## MATH 631 NOTES ALGEBRAIC GEOMETRY

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## 1. Algebraic sets, affine varieties, and the Zariski topology

List of topics:
(1) Algebraic sets
(2) Hilbert basis theorem
(3) Zariski topology
1.1. Algebraic sets. Fix a field $k$. Consider $k^{N}$, the set of $N$-tuples in $k$.

Definition 1.1. An affine algebraic subset of $k^{N}$ is the common zero locus of a collection of polynomials in $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]$.

That is: Fix $S \subseteq k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]$ any subset. Then

$$
\mathbb{V}(S)=\left\{p=\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{N}\right) \in k^{N} \mid f(p)=0 \forall f \in S\right\} .
$$

Example 1.2. (1) Lines in $\mathbb{R}^{2}: \mathbb{V}(y-m x-b) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2}$.
(2) Rational points on a cone (arithmetic geometry): $\mathbb{V}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}^{3}$
(3) All linear subspaces of $k^{N}$ are affine algebraic sets.
(4) $\mathbb{V}\left(\operatorname{det}\left(x_{i j}\right)-1\right)=\operatorname{SL}_{n}(\mathbb{C})=\{n \times n$ matrices $/ \mathbb{C}$ of $\operatorname{det} 1\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}^{n^{2}}$
(5) $\mathfrak{s l}_{2}(\mathbb{R})=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{cc}x & y \\ z & w\end{array}\right) \right\rvert\,\right.$ trace $\left.=0\right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$
(6) Point in $k^{N}:\left\{\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{N}\right)\right\}=\mathbb{V}\left(x_{1}-a_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}-a_{N}\right)$.
(7) $\mathbb{V}(x, y)=(0,0)=\mathbb{V}\left(\left\{x^{n}+y, y^{n+17}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N} \geq 30}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2}$

Remark 1.3. $S \subseteq T \subseteq k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right] \Longrightarrow \mathbb{V}(S) \supseteq \mathbb{V}(T)$.

### 1.2. Hilbert basis theorem.

Theorem 1.4 (Hilbert basis theorem). Every affine algebraic set in $k^{N}$ can be defined by finitely many polynomials.

Proof requires a lemma:
Lemma 1.5. Let $\left\{f_{\lambda}\right\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \subseteq k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]$ and let $I \subseteq k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]$ be the ideal generated by the $\left\{f_{\lambda}\right\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$. Then $\mathbb{V}(S)=\mathbb{V}(I)$.
Proof. We know $\mathbb{V}(S) \supseteq \mathbb{V}(I)$. Take $p \in \mathbb{V}(S)$. We want to show that given any $g \in I$, we have $g(p)=0$.

Take $g \in I$, so $g=r_{1} f_{1}+\cdots+r_{t} f_{t}$, where $f_{i} \in S$ and $r_{i} \in k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]$. So

$$
g(p)=r_{1}(p) f_{1}(p)+\cdots+r_{t}(p) f_{t}(p)=0
$$

since $f_{i}(p)=0$ for $i=1, \ldots, t$. Hence $p \in \mathbb{V}(I)$.
Proof of Theorem 1.4. Take any $S \subseteq k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right], I=\langle S\rangle$ ideal generated by $S$. We have $\mathbb{V}(S)=$ $\mathbb{V}(I)$ by Lemma 1.5 . But every ideal in a polynomial ring in finitely many variables is finitely generated. Hence

$$
\mathbb{V}(S)=\mathbb{V}(I)=\mathbb{V}\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{t}\right)
$$

where $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{t}$ generate $I$.
Remark 1.6 (Algebra black box). - $R$ is Noetherian if every ideal is f.g.

- Thm: $R$ Noetherian $\Longrightarrow R[x]$ Noetherian.
- $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N-1}\right]\left[x_{N}\right] \cong k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]$, use induction.


### 1.3. Zariski topology.

Definition 1.7 (topology). A topology on a set $X$ is a collection of distinguished subsets, called closed sets, satisfying:
(1) $\varnothing$ and $X$ are closed.
(2) An arbitrary intersection of closed sets is closed.
(3) A finite union of closed sets is closed.

Example 1.8. (1) On $\mathbb{R}$, the Euclidean topology.
(2) On $\mathbb{R}$, cofinite: closed sets are finite sets, and $\mathbb{R}, \varnothing$.

Definition 1.9 (Zariski topology). The Zariski topology on $k^{N}$ is defined as the topology whose closed sets are affine algebraic sets.
1.3.1. Proof that affine algebraic sets form closed sets on a topology on $k^{N}$.
(1) $\varnothing=\mathbb{V}(1), k^{N}=\mathbb{V}(0)$.
(2) WTS: $\left\{V_{\lambda}\right\}$ closed sets $\Longrightarrow \bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} V_{\lambda}$ closed. Write $V_{\lambda}=\mathbb{V}\left(I_{\lambda}\right)$. Then

$$
\bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} V_{\lambda}=\bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \mathbb{V}\left(I_{\lambda}\right)=\mathbb{V}\left(\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} I_{\lambda}\right)=\mathbb{V}\left(\sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} I_{\lambda}\right) .
$$

(3) WTS: Finite union of closed sets are closed. By induction, suffices to show $\mathbb{V}\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{t}\right) \cup$ $\mathbb{V}\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{s}\right)$ is an algebraic set.

Note:

$$
\mathbb{V}\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{t}\right) \cup \mathbb{V}\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{s}\right)=V\left(\left\{f_{i} g_{j}\right\}_{\substack{i \in\{1, \ldots, t\} \\ j \in\{1, \ldots, s\}}}\right)
$$

Proof on quiz.
Example 1.10. Zariski topology on $k^{1}$ is the cofinite topology. Since $k[x]$ is a PID,

$$
V=\mathbb{V}\left(\left\langle f_{1}, \ldots, f_{t}\right\rangle\right)=\mathbb{V}(f)=\{\text { roots of } f\},
$$

which is finite if $f \neq 0$.
2. Ideals, Nullstellensatz, and the coordinate ring

Today:
(1) ideal of $V$
(2) Hilbert's Nullstellensatz
(3) Regular functions
(4) coordinate ring
2.1. Ideal of an affine algebraic set. Affine algebraic subset of $k^{N}$ :

$$
V=\mathbb{V}\left(\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{t}\right)\right) \subseteq k^{N}
$$

Consider the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{\text { ideals in } k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]\right\} & \longrightarrow\left\{(\text { affine }) \text { algebraic subsets of } k^{N}\right\} \\
I & \longmapsto \mathbb{V}(I) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note 2.1. - This map is order reversing: $I \subseteq J \Longrightarrow \mathbb{V}(J) \subseteq \mathbb{V}(I)$.

- Surjective.
- Not injective: e.g., $(x, y),\left(x^{2}, y^{2}\right)$.

Remark 2.2 (algebra). $R$ commutative ring, $I \subseteq R$ any ideal.
Definition 2.3. The radical of $I$ is the ideal

$$
\operatorname{Rad} I=\left\{f \in R \mid f^{N} \in I \text { for some } N\right\} .
$$

- Sanity check: show this is an ideal.
- $I$ is radical if $\operatorname{Rad} I=I$.

Lemma 2.4. Let $I \subseteq k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]$. Then

$$
\mathbb{V}(I)=\mathbb{V}(\operatorname{Rad} I)
$$

Proof. $I \subseteq \operatorname{Rad} I \Longrightarrow \mathbb{V}(\operatorname{Rad} I) \subseteq \mathbb{V}(I)$.
So take $p \in \mathbb{V}(I) \subseteq k^{N}$. Need to show $\forall f \in \operatorname{Rad} I$ that $f(p)=0$. We have $f \in \operatorname{Rad} I \Longrightarrow f^{N} \in$ $\operatorname{Rad} I$, so

$$
(f(p))^{N}=f^{N}(p)=0 \Longrightarrow f(p)=0 .
$$

Now is the map $I \longmapsto \mathbb{V}(I)$ injective?
Example 2.5. $\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right) \in \mathbb{R}[x, y]$.

$$
\mathbb{V}(x, y)=(0,0)=\mathbb{V}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2}
$$

We have 2 radical ideals defining the same algebraic set.
Definition 2.6. Let $V \subseteq k^{N}$ be an affine algebraic set. The ideal of $V$ is

$$
\mathbb{I}(V)=\left\{f \in k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right] \mid f(p)=0 \forall p \in V\right\} .
$$

Note 2.7. $\mathbb{I}(V)$ is a radical ideal, and is the largest ideal defining $V$.
Proposition 2.8. $V=\mathbb{V}(\mathbb{I}(V))$.
Proof. Say $V=\mathbb{V}(I)$. Since $I \subseteq \mathbb{I}(V)$, we have $\mathbb{V}(\mathbb{I}(V)) \subseteq \mathbb{V}(I)=V$.
Take $p \in V$. Need to show $\forall g \in \mathbb{I}(V)$ that $g(p)=0$, which is true by definition of $\mathbb{I}(V)$.
This shows that $\mathbb{I}$ is a right inverse of $\mathbb{V}$.
Example 2.9. Going back to our previous example, we should really view $\mathbb{V}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)$ in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ rather than $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ :

$$
\mathbb{V}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)=\mathbb{V}((x+i y)(x-i y))=\mathbb{V}(x+i y) \cup \mathbb{V}(x-i y) .
$$

### 2.2. Hilbert's Nullstellensatz.

Theorem 2.10 (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz). Let $k=\bar{k}$ (i.e., assume $k$ is algebraically closed). There is an order-reversing bijection

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{\text { radical ideals in } \begin{array}{rl}
\left.k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]\right\} & \longleftrightarrow\left\{\text { affine algebraic subsets of } k^{N}\right\} \\
I & \longmapsto \mathbb{V}(I) \\
\mathbb{I}(V) & \longleftrightarrow V .
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark 2.11. Points in affine space $k^{N}$ correspond to maximal ideals in the polynomial ring $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]$.

### 2.3. Irreducible spaces.

Definition 2.12. A topological space $X$ is irreducible if $X$ is not the union of two nonempty proper closed sets.

Example 2.13. The cofinite topology on $\mathbb{R}$ is irreducible.

### 2.4. Sept. 10 warmup.

- Draw $\mathbb{V}(x y, x z) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{3}$.
- Prove Lemma: For $I, J \subseteq k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]$,

$$
\mathbb{V}(I \cap J)=\mathbb{V}(I) \cup \mathbb{V}(J) .
$$

Proof 1. $I \cap J \subseteq I, J \Longrightarrow \mathbb{V}(I) \cup \mathbb{V}(J) \subseteq \mathbb{V}(I \cap J)$.
Take $p \in \mathbb{V}(I \cap J)$. Need $p \in \mathbb{V}(I)$ or $\mathbb{V}(J)$. If $p \notin \mathbb{V}(I)$, then $\exists f \in I$ such that $f(p) \neq 0$.
Now: $\forall g \in J$, look at $f g \in I J$. Because $p \in \mathbb{V}(I \cap J)$,

$$
f(p) g(p)=(f g)(p)=0,
$$

hence $g(p)=0$ and $p \in \mathbb{V}(J)$.
Proof 2. $\mathbb{V}(I \cap J)=\mathbb{V}(\sqrt{I \cap J})=\mathbb{V}(\sqrt{I J})=\mathbb{V}(I J)=\mathbb{V}(I) \cup \mathbb{V}(J)$.
2.5. Some commutative algebra. $R$ commutative ring.

- $I, J$ radical $\Longrightarrow I \cap J$ radical.
$\bullet \mathfrak{p} \subseteq R$ is prime $\Longleftrightarrow R / \mathfrak{p}$ is a domain $\Longleftrightarrow$ if $f g \in \mathfrak{p}$, then $f \in \mathfrak{p}$ or $g \in \mathfrak{p}$.
- If $R$ is Noetherian, $I$ radical, then

$$
I=\mathfrak{p}_{1} \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{p}_{t}
$$

uniquely, where the $\mathfrak{p}_{i}$ are prime (irredundant).
2.6. Review of Hilbert's Nullstellensatz. The mappings $\mathbb{I}$ and $\mathbb{V}$ are mutually inverse, giving us an order-reversing bijection

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\text { \{affine algebraic subsets of } \left.k^{N}\right\} & \stackrel{\mathbb{I}}{\longleftrightarrow} \text { V }
\end{array} \text { radical ideals of } k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]\right\} .
$$

\{irreducible algebraic sets $\} \longleftrightarrow$ Spec $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]=\{$ prime ideals $\}$

### 2.7. Irreducible algebraic sets.

Definition 2.14. An algebraic set $V \subseteq k^{N}$ is irreducible if it cannot be written as the union of two proper algebraic sets contained in $V$. [If $V=V_{1} \cup V_{2}$, then $V=V_{1}$ or $V=V_{2}$.]

Exercise 2.15. $\mathbb{V}(I)$ is irreducible $\Longleftrightarrow I$ is prime, where $I$ is radical.
Observation 2.16. $I \subseteq k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]$ radical ( $k$ not necessarily algebraically closed), write $I=$ $\mathfrak{p}_{1} \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{p}_{t}$, where $\mathfrak{p}_{i}$ are prime (unique!).

$$
\mathbb{V}(I)=\mathbb{V}\left(\mathfrak{p}_{1}\right) \cup \cdots \cup \mathbb{V}\left(\mathfrak{p}_{t}\right)
$$

are the (unique) irreducible components of $\mathbb{V}(I)$.
The point is:
Proposition 2.17. Every algebraic set in $k^{N}$ is a union of its irreducible components.
2.8. Aside on non-radical ideals. We also have $\mathbb{V}(I) \cap \mathbb{V}(J)=\mathbb{V}(I \cup J)$. However, $I \cup J$ is not usually an ideal, and $I+J$ is not necessarily radical.

Non-radical ideals lead into scheme theory:

$$
\mathbb{V}\left(y-x^{2}\right) \cap \mathbb{V}(y)=\mathbb{V}\left(y-x^{2}, y\right)=\mathbb{V}\left(y, x^{2}\right) .
$$

We should somehow keep track of the multiplicity.

## 3. Regular functions, Regular maps, and categories

3.1. Regular functions. Fix $V \subseteq k^{N}$ algebraic set, $k=\bar{k}$.

Definition 3.1. A function $V \longrightarrow k$ is regular if it agrees with the restriction to $V$ of some polynomial function on the ambient $k^{N}$.
Proposition-Definition 3.2. The set of all regular functions on $V$ has a natural ring structure (where addition and multiplication are the functional notions). This is the coordinate ring of $V$, denoted $k[V]$.
Example 3.3. On $k^{N}, k\left[k^{N}\right]=k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]$.
Remark 3.4. (1) $k=\bar{k} \Longrightarrow k$ is infinite.
(2) If $k$ is infinite, then there is no ambiguity in the word "polynomial".

Example 3.5. Consider $\mathbb{V}\left(y-x^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2}$. This is the set of all points $\left(t, t^{2}\right)$. The function " $y$ " outputs the $y$-coordinate (projection to $y$-axis), and " $x^{2}$ " is the same function in $V$.

Example 3.6. Consider $\mathbb{V}(x y-1) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}^{2}$. Is $\frac{1}{y}$ regular?
Yes: $\frac{1}{y}=x$ on $\mathbb{V}(x y-1)$.
Observation 3.7. The restriction map gives a natural ring surjection

$$
\begin{aligned}
k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right] & \longrightarrow k[V] \\
\varphi & \left.\longmapsto \varphi\right|_{V}
\end{aligned}
$$

whose kernel is $\mathbb{I}(V)$. In particular,

$$
k[V] \cong \frac{k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]}{\mathbb{I}(V)} .
$$

3.2. Properties of the coordinate ring. The coordinate ring $k[V]$ has the following properties:
(1) $k[V]$ is a f.g. $k$-algebra generated by the images of $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}$.
(2) reduced (the only nilpotent element is 0 )
(3) domain $\Longleftrightarrow V$ is irreducible.
(4) The maximal ideals of $k[V]$ correspond to points of $V$ (need $k=\bar{k}$ ).

Note 3.8 (commutative algebra). Maximal ideals in $k[V] \cong k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right] / \mathbb{I}(V)$ correspond to maximal ideals in $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right]$ containing $\mathbb{I}(V)$. By the Nullstellensatz, these correspond to points on $V$.

### 3.3. Regular mappings.

Definition 3.9. Let $V \subseteq k^{n}$ and $W \subseteq k^{m}$ be affine algebraic sets. A regular mapping of affine algebraic sets

$$
\varphi: V \longrightarrow W
$$

is any mapping $\varphi$ which agrees with a polynomial map $\Psi$ on the ambient $k^{n} \longrightarrow k^{m}$ :

$$
x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \stackrel{\Psi}{\longmapsto}\left(\Psi_{1}(x), \ldots, \Psi_{m}(x)\right),
$$

where $\Psi_{i}$ are polynomials.

Note 3.10. If $W=k$, then a regular map is a regular function.
Note 3.11. We can describe a regular map $V \xrightarrow{\varphi} W \subseteq k^{m}$ by giving regular functions $\varphi_{1}, \ldots, \varphi_{m} \in$ $k[V]$ :

$$
p \longmapsto\left(\varphi_{1}(p), \ldots, \varphi_{m}(p)\right) \in W \subseteq k^{m} .
$$

Example 3.12.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& k \longrightarrow \mathbb{V}\left(y-x^{2}\right) \subseteq k^{2} \\
& t \longmapsto\left(t, t^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

is a regular map from $k$ to $\mathbb{V}\left(y-x^{2}\right)$.
The projection

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{V}\left(y-x^{2}\right) \subseteq k^{2} & \longrightarrow k \\
(x, y) & \longmapsto x
\end{aligned}
$$

is the inverse to the map $t \longmapsto\left(t, t^{2}\right)$.
Definition 3.13. An isomorphism of affine algebraic sets is a regular map $V \xrightarrow{\varphi} W$ which has a regular map $W \xrightarrow{\psi} V$ inverse: $\psi \circ \varphi=\mathrm{id}_{V}$ and $\varphi \circ \psi=\mathrm{id}_{W}$.
Example 3.14. Let $V_{1}, V_{2} \subseteq k^{n}$ be linear subspaces (defined by some collection of linear polynomials). Then $V_{1} \cong V_{2}$ as algebraic sets $\Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{dim} V_{1}=\operatorname{dim} V_{2}$.

Example 3.15 (diagonal map). Give $k^{n} \times k^{n}$ coordinates $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
k^{n} \xrightarrow{\Delta} k^{n} \times k^{n} \\
p \longmapsto(p, p)
\end{gathered}
$$

Image is the "diagonal"

$$
D=\mathbb{V}\left(x_{1}-y_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}-y_{n}\right) \subseteq k^{n} \times k^{n}
$$

The map $k^{n} \xrightarrow{\Delta} D \subseteq k^{n} \times k^{n}$ is an isomorphism of affine algebraic sets.
Example 3.16. $X, Y \subseteq k^{n}$ algebraic sets. View $X \subseteq k^{n}$ with coordinates $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ and $Y \subseteq k^{n}$ with coordinates $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
k^{n} \xrightarrow{\Delta} k^{n} \times k^{n} \\
\cup \cup \\
X \cap Y \underset{p \longmapsto(p, p)}{\cong}(X \times Y) \cap D
\end{gathered}
$$

3.4. Category of affine algebraic sets. Key idea: The category of affine algebraic sets over $k=\bar{k}$ is "the same" (anti-equivalence, duality) as the category of f.g. reduced $k$-algebras.

Point: Given a regular map $V \xrightarrow{\varphi} W$ of affine algebraic sets, there is a naturally induced $k$ algebraic homomorphism $k[W] \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} k[V]$ given for $g \in k[W], W \xrightarrow{g} k$ by

$$
\begin{gathered}
V \stackrel{\varphi}{\stackrel{\varphi}{\longmapsto}} \stackrel{g}{g \circ \varphi} k \\
x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \longmapsto\left(\varphi_{1}(x), \ldots, \varphi_{m}(x)\right) \longmapsto g\left(\varphi_{1}(x), \ldots, \varphi_{m}(x)\right) \in k[V],
\end{gathered}
$$

where $\varphi_{1}, \ldots, \varphi_{m}$ are polynomials in $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$.

Theorem 3.17. For $k=\bar{k}$, there is an anti-equivalenc $\rrbracket^{1}$ of categories

$$
\begin{aligned}
\begin{array}{c}
\left.\begin{array}{c}
\text { affine algebraic sets over } k \\
\text { with regular maps }
\end{array}\right\} \\
V
\end{array} \longmapsto\left\{\begin{array}{c}
f . g \text {. reduced } k \text {-algebras with } \\
k \text {-algebra homomorphisms }
\end{array}\right\} \\
(V \xrightarrow{\varphi} W) \longmapsto k[V] \\
k^{n} \supseteq \mathbb{V}(I) \longleftrightarrow\binom{k[W] \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} k[V]}{g \longmapsto g \circ \varphi} \\
\rightsquigarrow R \cong \frac{k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{I} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof.
Note 3.18. The assignment $V \longmapsto k[V]$ is functorial: Given

$$
V \underset{h}{\stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow}} W \stackrel{g}{\longrightarrow} X,
$$

there is $f^{*}, g^{*}, h^{*}$ and a commutative diagram

$$
k[V] \underset{h^{*}}{\underset{\underset{~ f}{*}}{\stackrel{f^{*}}{5}} k[W] \stackrel{g^{*}}{\leftrightarrows}} k[X],
$$

i.e., $(g \circ f)^{*}=f^{*} \circ g^{*}$. (Make sure this is obvious to you.)

Problem: Given a reduced, f.g. $k$-algebra $R$, how to cook up $V$ ?
Fix a $k$-algebra presentation for $R$ :

$$
R=\frac{k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{I} .
$$

Because $R$ is reduced, $I$ is radical. Let

$$
V=\mathbb{V}(I) \subseteq k^{n} .
$$

By the Nullstellensatz, $\mathbb{I}(\mathbb{V}(I))=I$, so

$$
k[V] \cong \frac{k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{\mathbb{I}(V)}=\frac{k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{I}=R .
$$

What about homomorphisms of $k$-algebras?


Let $\varphi_{i}=\varphi\left(y_{i}\right) \in k[V]$ for $i=1, \ldots, m$. This uniquely defines $\varphi$.
Need to construct

$$
\begin{aligned}
k^{n} \supseteq \mathbb{V}(J) & \stackrel{\Psi}{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{V}(I) \subseteq k^{m} \\
x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) & \longmapsto\left(\varphi_{1}(x), \ldots, \varphi_{m}(x)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We have that $\Psi$ is a map $V \longrightarrow k^{m}$. Need to check that
(1) the image is in $W$,
(2) $\Psi^{*}=\varphi$.

[^0]To check

$$
\left(\varphi_{1}(x), \ldots, \varphi_{m}(x)\right) \in \mathbb{V}(I)=W
$$

take any $g \in I$. For any $x \in V$,

$$
g\left(\varphi_{1}(x), \ldots, \varphi_{m}(x)\right)=\varphi(g)(x)=0
$$

We have that $\varphi$ is represented by a map

$$
\begin{aligned}
k\left[y_{1}, \ldots, y_{m}\right] & \longrightarrow k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] \\
y_{i} & \longmapsto \varphi_{i},
\end{aligned} \quad i=1, \ldots, m .
$$

Because $\varphi$ induces a map of the quotient ring

$$
\frac{k\left[y_{1}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]}{I} \xrightarrow{\varphi} \frac{k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{J},
$$

$\widetilde{\varphi}(g) \in J$ for any $g \in I$. In other words, $\widetilde{\varphi}(I) \subseteq J$.
Finally, it's easy to check that this functor is the inverse functor to $V \longmapsto k[V]$.
3.5. Sep. 14 quiz question. Consider $k \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{V}\left(y^{2}-x^{3}\right) \subseteq k^{2}$ given by

$$
t \longmapsto\left(t^{2}, t^{3}\right)
$$

Is this a regular map? Bijective? Isomorphism? Describe explicitly the induced $\varphi^{*}$. Inverse:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (x, y) \longmapsto \frac{y}{x} \text { if } x \neq 0, \\
& (0,0) \longmapsto 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$\varphi$ is an isomorphism $\Longleftrightarrow \varphi^{*}$ is an isomorphism.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi^{*}: \frac{k[x, y]}{\left(y^{2}-x^{3}\right)} & \longrightarrow k[t] \\
x & \longmapsto t^{2} \\
y & \longmapsto t^{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

is not an isomorphism of $k$-algebras.
3.6. Convention on algebraic sets. From now on, affine algebraic sets $V \subseteq k^{n}=\mathbb{A}^{n}$ will be considered as topological spaces with the induced (subspace) Zariski topology.

The closed sets of $V$ are $\widetilde{W} \cap V$, where $\widetilde{W} \subseteq k^{n}$ (affine algebraic set contained in $V$ ) is closed in $k^{n}$.
3.7. Hilbert's Nullstellensatz and the Zariski topology. Assume $k=\bar{k}$. Fix $V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$ affine algebraic set.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\{\text { closed sets in } V\} & \longleftrightarrow\{\text { radical ideals in } k[V]\} \\
W & \longmapsto \mathbb{I}(W)=\{f \in k[V] \mid f(p)=0 \forall p \in W\} \\
V \supseteq\{p \in V \mid f(p)=0 \forall f \in I\}=\mathbb{V}(I) & \longleftrightarrow I
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. Follows immediately from the Nullstellensatz in $\mathbb{A}^{n}$ :
$\{$ affine algebraic sets in $V\} \longleftrightarrow$ \{radical ideals in $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ containing $\left.\mathbb{I}(V)\right\}$

$$
\longleftrightarrow\left\{\text { radical ideals in } \frac{k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{\mathbb{I}(V)}\right\}=\{\text { radical ideals in } k[V]\}
$$

## 4. Rational functions

[Caution: Despite the name, not functions!]
4.1. Function fields and rational functions. Fix affine algebraic set $V$. Assume $V$ is irreducible, equivalently, $k[V]$ is a domain.
Definition 4.1. The function field of $V$ is the fraction field of $k[V]$, denoted $k(V)$.
Example 4.2. Let $V=\mathbb{A}^{n}, k[V]=k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$. Then

$$
k(V)=k\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right),
$$

i.e., rational functions.

Definition 4.3. A rational function on $V$ is an element $\varphi \in k(V)$. I.e., $\varphi$ is an equivalence class $f / g$, where $f, g \in k[V], g \neq 0$. Here,

$$
\frac{f}{g} \sim \frac{f^{\prime}}{g^{\prime}} \Longleftrightarrow f g^{\prime}=g f^{\prime}
$$

as elements of $k[V]$.
Example 4.4. In $\mathbb{V}\left(x y-z^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{3}, x / z$ is a rational function. Moreover, $z / y$ is the same rational function:

$$
\frac{x}{z} \sim \frac{z}{y}
$$

because $x y=z^{2}$ on $V$.
Example 4.5. $k[V] \subseteq k(V)$ always, by the map $f \longmapsto f / 1$.

### 4.2. Regular points.

Definition 4.6. A rational function $\varphi \in k(V)$ is regular at $p \in V$ if it admits a representation $\varphi=f / g$ where $g(p) \neq 0$.

Definition 4.7. The domain of definition of $\varphi \in k(V)$ is the locus of all points $p \in V$ where $\varphi$ is regular.
Example 4.8. In $\mathbb{V}\left(x y-z^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{3}$ again, $(0,1,0)$ is in the domain of definition of $\frac{x}{z}=\frac{z}{y}$.
Remark 4.9. We can evaluate a rational function at any point of its domain of definition.
Proposition 4.10. The domain of definition of fixed $\varphi \in k(V)$ is a nonempty open subset of $V$.
Proof. Fix $\varphi \in k(V)$. Write $\varphi=\frac{f}{g}$, where $g \neq 0, f, g \in k[V]$.
Since $g \neq 0$ on $V, \exists p \in V$ such that $g(p) \neq 0$. So $p$ is in $U=$ the domain of definition of $\varphi$, so $U \neq \varnothing$.

Take any $q \in U$. So I can write $\varphi=\frac{h_{1}}{h_{2}}$, where $h_{2}(q) \neq 0$. Now $U^{\prime}:=V-\mathbb{V}\left(h_{2}\right) \subseteq V$ is an open subset of $V$, and $q \in U^{\prime} \subseteq U$.
4.3. Sheaf of regular functions on $V$. Let $V$ be an irreducible affine algebraic set. Assign to any open set $U \subseteq V$ the ring $\mathcal{O}_{V}(U)$ of all rational functions on $V$ regular at every $p \in U$.

Exercise 4.11. $\mathcal{O}_{V}(U)$ is a $k$-algebra (because the constant functions are regular on every open set) and a domain.

Whenever $U_{1} \subseteq U_{2}$ is an inclusion of open sets, there is an induced ring-map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{O}_{V}\left(U_{2}\right) & \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_{V}\left(U_{1}\right) \\
\varphi & \left.\longmapsto \varphi\right|_{U_{1}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note 4.12. If $U=V$, we have two definitions of "ring of regular functions on $V$ ".

$$
\begin{aligned}
k(V) \supseteq \mathcal{O}_{V}(V) & \supseteq k[V] \\
\frac{f}{1} & \longleftrightarrow f
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 4.13. For $V$ irreducible affine algebraic set, $k[V]=\mathcal{O}_{V}(V)$.
Proof. Take $\varphi \in \mathcal{O}_{V}(V)$. For any $p \in V$, there is a representation $\varphi=\frac{f_{p}}{g_{p}}$ such that $g_{p}(p) \neq 0$.
Consider the ideal $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq k[V]$ generated by the $\left\{g_{p}\right\}_{p \in V}$.
Note 4.14. $\mathbb{V}(\mathfrak{a}) \subseteq V$ is empty, so by the Nullstellensatz, $1 \in \operatorname{Rad}(\mathfrak{a}) \Longrightarrow 1 \in \mathfrak{a}$.
So we can write

$$
1=r_{1} g_{1}+\cdots+r_{t} g_{t}
$$

for some $g_{i}=g_{p_{i}}$ in $k[V] \subseteq k(V), r_{i} \in k[V]$. Hence

$$
\varphi=r_{1} \varphi g_{1}+\cdots+r_{t} \varphi g_{t} .
$$

$\operatorname{But} \varphi g_{i}=f_{i}$, so

$$
\varphi=r_{1} f_{1}+\cdots+r_{t} f_{t} \in k[V] .
$$

## 5. Projective space, the Grassmannian, and projective varieties

### 5.1. Projective space. Fix $k$. Let $V$ be a vector space over $k$.

Definition 5.1. The projective space of $V$, denoted $\mathbb{P}(V)$, is the set of 1-dimensional subspaces of $V$.

We denote $\mathbb{P}_{k}^{n}=\mathbb{P}\left(k^{n+1}\right)$.
Example 5.2. $\mathbb{P}_{k}^{1}=\mathbb{P}\left(k^{2}\right)=\left\{1\right.$-dimensional subspaces of $\left.k^{2}\right\}=\left\{\right.$ lines through $(0,0)$ in $\left.k^{2}\right\}$.
We can use stereographic projection onto a fixed reference line to view $\mathbb{P}^{1}=k \cup\{\infty\}$ as a line with a point at infinity.

Specifically, $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{R}}^{1}$ is homeomorphic to a circle, and $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{C}}^{1}$ is the Riemann sphere.
Example 5.3. $\mathbb{P}_{k}^{2}=\mathbb{P}\left(k^{3}\right)=k^{2} \sqcup \mathbb{P}_{k}^{1}$.
5.2. Homogeneous coordinates. In $\mathbb{P}_{k}^{n}$, represent each point $p=\left[a_{0}: a_{1}: \cdots: a_{n}\right]$ by choosing a basis for it (i.e., choose any non-zero point in the corresponding line through origin in $k^{n+1}$ ). At least some $a_{i} \neq 0$, and $\left[b_{0}: \cdots: b_{n}\right]$ represents the same point in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ iff $\exists k \neq 0$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(k b_{0}, \ldots, k b_{n}\right)=\left(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) . \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Another way to think of $\mathbb{P}_{k}^{n}$ is as $\left(k^{n+1} \backslash\{0\}\right) / \sim$, where two points in $k^{n+1}$ are equivalent iff (5.1) holds.

Note 5.4. If $k=\mathbb{R}$, this gives $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{R}}^{n}$ a natural (quotient) topology, and similarly if $k=\mathbb{C}$.
Exercise 5.5. $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is compact in that Euclidean topology.
In these coordinates, we have an open cover

$$
\mathbb{P}_{k}^{n}=\bigcup_{j=0}^{n} U_{j}
$$

where $U_{j}=\left\{\left[x_{0}: \cdots: x_{n}\right] \mid x_{j} \neq 0\right\} \cong k^{n}$ are the standard charts.
Think of fixing one chart: $U_{0} \subset \mathbb{P}_{k}^{n}$. Consider $U_{0}$ to be the "finite part", and $\mathbb{P}^{n} \backslash U_{0}=\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ the "part at infinity".

Exercise 5.6. (1) If $k=\mathbb{R}$, then $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{R}}^{n}$ is a smooth manifold.
(2) If $k=\mathbb{C}$, then $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{C}}^{n}$ is a complex manifold.
(3) For any $k$, the transition functions induced by the standard cover are regular functions.

### 5.3. More about projective space.

Exercise 5.7. In $k^{n} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$, consider a line with "slope" $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$, i.e., parametrize as

$$
\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{c}
a_{1} t \\
\vdots \\
a_{n} t
\end{array}\right)+\left(\begin{array}{c}
b_{1} \\
\vdots \\
b_{n}
\end{array}\right) \right\rvert\, t \in k\right\} .
$$

Show that there is a unique point in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ "at infinity" on this line, with coordinates $\left[0: a_{1}: \cdots: a_{n}\right]$.
Example 5.8. In $\mathbb{R}^{n} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{R}}^{2}$, consider two parallel lines, with one passing through the origin and $(a, b)$. These two parallel lines both approach the point $[0: a: b]$ in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$.

Example 5.9. Look at $\mathbb{V}(x y-1) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}$. In $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, we can "add in" two points at $\infty$ on the hyperbola, $[0: 1: 0]$ and $[0: 0: 1]$. We get a closed connected curve!
5.4. Projective algebraic sets. $\mathbb{P}^{n}=$ one-dimensional subspaces in $k^{n+1}$. We have homogeneous coordinates $\left[x_{0}: \cdots: x_{n}\right]$.

Look at $F \in k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$.
Caution 5.10. $F$ is not a function on $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ unless it is constant!
However, if $F$ is homogeneous, then it makes sense to ask whether or not $F(p)=0$ for a point $p \in \mathbb{P}^{n}$.

Lemma 5.11. If $F \in k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ is homogeneous of degree $d$, then

$$
F\left(t x_{0}, \ldots, t x_{n}\right)=t^{d} F\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) .
$$

Proof. Write

$$
F=\sum_{|I|=d} a_{I} x_{0}^{i_{0}} \ldots x_{n}^{i_{n}}, \quad a_{I} \in k .
$$

Check for each monomial.
Definition 5.12 (projective algebraic set). A projective algebraic subset of $\mathbb{P}_{k}^{n}$ is the common zero set of a collection of homogeneous polynomials in $k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$.
Example 5.13. $V=\mathbb{V}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}$ is a cone; it consists of a set of lines through the origin.
In the chart $U_{x}=\{[1: y: z]\}$, the equation for $V \cap U_{x}=\mathbb{V}\left(1+y^{2}-z^{2}\right) \subseteq k^{2}$ is a hyperbola. In the chart $U_{z}, V \cap U_{z}=\mathbb{V}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-1\right) \subseteq k^{2}$ is a circle.
5.5. Projective algebraic sets, continued. Let $\left\{F_{\lambda}\right\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \subseteq k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ be a collection of homogeneous polynomials.

Note 5.14. The affine algebraic set $V=\mathbb{V}\left(\left\{F_{\lambda}\right\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n+1}$ is cone-shaped, i.e., $\forall p \in V$, the line through $p$ and the origin is in $V$.
Example 5.15 (Linear subspaces). Say $W \subseteq k^{n+1}$ is a sub-vector space. Then

$$
\mathbb{P}(W)=\text { one-dimensional subspaces of } W=\mathbb{P}\left(k^{n+1}\right)=\mathbb{P}^{n} .
$$

Note 5.16. $\mathbb{P}(W)=\mathbb{V}\left(L_{1}, \ldots, L_{t}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$, where $L_{i}=\sum_{j=0}^{n} a_{i j} x_{j}$ are a set of linear functionals in $V^{*}$ which define $W$.

Example 5.17 (Some special cases). $W$ is one-dimensional $\Longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(W)$ is a point.
$W$ is 2-dimensional $\Longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(W)$ is a line in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.
In general, if $W$ is $(d+1)$-dimensional, then $\mathbb{P}(W)$ is a $d$-hyperplane in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.
If $W$ has codimension 1 in $V$, then $\mathbb{V}(L)=\mathbb{P}(W) \subseteq \mathbb{P}(V)=\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is called a hyperplane in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.
Fact 5.18. Every projective algebraic set in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is defined by finitely many homogeneous equations.
Note 5.19. As in the affine case,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{V}\left(\left\{F_{\lambda}\right\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right) & =\mathbb{V}\left(\left\langle F_{\lambda}\right\rangle_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right)=\mathbb{V}\left(\text { any set of (homogeneous) generators for }\left\langle F_{\lambda}\right\rangle_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right) \\
& =\mathbb{V}\left(\operatorname{Rad}\left\langle F_{\lambda}\right\rangle_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 5.20 (homogeneous ideal). An ideal $I \subseteq k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ is homogeneous if it admits a set of generators consisting of homogeneous polynomials.
Example 5.21. $I=\left(x^{3}-y^{2}, y^{2}-z, z\right)$ is homogeneous because $I=\left(x^{3}, y^{2}, z\right)$.
Fact 5.22. The projective algebraic sets form the closed sets of a topology on $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, the Zariski topology.

### 5.6. The projective Nullstellensatz.

Definition 5.23. The homogeneous ideal of a projective algebraic set $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is the ideal $\mathbb{I}(V) \subseteq$ $k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ generated by all homogeneous polynomials which vanish at every point of $V$.

Note 5.24. Given a homogeneous ideal $I \subseteq k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$, we can define both an affine algebraic set $\mathbb{V}(I) \subseteq k^{n+1}$ and a projective algebraic set $\mathbb{V}(I) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$. These have the same radical ideal in $k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$.
Fact 5.25. For any projective algebraic set $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$,

$$
\mathbb{V}(\mathbb{I}(V))=V
$$

Theorem 5.26 (Projective Nullstellensatz). Only when $k=\bar{k}$ :

$$
\left\{\text { projective algebraic sets in } \mathbb{P}^{n}\right\} \longleftrightarrow\left\{\begin{array}{c}
\text { radical homogeneous ideals } \\
\text { in } k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] \text { except for } \\
\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)
\end{array}\right\}
$$

We call $\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ the irrelevant ideal.
In general, the Zariski topology in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ restricts to the Zariski topology in each affine chart:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}^{n} & \supseteq V=\mathbb{V}\left(F_{1}\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right), \ldots, F_{t}\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\right) \\
& \supseteq V \cap U_{i}=\mathbb{V}\left(F_{0}\left(t_{0}, \ldots, 1, \ldots, t_{n}\right), \ldots, F_{t}\left(t_{0}, \ldots, 1, \ldots, t_{n}\right)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where the coordinates are given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
U_{i} & \longrightarrow k^{n} \\
{\left[x_{0}: \cdots: x_{i}: \cdots: x_{n}\right] } & \longmapsto\left(\frac{x_{0}}{x_{i}}, \ldots, \widehat{i}, \ldots, \frac{x_{n}}{x_{i}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 5.7. Projective closure.

Definition 5.27. The projective closure of an affine algebraic set $V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$ is the closure of $V$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, under the standard chart embedding $\mathbb{A}^{n}=U_{0} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$.
Example 5.28. Consider $V=\mathbb{V}(x y-1) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2}$ :

$$
\bar{V}=\overline{\mathbb{V}(x y-1)}=\mathbb{V}\left(x y-z^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2} .
$$

Look at $\bar{V} \cap U_{z}=V$.

Look at $\bar{V} \cap\{$ "line at infinity" $\}$ :

$$
\bar{V} \cap \mathbb{V}(z)=\mathbb{V}\left(x y-z^{2}, z\right)=\mathbb{Z}(x y, z)=\{[1: 0: 0],[0: 1: 0]\} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}
$$

Definition 5.29. Given a polynomial $f \in k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$, its homogenization is the polynomial $F \in k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ obtained as follows: If $f$ has degree $d$, write

$$
f=\sum a_{I} x_{1}^{i_{1}} \ldots x_{n}^{i_{n}}=f_{d}+f_{d-1}+f_{d-2}+\cdots+f_{0}
$$

where $f_{i}$ is the homogeneous component of degree $i$. Then

$$
F=f_{d}+X_{0} f_{d-1}+\cdots+X_{0}^{2} f_{d-2}+\cdots+X_{0}^{d} f_{0} .
$$

Caution 5.30. Given $V=\mathbb{V}\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{t}\right) \subseteq k^{n}$, the projective closure $\bar{V}$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is not necessarily defined by the homogenization of the $f_{i}$.

For example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{\left(t, t^{2}, t^{3}\right) \mid t \in k\right\} & \subseteq k^{3} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{3} \\
\left(t, t^{2}, t^{3}\right) \longmapsto\left[1: t: t^{2}: t^{3}\right] & =\left[\frac{1}{t^{3}}: \frac{1}{t^{2}}: \frac{1}{t}: 1\right],
\end{aligned}
$$

so it has exactly one point at infinity, $[0: 0: 0: 1]$.
Consider $I=\left(z-x y, y-x^{2}\right)$.
Exercise 5.31. Show $\mathbb{V}\left(z w-x y, y w-x^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{3}$ is not the projective closure of the twisted cubic.

## 6. Mappings of projective space

### 6.1. Example: Second Veronese embedding.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}^{1} \xrightarrow{\nu_{2}} & \mathbb{P}^{2} \\
{[x: y] } & \longmapsto\left[x^{2}, x y, y^{2}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Check: $[x: y]$ and $[t x: t y]$ for any $t \in k$ have the same image:

$$
[t x: t y] \longmapsto\left[(t x)^{2}:(t x)(t y):(t y)^{2}\right]=\left[t^{2} x^{2}: t^{2} x y: t^{2} y^{2}\right]=\left[x^{2}: x y: y^{2}\right] .
$$

Also, if $x \neq 0$, then $\nu_{2}([x: y]) \in U_{0}$, and if $y \neq 0$, then $\nu_{2}([x: y]) \in U_{2}$.
This is called the " 2 nd Veronese embedding of $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$." In general, the $d$-th Veronese map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\nu_{d}: \mathbb{P}^{1} & \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{d} \\
{[x: y] } & \longmapsto\left[x^{d}: x^{d-1} y: y x^{d-1}: y^{d}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Look at $\nu_{2}$ in charts of $\mathbb{P}^{1}=U_{x} \cup U_{y}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{A}^{1} \longrightarrow U_{y}=\{[x: y] \mid y \neq 0\} \subset \mathbb{P}^{1} \\
& t \longmapsto[t: 1] \\
& \frac{x}{y} \longleftarrow[x: y]
\end{aligned}
$$

We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
U_{y} & \xrightarrow{\nu_{2}} U_{2}=\mathbb{A}^{2} \\
{[x: 1] } & \longmapsto\left[x^{2}: x: 1\right] \\
\mathbb{A}^{2} & \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^{2} \\
t & \longmapsto\left(t^{2}, t\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

This is a regular mapping of $\mathbb{A}^{1} \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^{2}$.
6.2. Geometric definition. Thinking geometrically of $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ as covered by two copies of $\mathbb{A}^{1}$, this map $\nu_{2}$ is a regular mapping on each chart.

This is the idea in general of a "regular mapping of varieties".
6.3. Example: The twisted cubic. This is the third Veronese mapping:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\nu_{3}: \mathbb{P}^{1} & \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{3} \\
{[x: y] } & \longmapsto\left[x^{3}: x^{2} y: x y^{2}: y^{3}\right] \\
\mathbb{A}^{1}=U_{x} & \longrightarrow U_{0}=\{[1: x: y: z]\}=\mathbb{A}^{3} \\
t=\frac{y}{x} & \longmapsto\left[1: t: t^{2}: t^{3}\right]=\left(t, t^{2}, t^{3}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

### 6.4. Example: A conic in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{P}^{2} \supseteq V=\mathbb{V}\left(x z-y^{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^{1} \\
& \quad[x: y: z] \longmapsto \begin{cases}{[x: y]} & \text { if } x \neq 0, \\
{[y: z]} & \text { if } z \neq 0 .\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that if $x=z=0$, then $y=0$, so this case cannot occur.
What if $x \neq 0$ and $z \neq 0$ ? Then $y \neq 0$, so

$$
[x: y]=\left[x y: y^{2}\right]=[x y: x z]=[y: z] .
$$

So $\varphi$ is a well-defined map of sets.
Cover $V$ by open sets, each identified with an affine algebraic set: $V \cap U_{x}$ and $V \cap U_{z}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{A}^{2} \supseteq \mathbb{V}\left(\frac{z}{x}-\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^{2}\right)=V \cap U_{x} \xrightarrow{\varphi} & \mathbb{P}^{1} \\
{[x: y: z] } & \longmapsto[x: y] \\
{\left[1: \frac{y}{x}: \frac{z}{x}\right] } & \longmapsto\left[1: \frac{y}{x}\right] \\
{[1: t: s] } & \longmapsto[1: t] \\
(t, s) & \longmapsto t
\end{aligned}
$$

So $\varphi$ is projection onto the $t$-axis in $U_{x}$ : regular in local charts. (Similar in every chart.)
6.5. Projection from a point in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ onto a hyperplane. Fix any $p \in \mathbb{P}^{n}$ and any hyperplane $H \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ not containing $p$.

Example 6.1 (special case). Fix a point $p \in \mathbb{P}^{2}$ and a line $L \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}$ such that $p \notin L$.
Choosing coordinates, let $H=\mathbb{V}\left(x_{0}\right)=\mathbb{P}^{n-1} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ and $p=[1: 0: \cdots: 0] \notin H$.
Definition 6.2. The projection from $p$ to $H$ is the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Pi_{p}: \mathbb{P}^{n}-\{p\} & \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n-1} H \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n} \\
x & \longmapsto \overleftrightarrow{\ell p} \cap H,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\overleftrightarrow{\ell p}$ is the unique line through $p$ and $x$.
Question: How does this look in local charts on $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ ?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{P}^{n}-\{[1: 0: \cdots: 0]\} \xrightarrow{\Pi_{p}} \mathbb{P}^{n-1}=\mathbb{V}\left(x_{0}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n} \\
& U_{0} \ni\left[1: \lambda_{1}: \cdots: \lambda_{n}\right] \longmapsto\left[\lambda_{1}: \cdots: \lambda_{n}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

We have

$$
\ell=\left\{\left[1: t \lambda_{1}: \cdots: t \lambda_{n}\right] \mid t \in k\right\}=\left\{\left.\left[\frac{1}{t}, \lambda_{1} \ldots \lambda_{n}\right] \right\rvert\, t \in k\right\} \ni\left[0, \lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}\right] .
$$

If we had a chart where $p$ was at infinity, it would look like "projection"

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{A}^{n} & \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^{n-1} \\
\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) & \longmapsto\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

in the usual sense.

### 6.6. Homogenization of affine algebraic sets.

Exercise 6.3. If $V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$ is an affine algebraic set with projective closure $\bar{V} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$, and if $\mathbb{I}(V) \subseteq$ $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ is the ideal of $V$, then $\mathbb{I}(\bar{V}) \subseteq k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ is generated by the homogenizations of all the elements of $\mathbb{I}(V)$.
Exercise 6.4 (purely topological). Let $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be a projective algebraic set. Then $V$ is irreducible if and only if $V \cap U_{i}$ is irreducible $\forall i=0, \ldots, n$, the "standard affine cover" of $V$.

## 7. Abstract and quasi-Projective varieties

### 7.1. Basic definition and examples.

Definition 7.1. A quasi-projective variety is any irreducible, locally closed (topological) subspace of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.
I.e., $W \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is a quasi-projective variety by definition if $W=U \cap V$, where $U \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is open and $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is an irreducible projective set.

Example 7.2 (Some quasi-projective varieties). (1) Irreducible affine algebraic sets are quasiprojective varieties:

$$
V=\bar{V} \cap U_{0} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}=U_{0} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}
$$

(2) Irreducible projective algebraic sets.
(3) Open subsets of affine or projective varieties.

Example 7.3 (An abstract variety).

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathfrak{M}_{g} & =\{\text { moduli space of compact Riemann surfaces }\} \\
& =\{\text { moduli space of smooth projective varieties } / \mathbb{C} \text { of dimension } 1\}
\end{aligned}
$$

This is an abstract algebraic variety.
Theorem 7.4 (Fields medal, Deligne and Mumford). $\mathfrak{M}_{g}$ is quasi-projective.
Example 7.5 (Another moduli space). Lines in $\mathbb{P}^{2}=\mathbb{P}\left(k^{3}\right)$ can be viewed as $\mathbb{P}\left(\left(k^{3}\right)^{*}\right)$.

### 7.2. Quasi-projective varieties are locally affine.

Proposition 7.6. A quasi-projective variety $W$ has a basis of open sets which are (homeomorphic to) affine algebraic sets.
Proof. First $W=V \cap U$, where $U \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is open and $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is closed and irreducible. Then

$$
W \cap U_{i}=\left(V \cap U \cap U_{i}\right)=\left(V \cap U_{i}\right) \cap\left(U \cap U_{i}\right) \subseteq V_{i}=V \cap U_{i} \subseteq U_{i}=\mathbb{A}^{n}
$$

and $\left(V \cap U_{i}\right) \cap\left(U \cap U_{i}\right)$ is an open subset in the affine variety $V_{i}$.
But an open subset of an affine variety has an open cover by affine charts:

$$
V-\mathbb{V}\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{r}\right)=U \subseteq V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}
$$

for $g_{i} \in k[V]$, then

$$
U=\bigcup_{i=1}^{r}\left(V-\mathbb{V}\left(g_{i}\right)\right)
$$

7.3. The sheaf of regular functions. Fix a quasi-projective variety $W$. What is $\mathcal{O}_{W}$ ?

Definition 7.7. Let $U \subseteq W$ be any open set. A regular function on $U$ is a function $\varphi: U \longrightarrow k$ with the property that $\forall p \in U$, there exists an open affine set $p \in U^{\prime} \subseteq U$ such that $\left.\varphi\right|_{U}$ is regular on $U$.

Equivalently, $\varphi: U \longrightarrow k$ is regular $\left.\Longleftrightarrow \varphi\right|_{U \cap U_{i}}$ is regular on $U \cap U_{i} \forall i=0, \ldots, n .^{2}$
Example 7.8. $X_{0}, X_{1}$ in $k\left[X_{0}, X_{1}, X_{2}\right]$ are not functions on $\mathbb{P}^{2}$.
But the ratio $\frac{X_{1}}{X_{0}}$ is a well-defined function on $\mathbb{P}^{2}-\mathbb{V}\left(X_{0}\right)=U_{0}$.
Example 7.9. $\varphi=\frac{X_{j}}{X_{i}}=t_{j}$ (the " $j$-th coordinate function") is a regular function on $\mathbb{P}^{n} \backslash \mathbb{V}\left(X_{i}\right)=$ $U_{i} \longleftrightarrow k^{n}$ in coordinates $\frac{X_{0}}{X_{i}}, \ldots, \frac{X_{n}}{X_{i}}$.

How does this look in $U_{\kappa}$ ? $U_{\kappa}$ has coordinates $\frac{X_{0}}{X_{\kappa}}, \ldots, \frac{X_{n}}{X_{\kappa}}$, denoted $t_{0}, \ldots, \widehat{t_{\kappa}}, \ldots, t_{n}$. Then

$$
\varphi=\frac{X_{j}}{X_{i}}=\frac{X_{j} / X_{\kappa}}{X_{i} / X_{\kappa}}=\frac{t_{j}}{t_{i}}
$$

is a rational function of the coordinates, regular on $U_{\kappa} \backslash \mathbb{V}\left(t_{i}\right)=U_{i} \cap U_{\kappa}$.
Remark 7.10. We get a sheaf $\mathcal{O}_{W}$ of regular functions on the quasi-projective variety $W$. To each $U \subseteq W$, assign $\mathcal{O}_{W}(U)=$ ring of regular functions on $U$.
Example 7.11. $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{n}}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)=k$. So if $n \geq 1$, then $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is not affine!
7.4. Main example of regular functions in projective space. Let $F, G \in k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ be homogeneous of the same degree. Then $\varphi=\frac{F}{G}$ is a well-defined functions on $\mathbb{P}^{n} \backslash \mathbb{V}(G)$ :

$$
\frac{F\left(t x_{0}, \ldots, t x_{n}\right)}{G\left(t x_{0}, \ldots, t x_{n}\right)}=\frac{t^{d} F\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)}{t^{d} G\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)}=\frac{F\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)}{G\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)}
$$

Moreover, $\varphi$ is regular on $\mathcal{U}:=\left[\mathbb{P}^{n} \backslash \mathbb{V}(G)\right]$.
We now check this. It suffices to check that $\left.\varphi\right|_{{\mathcal{U} \cap U_{i}}}\left(\right.$ for $i=0, \ldots, 1$ ) is regular on $U_{i} \cap \mathcal{U} \stackrel{\text { open }}{\subseteq}$ $U_{i}=\mathbb{A}^{n}$.

Lemma 7.12. If $F \in k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ is homogeneous of degree $d$, then

$$
\frac{F}{X_{i}^{d}}=F\left(\frac{X_{0}}{X_{i}}, \frac{X_{1}}{X_{i}}, \ldots, 1, \frac{X_{i+1}}{X_{i}}, \ldots, \frac{X_{n}}{X_{i}}\right) .
$$

Proof. Comes down to checking for $X_{0}^{\alpha_{0}} \ldots X_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}$ (with $\sum \alpha_{i}=d$ ):

$$
\frac{X_{0}^{\alpha_{0}} \ldots X_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}}{X_{i}^{d}}=\prod_{j=0}^{n}\left(\frac{X_{j}}{X_{i}}\right)^{\alpha_{0}}
$$

Now we have

$$
\left.\varphi\right|_{U_{i}}=\frac{F}{G}=\frac{F / x_{i}^{d}}{G / x_{i}^{d}}=\frac{F\left(\frac{x_{0}}{x_{i}}, \ldots, 1, \ldots, \frac{x_{n}}{x_{i}}\right)}{G\left(\frac{x_{0}}{x_{i}}, \ldots, 1, \ldots, \frac{x_{n}}{x_{i}}\right)}=\frac{f\left(t_{0}, \ldots, \widehat{t_{i}}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)}{g\left(t_{0}, \ldots, \widehat{t_{i}}, t_{n}\right)}
$$

is a rational function on $\mathbb{A}^{n}=U_{i}$, regular on $\left[\mathbb{A}^{n} \backslash \mathbb{V}(g)\right]=U_{i} \cap\left(\mathbb{P}^{n} \backslash \mathbb{V}(G)\right)$. So $\varphi$ is regular on $\mathcal{U}$.

[^1]
### 7.5. Morphisms of quasi-projective varieties.

Definition 7.13. A regular map (or morphism in the category) of quasi-projective varieties $X \xrightarrow{\varphi}$ $Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is a well-defined map of sets such that $\forall x \in X$, writing $\varphi(x) \in Y \cap U_{i} \subseteq U_{i}=k^{n}$ for some $i$, there exists an open affine neighborhood $U$ of $x \in U \subseteq X$ such that $\varphi(U) \subseteq U_{i}$ and $\varphi$ restricts to a map

$$
\begin{aligned}
U & \longrightarrow Y \cap U_{i} \subseteq U_{i} \\
z & \longmapsto\left(\varphi_{1}(z), \ldots, \varphi_{n}(z)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\varphi_{i} \in \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$.
Definition 7.14. An isomorphism of varieties is a regular map $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$ which has a regular inverse $Y \xrightarrow{\psi} X$.

Example 7.15 (The $d$-th Veronese map). Let $m=\binom{n+d}{n}-1$. Then the $d$-th Veronese map is defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}^{n} & \xrightarrow[\nu_{d}]{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{P}^{m} \\
{\left[x_{0}: \cdots: x_{n}\right] } & \longmapsto\left[x_{0}^{d}: x_{0}^{d-1} x_{1}: \cdots: x_{n}^{d}\right],
\end{aligned}
$$

where the coordinates are all degree $d$ monomials in $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}$.
Example 7.16 (Projection). $p \notin H=$ hyperplane in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbb{P}^{n} \backslash\{p\} \\
{\left[x_{0}: \cdots: x_{n}\right]}
\end{gathered}>\mathbb{P}^{n-1}=H \quad\left[x_{1}: \cdots: x_{n}\right] .
$$

## 8. Classical constructions

### 8.1. Twisted cubic and generalization.

Definition 8.1. The twisted $d$-ic in $\mathbb{P}^{d}$ is the image of $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ under the $d$-Veronese map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}^{1} & \xrightarrow{\nu_{d}} C_{d} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{d} \\
{[s: t] } & \longmapsto\left[s^{d}: s^{d-1} t: \cdots: s t^{d-1}: t^{d}\right]=\left[x_{0}: \cdots: x_{d}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Fact 8.2. $\nu_{d}$ is an isomorphism $\mathbb{P}^{1} \cong C_{d}$. The inverse map is

$$
\begin{gathered}
C_{d} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1} \\
{\left[x_{0}: \cdots: x_{d}\right] \longmapsto \begin{cases}{\left[x_{0}: x_{1}\right]} & \text { if } x_{1} \neq 0 \\
{\left[x_{d-1}: x_{d}\right]} & \text { if } x_{1}=0\end{cases} }
\end{gathered}
$$

### 8.2. Hypersurfaces.

Definition 8.3. A hypersurface in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ of degree $d$ is the zero set of one homogeneous polynomial of degree $d$.

Let $V=\mathbb{V}\left(F_{d}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$, with $F_{d}$ irreducible. Pick $p \notin V$.

finite map, "generically" $d$-to-1.

Lemma 8.4. Every line in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ must intersect $V$ at $\leq d$ points. ("Generically" exactly $d$ points; strict inequality is possible due to multiplicity.)

Proof.

$$
\mathbb{V}\left(F_{d}\right) \cap \mathbb{V}\left(x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\mathbb{V}\left(F_{d}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\mathbb{V}\left(\overline{F_{d}}\right) \subseteq L=\mathbb{V}\left(x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}
$$

8.3. Segre embedding. Category of quasi-projective varieties:

Objects: (irreducible) locally closed subspaces of $\mathbb{P}^{n}($ all $n)$ over fixed $k=\bar{k}$.
Morphisms: Map of sets $\mathbb{P}^{n} \supseteq X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{m}$ such that on sufficiently small open subsets of $X_{i}=X \cap U_{i} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n},\left.\varphi\right|_{U}$ is a regular mapping into some chart of $\mathbb{P}^{m}$.
Is there a notion of product in this category?
Recall: For $X \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{m}, Y \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$ affine algebraic sets,

$$
X \times Y \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{m} \times \mathbb{A}^{n}=\mathbb{A}^{m+n}
$$

is an affine algebraic set. But $\mathbb{P}^{m} \times \mathbb{P}^{n} \neq \mathbb{P}^{m+n}$, so we can't do a similar thing for projective algebraic sets.

Indeed, $\mathbb{P}^{2} \backslash \mathbb{A}^{2}$ is one line at infinity, but

$$
\left(\mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1}\right) \backslash \mathbb{A}^{2}=\left\{\infty \times \mathbb{P}^{1}\right\} \cup\left\{\mathbb{P}^{1} \times \infty\right\}
$$

consists of two lines at infinity.
Goal 8.5. Put the structure of a quasi-projective variety (projective) on $\mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{m}$.
Want:
(1) $\sigma: \mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{m} \hookrightarrow \Sigma \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{\text {? }}$, where $\Sigma$ is a (closed) projective algebraic set, and $\sigma$ is compatible with the identification $A^{n} \times A^{m}=A^{m+n} \xrightarrow{\sigma} \sigma\left(\mathbb{A}^{m+n}\right)$ on each affine chart $U_{i} \times U_{j}=$ $\mathbb{A}^{n} \times \mathbb{A}^{m}$.
(2) There should be regular maps $\Sigma \xrightarrow{\pi_{1}} \mathbb{P}^{n}, \Sigma \xrightarrow{\pi_{2}} \mathbb{P}^{m}$.
(3) (Linear space) $\times p \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{m}$ maps under $\sigma$ to a linear space of the same dimension in $\mathbb{P}^{\text {? }}$.

Example 8.6.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1} & \xrightarrow[\sigma_{11}]{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{P}^{3} \\
([x: y],[z: w]) & \longmapsto[x z: x w: y z: y w]
\end{aligned}
$$

The image of $\sigma_{11}$ is $\mathbb{V}\left(X_{0} X_{3}-X_{1} X_{2}\right)$.
On $U_{x} \times U_{z}=\mathbb{A}^{1} \times \mathbb{A}^{1}=\mathbb{A}^{2}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{A}^{2}=\mathbb{A}^{1} \times \mathbb{A}^{1} \xrightarrow{\simeq} \mathbb{V}(x y-z) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{3} \\
((1, t),(1, s)) \longmapsto & {[1: t: s: t s] }
\end{aligned}
$$

Also,

$$
\mathbb{P}^{1} \times[a: b] \longmapsto\left\{[x a: x b: y a: y b] \mid[x: y] \in \mathbb{P}^{1}\right\} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{3} \subseteq \mathbb{P}\left(k^{4}\right)
$$

is a line in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$ corresponding to the 2-dimensional subspace

$$
\operatorname{span}\{(a, b, 0,0),(0,0, a, b)\} \subset k^{4} .
$$

This is the "definition" of $\mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1}$ as a quasi-projective variety.

Definition 8.7. The Segre map is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{m} \xrightarrow{\sigma_{n m}} \Sigma_{n m} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{(n+1)(m+1)-1} \\
& \left(\left[x_{0}: \cdots: x_{n}\right],\left[y_{0}: \cdots: y_{m}\right]\right) \longmapsto \underbrace{\left[\begin{array}{c}
x_{0} \\
\vdots \\
x_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{lll}
y_{0} & \ldots & y_{m}
\end{array}\right]}_{(n+1) \times(m+1) \text { matrix }}=\mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Mat}_{k}(n+1, m+1)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark 8.8 (Linear algebra review). TFAE for any matrix $A$ of size $d \times e$ :
(1) The rows are all multiples of each other by a scalar.
(2) The columns are all multiples of each other by a scalar.
(3) $A$ factors as $(d \times 1) \times(1 \times e)$.
(4) The rank of $A$ is $\leq 1$.
(5) All $2 \times 2$ subdeterminants of $A$ are zero.

Writing the matrix coordinates as $\left[\begin{array}{ccc}z_{00} & \ldots & z_{0 m} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ z_{n 0} & \ldots & z_{n m}\end{array}\right]$,

$$
\Sigma_{n m}=\mathbb{V}\left(\text { determinant of } 2 \times 2 \text { minors of }\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
z_{00} & \cdots & z_{0 m} \\
\vdots & & \vdots \\
z_{n 0} & \cdots & z_{n m}
\end{array}\right]\right)
$$

The projections $\Sigma \xrightarrow{\pi_{1}} \mathbb{P}^{n}, \Sigma \xrightarrow{\pi_{2}} \mathbb{P}^{m}$ are given by

$$
p=\left[z_{i j}\right] \stackrel{\pi_{1}}{\longmapsto} \text { any column of } p
$$

and likewise, $\pi_{2}$ takes any row. (This is well-defined because the matrix has rank 1.)

### 8.4. Products of quasi-projective varieties.

Definition 8.9. If $X \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ and $Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{m}$ are quasi-projective varieties, then we define a quasiprojective variety structure on the set $X \times Y$ by identifying $X \times Y$ with its image under the appropriate Segre map $\sigma_{n m}$ :

$$
\sigma_{n m}(X \times Y) \subseteq \Sigma_{n m} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{(n+1)(m+1)-1}
$$

This gives $X \times Y$ a Zariski topology!
How do the closed sets look?
Definition 8.10. A polynomial $F \in k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{0}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]$ is bihomogeneous if $F$ is homogeneous separately in $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}$ (treating the $y_{i}$ as scalars) and $y_{0}, \ldots, y_{m}$ (treating the $x_{i}$ as scalars).

Example 8.11. The polynomial $x_{0}^{5} y_{1} y_{2}-x_{0} x_{1} x_{2}^{3} y_{3}^{2}$ is bihomogeneous of degree $(5,2)$.
However, $x_{0}^{7}-y_{0}^{7}$ is not bihomogeneous.
Note 8.12. If $F \in k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{0}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]$ is bihomogeneous, then $\mathbb{V}(F) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{m}$ is well-defined.
Exercise 8.13. The closed sets of $\mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{m}$ are precisely the sets defined as the common zero set of a collection of bihomogeneous polynomials in $k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{0}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]$.

Example 8.14. The Zariski topology on $\mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{A}^{n}$ with coordinates $k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{m}\right]$ has closed sets exactly of the form

$$
\mathbb{V}\left(\left\{F_{\lambda}\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{m}\right)\right\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right),
$$

where $F_{\lambda}$ is homogeneous in $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}$.

### 8.5. Conics.

Definition 8.15. A conic in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ is a hypersurface (curve) given by a single degree 2 homogeneous polynomial.

Three kinds:
Nondegenerate: $\mathbb{V}(F) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}$ such that $F$ does not factor into 2 linear factors. (Showed in homework: changing coordinates, these are all the same.)
Degenerate, two lines: $F=L_{1} L_{2}$, where $\lambda L_{1} \neq L_{2}$. Then $\mathbb{V}(F)=\mathbb{V}\left(L_{1}\right) \cup \mathbb{V}\left(L_{2}\right)$.
Think of this as the limit as $t \rightarrow 0$ of a family of nondegenerate conics

$$
\{\mathbb{V}(x y-t)\}_{t \in k} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2}
$$

Degenerate, double line: $F=L_{1}^{2}$. Then $\mathbb{V}(F)=\mathbb{V}\left(L_{1}^{2}\right)$.
Think of this as the limit as $t \rightarrow 0$ of a family of degenerate conics

$$
\mathbb{V}(y(y-t x))=\mathbb{V}(y) \cup \mathbb{V}(y-t x) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2} .
$$

This line $\mathbb{V}\left(y^{2}\right)$ is one line "counted twice". This is a scheme, but not a variety.
Every conic is uniquely described by its equation $F \in\left[k[x, y, z]_{2} U_{3}^{3}\right.$
Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{P}\left(k^{3}\right)$ be a conic. We have a correspondence

$$
\begin{aligned}
C=\mathbb{V}\left(A x^{2}+B x y+C y^{2}+D x z+E y z+F z^{2}\right) & \longleftrightarrow[A: B: C: D: E: F] \\
\left\{\text { conics in } \mathbb{P}\left(k^{3}\right)\right\} & \longleftrightarrow \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{2}\left(\left(k^{3}\right)^{*}\right)\right)=\mathbb{P}^{5} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Moreover, we have proper inclusions of closed subvarieties

$$
D_{2}=\{\text { double lines }\} \varsubsetneqq D_{1}=\{\text { pairs of lines }\} \varsubsetneqq\left\{\text { all conics in } \mathbb{P}\left(k^{3}\right)\right\}=\mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{2}\left(\left(k^{3}\right)^{*}\right)\right) .
$$

As we will show on the homework, $D_{2} \cong$ image of $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ under the Veronese map $\nu_{2}: \mathbb{P}^{2} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{5}$.
This is the beginning of the study of moduli spaces.
8.6. Conics through a point. Fix $p \in \mathbb{P}^{2}$. Consider the set

$$
\mathcal{C}_{p}=\left\{C \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2} \text { conic in } \mathbb{P}^{2} \text { passing through } p\right\} \varsubsetneqq \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{2}\left(\left(k^{3}\right)^{*}\right)\right)=\mathbb{P}^{5} .
$$

This is a hyperplane. Indeed, write $p=[u: v: t]$. A conic

$$
C=\mathbb{V}(\underbrace{A x^{2}+B x y+\cdots+F z^{2}}_{G})
$$

passing through $p \Longleftrightarrow G(p)=0 \Longleftrightarrow A u^{2}+B u v+C v^{2}+D u t+E v t+F t^{2}=0$, which is a linear equation $L$ in the homogeneous coordinates $A, B, C, D, E, F$ for $\mathbb{P}^{5}=\mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{2}\left(\left(k^{3}\right)^{*}\right)\right)$. Thus,

$$
\mathcal{C}_{p}=\mathbb{V}(L) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{5} .
$$

Theorem 8.16 (" 5 points determine a conic"). Given $p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}, p_{4}, p_{5} \in \mathbb{P}^{2}$ distinct points, there is a conic through all 5 points, unique if the points are in general position.

If no three points are on the same line, then there is a unique nondegenerate conic through them.

[^2]
## 9. Parameter spaces

### 9.1. Example: Hypersurfaces of fixed degree. Recall:

\{conics in $\left.\mathbb{P}^{2}\right\} \longleftrightarrow\{$ their homogeneous equations up to scalar multiple $\}$
$\longleftrightarrow \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{2}\left(\left(k^{3}\right)^{*}\right)\right)=\{\operatorname{deg} 2$ homogeneous polynomials in 3 variables $\} /$ scalars $=[k[x, y, z]]_{2} /$ scalars $=\operatorname{Sym}^{2}\left(\left(k^{3}\right)^{*}\right) /$ scalars
Similarly:
$\left\{\right.$ hypersurface of degree $d$ in $\left.\mathbb{P}^{n}\right\} \longleftrightarrow$ \{their equations up to scalar multiple $\}$

$$
\mathbb{V}(\underbrace{A x_{0}^{d}+B x_{0}^{d-1} x_{1}+\cdots+}_{\text {"homog. degree } d \text { in } x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n} "}) \quad \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left(\left(k^{n+1}\right)^{*}\right)\right)=\mathbb{P}^{\binom{n+d}{n}-1}
$$

Note that these are not really varieties, since we remember the homogeneous equation.
9.2. Philosophy of parameter spaces. Philosophy: the set of hypersurfaces of degree $d$ "is" in a natural way a variety. The subsets ("algebraically natural" subsets) are subvarieties.

The "good" properties will hold on open subsets of $\mathbb{P}\binom{n+d}{n}-1$ (hopefully non-empty), and "bad" properties will hold on closed subsets of $\mathbb{P}\binom{n+d}{n}-1$ (hopefully proper).
9.3. Conics that factor. Look in $\mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{2}\left(\left(k^{3}\right)^{*}\right)\right)=$ set of conics in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$. Does " $\mathbb{V}(F)$ " $\longleftrightarrow[A$ : $B: C: D: E: F]$ factor or not?

$$
F=A x^{2}+B x y+C y^{2}+D x z+E y z+F z^{2}
$$

factors $\Longleftrightarrow$

$$
\operatorname{det}\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
A & \frac{1}{2} B & \frac{1}{2} D \\
\frac{1}{2} B & C & \frac{1}{2} E \\
\frac{1}{2} D & \frac{1}{2} E & F=0 .
\end{array}\right]
$$

The subset where the conic degenerates into 2 lines is

$$
\mathbb{V}\left(\operatorname{det}\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
A & \frac{1}{2} B & \frac{1}{2} D \\
\frac{1}{2} B & C & \frac{1}{2} E \\
\frac{1}{2} D & \frac{1}{2} E & F
\end{array}\right]\right) .
$$

Now we have
$\left\{\right.$ hypersurface of degree $d$ in $\left.\mathbb{P}^{n}\right\} \longleftrightarrow$ \{their equations up to scalar multiple $\}$

UI

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left(\left(k^{n+1}\right)^{*}\right)\right)=\mathbb{P}^{\binom{n+d}{n}-1} \\
\text { UI closed }
\end{gathered}
$$

\{hypersurfaces whose equations factor $\} \longleftrightarrow X$
where $F=F_{i} F_{d-i}$ factors and

$$
X=\bigcup_{i=1}^{\frac{d-1}{2}} X_{i}
$$

with $X_{i}=$ the subset of hypersurfaces of degree $d$ where equation factors as $(\operatorname{deg} i)(\operatorname{deg} d-i)$.

Theorem 9.1. The set of degree $d$ hypersurfaces in $\mathbb{P}^{n}=\mathbb{P}(V)$ which are not irreducible (meaning: whose equations factor non-trivially) is a proper closed subset of $\mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left(V^{*}\right)\right)$.
Proof. It suffices to show each $X_{i}=\left\{F=F_{i} F_{d-i}\right\}$ is closed and proper. Consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{i}\left(V^{*}\right)\right) \times \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d-i}\left(V^{*}\right)\right) & \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left(V^{*}\right)\right) \\
(F, G) & \longmapsto F G,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $F, G$ are homogeneous of degrees $i, d-i$, respectively, in $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}$.
Easy to check: $\varphi$ is regular and image is $X_{i}$. Need to check closed (proper).
This follows from the following big theorem:
Theorem 9.2. If $V$ is projective and $V \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$ is any regular map of quasi-projective varieties, then $\varphi$ sends closed sets of $V$ to closed sets of $Y$.

Caution 9.3. Really need the hypothesis that the source variety is projective. E.g.:

$$
\mathcal{U}_{f}=\mathbb{A}^{n}-\mathbb{V}(f) \stackrel{i}{\hookrightarrow} \mathbb{A}^{n}
$$

regular map, image is open. Also, the hyperbola:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{A}^{2} & \xrightarrow{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{A}^{1} \\
(x, y) & \longmapsto x \\
\pi(\mathbb{V}(x y-1)) & =\mathbb{A}^{1}-\{0\},
\end{aligned}
$$

which is not closed.

## 10. Regular maps of projective varieties

### 10.1. Big theorem on closed maps.

Theorem 10.1. If $V$ is projective and $V \xrightarrow{\varphi} X$ is a regular map to $X$ (any quasi-projective variety), then $\varphi$ is closed (i.e., if $W \subseteq V$ is a closed subset of $V$, then $\varphi(W)$ is closed).
Note 10.2. To prove the theorem, it suffices to show that $\varphi(V)$ is closed.
[If $W \subseteq V$ is closed (irreducible), then $W$ is also projective. So $\left.\varphi\right|_{W}: W \longrightarrow X$ has the property that $\left.\varphi\right|_{W}(W)$ is closed, thus $\varphi(W)=\left.\varphi\right|_{W}(W)$ is closed.]
Corollary 10.3. If $V$ is projective, then $\mathcal{O}_{V}(V)=k$.
Proof. Let $V \xrightarrow{\varphi} k \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{1}$ be a regular function. We can interpret $\varphi: V \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$ as a regular map. So the image is closed in $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ by Theorem 10.1 .

Thus $\varphi(V)$ is either a finite set of points (or $\varnothing$ ) or $\varphi(V)=\mathbb{P}^{1}$. Since $\varphi$ is an actual map into $k \varsubsetneqq \mathbb{P}^{1}, \varphi(V)$ must be a finite set of points. But $V$ is irreducible, so $\varphi(V)$ is a single point.
10.2. Preliminary: Graphs. Fix any regular map of quasi-projective varieties $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$.

Definition 10.4. The graph $\Gamma_{\varphi}$ of $\varphi: X \longrightarrow Y$ is the set

$$
\{(x, y) \mid \varphi(x)=y\} \subseteq X \times Y
$$

Proposition 10.5. $\Gamma_{\varphi}$ is always closed in $X \times Y$.
Proof. Step 1: Without loss of generality, $Y=\mathbb{P}^{m}$, since $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{m}$, and we interpret $\varphi$ as a regular map $X \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{m}$. We have

$$
\Gamma_{\varphi} \subseteq X \times Y \subseteq X \times \mathbb{P}^{m}
$$

and to show $\Gamma_{\varphi}$ is closed in $X \times Y$, it suffices to show $\Gamma_{\varphi} \subseteq X \times \mathbb{P}^{m}$ is closed.

Step 2: Consider the regular map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\psi: X \times \mathbb{P}^{m} & \xrightarrow{(\varphi, \mathrm{id})} \mathbb{P}^{m} \times \mathbb{P}^{m} \\
(x, y) & \longmapsto(\varphi(x), y) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note 10.6. $\Gamma_{\varphi}=\psi^{-1}(\Delta)$, where $\Delta=\left\{(z, z) \mid z \in \mathbb{P}^{m}\right\}$ is the diagonal subset of $\mathbb{P}^{m} \times \mathbb{P}^{m}$, which is closed.

Because $\Delta$ is closed, so is $\Gamma_{\varphi}$.
10.3. Proof of Theorem 10.1. Fix $V \xrightarrow{\varphi} X$ regular map, $V$ projective. Need to show $\varphi(V)$ is closed.

Let $\Gamma_{\varphi} \subseteq V \times X$ be the graph. Consider the projection

$$
\Gamma_{\varphi} \subseteq V \times X \xrightarrow{\pi} X \supseteq \pi\left(\Gamma_{\varphi}\right)=\varphi(V),
$$

which is a regular map. It suffices to prove that $\pi\left(\Gamma_{\varphi}\right)$ is closed.
Theorem 10.7. If $V$ is projective and $X$ is quasi-projective, then the projection $V \times X \xrightarrow{\pi} X$ is closed.

Proof of Theorem 10.7. First, using point-set topology arguments, reduces as follows:
(1) WLOG, $V=\mathbb{P}^{n}$.
(2) WLOG, $X$ is affine.
(3) WLOG, $X=\mathbb{A}^{m}$.

Now:

$$
\mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{A}^{m} \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{A}^{m} .
$$

Put coordinates $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}$ on $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ and $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{m}$ on $\mathbb{A}^{n}$.
Want to show: Given closed $Z \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{A}^{m}$, that $\varphi(Z)$ is closed in $\mathbb{A}^{m}$. Write

$$
Z=\mathbb{V}\left(g_{1}\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{m}\right), \ldots, g_{t}\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{m}\right)\right)
$$

where $g_{i}$ are homogeneous in $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}$ (but not in the $y_{i}$ ). What is the image of $Z$ ?
Note 10.8. $\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{m}\right) \in \mathbb{A}^{m}$ is in $\pi(Z)$ iff

$$
\varnothing \neq \mathbb{V}\left(g_{1}\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}, \lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{m}\right), \ldots, g_{t}\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}, \lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{m}\right)\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}
$$

iff (by the projective Nullstellensatz)

$$
\operatorname{Rad}\left(g_{1}(x, \lambda), \ldots, g_{t}(x, \lambda)\right) \nsupseteq\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)
$$

iff

$$
\left(g_{1}(x, \lambda), \ldots, g_{t}(x, \lambda)\right) \nsupseteq\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)^{T} \quad \forall T .
$$

So we need to show: The set $L_{T}$ of all $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{m}\right) \in \mathbb{A}^{m}$ such that

$$
\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)^{T} \nsubseteq\left(g_{1}(x, \lambda), \ldots, g_{t}(x, \lambda)\right)
$$

is closed. The image of $\pi(Z) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{m}$ is

$$
\bigcap_{T=1}^{\infty} L_{T},
$$

so it suffices to show that each $L_{T} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{m}$ is closed.

Aside 10.9 (Converse). Let's consider the converse:

$$
\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)^{T} \subseteq\left(g_{1}(x, \lambda), \ldots, g_{t}(x, \lambda)\right) \text { in } k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]
$$

Look in degree $T$ part of $k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ :

$$
\left[k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]\right]_{T} \subseteq\left[\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{n}\right)\right]_{T}
$$

Basis here is $\left\{x_{0}^{i_{0}} \cdots x_{n}^{i_{n}}\right\}_{\sum i_{k}=T}$.
Spanning set for the $\sigma$-dimensional $\left[\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{n}\right)\right]=$ subvector space of degree $T$ elements in $\left(g_{1}(x, \lambda), \ldots, g_{t}(x, \lambda)\right)$ :

$$
\left\{g_{J}\right\}=\left\{g_{i}(x, \lambda) \cdot x_{0}^{j_{0}} \cdots x_{n}^{j_{n}} \mid \operatorname{deg}\left(g_{i}\right)=d_{i}, \sum j_{\ell}=T-d_{i}, i=1, \ldots, t\right\} .
$$

Write a matrix with the coefficient $x^{I}$ in $g_{J}$ in the $(I J)$-th spot. The coefficients are polynomials in $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{m}$. This is a basis iff the matrix is nondegenerate.

## 11. Function fields, dimension, and finite extensions

11.1. Commutative algebra: transcendence degree and Krull dimension. Fix $k \hookrightarrow L$ extension of fields.

- The transcendence degree of $L / k$ is the maximum number of algebraically independent elements of $L / k$.
- Every maximal set of algebraically independent elements of $L / k$ has the same cardinality.
- If $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right\}$ are a maximal set of algebraically independent elements, we call them a transcendence basis for $L / k$.
- If $R$ is a finitely generated domain over $k$, with fraction field $L$, then the transcendence degree of $L / k$ is equal to the Krull dimension of $R$.
11.2. Function field. Fix $V$ affine variety.

Definition 11.1 (function field of an affine variety). The function field of $V$, denoted $k(V)$, is the fraction field of $k[V]$.

Say $V-\mathbb{V}(g)=U_{g}=U \stackrel{\text { open }}{\subset} V$ for some $g \in k[V]$. Then


Note 11.2. Function fields of $U_{g}$ and $V$ are the same field.
Fix $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ projective variety.
Definition 11.3 (function field of a projective variety). The function field of $V$, denoted $k(V)$, the function field of any $V \cap U_{i}$ (standard affine chart) such that $V \cap U_{i} \neq \varnothing$.

Question: Why is this independent of the choice of $U_{i}$ ?
$V_{i}=V \cap U_{i}=\left\{\left[x_{0}: \cdots: x_{n}\right] \mid x_{i} \neq 0\right\}$ is an affine variety in $U_{i}=\mathbb{A}^{n}$. Then $k\left[V_{i}\right]$ is generated by (the restrictions of) the actual functions on $U_{i}$

$$
\frac{x_{0}}{x_{i}}, \frac{x_{1}}{x_{i}}, \ldots, \frac{x_{n}}{x_{i}},
$$

and likewise for $k\left[V_{j}\right]$. If $\frac{x_{i}}{x_{j}}=0$ on $U_{i} \cap U_{j} \cap V$, then $x_{i}$ vanishes on $U_{i} \cap U_{j} \cap V$, which implies that $x_{i}$ vanishes on $V$ and hence $V \cap U_{i}$ is empty. So we can write

$$
\frac{x_{k}}{x_{i}}=\frac{x_{k} / x_{j}}{x_{i} / x_{j}},
$$

thus $k\left[V_{i}\right] \subseteq k\left(V_{j}\right)$, hence $k\left(V_{i}\right) \subseteq k\left(V_{j}\right)$. By symmetry, $k\left(V_{j}\right)=k\left(V_{i}\right)$.
Definition 11.4 (function field of a quasi-projective variety). The function field of a quasiprojective variety $V$ is $k(\bar{V})$, where $\bar{V}$ is the closure of $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{m}$.

Equivalently, it is the function field of any $V \cap U_{i}$ (such that $V \cap U_{i} \neq \varnothing$ ) or indeed of any open affine subset of $V$.

### 11.3. Dimension of a variety.

Definition 11.5. The dimension of a (quasi-projective) variety $V / k$ is the transcendence degree of $k(V)$ over $k$.

By convention, the dimension of an algebraic set is the maximal dimension of any of its (finitely many) components.
Example 11.6. $\bullet \operatorname{dim} \mathbb{A}^{n}=n$

- $\operatorname{dim} \mathbb{P}^{n}=n$
- $\operatorname{dim}(X \times Y)=\operatorname{dim} X+\operatorname{dim} Y$
- All components of a hypersurface $\mathbb{V}(F) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ have dimension $n-1$.

Definition 11.7. A regular map $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$ is finite if (in the affine case) the corresponding map of coordinate rings is an integral extension, or (in general) if the preimage of an affine cover of $Y$ is affine and $\varphi$ is finite on each affine chart.

Theorem 11.8. If $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$ is a regular map, finite, then $\operatorname{dim} X=\operatorname{dim} Y$.
Proof. Reduce to the affine case: $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$ finite $\Longleftrightarrow k[Y] \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} k[X]$ is an integral extension.
11.4. Noether normalization. Take some $p \notin V$. Then


Theorem 11.9. If $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is a projective variety, $\operatorname{dim} d$, then there exists a projection $V \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{d}$ (finite).

Intersect with $U_{0}=\mathbb{A}^{n}$ :

$$
V \cap \mathbb{A}^{n} \rightarrow V_{1} \cap A_{1} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow V_{n-d} \cap \mathbb{A}^{n}=\mathbb{A}^{d} .
$$

This induces the pullback

$$
\frac{k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]}{\mathbb{I}(V)} \stackrel{\text { finite int. }}{\leftrightarrows} k\left[y_{1}, \ldots, y_{d}\right],
$$

where the $y_{i}$ are linear in the $x_{i}$.
Theorem 11.10 (Noether normalization). Given a domain $R$, finitely generated over $k$ ( $k$ infinite), there exists a transcendence basis $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{d}$ consisting of linear combinations of the generators for $R$.
11.5. Dimension example. Recall: $\operatorname{dim} V=\operatorname{transcendence~degree~of~} k(V)$ over $k$.

The dimension of a point is 0 , since $k(\{p\})=k$.
The dimension of the variety $\mathbb{V}(x y-z w) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2 \times 2}$ of $2 \times 2$ matrices over $k$ of determinant 0 :

$$
k[V]=\frac{k[x, y, z, w]}{(x y-z w)}
$$

Observe that $x, y, z$ is not a transcendence basis, because $w$ is not integral over $k[x, y, z]$; indeed, it's not a finite map, because the preimage of the zero matrix under the projections $w \longmapsto 0$ is infinite.

Claim 11.11. Let $t=x-y$. Then $k[z, w, t] \stackrel{i}{\hookrightarrow} k[x, y, w, z] /(x y-z w)$, and $z, w, t$ is a transcendence basis for $k(V)$ over $k$.

Need: $z, w, t$ are algebraically independent. [Means: If $z, w, t$ satisfy some polynomial $p$ with coefficients in $k$, then $p=0$.]

Need: Check $i$ is integral: Suffices to check $x$ is integral over $k[z, w, t]$.
Note: $x^{2}-t x-z w=0$ in $k[x, y, z, w] /(x y-z w)$.
11.6. Facts about dimension. Fix $V$ irreducible quasi-projective variety.

Fact 11.12. If $U \subseteq V$ is open and nonempty, then $\operatorname{dim} U=\operatorname{dim} V$.
Fact 11.13. If $Y \varsubsetneqq V$ is a proper closed subset, then $\operatorname{dim} Y<\operatorname{dim} V$.
Fact 11.14. Every component of a hypersurface $\mathbb{V}(F)$ in $\mathbb{A}^{n}\left(\right.$ or $\left.\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$ has dimension $n-1$ (codimension 1).

Sketch of Fact 11.14 . Pick $p \notin \mathbb{V}(F) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$, with $F$ irreducible. Choose coordinates such that $p=(0, \ldots, 0,1)$. So

$$
f=x_{n}^{d}+a_{1} x_{n}^{d-1}+\cdots+a_{d},
$$

where $a_{i} \in k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right]$. Easy to see: $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ are a transcendence basis over $k$ for

$$
\frac{k\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)}{(f)}
$$

Fact 11.15. Every codimension 1 subvariety of $\mathbb{A}^{n}\left(\right.$ or $\left.\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$ is a hypersurface.
Proof. Let $X \varsubsetneqq \mathbb{A}^{n}$ have codimension 1 . Let $\mathbb{I}(X) \varsubsetneqq k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$, which is prime by irreducibility. We need to show $\mathbb{I}(X)$ is principal.

Take any $F \in \mathbb{I}(X)$. Without loss of generality, $F$ is irreducible. Then $(F) \subseteq \mathbb{I}(x)$, and if we have equality, then we are done. Otherwise,

$$
\mathbb{V}(F) \supsetneqq \mathbb{V}(\mathbb{I}(X))=X,
$$

and since $\operatorname{dim} \mathbb{V}(F)=n-1$, we have $\operatorname{dim} \mathbb{V}(\mathbb{I}(x))<n-1$.
Fact 11.16. If $X \longrightarrow Y$ is finite, then $\operatorname{dim} X=\operatorname{dim} Y$.
Fact 11.17. If $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is projective, then $V$ has $\operatorname{dim} d \Longleftrightarrow V \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{P}^{d}$ is a finite map to $\mathbb{P}^{d}$.
Fact 11.18. If we have a projection $\mathbb{P}^{n} \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{P}^{m}$ from a linear space $\mathbb{V}\left(L_{0}, \ldots, L_{m}\right)$, then

$$
\left[x_{0}: \cdots: x_{n}\right] \longmapsto\left[L_{0}: \cdots: L_{m}\right]
$$

gives a finite map when restricted to any projective variety $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$, whose disjoint union forms a linear space $\mathbb{V}\left(L_{0}, \ldots, L_{m}\right)$.

### 11.7. Dimension of hyperplane sections.

Definition 11.19. A hyperplane section of $X$ is $X \cap H$, where $H=\mathbb{V}\left(a_{0} x_{0}+\cdots+a_{n} x_{n}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is a hyperplane.

Theorem 11.20. $\operatorname{dim}(X \cap H)=\operatorname{dim} X-1$, unless (of course) $X \subseteq H$ (in which case $X \cap H=X$ ).

Proof. First: For any closed set $X=X_{1} \cup \cdots \cup X_{t}$ (irreducible components of $X$ ) in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, I can find a hyperplane $H$ such that $\operatorname{dim}(X \cap H)<\operatorname{dim} X$, or more specifically,

$$
X \cap H=\left(X_{1} \cap H\right) \cup \cdots \cup\left(X_{t} \cap H\right)
$$

and each $X_{i} \cap H \varsubsetneqq X_{i}$.
Claim 11.21. Most hyperplanes $H$ have this property!
Lemma 11.22. Fix any finite set of points $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{t}$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$. Then there exists a hyperplane $H$ which does not contain any $p_{i}$.

Proof of 11.22.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left\{\text { hyperplanes on } \mathbb{P}^{n}=\mathbb{P}(V)\right\} \longleftrightarrow \mathbb{P}\left(V^{*}\right) \\
\cup \cup \\
\text { U } \\
\text { \{hyperplanes through } \left.p_{i}\right\} \longleftrightarrow H_{p_{i}} \rightleftarrows \mathbb{V}\left(L_{i}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

So

$$
\left\{\text { hyperplanes not containing } p_{1}, \ldots, p_{t}\right\}=\mathbb{P}\left(V^{*}\right) \backslash\left\{\mathbb{V}\left(L_{1}\right) \cup \cdots \cup \mathbb{V}\left(L_{t}\right)\right\}
$$

Back to Theorem 11.20, we have


Want to show the dimension drops by 1 each time. If not, after $d$ steps, get $\varnothing$.
So the linear space $\mathbb{P}(W)=\mathbb{V}\left(L_{1}, \ldots, L_{d}\right) \cap X=\varnothing$. Project from $\mathbb{P}(W)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{P}^{n} \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{P}^{d-1} \\
& {\left[x_{0}: \cdots: x_{n}\right] } \stackrel{\longmapsto}{\longmapsto}\left[L_{1}(x): \cdots: L_{d}(x)\right] \\
& X \underset{\text { finite! }}{\stackrel{\pi}{\longrightarrow}} X^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

$\Longrightarrow \operatorname{dim} X=\operatorname{dim} X^{\prime} \leq(d-1)$, a contradiction. Hence $\operatorname{dim} X=d$.
11.8. Equivalent formulations of dimension. $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ projective variety.

The dimension of $V$ is any one of the following, which are equivalent:
(1) transcendence degree of $k(V)$ over $k$.
(2) the unique $d$ such that $\exists$ finite map $V \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{d}$.
(3) the unique $d$ such that $V \cap H_{1} \cap H_{2} \cap \cdots \cap H_{d}$ is a finite set of points, where the $H_{i}$ are generic linear subvarieties of codimension $d$.
(4) the length of the longest chain of proper irreducible closed subsets of $V$ :

$$
V=V_{d} \supsetneqq V_{d-1} \supsetneqq V_{d-2} \supsetneqq \cdots \supsetneqq V_{1} \supsetneqq V_{0}=\{\text { point }\} .
$$

## 12. Families of varieties

### 12.1. Family of varieties (schemes). (Not necessarily irreducible.)

Definition 12.1. A family is a surjective morphism (regular map) $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ of variety. The base (or parameter space) of the family is $Y$. The members are the fibers $\left\{f^{-1}(y)\right\}_{y \in Y}$.
Example 12.2. $X=\mathbb{V}(x y-z) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{3}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{V}(x y-z) & \xrightarrow{F} \mathbb{A}^{1} \\
(x, y, z) & \longmapsto z .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then

$$
f^{-1}(\lambda)=\mathbb{V}(x y-\lambda) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2} \times\{\lambda\} .
$$

Example 12.3. Hyperplanes in $\mathbb{P}^{n} \longleftrightarrow \mathbb{P}\left(\left(k^{n+1}\right)^{*}\right)$ by the correspondence

$$
H=\mathbb{V}\left(A_{0} X_{0}+\cdots+A_{n} X_{n}\right) \longleftrightarrow\left\{A_{0} X_{0}+A_{1} X_{1}+\cdots+A_{n} X_{n}\right\} / \text { scalar values. }
$$

12.2. Incidence correspondences. Consider the "incidence correspondence"

$$
\mathscr{X}=\{(p, H) \mid p \in H\} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{n}=\mathbb{P}(V) \times \mathbb{P}\left(V^{*}\right) .
$$

Putting coordinates $\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ on $\mathbb{P}(V)$ and $\left[A_{0}, \ldots, A_{n}\right]$ on $\mathbb{P}\left(V^{*}\right)$, we have

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathscr{X}=\mathbb{V}\left(A_{0} X_{0}+\cdots+A_{n} X_{n}\right) \xrightarrow{\pi}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)^{*} \\
\pi^{-1}\left(\left[A_{0}: \cdots: A_{n}\right]\right)=\mathbb{V}\left(A_{0} X_{0}+\cdots+A_{n} X_{n}\right) \longmapsto\left[A_{0}, \ldots, A_{n}\right]
\end{gathered}
$$

Theorem 12.4. Let $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ be a surjective regular map of varieties, $\operatorname{dim} X=n, \operatorname{dim} Y=m$. Then:
(1) $n \geq m$.
(2) $\operatorname{dim} F \geq n-m$, where $F$ is any component of any fiber $f^{-1}(y) \subseteq X$ (with $y \in Y$ ).
(3) There is a dense open set $U \subseteq Y$ such that $\forall y \in U, f^{-1}(y)$ has dimension $n-m$.

Corollary 12.5. Let $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ be a surjective regular map of projective algebraic sets. Assume $Y$ is irreducible and all fibers are irreducible of the same dimension. Then $X$ is also irreducible!
Example 12.6 (Blowup). $B=\{(p, \ell) \mid p \in \ell\} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2} \times \mathbb{P}^{1}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& B=\{(p, \ell) \mid p \in \ell\} \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{P}^{1} \\
& \mathbb{A}^{2} \times \ell \supseteq \mathbb{V}(a x-b y)=\pi^{-1}(\ell) \longmapsto \ell=[a: b] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that each of the fibers is 1-dimensional.
Now: $B$ is dimension 2, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
B & \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{A}^{2} \\
(q,[a: b]) & \longmapsto q=(a, b) \in \mathbb{A}^{2}-\{(0,0)\}
\end{aligned}
$$

is a "generic" fiber and has dimension $0=2-2$. But the fiber over $(0,0)$ is $\mathbb{P}^{1}$, which has dimension 1. The dimension jumps!
12.3. Lines contained in a hypersurface. Q: Fix an (irreducible) hypersurface of degree $d$ in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$. Does it have any lines on it?

A: For $d=1: X=\mathbb{V}(L) \cong \mathbb{P}^{2} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{3}$ is covered by lines.
For $d=2: X=\mathbb{V}(x y-w z) \cong \mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{3}$ is covered by lines. Degenerate cone: $X=$ $\mathbb{V}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{3}$ is also covered by lines, as is $\mathbb{V}(x y)$, the union of two planes.

Consider the incidence correspondence

$$
\mathscr{X}=\{(\mathbb{V}(F), \ell) \mid \ell \subseteq \mathbb{V}(F)\} \subseteq \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left(k^{4}\right)^{*}\right) \times \operatorname{Gr}(2,4),
$$

where $\mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left(k^{4}\right)^{*}\right)=$ parameter space of hypersurfaces of degree $d$ in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$, and $\operatorname{Gr}(2,4)=$ lines in $\mathbb{P}^{3}=2$-dimensional subspaces of $k^{4}$.

Take the projections

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathscr{X} \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left(k^{4}\right)^{*}\right), \\
& \mathscr{X} \xrightarrow{\nu} \operatorname{Gr}(2,4) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Consider $\nu$ : Compute the fiber over $\ell$. Without loss of generality, $\ell=\mathbb{V}\left(X_{0}, X_{1}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{3}$. Then $\nu^{-1}(\ell)=\mathbb{V}\left(F_{d}\right)$ such that

$$
\mathbb{V}\left(X_{0}, X_{1}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{V}\left(F_{d}\right) \Longleftrightarrow\left(X_{0}, X_{1}\right) \supseteq\left(F_{d}\right)=X_{0} G_{d-1}+X_{1} H_{d-1} .
$$

The equation $F_{d}$ has coefficients 0 on the terms $X_{2}^{d}, X_{2}^{d-1} X_{3}, \ldots, X_{3}^{d}$. So

$$
\nu^{-1}(\ell) \subseteq \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left(k^{4}\right)^{*}\right)
$$

is a linear subspace of codimension $d+1$. The dimension of the fiber is

$$
\binom{d+3}{3}-1-(d+1)
$$

Hence, the fibers are all irreducible of the same dimension.
Thus, by Corollary 12.5, $\mathscr{X}$ is irreducible of dimension $4+$ (fiber dimension).

### 12.4. Dimension of fibers.

Theorem 12.4. Given a surjective regular map $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$ of varieties, we have
(1) $\operatorname{dim} X \geq \operatorname{dim} Y$
(2) $\operatorname{dim} F \geq \operatorname{dim} X-\operatorname{dim} Y$ for $F$ any component of any fiber $\varphi^{-1}(y)$
(3) There is a nonempty open subset $U \subseteq Y$ where $\operatorname{dim} F=\operatorname{dim} X-\operatorname{dim} Y$.

We studied the incidence correspondence

$$
\mathscr{X}=\{(X, \ell) \mid \ell \subseteq X\} \subseteq \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left(k^{4}\right)^{*}\right) \times \operatorname{Gr}(2,4)
$$

and its projections

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X \xrightarrow{\pi_{1}} \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left(k^{4}\right)^{*}\right), \\
& X \xrightarrow{\pi_{2}} \operatorname{Gr}(2,4) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We saw that $\pi_{2}$ is surjective.
The fiber of $\ell \in \operatorname{Gr}(2,4)$ is

$$
\pi_{2}^{-1}(\ell)=\{(X, \ell) \mid X \supseteq \ell\}=\{\text { surfaces of degree } 2 \text { containing } \ell\} \times \ell
$$

and is $\cong$ a linear space in $\mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\right)$ of dimension $M-(d+1)$, where

$$
M=\binom{d+3}{3}-1=\operatorname{dim}\left[\mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left(k^{4}\right)^{*}\right)\right] .
$$

Study the other projection:

$$
X \xrightarrow{\pi_{1}} \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left(k^{4}\right)^{*}\right)=\left\{\text { degree } d \text { hypersurfaces in } \mathbb{P}^{3}\right\} \cong \mathbb{P}^{M} .
$$

The fiber of $X \in \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left(k^{4}\right)^{*}\right)$ is

$$
\pi_{1}^{-1}(X)=\{(X, \ell) \mid \ell \subseteq X\}=X \times\{\text { lines on } X\}
$$

So $X \in \pi_{1}(\mathscr{X}) \Longleftrightarrow X$ contains some line.
Consequence: If $d \geq 4$, then $\pi_{1}$ can't be surjective. "Most" surfaces of degree $\geq 4$ contain no line:"The generic surface of degree $d \geq 4$ contains no line."
12.5. Cubic surfaces. What about $d=3$ ?

$$
\mathscr{X} \xrightarrow{\pi_{1}} \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{3}\left(k^{4}\right)^{*}\right)=\mathbb{P}^{19},
$$

and $\operatorname{dim} \mathscr{X}=19$. Two possibilities:
(1) $\pi_{1}$ is surjective $\Longleftrightarrow$ generic fiber is dim 0 . "The generic cubic contains finitely many lines."
(2) $\pi_{1}$ is not surjective $\Longleftrightarrow$ there are cubic surfaces that don't contain lines, and the fibers are $\operatorname{dim} \geq 1$.
In fact, the former is what actually occurs; $\pi_{1}$ is surjective.
It suffices to find one cubic surface that contains finitely many lines:

$$
X=\mathbb{V}\left(X_{1} X_{2} X_{3}-X_{0}^{3}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{3}
$$

Exercise 12.7. $X$ contains exactly 3 lines, $\mathbb{V}\left(X_{0}, X_{i}\right)$ for $i=1,2,3$.
The non-generic fibers have $\operatorname{dim} \geq 1$, so these cubics contain infinitely many lines.
It turns out that the subset of cubic surfaces containing only finitely many lines

$$
\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{19}=\mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{3}\left(k^{4}\right)^{*}\right)
$$

consists exactly of the irreducible $X=\mathbb{V}(F)$.
Fact 12.8. $\pi_{1}: \pi_{1}^{-1}(X) \longrightarrow \mathcal{U}$ is finite of degree 27 over $\mathcal{U}$. On the subset of smooth cubic surfaces, this map is exactly 27 -to- 1 .

## 13. Tangent spaces

- Intersection multiplicity $(V, \ell)_{p}$
- Tangent line
- Tangent space
- Smooth point
13.1. Big picture. To any point $p$ on any variety $V$, we will define a vector space $T_{p} V$, the tangent space to $V$ at $p$, such that
(1) Given any regular map

$$
\begin{gathered}
V \xrightarrow{\varphi} W \\
p \longmapsto q,
\end{gathered}
$$

we get an induced linear map of vector spaces

$$
T_{p} V \xrightarrow{d_{p} \varphi} T_{q} W .
$$

Goal: to define tangent space to a variety $V$ at a point $p \in V$.
Since tangency is a local issue, assume $p=(0, \ldots, 0) \in V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$ with $V$ a closed affine algebraic set.
13.2. Intersection multiplicity. We work out an example in detail.

Example 13.1. Let $V=\mathbb{V}\left(y-x^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2}$. We calculate the intersection multiplicity of $V$ with $\ell=\{(a t, b t) \mid t \in k\}$. The intersection $V \cap \ell$ is given by

$$
\mathbb{V}\left((b t)-(a t)^{2}\right) \subseteq \ell \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2} .
$$

Solving this:

$$
\begin{aligned}
b t-a^{2} t^{2} & =0 \\
t\left(b-a^{2} t\right) & =0,
\end{aligned}
$$

so $t=0$ or $t=\frac{b}{a^{2}}$. Hence the intersection points are $(0,0)$ and $\left(\frac{b}{a},\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{2}\right)$.
We get a "double intersection" point when $b=0$. Get that $\ell$ is tangent to $V$ at $(0,0)$ because the intersection multiplicity is $V$ and $\ell$ at $(0,0)$ is 2 .

More precisely, we will see that $\ell$ has intersection multiplicity 1 for all $\ell$ except when $\ell$ is the $x$-axis, in which case the intersection multiplicity is 2 .

Now we are ready to give a formal definition.
Definition 13.2. Let $p=\mathbf{0} \in V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$, and let $\mathbb{I}(V)=\left(F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)$. Say

$$
\ell=\left\{\left(a_{1} t, \ldots, a_{n} t\right) \mid t \in k\right\} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}
$$

is a line through $\mathbf{0}$. The intersection multiplicity of $V$ and $\ell$ at $p$, denoted $(V, \ell)_{p}$, is the highest power of $t$ which divides all the polynomials

$$
\left\{F_{i}\left(a_{1} t, \ldots, a_{n} t\right)\right\}_{i=1, \ldots, r}
$$

Equivalently, look at the ideal of $k[t]$ generated by $\left\{F\left(a_{1} t, \ldots, a_{n} t\right)\right\}$, where $F\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{I}(V)$. That ideal is generated by some polynomial

$$
t^{m}\left(t-\lambda_{1}\right)_{1}^{m} \cdots\left(t-\lambda_{s}\right)^{m_{s}}, \quad \lambda_{i} \neq 0
$$

Then $(V, \ell)_{\mathbf{0}}=m$.

### 13.3. Tangent lines and the tangent space.

Definition 13.3 (tangent line). A line $\ell$ is tangent to $V$ at $p$ if $(\ell, V)_{p} \geq 2$.
Definition 13.4 (tangent space). The tangent space to $V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$ at $p$, denoted $T_{p} V$, is the set of points $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{A}^{n}$ lying on lines $\ell \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$ which are tangent to $V$ are $p$.
Example 13.5. Consider $V=\mathbb{V}\left(y^{2}-x^{2}-x^{3}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2}$. Take a line through the origin

$$
\ell=\{(a t, b t) \mid t \in k\} .
$$

The intersects are given by

$$
(b t)^{2}-(a t)^{2}-(a t)^{3}=t^{2}\left(b^{2}-a^{2}-a^{3} t\right) .
$$

So the intersection multiplicity at the origin is 2 . Note that all lines through $(0,0)$ are tangent:

$$
T_{(0,0)} V=\mathbb{A}^{2}=k^{2} .
$$

In other words, tangent lines are not always a limit of secant lines.
Theorem 13.6. Let $p \in V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$, where $V$ is a (not necessarily irreducible) closed subset of $\mathbb{A}^{n}$. The tangent space $T_{p} V$ is a linear algebraic variety in $\mathbb{A}^{n}$, and

$$
\operatorname{dim} T_{p} V \geq \operatorname{dim}_{p} V .
$$

### 13.4. Smooth points.

Definition 13.7. A point $p \in V$ is smooth if $\operatorname{dim} T_{p} V=\operatorname{dim}_{p} V$.
Proposition 13.8. Say $\mathbf{0} \in V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$ and $\mathbb{I}(V)=\left(F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)$. Then

$$
T_{\mathbf{0}} V=\mathbb{V}\left(L_{1}, \ldots, L_{r}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}
$$

where $L_{i}=a_{i 1} x_{1}+\cdots+a_{i n} x_{n}$ is the "degree 1 part" of $F_{i}$, i.e.,

$$
F_{i}=L_{i}+F_{i}^{(2)}+F_{i}^{(3)}+\ldots
$$

where $F_{i}^{(j)}$ is homogeneous of degree $j$ in $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$.
Proof. We have $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in T_{\mathbf{0}} V \Longleftrightarrow\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in \ell$ which is tangent to $V$ at $\mathbf{0} \Longleftrightarrow$ $\left\{\left(a_{1} t, \ldots, a_{n} t\right) \mid t \in k\right\}$ intersects $V$ with multiplicity $\geq 2$ at $\mathbf{0}$

$$
\Longleftrightarrow\left\{F_{1}\left(a_{1} t, \ldots, a_{n} t\right), \ldots, F_{r}\left(a_{1} t, \ldots, a_{n} t\right)\right\}
$$

are divisible by $t^{2}$. Observe that

$$
F_{i}\left(a_{1} t, \ldots, a_{n} t\right)=L_{i}\left(a_{1} t, \ldots, a_{n} t\right)+G_{i}\left(a_{1} t, \ldots, a_{n} t\right)=t \cdot L_{i}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)+G_{i}\left(a_{1} t, \ldots, a_{n} t\right),
$$

and $t^{2}$ divides $G_{i}\left(a_{1} t, \ldots, a_{n} t\right)$. So

$$
t^{2} \mid F_{i}\left(a t_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} t\right) \Longleftrightarrow L_{i}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=0
$$

Example 13.9. In $V=\mathbb{V}\left(y-x^{2}\right) \subset \mathbb{A}^{2}$,

$$
T_{(0,0)} V=\mathbb{V}(y) \subset \mathbb{A}^{2} .
$$

Example 13.10. In $V=\mathbb{V}\left(y^{2}-x^{2}-x^{3}\right) \subset \mathbb{A}^{2}$,

$$
T_{(0,0)} V=\mathbb{A}^{2}
$$

Remark 13.11 (Explicit computation of tangent spaces). To find $T_{p} V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$ for any $p$, center everything at $p=\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}\right)$. Write all polynomials not in $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$, but in $\left(x_{1}-\lambda_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}-\right.$ $\lambda_{n}$ ).

Use Taylor expansion at $p=\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}\right)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
F=F(p) & +\underbrace{\left.\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_{1}}\right|_{p}\left(x_{1}-\lambda_{1}\right)+\cdots+\left.\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_{n}}\right|_{p}\left(x_{n}-\lambda_{n}\right)}_{\text {linear part around } p} \\
& +\left.\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^{2} F}{\partial x^{2}}\right|_{p}\left(x_{1}-\lambda_{1}\right)^{2}+\ldots \\
& +\left.\left(\frac{1}{i_{1}!} \frac{\partial^{i_{1}}}{\partial x_{1}^{i_{1}}}\right) \cdots\left(\frac{1}{i_{n}!} \frac{\partial^{i_{n}}}{\partial x_{n}^{i_{n}}}\right) F\right|_{p}\left(x_{1}-\lambda_{1}\right)^{i_{1}} \cdots\left(x_{n}-\lambda_{n}\right)^{i_{n}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 13.12. $T_{p} V=\mathbb{V}\left(d_{p} F_{1}, \ldots, d_{p} F_{r}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$, where $\mathbb{I}(V)=\left(F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)$.
13.5. Differentials, derivations, and the tangent space.

Definition 13.13. Fix $R=k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right], p \in \mathbb{A}^{n}=k^{n}$. The "differential at $p$ " is the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] & \xrightarrow{d_{p}} k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] \\
g & \longmapsto d_{p} g=\underbrace{\left.\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_{i}}\right|_{p}\left(x_{i}-\lambda_{i}\right)}_{\text {linear form in }\left(x_{i}-\lambda_{i}\right)} \in\left[k\left[x_{1}-\lambda_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}-\lambda_{n}\right]\right]_{1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Caution: Not a ring map!
Fact 13.14. $d_{p}: R \longrightarrow R$ is a $k$-linear derivation, meaning:
(1) $k$-linear: $d_{p}(f+g)=d_{p} f+d_{p} g$ and $d_{p}(\lambda f)=\lambda d_{p} f$ for all $f, g \in R, \lambda \in k$.
(2) $d_{p}(f g)=f(p) d_{p} g+g(p) d_{p} f$.

Last time: If

$$
p \in V=\mathbb{V}\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}, \quad\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}\right)=\mathbb{I}(V)
$$

then

$$
T_{p} V=\mathbb{V}\left(d_{p} f_{1}, \ldots, d_{p} f_{r}\right)=\text { vector space in } k^{n} \text { translated by } p \subseteq\left(T_{p} \mathbb{A}^{n}\right)=k^{n},
$$

where $d_{p} f_{i}$ are linear forms in $\left(x_{1}-\lambda_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}-\lambda_{n}\right)$.
Why is this independent of choice of generators?

$$
\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{t}\right)=\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}\right)=\mathbb{I}(V) \subseteq k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]
$$

Write $g_{i}=h_{1} f_{1}+\cdots+h_{r} f_{r}$ for some $h_{j} \in R$. Apply $d_{p}$ :

$$
d_{p} g_{i}=f_{1}(p) d_{p} h_{1}+h_{1}(p) d_{p} f_{1}+\cdots+f_{r}(p) d_{p} h_{r}+h_{r}(p) d_{p} f_{r} .
$$

Since $p \in V$ and $f_{i} \in \mathbb{I}(V)$, we have $f_{i}(p)=0$. So $d_{p} g_{i}$ is a linear combination of $d_{p} f_{1}, \ldots, d_{p} f_{r}$. Hence $d_{p} g_{i} \in\left(d_{p} f_{1}, \ldots, d_{p} f_{r}\right)$, as was to be shown.

We have a surjective map

$$
\begin{aligned}
k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] & \xrightarrow{d_{p}}\left(T_{p} \mathbb{A}^{n}\right)^{*} \\
x_{i}-\lambda_{i} & \longmapsto x_{i}-\lambda_{i} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note 13.15. $d_{p}(f)=d_{p}(f+\lambda)$. Replace $f$ by $f-f(p)$ :

$$
d_{p} f=d_{p}(f-f(p)) .
$$

So we can restrict to the (still surjective) map on $\mathfrak{m}_{p}=\left(x_{1}-\lambda_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}-\lambda_{n}\right) \subseteq k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ :

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\mathfrak{m}_{p} \xrightarrow{d_{p}}\left(T_{p} \mathbb{A}^{n}\right)^{*} \\
x_{i}-\lambda_{i} \longmapsto x_{i}-\lambda_{i} .
\end{array}
$$

Say $g \in \mathfrak{m}_{p}$ is in the kernel of $d_{p}$. Write $g$ out as a polynomial in $\left(x_{1}-\lambda_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}-\lambda_{n}\right)$ :

$$
g=g(p)+d_{p} g+G,
$$

where each monomial of $G$ is of degree $\geq 2$ in $\left(x_{1}-\lambda_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}-\lambda_{n}\right)$.
Since $g \in \mathfrak{m}_{p}$, we have $g(p)=0$. Moreover,

$$
d_{p} g=0 \Longleftrightarrow g=G \in\left(x_{1}-\lambda_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}-\lambda_{n}\right)^{2}
$$

So ker $d_{p}=\mathfrak{m}_{p}^{2}$.
This gives us a natural isomorphism:

$$
\frac{\mathfrak{m}_{p}}{\mathfrak{m}_{p}^{2}} \xrightarrow{d_{p}}\left(T_{p} \mathbb{A}^{n}\right)^{*} .
$$

Theorem 13.16. For $p=\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}\right) \in V=\mathbb{V}\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$ with $\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}\right)=\mathbb{I}(V)$, let

$$
\mathfrak{m}_{p}=\{f: V \longrightarrow k \mid f(p)=0\} \subseteq k[V] .
$$

There is a natural surjective vector space map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathfrak{m}_{p} & \xrightarrow{d_{p}}\left(T_{p} V\right)^{*} \\
g=\left.G\right|_{V} & \longmapsto\left[\left.d_{p} G\right|_{T_{p} V}: T_{p} V \longrightarrow k\right], \quad G \in k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right],
\end{aligned}
$$

whose kernel is $\mathfrak{m}_{p}^{2}$.

Proof. Why is this well-defined?
Say $g=\left.G\right|_{V}=\left.H\right|_{V}$ for some $G, H \in k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$. Need to check that $d_{p} G, d_{p} H \in\left(T_{p} \mathbb{A}^{n}\right)^{*}$ restrict to the same linear functional in $T_{p} V=\mathbb{V}\left(d_{p} f_{1}, \ldots, d_{p} f_{r}\right)$.

By considering $G-H$, say $G \in \mathbb{I}(V)$. Need to show that $d_{p} G$ vanishes on $T_{p} V$, i.e., that $d_{p} G \in\left(d_{p} f_{1}, \ldots, d_{p} f_{r}\right)$.

We already showed that $G=H_{1} f_{1}+\cdots+H_{r} f_{r} \Longrightarrow d_{p} G \in\left(d_{p} f_{1}, \ldots, d_{p} f_{r}\right)$, provided $p \in V$. So we are done.

Conclusion:

$$
\left(T_{p} V\right)^{*} \cong \mathfrak{m}_{p} / \mathfrak{m}_{p}^{2}
$$

as a $k$-vector space for any $p \in V \stackrel{\text { closed }}{\subseteq} \mathbb{A}^{n}$.

### 13.6. The Zariski tangent space.

Corollary 13.17. Consider an isomorphism of affine algebraic sets

$$
\begin{gathered}
V \xrightarrow{\varphi} W \\
p \longmapsto q .
\end{gathered}
$$

Then we have an isomorphism

$$
\begin{gathered}
k[W] \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} k[V] \\
\mathfrak{m}_{p} \xrightarrow{\simeq} \mathfrak{m}_{q} \\
\mathfrak{m}_{p}^{2} \xrightarrow{\simeq} \mathfrak{m}_{q}^{2} .
\end{gathered}
$$

I.e., the tangent space is an invariant of the isomorphism class of the variety at $p$.

Definition 13.18. The Zariski tangent space at a point $p$ of a quasi-projective variety $V$ is $\left(\mathfrak{m}_{p} / \mathfrak{m}_{p}^{2}\right)^{*}$, where $\mathfrak{m}_{p}$ is the maximal ideal in the local ring of $V$ at $p$.

Recall: $p \in V$ variety.
Definition 13.19. The local ring of $V$ at $p$ is

$$
\mathcal{O}_{p, V}=\{\varphi \in k(V) \mid \varphi \text { is regular at } p\} .
$$

It has unique maximal ideal

$$
\mathfrak{m}_{p}=\left\{\varphi \in \mathcal{O}_{p, V} \mid \varphi(p)=0\right\} .
$$

To compute $\mathcal{O}_{p, V}$, choose any affine open neighborhood of $p$, say $p \in U \subseteq V$. We have

$$
\mathfrak{m}_{p} \subseteq k[U]=\mathcal{O}_{V}(U)
$$

Then

$$
\mathcal{O}_{p, V}=k[U]_{\mathfrak{m}_{p}} \supseteq \mathfrak{m}_{p} k[U] \mathfrak{m}_{p} .
$$

This doesn't depend on the choice of $U$.
Note 13.20.

$$
\frac{\mathfrak{m}_{p}}{\mathfrak{m}_{p}^{2}}=\frac{\mathfrak{m}_{p} k[U]_{\mathfrak{m}_{p}}}{\left(\mathfrak{m}_{p} k[U]_{\mathfrak{m}_{p}}\right)^{2}} .
$$

### 13.7. Tangent spaces of local rings.

Definition 13.21. For any local ring $(R, \mathfrak{m})$ (e.g., $\mathbb{Z}_{p}, \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}[[x]], \widehat{\mathbb{Z}_{p}}$, convergent power series in $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{r}$ over $C$, etc.), define the Zariski tangent space as $\left(\mathfrak{m} / \mathfrak{m}^{2}\right)^{*}$. This is a vector space over the residue field $R / \mathfrak{m}=k$.

Theorem 13.22. For any local ring, $\operatorname{dim}_{k}\left(\mathfrak{m} / \mathfrak{m}^{2}\right) \geq \operatorname{dim} R$.
Definition 13.23. A local ring $(R, \mathfrak{m})$ is regular if $\operatorname{dim}_{k}\left(\mathfrak{m} / \mathfrak{m}^{2}\right)=\operatorname{dim} R$.
Example 13.24. If $R=\mathcal{O}_{p, V}$, where $p$ is a point on a variety $V$, then

$$
\left(\mathfrak{m} / \mathfrak{m}^{2}\right)^{*}=\left(T_{p} V\right),
$$

the tangent space to $V$ at $p, \operatorname{dim}_{p} T_{p} V \geq \operatorname{dim}_{p} V$. (Proof in Shafarevich!)
$\mathcal{O}_{p, V}$ is regular $\Longleftrightarrow p$ is a smooth point of $V$.
Definition 13.25. (1) $p \in V$ is smooth $\Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{dim} T_{p} V=\operatorname{dim}_{p} V$. (In general, $\forall p \in V$, we have $\operatorname{dim} T_{p} V \geq \operatorname{dim}_{p} V$.)
(2) The singular locus of $V$ is the set

$$
\text { Sing } V=\{p \in V \mid p \text { is not smooth }\}=\left\{p \in V \mid \operatorname{dim}\left(T_{p} V\right)>\operatorname{dim}_{p} V\right\} .
$$

Example 13.26. Since $\operatorname{dim} \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}=1$ and $\operatorname{dim}(p) /\left(p^{2}\right)=1, \mathbb{Z}$ "is" the coordinate ring of something like a variety which is smooth of dimension 1 .

Example 13.27. Let $p \in\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{A}^{n}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{dim}\left(T_{p} \mathbb{A}^{n}\right)=\operatorname{dim}\left(k^{n}\right) & =n, \\
\operatorname{dim}\left[\frac{\left(x_{1}-\lambda_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}-\lambda_{n}\right)}{\left(x_{1}-\lambda_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}-\lambda_{n}\right)^{2}}\right] & =n
\end{aligned}
$$

I.e., $\mathbb{A}^{n}$ is smooth at all points.

Theorem 13.28. The singular set of $V$ ( $a$ variety) is a proper closed subset of $V$.
Proof. We have $\operatorname{Sing} V \subseteq V$. To check that this is a proper closed set, it reduces immediately to the case where $V$ is affine.

Assume $V=\mathbb{V}\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$ with $\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}\right)=\mathbb{I}(V)$. For $p \in V$,

$$
T_{p} V=\mathbb{V}\left(d_{p} f_{1}, \ldots, d_{p} f_{r}\right), \quad \quad \text { each } d_{p} f_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{n}\left(\left.\frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}\right|_{p}\left(x_{j}-x_{j}(p)\right)\right) .
$$

Equations $d_{p} f_{1}, \ldots, d_{p} f_{r}$ can be written as a matrix:

$$
T_{p} V=\mathbb{V}\left(\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{\partial f_{1}}{\partial x_{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{1}}{\partial x_{n}} \\
\frac{\partial f_{2}}{\partial x_{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{2}}{\partial x_{n}} \\
\vdots & & \vdots \\
\frac{\partial f_{r}}{\partial x_{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{r}}{\partial x_{n}}
\end{array}\right]_{p}\left[\begin{array}{c}
x_{1}-x_{1}(p) \\
x_{2}-x_{2}(p) \\
\vdots \\
x_{n}-x_{n}(p)
\end{array}\right]\right)=\operatorname{ker}\left(\left.\left(\frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}\right)\right|_{p}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n} .
$$

So

$$
\operatorname{dim} T_{p} V=\operatorname{dim}\left(\operatorname{ker}\left(\left.J_{p}\right|_{p}\right)\right)=n-\operatorname{rank}\left(J_{p}\right)
$$

We have $p \in \operatorname{Sing} V \Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{dim} T_{p} V>\left.d \Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{rank}\left(\frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}\right)\right|_{p}<n-d \Longleftrightarrow(n-d) \times(n-d)$ subdeterminants of $\left(\frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}\right)$ all vanish at $p$. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Sing} V & =\left\{p \in V \mid(n-d) \times(n-d) \text { minors of }\left(\frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}\right) \text { vanish at } p\right\} \\
& =\mathbb{V}\left(\text { codimension-sized minors of }\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{\partial f_{1}}{\partial x_{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{1}}{\partial x_{n}} \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\frac{\partial f_{r}}{\partial x_{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{r}}{\partial x_{n}}
\end{array}\right]\right) \cap V .
\end{aligned}
$$

It remains to show that it is proper!
Example 13.29. Consider $V=\mathbb{V}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{C}^{3}$ :

$$
T_{p} V=\mathbb{V}\left(\left.2 x\right|_{p}(x-x(p))+\left.2 y\right|_{p}(y-y(p))-\left.2 z\right|_{p}(z-z(p))\right) \subseteq \mathbb{C}^{3} .
$$

This defining equation is a linear function in $\left(x-\lambda_{1}, y-\lambda_{2}, z-\lambda_{3}\right)$, nonzero $\Longleftrightarrow$ some $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}$ is nonzero.

Hence, the dimension is 2 if $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \lambda_{3}$ are not all zero, and dimension 3 otherwise:

$$
\text { Sing } V=V \cap \mathbb{V}(1 \times 1(2 x, 2 y, 2 z))=V \cap \mathbb{V}(x, y, z)=\{(0,0,0)\}
$$

## 14. Regular parameters

Read Shafarevich, II, §2, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3.
14.1. Local parameters at a point. Fix $V$ variety, $p \in V$. Consider

$$
\mathcal{O}_{p, V}=\{\varphi \in k(V) \mid \varphi \text { is regular at } p\},
$$

the local ring of $V$ at $p$. The maximal ideal is $\mathfrak{m} \subset \mathcal{O}_{p, V}$, the regular functions vanishing at $p$.
Recall:
Definition 14.1. $p$ is a smooth (or non-singular) point of $V$ iff

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{k} \mathfrak{m} / \mathfrak{m}^{2}=\operatorname{dim}_{p} V
$$

( $\geq$ always holds).
Fix $V$ variety of dimension $d, p \in V$ smooth point.
Definition 14.2. Say regular functions $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{d} \in \mathfrak{m}_{p}$ in a neighborhood of $p \in V$ are regular parameters (or local parameters) at $p$ if their images in $\mathfrak{m} / \mathfrak{m}^{2}$ are a basis for this vector space.
Example 14.3. If $p=\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{d}\right) \in \mathbb{A}^{d}$, then $\left\{x_{1}-\lambda_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}-\lambda_{d}\right\}$ are local parameters at $p$.
Example 14.4. $p=(1,0) \in V=\mathbb{V}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-1\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2}$. The dimension is 1 . Note that $V$ is smooth (for $\operatorname{char}(k) \neq 2$ ):

$$
\text { Sing } V=V \cap \mathbb{V}(2 x, 2 y)=\mathbb{V}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-1,2 x, 2 y\right)=\varnothing .
$$

We have

$$
\mathcal{O}_{p, V}=\frac{k[x, y]}{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-1\right)} \cdot(x-1, y) \supseteq \mathfrak{m}
$$

$\mathfrak{m} / \mathfrak{m}^{2}(\operatorname{dim} 1)$ obviously spanned by $\{x-1, y\}$. In $\mathcal{O}_{p, V}$,

$$
(x-1)(x+1)=-y^{2} \Longrightarrow x-1=-\frac{1}{x+1} y^{2} \in \mathfrak{m}^{2} .
$$

Thus $y$ is a local parameter for $V$ at $p=(1,0)$, since $\bar{y}$ in $\mathfrak{m} / \mathfrak{m}^{2}$ is a basis for $\mathfrak{m} / \mathfrak{m}^{2}$.
In other words, $y$ generates $\mathfrak{m}$ as an $\mathcal{O}_{p, V}$-module.

### 14.2. Nakayama's lemma.

Lemma 14.5 (Nakayama). Let $(R, \mathfrak{m})$ be a local Noetherian commutative ring, and let $M$ be a finitely generated $R$-module. Every vector space basis for $M / \mathfrak{m} M$ over $R / \mathfrak{m}$ lifts to a (minimal) generating set for $M$ as an $R$-module.

We apply this to $R=\mathcal{O}_{p, V} \supseteq \mathfrak{m}$ and $M=\mathfrak{m}$ : Every vector space basis $\overline{u_{1}}, \ldots, \overline{u_{d}}$ for $\mathfrak{m} / \mathfrak{m}^{2}$ lifts to a (minimal) generating set $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{d}$ for $\mathfrak{m}$.

### 14.3. Embedding dimension.

Definition 14.6. The embedding dimension of a point $p$ on a variety $V$ (not necessarily smooth) is the dimension of $\mathfrak{m}_{p} / \mathfrak{m}_{p}^{2}$.

Fact 14.7. The embedding dimension at $p$ is $\geq$ the dimension at $p$, with equality $\Longleftrightarrow p$ is a smooth point of $V$.

Theorem 14.8 (Transverse intersection). Let $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{d}$ be local parameters at a smooth point $p \in V$. The subvariety $\mathbb{V}\left(u_{i}\right) \subseteq V$ is also smooth at $p_{j}$ of codimension 1 , and furthermore, $\mathbb{V}\left(u_{i_{1}}, \ldots, u_{i_{t}}\right) \subseteq V$ is smooth at $p$ of codimension $t$.
Proof. We have $p \in V_{i}=\mathbb{V}\left(u_{i}\right) \varsubsetneqq V$ and a ring map given by modding out by $\operatorname{Rad}\left(u_{i}\right)$,

and we have $\overline{\mathfrak{m}}_{p, V_{i}}=\left(\overline{u_{1}}, \overline{u_{2}}, \ldots, \overline{u_{d}}\right)$ and $\mathfrak{m}_{p, V}=\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{d}\right)$. Since $\overline{u_{i}}=0$, we have

$$
d-1 \leq \operatorname{dim}_{p} V_{i} \leq \operatorname{dim} T_{p} V_{i}=\operatorname{dim} \frac{\overline{\mathfrak{m}_{p}}}{{\overline{\mathfrak{m}_{p}}}^{2}} \leq d-1
$$

Hence $d-1=\operatorname{dim} T_{p} V_{i}=\operatorname{dim}_{p} V_{i}$, so $p$ is a smooth point of $V_{i}$.
Similarly, take $p \in V_{I}=\mathbb{V}\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{t}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{V}$. Then

$$
\overline{\mathfrak{m}}=\left(\overline{u_{1}}, \ldots, \overline{u_{d}}\right)=\left(\overline{u_{t+1}}, \ldots, \overline{u_{d}}\right) \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{p, V_{I}}
$$

So

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{p} V_{i} \leq \operatorname{dim} \frac{\overline{\mathfrak{m}}}{\overline{\mathfrak{m}}^{2}} \leq d-t \leq \operatorname{dim}_{p} V_{I}
$$

hence equality holds and we are done.
Example 14.9. Let $p=(0,0) \in \mathbb{A}^{2}$. Then $\left\{y-x^{2}, x\right\}$ are local parameters at $(0,0)$, and are said to intersect transversely.

However, $\left\{y-x^{2}, y\right\}$ are not local parameters at $(0,0) \in \mathbb{A}^{2}$, and do not intersect transversely.
14.4. Transversal intersection at arbitrary points. For a point $p$ (not necessarily smooth) on a variety $V$, and elements $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n} \in \mathfrak{m} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{p, V}$, the following are equivalent:
(1) $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}$ minimally generate $\mathfrak{m}$ (as an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{p, V}$ ).
(2) The images $\overline{u_{1}}, \ldots, \overline{u_{n}}$ are a basis for $\mathfrak{m} / \mathfrak{m}^{2}$.
(3) Their differentials $d_{p} u_{1}, \ldots, d_{p} u_{n}$ are a basis for $\left(T_{p} V\right)^{*}$.
(4) The subspace of $T_{p} V$ defined by the zero set of the ( $n=\operatorname{dim} T_{p} V$ ) linear functionals $d_{p} u_{1}, \ldots, d_{p} u_{n}$ is $\mathbf{0}$.

Fact 14.10. If $p$ is smooth, then $n=\operatorname{dim} V$, and any set $\left\{u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right\}$ satisfying these equivalent conditions is called a system of "local parameters at $p$ ".

In this case where $p$ is smooth, these are equivalent to:
(5) The inclusion $k\left[u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right]_{\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{p, V}$ becomes an equality when we complete with respect to the maximal ideals $\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right) \subset k\left[u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right]_{\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)}$ and $\mathfrak{m} \subset \mathcal{O}_{p, V}$, and we get

$$
k\left[u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right] \cong \widehat{\mathcal{O}_{p, V}}
$$

14.5. Philosophy of power series rings. Philosophy: Fix $p \in V$, and let $U$ be an affine patch containing $p$. Then

$$
\mathcal{O}_{V}(U) \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{p, V} \hookrightarrow \widehat{\mathcal{O}_{p, V}}
$$

where

- $\mathcal{O}_{V}(U)$ is the coordinate ring of an affine patch $U$ containing $p$, "functions regular on $U$ ";
- $\mathcal{O}_{p, V}$ is "functions regular on some Zariski-open subset of $V$ containing $p$ ";
- $\widehat{\mathcal{O}_{p, V}}$ is "functions on an even smaller (analytic, not Zariski) neighborhood of $p$ ".

For example, if $p=\mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{A}^{n}$, we have

$$
R=k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] \hookrightarrow k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]\left[\frac{1}{x_{1}-1}\right] \hookrightarrow R_{\mathfrak{m}}=k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]_{\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)} \hookrightarrow k\left[\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]\right] .
$$

The ring $k\left[\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]\right.$ includes "functions" on an "even smaller" open neighborhood, including things like

$$
\frac{1}{x_{1}-1} \longmapsto-1-x_{1}-x_{1}^{2}-x_{1}^{3}-\ldots
$$

and

$$
" e^{x_{1} "}=1+x_{1}+\frac{x_{1}^{2}}{2!}+\frac{x_{1}^{3}}{3!}+\frac{x_{1}^{4}}{4!}+\ldots
$$

These inclusions induce maps of the spectrums in the opposite direction:

$$
" \mathbb{A}^{n "}=\operatorname{Spec} k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] \longleftarrow \operatorname{Spec} R\left[\frac{1}{x_{1}-1}\right]=U_{x_{1}-1} \longleftarrow \operatorname{Spec} R_{\mathfrak{m}} \longleftarrow \operatorname{Spec} k\left[\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]\right]
$$

### 14.6. Divisors and ideal sheaves.

Theorem 14.11. Let $Y \subseteq X$ be a codimension 1 subvariety of a smooth variety $X$. Then $Y$ is locally defined by a vanishing of a single regular function on $X$ at each point $p \in X$.

More precisely: If $Y$ is a codimension 1 subvariety of a smooth variety $X$, then $\forall p \in Y$, there exists an open (affine) neighborhood $p \in U \subseteq X$ such that ( $p \in Y \cap U \subseteq U$ affine) the ideal

$$
I_{Y}(Y \cap U) \subseteq k[U]=\mathcal{O}_{X}(U)
$$

of $Y \cap U$ in $U$ is principal.
Caution 14.12. Even if $X$ is affine already, we can only expect $Y$ to be locally defined by one equation.

There is an alternative (equivalent) formulation in terms of sheaves:
Definition 14.13. Fix a closed set $W$ in a variety $V$. The ideal sheaf of $W$, denoted $\mathscr{I}_{W}$, assigns to each open $U \subseteq V$ the ideal

$$
\mathscr{I}_{W}(U)=\left\{f \in \mathcal{O}_{V}(U) \mid f(p)=0 \forall p \in W\right\} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{V}(U)
$$

Theorem 14.14. If $Y$ is a codimension 1 subvariety of a smooth variety $X$, then the ideal sheaf $\mathscr{I}_{Y}$ is locally principal in $\mathcal{O}_{X}$.

This means: $\forall p \in X, \exists$ open affine neighborhood $U \ni p$ such that $\mathscr{I}_{Y}(U) \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$ is principal. Remark 14.15. If $p \notin Y$, then $\exists U \ni p$ such that $Y \cap U=\varnothing$, so $\mathscr{I}_{Y}(U)=\mathcal{O}_{X}(U)=(1)$ is principal.

Equivalently, the condition that $\mathscr{I}_{Y}$ be locally principal means: $\forall p \in X$, the ideal $\mathscr{I}_{p, Y} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{p, X}$ defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathscr{I}_{p, Y} & =\left\{\begin{array}{l|l}
\varphi \in \mathcal{O}_{p, X} & \begin{array}{l}
\varphi \text { has a representative } \frac{f}{g} \text { where } f, g \in \mathcal{O}_{X}(U), \\
p \in U, g(p) \neq 0, f(q)=0 \forall q \in Y \cap U
\end{array}
\end{array}\right\} \\
& =\left\{\varphi \in \mathcal{O}_{p, X} \mid \varphi \text { vanishes at all points of } Y \text { in some neighborhood of } p\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

is principal. This is called "the stalk at $p$ " of the sheaf $\mathscr{I}_{Y}$. (Recall that $\mathcal{O}_{p, X}=$ the localization of $\mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$ at the maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}_{p} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$, where $u$ is any open affine neighborhood of $p$.)

We have an inclusion of sheaves $\mathscr{I}_{Y} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{X}$, which induces an inclusion of an ideal in a ring

$$
\mathscr{I}_{Y}(U) \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)
$$

By localization at $\mathfrak{m}_{p}$, this induces

$$
\mathscr{I}_{Y}(U)^{e}=\mathscr{I}_{p, Y} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{p, X} .
$$

Now we prove the theorem.
Proof of Theorem 14.14. Need to show: $\forall p \in X$, the ideal $\mathscr{I}_{p, Y} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{X, p}$ is principal.
Step 1: $\mathcal{O}_{X, p}$ is a UFD. [More general theorem: Every regular local ring is a UFD.]
Sketch: $\mathcal{O}_{X, p}$ is a UFD $\Longleftrightarrow 4^{4} \widehat{\mathcal{O}_{X, p}}$ is a UFD $\Longleftrightarrow k\left[\left[u_{1}, \ldots, u_{d}\right]\right]$ is a UFD. Math 593 exercise: $A$ is a UFD $\Longrightarrow A[\lfloor u]$ is a UFD.
Step 2: Fix $p \in Y \subseteq X, Y$ codimension 1 in $X$. Without loss of generality, $X$ is affine. We have

$$
I_{Y} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_{p} \subseteq k[X]=\mathcal{O}_{X}(X)
$$

Take any nonzero $h \in I_{Y} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_{p}$. Look at the image of $h$ in the UFD $\mathcal{O}_{X, p}$, and factor $h$ into irreducibles

$$
h=g_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots g_{r}^{a_{r}} \in I_{Y, p},
$$

where $g_{i} \in \mathcal{O}_{X, p}$. Thus some $g_{i} \in I_{Y, p}$.
[Alternatively, pass to smaller open affine neighborhood $U$ of $p$ where each $g_{i}$ is regular. Then

$$
h=g_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots g_{r}^{a_{r}} \in \mathscr{Y}(U),
$$

which is a prime ideal in $\mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$, so $g_{1} \in \mathscr{I}_{Y}(U)$.]
Because $g_{i}=g_{1}$ is irreducible in a UFD, it follows that $\left(g_{1}\right)$ is a prime ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{X, p}$. Consider: in $U$,

$$
Y \cap U \subseteq \mathbb{V}\left(g_{1}\right) \subseteq U \subseteq X
$$

We have $\operatorname{dim} U=\operatorname{dim} X=d$ and $\operatorname{dim} \mathbb{V}\left(g_{1}\right)=d-1$. If $Y \cap U \subset \mathbb{V}\left(g_{1}\right)$ is a proper inclusion, then $Y \cap U$ has $\operatorname{dim} \leq d-2$, since a proper subset of an irreducible variety has smaller dimension. Hence $Y \cap U=\mathbb{V}\left(g_{1}\right)$.

Caution 14.16. The theorem can fail for non-smooth $X$. For example, consider

$$
p=\mathbf{0} \in Y=\mathbb{V}(x, z) \varsubsetneqq X=\mathbb{V}(x y-z w) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{4}
$$

We have $\operatorname{dim} Y=2$ and $\operatorname{dim} X=3$. See that

$$
I_{Y}=(x, z) \subseteq k[X]_{(x, y, z, w)}=\frac{k[x, y, z, w]_{(x, y, z, w)}}{x y-z w}
$$

cannot be generated by 1 polynomial. Note: $k[X]_{(x, y, z, w)}$ is not a UFD.

[^3]
## 15. Rational maps

15.1. Provisional definition. Fix a variety $V$. A rational map $V-\underline{-}^{\varphi} \mathbb{A}^{n}$ is given by rational functions coordinate-wise:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^{n} \\
& x \longmapsto\left(\varphi_{1}(x), \ldots, \varphi_{n}(x)\right) \quad \text { where } \varphi_{i} \in k(V) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note 15.1. Each $\varphi_{i}$ is regular on some open (dense) subset $U_{i}$. So

is a regular map on $U=U_{1} \cap \cdots \cap U_{n}$.
For

$$
\begin{aligned}
V & -\underline{\varphi} \\
x & \mathbb{P}^{n} \\
& {\left[\varphi_{0}(x): \cdots: \varphi_{n}(x)\right] }
\end{aligned}
$$

take $\varphi_{i} \in k(V)$ and say $\varphi_{i}$ has domain of definition $U_{i}$. This is regular on the dense open subset of V

$$
\underbrace{U_{0} \cap \cdots \cap U_{n}}_{U} \cap\left[(V \cap U) \backslash \mathbb{V}\left(\left.\varphi_{0}\right|_{U}, \ldots,\left.\varphi_{n}\right|_{U}\right)\right]
$$

Example 15.2.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{A}^{2} \xrightarrow{\varphi} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1} \\
& (x, y) \longmapsto[x: y]=\left[\frac{x}{y}: 1\right]=\left[1: \frac{y}{x}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Defined on $\mathbb{A}^{2} \backslash\{(0,0)\}$.
We can represent $\varphi$ by $\varphi_{U_{x}}: U_{x}=\mathbb{A}^{2} \backslash \mathbb{V}(x) \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$, and also by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi_{\mathbb{A}^{2} \backslash\{(0,0)\}}: \mathbb{A}^{2} \backslash\{(0,0)\} & \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1} \\
(x, y) & \longmapsto[x: y] .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 15.2. Definition of rational map.

Definition 15.3. A rational map $X^{-}-\rightarrow Y$ between varieties is an equivalence class of regular maps $\left\{U \xrightarrow{\varphi_{U}} Y\right\}$ (with $U \subseteq X$ dense open subset), where

$$
\left[U \xrightarrow{\varphi_{U}} Y\right] \sim\left[U^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\varphi_{U^{\prime}}} Y\right]
$$

means $\varphi_{U}$ and $\varphi_{U^{\prime}}$ agree on $U \cap U^{\prime}$ (or equivalently,

$$
\left.\varphi_{U}\right|_{\widetilde{U}}=\left.\varphi_{U^{\prime}}\right|_{\widetilde{U}}
$$

for any dense open subset of $\left.U \cap U^{\prime}\right)$.
Note 15.4. If two regular maps agree on some dense open set, then they agree everywhere they are both defined.

Proof sketch. Since regular maps are locally given by regular functions in coordinates, it suffices to check that if $\varphi, \varphi^{\prime}$ are regular functions $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} k, X \xrightarrow{\varphi^{\prime}} k$ and $\left.\varphi\right|_{\widetilde{U}}=\left.\varphi^{\prime}\right|_{\widetilde{U}}$, where $\widetilde{U} \subseteq X$ is an open dense set, then

$$
\left(\varphi-\varphi^{\prime}\right): X \longrightarrow k
$$

is regular. Its zero set contains $\widetilde{U}$ and is closed, hence the zero set contains $\overline{\widetilde{U}}=$ closure of $\widetilde{U}$ in $X$, so $\varphi-\varphi^{\prime}$ is zero on $X$. Thus, $\varphi=\varphi^{\prime}$ everywhere on $X$.

In practice: A rational map is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
X & \stackrel{\varphi}{ } \rightarrow Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{m} \\
x & \longmapsto\left[\varphi_{0}(x): \cdots: \varphi_{m}(x)\right],
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\varphi_{i} \in k(X)$.
Definition 15.5. A rational map $\varphi: X \rightarrow-->Y$ is regular at $p \in X$ if $\varphi$ admits a representative $U \xrightarrow{\varphi_{U}} Y$ such that $p \in U$.

The domain of definition of $\varphi$ is the open subset of $X$ where $\varphi$ is regular. The locus of indeterminacy is the complement of the domain of definition.

### 15.3. Examples of rational maps.

(1) A rational map $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}_{k}^{1}$ is the same as $\varphi \in k(X)$.
(2) Every regular map $X \longrightarrow Y$ is a rational map. (The domain of definition is $X$, and the locus of indeterminacy is $\varnothing$.)

For example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}^{1} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{3} \\
{[s: t] \longmapsto\left[s^{3}: s^{2} t: s t^{2}: t^{3}\right]=\left[1: \frac{t}{s}:\left(\frac{t}{s}\right)^{2}:\left(\frac{t}{s}\right)^{3}\right] . }
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $k\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}\right)=k\left(\frac{t}{s}\right)$.
(3) The map used in the blowup (to be studied in more detail later):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{A}^{2} \cdots \mathbb{P}^{1} \\
& (x, y) \longmapsto\{\text { the line through }(x, y) \text { and }(0,0)\}=[x: y]
\end{aligned}
$$

The locus of indeterminacy is $\{(0,0)\}$.

### 15.4. Rational maps, composition, and categories.

Caution 15.6. A rational map is not a map!
In particular, we cannot always compose rational maps.
Example 15.7. Here's an example that shows why we can't compose rational maps:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}^{1} \xrightarrow{\varphi} & \mathbb{P}^{3}-\underline{\psi}_{-} \mathbb{P}^{3} \\
{[s: t] \longmapsto } & {\left[s^{3}: s^{2} t: s t^{2}: t^{3}\right] } \\
& {[w: x: y: z] \longmapsto\left[w z-x y: x^{2}-w y: y^{2}-x z\right] }
\end{aligned}
$$

Caution 15.8. " $\psi \circ \varphi$ " $=[0: 0: 0: 0]$, which is nonsense.
Note 15.9. There is no category of varieties over $k$ with rational maps as morphisms.
However, there is a category whose objects are algebraic varieties over $k$ and whose morphisms are dominant rational maps.

Isomorphism in this category is birational equivalence.

### 15.5. Types of equivalence.

Note 15.10. Birational equivalence is much weaker than isomorphism of varieties. For instance:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{A}^{2}-\varphi_{-} & \mathbb{P}^{2} \underline{\varphi}_{--}^{-1} \mathbb{A}^{2} \\
(x, y) \longmapsto & {[x: y: 1] } \\
& {[x: y: z] \longmapsto\left(\frac{x}{z}, \frac{y}{z}\right) }
\end{aligned}
$$

so $\mathbb{A}^{2}$ and $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ are birationally equivalent. Also,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}^{2} & -\mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1} \\
{[x: y: z] } & \longmapsto([x: z],[y: z]) \\
U_{z} & \simeq U_{1} \times U_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

so $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ and $\mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1}$ are birationally equivalent.
In order of increasing strength and difficulty:

- Classify varieties up to birational equivalence
- Classify varieties up to isomorphism
- Classify varieties up to projective equivalence

It turns out that birational equivalence and isomorphism are the same for smooth projective curves, for which we have a complete classification.

### 15.6. Dimension of indeterminacy.

Theorem 15.11. If $X$ is smooth and $X-\varphi^{\varphi} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is a rational map, then the locus of indeterminacy has codimension $\geq 2$ in $X$.

Example 15.12.

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\mathbb{P}^{2}-\varphi_{-} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{3} \\
{[x: y: z] \longmapsto([x: z],[y: z])}
\end{array}
$$

The locus of indeterminacy $W \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}$ is either empty or dimension 0 (i.e., finite).
In fact, $W=\{[0: 1: 0],[1: 0: 0]\}$.
Corollary 15.13. If $X$ is a smooth curve and $X^{-}{ }_{-} \mathbb{P}^{m}$ is a rational map, then $\varphi$ is regular everywhere.

Corollary 15.14. If two smooth projective curves are birationally equivalent, then they are isomorphic.

Proof. Say $X \sim Y$ are birationally equivalent. Then the rational map $X^{-\varphi}{ }^{\varphi} Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{m}$ is a regular map $X \longrightarrow Y$. Reversing roles of $X$ and $Y, Y_{-->}^{\varphi_{-}^{-1}} X \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is also regular. So

thus $X \cong Y$.

### 15.7. Dimension of indeterminacy, continued.

Example 15.15. Let $X=\mathbb{V}\left(x_{0}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}(\operatorname{char} \neq 2)$.
Pick any $p \in X$, project from it. Then we have

and $X \xrightarrow{-\pi_{p}} \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ is a rational map.
Case 1: $\operatorname{dim} X=1(n=2): X^{-{ }_{-}^{\pi_{p}}} \mathbb{P}^{1}$ must be regular everywhere by Theorem 15.11. So we have a map

$$
\mathbb{P}^{2} \supseteq \mathbb{V}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right)=X \xrightarrow{\pi_{p}} \mathbb{P}^{1}
$$

which is regular everywhere, and fact is an isomorphism.
Case 2: $\operatorname{dim} X \geq 2$ : The rational map is not regular everywhere. For $\operatorname{dim} X=2$, we have


The locus of indeterminacy is $\{p\}$. Codimension is $n-1=\operatorname{dim} X$.
Now we prove:
Theorem 15.11. If $X$ is smooth, then the locus of indeterminacy of a rational map $X \rightarrow{ }_{-}^{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^{n}$ has codimension $\geq 2$.

Proof. Let $X$ be smooth, $X_{-}{ }_{-}>\mathbb{P}^{n}$ a rational map, $W=$ locus of indeterminacy $\subseteq X$.
Then $W$ is (locally at $p$ ) a hypersurface. For all sufficiently small affine open neighborhoods $U$ of $p, U \cap W=\mathbb{V}(g) \subseteq U$, where $g \in \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n} \\
& x \longmapsto\left[\varphi_{0}(x): \cdots: \varphi_{n}(x)\right],
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\varphi_{i} \in k(X)=$ fraction field of $k[U]$. Without loss of generality, $\varphi_{i} \in k[U]$.
Because $p \in W=$ locus of indeterminacy, we know $p \in \mathbb{V}\left(\varphi_{0}, \ldots, \varphi_{n}\right) \subseteq U$. Then

$$
p \in W \cap U \subseteq \mathbb{V}\left(\varphi_{0}, \ldots, \varphi_{n}\right) \subseteq U \text { affine }
$$

By the Nullstellensatz,

$$
(g)=\mathscr{I}_{W}(U) \supseteq\left(\varphi_{0}, \ldots, \varphi_{n}\right),
$$

so $g$ divides each $\varphi_{i}$ (in $k[U]$ ).
Note: $\mathcal{O}_{p, X}$ is a UFD, so we can factor $\varphi_{0}, \ldots, \varphi_{n}$ into irreducibles and cancel out any common factors. Thus, without loss of generality, the $\varphi_{i}$ do not have a common factor!

### 15.8. Images and graphs of rational maps.

Definition 15.16. The image of a rational map $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$ is the closure in $Y$ of the image of any representing regular map $U \xrightarrow{\varphi_{U}} Y$.

Check: This does not depend on the choice of $\varphi_{U}$. Indeed,

$$
\overline{\varphi_{U}\left(U \cap U^{\prime}\right)} \subseteq \overline{\varphi_{U}(U)}=\overline{\varphi_{U^{\prime}}\left(U^{\prime}\right)}
$$

Recall: The graph of a regular map $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$ is the set

$$
\Gamma_{\varphi}=\{(x, \varphi(x))\} \subseteq X \times Y
$$

This is a closed set isomorphic to $X$. (Check: vertical line test.)
Definition 15.17. The graph $\Gamma_{\varphi}$ of a rational map $X \xrightarrow{\varphi}-{ }_{-} Y$ is the closure in $X \times Y$ of the graph of any representing regular map $U \xrightarrow{\varphi_{U}} Y$.

Check: This is independent of representative.
Note $15.18 . \Gamma_{\varphi}$ is birationally equivalent to $X$.
Example 15.19.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{A}^{2}-\varphi & \mathbb{P}^{1} \\
(x, y) & \longmapsto \text { line through }(x, y) \text { and }(0,0)\}=[x: y] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Consider on $\mathbb{A}^{2}-\mathbb{V}(x)=U_{x} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
U_{x}=\mathbb{A}^{2}-(y \text {-axis }) & \longrightarrow U_{0}=\mathbb{A}^{1} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1} \\
(x, y) & \longmapsto \frac{y}{x} \longrightarrow\left[1: \frac{y}{x}\right]=[x: y],
\end{aligned}
$$

noting that $\frac{y}{x}$ is the slope of the line through $(0,0)$ and $(x, y)$.

## 16. Blowing up

16.1. Blowing up a point in $\mathbb{A}^{n}$. Choose coordinates so the point is $\mathbf{0}$. Let

$$
B=\{(p, \ell) \mid p \in \ell\} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{n-1}
$$

In coordinates,

$$
\begin{aligned}
B & =\left\{\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) ;\left[y_{1}: \cdots: y_{n}\right]\right) \left\lvert\, \operatorname{rank}\left[\begin{array}{lll}
x_{1} & \ldots & x_{n} \\
y_{1} & \ldots & y_{n}
\end{array}\right] \leq 1\right.\right\} \\
& =\mathbb{V}\left(2 \times 2 \text { minors of }\left[\begin{array}{lll}
x_{1} & \ldots & x_{n} \\
y_{1} & \ldots & y_{n}
\end{array}\right]\right) \\
& =\mathbb{V}\left(\left\{x_{i} y_{j}-x_{j} y_{i} \mid i \leq 1, j \leq n\right\}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 16.1. The blowup of $\mathbb{A}^{n}$ at $\mathbf{0}$ is the variety

$$
B=\{(p, \ell) \mid p \in \ell\} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{n-1}
$$

together with the projection $B \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{A}^{n}$.
Note 16.2. (1) $\pi$ is surjective, and one-to-one over $\mathbb{A}^{n} \backslash\{0\}$.
Also, $\pi$ is birational (i.e., a birational equivalence) with rational inverse

$$
\begin{array}{rl}
\mathbb{A}^{n} \pi_{-->}^{-1} B & B \mathbb{A}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \\
\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) & \longmapsto\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) ;\left[x_{1}: \cdots: x_{n}\right]\right) .
\end{array}
$$

(2) $B$ is the graph of the rational map

$$
\begin{gathered}
\varphi: \mathbb{A}^{n}-->\mathbb{P}^{n-1} \\
\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \longmapsto\left[x_{1}: \cdots: x_{n}\right],
\end{gathered}
$$

and $B \xrightarrow{\pi} A$ is projection to the "source".
Intuition again: $B$ is "like $\mathbb{A}^{n}$ " except at $\mathbf{0}$; we've removed $\mathbf{0}$ from $\mathbb{A}^{n}$ and replaced it by the set of all directions approaching the origin.

Proposition 16.3. $B$ is a smooth (irreducible) variety of the dimension $n$.
Proof. We have $B \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \supseteq\left(\mathbb{A}^{n} \times U_{i}\right)$, where $U_{i}=\mathbb{A}^{n-1}$ is a standard affine chart. It suffices to check that each $B \cap\left(\mathbb{A}^{n} \times U_{i}\right)$ is smooth.

For simplicity, we do the case $i=n$.
Claim 16.4. $B \cap\left(\mathbb{A}^{n} \times \mathbb{A}^{n-1}\right) \xrightarrow{\simeq} \mathbb{A}^{n}$.
Observe that

$$
\begin{aligned}
B \cap\left(\mathbb{A}^{n} \times \mathbb{A}^{n-1}\right) & =\left\{\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) ;\left[y_{1}: \cdots: y_{n}\right] \mid y_{n} \neq 0, x_{i} y_{j}=x_{j} y_{i}\right\} \\
& =\left\{\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) ; \left.\left[\frac{y_{1}}{y_{n}}: \cdots: \frac{y_{n-1}}{y_{n}}: 1\right] \right\rvert\, x_{j}=x_{n}\left(\frac{y_{j}}{y_{n}}\right)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

We have an isomorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
B \cap U & \stackrel{\varphi}{\longleftrightarrow} \mathbb{A}^{n} \\
\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) ;\left[\frac{y_{1}}{y_{n}}: \cdots: \frac{y_{n-1}}{y_{n}}: 1\right]\right) & \longmapsto\left(\frac{y_{1}}{y_{n}}, \ldots, \frac{y_{n-1}}{y_{n}}, x_{n}\right) \\
B \cap U & \stackrel{\varphi^{-1}}{\mathbb{A}^{n}} \\
\left(\left(t_{n} t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n} t_{n-1}, t_{n}\right) ;\left[t_{1}: \cdots: t_{n-1}: 1\right]\right) & \longleftrightarrow\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n-1}, t_{n}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 16.2. Resolution of singularities.

Theorem 16.5 (Hironaka, 1964). If $k$ has characteristic 0 , then every affine variety $V$ admits a resolution of singularities, i.e., $\exists$ smooth variety $\widetilde{V} \stackrel{\text { closed }}{\subseteq} \mathbb{A}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{m}$ such that the projection onto the first factor $\mathbb{A}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^{n}$ is a birational map $\pi: \widetilde{V} \rightarrow V$ when restricted to $\widetilde{V}$.

Furthermore, $\pi$ is an isomorphism over $V \backslash \operatorname{Sing}(V)$. The fibers are all projective (over $\mathbb{C}$, all compact), i.e., $\pi$ is a proper map ${ }^{5}$
16.3. More about blowups. Recall: The blowup of $(0,0)$ in $\mathbb{A}^{2}$ is the graph of the rational map

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{A}^{2}-\underline{\varphi}>\mathbb{P}^{1}=\text { lines through }(0,0) \text { in } \mathbb{A}^{2} \\
& (x, y) \longmapsto[x: y]
\end{aligned}
$$

together with the projection onto the source

$$
\{(p, \ell) \mid p \in \ell\}=B=\Gamma_{\varphi} \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{A}^{2} .
$$

Note 16.6. (1) The map $\pi$ is a projection, birational. In fact, $\pi$ is an isomorphism over the domain of definition of $\varphi$.

[^4](2) The fiber over the locus of indeterminacy $\{(0,0)\}$ is
$$
\{(0,0)\} \times \mathbb{P}^{1} \stackrel{\text { closed }}{\subseteq} B \stackrel{\text { closed }}{\subseteq} \mathbb{A}^{2} \times \mathbb{P}^{1}
$$
is a smooth, codimension 1 subset of $B$.
What happens if we graph a different rational map?
\[

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbb{A}^{3}-\psi_{-} \\
(x, y, z) \longmapsto\left[\mathbb{P}^{1}\right.
\end{gathered}
$$
\]

This is an isomorphism on $\mathbb{A}^{3} \backslash L$, and is birational on $\mathbb{A}^{3}$.
The fiber over the locus of indeterminacy $L$ is $L \times \mathbb{P}^{1} \subseteq \Gamma_{\varphi}$, which is a codimension 1 subvariety of $\Gamma_{\varphi}$.

This is called the blowup of $\mathbb{A}^{3}$ at the line $L$ (or the blowup along the ideal $(x, y)$ ).

### 16.4. Blowing up in general.

Definition 16.7. Let $V$ be an affine variety, and let $f_{0}, \ldots, f_{r}$ be nonzero regular functions on $V$. The blowup of $V$ along the ideal $\left(f_{0}, \ldots, f_{r}\right)$ is the graph of the rational map

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V-\varphi_{-} \mathbb{P}^{r} \\
& x \longmapsto\left[f_{0}(x): \cdots: f_{r}(x)\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

together with the projection

$$
V \times \mathbb{P}^{r} \supseteq \tilde{V}:=\Gamma_{\varphi} \xrightarrow{\pi} V .
$$

Definition 16.8 (projective map). A projective map $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is a composition


Remark 16.9. (1) Since $\varphi$ is rational on $V-\mathbb{V}\left(f_{0}, \ldots, f_{r}\right), \pi: \widetilde{V} \longrightarrow V$ is an isomorphism over $V-\mathbb{V}\left(f_{0}, \ldots, f_{r}\right)$, i.e., is birational.
(2) This depends only on the ideal generated by $\left(f_{0}, \ldots, f_{r}\right)$, not the choice of generators: Say $\left(f_{0}, \ldots, f_{r}\right)=\left(g_{0}, \ldots, g_{m}\right) \subseteq k[V]$. Then

(3) If $\left(f_{0}, \ldots, f_{r}\right)$ is radical, defines a subvariety $W \subseteq V$, then we also say "blowup of $V$ along $W^{\prime \prime}$.

If $W \subseteq V$ is smooth, then the blowup $\widetilde{V}$ "looks like" $V$ with surgery performed: remove $W$, and replace it by all directions normal to $W$ in $V$.
Example 16.10. Blowup of $\left(x^{2}, y^{2}\right)$ in $\mathbb{A}^{2}$ : The graph of

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbb{A}^{2}-\varphi_{-}>\mathbb{P}^{1} \\
(x, y) \longmapsto\left[x^{2}: y^{2}\right]
\end{gathered}
$$

We have

$$
\underset{(x, y)}{\mathbb{A}^{2}} \times \underset{[u: v]}{\mathbb{P}^{1}} \supseteq \mathbb{V}\left(u y^{2}-v x^{2}\right)=\Gamma_{\varphi} \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^{2} .
$$

So blowing up can sometimes make things "worse"!

### 16.5. Hironaka's theorem.

Theorem 16.11 (Hironaka's theorem on resolution of singularities). Suppose char $k=0$. For any affine variety $V$, there exist $f_{0}, \ldots, f_{r} \in k[V]$ such that the graph of the rational map

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V \xrightarrow{V} \varphi^{\mapsto} \mathbb{P}^{r} \\
& x \longmapsto\left[f_{0}(x): \cdots: f_{r}(x)\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

is smooth. The map $\tilde{V}=\Gamma_{\varphi} \xrightarrow{\pi} V$ is projective, birational, and an isomorphism over $V \backslash \operatorname{Sing} V$. Furthermore, $\pi^{-1}(\operatorname{Sing} V)$ is a smooth, codimension 1 subvariety of $\tilde{V}$.

## 17. Divisors

17.1. Main definitions. Fix an irreducible variety $X$.

Definition 17.1. A prime divisor on $X$ is a codimension 1 irreducible (closed) subvariety of $X$.
A divisor $D$ on $X$ is a formal $\mathbb{Z}$-linear combination of prime divisors

$$
D=\sum_{i=1}^{t} k_{i} D_{i}, \quad k_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

Example 17.2. In $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, here are some prime divisors:

$$
C=\mathbb{V}\left(x y-z^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}, \quad \quad L_{1}=\mathbb{V}(x), \quad L_{2}=\mathbb{V}(y)
$$

Here are some divisors which are not prime: $2 C, 2 L_{1}-L_{2}$.
Definition 17.3. We say a divisor $D=\sum_{i=1}^{t} k_{i} D_{i}$ is effective if each $k_{i} \geq 0$.
The support of $D$ is the list of prime divisors occurring in $D$ with non-zero coefficient.
The set of all divisors on $X$ form a $\operatorname{group} \operatorname{Div}(X)$, the free abelian group on the set of prime divisors of $X$.

The zero element is the trivial divisor $D=\sum 0 D_{i}$, and

$$
\operatorname{Supp}(0)=\varnothing .
$$

Example 17.4. Consider

$$
\varphi=\frac{f}{g}=\frac{\left(t-\lambda_{1}\right)^{a_{1}} \cdots\left(t-\lambda_{n}\right)^{a_{n}}}{\left(t-\mu_{1}\right)^{b_{1}} \cdots\left(t-\mu_{m}\right)^{b_{m}}} \in k\left(\mathbb{A}^{1}\right)=k(t),
$$

where $f, g \in k[t]$ (assume lowest terms).
The "divisor of zeros and poles" of $\varphi$ is

$$
\underbrace{a_{1}\left\{\lambda_{1}\right\}+a_{2}\left\{\lambda_{2}\right\}+\cdots+a_{n}\left\{\lambda_{n}\right\}}_{\text {(divisor of zeros) }}-\underbrace{b_{1}\left\{\mu_{1}\right\}-\cdots-b_{1}\left\{\mu_{m}\right\}}_{\text {(divisor of poles) }} .
$$

Example 17.5. Let $\mathbb{A}^{n}=X$. A prime divisor is $D=\mathbb{V}(h)$, where $h \in k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ is irreducible. Write

$$
\varphi=\frac{f}{g}=\frac{f_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots f_{n}^{a_{n}}}{g_{1}^{b_{1}} \cdots g_{m}^{b_{m}}} \in k\left(\mathbb{A}^{n}\right)=k\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right),
$$

where $f, g \in k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ and $f_{i}, g_{i}$ irreducible, $a_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$.
Denoting the divisor of zeros and poles of $\varphi$ by $\operatorname{div}(\varphi)$, we have

$$
\operatorname{div}(\varphi)=a_{1} \mathbb{V}\left(f_{1}\right)+a_{2} \mathbb{V}\left(f_{2}\right)+\cdots+a_{n} \mathbb{V}\left(f_{n}\right)-b_{1} \mathbb{V}\left(g_{1}\right)-\cdots-b_{m} \mathbb{V}\left(g_{m}\right)
$$

Note 17.6. Every divisor on $\mathbb{A}^{n}$ has the above form.
17.2. The divisor of zeros and poles. In general, on almost any $X$, we will associate to each $\varphi \in k(X) \backslash\{0\}$ some divisor, $\operatorname{div}(\varphi)$, "the divisor of zeros and poles", in such a way that the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
k(X)^{*}=k(x) \backslash\{0\} & \longrightarrow \operatorname{Div}(X) \\
\varphi & \longmapsto \operatorname{div} \varphi=\sum_{\substack{D \subseteq X \\
\text { prime }}} \nu_{D}(\varphi) \cdot D
\end{aligned}
$$

preserves the group structure on $k(X)^{*}$, i.e.,

$$
\left(\varphi_{1} \circ \varphi_{2}\right) \longmapsto \operatorname{div} \varphi_{1}+\operatorname{div} \varphi_{2}
$$

The image of this map will be the group of principal divisors:

$$
P(X) \subseteq \operatorname{Div}(X)
$$

The quotient $\operatorname{Div}(X) / P(X)$ is the divisor class group of $X$.
Remark 17.7. If $X$ is smooth, then the divisor class group is isomorphic to the Picard group.
Remark 17.8. The kernel of $k(X)^{*} \xrightarrow{\text { div }} \operatorname{Div}(X)$ consists of $\varphi \in k(X)$ such that $\varphi, \varphi^{-1}$ are both regular on $X$.
Remark 17.9. We will write

$$
\operatorname{div} \varphi=\sum_{\substack{D \subseteq X \\ \text { prime }}} \nu_{D}(\varphi) \cdot D
$$

where $\nu_{D}(\varphi)=\operatorname{ord}_{D}(\varphi)=$ "order of vanishing of $\varphi$ along $D$ ".
Example 17.10.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi & =\frac{x}{y} \in k(x, y)=k\left(\mathbb{A}^{2}\right) \\
\operatorname{div}(\varphi) & =\sum_{\substack{D \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2} \\
\text { prime }}} \nu_{D}\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) D
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\nu_{D}\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)$ is 0 for all divisors $D$ except for $L_{1}=\mathbb{V}(x)$, where the order of vanishing is 1 , and $L_{2}=\mathbb{V}(y)$, where $\nu_{L_{2}}(\varphi)=-1$.

To define $\operatorname{div}(\varphi)$ for $\varphi \in k(X)^{*}$, we need to define $\nu_{D}(\varphi)$ for every every divisor $D$. We will do this under the following assumption: $X$ is non-singular in codimension $1 . \sqrt{6}$ In this case, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
X & \supseteq X_{\mathrm{sm}}=X-\operatorname{Sing} X \\
\operatorname{Div}(X) & \stackrel{\simeq}{\longrightarrow} \operatorname{Div}\left(X_{\mathrm{sm}}\right) \\
\sum_{i} a_{i} D_{i} & \longmapsto \sum_{i} a_{i}\left(D_{i} \cap X_{\mathrm{sm}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

To get an idea of how this will work, assume $X$ is smooth and affine, and let $\varphi \in k[X]$. Any prime divisor $D \subseteq X$ is locally principal, i.e., locally $D=\mathbb{V}(\pi)$.
" $D$ is a zero of $\varphi$ " means that $D \subseteq \mathbb{V}(\varphi)$, meaning $(\pi) \ni \varphi$. Look at the largest $k$ such that $\varphi \in\left(\pi^{k}\right)$, i.e., $\varphi \in\left(\pi^{k}\right) \backslash\left(\pi^{k+1}\right)$. This is $\nu_{D}(\varphi)=k$.
17.3. Order of vanishing. Goal: Define "order of vanishing" of $\varphi \in k(X) \backslash\{0\}$ along a prime divisor $D$, denoted $\nu_{D}(\varphi) \in \mathbb{Z}$.

This is done only under the assumption that $X$ is non-singular in codimension 1 (i.e., $\operatorname{Sing} X$ has codimension $\geq 2$ ).

[^5]Case 1. Say $X$ is affine, $\varphi \in k[X], D=\mathbb{V}(\pi)$ is a hypersurface defined by $\pi \in k[X]$.
We say " $\varphi$ vanishes along $D$ " provided that $D=\mathbb{V}(\pi) \subseteq \mathbb{V}(\varphi)$. So by the Nullstellensatz, $(\varphi) \subseteq(\pi)$. It could be that $\varphi \in\left(\pi^{2}\right)$ or $\left(\pi^{3}\right)$ or some higher power.

Definition 17.11. The order of vanishing of $\varphi$ along $D$, denoted $\nu_{D}(\varphi)$, is the unique integer $k \geq 0$ such that $\varphi \in\left(\pi^{k}\right) \backslash\left(\pi^{k+1}\right)$.

Note 17.12. $\nu_{D}(\varphi)=0 \Longrightarrow \varphi \in\left(\pi^{0}\right) \backslash\left(\pi^{1}\right)=k[X] \backslash(\pi)$, i.e., $\varphi$ does not vanish on all of $D$.
Can it be that $\varphi \in\left(\pi^{k}\right) \forall k$ ? If so, then $\varphi \in \bigcap_{k \geq 0}\left(\pi^{k}\right)$, which remains true after localizing at any prime ideal of $k[X]$ containing $\pi$ (e.g., $(\pi)$ itself).
Lemma 17.13. If $(R, \mathfrak{m})$ is a Noetherian local ring, then

$$
\bigcap_{t \geq 0} \mathfrak{m}^{t}=0
$$

Thus, if $\varphi \in \bigcap_{k \geq 0}\left(\pi^{k}\right)$, then $\varphi=0$.
Note 17.14. $\nu_{D}$ has the following properties:
(1) $\nu_{D}(\varphi \cdot \psi)=\nu_{D}(\varphi)+\nu_{D}(\psi)$.
(2) If $\varphi+\psi \neq 0$, then $\nu_{D}(\varphi+\psi) \geq \min \left\{\nu_{D}(\varphi), \nu_{D}(\psi)\right\}$.

Case 1b. If $\varphi$ is rational and $\varphi=\frac{f}{g}$, where $f, g \in k[X]$, define

$$
\nu_{D}(\varphi)=\nu_{D}(f)-\nu_{D}(g) .
$$

Case 2. General case: $\varphi \in k(X) \backslash\{0\}, D \subseteq X$ arbitrary prime divisor.
Choose $U \subseteq X$ open affine such that
(a) $U$ is smooth;
(b) $U \cap D \neq \varnothing$;
(c) $D$ is a hypersurface: $D=\mathbb{V}(\pi)$ for some $\pi \in k[U]=\mathcal{O}_{X}(U),{ }^{7}$

We have $\varphi \in k(X)=k(U)$. Define $\nu_{D}^{U}(\varphi)$ as in case 1 .
Claim 17.15. This doesn't depend on the choice of $U$.
Proof. Say $U_{1}, U_{2}$ both satisfy conditions (a), (b), (c). To check $\nu_{D}^{U_{1}}(\varphi)=\nu_{D}^{U_{2}}(\varphi)$, it suffices to check $\nu_{D}^{U_{1}}(\varphi)=\nu_{D}^{U}(\varphi)$ for any $U \subseteq U_{1} \cap U_{2}$ satisfying (a), (b), (c).

Fix $U_{1} \supseteq U_{2}$. We have $\varphi \in\left(\pi^{k}\right) \backslash\left(\pi^{k+1}\right)$ in $k\left[U_{1}\right]=\mathcal{O}_{X}\left(U_{1}\right)$, and after restricting to $k\left[U_{2}\right]=$ $\mathcal{O}_{X}\left(U_{2}\right)$, the condition $\varphi \in\left(\pi^{k}\right) \backslash\left(\pi^{k+1}\right)$ still holds.

So define $\nu_{D}(\varphi)$ to be $\nu_{D}^{U}(\varphi)$ for any $U$.

### 17.4. Alternate definitions of order of vanishing.

17.4.1. Alternate definition 1 . Let $D \subseteq X$ be a prime divisor, $\varphi \in K(X)$. Pick any smooth point $x \in X$ such that $x \in D$. The local ring

$$
\mathcal{O}_{x, X}=\{\varphi \in k(X) \mid \varphi \text { is regular at } x\}
$$

is a UFD. The equation of $D$ in $\mathcal{O}_{x, X}$ is $=(\pi) \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{x, X}$, where $\pi$ is an irreducible element in the UFD.

Writing $\varphi=\frac{f}{g}$ with $f, g \in \mathcal{O}_{x, X}, \varphi$ factors uniquely as

$$
\varphi=\pi^{k} \frac{f_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots f_{r}^{a_{r}}}{g_{1}^{b_{1}} \cdots g_{s}^{b_{s}}}
$$

[^6]with $f_{i}, g_{i}$ irreducible. Then
$$
\nu_{D}(\varphi)=\text { multiplicity of } \pi \text { in the unique factorization in } \mathcal{O}_{x, X} .
$$
17.4.2. Alternate definition 2. Let $D$ be a prime divisor on $X$ (non-singular in codimension 1). Look at the ring
$$
\mathcal{O}_{D, X}=\{\varphi \in k(X) \mid \varphi \text { is regular on some open } U \text { such that } U \cap D \neq \varnothing\}=k[U]_{\mathscr{L}_{D}(U)},
$$
the local ring of $X$ along $D$. We have $U \supseteq D \cap U \neq \varnothing$ and $k[U] \supseteq \mathscr{I}_{D}(U)$.
Choose $U$ satisfying (a), (b), (c). The maximal ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{D, X}$ is $(\pi)$, generated by the single element $\pi$.

Observe that $\mathcal{O}_{D, X}$ is a local domain whose maximal ideal is principal, i.e., a discrete valuation ring.

Definition 17.16. A discrete valuation ring (DVR) is a Noetherian local domain with any of the following equivalent properties:
(1) It is regular of dimension 1 .
(2) The maximal ideal is principal, $(\pi)$.
(3) It is a UFD with one irreducible element, $\pi$.
(4) Every nonzero ideal is ( $\pi^{t}$ ) for some $t \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$.
(5) Normal of dimension 1.

Then we can define $\nu_{D}(\varphi)=t$, where $t$ is obtained as follows: We have

$$
\mathcal{O}_{D, X} \subseteq k(X)
$$

Write $\varphi=\frac{f}{g}$, where $f, g \in \mathcal{O}_{D, X}$. Then

$$
f=(\text { unit }) \cdot \pi^{n}, g=(\text { unit }) \cdot \pi^{m},
$$

and

$$
\nu_{D}(\varphi)=n-m=t .
$$

17.5. Divisors of zeros and poles, continued. Now we get a way to define a "divisor of zeros and poles" associated to every $\varphi \in k(X)$, namely,

$$
\operatorname{div}(\varphi)=\sum_{\substack{D \subseteq X \\ \text { prime }}} \nu_{D}(\varphi) D
$$

To see that this is a finite sum: when $X$ is affine, write $\varphi=\frac{f}{g}$, and observe that $\operatorname{div} \varphi$ has support contained in

$$
\mathbb{V}(f) \cup \mathbb{V}(g)=\left(D_{1} \cup \cdots \cup D_{r}\right) \cup\left(D_{1}^{\prime} \cup \cdots \cup D_{s}^{\prime}\right)
$$

so finiteness of the sum follows from quasi-compactness of the Zariski topology.
17.6. Divisor class group, continued. Recall: For a variety $X$ which is non-singular in codimension 1, we defined the "order of vanishing $\nu_{D}(\varphi)$ of $\varphi \in k(X)^{*}$ along a prime divisor $D$ "; $\nu_{D}$ is the valuation of $k(X)$ associated with the DVR $\mathcal{O}_{D, X}$.

This gives a group homomorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
&(k(X))^{*} \xrightarrow{\text { div }} \operatorname{Div}(X) \\
& \varphi \longmapsto \operatorname{div}(\varphi)=\sum_{\substack{D \subseteq X \\
\text { prime }}} \nu_{D}(\varphi) \cdot D .
\end{aligned}
$$

We defined the subgroup $P(X)$ of principal divisors to be the image of div : $k(X)^{*} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Div}(X)$.

The cokernel of div : $k(X)^{*} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Div}(X)$ is the divisor class group of $X$,

$$
\mathrm{Cl}(X)=\frac{\operatorname{Div}(X)}{P(X)} .
$$

Example 17.17. $\mathrm{Cl}\left(\mathbb{A}^{n}\right)=0$.
Proposition 17.18. $\mathrm{Cl}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, generated by the class of a hyperplane $H=\mathbb{V}\left(a_{0} x_{0}+\cdots+a_{n} x_{n}\right)$.
Definition 17.19. If $D_{i}=\mathbb{V}\left(G_{i}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is a prime divisor, where $G_{i}$ is an irreducible homogeneous polynomial in $k\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$, we define the degree of $D_{i}$ to be the degree of $G_{i}$.
Proof of Proposition 17.18. We have a surjective homomorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Div}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{deg}} \mathbb{Z} \\
D= & \sum_{i=1}^{t} k_{i} D_{i} \longmapsto \sum \sum k_{i} \operatorname{deg} D_{i}=\sum k_{i} \operatorname{deg} G_{i} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Say $D=\sum_{i=1}^{t} k_{i} \mathbb{V}\left(G_{i}\right) \in \operatorname{Div}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$ is in the kernel of $\operatorname{deg}: \operatorname{Div}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right) \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{t} k_{i} \mathbb{V}\left(G_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{r} a_{i} \mathbb{V}\left(F_{i}\right)-\sum_{i=1}^{s} b_{i} \mathbb{V}\left(H_{i}\right) \stackrel{\text { deg }}{\longmapsto} 0
$$

This is the divisor of zeros and poles of

$$
\varphi=\frac{F_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots F_{r}^{a_{r}}}{H_{1}^{b_{1}} \cdots H_{s}^{b_{s}}}=\prod_{i=1}^{t} G_{i}^{k_{i}} \in k\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)
$$

Therefore,

$$
\operatorname{Cl}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)=\frac{\operatorname{Div}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)}{P\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)} \cong \mathbb{Z}
$$

by the first isomorphism theorem.
Caution 17.20. There is no inherent notion of degree of a divisor on arbitrary $X$ (though okay for $\mathbb{P}^{n}, \mathbb{A}^{n}$, curves).

### 17.7. Divisors and regularity.

Theorem 17.21. If $X$ is smooth (or even just normal), then $\varphi \in k(X)^{*}$ is regular on $X$ if and only if $\operatorname{div} \varphi$ is effective (denoted $\operatorname{div} \varphi \geq 0$ ).
Remark 17.22. $\varphi$ regular $\Longrightarrow \operatorname{div} \varphi \geq 0$ is clear.
17.8. Commutative algebra digression. Let $R$ be any domain, and let $K$ be the fraction field.

Definition 17.23. The normalization of $R$ is the integral closure of $R$ in $K$. (This is a subring of K.)

We say $R$ is normal if $R$ is equal to its normalization $\widetilde{R}$.
We have the inclusion

$$
R \hookrightarrow \widetilde{R} \subseteq K
$$

into the integral closure.
Example 17.24. Consider the ring

$$
R=\frac{k[x, y]}{y^{2}-x^{3}} .
$$

We have

$$
\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^{2}-x=0
$$

so $\frac{y}{x}$ is integral over $R$ in the fraction field $\operatorname{Frac}(R)$. Can check that

$$
R \hookrightarrow \widetilde{R}=\frac{k[x, y, z]}{\left(y^{2}-x^{3}, x z-y\right)} \cong k\left[\frac{y}{x}\right]=k[t] \subseteq \operatorname{Frac}(R) .
$$

Note that normalizing gets rid of the singularity. The above inclusion induces a finite birational map of varieties.
Fact 17.25 . Normality is a local property: $R$ is normal $\Longleftrightarrow R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is normal $\forall \mathfrak{m} \in \mathrm{mSpec} R \Longleftrightarrow R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is normal $\forall \mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$.

This lets us make the following definition:
Definition 17.26. Let $X$ be a variety. We say $X$ is normal if any of the following equivalent conditions hold:
(1) For all points $x \in X$, the local ring $\mathcal{O}_{x, X}$ is normal.
(2) For all subvarieties $W \subseteq X, \mathcal{O}_{W, X}$ is normal.
(3) There exists an open affine cover $\left\{U_{\lambda}\right\}$ such that each $\mathcal{O}_{X}\left(U_{\lambda}\right)=k\left[U_{\lambda}\right]$ is normal.
(4) For every open affine $U \subseteq X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$ is normal.

Fact 17.27. All smooth varieties are normal. If $X$ is dimension 1 , then $X$ is smooth $\Longleftrightarrow X$ is normal.
Fact 17.28. If a ring $R$ is normal and $\mathfrak{p}$ is heigh $t^{8} 1$, then $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a DVR.
Theorem 17.29. Let $R$ be a domain with fraction field $K$. Then

$$
\widetilde{R}=\bigcap_{\substack{\mathfrak{p} \in \mathrm{Spece} R \\ \text { height } 1}} R_{\mathfrak{p}} \subseteq K
$$

Now we can prove the theorem from earlier:
Proof of Theorem 17.21. Say $\varphi \in k(X)$ and $\operatorname{div} \varphi \geq 0$. It suffices to check $\left.\varphi\right|_{U}$, where $U$ is affine open in $X$, is regular.

On $U$, we have $\varphi \in k(U)=k(X)$ with $\operatorname{div}_{U} \varphi \geq 0$. All $\nu_{D}(\varphi) \geq 0$, so $\varphi \in \mathcal{O}_{D, X} \forall D$. Thus

$$
\varphi \in \bigcap_{D \text { prime in } U} \mathcal{O}_{D, X}=\bigcap_{\mathfrak{p h t} .1} R_{\mathfrak{p}}=R=\mathcal{O}_{X}(U) .
$$

17.9. Divisors and regularity, continued. Recall:

Theorem (17.21). Let $\varphi$ be a nonzero rational function on a normal variety $X$. Then $\varphi$ is regular on $X \Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{div} \varphi$ is effective.
E.g., on $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, there are no nonzero principal effective divisors (i.e., $\operatorname{div} \varphi \geq 0 \Longrightarrow \varphi$ is regular on $\left.\mathbb{P}^{n} \Longrightarrow \varphi \in k \backslash\{0\}\right)$.

More generally, for any $U$ open in a normal variety $X$, the following are equivalent for $\varphi \in k(X)^{*}$ :
(1) $\varphi \in k(X)$ is regular on $U$.
(2) $\varphi$ has no poles on $U$.
(3) $\operatorname{div} \varphi$ on $U$ is effective.
(4) $\nu_{D}(\varphi) \geq 0$ for all divisors $D$ with $D \cap U \neq \varnothing$.

Also, the following are equivalent:
(1) $\operatorname{div}_{U} \varphi=0$
(2) $\varphi$ regular in $U, \varphi^{-1}$ regular on $U$.
(3) $\varphi \in \mathcal{O}_{X}^{*}(U)=$ subgroup of invertible elements of the $\operatorname{ring} \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$.

[^7]Example 17.30. Let $X=\mathbb{P}^{2}$ and

$$
\varphi=\frac{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right)^{2}}{x^{3} y} \in k\left(\mathbb{P}^{2}\right) .
$$

Then

$$
\operatorname{Supp}(\operatorname{div} \varphi)=C \cup L_{1} \cup L_{2}=\mathbb{V}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right) \cup \mathbb{V}(x) \cup \mathbb{V}(y),
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{div}_{\mathbb{P}^{2}} \varphi & =2 C-3 L_{1}-L_{2} \\
\operatorname{div}_{U_{z}} \varphi & =2 C-3 L_{1}-L_{2} \\
\operatorname{div}_{U_{x}} \varphi & =2 C-L_{1} \\
\operatorname{div}_{U_{x} \cap U_{y}} \varphi & =2 C .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $2 C$ is effective, Theorem 17.21 implies that $\varphi \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{2}}\left(U_{x} \cap U_{y}\right)$.
Also, denoting $U:=U_{x} \cap U_{y} \cap U_{x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}}$, we have $\operatorname{div}_{U} \varphi=0$, so $\varphi \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{2}}^{*}(U)$.

## 18. LOCALLY PRINCIPAL DIVISORS

18.1. Locally principal divisors. Important idea: If $X$ is smooth, then every divisor on $X$ is locally principal.

Fix $D=\sum_{i=1}^{t} k_{i} D_{i}$ divisor on $X$, with $X$ smooth.
Take any $x \in X$, and choose a neighborhood $U=U_{x}$ of $x$ such that $D_{i}$ is the vanishing set of some irreducible $\pi_{i} \in \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$ (i.e., $\mathscr{I}_{D_{i}}(U)=\left(\pi_{i}\right)$, or equivalently, $D_{i} \cap U=\operatorname{div}_{U} \pi_{i}$ ).

On $U, D$ is principal, and we have

$$
D \cap U=\operatorname{div}_{U}\left(\pi_{1}^{k_{1}} \cdots \pi_{t}^{k_{t}}\right)
$$

Example 18.1. In the setting of our previous example in $\mathbb{P}^{2}, D=2 C-L_{1}$ has degree 3 , so it is not globally principal.

However, $D$ is locally principal. Let

$$
\varphi_{1}=\frac{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right)^{2}}{x^{4}}, \quad \varphi_{2}=\frac{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right)^{2}}{x y^{3}}, \quad \varphi_{3}=\frac{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right)^{2}}{x z^{3}} .
$$

Then

$$
\operatorname{div}_{U_{x}} \varphi_{1}=D \cap U_{x}, \quad \operatorname{div}_{U_{y}} \varphi_{2}=D \cap U_{y}, \quad \operatorname{div}_{U_{z}} \varphi_{3}=D \cap U_{z}
$$

Remark 18.2. On $U_{x} \cap U_{y}, \varphi_{1}$ and $\varphi_{2}$ have the same divisor $C$

$$
\Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{div}_{U_{x} \cap U_{y}} \varphi_{1}=\operatorname{div}_{U_{x} \cap U_{y}} \varphi_{2} \Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{div}_{U_{x} \cap U_{y}}\left(\varphi_{1} / \varphi_{2}\right)=0 \Longleftrightarrow \frac{\varphi_{1}}{\varphi_{2}} \in \mathcal{O}_{X}^{*}\left(U_{x} \cap U_{y}\right) .
$$

Now we give the formal definition.
Definition 18.3. A locally principal (or Cartier) divisor on a variety $X$ is described by the following data:

- $\left\{U_{\lambda}\right\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ open cover of $X$,
- $\varphi_{\lambda} \in k(X)=k\left(U_{\lambda}\right)$ rational function on $X$
such that $\varphi_{\lambda} \cdot \varphi_{\mu}^{-1} \in \mathcal{O}_{X}^{*}\left(U_{\lambda} \cap U_{\mu}\right)$ for all $\lambda, \mu \in \Lambda$.
The corresponding (Wei ${ }^{9}$ ) divisor is the unique $D$ such that on $U_{x}, D \cap U_{\lambda}=\operatorname{div}_{U_{\lambda}} \varphi_{\lambda} \forall \lambda$.
The set of all locally principal divisors on $X$ forms a group $\operatorname{CDiv}(X) \subseteq \operatorname{Div}(X)$.

[^8]Remark 18.4. If $D_{1}=\left\{U_{\lambda}, \varphi_{\lambda}\right\}$ and $D_{2}=\left\{U_{\mu}, \psi_{\mu}\right\}$ are two collections of data describing two Cartier divisors, then their sum $D_{1}+D_{2}$ is given by $\left\{U_{\lambda} \cap U_{\mu}, \varphi_{\lambda} \cdot \psi_{\mu}\right\}$.

Remark 18.5. The main advantage to locally principal divisors is that they can be pulled back under dominant regular morphisms.

Say $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is a dominant regular morphism, so we can identify $k(Y) \subseteq k(X)$ by $f^{*}$. So for $D \in \operatorname{CDiv}(Y)$, define $f^{*} D$ as the Cartier divisor $X$ whose local defining equations are the pullbacks of local defining equations for $D$.

In symbols, if $D=\left\{U_{\lambda}, \varphi_{\lambda}\right\}$, then

$$
f^{*} D=\left\{f^{-1}\left(U_{\lambda}\right), f^{*}\left(\varphi_{\lambda}\right)\right\}=\left\{f^{-1}\left(U_{\lambda}\right), \varphi_{\lambda} \circ f\right\} .
$$

18.2. The Picard group. Let $X$ be a normal variety. Then we have

$$
P(X) \subseteq \operatorname{CDiv}(X) \subseteq \operatorname{CDiv}(X) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \operatorname{Div}(X)
$$

Definition 18.6. The divisor class group of $X$ is $\operatorname{Cl}(X)=\operatorname{Div}(X) / P(X)$.
The Picard group of $X$ is $\operatorname{Pic}(X)=\operatorname{CDiv}(X) / P(X)$.
18.3. Summary of locally principal divisors. Let $D$ be a locally principal divisor on $X$ (normal).

Then $D$ is given by data $\left\{U_{\lambda}, \varphi_{\lambda}\right\}$, where the $U_{\lambda}$ are open sets covering $X$ and $\varphi \in k(X)^{*}$, and $D$ is $\operatorname{div} \varphi_{\lambda}$ on $U_{\lambda}$ :

$$
D \cap U_{\lambda}=\operatorname{div}_{U_{\lambda}} \varphi_{\lambda}
$$

Example 18.7. $D=$ hyperplane $\mathbb{V}\left(x_{0}\right)$ on $X=\mathbb{P}^{3}$. This is not principal.
However, it is locally principal, being given by $\left\{\left(U_{i}, \frac{x_{0}}{x_{i}}\right)\right\}_{i=1}^{4}$.
Note 18.8. (1) The $\varphi_{\lambda}$ are uniquely determined only up to multiplication by some $\varphi$ having no zeros or poles on $U_{\lambda}$, or equivalently, any of the following:

- $\operatorname{div} \varphi=0$
- $\varphi \in \mathcal{O}_{X}^{*}(U)$
- $\varphi$ is a unit in $\mathcal{O}_{X}\left(U_{\lambda}\right)$.
(2) There is a relationship between $\varphi_{\lambda}$ and $\varphi_{\mu}$ given by any of the following:
- $\operatorname{div} \varphi_{\lambda}=\operatorname{div} \varphi_{\mu}$ on $U_{\lambda} \cap U_{\mu}$
- $\operatorname{div} \varphi_{\lambda}-\operatorname{div} \varphi_{\mu}=0$ on $U_{\lambda} \cap U_{\mu}$
- $\operatorname{div}\left(\varphi_{\lambda} / \varphi_{\mu}\right)=0$ on $U_{\lambda} \cap U_{\mu}$.
(Or, if we don't assume $X$ is normal, $\varphi_{i} / \varphi_{j} \in \mathcal{O}_{X}^{*}\left(U_{i} \cap U_{j}\right)$.)


### 18.4. Pulling back locally principal divisors.

18.4.1. Case 1. Let $Y \xrightarrow{f} X$ be a dominant regular map.

Given $D \in \operatorname{CDiv}(X)=$ set of all locally principal divisors on $X$, think of $D$ as given by $\left\{U_{\lambda}, \varphi_{\lambda}\right\}$. Then $f^{*} D$ is given by $\left\{f^{-1}\left(U_{\lambda}\right), f^{*}\left(\varphi_{\lambda}\right)\right\}$. Then we think of $f^{*} D$ as $\operatorname{div}\left(f^{*} \varphi_{\lambda}\right)$ on $f^{-1}\left(U_{\lambda}\right)$.
Note 18.9. Each $f^{*} \varphi_{\lambda}$ is a nonzero rational function on $Y$.
Note 18.10. $\operatorname{Supp}\left(f^{*} D\right)=f^{-1}(\operatorname{Supp} D)$.
Example 18.11. Let $V=\mathbb{V}\left(y-x^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2}$, and consider $V \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^{1},(x, y) \longmapsto y$. Consider the divisor

$$
D=2 p_{1}-3 p_{2}=\operatorname{div}\left(\frac{(t-1)^{2}}{(t-2)^{3}}\right) \in \operatorname{CDiv}\left(\mathbb{A}^{1}\right)
$$

where $p_{1}=1$ and $p_{2}=2$ in $\mathbb{A}^{1}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{*}(D) & =\operatorname{div}_{V} f^{*}\left(\frac{(t-1)^{2}}{(t-2)^{3}}\right)=\operatorname{div}_{V} \frac{f^{*}(t-1)^{2}}{f^{*}(t-2)^{3}}=\operatorname{div}_{V} \frac{(t \circ f-1)^{2}}{(t \circ f-2)^{3}} \\
& =\operatorname{div}_{V} \frac{(y-1)^{2}}{(y-2)^{3}}=\operatorname{div}_{V} \frac{\left(x^{2}-1\right)^{2}}{\left(x^{2}-2\right)^{3}}=2 q_{1}+2 q_{1}^{\prime}-3 q_{2}-3 q_{2}^{\prime},
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
q_{1}=(1,1), & q_{1}^{\prime}=(-1,1) \\
q_{2}=(\sqrt{2}, 2), & q_{2}^{\prime}=(-\sqrt{2}, 2) .
\end{array}
$$

Note 18.12. $Y \xrightarrow{f} X$ is dominant $\Longleftrightarrow$ on affine charts (say $X, Y$ affine),

$$
\begin{aligned}
& k[Y] \longleftarrow k[X] \\
& g \circ f \longleftarrow g
\end{aligned}
$$

is injective.
Think: $Y \xrightarrow{f} X$ yields a map $\left(\mathcal{O}_{X} \xrightarrow{f^{*}} \mathcal{O}_{Y}\right)=f^{*} \mathcal{O}_{Y}$, and the kernel is an ideal sheaf $\mathscr{I}_{f}$.
In the affine case, $Y \xrightarrow{f} X$ induces a map

$$
k[X] \xrightarrow{f^{*}} k[Y]
$$

with kernel $I$, and we have


Example 18.13.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}^{1} & \xrightarrow{\nu} \mathbb{P}^{3} \\
{[s: t] } & \longmapsto\left[s^{3}: s^{2} t: s t^{2}: t^{3}\right] \\
{\left[\frac{s}{t}: 1\right] } & \longmapsto\left[\left(\frac{s}{t}\right)^{3}:\left(\frac{s}{t}\right)^{2}:\left(\frac{s}{t}\right): 1\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $H=\mathbb{V}\left(x_{0}\right)$, corresponding to

$$
\left\{\left(U_{0}, 1\right),\left(U_{i}, \frac{x_{0}}{x_{i}}\right)\right\} .
$$

Can we pull back $H$ under $\nu$ ?
The pullback $\nu^{*} H$ is given by

$$
\left\{\left(\nu^{-1} U_{0}, 1\right),\left(\nu^{*} U_{3}, \nu^{*}\left(\frac{x_{0}}{x_{3}}\right)=\left(\frac{s}{t}\right)^{3}\right)\right\},
$$

so

$$
\nu^{*} H=3 \cdot P,
$$

where $P=[0: 1] \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$.

### 18.4.2. Case 2.

Proposition 18.14. If $Y \xrightarrow{f} X$ is a regular map, and $D \in \operatorname{CDiv}(X)$ such that $f(Y) \nsubseteq \operatorname{Supp} D$, then $f^{*} D$ is defined exactly as before: If $D$ is given by $\left\{U_{\lambda}, \varphi_{\lambda}\right\}$, then $f^{*} D$ is given by

$$
\left\{f^{-1}\left(U_{\lambda}\right), f^{*} \varphi_{\lambda}\right\},
$$

where the $f^{*} \varphi_{\lambda}$ are nonzero rational functions.
Proof. We have $f(Y) \nsubseteq \operatorname{Supp}(D) \Longleftrightarrow Y \nsubseteq f^{-1}(\operatorname{Supp} D)$. Since Supp $D$ consists of the zeros and poles of $\frac{h_{\lambda}}{g_{\lambda}}=\varphi_{\lambda}$ on $U_{\lambda}$, i.e., (zeros of $\left.h_{\lambda}\right) \cup\left(\right.$ zeros of $\left.g_{\lambda}\right)$. Then $f^{-1}(\operatorname{Supp} D)$ is the set of zeros of $\left(h_{\lambda} \circ f\right)$ and $\left(g_{\lambda} \circ f\right)$.
Example 18.15. Let $V=\mathbb{V}\left(y-x^{2}\right) \stackrel{f}{\subseteq} \mathbb{A}^{2}$ and $D=X-Y=\mathbb{V}(x)-\mathbb{V}(y)=\operatorname{div}\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)$ on $\mathbb{A}^{2}$. Then

$$
f^{*} D=\operatorname{div} \frac{f^{*}(x)}{f^{*}(y)}=\operatorname{div} \frac{x}{y}=\operatorname{div} \frac{x}{x^{2}}=\operatorname{div} \frac{1}{x} .
$$

We have $f^{*} D=f^{*} X-f^{*} Y$.

### 18.5. The Picard group functor.

Theorem 18.16. Let $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$ be a regular map of varieties. There is a naturally induced (functorial) group homomorphism $\operatorname{Pic} Y \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} \operatorname{Pic} X$.

In other words, there is a contravariant functor

$$
\begin{aligned}
\{\text { varieties over } k\} & \longrightarrow \mathbf{A b} \\
X & \longmapsto \operatorname{Pic} X .
\end{aligned}
$$

Example 18.17. The morphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{P}^{1} \xrightarrow{\nu} \mathbb{P}^{3} \\
& {[s: t] \longmapsto }\left.\longmapsto s^{3}: s^{2} t: s t^{2}: t^{3}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

yields a commutative diagram


Example 18.18. The $d$-th Veronese map $\nu_{d}: \mathbb{P}^{m} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{N}$ induces

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{Z} \cong \operatorname{Pic}\left(\mathbb{P}^{m}\right) \longleftarrow \operatorname{Pic}\left(\mathbb{P}^{N}\right)=\mathbb{Z} \\
& d \longleftarrow 1
\end{aligned}
$$

### 18.6. Moving lemma.

Lemma 18.19. Given any $X$, a Cartier divisor $D$ on $X$, and a point $x \in X$, there exists a Cartier divisor $D^{\prime}$ such that $D \sim D^{\prime}$ and $x \notin \operatorname{Supp} D$.

Example 18.20. On $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, take $x=[1: 0: 0]$ and $D=H=\mathbb{V}(y)$. Note that $x \in \operatorname{Supp} D$.
By the moving lemma, there exists a divisor $D^{\prime} \sim H$ such that $[1: 0: 0] \notin D^{\prime}$. We can take $D^{\prime}=\mathbb{V}(x)$. Here: $D^{\prime}=D+\operatorname{div}\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)$.

Proof of moving lemma. Say $D$ is given by data $\left\{U_{i}, \varphi_{i}\right\}$. Say $x \in U_{1}$.
Let $D^{\prime}$ be the divisor corresponding to data $\left\{U_{i}, \varphi_{1}^{-1} \cdot \varphi_{i}\right\}$. [Note: $D^{\prime} \cap U_{1}=\operatorname{div}_{U_{1}}(1)$ is empty, so $x \notin \operatorname{Supp} D^{\prime}$.] Hence

$$
D^{\prime}=D+\operatorname{div}_{x} \varphi^{-1} .
$$

Proof of Theorem 18.16. Let $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$ be a morphism and $D$ a locally principal divisor. We can define $\varphi^{*} D$ whenever $\operatorname{Supp} D \nsupseteq \varphi(X)$. Then we need to check also:
(1) $D_{1} \sim D_{2} \Longrightarrow \varphi^{*} D_{1} \sim \varphi^{*} D_{2}$
(2) $\varphi^{*}\left(D_{1}\right)+\varphi^{*}\left(D_{2}\right)=\varphi^{*}\left(D_{1}+D_{2}\right)$
when we can define $\varphi^{*}$.
So: if we try to define $\varphi^{*}[D]$ where $\operatorname{Supp} D \supseteq \operatorname{im} \varphi$, simply use the moving lemma to replace $D$ by $D^{\prime}$, where $x \notin \operatorname{Supp} D^{\prime}$ (for any $x$ we pick in $\varphi$ ).

## 19. Riemann-Roch spaces and linear systems

19.1. Riemann-Roch spaces. Fix $X$ normal, $D$ any divisor. Consider the set

$$
\mathscr{L}(D)=\left\{f \in k(X)^{*} \mid \operatorname{div}_{X} f+D \geq 0\right\} \cup\{0\} \subseteq k(X) .
$$

Example 19.1. If $X=\mathbb{A}^{1}$ and $D=2 \cdot p_{0}$ (where $p_{0}=\mathbf{0}$ is the origin), then

$$
\mathscr{L}(D)=\left\{f \in k(t)^{*} \mid \operatorname{div} f+2 p_{0} \geq 0\right\} \cup\{0\}=\left\{\left.\frac{1}{t^{2}} g(t) \right\rvert\, g(t) \in k[t]\right\}
$$

A function $f \in \mathscr{L}(D)$ can have zeros anywhere, but can't have any poles except at $p_{0}$, where a pole can be order 2 or less.

Definition 19.2. $\mathscr{L}(D)$ is the Riemann-Roch space of $(X, D)$.
Remark 19.3. (I) $\mathscr{L}(D)$ is a vector space over $k$.
(II) Even better, $\mathscr{L}(D)$ is a module over $\mathcal{O}_{X}(X)$.

The proof follows from a basic fact about "order of vanishing" along prime divisors.
If $D_{i}$ is a prime divisor on normal $X$, then

$$
\nu_{D_{i}}: k(X)^{*} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}
$$

is a valuation, i.e.:
(I) $\nu_{D_{i}}(f+g) \geq \min \left\{\nu_{D_{i}}(f), \nu_{D_{i}}(g)\right\}$
(II) $\nu_{D_{i}}(f g)=\nu_{D_{i}}(f)+\nu_{D_{i}}(g)$.

To prove $\mathscr{L}(D)$ is a vector subspace of $k(X)$, observe that

$$
f, g \in \mathscr{L}(D) \Longrightarrow f+g \in \mathscr{L}(D)
$$

and

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\operatorname{div} f+D \geq 0 \\
D+\sum_{D_{i}} \nu_{D_{i}}(g) \cdot D_{i}=\operatorname{div} g+D \geq 0
\end{array}
$$

hence $\operatorname{div}_{X}(f+g) \geq-D$, so if

$$
D=\sum_{\substack{D_{i} \subseteq X \\ \text { prime }}} k_{i} D_{i},
$$

then for any $D_{i}$ prime divisor,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\nu_{D_{i}}(f) \geq-k_{i} \\
\nu_{D_{i}}(g) \geq-k_{i} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Thus

$$
\nu_{D_{i}}(f+g) \geq \min \left\{\nu_{D_{i}}(f), \nu_{D_{i}}(g)\right\} \geq-k_{i} \quad \forall i,
$$

whence

$$
\operatorname{div}_{X}(f+g) \geq-D
$$

so $f+g \in \mathscr{L}(D)$.
Theorem 19.4. If $X$ is projective, then $\mathscr{L}(D)$ is a finite-dimensional vector space over $k$.
Example 19.5. Say $D=0$ and

$$
\mathscr{L}(D)=\{f \in k(x) \mid \operatorname{div} f \geq 0\}=\mathcal{O}_{X}(X) .
$$

If $X$ is projective, then $\mathscr{L}(0)$ has dimension 1 .
Denote $p_{0}=[0: 1]$ and $p_{\infty}=[1: 0]$. Let $X=\mathbb{P}^{1}$ and $D=p_{0}+p_{\infty}$. We have $k\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}\right)=k\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)$, and then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathscr{L}(D) & =\left\{\left.f\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) \right\rvert\, \operatorname{div} f+p_{0}+p_{\infty} \geq 0\right\} \\
& =\left\{\left.\frac{F_{2}(x, y)}{x y} \right\rvert\, F_{2} \text { degree } 2 \text { homogeneous }\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

A basis for this is

$$
\left\{\frac{x^{2}}{x y}, \frac{x y}{x y}, \frac{y^{2}}{x y}\right\}=\left\{\frac{x}{y}, 1, \frac{y}{x}\right\},
$$

so $\operatorname{dim} \mathscr{L}(D)=3$.
19.2. Riemann-Roch spaces, continued. Let $X$ be a normal variety, $D=\sum k_{i} D_{i}$ a divisor. The Riemann-Roch space

$$
\mathscr{L}(D)=\left\{f \in k(X)^{*} \mid \operatorname{div} f+D \geq 0\right\} \cup\{0\} \subseteq k(X)
$$

consists of rational functions $f$ such that
(1) $f$ has no poles except possibly along $D_{i}$ if $k_{i}>0$ (order of pole up to $-k_{i}$ ), and
(2) $f$ must have zeros along $D_{i}$ if $k_{i}<0$ (order of zero at least $-k_{i}$ ).

Remark 19.6. - $\mathscr{L}(D)$ can be infinite-dimensional or finite-dimensional, though it is always finite-dimensional if $X$ is projective.

- $\mathscr{L}(D)$ is a module over $\mathcal{O}_{X}(X)$.

Proposition 19.7. If $D \sim D^{\prime}$, then $\mathscr{L}(D) \cong \mathscr{L}\left(D^{\prime}\right)$ (natural isomorphism, not equality).
Proof. We have $D-D^{\prime}=\operatorname{div} f$ for some $f \in k(X)^{*}$. Consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
\{g \mid \operatorname{div} g+D \geq 0\}=\mathscr{L}(D) & \xrightarrow{\cdot f} \mathscr{L}\left(D^{\prime}\right)=\left\{h \mid \operatorname{div} h+D^{\prime} \geq 0\right\} \\
g & \longmapsto g f .
\end{aligned}
$$

Is $g f \in \mathscr{L}\left(D^{\prime}\right)$ ? Indeed, if $g \in \mathscr{L}(D)$, then $\operatorname{div} g+D \geq 0$, so

$$
\operatorname{div}(g f)+D^{\prime}=\operatorname{div} g+\operatorname{div} f+D^{\prime}=\operatorname{div} g+D \geq 0
$$

The inverse map is multiplication by $\frac{1}{f}$. Thus, this is an isomorphism of $k$-vector spaces. (It is also a $\mathcal{O}_{X}(X)$-module isomorphism.)

Note 19.8. Each nonempty open set $U \subseteq X$ is a normal variety. Each divisor $D=\sum k_{i} D_{i}$ on $X$ induces a divisor

$$
\left.D\right|_{U}=\sum_{i} k_{i}\left(D_{i} \cap U\right)=" D_{i} \cap U " \text {. }
$$

Look at the Riemann-Roch space of $\left(U,\left.D\right|_{U}\right)$.
Definition 19.9 (sheaf associated to $D$ ). The sheaf $\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)$ associated to $D$ is the sheaf assigning to each nonempty open set $U \subseteq X$ the Riemann-Roch space

$$
\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)(U)=\text { the Riemann-Roch space of }\left(U,\left.D\right|_{U}\right),
$$

which is an $\mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$-module.

- This is a subsheaf of the constant sheaf $k(X)$.
- $\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)$ is a sheaf of $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-modules.
- If $D \sim D^{\prime}$, then there is an isomorphism

$$
\mathcal{O}_{X}(D) \xrightarrow{\cdot f} \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(D^{\prime}\right)
$$

of $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-modules.
Example 19.10. If $D=0$, then $\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)=\mathcal{O}_{X}$.
Example 19.11. Let $X=\mathbb{P}^{1}$ and $D=2 p_{0}-p_{\infty}$ (where $p_{0}=[0: 1]$ and $p_{\infty}=[1: 0]$ ). Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}\right) & =\left\{f \in k\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}\right) \mid \operatorname{div} f+2 p_{0}-p_{\infty} \geq 0\right\} \\
& =\left\{\left.\frac{y(a x+b y)}{x^{2}} \right\rvert\, a, b \in k\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

If we restrict to $U_{\infty}=\mathbb{P}^{1} \backslash\{[1: 0]\}$, then using coordinates $t=\frac{x}{y}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\left(U_{\infty}\right) & =\left\{f \in k\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}\right) \mid \operatorname{div}_{U_{\infty}} f+2 p_{0} \geq 0\right\} \\
& =\left\{\left.\frac{g}{t^{2}} \right\rvert\, g \in k[t]\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly, letting $s=\frac{y}{x}=t^{-1}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\left(U_{0}\right) & =\left\{f \in k\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}\right) \mid \operatorname{div} f-p_{\infty} \geq 0\right\} \\
& =\{f \in k(s) \mid f \in s \cdot k[s]\} \\
& =\left\{t^{-1} \cdot k\left[t^{-1}\right]\right\} \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(U_{0}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\left(U_{\infty} \cap U_{0}\right)=\mathcal{O}_{X}\left(U_{\infty} \cap U_{0}\right)=k\left[t, t^{-1}\right] .
$$

Fact 19.12. If $D$ is a Cartier divisor, then $\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)$ is a locally free, rank $1 \mathcal{O}_{X}$-module (a submodule of $k(X)$ ).

Hint: If $D$ is given by data $\left\{U_{i}, \varphi_{i}\right\}$, then

$$
\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\left(U_{i}\right)=\varphi_{i}^{-1} \cdot \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(U_{i}\right) \subseteq k(X)
$$

19.3. Complete linear systems. Let $X$ be a normal variety, $D=\sum k_{i} D_{i}$ a divisor.

Definition 19.13. The complete linear system $|D|$ is the set of all effective divisors $D^{\prime}$ on $X$ such that $D \sim D^{\prime}$.

Example 19.14. On $\mathbb{P}^{2}(\operatorname{char} k \neq 3)$, let

$$
D=3 \mathbb{V}\left(x^{3}+y^{3}+z^{3}\right)-7 \mathbb{V}(x) .
$$

Then $|D|=$ the set of all conics on $\mathbb{P}^{2}$.
Proposition 19.15. There is a natural map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathscr{L}(D)-\{0\} & \longrightarrow|D| \\
f & \longmapsto \operatorname{div} f+D
\end{aligned}
$$

which induces a surjective map $\mathbb{P}(\mathscr{L}(D)) \rightarrow|D|$ which is bijective if $X$ is projective.
Proof. Why surjective? If $D^{\prime} \in|D|$, then $D^{\prime} \geq 0$ and $D^{\prime} \sim D$, i.e., $D^{\prime}=D+\operatorname{div} f$ for some $f \in k(X)^{*}$. So

$$
f \longmapsto \operatorname{div} f+D=D^{\prime}
$$

Why injective for projective $X$ ? Say $D_{1}, D_{2} \in|D|$ such that

$$
f, g \longmapsto \operatorname{div} f+D
$$

Then $\operatorname{div}(f / g)=0$, so $\frac{f}{g}$ is regular on $X$ and hence is constant.

### 19.4. Some examples.

Example 19.16 (Case where the map is not injective). Consider $X=\mathbb{A}^{1}-\{0\}, D=p=[1]$. Then

$$
\mathscr{L}(D)=\{f \in k(t) \mid \operatorname{div} f+p \geq 0\}=\frac{1}{(t-1)} \cdot k\left[t, t^{-1}\right],
$$

and the natural map $\mathbb{P}(\mathscr{L}(D)) \longrightarrow|D|$ is not injective.
Example 19.17. Let $L \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}$ be a line. Say $L=\mathbb{V}\left(x_{0}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
|L| & =\left\{\text { lines on } \mathbb{P}^{2}\right\} \\
=\mathbb{P}(\mathscr{L}(L)) & =\mathbb{P}\left\{f \in k\left(\mathbb{P}^{2}\right) \mid \operatorname{div} f+L \geq 0\right\}=\mathbb{P}\left\{\left.\frac{a_{0} x_{0}+a_{1} x_{1}+a_{2} x_{2}}{x_{0}} \right\rvert\, a_{i} \in k\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $|L|$ is geometric, independent of choices, while $\mathscr{L}(L)$ depends on choice of line; if we choose a different line, we get a different (but isomorphic) subset of $k\left(\mathbb{P}^{2}\right)$.
Example 19.18. Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}$ be the conic $\mathbb{V}(F)$, where $F=x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathscr{L}(C) & =\left\{f \in k\left(\mathbb{P}^{2}\right) \mid \operatorname{div} f+C \geq 0\right\} \\
& =\left\{\left.\frac{G(x, y, z)}{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right)} \right\rvert\, G \in[k[x, y, z]]_{2}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This is a dimension 6 vector space. Basis:

$$
\left\{\frac{x^{2}}{F}, \frac{x y}{F}, \frac{y^{2}}{F}, \frac{x z}{F}, \frac{z^{2}}{F}, \frac{y z}{F}\right\} .
$$

Map this to the linear system:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathscr{L}(C) & \longrightarrow|C|=\left\{\text { conics on } \mathbb{P}^{2}\right\} \\
\frac{G}{F} & \longrightarrow \operatorname{div} \frac{G}{F}+C=\mathbb{V}(G) \quad \text { (as a scheme) }
\end{aligned}
$$

The linear system $|C|$ of conics on $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ corresponds to a map to projective space (up to choice of coordinates on that target):

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbb{P}^{2} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{5} \\
{[x: y: z] \longmapsto\left[\frac{x^{2}}{F}: \frac{x y}{F}: \frac{y^{2}}{F}: \frac{x z}{F}: \frac{z^{2}}{F}: \frac{y z}{F}\right] .}
\end{gathered}
$$

This is the Veronese 2-map.
Note that if we denote $L=\mathbb{V}(x)$, then $|C|=|2 L|$, and the corresponding Riemann-Roch space is

$$
\mathscr{L}(2 L)=\left\{\left.\frac{G}{x^{2}} \right\rvert\, G \in[k[x, y, z]]_{2}\right\},
$$

which has a basis

$$
\left\{1, \frac{y}{x},\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^{2}, \ldots, \frac{y^{2}}{x^{2}}\right\}
$$

which is also dimension 6 .
Note 19.19. The elements of the linear system $|C|=|2 L|$ are the pullbacks of the hyperplanes in $\mathbb{P}^{5}$.

Multiplying by $F$, we can also describe this map as

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\mathbb{P}^{2} & \xrightarrow{\nu_{2}} \mathbb{P}^{5} \\
{[x: y: z]} & \longmapsto
\end{array} x^{2}: x y: y^{2}: x z: z^{2}: y z\right] .
$$

Look at the linear system $|H|$ on $\mathbb{P}^{5}$ of hyperplanes. Say

$$
H=\mathbb{V}\left(a_{0} x_{0}+\cdots+a_{5} x_{5}\right) .
$$

Then

$$
\nu_{2}^{*} H=\mathbb{V}\left(a_{0} x^{2}+a_{1} x y+\cdots+a_{5} y z\right) .
$$

### 19.5. Linear systems.

Definition 19.20. A linear system on $X$ is a set of divisors (all effective, all linearly equivalent to each other) which corresponds to some (projective) linear space in some complete linear system $|D|$.

In other words: Fix $D$, and consider a subspace

$$
V \subseteq \mathscr{L}(D) \rightarrow|D| .
$$

Then we have a map $V \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(V) \subseteq|D|$. The image of $\mathbb{P}(V)$ is a linear system.
Example 19.21. In $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, take the set of lines through a point $p=[0: \cdots: 0: 1] \in \mathbb{P}^{n}$. Fix $H=\mathbb{V}\left(x_{n}\right)$. Call this set

$$
\mathcal{V}=\mathbb{P}(V)=\{f \mid \operatorname{div} f+H \geq 0\} .
$$

Then

$$
V=\left\langle\operatorname{span} \text { of } \frac{x_{0}}{x_{n}}, \ldots, \frac{x_{n-1}}{x_{n}}\right\rangle \subseteq \mathscr{L}(H)=\left\langle\frac{x_{0}}{x_{n}}, \frac{x_{1}}{x_{n}}, \ldots, \frac{x_{n-1}}{x_{n}}, 1\right\rangle .
$$

Definition 19.22. The base locus of a linear system $\mathcal{V}$ is the set

$$
\text { Bs } \mathcal{V}=\{x \in X \mid x \in \operatorname{Supp} D \forall D \in \mathcal{V}\} .
$$

A linear system is base point free if $\operatorname{Bs} \mathcal{V}=\varnothing$.
The fixed components of a linear system are prime divisors $D$ such that $D$ appears in the support of every $D \in \mathcal{V}$ (i.e., divisors in the base locus).

Example 19.23. Fix $L_{1}=\mathbb{V}(x) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}$. Take the linear system $\mathcal{V}$ of conics in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ which contain $L_{1}$. This consists of the unions of $L_{1}$ with another line, and the double line consisting of $L_{1}$ with multiplicity 2.

We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|2 L_{2}\right| \supseteq \mathcal{V} & \longleftrightarrow|L| \\
L_{1}+L_{2} & \longleftrightarrow L_{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

A conic $C \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}$ contains $L_{1}=\mathbb{V}(x)$ iff

$$
I_{C}=(F)=(a x+b y+c z) x \subseteq I_{L_{1}}=(x) .
$$

A basis for $\mathcal{F}$ is given by

$$
\frac{x^{2}}{F}, \frac{x y}{F}, \frac{z x}{F} .
$$

Map to projective space by

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbb{P}^{2} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{2} \\
{[x: y: z] \longmapsto\left[\frac{x^{2}}{F}: \frac{x y}{F}: \frac{x z}{F}\right]=[x: y: z],}
\end{gathered}
$$

i.e., the identity map.

### 19.6. Linear systems and rational maps.

Theorem 19.24. Let $X$ be normal (in practice, projective). There is a one-to-one correspondence

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\left\{\text { rational maps } X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}\right\}}{(\text { projective change of coordinates) }} \longleftrightarrow\left\{\begin{array}{c}
n \text {-dimensional linear systems of divisors on } \\
X \text { with no fixed component }
\end{array}\right\} \\
& {\left[X^{\varphi} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}\right] } \longmapsto\left\{\text { pullback of hyperplane linear systems on } \mathbb{P}^{n}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Example 19.25. Consider the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{P}^{1} \xrightarrow{\nu} \mathbb{P}^{3} \\
& {[s: t] } \longmapsto\left[s^{3}: s^{2} t: s t^{2}: t^{3}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

and the linear system

$$
|H|=\left\{\text { hyperplanes on } \mathbb{P}^{3}\right\}=\left\{\mathbb{V}(a x+b y+c z+d w) \mid[a: b: c: d] \in \mathbb{P}^{3}\right\}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\nu^{*}|H| & =\left\{\nu^{*}(\mathbb{V}(a x+b y+c z+d w)) \mid[a: b: c: d] \in \mathbb{P}^{3}\right\} \\
& =\left\{\mathbb{V}\left(a s^{3}+b s^{2} t+c s t^{2}+d t^{3}\right)\right\} \\
& =\left\{\text { complete linear system on } \mathbb{P}^{1} \text { of degree } 3 \text { divisors }\right\}=|3 P|
\end{aligned}
$$

Going back to the theorem, for any $n$-dimensional linear system $\mathcal{V}$ of divisors on $X$ with no fixed component, let $|D|$ be a complete linear system such that $\mathcal{V} \subseteq|D|$. Then $\mathcal{V}=\mathbb{P}(V)$, where $V \subseteq \mathscr{L}(D)$ is $(n+1)$-dimensional. Send

$$
\mathcal{V} \longmapsto\left[\begin{array}{l}
X \cdots \mathbb{P}^{n} \\
x \longmapsto\left[\varphi_{0}(x): \cdots: \varphi_{n}(x)\right]
\end{array}\right],
$$

where the $\varphi_{i}$ are a basis for $V$.
Furthermore: the locus of indeterminacy of $\varphi$ is the base locus of $\mathcal{V}$.

Example 19.26. In $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, fix a line $L$. Look at the linear system $\mathcal{W}_{L} \subseteq\left|C_{3}\right|$ (where $\left|C_{3}\right|$ is the 9 -dimensional complete linear system of cubics in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ ) of cubics that contain $L$. We have

$$
L \subseteq C_{3} \Longleftrightarrow F_{3}=x \cdot F_{2},
$$

where $F_{2}(x, y, z)$ is degree 2 . So

$$
\mathscr{L}\left(C_{3}\right)=\left\langle\frac{x^{3}}{F_{3}}: \frac{x^{2} y}{F_{3}}: \cdots: \frac{z^{3}}{F_{3}}\right\rangle \supseteq\left\{\frac{x \cdot x^{2}}{F_{3}}: \frac{x \cdot x y}{F_{3}}: \frac{x \cdot x z}{F_{3}}: \frac{x \cdot y^{2}}{F_{3}}: \frac{x \cdot y z}{F_{3}}: \frac{x \cdot z^{2}}{F_{3}}\right\} .
$$

What is the map $\varphi \mathcal{W}_{L}$ corresponding to $\mathcal{W}_{L}$ ? It is

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbb{P}^{2} \longmapsto \mathbb{P}^{5} \\
{[x: y: z] \longmapsto\left[\frac{x^{3}}{F_{3}}: \frac{x^{2} y}{F_{3}}: \cdots: \frac{x z^{2}}{F_{3}}\right]=\left[x^{2}: x y: \cdots: z^{2}\right] .}
\end{gathered}
$$

Note that $\mathcal{W}_{L}$ gives the same map as $\left|C_{2}\right|$.
Note 19.27. Let $X>\varphi \mathbb{P}^{n}$ and $D \in \operatorname{Div}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$. What is $\varphi^{*} D$ ? We have

and $X \backslash U$ has codimension $\geq 2$. Then

$$
\varphi^{*} D \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \overline{\varphi_{U}^{*} D}
$$

the unique divisor $D^{\prime}$ on $X$ such that $\left.D^{\prime}\right|_{U}=\left(\varphi_{n}^{*} D\right)$.
Example 19.28. In general, the Veronese map $\mathbb{P}^{n} \xrightarrow{\nu_{d}} \mathbb{P}^{\left({ }^{n+d}\right)-1}$ corresponds to the complete linear system $|d H|$ on $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.

Definition 19.29. A divisor $D$ is very ample if the map $\varphi_{|D|}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ corresponding to the complete linear system $|D|$ is an embedding.

A divisor $D$ is ample if $\exists m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $m D$ is very ample.
Example 19.30. Consider the projection

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbb{P}^{3}-\varphi_{-}>\mathbb{P}^{2} \\
{[x: y: z: w] \longmapsto[x: y: z]}
\end{gathered}
$$

from $p=[0: 0: 0: 1]$. Let $H=\mathbb{V}(a x+b y+c z) \in|H|$. Then hyperplanes $H$ correspond to hyperplanes on $\mathbb{P}^{3}$ which contain $p$, i.e.,

$$
\left|H_{p}\right|=\text { linear system on } \mathbb{P}^{3} \text { of hyperplanes through } p .
$$

This is fixed component free, since the base locus is $\{p\}$, the locus of indeterminacy of $\varphi$.
Example 19.31. Let $\widetilde{\mathbb{P}}^{2} \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{P}^{2}$ be the blowup at a point $p \in \mathbb{P}^{2}$.
This corresponds to the linear system $\pi^{*}|L|$ (where $|L|$ is the complete linear system of lines on $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ ), which includes "lines" $L$ which don't meet the exceptional divisor $E$.

This is base point free, but not very ample.

## 20. Differential forms

20.1. Sections. Recall from the homework: The tautological bundle is

$$
T=\{(x, \ell) \mid x \in \ell\} \subseteq k^{n+1} \times \mathbb{P}^{n}
$$

with the projection map $T \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{P}^{n}$. The fiber

$$
\pi^{-1}(\ell)=\{(x, \ell) \mid x \in \ell\}
$$

is the set of points in the line which is $\ell$.
A section is a morphism $\mathbb{P}^{n} \xrightarrow{s} T$ such that $\pi \circ s=\left.\mathrm{id}\right|_{\mathbb{P}^{n}}$. A section of the tautological bundle is given by a choice of representative of each line, i.e., for all $\ell \in \mathbb{P}^{n}, s(\ell) \in \pi^{-1}(\ell)$.

We can add two sections $s_{1}, s_{2}: \mathbb{P}^{n} \longrightarrow T$ by adding outputs:

$$
\begin{aligned}
s_{1}+s_{2}: \mathbb{P}^{n} & \longrightarrow T \\
\ell & \longmapsto s_{1}(\ell)+s_{2}(\ell) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We can also multiply a section $s: \mathbb{P}^{n} \longrightarrow T$ by any function $f: \mathbb{P}^{n} \longrightarrow k$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
f s: \mathbb{P}^{n} & \longrightarrow T \\
f s(\ell) & =f(\ell) s(\ell) \in \pi^{-1}(\ell) .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 20.2. Differential forms.

Definition 20.1. A differential form $\psi$ on $X$ is an assignment associating to each $x \in X$ some $\psi(x) \in\left(T_{x} X\right)^{*}$.

Put differently, a differential form is a section of the cotangent bundle of $X$.
Example 20.2. If $f$ is a regular function on $X$, then $d f$ is a differential form:

$$
d f(x)=d_{x} f=\left.\left.\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x_{i}}\right|_{x}\left(x-x_{i}(x)\right)\right|_{T_{x} X \subseteq T_{x} \mathbb{A}^{n}} .
$$

We can add two differential forms:

$$
\left(\psi_{1}+\psi_{2}\right)(x)=\psi_{1}(x)+\psi_{2}(x)
$$

Can also multiply $\psi$ by any $k$-valued function $\varphi$ :

$$
(\varphi \psi)(x)=\varphi(x) \cdot \psi(x)
$$

In other words, the set of all differential forms $\Psi[x]$ on $X$ forms a module over $\mathfrak{F}(x)$, the ring of all functions on $X$.
Example 20.3. Consider $\mathbb{A}^{n}$ with coordinates $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$. The cotangent space at $x$ is spanned by $d_{x} x_{1}, \ldots, d_{x} x_{n}$.
Example 20.4. In $\mathbb{R}^{2}, \sin x d y+\cos x d x \in \Psi[x]$ is a differential form.

### 20.3. Regular differential forms.

Definition 20.5. A differential form $\psi$ on $X$ is regular if $\forall x \in X$, there is an open neighborhood $U \ni x$ such that $\left.\psi\right|_{U}$ agrees with $\sum_{i=1}^{t} g_{i} d f_{i}$, where $f_{i}, g_{i} \in \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$.

In other words, viewing $\psi$ as a section of the cotangent bundle of $X$, the section map is regular.
Example 20.6. The differential form

$$
\psi=2 x d(x y)=2 x(x d y+y d x)=2 x^{2} d y+2 x y d x
$$

is a regular differential form in $\mathbb{A}^{2}$.

Notation 20.7. For $U \subseteq X$ open, let $\Omega_{X}(U)$ be the set of regular differential forms on the variety $U$.

Note 20.8. $\Omega_{X}(U)$ is a module over $\mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$. In fact, $\Omega_{X}$ is a sheaf of $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-modules.
Example 20.9. On $\mathbb{A}^{n}, \Omega_{X}$ is the free $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-module generated by $d x_{1}, \ldots, d x_{n}$.
Theorem 20.10. If $X$ is smooth, then $\Omega_{X}$ is a locally free $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-module of rank $\operatorname{dim} X$.
Proof sketch. Take $x \in X$, and take local parameters $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ at $x$. Show that $d x_{1}, \ldots, d x_{n}$ are a free basis for $\Omega_{X}$ in some neighborhood of $x$. (Use Nakayama's lemma.)

Proposition 20.11. Let $V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n}$ be an affine variety with ideal $\mathbb{I}(V)=\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{t}\right) \subseteq k\left[\mathbb{A}^{n}\right]$. Then $\Omega_{V}(V)$ is the $\mathcal{O}_{V}(V)$-module

$$
\frac{\left.k[V] d x_{1}\right|_{V}+\cdots+\left.k[V] d x_{n}\right|_{V}}{k[V] \text {-submodule generated by }\left(d g_{1}, \ldots, d g_{t}\right)} .
$$

Note that if $g$ vanishes on $V$, then $d g=0$ on $V$.
Example 20.12. Let $V=\mathbb{V}\left(t-s^{2}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2}$. Then

$$
\Omega_{V}=\frac{k[V] d t+k[V] d s}{(d t-2 s d s)}
$$

This is free, since $d t=2 s d s$ in $\Omega_{V}$, so the generator $d t$ is redundant, and $\Omega_{V}=k[V] d s$.
Example 20.13. Consider $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ with homogeneous coordinates $x, y$, and with $t=\frac{x}{y}, s=\frac{y}{x}$. Say $\psi$ is a global regular differential form on $\mathbb{P}^{1}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left.\psi\right|_{U_{y}} \in \Omega_{\mathbb{P}^{1}}\left(U_{y}\right)=k[t] d t \\
& \left.\psi\right|_{U_{x}} \in \Omega_{\mathbb{P}^{1}}\left(U_{x}\right)=k[s] d s .
\end{aligned}
$$

If we have $p(t) d t \in k[t] d t$ and $q(s) d s \in k[t] d t$, then

$$
p(t) d t=q(1 / t) d(1 / t)
$$

on $U_{x} \cap U_{y}$. Then

$$
p(t) d t=-q(1 / t) \frac{d t}{t^{2}}
$$

so

$$
t^{2} p(t)=-q(1 / t)
$$

in $k\left[t, t^{-1}\right]$. Thus $p=q=0$, i.e., there are no nontrivial global regular differential forms on $\mathbb{P}^{1}$.
However, on $X=\mathbb{V}\left(x^{3}+y^{3}+z^{3}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}$, there is a 1 -dimensional $k$-vector space of global differential forms. And, on $X=\mathbb{V}\left(x^{4}+\overline{y^{4}}+z^{4}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{2}$, the space $\Omega_{X}(X)$ is 3 -dimensional over $k$.

Definition 20.14. If $X$ is a smooth projective curve, then the genus of $X$ is the dimension of $\Omega_{X}(X)$ as a $k$-vector space.
20.4. Rational differential forms and canonical divisors. A rational differential form on $X$ is intuitively $f_{1} d g_{1}+\cdots+f_{r} d g_{r}$, where $f_{i}$ and $g_{i}$ are rational functions on $X$. Formally:

Definition 20.15. A rational differential form on $X$ is an equivalence class of pairs $(U, \varphi)$ where $U \subseteq X$ is open and $\varphi \in \Omega_{X}(U)$. [As with rational functions, $(U, \varphi) \sim\left(U^{\prime}, \varphi^{\prime}\right)$ means $\left.\varphi\right|_{U \cap U^{\prime}}=$ $\left.\left.\varphi^{\prime}\right|_{U \cap U^{\prime}} \cdot\right]$

We can define the divisor of a rational differential form.
Definition 20.16. If $\omega$ is a rational differential form on a smooth curve $X$, then $\operatorname{div}(\omega) \in \operatorname{Div}(X)$ is called a canonical divisor.

The canonical divisors form a linear equivalence class on $X$, denoted $K_{X}$. Also,

$$
\operatorname{dim} \mathscr{L}\left(K_{X}\right)=\operatorname{genus}(X)
$$

Example 20.17. On $\mathbb{P}^{1}$, the canonical divisor $K_{\mathbb{P}^{1}}$ is the class of degree -2 divisors.
20.5. Canonical divisors, continued. Let $X$ be smooth (or, $X$ normal, and work on $X_{\mathrm{sm}} \subseteq X$; since $\operatorname{codim}\left(X \backslash X_{\mathrm{sm}}\right) \geq 2$, we won't miss any divisors).

Consider the sheaf $\Omega_{X}$ of regular differential forms on $X$. [ $\operatorname{In} U, \Omega_{X}(U)$ is the set of differential forms $\varphi$ on $U$ such that $\forall x \in U$, there exists an open neighborhood where $\varphi$ agrees with $\sum f_{i} d g_{i}$, where $f_{i}, g_{i}$ are regular functions.]

The sheaf $\Omega_{X}$ is a locally free $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-module of rank $d=\operatorname{dim} X$.
Fact 20.18. The set of rational differential forms ${ }^{10}$ forms a vector space over $k(X)$.
Definition 20.19. A separating transcendence basis for $k(X)$ over $k$ is a set of algebraically independent elements $\left\{u_{i}\right\}$ over which $k(X)$ is separable algebraic [i.e., $k\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right) \hookrightarrow k(X)$ is separable algebraic].

Example 20.20. Consider $X=\mathbb{P}^{2}$. Then

$$
k\left(\frac{x}{y}, \frac{z}{y}\right) \xrightarrow{\simeq} k\left(\mathbb{P}^{2}\right)
$$

so $\frac{x}{y}, \frac{z}{y}$ is a separating transcendence basis. In characteristic $\neq 2,3$,

$$
k\left(\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^{2},\left(\frac{z}{y}\right)^{3}\right) \hookrightarrow k\left(\frac{x}{y}, \frac{z}{y}\right)
$$

is also a separating transcendence basis.
Theorem 20.21. If $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}$ is a separating transcendence base for $k(X)$, then $d u_{1}, \ldots, d u_{n}$ is a basis for the space of rational differential forms on $X$ over $k(X)$.

Proof sketch. We have $k\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right) \hookrightarrow k(X)$. Given $\sum f_{i} d g_{i}$ with $f_{i}, g_{i} \in k(X)$, it suffices for each $g=g_{i} \in k(X)$ that we can write

$$
d g=r_{1} d u_{1}+\cdots+r_{n} d u_{n}
$$

for $r_{i} \in k(X)$.
Then $g$ satisfies a minimal polynomial

$$
g^{m}+a_{1} g^{m-1}+\cdots+a_{m}=0
$$

with $a_{i} \in k\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)$. Apply " $d$ ":

$$
\begin{equation*}
m g^{m-1} d g+g^{m} d a_{1}+a_{1} \cdot(m-1) g^{m-2} d g+\cdots+d a_{m}=0 \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

${ }^{10}$ Shafarevich denotes this $\Theta(X)$.

Solve for $d g_{i}$ :

$$
\text { (rational function) } d g \in k(X) \text {-span of } d u_{1}, \ldots, d u_{n}
$$

(Check the coefficient on $d g$ is not zero if $\left(^{*}\right)$ is separable.) So $d g \in k(X)$-span of $d u_{1}, \ldots, d u_{n}$.
20.6. The canonical bundle on $X$. For each $p \in \mathbb{N}$, look at the sheaf $\bigwedge^{p} \Omega_{X}$ of $p$-differentiable forms on $X$, which assigns to open $U \subseteq X$ the set of all regular $p$-forms: $\forall x \in U, \varphi(x): \bigwedge^{p} T_{x} X \longrightarrow$ $k$. Locally these look like $\sum f_{i} d g_{i_{1}} \wedge \cdots \wedge d g_{i_{p}}$.

Rational $p$-forms are defined analogously.
Corollary 20.22. The set of rational p-forms on $X$ is a $k(X)$-vector space of dimension $\binom{n}{p}$.
Proof. If $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}$ is a separating transcendence basis, then $\left\{d u_{i_{1}} \wedge \cdots \wedge d u_{i_{p}}\right\}$ is a basis for rational $p$-forms over $k(X)$.

Definition 20.23. The canonical sheaf (or dualizing sheaf) of $X$ (where $X$ is smooth, $\operatorname{dim} X=n$ ) is

$$
\omega_{X}=\bigwedge^{n} \Omega_{X}
$$

Note 20.24. (1) $\omega_{X}$ is locally free of rank 1.
(2) The set of rational canonical (n-)forms is a vector space of dimension 1 over $k(X)$.

Example 20.25. On $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, let $s=\frac{x}{y}$ and $t=\frac{z}{y}$, and consider

$$
f d\left(\frac{x}{z}\right) \wedge d\left(\frac{y}{z}\right)
$$

We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
d\left(\frac{x}{z}\right) \wedge d\left(\frac{y}{z}\right) & =d\left(\frac{s}{t}\right) \wedge d\left(\frac{1}{t}\right) \\
& =\left(\frac{t d s-s d t}{t^{2}}\right) \wedge \frac{(-d t)}{t^{2}} \\
& =\frac{-t d s \wedge d t}{t^{4}}=\frac{-d s \wedge d t}{t^{3}}
\end{aligned}
$$

On $U_{z}$, there are no zeros or poles. On $U_{y}$, we have a pole of order 3 along $t=0$ (the divisor $\left.\mathbb{V}(z) \subset \mathbb{P}^{2}\right)$.

So:

$$
\operatorname{div}\left(d\left(\frac{x}{z}\right) \wedge d\left(\frac{y}{z}\right)\right)=-3 L_{\infty}
$$

where $L_{\infty}=\mathbb{V}(z) \subset \mathbb{P}^{2}$.
Definition 20.26. The divisor of a rational canonical form $\varphi$ on $X$ is the divisor

$$
\operatorname{div}(\varphi)=\sum_{\substack{D \text { prime } \\ \text { divisor }}} \nu_{D}(\varphi) D
$$

where $\nu_{D}(\varphi)$ is computed as follows: Pick any $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}$ parameters for a point $x \in D$. Write

$$
\varphi=f \cdot d u_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge d u_{n}
$$

where $f \in k(X)$. Then $\nu_{D}(\varphi)=\nu_{D}(f)$.
Note 20.27. The divisor $\operatorname{div}(\omega)$ is not necessarily principal.
Proposition 20.28. For all $f \in k(X)$, $\omega$ a rational canonical form,

$$
\operatorname{div}(f \omega)=\operatorname{div}(f)+\operatorname{div}(\omega)
$$

In particular, any two rational canonical forms define the same divisor class.

Definition 20.29. The divisor $\operatorname{div}(\omega)$ is called a canonical divisor. By Proposition 20.28, they form a class, called the canonical class $K_{X}$.
Example 20.30. On $\mathbb{P}^{2}, K_{\mathbb{P}^{2}}$ is the class of divisors of degree -3 .
We can use the canonical class (or multiples of it) to classify varieties.
If we embed

then $X \cong Y \Longleftrightarrow$ there is a projective change of coordinates taking $X$ to $Y$.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{An}$ anti-equivalence of categories $C, D$ is an equivalence of $C$ and the opposite category $D^{\mathrm{op}}$.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2} W=\widetilde{U} \cap V \Longrightarrow U \subseteq W$ is $\tilde{\tilde{U}} \cap \tilde{U} \cap V=U$, and $(\tilde{\tilde{U}} \cap \tilde{U} \cap V) \cap U_{i}$ is open in $V \cap U_{i}$, which is affine.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}[k[x, y, z]]_{2}=\operatorname{Sym}^{2}\left(\left(k^{3}\right)^{*}\right)$ denotes the vector space of degree 2 homogeneous polynomials, i.e., the 2 nd component of the graded ring $k[x, y, z]$.

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ Shafarevich, Appendix $\S 7$

[^4]:    ${ }^{5}$ The technical definition of "proper map" in algebraic geometry is more complicated, but agrees with the other definition over $\mathbb{C}$. In any case, $\pi$ is a proper map in the algebraic geometry sense.

[^5]:    ${ }^{6}$ This means that $X_{\text {sing }} \subseteq X$ has codimension $\geq 2$.

[^6]:    ${ }^{7}$ We can do this by our earlier theorem that a codimension 1 subvariety is locally a hypersurface.

[^7]:    ${ }^{8}$ The height of a prime $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ is the Krull dimension of $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$.

[^8]:    ${ }^{9}$ A Weil divisor is a formal $\mathbb{Z}$-linear combination of irreducible, codimension 1 subvarieties. This is the same kind of divisor we defined earlier.

