Abelian varieties over finite fields

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1 Definition and properties of abelian varieties

We fix a field k, and let \overline{k} be an algebraic closure of k. We recall the definition and basic properties of abelian varieties. We give some indications as to how the theory is developed, but omit most of the arguments....

1.1 Definition

Definition 1.1. A algebraic variety X over k is a separated k-scheme X of finite type, which is geometrically integral (i.e. $X \times_{\operatorname{Spec}(k)} \operatorname{Spec}(\overline{k})$ is integral). We say that X is complete if it is proper.

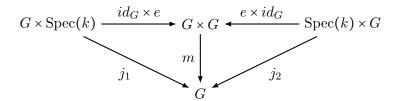
Definition 1.2. A group variety over a field k is a k-variety G together with k-morphisms $m: G \times G \to G$ (the group law) and $i: G \to G$ (the inverse) and a k-rational point $e \in G(k)$ (the identity element) such that we have the following commutative diagrams:

(i) Associativity of the group law:

$$G \times G \times G \xrightarrow{id_{G \times G \times G}} (G \times G) \times G \xrightarrow{m \times id_{G}} G \times G$$

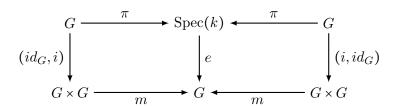
$$id_{G \times G \times G} \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

(ii) Identity element:



where $j_1: \operatorname{Spec}(k) \times G \to G$ and $j_2: G \times \operatorname{Spec}(k) \to G$ are the projection maps on G.

(iii) Existence of inverse element:



where $\pi: G \to \operatorname{Spec}(k)$ is the structure morphism.

Definition 1.3. An abelian variety A defined over k is a k-group variety which is complete as a k-variety.

1.2 Commutativity

We begin by explaining the most basic fact, which is commutativity. The main ingredient in proving this is the following general fact:

Lemma 1.4 (Rigidity Lemma). Let X be a complete variety over k, and Y and Z be arbitrary varieties. Let $f: X \times Y \to Z$ be a map of varieties. Suppose there exists $x_0 \in X$ and $y_0 \in Y$ such that the restrictions of f to $X \times \{y_0\}$ and $\{x_0\} \times Y$ are constant. Then f is constant.

Corollary 1.5. Let X and Y be abelian varieties and let $f: X \to Y$ be any map of varieties such that f(0) = 0. Then f is a morphism of abelian varieties, i.e., f respects the group structure.

Proof. Consider the map

$$h: X \times X \to Y$$
$$(x,y) \mapsto f(x+y) - f(x) - f(y).$$

Then h(x,0) = h(0,x) = 0 for all $x \in X$. So, by the Rigidity Lemma h = 0, meaning that f is a homomorphism.

Corollary 1.6. An abelian variety is commutative.

Proof. The map $x \mapsto -x$ takes 0 to 0 and is therefore a homomorphism, which implies commutativity.

1.3 Theorem of the cube

Theorem 1.7 (Theorem of the cube). Let X, Y and Z be varieties such that X and Y complete. Let $x_0 \in X, y_0 \in Y$ and $z_0 \in Z$ be points. Let \mathscr{L} be a line bundle on $X \times Y \times Z$ such that the restrictions of \mathscr{L} to $X \times Y \times \{z_0\}, X \times \{y_0\} \times Z$ and $\{x_0\} \times Y \times Z$ are trivial. Then \mathscr{L} is trivial.

Corollary 1.8. Let A be an abelian variety. Let $\pi_i: A \times A \times A \to A$ denote the projection map on the i-th factor, and set $\pi_{ij} := \pi_i + \pi_j$ and $\pi_{123} := \pi_1 + \pi_2 + \pi_3$. Let \mathcal{L} be a line bundle on A. Then the line bundle

$$\mathscr{L}' \coloneqq \pi_{123}^*\mathscr{L} \otimes \pi_{12}^*\mathscr{L}^{-1} \otimes \pi_{13}^*\mathscr{L}^{-1} \otimes \pi_{23}^*\mathscr{L}^{-1} \otimes \pi_1^*\mathscr{L} \otimes \pi_2^*\mathscr{L} \otimes \pi_3^*\mathscr{L}$$

on $A \times A \times A$ is trivial.

Proof. This follows immediately from the theorem of the cube. For example, if we restrict to $A \times A \times \{0\}$ then $\pi_{123}^* \mathscr{L} = \pi_{12}^* \mathscr{L}$, $\pi_{13}^* \mathscr{L} = \pi_1^* \mathscr{L}$, and $\pi_3^* \mathscr{L} = 1$, so all factors cancel.

Corollary 1.9. Let A be an abelian variety, and X an arbitrary variety. Let $f, g, h : X \to A$ be maps of varieties, and \mathcal{L} a line bundle on A. Then the line bundle

$$\mathcal{L}' \coloneqq (f+g+h)^*\mathcal{L} \otimes (f+g)^*\mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes (f+h)^*\mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes (g+h)^*\mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes f^*\mathcal{L} \otimes g^*\mathcal{L} \otimes h^*\mathcal{L}$$

on X is trivial.

Proof. This follows from Corollary 1.8 by considering the map $X \to A \times A \times A$ given by (f,g,h).

1.4 Theorem of the square

Theorem 1.10 (Theorem of the square). Let A be an abelian variety and \mathcal{L} a line bundle on A, and $x, y \in A(\overline{k})$. Then $t_{x+y}^* \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L} = t_x^* \mathcal{L} \otimes t_y^* \mathcal{L}$. (Here t_x denotes translation by x.)

Proof. Apply Corollary 1.9 with $f = t_x$ (constant map), $g = t_y$, and $h = id_A$.

Define $\operatorname{Pic}(A)$ to be the set of isomorphism classes of line bundles on A. For a line bundle \mathscr{L} , let $\phi_{\mathscr{L}}: A(\overline{k}) \to \operatorname{Pic}(A)$ be the map $\phi_{\mathscr{L}}(x) = t_x^* \mathscr{L} \otimes \mathscr{L}^{-1}$. The theorem of the square states exactly that $\phi_{\mathscr{L}}$ is a group homomorphism.

1.5 Isogenies

Proposition 1.11. Let $f: A \to B$ be a homomorphism of abelian varieties. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- (a) f is surjective and dim(A) = dim(B);
- (b) $\ker(f)$ is a finite group scheme and $\dim(A) = \dim(B)$;
- (c) f is a finite, flat and surjective morphism.

Definition 1.12. Let $f: A \to B$ be a homomorphism of abelian varieties. We say that f is an isogeny if it satisfies the three equivalent conditions (a), (b) and (c) in Proposition 1.11. The degree of an isogeny f is [k(A):k(B)], the degree of the function field extension k(A)/k(B). (Note that we have a homomorphism $k(B) \to k(A)$, since an isogeny is surjective.)

Definition 1.13. Let $f: A \to B$ be an isogeny. Then, we say that

- (i) f is separable if k(A)/k(B) is a separable extension.
- (ii) f is (purely) inseparable if k(A)/k(B) is a (purely) inseparable extension.

Proposition 1.14. Let $f: A \to C$ be an isogeny. Then, there exist

- (i) an abelian variety B;
- (ii) an inseparable isogeny $g: A \rightarrow B$; and
- (iii) a separable isogeny $h: B \to C$

such that $f = h \circ g$. This factorisation is unique up to isomorphism. In other words, if $f = h' \circ g' : A \to B' \to C$ is a second such factorisation then there is an isomorphism $\alpha : B \to B'$ such that $g' = \alpha \circ g$ and $h = h' \circ \alpha$.

1.6 Structure of torsion

For an integer n, let $[n]_A$ (or simply [n]) be the morphism

$$A(\overline{k}) \to A(\overline{k})$$

 $x \mapsto nx.$

Proposition 1.15. Let A be abelian variety, \mathcal{L} a line bundle on A, and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then, we have

$$[n]^* \mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}^{(n^2+n)/2} \otimes [-1]^* \mathcal{L}^{(n^2-n)/2}.$$

In particular,

- (i) if \mathcal{L} is symmetric (i.e. $[-1]^*\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}$) then $[n]^*\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}^{n^2}$;
- (ii) if \mathcal{L} is anti-symmetric (i.e. $[-1]^*\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}^{-1}$) then $[n]^*\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}^n$.

Proof. Applying Corollary 1.9 to the maps [n], [1], and [-1], we see that

$$\mathcal{L}'\coloneqq \lceil n\rceil^*\mathcal{L}\otimes \lceil n+1\rceil^*\mathcal{L}^{-1}\otimes \lceil n-1\rceil^*\mathcal{L}^{-1}\otimes \lceil n\rceil^*\mathcal{L}\otimes \mathcal{L}\otimes \lceil -1\rceil^*\mathcal{L}$$

is trivial. In other words, we have

$$[n+1]^*\mathcal{L} = [n]^*\mathcal{L}^2 \otimes [n-1]^*\mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes \mathcal{L} \otimes [-1]^*\mathcal{L}.$$

The result now follows by induction.

Theorem 1.16. Let A be an abelian variety of dimension g, and n > 0 an integer. Then $[n]_A : A \to A$ is an isogeny; it is étale if and only if $(\operatorname{char}(k), n) = 1$.

Proof. One can show that abelian varieties are projective. Let \mathscr{L} be an ample line bundle on A. Replacing \mathscr{L} by $\mathscr{L} \otimes [-1]^* \mathscr{L}$, we can assume \mathscr{L} is symmetric. Since $[n]^* \mathscr{L} = \mathscr{L}^{n^2}$, it is ample. However, the restriction of this to the n-torsion is obviously trivial. Since the n-torsion is a complete variety on which the trivial bundle is ample, it must be finite. This implies that [n] is surjective, by reasoning with dimension.

Proposition 1.17. The degree of $[n]_A$ is n^{2g} .

Proof. Let $f: X \to Y$ be a finite map of complete varieties of degree d. If D_1, \ldots, D_n are divisors on Y, where $n = \dim(X) = \dim(Y)$, then there is an equality of intersection numbers:

$$(f^*D_1\cdots f^*D_n)=d(D_1\cdots D_n).$$

Now, let D be an ample divisor such that $[-1]^*D$ is linearly equivalent to D (e.g., the divisor associated to the line bundle used above). Then $[n]^*D$ is linearly equivalent to n^2D . We thus find

$$\deg([n])(D\cdots D) = ((n^2D)\cdots (n^2D)) = n^{2g}(D\cdots D).$$

Since D is ample, $(D \cdots D) \neq 0$, and thus $\deg([n]) = n^{2g}$.

One can show that $[n]: A \to A$ induces multiplication by n on the tangent space. This shows that [n] is separable if and only if n is prime to the characteristic. Combined with the above (and the usual induction argument), we see that:

Corollary 1.18. If $(\operatorname{char}(k), n) = 1$, then $A[n](\overline{k})$ is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{2g}$.

Since [p] is not separable, $A[p](\overline{k})$ must have fewer than p^{2g} points. We will see later, when studying group schemes, that it can have at most p^g points.

Corollary 1.19. Let $f: A \to B$ be an isogeny of degree n. Then there exists an isogeny $g: B \to A$ such that $g \circ f = [n]_A$ and $f \circ g = [n]_B$.

2 The dual variety

2.1 Definition of the dual

Let k be an arbitrary field, and A an abelian variety defined over k. We define Pic(A) to be the set of isomorphism classes of line bundles on A. Then, we let $Pic^0(A)$ be the subgroup consisting of those line bundles $\mathscr L$ which are translation invariant, i.e., which satisfy $t_x^*(\mathscr L) \simeq \mathscr L$ for all $x \in A$. We define the following functor. For each variety T over k, let F(T) be the of isomorphism classes of line bundles $\mathscr L$ on $A \times T$ satisfying the following two conditions:

- (a) for all $t \in T$, the restriction of \mathcal{L} to $A \times \{t\}$ belongs to $Pic^0(A)$; and
- (b) the restriction of \mathcal{L} to $\{0\} \times T$ is trivial.

We see that $F(k) = \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$. We define the *dual abelian variety* A^{\vee} to be the variety that represents F, if it exists. We will always assume that the dual variety A^{\vee} exists. Then, it automatically comes with a universal bundle \mathscr{P} on $A \times A^{\vee}$, which is called the *Poincaré bundle*.

2.2 Construction of the dual

Let \mathcal{L} be an ample bundle on A. We then have the map

$$\phi_{\mathscr{L}}: A \to \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$$

$$x \mapsto [t_{x}^{*}\mathscr{L} \otimes \mathscr{L}^{-1}].$$

By the theorem of the square, the image is in $\operatorname{Pic}^0(A)$. One can prove the map $\phi_{\mathscr{L}}$ it is surjective, and has finite kernel $K(\mathscr{L})$. In fact, $K(\mathscr{L})$ has a natural structure of a group scheme. This suggests that A^{\vee} should be the quotient $A/K(\mathscr{L})$, and one can show that this is indeed the case.

Proposition 2.1. Let $f: A \to B$ be a homomorphism of abelian varieties over k, and \mathscr{P}_A and \mathscr{P}_B be the Poincaré line bundles on A and B, respectively. Then, there exists an induced homomorphism $f^{\vee}: B^{\vee} \to A^{\vee}$, called the dual or transpose of f. Thus, f^{\vee} is the unique homomorphism such that

$$(id_A \times f^{\vee})^* \mathscr{P}_A \simeq (f \times id_B)^* \mathscr{P}_B$$

as line bundles on $A \times B^{\vee}$ with rigidification along $\{0\} \times B^{\vee}$.

2.3 Polarisations

Definition 2.2. Let A be an abelian variety. A polarisation on A is an isogeny $\lambda: A \to A^{\vee}$ such that $\lambda_{\overline{k}}: A(\overline{k}) \to \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$ is given by $\lambda_{\overline{k}} = \phi_{\mathscr{L}}$ for some ample line bundle \mathscr{L} on A over \overline{k} . The degree of the polarisation λ is its degree as an isogeny. An abelian variety together with a polarisation is called a polarised abelian variety.

There is an obvious notion of morphisms of polarised abelian varieties. If λ has degree 1, then we say that (A, λ) is a *principally polarised* abelian variety.

3 Structure of the isogeny category

3.1 Poincaré reducibility

Theorem 3.1 (Poincaré reducibility). Let A be an abelian variety, and let B be an abelian subvariety. Then there exists an abelian subvariety C such that $B \cap C$ is finite and $B \times C \to A$ is an isogeny.

Proof. Choosing polarisations on A and A/B to identify them with their duals, the dual to the quotient map $A \to A/B$ is a map $A/B \to A$. We let C be its image. The properties are easy to verify.

We say that an abelian variety A is *simple* if the only abelian subvarieties of A are 0 and A.

Proof. Every abelian variety is isogenous to a product of simple varieties.

3.2 The isogeny category

Define a category **Isog** as follows. The objects are abelian varieties. For two abelian varieties A and B, we put

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Isog}}(A,B) = \operatorname{Hom}(A,B) \otimes \mathbb{Q}.$$

One can show that if $f: A \to B$ is an isogeny then there exists an isogeny $g: B \to A$ such that gf = [n], for some n; it follows that $\frac{1}{n}g$ is the inverse to f in **Isog**. Thus isogenies become isomorphisms in **Isog**.

It is not difficult to see that **Isog** is in fact an abelian category. The simple objects of this category are exactly the simple abelian varieties. Poincaré's theorem shows that **Isog** is semi-simple as an abelian category. From this formalism, and general facts about abelian varieties, we deduce two results:

- 1. The decomposition (up to isogeny) into a product of simple abelian varieties is unique (up to isogeny). (Reason: in any semi-simple abelian category, the decomposition into simples is unique up to isomorphism.)
- 2. If A is a simple abelian variety then $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ is a division algebra over \mathbb{Q} . (Reason: if A is a simple object in an abelian category and $\operatorname{End}(A)$ contains a field k, then it is a division algebra over k.)

4 Basic example: elliptic curves

We will assume throughout this section, that k is a field of characteristic different from 2.

4.1 Definition of an elliptic curve

Definition 4.1. Let $E: y^2 = f(x)$ be a cubic curve, where $f(x) = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c$. Then, the discriminant Δ_E of E is the discriminant Δ_f of the polynomial f:

$$\Delta_E := \Delta_f = -4a^3c + a^2b^2 + 18abc - 4b^3 - 27c^2.$$

Example 4.2. For a cubic curve $E: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$, $a, b \in k$, the discriminant $\Delta_E = -4a^3 - 27b^2$.

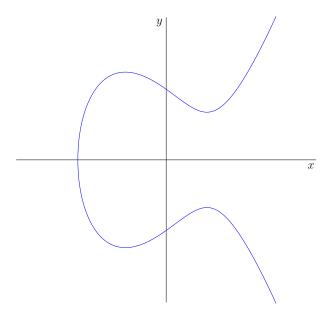


Figure 1: Real points of the elliptic curve $y^2 = x^3 - 8$

We can now give the definition of an elliptic curve.

Definition 4.3. Let k be a field with characteristic different from 2. An elliptic curve over k is a cubic curve $E: y^2 = f(x) = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c$, with $a, b, c \in k$, such that $\Delta_E \neq 0$.

The following lemma expresses the discriminant of a cubic polynomial in terms of its roots.

Lemma 4.4. Let $f(x) = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c$, with $a, b, c \in k$, and e_1, e_2, e_3 the roots of f in \overline{k} . Then the discriminant of f is given by

$$\Delta_f = [(e_1 - e_2)(e_2 - e_3)(e_1 - e_3)]^2.$$

A useful criteria to check whether a cubic is an elliptic curve.

Proposition 4.5. Let $E: y^2 = f(x)$ be a cubic curve, with $f(x) = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c$ and $a, b, c \in k$. Then, we have E is an elliptic curve $\iff f$ has **no** repeated roots $\iff \Delta_E \neq 0$.

Example 4.6. (a) The cubic $E: y^2 = x^3 - 2x + 1$ is an elliptic curve over \mathbb{Q} since $\Delta_E = -4(-2)^3 - 27(1) = 5 \neq 0$.

- (b) For $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ non-zero, the curve $E : y^2 = x^3 + c$ is an elliptic curve over \mathbb{Q} since $\Delta_E = -27c^2 \neq 0$. (See Figure 1 for the real locus of this curve.)
- (c) The curve $E: y^2 = x^3 + x^2 + 1$ is an elliptic curve over \mathbb{F}_3 . Definition 4.1 shows that $\Delta_E = -1 \neq 0 \in \mathbb{F}_3$. Alternatively, letting $f(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 1$, we see that $f'(x) = 3x^2 + 2x = 2x$ (char(\mathbb{F}_3) = 3). So $\gcd(f, f') = 1$, which implies that f has distinct roots.

10

4.2 Definition of the group law

The homogenisation of the curve E in Definition 4.3 is given by

$$E: Y^{2}Z = X^{3} + aX^{2}Z + bXZ^{2} + cZ^{3}.$$
(1)

The *only* point at infinity on E is [0:1:0], which we denote by ∞ from now on. We will see that this point is the *neutral* element in the group structure on E.

Definition 4.7. Let E be an elliptic curve over k, and k' a field containing k. The set of k'-rational points of E is the set of k'-rational points on the homogenisation of E, namely

$$E(k') := \{ [x : y : z] \in \mathbf{P}^2(k') : zy^2 = x^3 + ax^2z + bxz^2 + cz^3 \}.$$

Since $\mathbf{P}^2(k') = \mathbf{A}^2(k') \sqcup \{Z = 0\}$, and $\infty = [0:1:0]$ is the unique point at infinity, we can write

$$E(k') \coloneqq \{(x,y) \in K'^2 : y^2 = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c\} \sqcup \{\infty\}.$$

Example 4.8. Let $k = \mathbb{Q}$, and $E: y^2 = x^3 + 1$. The set of \mathbb{Q} -rational points $E(\mathbb{Q})$ is given by

$$E(\mathbb{Q}) = \{(-1,0), (0,\pm 1), (2,\pm 3)\} \cup \{\infty\}.$$

We have the natural inclusions $E(\mathbb{Q}) \subset E(\mathbb{R}) \subset E(\mathbb{C})$. (See Figure 3 for the sets $E(\mathbb{Q}) \subset E(\mathbb{R})$.)

Example 4.9. Let $E: y^2 = x^3 + 2x + 5$ be the curve over \mathbb{F}_{11} . Then, we have

$$E(\mathbb{F}_{11}) = \{(0, \pm 4), (3, \pm 4), (4, 0), (-3, \pm 4), (-2, \pm 2)\} \cup \{\infty\}.$$

Let $h \in k[x]$ be a polynomial of degree n. The number of roots of h counted with multiplicity in \overline{k} is n. The following theorem can be see as a generalisation of that statement to elliptic curves.

Theorem 4.10 (Bézout). Let k be a field, $E: y^2 = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c$ an elliptic curve over k, and $L \subset \mathbf{P}^1(\overline{k})$ a line. The set $L \cap E$ contains three points counted with multiplicity.

Let $L: \alpha x + \beta y + \gamma = 0$ be a line, with $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in k$. We want to find $L \cap E \subset \mathbf{P}^1(\overline{k})$, so we first homogenise $L: \alpha X + \beta Y + \gamma Z = 0$. Then we have two cases:

Case 1: The unique point infinity $\infty = [0:1:0] \in L \cap E$.

In that case, we see that $\alpha x + \beta y + \gamma z = 0$ implies that $\beta = 0$. This means that either:

- (a) L is the line at infinity Z = 0. In that case $P = \infty$ is the *only* point of intersection, hence has multiplicity *three*.
- (b) L is vertical line $\alpha X + \gamma Z = 0$ ($\alpha \neq 0$). The other points of intersection are $(x_0, \pm y_0)$, where $x_0 = -\frac{\gamma}{\alpha}$ and $y_0 = \sqrt{f(x_0)}$. If $y_0 = 0$, then we get a unique point $P = (x_0, 0)$ with multiplicity two; otherwise, we get two distinct points $P = (x_0, y_0)$ and $Q = (x_0, -y_0)$, with multiplicity one each. In either case, the point ∞ has multiplicity one.

Case 2: $L \cap E$ consists of three affine points counted with multiplicity.

(a) $L \cap E$ has two distinct points P and Q: In this case, L is a tangent to E at P or Q. The tangent point has multiplicity two, and the other point has multiplicity one.

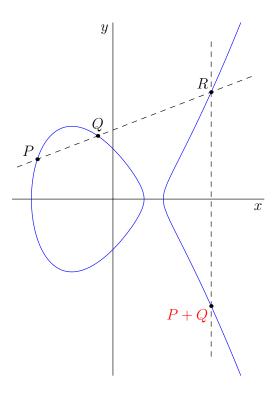


Figure 2: Group addition law

(b) $L \cap E$ has three disctint points P, Q and R. In that case, each point has multiplicity one. We are now ready to define the group structure on $E(\overline{k})$.

Definition 4.11. Let E be an elliptic curve over k, and

$$E(\overline{k}) = \{(x,y) \in \overline{k}^2 : y^2 = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c\} \sqcup \{\infty\}.$$

The addition law + on $E(\overline{k})$ is defined as follows:

- (i) The neutral element is ∞ ;
- (ii) If $P, Q, R \in E(\overline{k})$ are collinear, then $P + Q + R = \infty$ ($\Leftrightarrow P + Q = -R$).

In words, to obtain the sum P+Q, we first draw the line L through P and Q (if $P \neq Q$) or the tangent line (if P=Q), and let R be its third intersection point with $E(\overline{k})$. If $R=(x_R,y_R)$ is affine, then $P+Q=-R=(x_R,-y_R)$; otherwise, $P+Q=\infty$. (See Figure 2.)

Remark 4.12. By Definition 4.11 and the discussion preceding it, if P = (x, y) is affine, then the *negative* of P is -P = (x, -y) since (x, y) and (x, -y) are on a vertical line, which intersects E at ∞ .

Example 4.13. Let $E: y^2 = x^3 + 1$ over \mathbb{Q} be the curve in Example 4.8. Let P = (-1,0) and Q = (0,1). The equation of the line through P and Q is y = x + 1. So, we see that the point R = (2,3). The line through R and ∞ is the vertical line x = 2. It intersects E at (2,-3), so P + Q = (2,-3) (see Figure 3). Similarly, one can compute the sum of any two points in $E(\mathbb{Q})$.

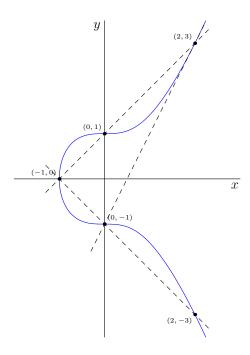


Figure 3: Euler cubic: $y^2 = x^3 + 1$

The theorem below says that Definition 4.11 makes $E(\bar{k})$ into an abelian group.

Theorem 4.14. Let E be an elliptic curve defined over a field K. Then, $E(\overline{k})$ is an abelian group under the operation +, with identity element ∞ (= [0:1:0]). In other words, we have

- $(i) \ P+Q=Q+P \ \forall P,Q\in E(\overline{k}) \ (commutativity).$
- (ii) $P + \infty = P \ \forall P \in E(\overline{k})$ (identity element).
- (iii) If P = (x, y), then -P = (x, -y) (opposite element).
- (iv) P + (Q + R) = (P + Q) + R, $\forall P, Q, R \in E(\overline{k})$ (associativity).

Proof. Properties (i)-(iii) follow easily from Definition 4.11 and the discussion preceding it. However, the last statement (iv) is very hard to prove, and beyond the scope of this course. \Box

4.3 Computing with the group law

We now give a more explicit description of the group law on $E(\overline{k})$.

Proposition 4.15. Let E be as above, and $P_1, P_2 \in E(\overline{k})$. Then $P_1 + P_2$ is given by

(1) If
$$P_1 = \infty$$
 then $P_1 + P_2 = P_2$; if $P_2 = \infty$, then $P_1 + P_2 = P_1$.

Assume that $P_1, P_2 \neq \infty$, so that $P_i = (x_i, y_i)$, i = 1, 2; then

(2) If
$$x_1 = x_2$$
 and $y_1 = -y_2$ then $P_1 + P_2 = \infty$.

(3) Set

$$\lambda \coloneqq \begin{cases} \frac{3x_1^2 + 2ax_1 + b}{2y_1}, & \text{if } x_1 = x_2 \text{ and } y_1 = y_2 \neq 0; \\ \frac{y_1 - y_2}{x_1 - x_2}, & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

Let
$$x_3 = \lambda^2 - a - x_1 - x_2$$
, $y_3 = y_1 + \lambda(x_3 - x_1)$ and $P_3 = (x_3, -y_3)$, then $P_1 + P_2 = P_3$.

Proof. We note that (1) and (2) are just a restatement of Theorem 4.14 (ii) and (iii). So we only need to prove (3). In that case, let $L: y = \lambda x + \nu$ be the line through P_1 , P_2 , and $R = (x_3, y_3)$ its 3rd point of intersection with E. If $P_1 = P_2$, then L is the tangent line at P_1 with $\lambda = \frac{3x_1^2 + 2ax_1 + b}{2y_1}$ and $\nu = y_1 - \lambda x_1$. Otherwise, L is the line with slope $\lambda = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - y_1}$ and x-intercept $\nu = y_1 - \lambda x_1 = y_2 - \lambda x_2$. The x-coordinates x_1, x_2 and x_3 of the points in $L \cap E$ (counted with multiplicity) satisfy the equation

$$(\lambda x + \nu)^2 = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c.$$

By moving all terms to the same side, expanding and then factorising, we get

$$x^{3} + (a - \lambda^{2})x^{2} + (b - 2\lambda\nu)x + c - \nu^{2} = (x - x_{1})(x - x_{2})(x - x_{3}) = 0.$$

By equating the terms of degree 2, we get $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = -(a - \lambda^2)$. From this, we recover $R = (x_3, y_3)$, which gives $P_1 + P_2 = P_3 = (x_3, -y_3)$.

Remark 4.16. From proof above, we note that if $x_i \in k$, then $y_i = \lambda x_i + \nu \in k$ and the intersection point (x_i, y_i) is defined over k. We also note that, if two of the roots x_1, x_2, x_3 are defined over k, then so is the third one since $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = -(a - \lambda^2) \in k$.

Example 4.17. Let $E: y^2 = x^3 + 73$, and P = (2, 9), Q = (3, 10).

- (a) The slope of the line through P and Q is $\lambda = \frac{y_Q y_P}{x_Q x_P} = \frac{10 9}{3 2} = 1$. Let $R = (x_R, y_R)$ be the 3rd point of intersection of this line with E. Then, we have $x_P + x_Q + x_R = \lambda^2$. So $x_R = (1)^2 2 3 = -4$, and $y_R = y_P + \lambda(x_R x_P) = 9 + (-4 2) = 3$. Hence P + Q = -R = (-4, -3).
- (b) The slope of the tangent line at P is $\lambda = \frac{3x_P^2}{2y_P} = \frac{3(2)^2}{2(9)} = \frac{2}{3}$. For the 3rd point of intersection $R = (x_R, y_R)$, we have $2x_P + x_R = \lambda^2$. So $x_R = (\frac{2}{3})^2 2(2) = -\frac{32}{9}$, and $y_R = y_P + \lambda(x_R x_P) = 9 + \frac{2}{3}(-\frac{32}{9} 2) = \frac{143}{27}$. Hence $2P = -R = -(x_R, y_R) = (x_R, -y_R) = (-\frac{32}{9}, -\frac{143}{27})$.

Example 4.18. Let $E: y^2 = x^3 + 2x + 5$ be the curve defined \mathbb{F}_{11} in Example 4.9, and P = (-3,4). We compute 2P using Proposition 4.15. We have $\lambda = \frac{3x_P^2 + 2}{2y_P} = \frac{3(-3)^2 + 2}{2(4)} = 5 \mod 11$. So, we have $x_{2P} = \lambda^2 - 2x_P = (5^2) - 2(-3) = 25 + 6 = -2 \mod 11$. So, we get that $-y_{2P} = y_P + \lambda(x_{2P} - x_P) = 4 + 5(-2 - (-3)) = -2 \mod 11$. This gives $y_{2P} = 2 \mod 2P = (-2,2)$. If we compute 4P, we obtain 4P = 2(2P) = 2(-2,2) = (-3,-4) = -P.

This means that $5P = (4+1)P = \infty$. Since $P \neq \infty$, we see that P is a point of order 5. Now, let us observe that $Q = (4,0) \in E(\mathbb{F}_{11})$ is a point of order 2 since $y_Q = 0$, hence Q = -Q. (Observe that, if $Q = (x,y) \in E(K)$ then -Q = (x,-y).) This means that P + Q is a point of order 10. Since $\#E(\mathbb{F}_{11}) = 10$, we deduce from these computations that $E(\mathbb{F}_{11})$ is a cyclic group of order 10.

Corollary 4.19. If $k \subseteq k' \subseteq \overline{k}$ is a subfield, then E(k') is a subgroup of $E(\overline{k})$.

Proof. By definition, the identity element $\infty \in E(k')$; also $P = (x, y) \in E(k')$ implies that $-P = (x, -y) \in E(k')$. So we only need to show that

$$P, Q \in E(k') \Rightarrow P + Q \in E(k').$$

But this follows from Proposition 4.15 and Remark 4.16.

5 Endomorphism rings and Tate modules

5.1 Endomorphism ring of an abelian variety

Let A and B be abelian varieties over a field k. If f and g are homomorphisms from A to A, then we have a homomorphism $(f+g):A\to B$ given on points by addition $x\mapsto f(x)+g(x)$. This gives the set $\operatorname{Hom}(A,B)$ of homomorphisms $A\to B$ the structure of an abelian group. For A=B we see that $\operatorname{End}(A)$ has a natural ring structure, with composition of endomorphisms as the ring multiplication. We will always write $\operatorname{Hom}(A,B)$ for the group of homomorphisms from A to B, and $\operatorname{End}(A)$ for the ring of endomorphisms of A. We will use the notations $\operatorname{Hom}_k(A,B)$ and $\operatorname{End}_k(X)$ for the homomorphisms (resp. endomorphisms defined over k).

Lemma 5.1. Let A and B be abelian varieties over a field k. Then the group $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ is torsion-free, i.e. for $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ non-zero, $n \cdot f = 0$ implies that f = 0.

Proof. For $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $f \in \text{Hom}(A, B)$, we have $n \cdot f = f \circ [n]_A = [n]_B \circ f$. But for $n \neq 0$, we know that $[n]_A$ is an isogeny, so is in particular surjective. From this, we see that $n \cdot f = 0$ implies that f = 0.

We write

$$\operatorname{Hom}^0(A,B) \coloneqq \operatorname{Hom}(A,B) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q} \text{ and } \operatorname{End}^0(A) \coloneqq \operatorname{End}(A) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q}.$$

By definition, we see that $\operatorname{End}^0(A)$ is a \mathbb{Q} -algebra.

Theorem 5.2 (Poincaré reducibility). Let A be an abelian variety, and let B be an abelian subvariety. Then there exists an abelian subvariety C such that $B \cap C$ is finite and $B \times C \to A$ is an isogeny.

Proof. Let $i: B \hookrightarrow A$ be the inclusion map and $i^{\vee}: A^{\vee} \to B^{\vee}$ its dual. Let $\lambda: A \to A^{\vee}$ be a polarisation on A. Then, let

$$X = \ker(i^{\vee} \circ \lambda),$$

C the reduced subscheme of the zero component X. Then C is an abelian variety. From the theorem on the dimension of fibres of morphisms, $\dim C \ge \dim A - \dim B$. The restriction of the morphism $i^{\vee} \circ \lambda : A \to B^{\vee}$ to B is $\lambda|_B : B \to B^{\vee}$, whose kernel is finite since λ arises from an ample bundle \mathscr{L} . Therefore $B \cap C$ is finite, and so $B \times C \to A$ is an isogeny. \square

Definition 5.3. Let A be a non-zero abelian variety X over a field k. We say that A is simple if A the only subvarieties of A are 0 and A.

Note that an abelian variety that is simple over the ground field k need not be simple over an extension of k. To avoid confusion we sometimes use the terminology k-simple.

Proposition 5.4. Let A be a non-zero abelian variety over k. Then, A is isogenous to a product of k-simple abelian varieties. More precisely, there exists k-simple abelian varieties B_1, \ldots, B_r , which are pairwise non k-isogenous, and positive integers n_1, \ldots, n_r such that A is k-isogenous to $B_1^{n_1} \times \cdots \times B_r^{n_r}$, which we denote by $A \sim_k B_1^{n_1} \times \cdots \times B_r^{n_r}$. Up to permutation, the abelian varieties B_i are unique up to k-isogeny, and the corresponding multiplicities n_i are uniquely determined.

Proof. The existence of a decomposition is immediate from the Poincaré Splitting Theorem. The uniqueness statement is an easy exercise—note that a homomorphism between two simple abelian varieties is either zero or an isogeny. \Box

Corollary 5.5. Let A be an abelian variety defined over k.

- (i) if A is k-simple, then $\operatorname{End}_k^0(A)$ is a division algebra;
- (ii) If $A \sim_k B_1^{n_1} \times \cdots \times B_r^{n_r}$, where the B_i are k-simple abelian varieties, then we have

$$\operatorname{End}_{k}^{0}(A) = M_{n_{1}}(D_{1}) \times \cdots \times M_{n_{r}}(D_{r}),$$

where $D_i = \operatorname{End}_k^0(B_i)$.

(Here $M_m(R)$ denotes the ring of $m \times m$ matrices with coefficients in the ring R.)

Proof. First we observe that a homomorphism between two k-simple abelian varieties is either zero or an isogeny. But the isogenies from A to itself are invertible elements of $\operatorname{End}_k^0(A)$. So if A is k-simple $\operatorname{End}_k^0(A)$ is a division algebra. For the second part of the statement, note that $\operatorname{Hom}(B_i, B_j) = 0$ if $i \neq j$ since B_i and B_j are simple and non-isogenous.

5.2 The Tate module of an abelian variety

Let A/k be an abelian variety of dimension g and let n be an integer such that $(\operatorname{char} k, n) = 1$. From Proposition 1.17, we know that [n] is a separable map of degree n^{2g} . Furthermore, all fibers of the map $[n]: A(\overline{k}) \to A(\overline{k})$ have cardinality n^{2g} ; in other words, $A[n](\overline{k})$ has cardinality n^{2g} , where $A[n] = \ker[n]$. By Corollary 1.18 we have an isomorphism

$$A[n](\overline{k}) = (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{2g}$$

of abelian groups (hence of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ -mdoules.

Let ℓ be a prime number different from the chark. The ℓ -adic Tate module of A, denoted $T_{\ell}(A)$, is defined by

$$T_{\ell}(A) \coloneqq \varprojlim A[\ell^n],$$

the inverse limit of the groups $A[n](\overline{k})$, where the transition maps are multiplication by ℓ . Explicitly, an element of $T_{\ell}(E)$ is a sequence $(x_0, x_1, ...)$ of \overline{k} -points of E, where $x_0 = 0$ and $\ell x_i = x_{i-1}$ for i > 0. The results of the previous paragraph imply that we have an isomorphism

$$T_{\ell}(A) \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{2g}.$$

An extremely important property of the Tate module is that it comes equipped with a Galois action. If k is not algebraically closed then the n-torsion of A will typically not be defined over k, and so the absolute Galois group $G_k = \operatorname{Gal}(\overline{k}/k)$ will move the n-torsion points around.

This carries through the inverse limit, and so there is an action of G_k on $T_{\ell}(A)$. Picking a basis for $T_{\ell}(A)$, this action can be thought of as a homomorphism $\rho: G_k \to \mathrm{GL}_{2g}(\mathbb{Z}_{\ell})$, i.e., an ℓ -adic representation of the Galois group. This perspective has proved to be very useful.

Let $f: A \to B$ be a homomorphism of abelian varieties defined over k. Then, f indices a \mathbb{Z}_{ℓ} -linear and $\operatorname{Gal}(\overline{k}/k)$ -equivariant map

$$T_{\ell}f:T_{\ell}A\to T_{\ell}B.$$

For $x = (0, x_1, x_2, ...) \in T_{\ell}A$, we have

$$(T_{\ell}f)(x) := (0, f(x_1), f(x_2), \ldots).$$

Lemma 5.6. Let A and B be abelian varieties over a field k, and $f \in \text{Hom}(A, B)$. Let ℓ be a prime number such that $\ell \neq \text{char}(k)$. If $T_{\ell}(f)$ is divisible by ℓ^m in $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}}(T_{\ell}A, T_{\ell}B)$ then f is divisible by ℓ^m in Hom(A, B).

Proof. If $T_{\ell}(f)$ is divisible by ℓ^m , then f vanishes on $A[\ell^m](\overline{k})$. But $A[\ell^m]$ is an étale group scheme since $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$. Hence f is zero on $A[\ell^m]$. This means that $A[\ell^m] \subseteq \ker f$ and f factors through $[\ell^m]_A$.

Theorem 5.7. Let A and B be abelian varieties over a field k. Let ℓ be a prime number such that $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$. Then the \mathbb{Z}_{ℓ} -linear map

$$T_{\ell}: \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{\ell} \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}}(T_{\ell}A, T_{\ell}B),$$

 $f \otimes c \mapsto c \cdot T_{\ell}(f)$

is injective and has a torsion-free cokernel.

Proof.

5.3 The Tate module of the multiplicative group

The multiplicative group, denoted G_m is the algebraic group which represents the functor $R \to R^{\times}$ (where R is a k-algebra). As a scheme, it is simply $\mathbf{A}^1 \setminus \{0\}$, i.e., $\operatorname{Spec}(k[t, t^{-1}])$.

The construction of the Tate module in the previous section can be applied equally well to G_m . If n is prime to chark then the n-torsion $G_m[n]$ is just the group of n-th roots of unity; its \overline{k} -points is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. It follows that $T_{\ell}(G_m)$ is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_{ℓ} as a group. Of course, it also carries a Galois action, which can be recorded as a homomorphism $\chi: G_k \to \mathrm{GL}_1(\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}) = \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{\times}$. This homomorphism is called the *cyclotomic character*, and describes how the Galois group acts on roots of unity. A common notation, which we will use, is to write $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}(1)$ for $T_{\ell}(G_m)$. The idea is that the underlying group is \mathbb{Z}_{ℓ} and the (1) records that the Galois group is acting through the first power of the cyclotomic character.

5.4 The Weil pairings

Proposition 5.8. Let A/k be an abelian variety and n > 0 an integer such that (n, char k) = 1. Then there exists a pairing

$$e_n: A[n] \times A^{\vee}[n] \to \mu_n$$

satisfying the following:

- 1. Bilinear: $e_n(x + y, z) = e_n(x, z)e_n(y, z)$.
- 2. Non-degenerate: if $e_n(x,y) = 1$ for all $y \in A^{\vee}[n]$ then x = 0.
- 3. Galois equivariant: $e_n(\sigma x, \sigma y) = \sigma e_n(x, y)$ for $\sigma \in G_k$.
- 4. Compatibility: if $x \in A[nm]$ and $y \in A^{\vee}[n]$ then $e_{nm}(x,y) = e_n(mx,y)$.

(Note: the group law on A[n] is typically written additively, while the one on μ_n is written multiplicatively.)

Let $\lambda: A \to A^{\vee}$ be a polarisation on A. Then, we obtain the pairing

$$e_n^{\lambda}: A[n] \times A[n] \to \mu_n$$

 $(x,y) \mapsto e_n(x,\lambda(y)).$

We call e_n and e_n^{λ} Weil pairings. The Weil pairings have the following important compatibility property.

Proposition 5.9. Let A/k be a polarised abelian variety, with polarisation $\lambda : A \to A^{\vee}$ and n > 0 an integer such that $(n, \operatorname{char} k) = 1$. The pairing

$$e_n^{\lambda}: A[n] \times A[n] \to \mu_n$$

satisfies the following properties:

- 1. Bilinear: $e_n^{\lambda}(x+y,z) = e_n^{\lambda}(x,z)e_n^{\lambda}(y,z)$.
- 2. Alternating: $e_n^{\lambda}(x,x) = 1$. This implies $e_n^{\lambda}(x,y) = e_n^{\lambda}(y,x)^{-1}$, but is stronger if n is even.
- 3. Non-degenerate: if $e_n^{\lambda}(x,y) = 1$ for all $y \in A[n]$ then x = 0.
- 4. Galois equivariant: $e_n^{\lambda}(\sigma x, \sigma y) = \sigma e_n^{\lambda}(x, y)$ for $\sigma \in G_k$.
- 5. Compatibility: if $x \in A[nm]$ and $y \in A[n]$ then $e_{nm}^{\lambda}(x,y) = e_n^{\lambda}(mx,y)$.

(Note: the group law on A[n] is typically written additively, while the one on μ_n is written multiplicatively.)

Proposition 5.10. Let $f: A \to B$ be an isogeny of polarised abelian varieties, where λ_A and λ_B are the polarisations on A and B, respectively. Then, we have

$$e_n^{\lambda_A}(f(x),y) = e_n^{\lambda_B}(x,f^\vee(y)), \ for \ all \ x \in A[n], y \in B[n].$$

The compatibility condition allows us to take the inverse limit of the $e_{\ell^n}^{\lambda}$ to obtain a pairing on the Tate module

$$e^{\lambda}: T_{\ell}(A) \times T_{\ell}(A) \to \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}(1).$$

The pairing e^{λ} satisfies the same properties as in Proposition 5.8.

Proposition 5.11. Let A be an abelian variety over k. The degree map

$$\operatorname{End}^{0}(A) \to \mathbb{Q}$$
$$c \otimes \phi \mapsto c \operatorname{deg}(\phi)$$

is a homogeneous polynomial function of degree 2g on $\operatorname{End}^0(A)$, i.e.

$$deg(n\phi) = n^{2g} deg(\phi), \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{Q}, \phi \in End^{0}(A).$$

Corollary 5.12. Let A be an abelian variety over k. Then, for each $\phi \in \operatorname{End}^0(A)$, there is a polynomial $P_{\phi}(X) \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ of degree 2g such that $P_{\phi}(n) = \deg(\phi - [n]_A)$, for all $n \in \mathbb{Q}$.

We see that P_{ϕ} is monic and that it has integer coefficients when $\phi \in \text{End}(A)$. We call P_{ϕ} the *characteristic polynomial* of ϕ and we define the *trace* of ϕ by the equation

$$P_{\phi}(X) = X^{2g} - \operatorname{Tr}(\phi)X^{2g-1} + \dots + \operatorname{deg}(\phi).$$

Proposition 5.13. Let A be an abelian variety over k and $\phi \in \text{End}(A)$. For each prime number ℓ such that $\ell \neq \text{char}(k)$, $P_{\phi}(X)$ is the characteristic polynomial of ϕ acting on $V_{\ell}A$; hence the trace and degree of ϕ are the trace and determinant of ϕ acting $V_{\ell}A$.

5.5 Semi-simple modules

In this subsection, all rings have an identity element. A ring homomorphism is a map $f: A \to B$ such that

- 1. f(x+y) = f(x) + f(y), for all $x, y \in A$;
- 2. $f(x \cdot y) = f(x) \cdot f(y)$, for all $x, y \in A$;
- 3. $f(1_A) = 1_B$.

If A is a ring then, we let A^{opp} denotes the opposite ring and Z(A) the center of A. For a integer $r \ge 0$, we le $M_r(A)$ be the ring of $r \times r$ matrices with coefficients in A.

Let A be a ring, and M a non-zero left (resp. right) A-module.

- a) We say that M is an *irreducible* (or *simple*) A-module if the only left (resp. right) A-submodules of M are $\{0\}$ and M itself.
- b) We say that M is a *semisimple* left (resp. right) A-module if every left (resp. right) A-submodule of M is a direct summand.

Lemma 5.14. Let A be a ring, and M a non-zero left (resp. right) A-module. Then M is semisimple if and only if there exists an finite set of simple A-modules $(M_i)_{i \in I}$ such that M a direct sum

$$M = \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i.$$

Note that the zero module is semisimple but not simple; by convention it is the direct sum of the empty collection of A-modules.

Let A be nonzero ring.

- a) We say that A is simple (as a ring) if the only two-sided ideals of A are $\{0\}$ and A itself.
- b) A ring A is called *semisimple* if every left (resp. right) A-module is semisimple.

Lemma 5.15. Let A be nonzero ring. Then A is semisimple if and only if A is semisimple as a left (resp. right) A-module.

Let A be a semisimple ring. Then, there exists has finitely many minimal nonzero ideals $A_1, \ldots, A_r \subset A$. Each ideal A_i is also a ring, with an identity element making it a simple ring. Thus A is isomorphic to the product $A_1 \times \cdots \times A_r$. So every semisimple ring is a product of finitely many simple rings. Conversely, every finite product of simple rings is semisimple.

Proposition 5.16. Let A be a semisimple ring. Then, up to isomorphism, there are finitely many simple A-modules.

Proof. Since A is a semisimple ring, every left ideal $I \subset A$ (resp. right ideal $J \subset A$) is generated by an idempotent, i.e., there is an idempotent $e \in A$ with I = Ae (resp. J = eA). Indeed, because A is semisimple as a left (resp. right) module over itself there exists a left ideal I'(resp. right ideal J') such that $A = I \oplus I'$ as left A-modules (resp. $A = J \oplus J'$ as right A-modules); writing 1 = e + e' one easily finds that e is an idempotent and I = Ae (resp. J = eA). If A is a simple ring then up to isomorphism there is a unique simple A-module. It follows that, up to isomorphism, there are finitely many simple modules over A; one corresponding to each simple factor A_i .

Let A be a simple ring, and M a simple A-module. The ring $D := \operatorname{End}_A(M)$ is a division algebra. We called D the *commutant* of A, and $\operatorname{End}_D(M)$ its bi-commutant. For $a \in A$, let $a_M \in \operatorname{End}_D(M)$ be the map $(M \to M, m \mapsto am)$. Then, we have a map

$$A \to \operatorname{End}_D(M)$$

 $a \mapsto a_M.$

Lemma 5.17. Let A be a simple ring, M a simple A-module and $D = \operatorname{End}_A(M)$. Then, the map $a \mapsto a_M$ is an isomorphism of A onto its bi-commutant $\operatorname{End}_D(M)$.

Corollary 5.18 (Wedderburn). Let A be a simple ring. Then, there exist an integer $r \ge 1$ and a division algebra D such that $A \simeq M_r(D)$, where $M_r(D)$ is the ring of $r \times r$ matrices over D. In particular, Z(A) = Z(D) is a field.

Proof. Let M be a simple A-module. Then we see that A has finite length r as a left module over itself. So, A isomorphic to M^r as A-modules. From this and the lemma above, it follows that $A \simeq M_r(D)$.

Conversely, if D is a division algebra and r is a positive integer, $M_r(D)$ is a simple ring. The unique simple module over this ring is given by D^r with its natural structure of a left $M_r(D)$ -module. It follows from the discussion that if A is a simple ring, so is A^{opp} .

Theorem 5.19 (Bi-commutant). Let A be a semisimple ring, and let M be an A-module of finite type. Let $C := \text{End}_A(M)$, and consider M as a left module over C by the rule

$$c \cdot m = c(m)$$
, for $c \in C$ and $m \in M$.

Then the map $(A \to \operatorname{End}_C(M), a \mapsto a_M)$ is an isomorphism.

Theorem 5.20 (Skolem-Noether). Let A be a simple algebra with center K. Let B and B' be simple K-subalgebras of A of finite dimension over K. Then for every isomorphism $\varphi: B \to B'$ of K-algebras there is an inner automorphism ψ of A with $\varphi = \psi|_B$.

In particular, if A is a simple algebra of finite dimension over its centre K then all automorphisms of A over K are inner, so $\operatorname{Aut}_K(A) = \operatorname{Inn}(A) \simeq A^{\times}/K^{\times}$.

6 Tate's theorem

We le $k := \mathbb{F}_q$ be the finite field with q elements, where $q = p^n$ for some prime p and an integer $n \ge 1$. We let \mathbb{F} be an algebraic closure of \mathbb{F}_q .

For a variety V over k, the *Frobenius map* $\pi_V: V \to V$ is defined to be the map which is the identity on the underlying topological space of V and is the map $\mathcal{O}_V \to \mathcal{O}_V, f \mapsto f^q$ on the structure sheaves. When $V := \mathbf{P}^n(\mathbb{F}) = \operatorname{Proj}(k[x_0, \dots, x_n])$, then π_V is given by the ring homomorphism

$$k[x_0, \dots, x_n] \to k[x_0, \dots, x_n]$$

 $x_i \mapsto x_i^q.$

On points, this induces the map

$$\mathbf{P}^{n}(\mathbb{F}) \to \mathbf{P}^{n}(\mathbb{F})$$
$$(x_{0}: \dots : x_{n}) \mapsto (x_{0}^{q}: \dots : x_{n}^{q}).$$

As a results, when $V \subseteq \mathbf{P}^n$ is a projective embedding of V, then $\pi_V : V \to V$ induces the map

$$V(\mathbb{F}) \to V(\mathbb{F})$$
$$(x_0 : \dots : x_n) \mapsto (x_0^q : \dots : x_n^q).$$

Thus $V(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is the set of fixed points of $\pi_V:V(\mathbb{F})\to V(\mathbb{F})$.

Let A be an abelian variety over \mathbb{F}_q . Then π_A maps 0 to 0 (because $0 \in V(\mathbb{F})$, and so it is an endomorphism of A. We write $f_A = P_{\pi_A}$ for the characteristic polynomial of π_A . It is a monic polynomial of degree 2g with coefficients in \mathbb{Z} , where $g = \dim A$. For any prime number $\ell \neq p$, we know by Corollary 5.12 that f_A is also the characteristic polynomial of the induced endomorphism $T_{\ell}(\pi_A)$ of the Tate module $T_{\ell}A$. We will refer to f_A as the characteristic polynomial of (geometric) Frobenius.

Proposition 6.1. Let A be an abelian variety over \mathbb{F}_q .

- (i) Let ℓ be a prime such that $\ell \neq p$. Then $V_{\ell}(\pi_A)$ is a semisimple automorphism of $V_{\ell}A$.
- (ii) Assume A is elementary over \mathbb{F}_q (i.e., isogenous to a power of a simple abelian variety). Then $\mathbb{Q}[\pi_A] \subset \operatorname{End}^0(A)$ is a field, and f_A is a power of the minimum polynomial $f_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\pi_A}$ of π_A over \mathbb{Q} .

Proof. (i) As observed above, π_A lies in the centre of $\operatorname{End}^0(A)$, which is a product of number fields. Hence $\mathbb{Q}[\pi_A] \subset \operatorname{End}^0(A)$ is a product of (number) fields, too. It follows that also $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}[\pi_A] \subset \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \otimes \operatorname{End}^0(A)$ is a product of fields; in particular $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}[\pi_A]$ is a semisimple ring. Now $V_{\ell}A$ is a module of finite type over $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}[\pi_A]$, with π_A acting as the automorphism $V_{\ell}(\pi_A)$. Hence $V_{\ell}A$ is a semisimple $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}[\pi_A]$ -module, and this means that $V_{\ell}(\pi_A)$ is a semisimple automorphism.

(ii) If A is elementary then the centre of $\operatorname{End}^0(A)$ is a field, so also $\mathbb{Q}[\pi_A]$ is a field. Let $g := f_A$ be the minimum polynomial of π_A over \mathbb{Q} . If $\alpha \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}_\ell$ is an eigenvalue of $V_\ell(\pi_A)$ then $g(\alpha)$ is an eigenvalue of $g(V_\ell(\pi_A)) = V_\ell(g(\pi_A)) = V_\ell(0) = 0$. Note that these eigenvalues (the roots of f_A) are algebraic over \mathbb{Q} , as f_A has rational coefficients. So every root of f in \mathbb{Q} is also a root of g, which just means that f_A divides a power of g. Because g is irreducible this implies that f is a power of g.

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Theorem 6.2. Let k be a finite field; for each integer g, there exist only finitely many isomorphism classes of abelian varieties of dimension g over k.

Lemma 6.3. Let k be a field, k_s a separable closure, and let ℓ be a prime number such that $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$.

(i) If A and B are abelian varieties over k then the map

$$T_{\ell}: \mathbb{Z}_{\ell} \otimes \operatorname{Hom}^{0}(A, B) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Gal}(k_{s}/k)}(T_{\ell}A, T_{\ell}B)$$

is an isomorphism if and only if the map

$$V_{\ell}: \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \otimes \operatorname{Hom}^{0}(A, B) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Gal}(k_{s}/k)}(V_{\ell}A, V_{\ell}B)$$
 (2)

is an isomorphism.

(ii) Assume that for every abelian variety C over k, the map

$$\mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \otimes \operatorname{End}^{0}(C) \to \operatorname{End}_{\operatorname{Gal}(k_{s}/k)}(V_{\ell}C)$$

is an isomorphism. Then, for any two abelian varieties A and B over k, the map in (2) is an isomorphism.

Proof. (i) By Theorem 5.7, the map T_{ℓ} is injective and $\operatorname{coker}(T_{\ell})$ is torsion-free (hence free). Hence T_{ℓ} is an isomorphism if and only if $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \otimes \operatorname{coker}(T_{\ell}) = 0$. Now use that \mathbb{Q}_{ℓ} is flat over \mathbb{Z}_{ℓ} , so the map V_{ℓ} is again injective and $\operatorname{coker}(V_{\ell}) = \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \otimes \operatorname{coker}(T_{\ell})$.

(ii) Take $C := A \times B$. We have a decomposition of vector spaces

$$\operatorname{End}^{0}(C) = \operatorname{End}^{0}(A) \oplus \operatorname{Hom}^{0}(A, B) \oplus \operatorname{Hom}^{0}(A, B) \oplus \operatorname{End}^{0}(B).$$

Likewise we have, writing $\Gamma := \operatorname{Gal}(k_s/k)$, a decomposition

$$\operatorname{End}_{\Gamma}(V_{\ell}C) = \operatorname{End}_{\Gamma}(V_{\ell}A) \oplus \operatorname{Hom}_{\Gamma}(V_{\ell}A, V_{\ell}B) \oplus \operatorname{Hom}_{\Gamma}(V_{\ell}B, V_{\ell}A) \oplus \operatorname{End}_{\Gamma}(V_{\ell}B).$$

The map $V_{\ell,C}: \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \otimes \operatorname{End}(C) \to \operatorname{End}_{\operatorname{Gal}(k_s/k)}(V_{\ell}C)$ respects these decompositions. In particular it follows that if $V_{\ell,C}$ is an isomorphism then so is the map

$$\mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \otimes \operatorname{Hom}^{0}(A, B) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Gal}(k_{s}/k)}(V_{\ell}A, V_{\ell}B).$$

Lemma 6.4. Let A an abelian variety over a field k, and let ℓ be a prime number such that $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$. Then for every \mathbb{Q}_{ℓ} -subspace $W \subset V_{\ell}A$ that is stable under the action of $\operatorname{Gal}(k_s/k)$ there exists an element $u \in \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \operatorname{End}(A)$ such that $W = u \cdot V_{\ell}A$.

Proof.

Give a reference!

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Theorem 6.5. Let A an abelian variety over a field k, and let ℓ be a prime number such that $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$. Then the representation

$$\rho_{\ell} : \operatorname{Gal}(k_s/k) \to \operatorname{GL}(V_{\ell}A)$$

is semisimple and the map

$$\mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \operatorname{End}^{0}(A) \to \operatorname{End}_{\operatorname{Gal}(k_{s}/k)}(V_{\ell}A)$$

is an isomorphism.

Proof. To prove that ρ_{ℓ} is a semisimple representation, suppose we have a Galois-stable subspace $W \subset V_{\ell}A$. By Lemma 6.4, there exists an element $u \in \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \operatorname{End}(A)$ with $W = u \cdot V_{\ell}A$. Since $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \operatorname{End}(A)$ is semisimple, the right ideal $u \cdot \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \operatorname{End}(A)$ is generated by an idempotent e. Write $u = e \cdot a$ and $e = u \cdot b$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \operatorname{End}(A)$; this gives

$$u \cdot V_{\ell} A = e \cdot (a \cdot V_{\ell} A) \subseteq e \cdot V_{\ell} A = u \cdot (b \cdot V_{\ell} A) \subseteq u \cdot V_{\ell} A.$$

Hence $W = e \cdot V_{\ell}A$. Then $W' := (1 - e) \cdot V_{\ell}A$ is a complement for W, and W' is again Galois-stable because $\rho_{\ell}(g)$ commutes with (1 - e) for every $g \in \text{Gal}(k_s/k)$. This proves that ρ_{ℓ} is semisimple.

The map $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \operatorname{End}(A) \to \operatorname{End}_{\operatorname{Gal}(k_s/k)}(V_{\ell}A)$ is injective by Theorem 5.7. Letting $C = \operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \operatorname{End}(A)}(V_{\ell}A)$, Theorem 5.19 implies that $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \operatorname{End}(A) = \operatorname{End}_{C}(V_{\ell}A)$. Hence it suffices to show that for every $\varphi \in \operatorname{End}_{\operatorname{Gal}(k_s/k)}(V_{\ell}A)$ and $c \in C$ we have $\varphi c = c\varphi$. The graph $\Gamma_{\varphi} \subset V_{\ell}A \oplus V_{\ell}A$ is a Galois-stable subspace. Applying Lemma 6.4 it follows that there exists an element $u \in \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \operatorname{End}(A^2) = M_2(\mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \operatorname{End}(A))$ such that $\Gamma_{\varphi} = u \cdot V_{\ell}A^2$. But $\gamma := \binom{c \ 0}{0 \ c} \in M_2(\mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \operatorname{End}(A))$ commutes with u, so

$$\gamma \cdot \Gamma_{\varphi} = \gamma \cdot u \cdot V_{\ell} A^2 = u \cdot \gamma \cdot V_{\ell} A^2 \subseteq \Gamma_{\varphi}.$$

This means precisely that for every $v \in V_{\ell}A$ we have $c \cdot \varphi(v) = \varphi(c \cdot v)$; hence $\varphi c = c\varphi$ and the theorem is proved.

Theorem 6.6 (Tate's Theorem). Let k be a finite field. Let ℓ be a prime such that $\ell = \operatorname{char}(k)$.

(i) For any abelian variety A over k the representation

$$\rho_{\ell} = \rho_{\ell,A} : \operatorname{Gal}(k_s/k) \to \operatorname{GL}(V_{\ell}A)$$

is semisimple.

(ii) For any two abelian varieties A and B over k the map

$$\mathbb{Z}_{\ell} \otimes \operatorname{Hom}^{0}(A, B) \to \operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Gal}(k_{s}/k)}(T_{\ell}A, T_{\ell}B)$$

is an isomorphism.

7 Weil's conjectures

7.1 Endomorphism rings of abelian varieties: Albert classification

Let A be a k-simple abelian variety of dimension g. Let $D = \operatorname{End}_k^0(A)$ be the endomorphism algebra of A. Then, by Wedderburn theorem, we know that D is a division algebra. Let F the centre of D. Also, let $(D \to D, x \mapsto x^{\dagger})$ be the Rosati involution on A. This is a positive involution. So, its fixed field $F^{\dagger} := \{x \in D \mid x^{\dagger} = x\}$ is a totally real number field, i.e. every embedding $F^{\dagger} \to \mathbb{C}$ factors through \mathbb{R} . Clearly, $F^{\dagger} \subseteq F$. We let $e = [F : \mathbb{Q}]$ and $e^{\dagger} = [F^{\dagger} : \mathbb{Q}]$, and we let $d \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ be such that $[D : F] = d^2$.

Theorem 7.1 (Albert Classification). Let A be a k-simple abelian variety of dimension g, and $D = \operatorname{End}_k^0(A)$ the endomorphism algebra of A. Keeping the notations above, D is isomorphic to an algebra of one of the following four types:

- (i) TYPE I. $D = F = F^{\dagger}$, and the Rosati involution † is the identity map. In this case, $e \mid g$.
- (ii) TYPE II. $F = F^{\dagger}$, and D is a totally indefinite quaternion division algebra over F. That is, for any embedding $\sigma : F \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}$, one has that $D \otimes_{\sigma} \mathbb{R} \simeq M_2(\mathbb{R})$. In this case $2e \mid g$.
- (iii) TYPE III. $F = F^{\dagger}$, and D is a totally definite quaternion division algebra over F. That is, for any embedding $\sigma : F \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}$, one has that $D \otimes_{\sigma} \mathbb{R} \simeq \mathbb{H}$, where \mathbb{H} is the Hamilton quaternion algebra. In this case $e^2 \mid g$.
- (iv) TYPE IV. F is a CM extension of F^{\dagger} (i.e a totally imaginary quadratic extension of F^{\dagger}) and D is a division algebra with centre F. In this case $e^{\dagger}d^2 \mid g$ if $\operatorname{char}(k) = 0$, and $e^{\dagger}d \mid g$ if $\operatorname{char}(k) > 0$.

7.2 Zeta functions of abelian varieties

Theorem 7.2. Let A be an abelian variety of dimension g over \mathbb{F}_q .

- (i) Every complex root α of f_A has absolute value $|\alpha| = \sqrt{q}$.
- (ii) If α is a complex root of f_A then so is $\overline{\alpha} = q/\alpha$, and the two roots occur with the same multiplicity. If $\alpha = \sqrt{q}$ or $\alpha = -\sqrt{q}$ occurs as a root then it occurs with even multiplicity.

Proof. (i) We first reduce to the case that A is simple (over \mathbb{F}_q). For this, choose an isogeny

$$h: A \to A' = A_1 \times \cdots \times A_s$$

where the factors A_i are simple. Then h induces an isomorphism

$$V_{\ell}(h): V_{\ell}A \xrightarrow{\simeq} V_{\ell}A' = V_{\ell}A_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus V_{\ell}A_s.$$

Since $h \circ \pi_A = \pi_{A'} \circ h$, the automorphism $V_{\ell}(h) \circ V_{\ell}(\pi_A) \circ V_{\ell}(h)^{-1}$ of $V_{\ell}A_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus V_{\ell}A_s$ is the one given by

$$(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_s) \mapsto (V_{\ell}(\pi_{A_1})(\xi_i), \ldots, V_{\ell}(\pi_{A_s})(\xi_s)).$$

So $f_A = f_{A_1} \cdots f_{A_s}$, and it suffices to prove the theorem for simple abelian varieties.

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Let λ be any polarisation on A, and \dagger the associated Rosati involution on $\operatorname{End}^0(A)$. We will first show that $\pi_A \cdot \pi_A^{\dagger} = [q]_A$. Since

$$\pi_A \cdot \pi_A^\dagger = \pi_A \cdot \lambda^{-1} \cdot \pi_A^\vee \cdot \lambda = \lambda^{-1} \cdot \pi_{A^\vee} \cdot \pi_A^\vee \cdot \lambda,$$

it suffices to show that $\pi_{A^{\vee}} \cdot \pi_A^{\vee} = [q]_{A^{\vee}}$. But $\pi_A = F_A^m/\mathbb{F}_q$, so by Proposition (??) we have $\pi_A^{\vee} = V_{A^{\vee}/\mathbb{F}_q}$, and as in (5.21) it follows that

$$\pi_{A^\vee} \cdot \pi_A^\vee = F^m_{A^\vee/\mathbb{F}_q} \cdot V^m_{A^\vee/\mathbb{F}_q} = [p^m]_{A^\vee} = [q]_{A^\vee}.$$

This gives $\pi_A \cdot \pi_A^{\dagger} = [q]_A$.

Now, since A is simple, $\mathbb{Q}[\pi_A]$ is a number field. Furthermore, by Propostion 6.1, f_A is a power of the minimum polynomial of g of π_A over \mathbb{Q} . So, the complex roots of f_A are precisely the complex numbers of the form $\iota(\pi_A)$ for some embedding $\iota: \mathbb{Q}[\pi_A] \to \mathbb{C}$. The relation $\pi_A^{\dagger} = q/\pi_A$ shows that $\mathbb{Q}[\pi_A] \subset \operatorname{End}^0(A)$ is stable under the Rosati involution, which is a positive involution. This leads to two possible cases:

- (a) Totally real case: $\mathbb{Q}[\pi_A]$ is a totally real field and \dagger is the identity on $\mathbb{Q}[\pi_A]$.
- (b) CM case: $\mathbb{Q}[\pi_A]$ is a CM-field and for every complex embedding $\iota: \mathbb{Q}[\pi_A] \to \mathbb{C}$ we have $\iota(x^{\dagger}) = \iota(x)$, for all $x \in \mathbb{Q}[\pi_A]$.

In either cases, $\pi_A \cdot \pi_A^{\dagger} = q$ implies that all roots $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ of f_A have absolute value $|\alpha| = \sqrt{q}$.

(ii) The first two assertions are trivial, because f_A has rational (hence real) coefficients. The only non-trivial point is that \sqrt{q} and $-\sqrt{q}$ can only occur as roots with even multiplicity. Again, it is enough to show this for A is simple. The field $\mathbb{Q}[\pi_A]$ cannot have any real embedding if its CM. Therefore, the cases $\alpha = \pm \sqrt{q}$ only occur when $\mathbb{Q}[\pi_A]$ is totally real. In that case, they are the only possible roots since $\overline{\alpha} \cdot \alpha = q$. If \sqrt{q} occurs with multiplicity n then $-\sqrt{q}$ occurs with multiplicity n then n occurs with n occurs wit

Let X be a scheme of finite type over \mathbb{F}_q . For any positive integer n the number, let $N_n := \#X(\mathbb{F}_{q^n})$ of \mathbb{F}_{q^n} -rational points of X. The zeta function of X is defined by

$$Z(X;t) := \exp\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} N_n \frac{t^n}{n}\right) \in \mathbb{Q}[\![t]\!]$$
 (3)

Theorem 7.3. Let A be an abelian variety of dimension g over \mathbb{F}_q . Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{2g}$ be the sequence of complex roots of the characteristic polynomial f_A (counted with multiplicity), so that we have

$$f_A = \prod_{i=1}^{2g} (t - \alpha_i).$$

(i) For any positive integer n we have

$$\#A(\mathbb{F}_{q^n}) = \prod_{i=1}^{2g} (1 - \alpha_i^n) = \sum_{k=0}^{2g} (-1)^k \operatorname{Tr}\left(\pi_A^n; \bigwedge^k V_{\ell}A\right),$$

where ℓ is any prime number different from p and $\operatorname{Tr}(\pi_A^n; \bigwedge^k V_{\ell}A)$ is the trace of the automorphism $\bigwedge^k V(\pi_A^n)$ acting on $\bigwedge^k V_{\ell}A$.

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(ii) The zeta function of A is given by

$$Z(A;t) = \frac{P_1 P_3 \cdots P_{2g-1}}{P_0 P_2 \cdots P_{2g}}$$

where $P_k \in \mathbb{Z}[t]$, $k = 0, \dots, 2g$, is the polynomial given by

$$P_k(t) = \prod_{1 \le i_1 < \dots < i_k \le 2g} (1 - \alpha_{i_1} \cdots \alpha_{i_k} t) = \det(\operatorname{id} - t \pi_A; \bigwedge^k V_{\ell} A).$$

(iii) The zeta function satisfies the functional equation

$$Z(A; \frac{1}{a^g t}) = Z(X; t).$$

Proof. (i) The characteristic polynomial $f_{\pi_A^n}$ is given by

$$f_{\pi_A^n} \coloneqq \prod_{i=1}^{2g} (t - \alpha_i^n).$$

Now, recall that

$$A(\mathbb{F}_{q^n}) = \ker(1 - \pi_A^n).$$

Since $\#A(\mathbb{F}_{q^n}) < \infty$, $1 - \pi_A^n$ is an isogeny. But π_A is purely inseparable (using the differential criterion of separability). Hence, $1 - \pi_A^n$ is a separable isogeny. This implies that

$$\#A(\mathbb{F}_{q^n}) = \deg(1 - \pi_A^n) = f_{\pi_A^n}(1) = \prod_{i=1}^{2g} (1 - \alpha_i^n).$$

The eigenvalues of $\bigwedge^k V_\ell(\pi_A^n)$ are the numbers the products

$$\alpha_{i_1}^n \cdots \alpha_{i_k}^n$$
 with $1 \le i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_k \le 2g$.

The second identity in (i) follows from the elementary relation

$$\prod_{i=1}^{2g} (1 - \alpha_i^n) = \sum_{k=0}^{2g} \left((-1)^k \sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \le 2g} \alpha_{i_1}^n \cdots \alpha_{i_k}^n \right).$$

(ii) We use the general fact (see Hartshorne [?, Appendix C, Lemma 4.1]) that for $\phi \in \text{End}(V)$, where V is a finite dimensional vector space V over a field K, we have an identity of formal power series

$$\exp\left(\operatorname{Tr}(\phi^n; V) \cdot \frac{t^n}{n}\right) = \det(1 - t \cdot \phi; V)^{-1}.$$

Applying (i) then gives

$$Z(A;t) = \exp\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{2g} (-1)^k \operatorname{Tr}(\pi_A^n; \bigwedge^k V_{\ell}A) \frac{t^n}{n}\right) = \prod_{k=0}^{2g} \exp\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^k \operatorname{Tr}(\pi_A^n; \bigwedge^k V_{\ell}A) \frac{t^n}{n}\right)^{(-1)^k}$$

The eigenvalues of $\wedge V_{\ell}(\pi_A)$ are the numbers the products

$$\alpha_{i_1} \cdots \alpha_{i_k}$$
, with $1 \le i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_k \le 2g$.

Therefore

$$\det(1 - t\pi_A; \bigwedge^k V_{\ell}A) = \prod_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \le 2g} (1 - t\alpha_{i_1} \cdots \alpha_{i_k}) =: P_k.$$

Since $\operatorname{Gal}(\overline{\mathbb{Q}}/\mathbb{Q})$ acts naturally on the set of sequences $(\alpha_{i_j})_{1 \leq j \leq k}$, $P_k \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$. Furthermore, since P_k is a monic, all its roots are algebraic integers; hence $P_k \in \mathbb{Z}[t]$.

8 Jacobian varieties

8.1 The functor

Let X be a complete nonsingular curve over k. We recall that the set of divisors on X, denoted Div(X) is the set formal sums

$$D = \sum_{i=1}^{n} n_i P_i, \text{ with } n_i \in \mathbb{Z}, P_i \in X(\overline{k}).$$

The degree map $\deg : \operatorname{Div}(X) \to \mathbb{Z}$ is given by $\deg(D) = \sum_{i=1}^n n_i$. Since every invertible sheaf \mathscr{L} on X is of the form $\mathscr{L}(D)$ for some divisor D, and D is uniquely determined up to linear equivalence, we can define $\deg(\mathscr{L}) = \deg(D)$. By the Riemann-Roch theorem says that

$$\chi(X,\mathcal{L}) = \deg(\mathcal{L}) + 1 - q.$$

We recall Pic(X) is the set of isomorphism classes of invertible sheaves on X, and we define

$$\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(X) := \{ \mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}(X) \mid \operatorname{deg} \mathcal{L} = 0 \}.$$

Let T be a connected scheme over k, and write on $X \times T = X \times_k T$ for $X \times_{\operatorname{Spec}(k)} T$, or simply $X \times_k k'$ when $T = \operatorname{Spec}(k')$ for a field extension k'/k. For $t \in T$, let X_t be the fibre at t. For $\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}(X \times T)$, one can show that the map $t \mapsto \chi(X_t, \mathcal{L}_t)$ is locally constant. Therefore $\deg(\mathcal{L}_t)$, is independent of t. Moreover, the constant degree of \mathcal{L}_t is invariant under base change relative to maps $T' \to T$. Let

$$F(T) = \{ \mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}(X \times T) \mid \deg(\mathcal{L}_t) = 0, \text{ for all } t \in T \} / p_T^* \operatorname{Pic}(T),$$

where $p_T: X \times_k T \to T$ is the projection onto T. Then F is a functor from schemes over k to abelian groups. For T a connected scheme over k, we may think of F(T) as being the group of families of invertible sheaves on X of degree 0 parametrised by T, modulo the trivial families. Indeed, for any sheaf $\mathscr{M} \in \text{Pic}(T)$, $(p_T^*\mathscr{M})_t$ is isomorphic to \mathcal{O}_{X_t} and so $\deg(p_T^*\mathscr{M})_t = 0$. The Jacobian attempts to represent the functor F.

Theorem 8.1. There is an abelian variety Jac(X) over k and a morphism of functors $\iota: F \to Jac(X)$ such that $\iota: F(T) \to Jac(X)(T)$ is an isomorphism whenever X(T) is nonempty.

8.2 Obstruction to representability

The functor F is representable if and only if it is a sheaf. However, there can some obstruction to this being the case. Indeed, let k'/k be a Galois extension with group Γ . Then the natural map $F(k) \to F(k')^{\Gamma}$ need not be a bijection, which is a requirement for representability.

Proposition 8.2. Let k'/k be a Galois extension of group Γ . Then there is a natural exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Pic}(X) \to \operatorname{Pic}(X \times_k k')^{\Gamma} \to \operatorname{Br}(k),$$

where Br(k) is the Brauer group of k. In particular, given $\mathcal{L} \in Pic(X \times_k k')$ there is an obstruction in Br(k) measuring the failure of \mathcal{L} to descend to X.

Proof. We first show that the first map is injective. Let $p_X: X \times_k k' \to X$ be the projection onto X, and \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{L}' are two line bundles on X. We need to show that, if $p_X^*\mathcal{L}$ and $p_X^*\mathcal{L}'$ are isomorphic over $X \times_k k'$, then \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{L}' are isomorphic. Let $i: p_X^*\mathcal{L} \simeq p_X^*\mathcal{L}'$ be an isomorphism over $X \times_k k'$. For $\sigma \in \Gamma$, the map $i \circ \sigma : p_X^*\mathcal{L} \to p_X^*\mathcal{L}'$ is also an isomorphism. Thus i and $i \circ \sigma$ differ by an element $c_{\sigma} \in \operatorname{Aut}(\mathcal{L}) = k'^{\times}$. One easily sees that c satisfies the cocycle condition. By Hilbert's Theorem 90, the class of c in $\operatorname{H}^1(\Gamma, k'^{\times})$ vanishes. Thus c is a coboundary, i.e., is of the form $c_{\sigma} = \sigma(\alpha)/\alpha$ for some $\alpha \in k'^{\times}$. One easily sees that $\alpha^{-1}i: p_X^*\mathcal{L} \simeq p_X^*\mathcal{L}'$ is a Γ -invariant isomorphism over $X \times_k k'$, and thus descends to X.

Now, let $\mathscr{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}(X \times_k k')^{\Gamma}$. We will construct an element of $\operatorname{Br}(k)$ measuring the obstruction that \mathscr{L} comes from $\operatorname{Pic}(X)$. Since $\mathscr{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}(X \times_k k')^{\Gamma}$, we see that, for all $\sigma \in \Gamma$, there exists an isomorphism $i_{\sigma} : \mathscr{L} \simeq \sigma^* \mathscr{L}$. The collection of isomorphisms $(i_{\sigma})_{\sigma \in \Gamma}$ is not a priori compatible, which is a requirement for descent. In fact, the failure of the compatibility is what defines the Brauer obstruction. Indeed, for each $\sigma, \tau \in \Gamma$, both $\sigma^*(i_{\tau}) \circ i_{\sigma}$ and $i_{\sigma\tau}$ are isomorphisms $\mathscr{L} \simeq (\sigma\tau)^*\mathscr{L}$; thus they differ by an element $c_{\sigma,\tau} \in \operatorname{Aut}(\mathscr{L}) = k'^{\times}$. It is easy to see that c satisfies the 2-cocycle condition, and thus defines an element of $\operatorname{H}^2(\operatorname{Gal}(k'/k), k'^{\times}) \subset \operatorname{Br}(k)$. If this 2-cocycle is a coboundary, then the choice of i's can be modified to give descent data on \mathscr{L} , and \mathscr{L} belongs to $\operatorname{Pic}(X)$. This completes the proof. \square

Example 8.3. Let $k = \mathbb{R}$, $k' = \mathbb{C}$, and X the curve given by $X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2 = 0$. Then X is isomorphic to \mathbf{P}^1 over k' but not over k. Therefore, $\operatorname{Pic}(X \times_k k')$ is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} . Since $\Gamma = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$, $\operatorname{Pic}(X)$ has index at most 2 inside $\operatorname{Pic}(X \times_k k')$. But the bundle $\mathcal{O}(1)$ on $X \times_k k'$ does not descend to X, as this would give an isomorphism $X \to \mathbf{P}^1$ over k. Therefore Γ acts trivially on $\operatorname{Pic}(X \times_k k')$ given the exact sequence

$$0 \to 2\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \to 0.$$

Remark 8.4. Suppose k is a finite extension of \mathbb{Q}_p . Then $\operatorname{Br}(k) = \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$, and Lichtenbaum showed that the image of the map $\operatorname{Pic}(X \times_k \overline{k})^{\Gamma} \to \operatorname{Br}(k)$ is $N^{-1}\mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z}$, where N is the gcd of the degrees of divisors on X. Thus $\operatorname{Pic}(X) = \operatorname{Pic}(X \times_k \overline{k})^{\Gamma}$ if and only if X has a divisor of degree 1 defined over k.

Remark 8.5. We have not actually give an example where a line bundle of degree 0 fails to descend, which is the case of interest (as $F(k') = \text{Pic}^0(X \times_k k')$). I believe such an example exists if X is a genus 1 curve over a finite extension of \mathbb{Q}_p without a point.

8.3 The case when a rational point exists

The failure of F to satisfy descent only occurs when X has no k-rational points. To see this, suppose X has a k-rational point x. Define $\mathcal{C}_x(T)$ to be the category

$$\mathcal{C}_x(T) \coloneqq \left\{ (\mathscr{L}, i) : \mathscr{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}(X \times_k T) \,\middle|\, \deg \mathscr{L}_t = 0, \text{ for all } t \in T, \text{ and } i : \mathscr{L}|_{\{x\} \times T} \simeq \mathcal{O}_T \right\}.$$

Define $F_x(T)$ to be the set of isomorphism classes in $C_x(T)$. The key point is that objects of $C_x(T)$ are rigid: they have no automorphisms. This means that if an isomorphism class is invariant, then it has canonical descent data. It follows that F_x is a sheaf. On the other hand, we have the following lemma:

Lemma 8.6. The forgetful map $(F_x \to F, (\mathcal{L}, i) \mapsto \mathcal{L})$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. Let T be a connected scheme over k, and (\mathcal{L},i) and (\mathcal{L}',i') two elements in $\mathcal{C}_x(T)$ such that $\mathcal{L} \simeq \mathcal{L}' \otimes p_T^*(\mathcal{L}'')$ for some line bundle \mathcal{L}'' on T. Since $\mathcal{L}|_{\{x\}\times T} \simeq \mathcal{O}_T \simeq \mathcal{L}'|_{\{x\}\times T}$, we see that \mathcal{L}'' is trivial, and so $\mathcal{L} \simeq \mathcal{L}'$. This proves injectivity.

For the surjectivity, let \mathscr{L} be a line bundle on $X \times_k T$, and \mathscr{L}_0 its restriction to $\{x\} \times T$. Then $\mathscr{L} \otimes p_T^*(\mathscr{L}_0^{-1})$ is naturally an element of $F_x(T)$ mapping to \mathscr{L} in F(T).

We thus see that, when X has a k-point, F is a sheaf.

Theorem 8.7. Suppose X has a k-point x. Then the functor F is representable. The representing scheme is denoted by Jac(X), and called the Jacobian variety of X.

Theorem 8.7 implies that there exists a pair $(\operatorname{Jac}(X), \mathcal{M})$, where $\operatorname{Jac}(X)$ is an abelian variety and a line bundle \mathcal{M} on $X \times \operatorname{Jac}(X)$) such that the following are true:

- (a) $\mathcal{M}|_{X\times\{0\}} \simeq \mathcal{O}_X$ and $\mathcal{M}|_{\{x\}\times\mathrm{Jac}(X)} \simeq \mathcal{O}_{\mathrm{Jac}(X)};$
- (b) for any connected scheme T over k, a point t on T, and a line bundle \mathscr{L} on $X \times T$ such that $\mathscr{L}|_{X \times \{t\}} \simeq \mathcal{O}_X$ and $\mathscr{L}|_{\{x\} \times T} \simeq \mathcal{O}_T$, there exits a unique morphism $\phi : T \to \operatorname{Jac}(X)$ such that $\phi(t) = 0$ and $(1 \times \phi)^* \mathscr{M} \simeq \mathscr{L}$.

The pair $(Jac(X), \mathcal{M})$ is unique up to isomorphism. If X does not have a point then F is not necessarily a sheaf, and thus not necessarily representable. However, one can replace F with its sheafification, and this turns out to be representable. Thus one can define the Jacobian of X even when $X(k) = \emptyset$.

8.4 Construction of the Jacobian

We now sketch the proof of the representability of F when X(k) is non-empty. Let $x \in X(k)$, and $X^{(r)}$ the r-th symmetric power of X, i.e., the quotient of X^r by the action of the symmetric group S_r . Points on $X^{(r)}$ defined over k' can be identified with effective divisors on $X \times_k k'$ of degree r. We will consider $X^{(g)}$, where g is the genus of X. Let $U \subset X^{(g)} \times X^{(g)}$ be the subset given by

$$U \coloneqq \left\{ (D, D') \in X^{(g)} \times X^{(g)} : \ell(D + D - g[x]) = 1 \right\}.$$

For any effective divisors D and D' of degree g on X, the Riemann–Roch theorem implies that $\ell(D + D' - g[x]) \ge 1$. So, by semi-continuity, the locus U where equality holds is open. To show U is non-empty, proceed as follows. Taking D' = g[x], one must find an effective divisor

D of degree g with $\ell(D) = 1$, or, equivalently $\ell(K - D) = 0$. Simply pick g points x_1, \ldots, x_g on X such that the restriction map $H^0(X, \Omega^1) \to \prod_{i=1}^g T_{x_i}^*$ is an isomorphism.

Given $(D, D') \in U$, there is a non-zero meromorphic function f on X, unique up to scaling, such that $D'' = \operatorname{div}(f) + D + D - g[x]$ is effective. We define a map $U \to X^{(g)}$ by sending (D, D') to D''. By working systematically with families of divisors, one shows that this is a map of schemes. Therefore, it induces a rational map $X^{(g)} \times X^{(g)} \to X^{(g)}$. This rational map satisfies the axioms of a groupg (it is a group object in the category of varieties with rational maps). Weil showed that any such rational group variety can be upgraded to an actual group variety. Precisely, there exists a group variety J (unique up to isomorphism) and a unique isomorphism of rational group varieties $X^{(g)} \to J$.

Finally, we need to show that J represents F. To that end, we first show that J is proper, so that the rational map $X^{(g)} \to J$ is an actual map. Then, we define a map $\phi : \operatorname{Div}^0(X) \to J$ as follows. If $\deg D = 0$ is a degree 0 and D + g[x] is effective, then we view D + g[x] as an element of $X^{(g)}$ and takes its image in J. If D + g[x] is not effective, then we finds a divisor D' such that $\deg D' = 0$, and both D + D' + g[x] and D' + g[x] are effective; and we define $\phi(D) = \phi(D + D') - \phi(D')$. Working with families of divisors, ϕ gives a map of functors $F \to J$. One then verifies that it is a bijection on T-points.

8.5 Basic properties

The Jacobian variety satisfies the following basic properties:

- One can show that $T_0(\operatorname{Jac}(X)) = \operatorname{H}^1(X, \mathcal{O})$ using the functor of points of $\operatorname{Jac}(X)$ and the interpretation of the tangent space in terms of dual numbers.
- From this, one finds that $H^0(Jac(X), \Omega^1)$ is naturally isomorphic to $H^0(X, \Omega^1)$.
- One again has a map $f_x: X \to \text{Jac}(X)$ given a base point $x \in X(k)$. On field points, this takes a point $y \in X(k)$ to the degree 0 divisor [y] [x]. On T-points, it does the same thing, but one must use a relative notion of divisor.
- By definition, Jac(X)(k) is isomorphic to $Pic^0(X)$.

There are comparison theorems between the first (co)homology groups of X and Jac(X), though this now involves cohomology. To see this, one can use Kummer theory. Suppose n is prime to char(k), so that we have an exact sequence of sheaves on the étale site of X:

$$0 \to \mu_n \to \mathbb{G}_m \stackrel{[n]}{\to} \mathbb{G}_m \to 0.$$

Taking cohomology over \overline{k} , and using the fact that $(\overline{k}^{\times} \to \overline{k}^{\times}, x \mapsto x^n)$ is surjective, we see that

$$\mathrm{H}^1(X_{\overline{k}},\mathbb{G}_m)[n]=\mathrm{H}^1(X_{\overline{k}},\mu_n).$$

Now, we also have

$$\mathrm{H}^1(X_{\overline{k}},\mathbb{G}_m)=\mathrm{Pic}(X_{\overline{k}}).$$

Since all torsion in this group is of degree 0, we see that

$$\mathrm{H}^1(X_{\overline{k}},\mathbb{G}_m)[n] = \mathrm{Jac}(X)[n](\overline{k}).$$

Replacing n with ℓ^n and taking an inverse limit, we find

$$T_{\ell}(\operatorname{Jac}(X)) = \operatorname{H}^{1}(X_{\overline{k}}, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}(1)),$$

where the (1) is a Tate twist.

9 Zeta functions of curves

9.1 Hasse-Weil-Serre theorem

Proposition 9.1. Let X be a nonsingular complete curve over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q , and $J := \operatorname{Jac}(X)$ its Jacobian. Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{2g}$ be the complex roots of the polynomial f_J . Then for every positive integer n we have

$$\#X(\mathbb{F}_{q^n}) = 1 - \text{Tr}(\pi_J^n) + q^n = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^n + q^n.$$

Proof. It suffices to prove this for n = 1, as the assertion for arbitrary n then follows by considering $X \times_{\mathbb{F}_q} \mathbb{F}_{q^n}$. The number of points is given by the intersection number

$$\#X(\mathbb{F}_q) = \Delta_X \cdot \Gamma$$
, where $\Gamma_X \subset X \times X$

is the graph of the geometric Frobenius π_X . To prove the identity

$$\Delta_X \cdot \Gamma = 1 - \operatorname{Tr}(\pi_J) + q.$$

we may work over $k := \mathbb{F}_q$. Choose a point $P \in X(k)$ and let $\phi : X \to J$ be the map given on points by $Q \mapsto [Q - P]$.

Theorem 9.2. Let X be a nonsingular complete curve of genus g over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q , and $J := \operatorname{Jac}(X)$ its Jacobian. Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{2g}$ be the complex roots of the characteristic polynomial f_J of the geometric Frobenius of J. Let $P_0 := 1 - t$ and $P_2 := 1 - qt$, and let

$$P_1 \coloneqq \prod_{i=1}^{2g} (1 - \alpha_i \cdot t)$$

be the reciprocal of the polynomial f_J . Then we have

$$Z(X;t) = \frac{P_1}{P_0 P_2} = \frac{P_1}{(1-t)(1-qt)}.$$

All complex roots of the polynomial P_i are algebraic integers of absolute value $q^{i/2}$. Further, Z(X;t) satisfies the functional equation

$$Z(X;t) = q^{g-1} \cdot t^{2g-2} \cdot Z(X;\frac{1}{qt}).$$

Theorem 9.3. Let X be an abelian variety of dimension g over \mathbb{F}_q . Then, we have

$$|\operatorname{Tr}(\pi_X)| \leq g \cdot |2\sqrt{q}|.$$

This is an equality if and only if either $\alpha_i + \overline{\alpha}_i = \lfloor 2\sqrt{q} \rfloor$ for all i or $\alpha_i + \overline{\alpha}_i = -\lfloor 2\sqrt{q} \rfloor$ for all i.

Corollary 9.4 (Hasse-Weil-Serre). Let X be a complete nonsingular curve over \mathbb{F}_q . Then for the number of \mathbb{F}_q -rational points of X, we have the inequalities

$$q+1-g\lfloor 2\sqrt{q}\rfloor \le \#X(\mathbb{F}_q) \le q+1+g\lfloor 2\sqrt{q}\rfloor.$$

9.2 Examples: curves of genus ≤ 3

Example 9.5. Let $X \subset \mathbf{P}^2$ be the Klein curve over \mathbb{F}_2 ; this is the nonsingular quartic curve over \mathbb{F}_2 given by the homogeneous equation $X^3Y + Y^3Z + Z^3X = 0$. The genus of X is 3 and one easily checks that $\#X(\mathbb{F}_2) = 3$, that $\#X(\mathbb{F}_4) = 5$, and $\#X(\mathbb{F}_8) = 24$. The characteristic polynomial of Frobenius is $f_J = t^6 + 5t^3 + 8$ and X is ordinary. This curve reaches the Serre bound $q + 1 + g\lfloor 2\sqrt{q} \rfloor$ over \mathbb{F}_8 . Note that in this case Serre's bound is better than the original Hasse-Weil bound: $8 + 1 + 3 \lfloor 2\sqrt{8} \rfloor = 24$, whereas $8 + 1 + \lfloor 6\sqrt{8} \rfloor = 25$.

Example 9.6. Let $F = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{53})$ and $\mathcal{O}_F = \mathbb{Z}[w]$ the ring of integers of F, where $w = \frac{1+\sqrt{53}}{2}$. We let X be the curve defined over F by $X : y^2 + Q(x)y = P(x)$, where

$$P := -4x^{6} + (w - 17)x^{5} + (12w - 27)x^{4} + (5w - 122)x^{3}$$

$$+ (45w - 25)x^{2} + (-9w - 137)x + 14w + 9,$$

$$Q := wx^{3} + wx^{2} + w + 1.$$

The discriminant of this curve is $\Delta_X = -\epsilon^7$, where $\epsilon = 3 + w$. Thus X has everywhere good reduction. This means that the Jacobian $A = \operatorname{Jac}(X)$ has everywhere good reduction. So for each prime ideal $\mathfrak{p} \subset \mathcal{O}_F$, $A \times_{\mathcal{O}_F} \mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is an abelian surface. Using Sage or Magma, compute the reduction of A modulo all the primes ideals of norm less than 100, and find the number of points on $A \times_{\mathcal{O}_F} \mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{p}}$.

Example 9.7. Let $S_2(61, (\frac{\cdot}{61}))$ be the space of cusp forms of weight 2, level 61 and character the quadratic character of $F := \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{61})$. The space $S_2(61, (\frac{\cdot}{61}))$ has dimension 4. The space is irreducible and has a unique conjugacy class of newforms. Let f be the newform given by

$$f = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n q^n$$

$$= q + \sqrt{4 - \sqrt{3}q^2 + (\sqrt{3} - 1)q^3 + (\sqrt{3} - 2)q^4 - \sqrt{3}q^5 + (\sqrt{3} - 1)\sqrt{4 - \sqrt{3}q^6} - \sqrt{3}\sqrt{4 - \sqrt{3}q^7} + O(q^8)}.$$

Then f corresponds to an abelian variety B_f of dimension 4 defined over \mathbb{Q} . One can show that, for each prime $p \neq 61$, the eigenvalues of Frobenius are given by the conjugates of a_p . So, the traces of Frobenius acting on the Tate module $T_{\ell}(B_f \times_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{F}_p)$ is given by b_p where the sequence $(b_n)_{n\geq 1}$ is given by

$$\operatorname{Tr}(f) = \sum_{\sigma: E \to \mathbb{C}} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n q^n \right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{\sigma: E \to \mathbb{C}} a_n \right) q^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n q^n.$$

$$= 4q - 4q^3 - 8q^4 + 4q^9 + 20q^{12} + 12q^{13} - 12q^{14} + O(q^{15}).$$

The abelian variety B_f is \mathbb{Q} -simple. However, $B_f \times_{\mathbb{Q}} F$ is no longer simple. One can show that there exists an abelian surface A_f defined over F such that

$$B_f \times_{\mathbb{Q}} F) \sim_F A_f \times A_f^{\sigma},$$

where A_f^{σ} is the $Gal(F/\mathbb{Q})$ -conjugate of A_f . The endomorphism ring of the surface A_f is $End_F(A_f) = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$. The surface A_f has everywhere good reduction. This means that, for every prime ideal $\mathfrak{p} \subset \mathcal{O}_F$, $A_f \times_{\mathcal{O}_F} \mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is an abelian surface, where \mathcal{O}_F is the ring of integers of F, and $\mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{p}} = \mathcal{O}_F/\mathfrak{p}$ the residue field at \mathfrak{p} . The endomorphism ring $End_{\mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{p}}}(A_f \times_{\mathcal{O}_F} \mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{p}}) \supset \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$.