}{n} - \frac{(\alpha T)^n}{n} - \frac{(\beta T)^n}{n} \right)$$

Since  $-\log(1 - x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n}$ , this can be simplified to:

$$\begin{aligned} Z_E(T) &= \frac{(1 - \alpha T)(1 - \beta T)}{(1 - T)(1 - qT)} \\ &= \frac{1 - aT + qT^2}{(1 - T)(1 - qT)} \end{aligned}$$

□

Note that Hasse's theorem gives us  $|a| \leq 2\sqrt{q}$ , and so the discriminant of  $x^2 - aT + q$  is negative, and so  $\alpha = \bar{\beta}$ ,  $|\alpha| = |\beta| = \sqrt{q}$ .

Let  $K = \mathbb{F}_q(E)$ . Then  $\zeta_K(s) = 0 \implies Z_E(q^{-s}) = 0 \implies q^2 = \alpha$  or  $\beta$ , and hence  $\Re(s) = \frac{1}{2}$ .

## 8 Formal Groups

Here,  $R$  will be a ring with  $I \subset R$  an ideal. The  *$I$ -adic topology* on  $R$  is the topology with basis  $\{r + I^n : r \in R, n \geq 1\}$ .

A sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $R$  is **Cauchy** if, for all  $k$  there is some  $N$  with  $x_m - x_n \in I^k$  for all  $m, n \geq k$ .

$R$  is **complete** if

1.  $\bigcap_{n \geq 0} I^n = \{0\}$  and
2. every Cauchy sequence converges.

Note that, if  $x \in I$  then  $\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots$ , and the sequence of partial sums is Cauchy, and hence converges. So  $1 - x \in R^\times$ .

For example, we could have:

- $R = \mathbb{Z}_p, I = p\mathbb{Z}_p$
- $R = \mathbb{Z}[[t]], I = (t)$ .

**Lemma 8.1** (Hensel's Lemma). *Let  $R$  be an integral domain, complete with respect to  $I$ . Let  $F \in R[x], s \geq 1$ . Suppose  $a \in R$  satisfies  $F(a) \equiv 0 \pmod{I^s}$ , and  $F'(a) \in R^\times$ .*

*Then there is a unique  $b \in R$  with  $F(b) = 0$  and  $b \equiv a \pmod{I^s}$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $u \in R^\times$  with  $F'(a) \equiv u \pmod{I}$ , e.g.  $u = f'(a)$ .

Replacing  $F(x)$  by  $\frac{F(x+a)}{u}$ , we may assume  $a = 0$  and  $F'(0) \equiv 1 \pmod{I}$ .

We put  $x_0 = 0, x_{n+1} = x_n - F(x_n)$ .

By induction,  $x_n \in I_s$  for all  $n$ .

$F(x) - F(y) = (x - y)(F'(0) + xG(x, y) + yH(x, y))$  for some polynomials  $G, H \in R[x, y]$ .

Now we claim  $x_{n+1} \equiv x_n \pmod{I^{n+s}}$  for all  $n \geq 0$ .

This can be proven by induction on  $n$ : in the case where  $n = 0$ , and  $x_1 \in I^s$ .

Suppose  $x_n \equiv x_{n-1} \pmod{I^{n+s-1}}$ . Then

$$F(x_n) - F(x_{n-1}) = (x_n - x_{n-1})(1 + c)$$

for some  $c \in I$ , and hence

$$F(x_n) - F(x_{n-1}) \equiv x_n - x_{n-1} \pmod{I^{n+s}}$$

Rearranging, we have  $x_{n+1} \equiv x_n \pmod{I^{n+s}}$ , which proves the claim.

Hence  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy, and by completeness converges to some  $b \in R$ . Taking the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we have  $b = b - F(b)$ , and so  $F(b) = 0$ , with  $b \in I^s$ .

For uniqueness, we can use the expression for  $F(x) - F(y)$  and the assumption that  $R$  is an integral domain.  $\square$



For example, take  $E : Y^2Z + a_1XYZ + a_3YZ^2 = X^3 + a_2X^2Z + a_4XZ^2 + a_6Z^3$

We pass to the affine piece  $Y \neq 0, t = X/Y, w = -Z/Y$ : Then

$$E : w = t^3 + a_1tw + a_2t^2w + a_3w^2 + a_4tw^2 + a_6w^3 = f(t, w)$$

We can apply Hensel's lemma with  $R = \mathbb{Z}[a_1, \dots, a_6][[t]]$ ,  $I = (t)$ , and  $F(x) = x - f(t, x) \in R[x]$ . Taking  $s = 3, a = 0$ , we have:

$$F(0) = -f(t, 0) = -t^3 \equiv 0 \pmod{I^3} \quad F'(0) = 1 - a_t - a_2t^2 \in R^\times$$

So there is a unique root of  $F$ ,  $w(t) \in \mathbb{Z}[a_1, \dots, a_6][[t]]$  such that  $w(t) = f(t, w(t))$  and  $w(t) \equiv 0 \pmod{t^3}$ .

Following the proof of Hensel's lemma with  $u = 1$  gives  $w(t) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} w_n(t)$  where  $w_0(t) = 0, w_{n+1}(t) = f(t, w_n(t))$ .

In fact, we may write  $w(t) = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} A_{n-2}t^{n-1}$  with  $A_1 = a_1, A_2 = a_1^2 + a_2, A_3 = a_1^3 + 2a_1a_2 + a_3, \dots$

**Lemma 8.2.** *Let  $R$  be an integral domain, complete with respect to  $I \trianglelefteq R$ , and let  $a_1, \dots, a_6 \in R, K = \text{Frac}(R)$ .*

*Then  $\widehat{E}(I) = \{(t, w) \in E(K) : t, w \in I\} = \{(t, w(t)) \in E(K) : t \in I\}$  is a subgroup of  $E(K)$ .*

*Proof.* The two descriptions of  $\widehat{E}(I)$  agree, since given  $t \in I$  we can solve for a unique  $w \in I$  such that the pair  $(t, w) \in E(K)$ .

Taking  $(t, w) = (0, 0)$  shows that  $O_E \in \widehat{E}(I)$ . So it suffices to show that, if  $P_1, P_2 \in \widehat{E}(I)$ , then  $-P_1 - P_2 \in \widehat{E}(I)$ .

If  $P_1 = (t_1, w_1), P_2 = (t_2, w_2)$  lie on the straight line  $\lambda t + \nu$ , then  $-P_1 - P_2$  is the third point of intersection of this line with  $E$ .

Then  $\lambda = \frac{w(t_2) - w(t_1)}{t_2 - t_1}$  if  $t_1 \neq t_2$ , and  $w'(t_1)$  if  $t_1 = t_2$ .

$P_1, P_2 \in \widehat{E}(I) \implies t_1, t_2 \in I$ .

Thus  $\lambda = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} A_{n-2}(t_1^n + t_1^{n-1}t_2 + \dots + t_2^n) \in I$ , and  $\nu = w_1 - \lambda t_1 \in I$ .

Substituting  $w = \lambda t + \nu$  into  $w = f(t, w)$  gives  $\lambda t + \nu = t^3 + a_1t(\lambda t + \nu) + a_2t^2(\lambda t + \nu) + a_3(\lambda t + \nu)^2 + a_4t(\lambda t + \nu)^3 + a_6(\lambda t + \nu)^3$ .

Let  $A$  be the coefficient of  $t^3$ , so  $A = 1 + a_2\lambda + a_4\lambda^2 + a_6\lambda^3$ .

Let  $B$  be the coefficient of  $t^2$ , so  $B = a_1\lambda + a_2\nu + a_3\lambda^2 + 2a_4\lambda\nu + 3a_6\lambda^2\nu$ .

Then  $A \in R^\times, B \in I$ , and  $t_3 = -B/A - t_2 - t_2 \in I$ , and  $w_3 = \lambda t_3 + \nu \in I$ .

Hence  $-P_1 - P_2 \in \widehat{E}(I)$ , and so  $\widehat{E}(I)$  is a subgroup.  $\square$

Taking  $R = \mathbb{Z}[a_1, \dots, a_6][[t]]$ , and  $I = (t)$ , then the previous lemma tells us there is some power series  $\iota \in \mathbb{Z}[a_1, \dots, a_6][[t]]$  with  $\iota(0) = 0$  such that  $[-1](t, w(t)) = (\iota(t), w(\iota(t)))$

Taking  $R = \mathbb{Z}[a_1, \dots, a_6][[t]]$ , and  $I = (t_1, t_2)$ , then we get that there is some power series  $F \in I$  such that  $(t_1, w(t_1)) + (t_2, w(t_2)) = (F(t_1, t_2), w(F(t_1, t_2)))$ .

In fact, we can compute

$$\begin{aligned}\iota(x) &= -x - a_1x^2 - a_2x^3 - (a_1^3 + a_3)x^4 + \dots \\ F(x, y) &= x + y - a_1xy - a_2(x^2y + xy^2) + \dots\end{aligned}$$

By properties of the group law, we can deduce:

1.  $F(x, y) = F(y, x)$
2.  $F(x, 0) = x, F(0, y) = y$
3.  $F(x, F(y, z)) = F(F(x, y), z)$
4.  $F(x, \iota(x)) = 0$

This then motivates the following definition:

**Definition.** Let  $R$  be a ring. A **formal group** over  $R$  is a power series  $F(x, y) \in R[[x, y]]$  satisfying the properties 1, 2, and 3 above.

**Exercise.** Show that, for any formal group, there is a unique  $\iota(x) \in R[[x]]$  such that  $F(x, \iota(x)) = 0$ .

Examples:

1.  $F(x, y) = x + y$
2.  $F(x, y) = x + y + xy = (1 + x)(1 + y) - 1$
3.  $F$  as above.

We label these formal groups by  $\widehat{\mathbb{G}}_a$ ,  $\widehat{\mathbb{G}}_m$ , and  $\widehat{E}$  respectively.

**Definition.** Let  $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{G}$  be formal groups over  $R$  given by power series  $F, G$  respectively. Then:

1. A **morphism**  $f : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$  is a power series  $f \in R[[t]]$  such that  $f(0) = 0$  satisfying  $f(F(x, y)) = G(f(x), f(y))$ .
2.  $\mathcal{F} \cong \mathcal{G}$  if there is some morphism  $f : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ , and  $g : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{F}$  with  $f(g(x)) = g(f(x)) = x$ .

**Theorem 8.3.** If  $\text{char}(R) = 0$ , then any formal group  $\mathcal{F}$  over  $R$  is isomorphic to  $\widehat{\mathbb{G}}_a$  over  $R \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ .

More precisely:

1. There is a unique power series  $\log : T \mapsto T + \frac{a_2}{2}T^2 + \frac{a_3}{3}T^3 + \dots$  with  $a_i \in R$ , such that

$$\log(F(x, y)) = \log(x) + \log(y) \quad (*)$$

2. There is a unique power series  $\exp : T \mapsto T + \frac{b_2}{2!}T^2 + \frac{b_3}{3!}T^3 + \dots$  with  $b_i \in R$  such that

$$\exp(\log(T)) = \log(\exp(T)) = T$$

*Proof.*

1. Notation:  $F_1(x, y) = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x}(x, y)$  (via formal differentiation).

For uniqueness, let  $p(T) = \frac{d}{dT} \log(T) = 1 + a_2T + a_3T^2 + \dots$

Differentiating (\*) with respect to  $x$ , we get:  $p(F(x, y))F_1(x, y) = p(x) + 0$ . Setting  $x = 0$ , we get  $p(y)F_1(0, y) = 1$ , and hence  $p(y) = F_1(0, y)^{-1}$ , and hence  $p$  is uniquely determined, so  $a_2, a_3, \dots$  are uniquely determined. But then  $\log$  is uniquely determined.

For existence, let  $p(T) = F_1(0, T)^{-1} = 1 + a_2T + a_3T^2 + \dots$ , where  $a_i \in R$ .

Integrating up, we let  $\log(T) = T + \frac{a_2}{2}T^2 + \frac{a_3}{3}T^3 + \dots$ . We now check it satisfied (\*).

$$\begin{aligned} F(F(x, y), z) &= F(x, F(y, z)) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} F(F(x, y), z) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} F(x, F(y, z)) \\ F_1(F(x, y), z)F_1(x, y) &= F_1(x, F(y, z)) \\ F_1(F(0, y), z)F_1(0, y) &= F_1(0, F(y, z)) \\ F_1(y, z)F_1(0, y) &= F_1(0, F(y, z)) \\ F_1(y, z)p(y)^{-1} &= p(F(y, z))^{-1} \\ F_1(y, z)p(F(y, z)) &= p(y) \\ \log(F(y, z)) &= \log(y) + h(z) \end{aligned}$$

By symmetry between  $y, z$  we see that the constant of integration  $h(z)$  must be  $\log(z)$ .

For the second part, we will need the following lemma, which is a generalisation of the statement:

**Lemma 8.4.** *Let  $f(T) = aT + \dots \in R[[T]]$  with  $a \in R^\times$ . Then there is a unique  $g(T) = a^{-1}T + \dots \in R[[t]]$  such that  $f(g(T)) = g(f(T)) = T$ .*

*Proof.* We construct polynomials  $g_n(T) \in R[T]$  such that  $f(g_n(T)) \equiv T \pmod{T^{n+1}}$  and  $g_{n+1}(T) \equiv g_n(T) \pmod{T^{n+1}}$ . Then we will set  $g(T) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g_n(T)$ , satisfying  $f(g(T)) = T$ .

This is done inductively. To start with,  $g_1(T) = a^{-1}T$ . Then  $f(g_1(T)) = T + T^2(\dots) \equiv T \pmod{T^2}$ .

Now suppose  $n \geq 1$  and  $g_{n-1}(T)$  exists.

Then  $f(g_{n-1}(T)) \equiv T + bT^n \pmod{T^{n+1}}$ . Let  $g_n(T) = g_{n-1}(T) + \lambda T^n$ , where  $\lambda \in R$  to be chosen later.

Then  $f(g_n(T)) = f(g_{n-1}(T) + \lambda T^n) \equiv f(g_{n-1}(T)) + \lambda aT^n \pmod{T^{n+1}} \equiv T + (b + \lambda a)T^n \pmod{T^{n+1}}$ .

So pick  $\lambda = -ba^{-1}$ .

This gives  $g(T)$  with  $f(g(T)) = T$ .

Applying the same argument, we get  $h(T)$  such that  $g(h(T)) = T$ .

Then  $f(T) = f(g(h(T))) = h(T)$ , and so  $g$  is as required.  $\square$

2. We now only have to show that the  $b_n \in R$  (not just in  $R \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ ). See example sheet 2 for this.  $\square$

Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a formal group (e.g.  $\widehat{\mathbb{G}}_a, \widehat{\mathbb{G}}_m, \widehat{E}$ ), given by a power series  $F \in R[x, y]$ , and suppose that  $R$  is  $I$ -adically complete. Then for  $x, y \in I$ , put  $x \oplus_{\mathcal{F}} y = F(x, y) \in I$ . Then  $\mathcal{F} = (I, \oplus_{\mathcal{F}})$  is an abelian group.

For example,  $\widehat{\mathbb{G}}_a(I) = (I, +)$ ,  $\widehat{\mathbb{G}}_m(I) = (1 + I, \times)$ , and in 8.2, we saw  $\widehat{E}(I) \leq E(K)$ .

**Corollary 8.5.** Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a formal group over  $R$ , and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Suppose  $n \in R^\times$ . Then:

1.  $[n] : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathcal{F}$  is an isomorphism.
2. If  $R$  is complete with respect to  $I$ , then  $\mathcal{F}(I) \xrightarrow{\times n} \mathcal{F}(I)$  is an isomorphism.

In particular,  $\mathcal{F}(I)$  has no  $n$ -torsion.

*Proof.* We have  $[1](T) = T$ ,  $[n](T) = F([n-1]T, T)$  for  $n \geq 2$ . For  $n < 0$ , use  $[-1](T) = \iota(T)$ .

Induction gives us  $[n](T) = nT + \dots$ , and so by 8.4,  $[n]$  is an isomorphism.  $\square$

## 9 Elliptic Curves over Local Fields

Let  $K$  be a field, complete with respect to the discrete valuation  $v : K^\times \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ . Then we define the valuation ring, or ring of integers, the set:

$$\mathcal{O}_K = \{x \in K^\times : v(x) \geq 0\} \cup \{0\}$$

Then  $\mathcal{O}_K^\times = \{x \in K^\times : v(x) = 0\}$ . There is a unique maximal ideal  $\pi\mathcal{O}_K$ , where  $v(\pi) = 1$ , and we define the residue field to be  $k = \mathcal{O}_K/\pi\mathcal{O}_K$ .

We assume  $\text{char } K = 0$ ,  $\text{char } k = p$ .

For example, if  $K = \mathbb{Q}_p$ ,  $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}_p$ ,  $\pi = p$ ,  $k = \mathbb{F}_p$ .

Let  $E/K$  be an elliptic curve. Then a Weierstrass equation for  $E$  with coefficients  $a_1, \dots, a_6 \in K$  is *integral* if  $a_i \in \mathcal{O}_K$ , and minimal if  $v(\Delta)$  is minimal among all integral Weierstrass equations for  $E$ .

Putting  $x = u^2x'$ ,  $y = u^3y'$  give  $a_i = u^i a'_i$ . So we can clear denominators, and hence every elliptic curve has an integral Weierstrass equation. Moreover, since  $a_i \in \mathcal{O}_K$ ,  $\Delta \in \mathcal{O}_K$ , and so  $v(\Delta) \geq 0$ , and hence we can pick a minimal Weierstrass equation.

If  $\text{char } k \neq 2, 3$  then there is a minimal Weierstrass equation of the form  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ .

**Lemma 9.1.** Let  $E/K$  have integral Weierstrass equation

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

Let  $0 \neq P = (x, y) \in E(K)$ . Then either  $x, y \in \mathcal{O}_K$  or  $v(x) = -2s$ ,  $v(y) = -3s$  for some  $s \geq 1$ .

Compare this to example sheet 1, question 5.

*Proof.* If  $v(x) \geq 0$ , then consider  $y$ .

If  $v(y) < 0$ , then  $v(\text{LHS}) < 0$ , but  $v(\text{RHS}) \geq 0$ , and hence  $x, y \in \mathcal{O}_K$ .

Now if  $v(x) < 0$ , then  $v(\text{LHS}) \geq \min(2v(y), v(x) + v(y), v(y))$   
 $v(\text{RHS}) = v(x^3) = 3v(x)$ .

Hence  $v(y) < v(x)$ . But then  $v(\text{LHS}) = 2v(y)$ , and hence  $3v(x) = 2v(y)$ .  $\square$

If  $K$  is complete, then  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is complete with respect to the ideal  $\pi^r\mathcal{O}_K$  for any  $r \geq 1$ .

Fix a minimal Weierstrass equation for  $E/K$ , and hence a formal group  $\widehat{E}$  over  $\mathcal{O}_K$ .

Take  $I = \pi^r \mathcal{O}_K$  in 8.2, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{E}(\pi^r \mathcal{O}_K) &= \left\{ (x, y) \in E(K) : -\frac{x}{y}, -\frac{1}{y} \in \pi^r \mathcal{O}_K \right\} \cup \{0\} \\ &= \left\{ (x, y) \in E(K) : v\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) \geq r \text{ \& } v\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) \geq r \right\} \cup \{0\} \\ &= \left\{ (x, y) \in E(K) : v(x) = -2s, v(y) = -3s, s \geq r \right\} \cup \{0\} \\ &= \left\{ (x, y) \in E(K) : v(x) \leq -2r, v(y) \leq -3r \right\} \cup \{0\}\end{aligned}$$

By 8.2, this is a subgroup of  $E(K)$ , say  $E_r(K)$ . We have a chain

$$\dots \subset E_3(K) \subset E_2(K) \subset E_1(K)$$

More generally, for  $\mathcal{F}$  a formal group over  $\mathcal{O}_K$ , we get

$$\dots \subset \mathcal{F}(\pi^3 \mathcal{O}_K) \subset \mathcal{F}(\pi^2 \mathcal{O}_K) \subset \mathcal{F}(\pi \mathcal{O}_K)$$

We will show that  $\mathcal{F}(\pi^r \mathcal{O}_K) \cong (\mathcal{O}_K, +)$  for  $r$  sufficiently large, and  $\mathcal{F}(\pi^r \mathcal{O}_K)/\mathcal{F}(\pi^{r+1} \mathcal{O}_K) \cong (k, +)$ .

**Theorem 9.2.** *Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a formal group over  $\mathcal{O}_K$ , and let  $e = v(p)$ . If  $r > \frac{e}{p-1}$ , then:*

$$\mathcal{F}(\pi^r \mathcal{O}_K) \cong \widehat{\mathbb{G}}_a(\pi^r \mathcal{O}_K)$$

via the log map, with inverse given by exp.

Note that  $\widehat{\mathbb{G}}_a(\pi^r \mathcal{O}_K) = (\pi^r \mathcal{O}_K, +) \cong (\mathcal{O}_K, +)$ .

*Proof.* For  $x \in \pi^r \mathcal{O}_K$ , we must check that the power series exp, log converge.

Recall  $\exp(T) = T + \frac{b_2}{2!}T^2 + \frac{b_3}{3!}T^3 + \dots$ , where  $b_i \in \mathcal{O}_K$ .

Claim:  $v_p(n!) \leq \frac{n-1}{p-1}$ .

To see this:  $v_p(n!) = \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \lfloor \frac{n}{p^r} \rfloor < \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{p^r} = \frac{n}{p-1}$ .

So  $(p-1)v_p(n!) < n$ , and as both are integers,  $(p-1)v_p(n!) \leq n-1$ .

Now  $v\left(\frac{b_n x^n}{n!}\right) \geq nr - e \frac{n-1}{p-1} = (n-1)\left(r - \frac{e}{p-1}\right) + r$

This is always  $\geq r$  as  $r > \frac{e}{p-1}$ , and goes to infinity as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Hence  $\exp(x)$  converges, and belongs to  $\pi^r \mathcal{O}_K$ . A similar argument applies for log.  $\square$

**Lemma 9.3.** *We have  $\frac{\mathcal{F}(\pi^r \mathcal{O}_K)}{\mathcal{F}(\pi^{r+1} \mathcal{O}_K)} \cong (k, +)$  for all  $r \geq 1$ .*

*Proof.* By definition of a formal group,  $F(x, y) = x + y + xy(\dots)$ . So if  $x, y \in \mathcal{O}_K$ , then:

$$F(\pi^r x, \pi^r y) = \pi^r(x + y) + \pi^{2r}(xy)(\dots) \equiv \pi^r(x + y) \pmod{\pi^{r+1}}$$

So  $\mathcal{F}(\pi^r \mathcal{O}_K) \rightarrow (k, +); (\pi^r x) \mapsto (x \pmod{\pi})$  is a surjective group homomorphism, with kernel  $\mathcal{F}(\pi^{r+1} \mathcal{O}_K)$ , and so apply the first isomorphism theorem.  $\square$

So we have a filtration:

$$(O_K, +) \cong \mathcal{F}(\pi^r O_K) \supseteq \dots \supseteq \mathcal{F}(\pi^2 O_K) \supseteq \mathcal{F}(\pi O_K)$$

where we have equality on the left is  $r > \frac{e}{p-1}$ , and each quotient is  $(k, +)$ .

**Corollary.** If  $|k| < \infty$ , then  $\mathcal{F}(\pi O_K)$  has a subgroup of finite index isomorphic to  $O_K$  under addition.

As a point of notation, when we have the map  $O_K \rightarrow O_K/\pi O_K$ , we write  $x \mapsto \tilde{x}$ , and call this reduction mod  $\pi$ .

**Proposition 9.4.** Let  $E/K$  be an elliptic curve. The reduction mod  $\pi$  of any two minimal Weierstrass equations for  $E$  define isomorphic curves over  $k$ .

*Proof.* Say the Weierstrass equations are related by  $[u; r, s, t]; u \in K^\times; r, s, t \in K$ .

Then  $\Delta_1 = u^{12} \Delta_2$ . Both equations are minimal, so  $v(\Delta_1) = v(\Delta_2)$ , and hence  $v(u) = 0, u \in O_K^\times$ .

Transformation formulae for  $a_i$  and  $b_i$ , together with the fact that the valuation ring is integrally closed, give that  $r, s, t \in O_K$ . The Weierstrass equations for the reduction mod  $\pi$  are related by  $[\tilde{u}; \tilde{r}, \tilde{s}, \tilde{t}]$ .  $\square$

**Definition.** The reduction  $\tilde{E}/k$  of  $E/K$  is defined by the reduction of a minimal Weierstrass equation, and hence is well-defined up to isomorphism by the previous proposition.

We say  $E$  has *good reduction* if  $\tilde{E}$  is non-singular, i.e. is an elliptic curve. Otherwise, it is *bad*.

For an integral Weierstrass equation,  $v(\Delta) = 0 \implies$  good reduction.

If  $0 < v(\Delta) < 12$ , then we must have a minimal Weierstrass equation, and we get bad reduction.

If  $v(\Delta) \geq 12$ , beware that the equation might not be minimal.

There is a well defined map from  $\mathbb{P}^2(K) \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^2(k); (x : y : z) \mapsto (\tilde{x} : \tilde{y} : \tilde{z})$ , when we choose representatives of  $(x : y : z)$  with  $\min(v(x), v(y), v(z)) = 0$ .

We restrict this map to give a map  $E(K) \rightarrow \tilde{E}(k); P \rightarrow \tilde{P}$ . If  $P = (x, y) \in E(K)$ , then by 9.1, either  $x, y \in O_K$  or  $v(x) = -2s, v(y) = -3s$ . In the first case  $\tilde{P} = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$ . In the second, we write  $P = (\pi^{3s}x : \pi^{3s}y : \pi^{3s})$ , so  $\tilde{P} = (0 : 1 : 0)$ .

Therefore  $E_1(K) = \hat{E}(\pi O_K) = \{P \in E(K) : \tilde{P} = 0\}$ , and we call it the *kernel of reduction*.

$$\text{Let } \tilde{E}_{ns} = \begin{cases} \tilde{E} & \text{if } E \text{ has good reduction} \\ \tilde{E} \setminus \{p\} & \text{if } \tilde{E} \text{ has a singular point } p \end{cases}$$

The chord and tangent process still defines a group law on  $\tilde{E}_{ns}$ . In cases of bad reduction, we get  $\tilde{E}_{ns} \cong \mathbb{G}_a$  or  $\mathbb{G}_m$  over  $k$ , or possibly only over a quadratic extension of  $k$ . We call these cases additive and multiplicative reduction.

For simplicity, suppose  $\text{char}(k) \neq 2$ . Then  $\tilde{E} : y^2 = f(x)$  for  $f$  monic cubic. Then  $\tilde{E}$  singular  $\iff f$  has a repeated root. The cases of double root, triple root correspond to multiplicative, additive reduction respectively.

For multiplicative case, see example sheet 3. Here, we'll illustrate the additive case. We have a triple root, so take  $y^2 = x^3$ . Then we have an isomorphism

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{E}_{ns} &\rightarrow \mathbb{G}_a \\ (x, y) &\mapsto \frac{x}{y} \\ (t^{-2}, t^{-3}) &\mapsto t \\ \infty &\mapsto 0\end{aligned}$$

Let  $P_1, P_2, P_3$  lie on the line  $ax + by = 1$ . Write  $P_i = (x_i, y_i)$ ,  $t_i = \frac{x_i}{y_i}$ . Then  $x_i^3 = y_i^2 = y_i^2(ax_i + by_i)$ , and so  $t_1, t_2, t_3$  are the roots of  $X^3 - aX - b = 0$ . Looking at the coefficient of  $X^2$ , we have  $t_1 + t_2 + t_3 = 0$ .

**Definition.**  $E_0(K) := \{P \in E(K) : \tilde{P} \in \tilde{E}_{ns}(k)\}$ .

**Proposition 9.5.**  $E_0(K)$  is a subgroup of  $E(K)$ , and reduction mod  $\pi$  is a surjective group homomorphism from  $E_0(K) \rightarrow \tilde{E}_{ns}(k)$ .

*Proof.* For the group homomorphism part, a line  $\ell$  in  $\mathbb{P}^2$  defined over  $K$  has equation

$$\ell : aX + bY + cZ = 0 \quad a, b, c \in K$$

We may assume  $\min(v(a), v(b), v(c)) = 0$ . Reduction mod  $\pi$  gives the line  $\tilde{\ell}$  with equation

$$\tilde{\ell} : \tilde{a}X + \tilde{b}Y + \tilde{c}Z = 0$$

If  $P_1, P_2, P_3 \in E(K)$  with  $P_1 + P_2 + P_3 = 0$ , then these points lie on a line  $\ell$ , and then  $\tilde{P}_1, \tilde{P}_2, \tilde{P}_3 \in \tilde{E}(k)$  lie on the line  $\tilde{\ell}$ .

If  $\tilde{P}_1, \tilde{P}_2 \in \tilde{E}_{ns}(k)$ , then  $\tilde{P}_3 \in \tilde{E}_{ns}(k)$ , and if  $P_1, P_2 \in E_0(K)$ , then  $P_3 \in E_0(K)$ , and  $\tilde{P}_1 + \tilde{P}_2 + \tilde{P}_3 = 0$ .

As an exercise, check this still works if the points are not all distinct.

For surjectivity, let  $f(x, y) = y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y - (x^3 + \dots)$ . Let  $\tilde{P} \in \tilde{E}_{ns}(k) \setminus \{0\}$ , say  $(\tilde{x}_0, \tilde{y}_0)$  for some  $x_0, y_0$  in  $\mathcal{O}_K$ .

Since  $\tilde{P}$  is non-singular, either

- (i)  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{\pi}$
- (ii)  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{\pi}$

If (i), we put  $g(t) = f(t, y_0) \in \mathcal{O}_K[t]$ . Then  $g(x_0) \equiv 0 \pmod{\pi}$ ,  $g'(x_0) \in \mathcal{O}_K^\times$ . Then Hensel's lemma tells us there is some  $b \in \mathcal{O}_K$  with  $g(b) = 0, b \equiv x_0 \pmod{\pi}$ .

Then  $P = (b, y_0) \in E(K)$  has reduction  $\tilde{P}$ .

Case (ii) is similar. □

Recall for  $r \geq 1$ , we have  $E_r(K) = \{(x, y) \in E(K) : v(x) \leq -2r, v(y) \leq -3r\} \cup \{0\}$ . Then:

$$\mathcal{O}_K \cong E_{\lceil e/(p-1) \rceil}(K) \supset \dots \supset E_2(K) \supset E_1(K) \cong \widehat{E}(\pi\mathcal{O}_K) \subset E_0(K) \subset E(K)$$

We know the quotients  $E_i(K)/E_{i+1}(K) \cong (k, +)$  for  $i \geq 1$ . The above gives  $E_0(K)/E_1(K) \cong \widetilde{E}_{ns}(k)$ . The only quotient left to understand is  $E(K)/E_0(K)$ .

**Lemma 9.6.** *If  $|k| < \infty$ , then  $E_0(K) \subset E(K)$  has finite index.*

*Proof.* A compactness argument - see below.  $\square$

**Theorem 9.7.** *If  $[K : \mathbb{Q}_p] < \infty$ , then  $E(K)$  contains a subgroup of finite index, isomorphic as a group to  $(\mathcal{O}_K, +)$ .*

*Proof.*  $|k| < \infty$ , so this follows from the above.  $\square$

**Lemma 9.8.** *If  $|k| < \infty$ , then  $\mathbb{P}^n(K)$  is compact with respect to the  $\pi$ -adic topology.*

*Proof.*  $|k| < \infty$ , so  $\mathcal{O}_K/\pi^r \mathcal{O}_K$  is also finite for  $r \geq 1$ . Hence

$$\mathcal{O}_K \cong \varprojlim_r \mathcal{O}_K/\pi^r \mathcal{O}_K$$

is compact.

$\mathbb{P}^n(K)$  is the union of compact sets of the form

$$\{(a_0 : a_1 : \dots : a_{i-1} : 1 : a_{i+1} : \dots : a_n) : a_j \in \mathcal{O}_K\}$$

and hence is compact.  $\square$

*Proof of 9.6.*  $E(K) \subset \mathbb{P}^2(K)$  is a closed subset, so  $(E(K), +)$  is a compact topological group.

If  $\widetilde{E}$  has a singular point  $(\widetilde{x}_0, \widetilde{y}_0)$  then  $E(K) \setminus E_0(K) = \{(x, y) \in E(K) : v(x - x_0) \geq 1, v(y - y_0) \geq 1\}$ , is a closed subset of  $E(K)$ , and so  $E_0(K)$  is an open subgroup of  $E(K)$ , so any coset is also open.

The cosets of  $E_0(K)$  form an open cover of  $E(K)$ , hence have a finite subcover, and so there are only finitely many cosets.

Hence  $[E(K) : E_0(K)] < \infty$ .  $\square$

We call this index  $c_K(E)$ , the *Tamagawa number*.

**Remarks.**

1. Good reduction  $\implies c_K(E) = 1$ , but the converse is false.
2. It can be shown that either  $c_K(E) = v(\Delta)$  or  $c_K(E) \leq 4$ , as long as we work with a minimal Weierstrass equation.

Let  $[K : \mathbb{Q}_p]$  be finite, and  $L/K$  finite, with residue fields  $k', k$  (corresponding to  $L, K$  respectively), with  $f = [k' : k]$  and ramification index  $e$ . From local fields, we know  $[L : K] = ef$ .

If  $L/K$  is Galois then there is a natural group homomorphism  $\text{Gal}(L/K) \rightarrow \text{Gal}(k'/k)$ , and this map is surjective, with kernel of order  $e$ . We say the extension is *unramified* if  $e = 1$ , so if these Galois groups are isomorphic.

For each  $m \geq 1$ ,  $k$  has a unique extension of degree  $m$ , called  $k_m$  (not standard notation).  $K$  has a unique unramified extension of degree  $m$ , called  $K_m$ . Note that then the residue field of  $K_m$  is  $k_m$ . These extensions are Galois with cyclic Galois group.



We then define  $K^{nr} = \bigcup_{m \geq 1} K_m$  inside  $\bar{K}$ , the maximal unramified extension.

**Theorem 9.9.** *Suppose  $[K : \mathbb{Q}_p] < \infty$ , and  $E/K$  has good reduction and  $p \nmid n$ . If  $P \in E(K)$  then  $K([n]^{-1}P)/K$  is unramified.*

Notation:  $[n]^{-1}P = \{Q \in E(\bar{K}) : nQ = P\}$ , and  $K(P_1, \dots, P_r) = K(x_1, \dots, x_r, y_1, \dots, y_r)$ ,  $P_i = (x_i, y_i)$ .

*Proof.* For each  $m \geq 1$ , there is a short exact sequence  $0 \rightarrow K_1(K_m) \rightarrow E(K_m) \rightarrow \tilde{E}(k_m) \rightarrow 0$ .

Taking union over all  $m$  gives a commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & E_1(K^{nr}) & \longrightarrow & E(K^{nr}) & \longrightarrow & \tilde{E}(\bar{k}) \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow \times n & & \downarrow \times n & & \downarrow \times n \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & E_1(K^{nr}) & \longrightarrow & E(K^{nr}) & \longrightarrow & \tilde{E}(\bar{k}) \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

The first vertical arrow is an isomorphism by 8.5, as  $n \in O_K^\times$ .

The last vertical arrow is surjective by 2.8, with kernel  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^2$  by 6.5, as  $p \nmid n$ .

The snake lemma tells us  $E(K^{nr})[n] \cong (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^2$ ,  $E(K^{nr})/nE(K^{nr}) = 0$ .

So if  $P \in E(K)$ , then multiplication by  $n$  is surjective, and there is  $Q$  in  $E(K^{nr})$  with  $nQ = P$ , and  $[n]^{-1}P = \{Q + T : T \in E[n]\} \subset E(K^{nr})$ .

So  $K([n]^{-1}P) \subset K^{nr}$ , and  $K([n]^{-1}P)/K$  is unramified. □