

Abelian varieties over finite fields

Lassina Dembélé

lassina.dembele@kcl.ac.uk

King's College London

Preliminary Arizona Winter School 2024

Version: October 11, 2023

Contents

1	Definition and properties of abelian varieties	3
1.1	Definition	3
1.2	Commutativity	4
1.3	Theorem of the cube	4
1.4	Theorem of the square	5
1.5	Isogenies	5
1.6	Structure of torsion	5
2	The dual variety	7
2.1	Definition of the dual	7
2.2	Construction of the dual	7
2.3	Polarisations	7
3	Structure of the isogeny category	8
3.1	Poincaré reducibility	8
3.2	The isogeny category	8
4	Basic example: elliptic curves	8
4.1	Definition of an elliptic curve	8
4.2	Definition of the group law	10
4.3	Computing with the group law	12
5	Endomorphism rings and Tate modules	14
5.1	Endomorphism ring of an abelian variety	14
5.2	The Tate module of an abelian variety	15
5.3	The Tate module of the multiplicative group	16
5.4	The Weil pairings	16
5.5	Semi-simple modules	18
6	Tate's theorem	20

1 Definition and properties of abelian varieties

We fix a field k , and let \bar{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. $X \times_{\text{Spec}(k)} \text{Spec}(\bar{k})$ 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 $m : G \times G \rightarrow G$ (the group law) and $i : G \rightarrow G$ (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:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 G \times G \times G & \xrightarrow{id_{G \times G \times G}} & (G \times G) \times G & \xrightarrow{m \times id_G} & G \times G \\
 id_{G \times G \times G} \downarrow & & & & \downarrow m \\
 G \times (G \times G) & \xrightarrow{id_G \times m} & G \times G & \xrightarrow{m} & G
 \end{array}$$

(ii) Identity element:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 G \times \text{Spec}(k) & \xrightarrow{id_G \times e} & G \times G & \xleftarrow{e \times id_G} & \text{Spec}(k) \times G \\
 & \searrow j_1 & \downarrow m & \swarrow j_2 & \\
 & & G & &
 \end{array}$$

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

(iii) Existence of inverse element:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 G & \xrightarrow{\pi} & \text{Spec}(k) & \xleftarrow{\pi} & G \\
 (id_G, i) \downarrow & & \downarrow e & & \downarrow (i, id_G) \\
 G \times G & \xrightarrow{m} & G & \xleftarrow{m} & G \times G
 \end{array}$$

where $\pi : G \rightarrow \text{Spec}(k)$ 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 $f : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ 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 $f : X \rightarrow Y$ 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

$$\begin{aligned} h : X \times X &\rightarrow Y \\ (x, y) &\mapsto f(x + y) - f(x) - f(y). \end{aligned}$$

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. \square

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. \square

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 are complete. Let $x_0 \in X, y_0 \in Y$ and $z_0 \in Z$ be points. Let \mathcal{L} be a line bundle on $X \times Y \times Z$ such that the restrictions of \mathcal{L} to $X \times Y \times \{z_0\}, X \times \{y_0\} \times Z$ and $\{x_0\} \times Y \times Z$ are trivial. Then \mathcal{L} is trivial.*

Corollary 1.8. *Let A be an abelian variety. Let $\pi_i : A \times A \times A \rightarrow A$ 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*

$$\mathcal{L}' := \pi_{123}^* \mathcal{L} \otimes \pi_{12}^* \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes \pi_{13}^* \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes \pi_{23}^* \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes \pi_1^* \mathcal{L} \otimes \pi_2^* \mathcal{L} \otimes \pi_3^* \mathcal{L}$$

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 $\pi_{123}^* \mathcal{L} = \pi_{12}^* \mathcal{L}$, $\pi_{13}^* \mathcal{L} = \pi_1^* \mathcal{L}$, and $\pi_3^* \mathcal{L} = 1$, so all factors cancel. \square

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

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

on X is trivial.

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

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 $x, y \in A(\bar{k})$. 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 $h = id_A$. \square

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

1.5 Isogenies

Proposition 1.11. *Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ 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 $f : A \rightarrow B$ 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 $k(B) \rightarrow k(A)$, since an isogeny is surjective.)*

Definition 1.13. *Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ 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 $f : A \rightarrow C$ be an isogeny. Then, there exist*

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} A(\bar{k}) &\rightarrow A(\bar{k}) \\ x &\mapsto nx. \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 1.15. *Let A be an 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

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

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. \square

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

Proof. One can show that abelian varieties are projective. Let \mathcal{L} be an ample line bundle on A . Replacing \mathcal{L} by $\mathcal{L} \otimes [-1]^* \mathcal{L}$, we can assume \mathcal{L} is symmetric. Since $[n]^* \mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}^{n^2}$, 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. \square

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

Proof. Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a finite map of complete varieties of degree d . If D_1, \dots, 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 $n^2 D$. We thus find

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

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

One can show that $[n] : A \rightarrow A$ 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 $(\text{char}(k), n) = 1$, then $A[n](\bar{k})$ is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{2g}$.*

Since $[p]$ is not separable, $A[p](\bar{k})$ 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 $f : A \rightarrow B$ be an isogeny of degree n . Then there exists an isogeny $g : B \rightarrow A$ 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 $\text{Pic}(A)$ to be the set of isomorphism classes of line bundles on A . Then, we let $\text{Pic}^0(A)$ be the subgroup consisting of those line bundles \mathcal{L} which are translation invariant, i.e., which satisfy $t_x^*(\mathcal{L}) \simeq \mathcal{L}$ for all $x \in A$. We define the following functor. For each variety T over k , let $F(T)$ be the set of isomorphism classes of line bundles \mathcal{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 $\text{Pic}^0(A)$; and
- (b) the restriction of \mathcal{L} to $\{0\} \times T$ is trivial.

We see that $F(k) = \text{Pic}^0(A)$. 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 \mathcal{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

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{\mathcal{L}} : A &\rightarrow \text{Pic}^0(A) \\ x &\mapsto [t_x^* \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{-1}]. \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

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 $\lambda : A \rightarrow A^\vee$ such that $\lambda_{\bar{k}} : A(\bar{k}) \rightarrow \text{Pic}^0(A)$ is given by $\lambda_{\bar{k}} = \phi_{\mathcal{L}}$ for some ample line bundle \mathcal{L} on A over \bar{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 $B \times C \rightarrow A$ is an isogeny.*

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

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. \square

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

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

One can show that if $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an isogeny then there exists an isogeny $g : B \rightarrow A$ 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 $\mathrm{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ is a division algebra over \mathbb{Q} . (Reason: if A is a simple object in an abelian category and $\mathrm{End}(A)$ contains a field k , then it is a division algebra over k .)

4 Basic example: elliptic curves

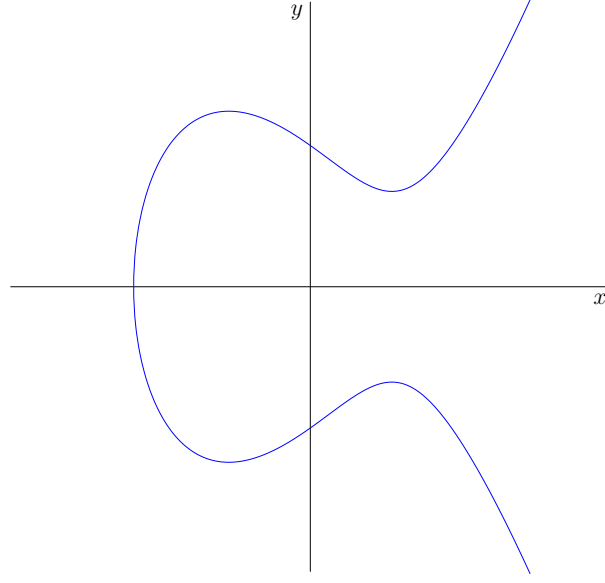
We will assume throughout this section, that k is a field of characteristic different from 2.

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 \bar{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 $f'(x) = 3x^2 + 2x = 2x$ ($\text{char}(\mathbb{F}_3) = 3$). So $\gcd(f, f') = 1$, which implies that f has distinct roots.

4.2 Definition of the group law

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

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

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

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

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 \bar{k} is n . The following theorem can be seen 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 $L \subset \mathbf{P}^1(\bar{k})$ 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 $L \cap E \subset \mathbf{P}^1(\bar{k})$, 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*.

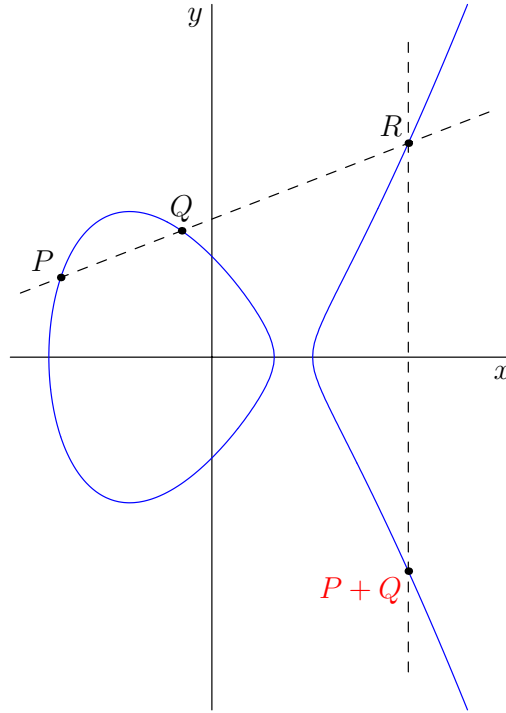


Figure 2: Group addition law

(b) $L \cap E$ has three distinct points P , Q and R . In that case, each point has multiplicity one.

We are now ready to define the group structure on $E(\bar{k})$.

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

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

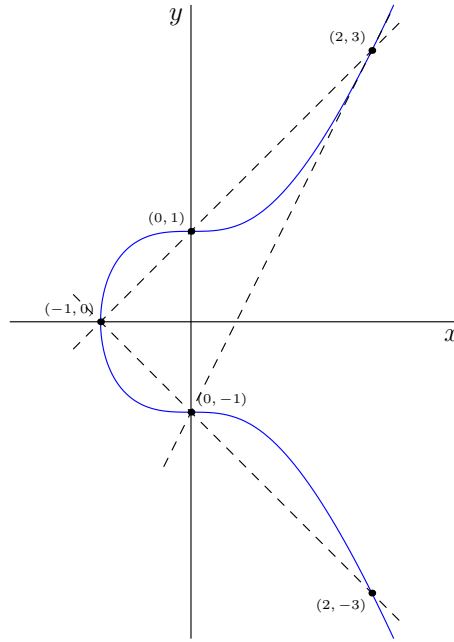
The addition law $+$ on $E(\bar{k})$ is defined as follows:

- (i) The neutral element is ∞ ;
- (ii) If $P, Q, R \in E(\bar{k})$ 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 $E(\bar{k})$. 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, $E(\bar{k})$ is an abelian group under the operation $+$, with identity element $\infty (= [0 : 1 : 0])$. In other words, we have*

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

4.3 Computing with the group law

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

Proposition 4.15. *Let E be as above, and $P_1, P_2 \in E(\bar{k})$. 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

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

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 $\lambda = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$ 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 $P_1 + P_2 = P_3 = (x_3, -y_3)$. \square

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 $\lambda = \frac{3x_P^2 + 2}{2y_P} = \frac{3(-3)^2 + 2}{2(4)} = 5 \pmod{11}$. So, we have $x_{2P} = \lambda^2 - 2x_P = (5^2) - 2(-3) = 25 + 6 = -2 \pmod{11}$. So, we get that $-y_{2P} = y_P + \lambda(x_{2P} - x_P) = 4 + 5(-2 - (-3)) = -2 \pmod{11}$. This gives $y_{2P} = 2$ and $2P = (-2, 2)$. 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 $k \subseteq k' \subseteq \bar{k}$ is a subfield, then $E(k')$ is a subgroup of $E(\bar{k})$.*

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. \square

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 $(f + g) : A \rightarrow A$ given on points by addition $x \mapsto f(x) + g(x)$. This gives the set $\text{Hom}(A, B)$ of homomorphisms $A \rightarrow B$ the structure of an abelian group. For $A = B$ we see that $\text{End}(A)$ has a natural ring structure, with composition of endomorphisms as the ring multiplication. We will always write $\text{Hom}(A, B)$ for the group of homomorphisms from A to B , and $\text{End}(A)$ for the ring of endomorphisms of A . We will use the notations $\text{Hom}_k(A, B)$ and $\text{End}_k(X)$ 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 $\text{Hom}(A, B)$ is torsion-free, i.e. for $f \in \text{Hom}(A, B)$ 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 $f = 0$. \square

We write

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

By definition, we see that $\text{End}^0(A)$ 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 $B \times C \rightarrow A$ is an isogeny.*

Proof. Let $i : B \hookrightarrow A$ be the inclusion map and $i^\vee : A^\vee \rightarrow B^\vee$ its dual. Let $\lambda : A \rightarrow A^\vee$ 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, $\dim C \geq \dim A - \dim B$. The restriction of the morphism $i^\vee \circ \lambda : A \rightarrow B^\vee$ to B is $\lambda|_B : B \rightarrow B^\vee$, whose kernel is finite since λ arises from an ample bundle \mathcal{L} . Therefore $B \cap C$ is finite, and so $B \times C \rightarrow A$ 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, \dots, B_r , which are pairwise non k -isogenous, and positive integers n_1, \dots, n_r such that A is k -isogenous to $B_1^{n_1} \times \dots \times B_r^{n_r}$, which we denote by $A \sim_k B_1^{n_1} \times \dots \times B_r^{n_r}$. 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. \square

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

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

$$\text{End}_k^0(A) = M_{n_1}(D_1) \times \dots \times M_{n_r}(D_r),$$

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

(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 $\text{End}_k^0(A)$. So if A is k -simple $\text{End}_k^0(A)$ is a division algebra. For the second part of the statement, note that $\text{Hom}(B_i, B_j) = 0$ if $i \neq j$ since B_i and B_j are simple and non-isogenous. \square

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 $(\text{char } k, n) = 1$. From Proposition 1.17, we know that $[n]$ is a separable map of degree n^{2g} . Furthermore, all fibers of the map $[n] : A(\bar{k}) \rightarrow A(\bar{k})$ have cardinality n^{2g} ; in other words, $A[n](\bar{k})$ has cardinality n^{2g} , where $A[n] = \ker[n]$. By Corollary 1.18 we have an isomorphism

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

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

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

$$T_\ell(A) := \varprojlim A[\ell^n],$$

the inverse limit of the groups $A[n](\bar{k})$, where the transition maps are multiplication by ℓ . Explicitly, an element of $T_\ell(A)$ is a sequence (x_0, x_1, \dots) of \bar{k} -points of A , 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

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

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 $G_k = \text{Gal}(\bar{k}/k)$ 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 $\rho : G_k \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}_{2g}(\mathbb{Z}_\ell)$, i.e., an ℓ -adic representation of the Galois group. This perspective has proved to be very useful.

Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ be a homomorphism of abelian varieties defined over k . Then, f induces a \mathbb{Z}_ℓ -linear and $\mathrm{Gal}(\bar{k}/k)$ -equivariant map

$$T_\ell f : T_\ell A \rightarrow T_\ell B.$$

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

$$(T_\ell f)(x) := (0, f(x_1), f(x_2), \dots).$$

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} T_\ell : \mathrm{Hom}(A, B) \otimes \mathbb{Z}_\ell &\rightarrow \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}_\ell}(T_\ell A, T_\ell B), \\ f \otimes c &\mapsto c \cdot T_\ell(f) \end{aligned}$$

is injective and has a torsion-free cokernel.

Proof. \square

5.3 The Tate module of the multiplicative group

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

The construction of the Tate module in the previous section can be applied equally well to G_m . If n is prime to $\mathrm{char} k$ then the n -torsion $G_m[n]$ is just the group of n -th roots of unity; its \bar{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 $\chi : G_k \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}_1(\mathbb{Z}_\ell) = \mathbb{Z}_\ell^\times$. 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 $(n, \mathrm{char} k) = 1$. Then there exists a pairing*

$$e_n : A[n] \times A^\vee[n] \rightarrow \mu_n$$

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 $\lambda : A \rightarrow A^\vee$ be a polarisation on A . Then, we obtain the pairing

$$e_n^\lambda : A[n] \times A[n] \rightarrow \mu_n$$

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

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 $\lambda : A \rightarrow A^\vee$ and $n > 0$ an integer such that $(n, \text{char } k) = 1$. The pairing*

$$e_n^\lambda : A[n] \times A[n] \rightarrow \mu_n$$

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

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

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

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

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*

$$\text{End}^0(A) \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$$

$$c \otimes \phi \mapsto c \deg(\phi)$$

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

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

Corollary 5.12. *Let A be an abelian variety over k . Then, for each $\phi \in \text{End}^0(A)$, 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

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

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 $f : A \rightarrow B$ 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 $r \geq 0$, we let $M_r(A)$ 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 $A_1, \dots, A_r \subset A$. 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 . \square

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

$$\begin{aligned} A &\rightarrow \text{End}_D(M) \\ a &\mapsto a_M. \end{aligned}$$

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

Corollary 5.18 (Wedderburn). *Let A be a simple ring. Then, there exist an integer $r \geq 1$ 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 is isomorphic to M^r as A -modules. From this and the lemma above, it follows that $A \simeq M_r(D)$. \square

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*

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

Then the map $(A \rightarrow \text{End}_C(M), a \mapsto a_M)$ 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 $\varphi : B \rightarrow B'$ 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 $\text{Aut}_K(A) = \text{Inn}(A) \simeq A^\times / K^\times$.

6 Tate's theorem

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} k[x_0, \dots, x_n] &\rightarrow k[x_0, \dots, x_n] \\ x_i &\mapsto x_i^q. \end{aligned}$$

On points, this induces the map

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}^n(\mathbb{F}) &\rightarrow \mathbf{P}^n(\mathbb{F}) \\ (x_0 : \dots : x_n) &\mapsto (x_0^q : \dots : x_n^q). \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} V(\mathbb{F}) &\rightarrow V(\mathbb{F}) \\ (x_0 : \dots : x_n) &\mapsto (x_0^q : \dots : x_n^q). \end{aligned}$$

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

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 $\mathbb{Q}[\pi_A] \subset \text{End}^0(A)$ 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 $\text{End}^0(A)$, which is a product of number fields. Hence $\mathbb{Q}[\pi_A] \subset \text{End}^0(A)$ is a product of (number) fields, too. It follows that also $\mathbb{Q}_\ell[\pi_A] \subset \mathbb{Q}_\ell \otimes \text{End}^0(A)$ 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 $\text{End}^0(A)$ 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 . \square

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 $\ell \neq \text{char}(k)$.*

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

$$T_\ell : \mathbb{Z}_\ell \otimes \text{Hom}^0(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Hom}_{\text{Gal}(k_s/k)}(T_\ell A, T_\ell B)$$

is an isomorphism if and only if the map

$$V_\ell : \mathbb{Q}_\ell \otimes \text{Hom}^0(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Hom}_{\text{Gal}(k_s/k)}(V_\ell A, V_\ell B) \quad (2)$$

is an isomorphism.

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

$$\mathbb{Q}_\ell \otimes \text{End}^0(C) \rightarrow \text{End}_{\text{Gal}(k_s/k)}(V_\ell C)$$

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 $\text{coker}(T_\ell)$ is torsion-free (hence free). Hence T_ℓ is an isomorphism if and only if $\mathbb{Q}_\ell \otimes \text{coker}(T_\ell) = 0$. Now use that \mathbb{Q}_ℓ is flat over \mathbb{Z}_ℓ , so the map V_ℓ is again injective and $\text{coker}(V_\ell) = \mathbb{Q}_\ell \otimes \text{coker}(T_\ell)$.

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

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

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

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

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

$$\mathbb{Q}_\ell \otimes \text{Hom}^0(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Hom}_{\text{Gal}(k_s/k)}(V_\ell A, V_\ell B).$$

□

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

Proof.

Give a reference!

□

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

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

is semisimple and the map

$$\mathbb{Q}_\ell \text{End}^0(A) \rightarrow \text{End}_{\text{Gal}(k_s/k)}(V_\ell A)$$

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 $u \in \mathbb{Q}_\ell \text{End}(A)$ with $W = u \cdot V_\ell A$. Since $\mathbb{Q}_\ell \text{End}(A)$ is semisimple, the right ideal $u \cdot \mathbb{Q}_\ell \text{End}(A)$ is generated by an idempotent e . Write $u = e \cdot a$ and $e = u \cdot b$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}_\ell \text{End}(A)$; 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 $\mathbb{Q}_\ell \text{End}(A) \rightarrow \text{End}_{\text{Gal}(k_s/k)}(V_\ell A)$ is injective by Theorem 5.7. Letting $C = \text{End}_{\mathbb{Q}_\ell \text{End}(A)}(V_\ell A)$, Theorem 5.19 implies that $\mathbb{Q}_\ell \text{End}(A) = \text{End}_C(V_\ell A)$. Hence it suffices to show that for every $\varphi \in \text{End}_{\text{Gal}(k_s/k)}(V_\ell A)$ 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 $u \in \mathbb{Q}_\ell \text{End}(A^2) = M_2(\mathbb{Q}_\ell \text{End}(A))$ such that $\Gamma_\varphi = u \cdot V_\ell A^2$. But $\gamma := \begin{pmatrix} c & 0 \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix} \in M_2(\mathbb{Q}_\ell \text{End}(A))$ 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. \square

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

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

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

is semisimple.

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

$$\mathbb{Z}_\ell \otimes \text{Hom}^0(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Hom}_{\text{Gal}(k_s/k)}(T_\ell A, T_\ell B)$$

is an isomorphism.