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 $k[x_1, \ldots, x_N]$.

That is: Fix $S \subseteq k[x_1, \ldots, x_N]$ any subset. Then

$$\mathbb{V}(S) = \left\{ p = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_N) \in k^N \mid f(p) = 0 \; \forall f \in S \right\}.$$

Example 1.2. (1) Lines in \mathbb{R}^2 : $\mathbb{V}(y - mx - b) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$.

(2) Rational points on a cone (arithmetic geometry): $\mathbb{V}(x^2 + y^2 - z^2) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}^3$

- (3) All linear subspaces of k^N are affine algebraic sets.
- (4) $\mathbb{V}(\det(x_{ij}) 1) = \operatorname{SL}_n(\mathbb{C}) = \{n \times n \text{ matrices } /\mathbb{C} \text{ of } \det 1\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}^{n^2}$

(5)
$$\mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{R}) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{pmatrix} \middle| \text{trace} = 0 \right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$$

(6) Point in
$$k^N$$
: $\{(a_1, \ldots, a_N)\} = \mathbb{V}(x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_N - a_N).$

(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. $S \subseteq T \subseteq k[x_1, \ldots, x_N] \implies \mathbb{V}(S) \supseteq \mathbb{V}(T).$

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 $\{f_{\lambda}\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \subseteq k[x_1, \ldots, x_N]$ and let $I \subseteq k[x_1, \ldots, x_N]$ be the ideal generated by the $\{f_{\lambda}\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$. 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 $g = r_1 f_1 + \dots + r_t f_t$, where $f_i \in S$ and $r_i \in k[x_1, \dots, x_N]$. So
 $g(p) = r_1(p) f_1(p) + \dots + r_t(p) f_t(p) = 0$

since $f_i(p) = 0$ for i = 1, ..., t. Hence $p \in \mathbb{V}(I)$.

Proof of Theorem 1.4. Take any $S \subseteq k[x_1, \ldots, x_N]$, $I = \langle S \rangle$ 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

$$\mathbb{V}(S) = \mathbb{V}(I) = \mathbb{V}(g_1, \dots, g_t),$$

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 $\implies R[x]$ Noetherian.
- $k[x_1,\ldots,x_{N-1}][x_N] \cong k[x_1,\ldots,x_N]$, 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}, \emptyset .

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: $\{V_{\lambda}\}$ closed sets $\implies \bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} V_{\lambda}$ closed. Write $V_{\lambda} = \mathbb{V}(I_{\lambda})$. Then

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

(3) WTS: Finite union of closed sets are closed. By induction, suffices to show $\mathbb{V}(f_1, \ldots, f_t) \cup \mathbb{V}(g_1, \ldots, g_s)$ is an algebraic set.

Note:

$$\mathbb{V}(f_1,\ldots,f_t)\cup\mathbb{V}(g_1,\ldots,g_s)=V\big(\{f_ig_j\}_{\substack{i\in\{1,\ldots,t\}\\j\in\{1,\ldots,s\}}}\big).$$

Proof on quiz.

Example 1.10. Zariski topology on k^1 is the cofinite topology. Since k[x] is a PID,

$$V = \mathbb{V}(\langle f_1, \dots, f_t \rangle) = \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 :

$$V = \mathbb{V}\left((f_1, \ldots, f_t)\right) \subseteq k^N.$$

Consider the map

$$\{\text{ideals in } k[x_1, \dots, x_N]\} \longrightarrow \{(\text{affine}) \text{ algebraic subsets of } k^N \}$$
$$I \longmapsto \mathbb{V}(I).$$

• This map is order reversing: $I \subseteq J \implies \mathbb{V}(J) \subseteq \mathbb{V}(I)$.

- Surjective.
- Not injective: e.g., $(x, y), (x^2, y^2)$.

Remark 2.2 (algebra). R commutative ring, $I \subseteq R$ any ideal.

Definition 2.3. The *radical* of *I* is the ideal

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

- Sanity check: show this is an ideal.
- I is *radical* if Rad I = I.

Lemma 2.4. Let $I \subseteq k[x_1, \ldots, x_N]$. Then

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

Proof. $I \subseteq \operatorname{Rad} I \implies \mathbb{V}(\operatorname{Rad} I) \subseteq \mathbb{V}(I)$.

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 $f \in \operatorname{Rad} I \implies f^N \in \operatorname{Rad} I$, so

$$(f(p))^N = f^N(p) = 0 \implies f(p) = 0.$$

Now is the map $I \mapsto \mathbb{V}(I)$ injective?

Example 2.5. $(x^2 + y^2) \in \mathbb{R}[x, y].$

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

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

$$\mathbb{I}(V) = \left\{ f \in k[x_1, \dots, x_N] \mid f(p) = 0 \ \forall p \in V \right\}.$$

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 $\mathbb{I}(V)$. \Box

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 $\mathbb{V}(x^2 + y^2)$ in \mathbb{C}^2 rather than \mathbb{R}^2 :

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

2.2. Hilbert's Nullstellensatz.

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

$$\{\text{radical ideals in } k[x_1, \dots, x_N]\} \longleftrightarrow \{\text{affine algebraic subsets of } k^N\}$$
$$I \longmapsto \mathbb{V}(I)$$
$$\mathbb{I}(V) \longleftrightarrow V.$$

Remark 2.11. Points in affine space k^N correspond to maximal ideals in the polynomial ring $k[x_1, \ldots, x_N]$.

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 $\mathbb{V}(xy, xz) \subset \mathbb{R}^3$.
- Prove Lemma: For $I, J \subseteq k[x_1, \ldots, x_N]$,

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

Proof 1. $I \cap J \subseteq I, J \implies \mathbb{V}(I) \cup \mathbb{V}(J) \subseteq \mathbb{V}(I \cap J).$

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 $fg \in IJ$. Because $p \in \mathbb{V}(I \cap J)$,

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

hence g(p) = 0 and $p \in \mathbb{V}(J)$.

Proof 2.
$$\mathbb{V}(I \cap J) = \mathbb{V}\left(\sqrt{I \cap J}\right) = \mathbb{V}\left(\sqrt{IJ}\right) = \mathbb{V}(IJ) = \mathbb{V}(I) \cup \mathbb{V}(J).$$

2.5. Some commutative algebra. R commutative ring.

- I, J radical $\implies I \cap J$ radical.
- $\mathfrak{p} \subseteq R$ is *prime* \iff R/\mathfrak{p} is a domain \iff if $fg \in \mathfrak{p}$, 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

$$\left\{\text{affine algebraic subsets of } k^N\right\} \xrightarrow{\mathbb{I}} \left\{\text{radical ideals of } k[x_1, \dots, x_N]\right\}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} k^N &\longleftrightarrow 0 \\ \varnothing &\longleftrightarrow (1) = k[x_1, \dots, x_N] \\ \{\text{points}\} &\longleftrightarrow \{\text{maximal ideals}\} \\ (a_1, \dots, a_N) &\longleftrightarrow (x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_N - a_N) \\ \{\text{irreducible algebraic sets}\} &\longleftrightarrow \operatorname{Spec} k[x_1, \dots, x_N] = \{\text{prime ideals}\} \end{aligned}$$

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 $\iff I$ is prime, where I is radical.

Observation 2.16. $I \subseteq k[x_1, \ldots, x_N]$ radical (k not necessarily algebraically closed), write $I = \mathfrak{p}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{p}_t$, where \mathfrak{p}_i are prime (unique!).

$$\mathbb{V}(I) = \mathbb{V}(\mathfrak{p}_1) \cup \cdots \cup \mathbb{V}(\mathfrak{p}_t)$$

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:

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

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, $k = \overline{k}$.

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 , $k[k^N] = k[x_1, \dots, x_N]$.

Remark 3.4. (1) $k = \overline{k} \implies k$ is infinite.

(2) If k is infinite, then there is no ambiguity in the word "polynomial".

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

Example 3.6. Consider $\mathbb{V}(xy-1) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}^2$. Is $\frac{1}{y}$ regular? Yes: $\frac{1}{y} = x$ on $\mathbb{V}(xy-1)$.

Observation 3.7. The restriction map gives a natural ring surjection

$$k[x_1, \dots, x_N] \longrightarrow k[V]$$
$$\varphi \longmapsto \varphi \big|_V$$

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

$$k[V] \cong \frac{k[x_1, \dots, x_N]}{\mathbb{I}(V)}.$$

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 $\iff V$ is irreducible.
- (4) The maximal ideals of k[V] correspond to points of V (need $k = \overline{k}$).

Note 3.8 (commutative algebra). Maximal ideals in $k[V] \cong k[x_1, \ldots, x_N]/\mathbb{I}(V)$ correspond to maximal ideals in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_N]$ 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 φ which agrees with a polynomial map Ψ on the ambient $k^n \longrightarrow k^m$:

$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \xrightarrow{\Psi} (\Psi_1(x), \dots, \Psi_m(x)),$$

where Ψ_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 $\varphi_1, \ldots, \varphi_m \in k[V]$:

$$p \mapsto (\varphi_1(p), \dots, \varphi_m(p)) \in W \subseteq k^m.$$

Example 3.12.

$$k \longrightarrow \mathbb{V}(y - x^2) \subseteq k^2$$
$$t \longmapsto (t, t^2)$$

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

The projection

$$\mathbb{V}(y - x^2) \subseteq k^2 \longrightarrow k$$
$$(x, y) \longmapsto x$$

is the inverse to the map $t \mapsto (t, t^2)$.

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 $\iff \dim V_1 = \dim V_2$.

Example 3.15 (diagonal map). Give $k^n \times k^n$ coordinates $x_1, \ldots, x_n, y_1, \ldots, y_n$.

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

Image is the "diagonal"

$$D = \mathbb{V}(x_1 - y_1, \dots, x_n - y_n) \subseteq k^n \times k^n.$$

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 .

3.4. Category of affine algebraic sets. Key idea: The category of affine algebraic sets over $k = \overline{k}$ 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

$$V \xrightarrow{\varphi} W \xrightarrow{g} k$$
$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \longmapsto (\varphi_1(x), \dots, \varphi_m(x)) \longmapsto g(\varphi_1(x), \dots, \varphi_m(x)) \in k[V],$$

where $\varphi_1, \ldots, \varphi_m$ are polynomials in x_1, \ldots, x_n .

Theorem 3.17. For $k = \overline{k}$, there is an anti-equivalence¹ of categories

$$\begin{cases} affine \ algebraic \ sets \ over \ k \\ with \ regular \ maps \end{cases} \longleftrightarrow \begin{cases} f.g. \ reduced \ k-algebras \ with \\ k-algebra \ homomorphisms \end{cases} \\ V \longmapsto k[V] \\ (V \xrightarrow{\varphi} W) \longmapsto \begin{pmatrix} k[W] \xrightarrow{\varphi^*} k[V] \\ g \longmapsto g \circ \varphi \end{pmatrix} \\ k^n \supseteq \mathbb{V}(I) \longleftrightarrow R \cong \frac{k[x_1, \dots, x_n]}{I}. \end{cases}$$

Proof.

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

$$V \xrightarrow{f} W \xrightarrow{g} X$$

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

$$k[V] \underbrace{ \underbrace{f^*}_{h^*} k[W] \underbrace{g^*}_{h^*} k[X],}_{h^*}$$

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:

$$R = \frac{k[x_1, \dots, x_n]}{I}.$$

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

$$k[V] \cong \frac{k[x_1, \dots, x_n]}{\mathbb{I}(V)} = \frac{k[x_1, \dots, x_n]}{I} = R.$$

What about homomorphisms of k-algebras?

Let $\varphi_i = \varphi(y_i) \in k[V]$ for i = 1, ..., m. This uniquely defines φ . Need to construct

$$k^{n} \supseteq \mathbb{V}(J) \xrightarrow{\Psi} \mathbb{V}(I) \subseteq k^{m}$$
$$x = (x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}) \longmapsto (\varphi_{1}(x), \dots, \varphi_{m}(x)).$$

We have that Ψ is a map $V \longrightarrow k^m$. Need to check that

- (1) the image is in W,
- (2) $\Psi^* = \varphi$.

¹An *anti-equivalence* of categories C, D is an equivalence of C and the opposite category D^{op} .

To check

$$(\varphi_1(x),\ldots,\varphi_m(x)) \in \mathbb{V}(I) = W,$$

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

$$g(\varphi_1(x),\ldots,\varphi_m(x)) = \varphi(g)(x) = 0$$

We have that φ is represented by a map

$$k[y_1, \dots, y_m] \longrightarrow k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$$
$$y_i \longmapsto \varphi_i, \qquad \qquad i = 1, \dots, m.$$

Because φ induces a map of the quotient ring

$$\frac{k[y_1,\ldots,y_m]}{I} \xrightarrow{\varphi} \frac{k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]}{J},$$

 $\widetilde{\varphi}(g) \in J$ 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 $V \mapsto k[V]$.

- 3.5. Sep. 14 quiz question. Consider $k \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{V}(y^2 x^3) \subseteq k^2$ given by $t \longmapsto (t^2, t^3)$.
- Is this a regular map? Bijective? Isomorphism? Describe explicitly the induced φ^* . Inverse:

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

 φ is an isomorphism $\iff \varphi^*$ is an isomorphism.

$$\varphi^* : \frac{k[x, y]}{(y^2 - x^3)} \longrightarrow k[t]$$
$$x \longmapsto t^2$$
$$y \longmapsto t^3$$

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 $k = \overline{k}$. Fix $V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ affine algebraic set.

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

Proof. Follows immediately from the Nullstellensatz in \mathbb{A}^n :

{affine algebraic sets in V} \longleftrightarrow {radical ideals in $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ containing $\mathbb{I}(V)$ }

$$\longleftrightarrow \left\{ \text{radical ideals in } \frac{k[x_1, \dots, x_n]}{\mathbb{I}(V)} \right\} = \left\{ \text{radical ideals in } k[V] \right\}.$$

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 $V = \mathbb{A}^n$, $k[V] = k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. Then

$$k(V) = k(x_1, \ldots, x_n),$$

i.e., rational functions.

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

$$\frac{f}{g} \sim \frac{f'}{g'} \iff fg' = gf'$$

as elements of k[V].

Example 4.4. In $\mathbb{V}(xy - z^2) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^3$, x/z is a rational function. Moreover, z/y is the same rational function:

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

because $xy = z^2$ 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 φ is regular.

Example 4.8. In $\mathbb{V}(xy-z^2) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^3$ 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 φ , so $U \neq \emptyset$.

Take any $q \in U$. So I can write $\varphi = \frac{h_1}{h_2}$, where $h_2(q) \neq 0$. Now $U' := V - \mathbb{V}(h_2) \subseteq V$ is an open subset of V, and $q \in U' \subseteq U$.

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

$$\mathcal{O}_V(U_2) \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_V(U_1)$$
$$\varphi \longmapsto \varphi \big|_{U_1}.$$

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

$$k(V) \supseteq \mathcal{O}_V(V) \supseteq k[V]$$
$$\frac{f}{1} \longleftrightarrow f$$

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 $\{g_p\}_{p \in V}$.

Note 4.14. $\mathbb{V}(\mathfrak{a}) \subseteq V$ is *empty*, so by the Nullstellensatz, $1 \in \operatorname{Rad}(\mathfrak{a}) \implies 1 \in \mathfrak{a}$.

So we can write

$$1 = r_1 g_1 + \dots + r_t g_t$$

for some $g_i = g_{p_i}$ in $k[V] \subseteq k(V), r_i \in k[V]$. Hence

$$\varphi = r_1 \varphi g_1 + \dots + r_t \varphi g_t.$$

But $\varphi g_i = f_i$, so

$$\varphi = r_1 f_1 + \dots + r_t f_t \in k[V].$$

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 $\mathbb{P}_k^n = \mathbb{P}(k^{n+1}).$

Example 5.2. $\mathbb{P}^1_k = \mathbb{P}(k^2) = \{1 \text{-dimensional subspaces of } k^2\} = \{\text{lines through } (0,0) \text{ in } k^2\}.$

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, $\mathbb{P}^1_{\mathbb{R}}$ is homeomorphic to a circle, and $\mathbb{P}^1_{\mathbb{C}}$ is the Riemann sphere.

Example 5.3. $\mathbb{P}^2_k = \mathbb{P}(k^3) = k^2 \sqcup \mathbb{P}^1_k$.

5.2. Homogeneous coordinates. In \mathbb{P}_k^n , represent each point $p = [a_0 : a_1 : \cdots : a_n]$ 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 $[b_0 : \cdots : b_n]$ represents the same point in \mathbb{P}^n iff $\exists k \neq 0$ such that

$$(kb_0, \dots, kb_n) = (a_0, \dots, a_n).$$
 (5.1)

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

Note 5.4. If $k = \mathbb{R}$, this gives $\mathbb{P}^n_{\mathbb{R}}$ 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 $U_j = \{ [x_0 : \cdots : x_n] \mid x_j \neq 0 \} \cong k^n$ 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 $\mathbb{P}^n \setminus U_0 = \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ the "part at infinity".

(1) If $k = \mathbb{R}$, then $\mathbb{P}^n_{\mathbb{R}}$ is a smooth manifold. Exercise 5.6.

(2) If $k = \mathbb{C}$, then $\mathbb{P}^n_{\mathbb{C}}$ 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" (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) , i.e., parametrize as

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a_1t\\ \vdots\\ a_nt \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_1\\ \vdots\\ b_n \end{pmatrix} \middle| t \in k \right\}.$$

Show that there is a unique point in \mathbb{P}^n "at infinity" on this line, with coordinates $[0:a_1:\cdots:a_n]$. *Example* 5.8. In $\mathbb{R}^n \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^2_{\mathbb{R}}$, 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 $\mathbb{V}(xy-1) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$. In \mathbb{P}^2 , we can "add in" two points at ∞ 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 $[x_0 : \cdots : x_n]$.

Look at $F \in k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$.

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 $F \in k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ is homogeneous of degree d, then

$$F(tx_0,\ldots,tx_n) = t^d F(x_0,\ldots,x_n).$$

Proof. Write

$$F = \sum_{|I|=d} a_I x_0^{i_0} \dots x_n^{i_n}, \qquad a_I \in k.$$

Check for each monomial.

Definition 5.12 (projective algebraic set). A *projective algebraic subset* of \mathbb{P}^n_k is the common zero set of a collection of *homogeneous* polynomials in $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$.

Example 5.13. $V = \mathbb{V}(x^2 + y^2 - z^2) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$ is a cone; it consists of a set of lines through the origin. In the chart $U_x = \{[1:y:z]\}$, the equation for $V \cap U_x = \mathbb{V}(1 + y^2 - z^2) \subseteq k^2$ is a hyperbola. In the chart $U_z, V \cap U_z = \mathbb{V}(x^2 + y^2 - 1) \subseteq k^2$ is a circle.

5.5. Projective algebraic sets, continued. Let $\{F_{\lambda}\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \subseteq k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ be a collection of ho*mogeneous* polynomials.

Note 5.14. The affine algebraic set $V = \mathbb{V}(\{F_{\lambda}\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{n+1}$ 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

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

Note 5.16. $\mathbb{P}(W) = \mathbb{V}(L_1, \ldots, L_t) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$, where $L_i = \sum_{j=0}^n a_{ij} x_j$ are a set of linear functionals in V^* which define W.

- *Example* 5.17 (Some special cases). W is one-dimensional $\implies \mathbb{P}(W)$ is a point. W is 2-dimensional $\implies \mathbb{P}(W)$ 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,

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

Definition 5.20 (homogeneous ideal). An ideal $I \subseteq k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ is *homogeneous* if it admits a set of generators consisting of homogeneous polynomials.

Example 5.21. $I = (x^3 - y^2, y^2 - z, z)$ is homogeneous because $I = (x^3, y^2, z)$.

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 $\mathbb{I}(V) \subseteq k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ generated by all *homogeneous polynomials* which vanish at every point of V.

Note 5.24. Given a homogeneous ideal $I \subseteq k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$, 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 $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$.

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 $k = \overline{k}$:

$$\{ projective \ algebraic \ sets \ in \ \mathbb{P}^n \} \longleftrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{c} radical \ homogeneous \ ideals \\ in \ k[x_0, \dots, x_n] \ except \ for \\ (x_0, \dots, x_n) \end{array} \right\}$$

We call (x_0, \ldots, x_n) the *irrelevant ideal*.

In general, the Zariski topology in \mathbb{P}^n restricts to the Zariski topology in each affine chart:

$$\mathbb{P}^n \supseteq V = \mathbb{V}\big(F_1(x_0, \dots, x_n), \dots, F_t(x_0, \dots, x_n)\big)$$
$$\supseteq V \cap U_i = \mathbb{V}\big(F_0(t_0, \dots, 1, \dots, t_n), \dots, F_t(t_0, \dots, 1, \dots, t_n)\big),$$

where the coordinates are given by

$$U_i \longrightarrow k^n$$
$$[x_0 : \dots : x_i : \dots : x_n] \longmapsto \left(\frac{x_0}{x_i}, \dots, \hat{i}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_i}\right).$$

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 $V = \mathbb{V}(xy - 1) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^2$:

$$\overline{V} = \overline{\mathbb{V}(xy-1)} = \mathbb{V}(xy-z^2) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$$

Look at $\overline{V} \cap U_z = V$.

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

$$\overline{V} \cap \mathbb{V}(z) = \mathbb{V}(xy - z^2, z) = \mathbb{Z}(xy, z) = \{[1:0:0], [0:1:0]\} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2.$$

Definition 5.29. Given a polynomial $f \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, its *homogenization* is the polynomial $F \in k[X_0, \ldots, X_n]$ obtained as follows: If f has degree d, write

$$f = \sum a_I x_1^{i_1} \dots x_n^{i_n} = f_d + f_{d-1} + f_{d-2} + \dots + f_0,$$

where f_i is the homogeneous component of degree *i*. Then

$$F = f_d + X_0 f_{d-1} + \dots + X_0^2 f_{d-2} + \dots + X_0^d f_0.$$

Caution 5.30. Given $V = \mathbb{V}(f_1, \ldots, f_t) \subseteq k^n$, the projective closure \overline{V} in \mathbb{P}^n is not necessarily defined by the homogenization of the f_i .

For example:

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

so it has exactly one point at infinity, [0:0:0:1].

Consider $I = (z - xy, y - x^2)$.

Exercise 5.31. Show $\mathbb{V}(zw - xy, yw - x^2) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^3$ is *not* the projective closure of the twisted cubic.

6. MAPPINGS OF PROJECTIVE SPACE

6.1. Example: Second Veronese embedding.

$$\mathbb{P}^1 \xrightarrow{\nu_2} \mathbb{P}^2 [x:y] \longmapsto [x^2, xy, y^2]$$

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

$$[tx:ty] \longmapsto \left[(tx)^2 : (tx)(ty) : (ty)^2 \right] = \left[t^2 x^2 : t^2 xy : t^2 y^2 \right] = \left[x^2 : xy : y^2 \right].$$

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 "2nd Veronese embedding of \mathbb{P}^1 in \mathbb{P}^2 ." In general, the *d-th Veronese map*

$$\nu_d : \mathbb{P}^1 \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^d$$
$$[x : y] \longmapsto \left[x^d : x^{d-1}y : yx^{d-1} : y^d \right]$$

Look at ν_2 in *charts* of $\mathbb{P}^1 = U_x \cup U_y$:

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

We have

$$U_y \xrightarrow{\nu_2} U_2 = \mathbb{A}^2$$
$$[x:1] \longmapsto [x^2:x:1]$$
$$\mathbb{A}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^2$$
$$t \longmapsto (t^2, t).$$

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 ν_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:

$$\nu_3 : \mathbb{P}^1 \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^3$$

$$[x:y] \longmapsto [x^3: x^2y: xy^2: y^3]$$

$$\mathbb{A}^1 = U_x \longrightarrow U_0 = \{[1:x:y:z]\} = \mathbb{A}^3$$

$$t = \frac{y}{x} \longmapsto [1:t:t^2:t^3] = (t,t^2,t^3)$$

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

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

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

$$[x:y] = [xy:y^2] = [xy:xz] = [y:z].$$

So φ is a well-defined map of sets.

Cover V by open sets, each identified with an affine algebraic set: $V \cap U_x$ and $V \cap U_z$.

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

So φ 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 $H = \mathbb{V}(x_0) = \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ and $p = [1:0:\cdots:0] \notin H$.

Definition 6.2. The *projection* from p to H is the map

$$\Pi_p: \mathbb{P}^n - \{p\} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n-1}H \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$$
$$x \longmapsto \overleftarrow{\ell p} \cap H,$$

where $\overleftarrow{\ell p}$ is the unique line through p and x.

Question: How does this look in local charts on \mathbb{P}^n ?

$$\mathbb{P}^n - \{ [1:0:\cdots:0] \} \xrightarrow{\Pi_p} \mathbb{P}^{n-1} = \mathbb{V}(x_0) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$$
$$U_0 \ni [1:\lambda_1:\cdots:\lambda_n] \longmapsto [\lambda_1:\cdots:\lambda_n]$$

We have

$$\ell = \left\{ \left[1: t\lambda_1: \dots: t\lambda_n\right] \mid t \in k \right\} = \left\{ \left[\frac{1}{t}, \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_n\right] \mid t \in k \right\} \ni \left[0, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n\right]$$

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

$$\mathbb{A}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^{n-1}$$
$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) \longmapsto (x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$$

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 $\overline{V} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$, and if $\mathbb{I}(V) \subseteq k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is the ideal of V, then $\mathbb{I}(\overline{V}) \subseteq k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ 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 $\forall i = 0, ..., n$, 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 quasi-projective varieties:

$$V = \overline{V} \cap U_0 \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n = U_0 \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$$

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

Example 7.3 (An abstract variety).

 $\mathfrak{M}_q = \{ \text{moduli space of compact Riemann surfaces} \}$

= {moduli space of smooth projective varieties/ \mathbb{C} of dimension 1}

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 $\mathbb{P}^2 = \mathbb{P}(k^3)$ can be viewed as $\mathbb{P}((k^3)^*)$.

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

$$W \cap U_i = (V \cap U \cap U_i) = (V \cap U_i) \cap (U \cap U_i) \subseteq V_i = V \cap U_i \subseteq U_i = \mathbb{A}^n,$$

and $(V \cap U_i) \cap (U \cap U_i)$ 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:

$$V - \mathbb{V}(g_1, \ldots, g_r) = U \subseteq V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$$

for $g_i \in k[V]$, then

$$U = \bigcup_{i=1}^{r} (V - \mathbb{V}(g_i)).$$

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 $p \in U' \subseteq U$ such that $\varphi|_U$ is regular on U.

Equivalently, $\varphi: U \longrightarrow k$ is regular $\iff \varphi |_{U \cap U_i}$ is regular on $U \cap U_i \ \forall i = 0, \dots, n^2$.

Example 7.8. X_0, X_1 in $k[X_0, X_1, X_2]$ are not functions on \mathbb{P}^2 . But the ratio $\frac{X_1}{X_0}$ is a well-defined function on $\mathbb{P}^2 - \mathbb{V}(X_0) = U_0$.

Example 7.9. $\varphi = \frac{X_j}{X_i} = t_j$ (the "j-th coordinate function") is a regular function on $\mathbb{P}^n \setminus \mathbb{V}(X_i) =$ $U_i \longleftrightarrow k^n$ in coordinates $\frac{X_0}{X_i}, \ldots, \frac{X_n}{X_i}$.

How does this look in U_{κ} ? U_{κ} has coordinates $\frac{X_0}{X_{\kappa}}, \ldots, \frac{X_n}{X_{\kappa}}$, denoted $t_0, \ldots, \hat{t_{\kappa}}, \ldots, t_n$. 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 $U_{\kappa} \setminus \mathbb{V}(t_i) = U_i \cap U_{\kappa}$.

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 $\mathcal{O}_W(U) = \text{ring of regular functions on } U$.

Example 7.11. $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n}(\mathbb{P}^n) = k$. So if $n \ge 1$, then \mathbb{P}^n is not affine!

7.4. Main example of regular functions in projective space. Let $F, G \in k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ be homogeneous of the same degree. Then $\varphi = \frac{F}{G}$ is a well-defined functions on $\mathbb{P}^n \setminus \mathbb{V}(G)$:

$$\frac{F(tx_0, \dots, tx_n)}{G(tx_0, \dots, tx_n)} = \frac{t^d F(x_0, \dots, x_n)}{t^d G(x_0, \dots, x_n)} = \frac{F(x_0, \dots, x_n)}{G(x_0, \dots, x_n)}$$

Moreover, φ is regular on $\mathcal{U} := [\mathbb{P}^n \setminus \mathbb{V}(G)].$

We now check this. It suffices to check that $\varphi|_{\mathcal{U}\cap U_i}$ (for $i = 0, \ldots, 1$) is regular on $U_i \cap \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ $U_i = \mathbb{A}^n$.

Lemma 7.12. If $F \in k[X_0, \ldots, X_n]$ is homogeneous of degree d, then

$$\frac{F}{X_i^d} = F\left(\frac{X_0}{X_i}, \frac{X_1}{X_i}, \dots, 1, \frac{X_{i+1}}{X_i}, \dots, \frac{X_n}{X_i}\right)$$

Proof. Comes down to checking for $X_0^{\alpha_0} \dots X_n^{\alpha_n}$ (with $\sum \alpha_i = d$):

$$\frac{X_0^{\alpha_0}\dots X_n^{\alpha_n}}{X_i^d} = \prod_{j=0}^n \left(\frac{X_j}{X_i}\right)^{\alpha_0}.$$

Now we have

$$\varphi\big|_{U_i} = \frac{F}{G} = \frac{F/x_i^d}{G/x_i^d} = \frac{F\left(\frac{x_0}{x_i}, \dots, 1, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_i}\right)}{G\left(\frac{x_0}{x_i}, \dots, 1, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_i}\right)} = \frac{f(t_0, \dots, \hat{t_i}, \dots, t_n)}{g(t_0, \dots, \hat{t_i}, t_n)}$$

is a rational function on $\mathbb{A}^n = U_i$, regular on $[\mathbb{A}^n \setminus \mathbb{V}(g)] = U_i \cap (\mathbb{P}^n \setminus \mathbb{V}(G))$. So φ is regular on $\mathcal{U}.$

 ${}^{2}W = \widetilde{U} \cap V \implies U \subseteq W$ is $\widetilde{\widetilde{U}} \cap \widetilde{U} \cap V = U$, and $(\widetilde{\widetilde{U}} \cap \widetilde{U} \cap V) \cap U_{i}$ is open in $V \cap U_{i}$, which is affine.

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 φ restricts to a map

$$U \longrightarrow Y \cap U_i \subseteq U_i$$
$$z \longmapsto (\varphi_1(z), \dots, \varphi_n(z))$$

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

$$\mathbb{P}^n \xrightarrow{\nu_d} \mathbb{P}^m$$
$$[x_0 : \dots : x_n] \longmapsto \left[x_0^d : x_0^{d-1} x_1 : \dots : x_n^d \right],$$

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 :

$$\mathbb{P}^n \setminus \{p\} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n-1} = H$$
$$[x_0 : \dots : x_n] \longmapsto [x_1 : \dots : x_n].$$

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

$$\mathbb{P}^1 \xrightarrow{\nu_d} C_d \subseteq \mathbb{P}^d$$
$$[s:t] \longmapsto \left[s^d: s^{d-1}t: \cdots: st^{d-1}: t^d\right] = [x_0: \cdots: x_d].$$

Fact 8.2. ν_d is an isomorphism $\mathbb{P}^1 \cong C_d$. The inverse map is

$$C_d \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^1$$
$$[x_0:\dots:x_d] \longmapsto \begin{cases} [x_0:x_1] & \text{if } x_1 \neq 0, \\ [x_{d-1}:x_d] & \text{if } x_1 = 0. \end{cases}$$

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 $V = \mathbb{V}(F_d) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$, 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.

$$\mathbb{V}(F_d) \cap \mathbb{V}(x_2, \dots, x_n) = \mathbb{V}(F_d, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \mathbb{V}(\overline{F_d}) \subseteq L = \mathbb{V}(x_2, \dots, x_n) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$$

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

Objects: (irreducible) locally closed subspaces of \mathbb{P}^n (all n) over fixed $k = \overline{k}$.

Morphisms: Map of sets $\mathbb{P}^n \supseteq X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^m$ such that on sufficiently small open subsets of $X_i = X \cap U_i \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$, $\varphi|_U$ 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, $\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus \mathbb{A}^2$ is one line at infinity, but

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

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) $\sigma : \mathbb{P}^n \times \mathbb{P}^m \hookrightarrow \Sigma \subseteq \mathbb{P}^?$, where Σ is a (*closed*) projective algebraic set, and σ is compatible with the identification $A^n \times A^m = A^{m+n} \xrightarrow{\sigma} \sigma(\mathbb{A}^{m+n})$ 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 σ to a *linear space* of the same dimension in $\mathbb{P}^?$.

Example 8.6.

$$\mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1 \xrightarrow{\sigma_{11}} \mathbb{P}^3$$
$$([x:y], [z:w]) \longmapsto [xz:xw:yz:yw]$$

The image of σ_{11} is $\mathbb{V}(X_0X_3 - X_1X_2)$. On $U_x \times U_z = \mathbb{A}^1 \times \mathbb{A}^1 = \mathbb{A}^2$:

$$\mathbb{A}^2 = \mathbb{A}^1 \times \mathbb{A}^1 \xrightarrow{\simeq} \mathbb{V}(xy - z) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^3$$
$$((1,t), (1,s)) \longmapsto [1:t:s:ts]$$

Also,

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

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

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

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

$$([x_{0}:\cdots:x_{n}], [y_{0}:\cdots:y_{m}]) \longmapsto \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_{0} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n} \end{bmatrix}}_{(n+1)\times(m+1) \text{ matrix}} \mathbb{P}(\operatorname{Mat}_{k}(n+1,m+1)).$$

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 ≤ 1 .
- (5) All 2×2 subdeterminants of A are zero.

Writing the matrix coordinates as $\begin{bmatrix} z_{00} & \dots & z_{0m} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ z_{n} & z_{n} & z_{n} \end{bmatrix}$,

$$\Sigma_{nm} = \mathbb{V} \left(\text{determinant of } 2 \times 2 \text{ minors of } \begin{bmatrix} z_{00} & \dots & z_{0m} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ z_{n0} & \dots & z_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \right).$$

The projections $\Sigma \xrightarrow{\pi_1} \mathbb{P}^n$, $\Sigma \xrightarrow{\pi_2} \mathbb{P}^m$ are given by

 $p = [z_{ij}] \xrightarrow{\pi_1}$ any column of p,

and likewise, π_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 σ_{nm} :

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

This gives $X \times Y$ a Zariski topology!

How do the closed sets look?

Definition 8.10. A polynomial $F \in k[x_0, \ldots, x_n, y_0, \ldots, y_m]$ 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 $F \in k[x_0, \ldots, x_n, y_0, \ldots, y_m]$ 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 $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n, y_0, \ldots, y_m]$.

Example 8.14. The Zariski topology on $\mathbb{P}^n \times \mathbb{A}^n$ with coordinates $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n, y_1, \ldots, y_m]$ has closed sets exactly of the form

$$\mathbb{V}\left(\left\{F_{\lambda}(x_0,\ldots,x_n,y_1,\ldots,y_m)\right\}_{\lambda\in\Lambda}\right),\$$

where F_{λ} 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: $F = L_1L_2$, where $\lambda L_1 \neq L_2$. Then $\mathbb{V}(F) = \mathbb{V}(L_1) \cup \mathbb{V}(L_2)$. Think of this as the limit as $t \to 0$ of a family of nondegenerate conics

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

Degenerate, double line: $F = L_1^2$. Then $\mathbb{V}(F) = \mathbb{V}(L_1^2)$. Think of this as the limit as $t \to 0$ of a family of degenerate conics

 $\mathbb{V}(y(y-tx)) = \mathbb{V}(y) \cup \mathbb{V}(y-tx) \subset \mathbb{A}^2.$

This line $\mathbb{V}(y^2)$ is one line "counted twice". This is a scheme, but not a variety.

Every conic is uniquely described by its equation $F \in [k[x, y, z]]_2$.³ Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{P}(k^3)$ be a conic. We have a correspondence

$$C = \mathbb{V} \left(Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 + Dxz + Eyz + Fz^2 \right) \longleftrightarrow \left[A : B : C : D : E : F \right]$$
$$\left\{ \text{conics in } \mathbb{P}(k^3) \right\} \longleftrightarrow \mathbb{P} \left(\text{Sym}^2 \left((k^3)^* \right) \right) = \mathbb{P}^5.$$

Moreover, we have proper inclusions of closed subvarieties

$$D_2 = \{\text{double lines}\} \subsetneqq D_1 = \{\text{pairs of lines}\} \subsetneqq \{\text{all conics in } \mathbb{P}(k^3)\} = \mathbb{P}\left(\text{Sym}^2\left((k^3)^*\right)\right).$$

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

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

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

$$C = \mathbb{V}(\underbrace{Ax^2 + Bxy + \dots + Fz^2}_{G})$$

passing through $p \iff G(p) = 0 \iff Au^2 + Buv + Cv^2 + Dut + Evt + Ft^2 = 0$, which is a linear equation L in the homogeneous coordinates A, B, C, D, E, F for $\mathbb{P}^5 = \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^2\left((k^3)^*\right)\right)$. 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.

 $^{{}^{3}[}k[x, y, z]]_{2} = \operatorname{Sym}^{2}((k^{3})^{*})$ denotes the vector space of degree 2 homogeneous polynomials, i.e., the 2nd component of the graded ring k[x, y, z].

KAREN SMITH

9. PARAMETER SPACES

9.1. Example: Hypersurfaces of fixed degree. Recall:

 $\{\text{conics in } \mathbb{P}^2\} \longleftrightarrow \{\text{their homogeneous equations up to scalar multiple}\}$

$$\longleftrightarrow \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{2}\left((k^{3})^{*}\right)\right) = \left\{\operatorname{deg} 2 \text{ homogeneous polynomials in 3 variables}\right\}/\operatorname{scalars} = \left[k[x, y, z]\right]_{2}/\operatorname{scalars} = \operatorname{Sym}^{2}\left((k^{3})^{*}\right)/\operatorname{scalars}$$

Similarly:

$$\{ \text{hypersurface of degree } d \text{ in } \mathbb{P}^n \} \longleftrightarrow \{ \text{their equations up to scalar multiple} \}$$

$$\mathbb{V}(\underbrace{Ax_0^d + Bx_0^{d-1}x_1 + \dots +}_{\text{``homog. degree } d \text{ in } x_0, \dots, x_n \text{''}}^{\mathbb{V}}) = \mathbb{P}^{\binom{n+d}{n}-1}$$

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\text{Sym}^d\left((k^{n+1})^* \right) \right) = \mathbb{P}^{\binom{n+d}{n}-1}$$

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 $\mathbb{P}(\text{Sym}^2((k^3)^*)) = \text{set of conics in } \mathbb{P}^2$. Does " $\mathbb{V}(F)$ " $\longleftrightarrow [A : B : C : D : E : F]$ factor or not?

$$F = Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 + Dxz + Eyz + Fz^2$$

factors \iff

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} A & \frac{1}{2}B & \frac{1}{2}D\\ \frac{1}{2}B & C & \frac{1}{2}E\\ \frac{1}{2}D & \frac{1}{2}E & F = 0. \end{bmatrix}$$

The subset where the conic degenerates into 2 lines is

UI

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

Now we have

{hypersurface of degree d in \mathbb{P}^n } \longleftrightarrow {their equations up to scalar multiple}

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^{d}\left((k^{n+1})^{*}\right)\right) = \mathbb{P}^{\binom{n+d}{n}-1}$$

 $\cup \mid \operatorname{closed}$

{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 $(\deg i)(\deg d - i)$.

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 $\mathbb{P}(\text{Sym}^d(V^*))$.

Proof. It suffices to show each $X_i = \{F = F_i F_{d-i}\}$ is closed and proper. Consider

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathrm{Sym}^{i}(V^{*})\right) \times \mathbb{P}\left(\mathrm{Sym}^{d-i}(V^{*})\right) \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}\left(\mathrm{Sym}^{d}(V^{*})\right)$$
$$(F,G) \longmapsto FG,$$

where F, G are homogeneous of degrees i, d - i, respectively, in x_0, \ldots, x_n .

Easy to check: φ 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 φ 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:

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

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 φ 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 $\varphi|_W : W \longrightarrow X$ has the property that $\varphi|_W(W)$ is closed, thus $\varphi(W) = \varphi|_W(W)$ 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 \emptyset) or $\varphi(V) = \mathbb{P}^1$. Since φ is an actual map into $k \subsetneq \mathbb{P}^1$, $\varphi(V)$ must be a finite set of points. But V is irreducible, so $\varphi(V)$ is a single point. \Box

10.2. **Preliminary: Graphs.** Fix any regular map of quasi-projective varieties $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$.

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

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

Proposition 10.5. Γ_{φ} 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 φ 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 Γ_{φ} 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

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

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

Because Δ is closed, so is Γ_{φ} .

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

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

which is a regular map. It suffices to prove that $\pi(\Gamma_{\varphi})$ 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

$$Z = \mathbb{V}(g_1(x_0, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_m), \dots, g_t(x_0, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_m))$$

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. $(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m) \in \mathbb{A}^m$ is in $\pi(Z)$ iff

$$arnothing
eq \mathbb{V}ig(g_1(x_0,\ldots,x_n,\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_m),\ldots,g_t(x_0,\ldots,x_n,\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_m)ig) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$$

iff (by the projective Nullstellensatz)

$$\operatorname{Rad}(g_1(x,\lambda),\ldots,g_t(x,\lambda)) \not\supseteq (x_0,\ldots,x_n)$$

iff

$$(g_1(x,\lambda),\ldots,g_t(x,\lambda)) \not\supseteq (x_0,\ldots,x_n)^T \quad \forall T.$$

So we need to show: The set L_T of all $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m) \in \mathbb{A}^m$ such that

$$(x_0,\ldots,x_n)^T \nsubseteq (g_1(x,\lambda),\ldots,g_t(x,\lambda))$$

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:

$$(x_0, \dots, x_n)^T \subseteq (g_1(x, \lambda), \dots, g_t(x, \lambda))$$
 in $k[x_0, \dots, x_n]$

Look in degree T part of $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$:

$$[k[x_0,\ldots,x_n]]_T \subseteq [(g_1,\ldots,g_n)]_T$$

Basis here is $\left\{x_0^{i_0}\cdots x_n^{i_n}\right\}_{\sum i_k=T}$.

Spanning set for the σ -dimensional $[(g_1, \ldots, g_n)]$ = subvector space of degree T elements in $(g_1(x, \lambda), \ldots, g_t(x, \lambda))$:

$$\{g_J\} = \left\{ g_i(x,\lambda) \cdot x_0^{j_0} \cdots x_n^{j_n} \mid \deg(g_i) = d_i, \ \sum j_\ell = T - d_i, \ i = 1, \dots, t \right\}.$$

Write a matrix with the coefficient x^{I} in g_{J} in the (IJ)-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 $\{x_1, \ldots, x_d\}$ 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].

Note 11.2. Function fields of U_g and V are the same field.

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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 $V \cap U_i \neq \emptyset$.

Question: Why is this independent of the choice of U_i ?

 $V_i = V \cap U_i = \{ [x_0 : \dots : x_n] \mid x_i \neq 0 \}$ is an affine variety in $U_i = \mathbb{A}^n$. Then $k[V_i]$ is generated by (the restrictions of) the *actual* functions on U_i

$$\frac{x_0}{x_i}, \frac{x_1}{x_i}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_i},$$

and likewise for $k[V_j]$. 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 $k[V_i] \subseteq k(V_j)$, hence $k(V_i) \subseteq k(V_j)$. By symmetry, $k(V_j) = k(V_i)$.

Definition 11.4 (function field of a quasi-projective variety). The function field of a quasiprojective variety V is $k(\overline{V})$, where \overline{V} is the closure of $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^m$.

Equivalently, it is the function field of any $V \cap U_i$ (such that $V \cap U_i \neq \emptyset$) 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. dim $\mathbb{A}^n = n$
 - $\dim \mathbb{P}^n = n$
 - $\dim(X \times Y) = \dim X + \dim Y$
 - 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 φ is finite on each affine chart.

Theorem 11.8. If $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$ is a regular map, finite, then dim $X = \dim Y$.

Proof. Reduce to the affine case: $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$ finite $\iff k[Y] \xrightarrow{\varphi^*} k[X]$ is an integral extension. \Box 11.4. Noether normalization. Take some $p \notin V$. Then

$$\mathbb{D}^n - \xrightarrow{\pi_p} \mathbb{D}^{n-1} - \xrightarrow{\pi_{p_2}} \mathbb{D}^{n-2} - \xrightarrow{\pi_p} \cdots \xrightarrow{\pi_p} \mathbb{D}^d$$

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

Intersect with $U_0 = \mathbb{A}^n$:

$$V \cap \mathbb{A}^n \twoheadrightarrow V_1 \cap A_1 \twoheadrightarrow \ldots \twoheadrightarrow V_{n-d} \cap \mathbb{A}^n = \mathbb{A}^d.$$

This induces the pullback

$$\frac{k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]}{\mathbb{I}(V)} \xleftarrow{\text{finite int.}} k[y_1,\ldots,y_d],$$

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: dim V = transcendence degree of k(V) over k.

The dimension of a point is 0, since $k(\{p\}) = k$.

The dimension of the variety $\mathbb{V}(xy - zw) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^{2 \times 2}$ of 2×2 matrices over k of determinant 0:

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

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 $w \mapsto 0$ is infinite.

Claim 11.11. Let t = x - y. Then $k[z, w, t] \stackrel{i}{\hookrightarrow} k[x, y, w, z]/(xy - zw)$, 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: $x^2 - tx - zw = 0$ in k[x, y, z, w]/(xy - zw).

11.6. Facts about dimension. Fix V irreducible quasi-projective variety.

Fact 11.12. If $U \subseteq V$ is open and nonempty, then dim $U = \dim V$.

Fact 11.13. If $Y \subsetneq V$ is a proper closed subset, then dim $Y < \dim V$.

Fact 11.14. Every component of a hypersurface $\mathbb{V}(F)$ in \mathbb{A}^n (or \mathbb{P}^n) 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

$$f = x_n^d + a_1 x_n^{d-1} + \dots + a_d$$

where $a_i \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}]$. Easy to see: x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1} are a transcendence basis over k for

$$\frac{k(x_1,\ldots,x_n)}{(f)}.$$

Fact 11.15. Every codimension 1 subvariety of \mathbb{A}^n (or \mathbb{P}^n) is a hypersurface.

Proof. Let $X \subsetneq \mathbb{A}^n$ have codimension 1. Let $\mathbb{I}(X) \subsetneq k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$, 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,

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

and since dim $\mathbb{V}(F) = n - 1$, we have dim $\mathbb{V}(\mathbb{I}(x)) < n - 1$.

Fact 11.16. If $X \longrightarrow Y$ is finite, then dim $X = \dim Y$.

Fact 11.17. If $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ is projective, then V has dim $d \iff V \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{P}^d$ 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 $\mathbb{V}(L_0, \ldots, L_m)$, then

$$[x_0:\cdots:x_n]\longmapsto [L_0:\cdots:L_m]$$

gives a *finite map* when restricted to any projective variety $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$, whose disjoint union forms a linear space $\mathbb{V}(L_0, \ldots, L_m)$.

11.7. Dimension of hyperplane sections.

Definition 11.19. A hyperplane section of X is $X \cap H$, where $H = \mathbb{V}(a_0 x_0 + \cdots + a_n x_n) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ is a hyperplane.

Theorem 11.20. dim $(X \cap H)$ = 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 $\dim(X \cap H) < \dim X$, or more specifically,

 $X \cap H = (X_1 \cap H) \cup \dots \cup (X_t \cap H),$

and each $X_i \cap H \stackrel{\subseteq}{\neq} X_i$.

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.

$$\begin{aligned} & \{\text{hyperplanes on } \mathbb{P}^n = \mathbb{P}(V) \} \longleftrightarrow \mathbb{P}(V^*) \\ & \cup \mathbb{I} & & \cup \mathbb{N} \\ & \{\text{hyperplanes through } p_i \} \longleftrightarrow H_{p_i} = \mathbb{V}(L_i) \end{aligned}$$

So

{hyperplanes not containing
$$p_1, \ldots, p_t$$
} = $\mathbb{P}(V^*) \setminus {\mathbb{V}(L_1) \cup \cdots \cup \mathbb{V}(L_t)}$.

Back to Theorem 11.20, we have

 $d = \dim X_0 > \dim X_1 >$ $\dim X_2$. . . 0 >>

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Want to show the dimension drops by 1 each time. If not, after d steps, get \emptyset . So the linear space $\mathbb{P}(W) = \mathbb{V}(L_1, \ldots, L_d) \cap X = \emptyset$. Project from $\mathbb{P}(W)$:

$$\mathbb{P}^{n} \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{P}^{d-1}$$
$$[x_{0}:\cdots:x_{n}] \longmapsto [L_{1}(x):\cdots:L_{d}(x)]$$
$$X \xrightarrow{\pi}_{\text{finite!}} X'$$

 $\implies \dim X = \dim X' \leq (d-1)$, a contradiction. Hence $\dim X = d$.

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 $V \twoheadrightarrow \mathbb{P}^d$.
- (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:

$$V = V_d \supseteq V_{d-1} \supseteq V_{d-2} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq V_1 \supseteq V_0 = \{\text{point}\}.$$

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 $\{f^{-1}(y)\}_{u\in Y}$.

Example 12.2. $X = \mathbb{V}(xy - z) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^3$,

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

Then

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

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

$$H = \mathbb{V}(A_0 X_0 + \dots + A_n X_n) \longleftrightarrow \{A_0 X_0 + A_1 X_1 + \dots + A_n X_n\} / \text{scalar values}.$$

12.2. Incidence correspondences. Consider the "incidence correspondence"

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

Putting coordinates $[X_0, \ldots, X_n]$ on $\mathbb{P}(V)$ and $[A_0, \ldots, A_n]$ on $\mathbb{P}(V^*)$, we have

$$\mathscr{X} = \mathbb{V}(A_0 X_0 + \dots + A_n X_n) \xrightarrow{\pi} (\mathbb{P}^n)^*$$
$$\pi^{-1}([A_0 : \dots : A_n]) = \mathbb{V}(A_0 X_0 + \dots + A_n X_n) \longmapsto [A_0, \dots, A_n]$$

Theorem 12.4. Let $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ be a surjective regular map of varieties, dim X = n, dim Y = m. Then:

(1) $n \ge m$.

- (2) dim $F \ge n-m$, 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). $B = \{(p, \ell) \mid p \in \ell\} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^2 \times \mathbb{P}^1.$

$$B = \left\{ (p, \ell) \mid p \in \ell \right\} \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{P}^{1}$$
$$\mathbb{A}^{2} \times \ell \supseteq \mathbb{V}(ax - by) = \pi^{-1}(\ell) \longmapsto \ell = [a:b].$$

Note that each of the fibers is 1-dimensional.

Now: B is dimension 2, and

$$B \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{A}^2$$

(q, [a:b]) $\longmapsto q = (a, b) \in \mathbb{A}^2 - \{(0, 0)\}$

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

Consider the incidence correspondence

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

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

Take the projections

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

Consider ν : Compute the fiber over ℓ . Without loss of generality, $\ell = \mathbb{V}(X_0, X_1) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^3$. Then $\nu^{-1}(\ell) = \mathbb{V}(F_d)$ such that

$$\mathbb{V}(X_0, X_1) \subseteq \mathbb{V}(F_d) \iff (X_0, X_1) \supseteq (F_d) = X_0 G_{d-1} + X_1 H_{d-1}.$$

The equation F_d has coefficients 0 on the terms $X_2^d, X_2^{d-1}X_3, \ldots, X_3^d$. So

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

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) $\dim X \ge \dim Y$
- (2) dim $F \ge \dim X \dim Y$ for F any component of any fiber $\varphi^{-1}(y)$
- (3) There is a nonempty open subset $U \subseteq Y$ where dim $F = \dim X \dim Y$.

We studied the incidence correspondence

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

and its projections

$$X \xrightarrow{\pi_1} \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^d(k^4)^*\right)$$
$$X \xrightarrow{\pi_2} \operatorname{Gr}(2,4).$$

We saw that π_2 is surjective.

The fiber of $\ell \in Gr(2,4)$ is

$$\pi_2^{-1}(\ell) = \left\{ (X,\ell) \mid X \supseteq \ell \right\} = \{ \text{surfaces of degree 2 containing } \ell \} \times \ell$$

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

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

Study the other projection:

$$X \xrightarrow{\pi_1} \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^d(k^4)^*\right) = \left\{\operatorname{degree} d \text{ hypersurfaces in } \mathbb{P}^3\right\} \cong \mathbb{P}^M.$$

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

$$\pi_1^{-1}(X) = \left\{ (X, \ell) \mid \ell \subseteq X \right\} = X \times \{ \text{lines on } X \}.$$

So $X \in \pi_1(\mathscr{X}) \iff X$ contains some line.

Consequence: If $d \ge 4$, then π_1 can't be surjective. "Most" surfaces of degree ≥ 4 contain no line: "The generic surface of degree $d \ge 4$ contains no line."

12.5. Cubic surfaces. What about d = 3?

$$\mathscr{X} \xrightarrow{\pi_1} \mathbb{P}\left(\operatorname{Sym}^3(k^4)^*\right) = \mathbb{P}^{19}$$

and dim $\mathscr{X} = 19$. Two possibilities:

- (1) π_1 is surjective \iff generic fiber is dim 0. "The generic cubic contains finitely many lines."
- (2) π_1 is not surjective \iff there are cubic surfaces that don't contain lines, and the fibers are dim ≥ 1 .

In fact, the former is what actually occurs; π_1 is surjective.

It suffices to find one cubic surface that contains finitely many lines:

$$X = \mathbb{V}(X_1 X_2 X_3 - X_0^3) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^3$$

Exercise 12.7. X contains exactly 3 lines, $\mathbb{V}(X_0, X_i)$ for i = 1, 2, 3.

The non-generic fibers have dim ≥ 1 , so these cubics contain infinitely many lines.

It turns out that the subset of cubic surfaces containing only finitely many lines

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

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_pV , the tangent space to V at p, such that

(1) Given any regular map

$$V \xrightarrow{\psi} W$$
$$p \longmapsto q,$$

we get an induced linear map of vector spaces

$$T_pV \xrightarrow{d_p\varphi} T_qW.$$

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Goal: to define tangent space to a variety V at a point $p \in V$.

Since tangency is a local issue, assume $p = (0, ..., 0) \in V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ with V a closed affine algebraic set.

13.2. Intersection multiplicity. We work out an example in detail.

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

$$\mathbb{V}\left((bt) - (at)^2\right) \subseteq \ell \subseteq \mathbb{A}^2.$$

Solving this:

$$bt - a^{2}t^{2} = 0$$
$$t(b - a^{2}t) = 0$$

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 ℓ is tangent to V at (0,0) because the intersection multiplicity is V and ℓ at (0,0) is 2.

More precisely, we will see that ℓ has intersection multiplicity 1 for all ℓ except when ℓ 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 $\mathbb{I}(V) = (F_1, \ldots, F_r)$. Say

$$\ell = \left\{ (a_1 t, \dots, a_n t) \mid t \in k \right\} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$$

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

$$\{F_i(a_1t,\ldots,a_nt)\}_{i=1,\ldots,r}$$

Equivalently, look at the ideal of k[t] generated by $\{F(a_1t, \ldots, a_nt)\}$, where $F(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{I}(V)$. That ideal is generated by some polynomial

$$t^m (t - \lambda_1)_1^m \cdots (t - \lambda_s)^{m_s}, \qquad \lambda_i \neq 0.$$

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

13.3. Tangent lines and the tangent space.

Definition 13.3 (tangent line). A line ℓ is *tangent to* V at p if $(\ell, V)_p \ge 2$.

Definition 13.4 (tangent space). The *tangent space* to $V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ at p, denoted T_pV , is the set of points $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \mathbb{A}^n$ lying on lines $\ell \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ which are tangent to V are p.

Example 13.5. Consider $V = \mathbb{V}(y^2 - x^2 - x^3) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^2$. Take a line through the origin

$$\ell = \{(at, bt) \mid t \in k\}$$

The intersects are given by

$$(bt)^{2} - (at)^{2} - (at)^{3} = t^{2} (b^{2} - a^{2} - a^{3}t)$$

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_pV is a linear algebraic variety in \mathbb{A}^n , and

$$\dim T_p V \ge \dim_p V$$

13.4. Smooth points.

Definition 13.7. A point $p \in V$ is *smooth* if dim $T_pV = \dim_p V$.

Proposition 13.8. Say $\mathbf{0} \in V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ and $\mathbb{I}(V) = (F_1, \ldots, F_r)$. Then

 $T_{\mathbf{0}}V = \mathbb{V}(L_1, \ldots, L_r) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n,$

where $L_i = a_{i1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{in}x_n$ is the "degree 1 part" of F_i , i.e.,

$$F_i = L_i + F_i^{(2)} + F_i^{(3)} + \dots$$

where $F_i^{(j)}$ is homogeneous of degree j in x_1, \ldots, x_n .

Proof. We have $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in T_0 V \iff (a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \ell$ which is tangent to V at $\mathbf{0} \iff \{(a_1t, \ldots, a_nt) \mid t \in k\}$ intersects V with multiplicity ≥ 2 at $\mathbf{0}$

 $\iff \{F_1(a_1t,\ldots,a_nt),\ldots,F_r(a_1t,\ldots,a_nt)\}$

are divisible by t^2 . Observe that

 $F_i(a_1t, ..., a_nt) = L_i(a_1t, ..., a_nt) + G_i(a_1t, ..., a_nt) = t \cdot L_i(a_1, ..., a_n) + G_i(a_1t, ..., a_nt),$ and t^2 divides $G_i(a_1t, ..., a_nt)$. So

$$t^2 | F_i(at_1, \dots, a_n t) \iff L_i(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0.$$

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

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

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

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

Remark 13.11 (Explicit computation of tangent spaces). To find $T_p V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ for any p, center everything at $p = (\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n)$. Write all polynomials not in (x_1, \ldots, x_n) , but in $(x_1 - \lambda_1, \ldots, x_n - \lambda_n)$.

Use Taylor expansion at $p = (\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n)$:

$$F = F(p) + \underbrace{\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_1}}_{\text{linear part around } p} \left|_p (x_1 - \lambda_1) + \dots + \frac{\partial F}{\partial x_n}\right|_p (x_n - \lambda_n)$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial x^2} \left|_p (x_1 - \lambda_1)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{i_1!} \frac{\partial^{i_1}}{\partial x_1^{i_1}}\right) \dots \left(\frac{1}{i_n!} \frac{\partial^{i_n}}{\partial x_n^{i_n}}\right) F\right|_p (x_1 - \lambda_1)^{i_1} \dots (x_n - \lambda_n)^{i_n}.$$

Theorem 13.12. $T_pV = \mathbb{V}(d_pF_1, \ldots, d_pF_r) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$, where $\mathbb{I}(V) = (F_1, \ldots, F_r)$.

13.5. Differentials, derivations, and the tangent space.

Definition 13.13. Fix $R = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n], p \in \mathbb{A}^n = k^n$. The "*differential* at p" is the map

$$k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \xrightarrow{d_p} k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$$
$$g \longmapsto d_p g = \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_i}}_{\text{linear form in } (x_i - \lambda_i)} \in [k[x_1 - \lambda_1, \dots, x_n - \lambda_n]]_1.$$

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 $f, g \in \mathbb{R}, \lambda \in k$

(2) $d_p(fg) = f(p)d_pg + g(p)d_pf$.

Last time: If

$$p \in V = \mathbb{V}(f_1, \dots, f_r) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n,$$
 $(f_1, \dots, f_r) = \mathbb{I}(V),$

then

$$T_pV = \mathbb{V}(d_pf_1, \dots, d_pf_r) = \text{vector space in } k^n \text{ translated by } p \subseteq (T_p\mathbb{A}^n) = k^n$$

where $d_p f_i$ are linear forms in $(x_1 - \lambda_1, \ldots, x_n - \lambda_n)$.

Why is this independent of choice of generators?

$$(g_1,\ldots,g_t) = (f_1,\ldots,f_r) = \mathbb{I}(V) \subseteq k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$$

Write $g_i = h_1 f_1 + \cdots + h_r f_r$ for some $h_j \in R$. Apply d_p :

$$d_p g_i = f_1(p) d_p h_1 + h_1(p) d_p f_1 + \dots + f_r(p) d_p h_r + h_r(p) d_p f_r$$

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 $d_p g_i \in (d_p f_1, \ldots, d_p f_r)$, as was to be shown.

We have a surjective map

$$k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \xrightarrow{d_p} (T_p \mathbb{A}^n)^*$$
$$x_i - \lambda_i \longmapsto x_i - \lambda_i.$$

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

$$d_p f = d_p \left(f - f(p) \right).$$

So we can restrict to the (still surjective) map on $\mathfrak{m}_p = (x_1 - \lambda_1, \dots, x_n - \lambda_n) \subseteq k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$:

$$\mathfrak{m}_p \xrightarrow{d_p} (T_p \mathbb{A}^n)^*$$
$$x_i - \lambda_i \longmapsto x_i - \lambda_i.$$

Say $g \in \mathfrak{m}_p$ is in the kernel of d_p . Write g out as a polynomial in $(x_1 - \lambda_1, \ldots, x_n - \lambda_n)$:

$$g = g(p) + d_p g + G_p$$

where each monomial of G is of degree ≥ 2 in $(x_1 - \lambda_1, \ldots, x_n - \lambda_n)$.

Since $g \in \mathfrak{m}_p$, we have g(p) = 0. Moreover,

$$d_p g = 0 \iff g = G \in (x_1 - \lambda_1, \dots, x_n - \lambda_n)^2.$$

So ker $d_p = \mathfrak{m}_p^2$.

This gives us a *natural isomorphism*:

$$\frac{\mathfrak{m}_p}{\mathfrak{m}_p^2} \xrightarrow{d_p} (T_p \mathbb{A}^n)^* \,.$$

Theorem 13.16. For $p = (\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n) \in V = \mathbb{V}(f_1, \ldots, f_r) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ with $(f_1, \ldots, f_r) = \mathbb{I}(V)$, let $\mathfrak{m}_p = \{f : V \longrightarrow k \mid f(p) = 0\} \subseteq k[V].$

There is a natural surjective vector space map

$$\mathfrak{m}_{p} \xrightarrow{d_{p}} (T_{p}V)^{*}$$

$$g = G|_{V} \longmapsto \left[d_{p}G|_{T_{p}V} : T_{p}V \longrightarrow k\right], \qquad G \in k[x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}],$$

whose kernel is \mathfrak{m}_p^2 .

Proof. Why is this well-defined?

Say $g = G|_V = H|_V$ for some $G, H \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$. Need to check that $d_pG, d_pH \in (T_p\mathbb{A}^n)^*$ restrict to the same linear functional in $T_pV = \mathbb{V}(d_pf_1, \ldots, d_pf_r)$.

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 $d_p G \in (d_p f_1, \ldots, d_p f_r)$.

We already showed that $G = H_1 f_1 + \dots + H_r f_r \implies d_p G \in (d_p f_1, \dots, d_p f_r)$, provided $p \in V$. So we are done.

Conclusion:

$$(T_p V)^* \cong \mathfrak{m}_p / \mathfrak{m}_p^2$$

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

13.6. The Zariski tangent space.

Corollary 13.17. Consider an isomorphism of affine algebraic sets

$$\begin{array}{c} V \stackrel{\varphi}{\longrightarrow} W \\ p \longmapsto q. \end{array}$$

Then we have an isomorphism

$$\begin{split} k[W] & \xrightarrow{\varphi^*} k[V] \\ \mathfrak{m}_p & \xrightarrow{\simeq} \mathfrak{m}_q \\ \mathfrak{m}_p^2 & \xrightarrow{\simeq} \mathfrak{m}_q^2. \end{split}$$

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 $(\mathfrak{m}_p/\mathfrak{m}_p^2)^*$, 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

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

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.

$$rac{\mathfrak{m}_p}{\mathfrak{m}_p^2} = rac{\mathfrak{m}_p k[U]_{\mathfrak{m}_p}}{\left(\mathfrak{m}_p k[U]_{\mathfrak{m}_p}
ight)^2}.$$

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 $(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2)^*$. This is a vector space over the residue field $R/\mathfrak{m} = k$.

Theorem 13.22. For any local ring, $\dim_k(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2) \geq \dim R$.

Definition 13.23. A local ring (R, \mathfrak{m}) is *regular* if $\dim_k(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2) = \dim R$.

Example 13.24. If $R = \mathcal{O}_{p,V}$, where p is a point on a variety V, then

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

the tangent space to V at p, $\dim_p T_p V \ge \dim_p V$. (Proof in Shafarevich!) $\mathcal{O}_{p,V}$ is regular $\iff p$ is a smooth point of V.

Definition 13.25. (1) $p \in V$ is *smooth* $\iff \dim T_p V = \dim_p V$. (In general, $\forall p \in V$, we have $\dim T_p V \ge \dim_p V$.)

(2) The *singular locus* of V is the set

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

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

Example 13.27. Let $p \in (\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n) \in \mathbb{A}^n$. Then

$$\dim(T_p\mathbb{A}^n) = \dim(k^n) = n,$$
$$\dim\left[\frac{(x_1 - \lambda_1, \dots, x_n - \lambda_n)}{(x_1 - \lambda_1, \dots, x_n - \lambda_n)^2}\right] = n.$$

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 $V = \mathbb{V}(f_1, \ldots, f_r) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ with $(f_1, \ldots, f_r) = \mathbb{I}(V)$. For $p \in V$,

$$T_p V = \mathbb{V}(d_p f_1, \dots, d_p f_r),$$
 each $d_p f_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} \Big|_p (x_j - x_j(p)) \right).$

Equations $d_p f_1, \ldots, d_p f_r$ can be written as a matrix:

$$T_p V = \mathbb{V} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_r}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_r}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}_p \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - x_1(p) \\ x_2 - x_2(p) \\ \vdots \\ x_n - x_n(p) \end{bmatrix} \right) = \ker \left(\left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} \right) \Big|_p \right) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n.$$

 So

$$\dim T_p V = \dim \left(\ker(J_p|_p) \right) = n - \operatorname{rank}(J_p)$$

We have $p \in \operatorname{Sing} V \iff \dim T_p V > d \iff \operatorname{rank} \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}\right)\Big|_p < n - d \iff (n - d) \times (n - d)$ subdeterminants of $\left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}\right)$ all vanish at p. Thus

Sing
$$V = \left\{ p \in V \mid (n-d) \times (n-d) \text{ minors of } \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} \right) \text{ vanish at } p \right\}$$

= $\mathbb{V} \left(\text{codimension-sized minors of } \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_r}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_r}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} \right) \cap V.$

It remains to show that it is *proper*!

Example 13.29. Consider $V = \mathbb{V}(x^2 + y^2 - z^2) \subseteq \mathbb{C}^3$:

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

This defining equation is a linear function in $(x - \lambda_1, y - \lambda_2, z - \lambda_3)$, nonzero \iff 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:

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

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} = \left\{ \varphi \in k(V) \mid \varphi \text{ is regular at } p \right\},\$$

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

 $\dim_k \mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2 = \dim_p V$

 $(\geq \text{always holds}).$

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 $p = (\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_d) \in \mathbb{A}^d$, then $\{x_1 - \lambda_1, \ldots, x_d - \lambda_d\}$ are local parameters at p.

Example 14.4. $p = (1,0) \in V = \mathbb{V}(x^2 + y^2 - 1) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^2$. The dimension is 1. Note that V is smooth (for char(k) $\neq 2$):

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

We have

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

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

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

Thus y is a local parameter for V at p = (1, 0), since \overline{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.

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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 $\iff p$ 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 $\mathbb{V}(u_i) \subseteq V$ is also smooth at p_j of codimension 1, and furthermore, $\mathbb{V}(u_{i_1}, \ldots, u_{i_t}) \subseteq V$ is smooth at p of codimension t.

Proof. We have $p \in V_i = \mathbb{V}(u_i) \subsetneq V$ and a ring map given by modding out by $\operatorname{Rad}(u_i)$,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{O}_{p,V_i} & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ \hline \\ \overline{\mathfrak{m}}_{p,V_i} & & \\ & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \mathcal{O}_{p,V} \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ \end{array} \right)$$

and we have $\overline{\mathfrak{m}}_{p,V_i} = (\overline{u_1}, \overline{u_2}, \dots, \overline{u_d})$ and $\mathfrak{m}_{p,V} = (u_1, \dots, u_d)$. Since $\overline{u_i} = 0$, we have

$$d-1 \leq \dim_p V_i \leq \dim T_p V_i = \dim \frac{\overline{\mathfrak{m}_p}}{\overline{\mathfrak{m}_p}^2} \leq d-1.$$

Hence $d-1 = \dim T_p V_i = \dim_p V_i$, so p is a smooth point of V_i .

Similarly, take $p \in V_I = \mathbb{V}(u_1, \ldots, u_t) \subseteq \mathbb{V}$. Then

$$\overline{\mathfrak{m}} = (\overline{u_1}, \dots, \overline{u_d}) = (\overline{u_{t+1}}, \dots, \overline{u_d}) \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{p, V_I}.$$

So

$$\dim_p V_i \le \dim \frac{\overline{\mathfrak{m}}}{\overline{\mathfrak{m}}^2} \le d - t \le \dim_p V_I,$$

hence equality holds and we are done.

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

However, $\{y - x^2, y\}$ 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 $(T_p V)^*$.
- (4) The subspace of T_pV defined by the zero set of the $(n = \dim T_pV)$ linear functionals $d_p u_1, \ldots, d_p u_n$ is **0**.

Fact 14.10. If p is smooth, then $n = \dim V$, and any set $\{u_1, \ldots, u_n\}$ 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 $k[u_1, \ldots, u_n]_{(u_1, \ldots, u_n)} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{p,V}$ becomes an equality when we complete with respect to the maximal ideals $(u_1, \ldots, u_n) \subset k[u_1, \ldots, u_n]_{(u_1, \ldots, u_n)}$ and $\mathfrak{m} \subset \mathcal{O}_{p,V}$, and we get

$$k[[u_1,\ldots,u_n]] \cong \mathcal{O}_{p,V}.$$

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

$$\mathcal{O}_V(U) \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{p,V} \hookrightarrow \stackrel{\frown}{\mathcal{O}_{p,V}},$$

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

$$R = k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \hookrightarrow k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \left[\frac{1}{x_1 - 1} \right] \hookrightarrow R_{\mathfrak{m}} = k[x_1, \dots, x_n]_{(x_1, \dots, x_n)} \hookrightarrow k[[x_1, \dots, x_n]]$$

The ring $k[[x_1, \ldots, x_n]]$ includes "functions" on an "even smaller" open neighborhood, including things like

$$\frac{1}{x_1 - 1} \longmapsto -1 - x_1 - x_1^2 - x_1^3 - \dots$$

and

$$e^{x_1} = 1 + x_1 + \frac{x_1^2}{2!} + \frac{x_1^3}{3!} + \frac{x_1^4}{4!} + \dots$$

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

"
$$\mathbb{A}^{n}$$
" = Spec $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ Spec $R\left[\frac{1}{x_1 - 1}\right] = U_{x_1 - 1}$ Spec $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ Spec $k[[x_1, \ldots, x_n]]$.

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 $\mathscr{I}_Y(U) \subseteq \mathscr{O}_X(U)$ is principal. Remark 14.15. If $p \notin Y$, then $\exists U \ni p$ such that $Y \cap U = \emptyset$, so $\mathscr{I}_Y(U) = \mathscr{O}_X(U) = (1)$ is principal.

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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

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

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 $\iff {}^4 \widehat{\mathcal{O}_{X,p}}$ is a UFD $\iff k[[u_1, \ldots, u_d]]$ is a UFD. Math 593 exercise: A is a UFD $\implies A[[u]]$ 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 (g_1) is a prime ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{X,p}$. Consider: in U,

$$Y \cap U \subseteq \mathbb{V}(g_1) \subseteq U \subseteq X.$$

We have dim $U = \dim X = d$ and dim $\mathbb{V}(g_1) = d - 1$. If $Y \cap U \subset \mathbb{V}(g_1)$ is a proper inclusion, then $Y \cap U$ has dim $\leq d - 2$, since a proper subset of an irreducible variety has smaller dimension. Hence $Y \cap U = \mathbb{V}(g_1)$.

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

$$p = \mathbf{0} \in Y = \mathbb{V}(x, z) \subsetneqq X = \mathbb{V}(xy - zw) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^4.$$

We have dim Y = 2 and dim X = 3. See that

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

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

⁴Shafarevich, Appendix §7

15. Rational maps

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

$$V \dashrightarrow \mathbb{A}^n$$
$$x \longmapsto (\varphi_1(x), \dots, \varphi_n(x))$$

where
$$\varphi_i \in k(V)$$
.

Note 15.1. Each φ_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

$$V \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^n$$
$$x \longmapsto [\varphi_0(x) : \cdots : \varphi_n(x)],$$

take $\varphi_i \in k(V)$ and say φ_i has domain of definition U_i . This is regular on the dense open subset of V

$$\underbrace{U_0 \cap \cdots \cap U_n}_U \cap \left[(V \cap U) \setminus \mathbb{V}(\varphi_0 \big|_U, \dots, \varphi_n \big|_U) \right].$$

Example 15.2.

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

Defined on $\mathbb{A}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}.$

We can represent φ by $\varphi_{U_x} : U_x = \mathbb{A}^2 \setminus \mathbb{V}(x) \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^1$, and also by

$$\varphi_{\mathbb{A}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}} : \mathbb{A}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^1$$
$$(x,y) \longmapsto [x:y].$$

15.2. Definition of rational map.

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

$$[U \xrightarrow{\varphi_U} Y] \sim [U' \xrightarrow{\varphi_{U'}} Y]$$

means φ_U and $\varphi_{U'}$ agree on $U \cap U'$ (or equivalently,

$$\varphi_U\big|_{\widetilde{U}} = \varphi_{U'}\big|_{\widetilde{U}}$$

for any dense open subset of $U \cap U'$).

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 φ, φ' are *regular* functions $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} k$, $X \xrightarrow{\varphi'} k$ and $\varphi|_{\widetilde{U}} = \varphi'|_{\widetilde{U}}$, where $\widetilde{U} \subseteq X$ is an open dense set, then

$$(\varphi - \varphi') : X \longrightarrow k$$

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 $\varphi - \varphi'$ is zero on X. Thus, $\varphi = \varphi'$ everywhere on X.

In practice: A rational map is given by

$$\begin{array}{l} X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^m \\ x \longmapsto [\varphi_0(x) : \cdots : \varphi_m(x)], \end{array}$$

where $\varphi_i \in k(X)$.

Definition 15.5. A rational map $\varphi : X \dashrightarrow Y$ is *regular* at $p \in X$ if φ admits a representative $U \xrightarrow{\varphi_U} Y$ such that $p \in U$.

The domain of definition of φ is the open subset of X where φ is regular. The locus of indeterminacy is the complement of the domain of definition.

15.3. Examples of rational maps.

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

For example:

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

Note that $k(\mathbb{P}^1) = k\left(\frac{t}{s}\right)$.

(3) The map used in the blowup (to be studied in more detail later):

$$\mathbb{A}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^1$$

(x, y) \longmapsto {the line through (x, y) and (0, 0)} = [x : y]

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:

$$\mathbb{P}^1 \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^3 \xrightarrow{\psi} \mathbb{P}^3$$

$$[s:t] \longmapsto [s^3:s^2t:st^2:t^3]$$

$$[w:x:y:z] \longmapsto [wz - xy:x^2 - wy:y^2 - xz]$$

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:

$$\mathbb{A}^2 \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^2 \xrightarrow{\varphi^{-1}} \mathbb{A}^2$$

$$(x, y) \longmapsto [x : y : 1]$$

$$[x : y : z] \longmapsto \left(\frac{x}{z}, \frac{y}{z}\right)$$

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

$$\mathbb{P}^2 \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1$$
$$[x:y:z] \longmapsto ([x:z], [y:z])$$
$$U_z \xrightarrow{\simeq} U_1 \times U_1,$$

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 $X \xrightarrow{-\varphi} \mathbb{P}^n$ is a rational map, then the locus of indeterminacy has codimension ≥ 2 in X.

Example 15.12.

$$\mathbb{P}^2 \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^3$$
$$[x:y:z] \longmapsto ([x:z], [y:z])$$

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 $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^m$ is a rational map, then φ 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 $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^m$ is a regular map $X \longrightarrow Y$. Reversing roles of X and Y, $Y \xrightarrow{\varphi^{-1}} X \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ is also regular. So

$$X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y \xrightarrow{\varphi'} X,$$

thus $X \cong Y$.

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15.7. Dimension of indeterminacy, continued.

Example 15.15. Let $X = \mathbb{V}(x_0^2 + \dots + x_n^2) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ (char $\neq 2$). Pick any $p \in X$, project from it. Then we have

$$\mathbb{P}^{n} \xrightarrow{\pi_{p}}_{\pi} \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$$

$$\bigcup_{\pi_{p}} \times \mathbb{P}^{n}$$

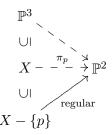
$$X$$

and $X \xrightarrow{\pi_p} \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ is a rational map.

Case 1: dim X = 1 (n = 2): $X \xrightarrow{\pi_p} \mathbb{P}^1$ must be regular everywhere by Theorem 15.11. So we have a map

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

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



The locus of indeterminacy is $\{p\}$. Codimension is $n-1 = \dim X$.

Now we prove:

Theorem (15.11). If X is smooth, then the locus of indeterminacy of a rational map $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^n$ has codimension ≥ 2 .

Proof. Let X be smooth, $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^n$ a rational map, $W = \text{locus of indeterminacy} \subseteq X$.

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

$$X \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^n$$
$$x \longmapsto [\varphi_0(x) : \cdots : \varphi_n(x)],$$

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 $p \in \mathbb{V}(\varphi_0, \ldots, \varphi_n) \subseteq U$. Then

$$p \in W \cap U \subseteq \mathbb{V}(\varphi_0, \dots, \varphi_n) \subseteq U$$
 affine

By the Nullstellensatz,

$$(g) = \mathscr{I}_W(U) \supseteq (\varphi_0, \dots, \varphi_n),$$

so g divides each φ_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 φ_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 φ_U . Indeed,

$$\overline{\varphi_U(U \cap U')} \subseteq \overline{\varphi_U(U)} = \overline{\varphi_{U'}(U')}.$$

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 Γ_{φ} 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. Γ_{φ} is birationally equivalent to X.

Example 15.19.

$$\mathbb{A}^2 \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^1$$

(x, y) \longmapsto {line through (x, y) and (0, 0)} = [x : y].

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

$$U_x = \mathbb{A}^2 - (y \text{-axis}) \longrightarrow U_0 = \mathbb{A}^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^1$$
$$(x, y) \longmapsto \frac{y}{x} \longrightarrow \left[1 : \frac{y}{x}\right] = [x : y]$$

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

In coordinates,

$$B = \left\{ \left((x_1, \dots, x_n); [y_1 : \dots : y_n] \right) \mid \operatorname{rank} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & \dots & x_n \\ y_1 & \dots & y_n \end{bmatrix} \le 1 \right\}$$
$$= \mathbb{V} \left(2 \times 2 \text{ minors of } \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & \dots & x_n \\ y_1 & \dots & y_n \end{bmatrix} \right)$$
$$= \mathbb{V} \left(\left\{ x_i y_j - x_j y_i \mid i \le 1, j \le n \right\} \right).$$

Definition 16.1. The *blowup* of \mathbb{A}^n at **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) π is surjective, and one-to-one over $\mathbb{A}^n \setminus \{0\}$.

Also, π is *birational* (i.e., a birational equivalence) with rational inverse

$$\mathbb{A}^n \xrightarrow{\pi^{-1}} B \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n \times \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$$
$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) \longmapsto ((x_1, \dots, x_n); [x_1 : \dots : x_n]).$$

(2) B is the graph of the rational map

$$\varphi: \mathbb{A}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$$
$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) \longmapsto [x_1: \dots: x_n].$$

and $B \xrightarrow{\pi} A$ is projection to the "source".

Intuition again: B is "like \mathbb{A}^n " except at **0**; we've removed **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 $B \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n \times \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \supseteq (\mathbb{A}^n \times U_i)$, where $U_i = \mathbb{A}^{n-1}$ is a standard affine chart. It suffices to check that each $B \cap (\mathbb{A}^n \times U_i)$ is smooth.

For simplicity, we do the case i = n.

Claim 16.4. $B \cap (\mathbb{A}^n \times \mathbb{A}^{n-1}) \xrightarrow{\simeq} \mathbb{A}^n$.

Observe that

$$B \cap (\mathbb{A}^n \times \mathbb{A}^{n-1}) = \left\{ (x_1, \dots, x_n); [y_1 : \dots : y_n] \mid y_n \neq 0, \ x_i y_j = x_j y_i \right\}$$
$$= \left\{ (x_1, \dots, x_n); \left[\frac{y_1}{y_n} : \dots : \frac{y_{n-1}}{y_n} : 1 \right] \mid x_j = x_n \left(\frac{y_j}{y_n} \right) \right\}$$

We have an isomorphism

$$B \cap U \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{A}^{n}$$

$$\left((x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}); \left[\frac{y_{1}}{y_{n}}: \dots: \frac{y_{n-1}}{y_{n}}: 1\right]\right) \longmapsto \left(\frac{y_{1}}{y_{n}}, \dots, \frac{y_{n-1}}{y_{n}}, x_{n}\right)$$

$$B \cap U \xleftarrow{\varphi^{-1}} \mathbb{A}^{n}$$

$$\left((t_{n}t_{1}, \dots, t_{n}t_{n-1}, t_{n}); [t_{1}: \dots: t_{n-1}: 1]\right) \longleftrightarrow (t_{1}, \dots, t_{n-1}, t_{n}).$$

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 $\widetilde{V} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n \times \mathbb{P}^m$ such that the projection onto the first factor $\mathbb{A}^n \times \mathbb{P}^m \to \mathbb{A}^n$ is a birational map $\pi : \widetilde{V} \to V$ when restricted to \widetilde{V} .

Furthermore, π is an isomorphism over $V \setminus \operatorname{Sing}(V)$. The fibers are all projective (over \mathbb{C} , all compact), i.e., π 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

$$\mathbb{A}^2 \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^1 = \text{lines through } (0,0) \text{ in } \mathbb{A}^2$$
$$(x,y) \longmapsto [x:y]$$

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 π is a *projection*, birational. In fact, π is an isomorphism over the domain of definition of φ .

⁵The technical definition of "proper map" in algebraic geometry is more complicated, but agrees with the other definition over \mathbb{C} . In any case, π is a proper map in the algebraic geometry sense.

(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?

$$\mathbb{A}^3 \xrightarrow{\psi} \mathbb{P}^1$$
$$(x, y, z) \longmapsto [x : y] = \text{normal line to } L = \text{the } z\text{-axis}$$

This is an isomorphism on $\mathbb{A}^3 \setminus L$, 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 Γ_{φ} .

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 (f_0, \ldots, f_r) is the graph of the rational map

$$V \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^r$$
$$x \longmapsto [f_0(x) : \dots : f_r(x)]$$

together with the projection

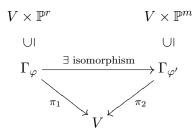
$$V \times \mathbb{P}^r \supseteq \widetilde{V} := \Gamma_{\varphi} \xrightarrow{\pi} V.$$

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

$$X \xrightarrow{\text{closed}} Y \times \mathbb{P}^m \xrightarrow{\text{proj. onto}} Y$$

Remark 16.9. (1) Since φ is rational on $V - \mathbb{V}(f_0, \ldots, f_r), \pi : \widetilde{V} \longrightarrow V$ is an isomorphism over $V - \mathbb{V}(f_0, \ldots, f_r)$, i.e., is birational.

(2) This depends only on the ideal generated by (f_0, \ldots, f_r) , not the choice of generators: Say $(f_0, \ldots, f_r) = (g_0, \ldots, g_m) \subseteq k[V]$. Then



(3) If (f_0, \ldots, f_r) is radical, defines a subvariety $W \subseteq V$, then we also say "blowup of V along W".

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 (x^2, y^2) in \mathbb{A}^2 : The graph of

$$\mathbb{A}^2 \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^1$$
$$(x, y) \longmapsto [x^2 : y^2]$$

We have

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

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

$$V \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^r$$
$$x \longmapsto [f_0(x) : \dots : f_r(x)]$$

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

$$D = \sum_{i=1}^{t} k_i D_i, \qquad k_i \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

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

$$C = \mathbb{V}(xy - z^2) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2, \qquad \qquad L_1 = \mathbb{V}(x), \qquad \qquad L_2 = \mathbb{V}(y).$$

Here are some divisors which are not prime: $2C, 2L_1 - L_2$.

Definition 17.3. We say a divisor $D = \sum_{i=1}^{t} k_i D_i$ is *effective* if each $k_i \ge 0$.

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 group Div(X), the free abelian group on the set of prime divisors of X.

The zero element is the *trivial divisor* $D = \sum 0D_i$, and

$$\operatorname{Supp}(0) = \emptyset$$

Example 17.4. Consider

$$\varphi = \frac{f}{g} = \frac{(t-\lambda_1)^{a_1}\cdots(t-\lambda_n)^{a_n}}{(t-\mu_1)^{b_1}\cdots(t-\mu_m)^{b_m}} \in k(\mathbb{A}^1) = k(t),$$

where $f, g \in k[t]$ (assume lowest terms).

The "divisor of zeros and poles" of φ is

$$\underbrace{a_1 \{\lambda_1\} + a_2 \{\lambda_2\} + \dots + a_n \{\lambda_n\}}_{\text{(divisor of zeros)}} - \underbrace{b_1 \{\mu_1\} - \dots - b_1 \{\mu_m\}}_{\text{(divisor of poles)}}$$

Example 17.5. Let $\mathbb{A}^n = X$. A prime divisor is $D = \mathbb{V}(h)$, where $h \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is irreducible. Write

$$\varphi = \frac{f}{g} = \frac{f_1^{a_1} \cdots f_n^{a_n}}{g_1^{b_1} \cdots g_m^{b_m}} \in k(\mathbb{A}^n) = k(x_1, \dots, x_n),$$

where $f, g \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ and f_i, g_i irreducible, $a_i \in \mathbb{N}$.

Denoting the divisor of zeros and poles of φ by div (φ) , we have

$$\operatorname{div}(\varphi) = a_1 \mathbb{V}(f_1) + a_2 \mathbb{V}(f_2) + \dots + a_n \mathbb{V}(f_n) - b_1 \mathbb{V}(g_1) - \dots - b_m \mathbb{V}(g_m).$$

Note 17.6. Every divisor on \mathbb{A}^n has the above form.

$$k(X)^* = k(x) \setminus \{0\} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Div}(X)$$
$$\varphi \longmapsto \operatorname{div} \varphi = \sum_{\substack{D \subseteq X \\ \text{prime}}} \nu_D(\varphi) \cdot D$$

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

$$(\varphi_1 \circ \varphi_2) \longmapsto \operatorname{div} \varphi_1 + \operatorname{div} \varphi_2.$$

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

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

The quotient 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 $k(X)^* \xrightarrow{\text{div}} \text{Div}(X)$ consists of $\varphi \in k(X)$ such that φ, φ^{-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 φ along D". Example 17.10.

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

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 1.⁶ In this case, we have

$$X \supseteq X_{\rm sm} = X - \operatorname{Sing} X$$
$$\operatorname{Div}(X) \xrightarrow{\simeq} \operatorname{Div}(X_{\rm sm})$$
$$\sum_{i} a_{i} D_{i} \longmapsto \sum_{i} a_{i} (D_{i} \cap X_{\rm sm}).$$

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 φ " means that $D \subseteq \mathbb{V}(\varphi)$, meaning $(\pi) \ni \varphi$. Look at the largest k such that $\varphi \in (\pi^k)$, i.e., $\varphi \in (\pi^k) \setminus (\pi^{k+1})$. This is $\nu_D(\varphi) = k$.

17.3. Order of vanishing. Goal: Define "order of vanishing" of $\varphi \in k(X) \setminus \{0\}$ 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., Sing X has codimension ≥ 2).

⁶This means that $X_{\text{sing}} \subseteq X$ has codimension ≥ 2 .

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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 " φ vanishes along D" provided that $D = \mathbb{V}(\pi) \subseteq \mathbb{V}(\varphi)$. So by the Nullstellensatz, $(\varphi) \subseteq (\pi)$. It could be that $\varphi \in (\pi^2)$ or (π^3) or some higher power.

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

Note 17.12. $\nu_D(\varphi) = 0 \implies \varphi \in (\pi^0) \setminus (\pi^1) = k[X] \setminus (\pi)$, i.e., φ does not vanish on all of D.

Can it be that $\varphi \in (\pi^k) \forall k$? If so, then $\varphi \in \bigcap_{k \ge 0} (\pi^k)$, which remains true after localizing at any prime ideal of k[X] containing π (e.g., (π) itself).

Lemma 17.13. If (R, \mathfrak{m}) is a Noetherian local ring, then

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

Thus, if $\varphi \in \bigcap_{k>0}(\pi^k)$, then $\varphi = 0$.

Note 17.14. ν_D has the following properties:

- (1) $\nu_D(\varphi \cdot \psi) = \nu_D(\varphi) + \nu_D(\psi).$
- (2) If $\varphi + \psi \neq 0$, then $\nu_D(\varphi + \psi) \ge \min \{\nu_D(\varphi), \nu_D(\psi)\}.$

Case 1b. If φ 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: $\varphi \in k(X) \setminus \{0\}, D \subseteq X$ arbitrary prime divisor. Choose $U \subseteq X$ open affine such that

(a) U is smooth;

(b) $U \cap D \neq \emptyset$;

(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 $\varphi \in (\pi^k) \setminus (\pi^{k+1})$ in $k[U_1] = \mathcal{O}_X(U_1)$, and after restricting to $k[U_2] = \mathcal{O}_X(U_2)$, the condition $\varphi \in (\pi^k) \setminus (\pi^{k+1})$ 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

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

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

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

$$\varphi = \pi^k \frac{f_1^{a_1} \cdots f_r^{a_r}}{g_1^{b_1} \cdots g_s^{b_s}}$$

⁷We can do this by our earlier theorem that a codimension 1 subvariety is locally a hypersurface.

with f_i, g_i irreducible. Then

 $\nu_D(\varphi) =$ multiplicity of π 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

 $\mathcal{O}_{D,X} = \left\{ \varphi \in k(X) \mid \varphi \text{ is regular on some open } U \text{ such that } U \cap D \neq \emptyset \right\} = k[U]_{\mathscr{I}_D(U)},$

the local ring of X along D. We have $U \supseteq D \cap U \neq \emptyset$ and $k[U] \supseteq \mathscr{I}_D(U)$.

Choose U satisfying (a), (b), (c). The maximal ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{D,X}$ is (π) , generated by the single element π .

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, (π) .
- (3) It is a UFD with one irreducible element, π .
- (4) Every nonzero ideal is (π^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 div φ has support contained in

$$\mathbb{V}(f) \cup \mathbb{V}(g) = (D_1 \cup \dots \cup D_r) \cup (D'_1 \cup \dots \cup D'_s),$$

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"; ν_D is the valuation of k(X) associated with the DVR $\mathcal{O}_{D,X}$.

This gives a group homomorphism

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

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

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

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

Example 17.17. $Cl(\mathbb{A}^n) = 0.$

Proposition 17.18. $\operatorname{Cl}(\mathbb{P}^n) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, generated by the class of a hyperplane $H = \mathbb{V}(a_0x_0 + \cdots + a_nx_n)$. **Definition 17.19.** If $D_i = \mathbb{V}(G_i) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ is a prime divisor, where G_i is an irreducible homogeneous polynomial in $k[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$, we define the degree of D_i to be the degree of G_i .

Proof of Proposition 17.18. We have a surjective homomorphism

$$\operatorname{Div}(\mathbb{P}^n) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{deg}} \mathbb{Z}$$
$$D = \sum_{i=1}^t k_i D_i \longmapsto \sum k_i \operatorname{deg} D_i = \sum k_i \operatorname{deg} G_i.$$

Say $D = \sum_{i=1}^{t} k_i \mathbb{V}(G_i) \in \text{Div}(\mathbb{P}^n)$ is in the kernel of deg : $\text{Div}(\mathbb{P}^n) \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{t} k_i \mathbb{V}(G_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} a_i \mathbb{V}(F_i) - \sum_{i=1}^{s} b_i \mathbb{V}(H_i) \xrightarrow{\text{deg}} 0.$$

This is the divisor of zeros and poles of

$$\varphi = \frac{F_1^{a_1} \cdots F_r^{a_r}}{H_1^{b_1} \cdots H_s^{b_s}} = \prod_{i=1}^t G_i^{k_i} \in k(\mathbb{P}^n).$$

Therefore,

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

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 div φ is effective (denoted div $\varphi \ge 0$).

Remark 17.22. φ regular \implies div $\varphi \ge 0$ 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 R.

We have the inclusion

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

into the integral closure.

Example 17.24. Consider the ring

$$R = \frac{k[x, y]}{y^2 - x^3}.$$
$$\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^2 - x = 0,$$

We have

so $\frac{y}{x}$ is integral over R in the fraction field $\operatorname{Frac}(R)$. Can check that

$$R \hookrightarrow \widetilde{R} = \frac{k[x, y, z]}{(y^2 - x^3, xz - y)} \cong k\left[\frac{y}{x}\right] = k[t] \subseteq \operatorname{Frac}(R).$$

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 $\iff R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is normal $\forall \mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{mSpec} R \iff R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ 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 $\{U_{\lambda}\}$ such that each $\mathcal{O}_X(U_{\lambda}) = k[U_{\lambda}]$ 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 $\iff X$ is normal.

Fact 17.28. If a ring R is normal and \mathfrak{p} is height⁸ 1, then $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a DVR.

Theorem 17.29. Let R be a domain with fraction field K. Then

$$\widetilde{R} = \bigcap_{\substack{\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R\\ height \ 1}} R_{\mathfrak{p}} \subseteq K$$

Now we can prove the theorem from earlier:

Proof of Theorem 17.21. Say $\varphi \in k(X)$ and div $\varphi \geq 0$. It suffices to check $\varphi|_U$, where U is affine open in X, is regular.

On U, we have $\varphi \in k(U) = k(X)$ with $\operatorname{div}_U \varphi \ge 0$. All $\nu_D(\varphi) \ge 0$, so $\varphi \in \mathcal{O}_{D,X} \forall D$. Thus

$$\varphi \in \bigcap_{D \text{ prime in } U} \mathcal{O}_{D,X} = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p ht. 1}} R_{\mathfrak{p}} = R = \mathcal{O}_X(U).$$

17.9. Divisors and regularity, continued. Recall:

Theorem (17.21). Let φ be a nonzero rational function on a normal variety X. Then φ is regular on $X \iff \operatorname{div} \varphi$ is effective.

E.g., on \mathbb{P}^n , there are no nonzero principal effective divisors (i.e., div $\varphi \ge 0 \implies \varphi$ is regular on $\mathbb{P}^n \implies \varphi \in k \setminus \{0\}$).

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) φ has no poles on U.
- (3) div φ on U is effective.
- (4) $\nu_D(\varphi) \ge 0$ for all divisors D with $D \cap U \neq \emptyset$.

Also, the following are equivalent:

(1) $\operatorname{div}_U \varphi = 0$

- (2) φ regular in U, φ^{-1} regular on U.
- (3) $\varphi \in \mathcal{O}_X^*(U)$ = subgroup of invertible elements of the ring $\mathcal{O}_X(U)$.

⁸The *height* of a prime $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ is the Krull dimension of $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$.

Example 17.30. Let $X = \mathbb{P}^2$ and

$$\varphi = \frac{\left(x^2 + y^2 - z^2\right)^2}{x^3 y} \in k(\mathbb{P}^2).$$

Then

Supp
$$(\operatorname{div} \varphi) = C \cup L_1 \cup L_2 = \mathbb{V}(x^2 + y^2 - z^2) \cup \mathbb{V}(x) \cup \mathbb{V}(y),$$

and

$$\operatorname{div}_{\mathbb{P}^2} \varphi = 2C - 3L_1 - L_2$$
$$\operatorname{div}_{U_z} \varphi = 2C - 3L_1 - L_2$$
$$\operatorname{div}_{U_x} \varphi = 2C - L_1$$
$$\operatorname{div}_{U_x \cap U_y} \varphi = 2C.$$

Since 2C is effective, Theorem 17.21 implies that $\varphi \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^2}(U_x \cap U_y)$.

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., $\mathscr{I}_{D_i}(U) = (\pi_i)$, or equivalently, $D_i \cap U = \operatorname{div}_U \pi_i$).

On U, D is principal, and we have

$$D \cap U = \operatorname{div}_U(\pi_1^{k_1} \cdots \pi_t^{k_t})$$

Example 18.1. In the setting of our previous example in \mathbb{P}^2 , $D = 2C - L_1$ has degree 3, so it is not globally principal.

However, D is locally principal. Let

$$\varphi_1 = \frac{\left(x^2 + y^2 - z^2\right)^2}{x^4}, \qquad \qquad \varphi_2 = \frac{\left(x^2 + y^2 - z^2\right)^2}{xy^3}, \qquad \qquad \varphi_3 = \frac{\left(x^2 + y^2 - z^2\right)^2}{xz^3}.$$

Then

$$\operatorname{div}_{U_x} \varphi_1 = D \cap U_x, \qquad \qquad \operatorname{div}_{U_y} \varphi_2 = D \cap U_y, \qquad \qquad \operatorname{div}_{U_z} \varphi_3 = D \cap U_z$$

Remark 18.2. On $U_x \cap U_y$, φ_1 and φ_2 have the same divisor C

$$\iff \operatorname{div}_{U_x \cap U_y} \varphi_1 = \operatorname{div}_{U_x \cap U_y} \varphi_2 \iff \operatorname{div}_{U_x \cap U_y}(\varphi_1/\varphi_2) = 0 \iff \frac{\varphi_1}{\varphi_2} \in \mathcal{O}_X^*(U_x \cap U_y).$$

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:

- $\{U_{\lambda}\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ open cover of X,
- $\varphi_{\lambda} \in k(X) = k(U_{\lambda})$ rational function on X

such that $\varphi_{\lambda} \cdot \varphi_{\mu}^{-1} \in \mathcal{O}_X^*(U_{\lambda} \cap U_{\mu})$ for all $\lambda, \mu \in \Lambda$.

The corresponding (Weil⁹) 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 $\operatorname{CDiv}(X) \subseteq \operatorname{Div}(X)$.

 $^{^{9}}$ 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.

Remark 18.4. If $D_1 = \{U_\lambda, \varphi_\lambda\}$ and $D_2 = \{U_\mu, \psi_\mu\}$ are two collections of data describing two Cartier divisors, then their sum $D_1 + D_2$ is given by $\{U_\lambda \cap U_\mu, \varphi_\lambda \cdot \psi_\mu\}$.

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 $D = \{U_{\lambda}, \varphi_{\lambda}\}$, then

$$f^*D = \left\{ f^{-1}(U_{\lambda}), f^*(\varphi_{\lambda}) \right\} = \left\{ f^{-1}(U_{\lambda}), \varphi_{\lambda} \circ f \right\}.$$

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 Cl(X) = Div(X)/P(X). The *Picard group* of X is Pic(X) = 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 $\{U_{\lambda}, \varphi_{\lambda}\}$, where the U_{λ} are open sets covering X and $\varphi \in k(X)^*$, and D is div φ_{λ} on U_{λ} :

$$D \cap U_{\lambda} = \operatorname{div}_{U_{\lambda}} \varphi_{\lambda}.$$

Example 18.7. D = hyperplane $\mathbb{V}(x_0)$ 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 φ_{λ} are uniquely determined only up to multiplication by some φ having no zeros or poles on U_{λ} , or equivalently, any of the following:

• div $\varphi = 0$

•
$$\varphi \in \mathcal{O}_X^*(U)$$

• φ is a unit in $\mathcal{O}_X(U_\lambda)$.

- (2) There is a relationship between φ_{λ} and φ_{μ} given by any of the following:
 - div φ_{λ} = div φ_{μ} on $U_{\lambda} \cap U_{\mu}$
 - div φ_{λ} div $\varphi_{\mu} = 0$ on $U_{\lambda} \cap U_{\mu}$
 - $\operatorname{div}(\varphi_{\lambda}/\varphi_{\mu}) = 0$ on $U_{\lambda} \cap U_{\mu}$.

(Or, if we don't assume X is normal, $\varphi_i / \varphi_j \in \mathcal{O}_X^*(U_i \cap U_j)$.)

18.4. Pulling back locally principal divisors.

18.4.1. Case 1. Let $Y \xrightarrow{f} X$ be a dominant regular map.

Given $D \in \operatorname{CDiv}(X) = \operatorname{set}$ of all locally principal divisors on X, think of D as given by $\{U_{\lambda}, \varphi_{\lambda}\}$. Then f^*D is given by $\{f^{-1}(U_{\lambda}), f^*(\varphi_{\lambda})\}$. Then we think of f^*D as $\operatorname{div}(f^*\varphi_{\lambda})$ on $f^{-1}(U_{\lambda})$.

Note 18.9. Each $f^*\varphi_{\lambda}$ is a nonzero rational function on Y.

Note 18.10. $\text{Supp}(f^*D) = f^{-1}(\text{Supp }D).$

Example 18.11. Let $V = \mathbb{V}(y - x^2) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^2$, and consider $V \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^1$, $(x, y) \longmapsto y$. Consider the divisor

$$D = 2p_1 - 3p_2 = \operatorname{div}\left(\frac{(t-1)^2}{(t-2)^3}\right) \in \operatorname{CDiv}(\mathbb{A}^1),$$

where $p_1 = 1$ and $p_2 = 2$ in \mathbb{A}^1 . Then

$$f^*(D) = \operatorname{div}_V f^*\left(\frac{(t-1)^2}{(t-2)^3}\right) = \operatorname{div}_V \frac{f^*(t-1)^2}{f^*(t-2)^3} = \operatorname{div}_V \frac{(t\circ f-1)^2}{(t\circ f-2)^3}$$
$$= \operatorname{div}_V \frac{(y-1)^2}{(y-2)^3} = \operatorname{div}_V \frac{(x^2-1)^2}{(x^2-2)^3} = 2q_1 + 2q_1' - 3q_2 - 3q_2',$$

where

$$q_1 = (1, 1),$$
 $q'_1 = (-1, 1),$
 $q_2 = (\sqrt{2}, 2),$ $q'_2 = (-\sqrt{2}, 2)$

Note 18.12. $Y \xrightarrow{f} X$ is dominant \iff on affine charts (say X, Y affine),

$$k[Y] \longleftarrow k[X]$$
$$g \circ f \longleftarrow g$$

is *injective*.

Think: $Y \xrightarrow{f} X$ yields a map $(\mathcal{O}_X \xrightarrow{f^*} \mathcal{O}_Y) = f^* \mathcal{O}_Y$, 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

$$\begin{array}{cccc} k[Y] & \xleftarrow{f^*} & k[X] & \Longleftrightarrow & Y \xrightarrow{f} X \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\$$

Example 18.13.

$$\mathbb{P}^{1} \xrightarrow{\nu} \mathbb{P}^{3}$$

$$[s:t] \longmapsto \left[s^{3}:s^{2}t:st^{2}:t^{3}\right]$$

$$\left[\frac{s}{t}:1\right] \longmapsto \left[\left(\frac{s}{t}\right)^{3}:\left(\frac{s}{t}\right)^{2}:\left(\frac{s}{t}\right):1\right].$$

Let $H = \mathbb{V}(x_0)$, corresponding to

$$\left\{(U_0,1),\left(U_i,\frac{x_0}{x_i}\right)\right\}.$$

Can we pull back H under ν ?

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\},\$$

 \mathbf{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 $\{U_\lambda, \varphi_\lambda\}$, then f^*D is given by

$$\left\{f^{-1}(U_{\lambda}), f^*\varphi_{\lambda}\right\},\$$

where the $f^*\varphi_{\lambda}$ are nonzero rational functions.

Proof. We have $f(Y) \not\subseteq \text{Supp}(D) \iff Y \not\subseteq f^{-1}(\text{Supp } D)$. Since Supp D consists of the zeros and poles of $\frac{h_{\lambda}}{g_{\lambda}} = \varphi_{\lambda}$ on U_{λ} , i.e., (zeros of h_{λ}) \cup (zeros of g_{λ}). Then $f^{-1}(\text{Supp } D)$ is the set of zeros of $(h_{\lambda} \circ f)$ and $(g_{\lambda} \circ f)$.

Example 18.15. Let
$$V = \mathbb{V}(y - x^2) \stackrel{f}{\subseteq} \mathbb{A}^2$$
 and $D = X - Y = \mathbb{V}(x) - \mathbb{V}(y) = \operatorname{div}\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)$ on \mathbb{A}^2 . Then
 $f^*D = \operatorname{div}\frac{f^*(x)}{f^*(y)} = \operatorname{div}\frac{x}{y} = \operatorname{div}\frac{x}{x^2} = \operatorname{div}\frac{1}{x}.$

ſ

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 $\operatorname{Pic} Y \xrightarrow{\varphi^*} \operatorname{Pic} X$.

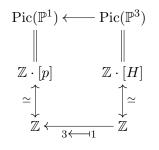
In other words, there is a contravariant functor

$$\{varieties \ over \ k\} \longrightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$$
$$X \longmapsto \operatorname{Pic} X$$

Example 18.17. The morphism

$$\mathbb{P}^1 \xrightarrow{\nu} \mathbb{P}^3$$
$$[s:t] \longmapsto \left[s^3: s^2t: st^2: t^3\right]$$

yields a commutative diagram



Example 18.18. The *d*-th Veronese map $\nu_d : \mathbb{P}^m \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^N$ induces

$$\mathbb{Z} \cong \operatorname{Pic}(\mathbb{P}^m) \longleftarrow \operatorname{Pic}(\mathbb{P}^N) = \mathbb{Z}$$
$$d \longleftrightarrow 1.$$

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' such that $D \sim D'$ and $x \notin \text{Supp } D$.

Example 18.20. On \mathbb{P}^2 , take x = [1:0:0] and $D = H = \mathbb{V}(y)$. Note that $x \in \text{Supp } D$.

By the moving lemma, there exists a divisor $D' \sim H$ such that $[1:0:0] \notin D'$. We can take $D' = \mathbb{V}(x)$. Here: $D' = D + \operatorname{div}\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)$.

Proof of moving lemma. Say D is given by data $\{U_i, \varphi_i\}$. Say $x \in U_1$.

Let D' be the divisor corresponding to data $\{U_i, \varphi_1^{-1} \cdot \varphi_i\}$. [Note: $D' \cap U_1 = \operatorname{div}_{U_1}(1)$ is empty, so $x \notin \operatorname{Supp} D'$.] Hence

$$D' = D + \operatorname{div}_x \varphi^{-1}.$$

Proof of Theorem 18.16. Let $X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Y$ be a morphism and D a locally principal divisor. We can define φ^*D whenever $\operatorname{Supp} D \not\supseteq \varphi(X)$. Then we need to check also:

(1) $D_1 \sim D_2 \implies \varphi^* D_1 \sim \varphi^* D_2$

(2) $\varphi^*(D_1) + \varphi^*(D_2) = \varphi^*(D_1 + D_2)$

when we can define φ^* .

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', where $x \notin \operatorname{Supp} D'$ (for any x we pick in φ). \Box

19. RIEMANN-ROCH SPACES AND LINEAR SYSTEMS

19.1. Riemann–Roch spaces. Fix X normal, D any divisor. Consider the set

$$\mathscr{L}(D) = \left\{ f \in k(X)^* \mid \operatorname{div}_X f + D \ge 0 \right\} \cup \{0\} \subseteq k(X).$$

Example 19.1. If $X = \mathbb{A}^1$ and $D = 2 \cdot p_0$ (where $p_0 = \mathbf{0}$ is the origin), then

$$\mathscr{L}(D) = \left\{ f \in k(t)^* \mid \text{div} \ f + 2p_0 \ge 0 \right\} \cup \{0\} = \left\{ \frac{1}{t^2} g(t) \mid g(t) \in k[t] \right\}$$

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)
$$\nu_{D_i}(f+g) \ge \min\{\nu_{D_i}(f), \nu_{D_i}(g)\}$$

(II)
$$\nu_{D_i}(fg) = \nu_{D_i}(f) + \nu_{D_i}(g).$$

To prove $\mathscr{L}(D)$ is a vector subspace of k(X), observe that

$$f,g\in \mathscr{L}(D)\implies f+g\in \mathscr{L}(D),$$

and

$$\operatorname{div} f + D \ge 0$$
$$D + \sum_{D_i} \nu_{D_i}(g) \cdot D_i = \operatorname{div} g + D \ge 0,$$

hence $\operatorname{div}_X(f+g) \ge -D$, so if

$$D = \sum_{\substack{D_i \subseteq X \\ \text{prime}}} k_i D_i,$$

then for any D_i prime divisor,

$$\nu_{D_i}(f) \ge -k_i$$

$$\nu_{D_i}(g) \ge -k_i.$$

Thus

$$\nu_{D_i}(f+g) \ge \min\left\{\nu_{D_i}(f), \nu_{D_i}(g)\right\} \ge -k_i \qquad \forall i$$

whence

$$\operatorname{div}_X(f+g) \ge -D$$

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

$$\mathscr{L}(D) = \{f \in k(x) \mid \operatorname{div} f \ge 0\} = \mathcal{O}_X(X).$$

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 $k(\mathbb{P}^1) = k\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)$, and then

$$\mathcal{L}(D) = \left\{ f\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) \mid \operatorname{div} f + p_0 + p_\infty \ge 0 \right\}$$
$$= \left\{ \frac{F_2(x, y)}{xy} \mid F_2 \text{ degree 2 homogeneous} \right\}.$$

A basis for this is

$$\left\{\frac{x^2}{xy}, \frac{xy}{xy}, \frac{y^2}{xy}\right\} = \left\{\frac{x}{y}, 1, \frac{y}{x}\right\},\$$

so 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

 $\mathscr{L}(D) = \left\{ f \in k(X)^* \mid \operatorname{div} f + D \ge 0 \right\} \cup \{0\} \subseteq k(X)$

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 $D \sim D'$, then $\mathscr{L}(D) \cong \mathscr{L}(D')$ (natural isomorphism, not equality).

Proof. We have $D - D' = \operatorname{div} f$ for some $f \in k(X)^*$. Consider

$$\left\{ g \mid \operatorname{div} g + D \ge 0 \right\} = \mathscr{L}(D) \xrightarrow{\cdot f} \mathscr{L}(D') = \left\{ h \mid \operatorname{div} h + D' \ge 0 \right\}$$
$$g \longmapsto g f.$$

Is $gf \in \mathscr{L}(D')$? Indeed, if $g \in \mathscr{L}(D)$, then div $g + D \ge 0$, so

$$\operatorname{div}(gf) + D' = \operatorname{div} g + \operatorname{div} f + D' = \operatorname{div} g + D \ge 0.$$

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

$$D\big|_U = \sum_i k_i (D_i \cap U) = "D_i \cap U".$$

Look at the Riemann–Roch space of $(U, D|_U)$.

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

$$\mathcal{O}_X(D)(U) =$$
the Riemann–Roch space of $(U, D|_U)$,

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 $D \sim D'$, then there is an isomorphism

$$\mathcal{O}_X(D) \xrightarrow{\cdot f} \mathcal{O}_X(D')$$

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 $D = 2p_0 - p_\infty$ (where $p_0 = [0:1]$ and $p_\infty = [1:0]$). Then

$$\mathcal{O}_X(D)(\mathbb{P}^1) = \left\{ f \in k(\mathbb{P}^1) \mid \operatorname{div} f + 2p_0 - p_\infty \ge 0 \right\}$$
$$= \left\{ \frac{y(ax+by)}{x^2} \mid a, b \in k \right\}.$$

If we restrict to $U_{\infty} = \mathbb{P}^1 \setminus \{[1:0]\}$, then using coordinates $t = \frac{x}{y}$,

$$\mathcal{O}_X(D)(U_\infty) = \left\{ f \in k(\mathbb{P}^1) \mid \operatorname{div}_{U_\infty} f + 2p_0 \ge 0 \right\}$$
$$= \left\{ \frac{g}{t^2} \mid g \in k[t] \right\}.$$

Similarly, letting $s = \frac{y}{x} = t^{-1}$,

$$\mathcal{O}_X(D)(U_0) = \left\{ f \in k(\mathbb{P}^1) \mid \operatorname{div} f - p_\infty \ge 0 \right\}$$
$$= \left\{ f \in k(s) \mid f \in s \cdot k[s] \right\}$$
$$= \left\{ t^{-1} \cdot k[t^{-1}] \right\} \cong \mathcal{O}_X(U_0),$$

and

$$\mathcal{O}_X(D)(U_{\infty} \cap U_0) = \mathcal{O}_X(U_{\infty} \cap U_0) = k[t, t^{-1}].$$

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 $\{U_i, \varphi_i\}$, then

$$\mathcal{O}_X(D)(U_i) = \varphi_i^{-1} \cdot \mathcal{O}_X(U_i) \subseteq k(X).$$

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' on X such that $D \sim D'$.

Example 19.14. On \mathbb{P}^2 (char $k \neq 3$), let

$$D = 3\mathbb{V}(x^3 + y^3 + z^3) - 7\mathbb{V}(x).$$

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 $\mathbb{P}(\mathscr{L}(D)) \twoheadrightarrow |D|$ which is bijective if X is projective.

Proof. Why surjective? If $D' \in |D|$, then $D' \ge 0$ and $D' \sim D$, i.e., $D' = D + \operatorname{div} f$ for some $f \in k(X)^*$. So

$$f \mapsto \operatorname{div} f + D = D'$$

Why injective for projective X? Say $D_1, D_2 \in |D|$ such that

$$f, g \mapsto \operatorname{div} f + D.$$

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

$$\mathscr{L}(D) = \left\{ f \in k(t) \mid \text{div} \ f + p \ge 0 \right\} = \frac{1}{(t-1)} \cdot k[t, t^{-1}]$$

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 $L = \mathbb{V}(x_0) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$. Then

$$|L| = \{ \text{Innes on } \mathbb{P} \}$$
$$= \mathbb{P}(\mathscr{L}(L)) = \mathbb{P}\left\{ f \in k(\mathbb{P}^2) \mid \text{div } f + L \ge 0 \right\} = \mathbb{P}\left\{ \frac{a_0 x_0 + a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2}{x_0} \mid a_i \in k \right\}.$$

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 $k(\mathbb{P}^2)$.

Example 19.18. Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$ be the conic $\mathbb{V}(F)$, where $F = x^2 + y^2 - z^2$. Then $\mathscr{L}(C) = \{f \in k(\mathbb{P}^2) \mid \text{div } f + C \ge 0\}$

$$= \left\{ \frac{G(x, y, z)}{(x^2 + y^2 - z^2)} \; \middle| \; G \in [k[x, y, z]]_2 \right\}.$$

This is a dimension 6 vector space. Basis:

$$\left\{\frac{x^2}{F}, \frac{xy}{F}, \frac{y^2}{F}, \frac{xz}{F}, \frac{z^2}{F}, \frac{yz}{F}\right\}.$$

Map this to the linear system:

$$\mathscr{L}(C) \longrightarrow |C| = \{\text{conics on } \mathbb{P}^2\}$$
$$\frac{G}{F} \longmapsto \operatorname{div} \frac{G}{F} + C = \mathbb{V}(G) \qquad (\text{as a scheme})$$

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):

$$\mathbb{P}^2 \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^5$$
$$[x:y:z] \longmapsto \left[\frac{x^2}{F} : \frac{xy}{F} : \frac{y^2}{F} : \frac{xz}{F} : \frac{z^2}{F} : \frac{yz}{F}\right]$$

This is the Veronese 2-map.

Note that if we denote $L = \mathbb{V}(x)$, then |C| = |2L|, and the corresponding Riemann–Roch space is

$$\mathscr{L}(2L) = \left\{ \frac{G}{x^2} \mid 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| = |2L| are the *pullbacks* of the *hyperplanes* in \mathbb{P}^5 .

Multiplying by F, we can also describe this map as

$$\mathbb{P}^2 \xrightarrow{\nu_2} \mathbb{P}^5$$
$$[x:y:z] \longmapsto \left[x^2:xy:y^2:xz:z^2:yz\right].$$

Look at the linear system |H| on \mathbb{P}^5 of hyperplanes. Say

$$H = \mathbb{V}(a_0 x_0 + \dots + a_5 x_5).$$

Then

$$\nu_2^* H = \mathbb{V}(a_0 x^2 + a_1 x y + \dots + a_5 y z).$$

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

$$V \subseteq \mathscr{L}(D) \twoheadrightarrow |D|.$$

Then we have a map $V \to \mathbb{P}(V) \subseteq |D|$. 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 $H = \mathbb{V}(x_n)$. Call this set

$$\mathcal{V} = \mathbb{P}(V) = \left\{ f \mid \operatorname{div} f + H \ge 0 \right\}$$

Then

$$V = \left\langle \text{span of } \frac{x_0}{x_n}, \dots, \frac{x_{n-1}}{x_n} \right\rangle \subseteq \mathscr{L}(H) = \left\langle \frac{x_0}{x_n}, \frac{x_1}{x_n}, \dots, \frac{x_{n-1}}{x_n}, 1 \right\rangle.$$

Definition 19.22. The *base locus* of a linear system \mathcal{V} is the set

$$Bs \mathcal{V} = \left\{ x \in X \mid x \in \operatorname{Supp} D \ \forall D \in \mathcal{V} \right\}.$$

A linear system is *base point free* if $Bs \mathcal{V} = \emptyset$.

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

$$|2L_2| \supseteq \mathcal{V} \longleftrightarrow |L|$$
$$L_1 + L_2 \longleftrightarrow L_2.$$

A conic $C \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$ contains $L_1 = \mathbb{V}(x)$ iff

$$I_C = (F) = (ax + by + cz)x \subseteq I_{L_1} = (x)$$

A basis for \mathcal{F} is given by

$$\frac{x^2}{F}, \frac{xy}{F}, \frac{zx}{F}.$$

Map to projective space by

$$\mathbb{P}^2 \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^2$$
$$[x:y:z] \longmapsto \left[\frac{x^2}{F}:\frac{xy}{F}:\frac{xz}{F}\right] = [x:y:z],$$

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

$$\frac{\{\text{rational maps } X \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^n\}}{(\text{projective change of coordinates})} \longleftrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{c} n\text{-dimensional linear systems of divisors on} \\ X \text{ with no fixed component} \end{array} \right\} \\ \left[X \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^n \right] \longmapsto \{\text{pullback of hyperplane linear systems on } \mathbb{P}^n\}.$$

Example 19.25. Consider the map

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}^1 & \xrightarrow{\nu} \mathbb{P}^3 \\ [s:t] & \longmapsto \left[s^3:s^2t:st^2:t^3\right] \end{split}$$

and the linear system

$$|H| = \left\{ \text{hyperplanes on } \mathbb{P}^3 \right\} = \left\{ \mathbb{V}(ax + by + cz + dw) \mid [a:b:c:d] \in \mathbb{P}^3 \right\}.$$

Then

$$\nu^* |H| = \left\{ \nu^* \left(\mathbb{V}(ax + by + cz + dw) \right) \mid [a:b:c:d] \in \mathbb{P}^3 \right\}$$
$$= \left\{ \mathbb{V}(as^3 + bs^2t + cst^2 + dt^3) \right\}$$
$$= \left\{ \text{complete linear system on } \mathbb{P}^1 \text{ of degree 3 divisors} \right\} = |3P|$$

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

$$\mathcal{V} \longmapsto \begin{bmatrix} X \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^n \\ x \longmapsto [\varphi_0(x) : \cdots : \varphi_n(x)] \end{bmatrix},$$

where the φ_i are a basis for V.

Furthermore: the locus of indeterminacy of φ is the base locus of \mathcal{V} .

Example 19.26. In \mathbb{P}^2 , fix a line L. Look at the linear system $\mathcal{W}_L \subseteq |C_3|$ (where $|C_3|$ is the 9-dimensional complete linear system of cubics in \mathbb{P}^2) of cubics that contain L. We have

$$L \subseteq C_3 \iff F_3 = x \cdot F_2$$

where $F_2(x, y, z)$ is degree 2. So

$$\mathscr{L}(C_3) = \left\langle \frac{x^3}{F_3} : \frac{x^2y}{F_3} : \dots : \frac{z^3}{F_3} \right\rangle \supseteq \left\{ \frac{x \cdot x^2}{F_3} : \frac{x \cdot xy}{F_3} : \frac{x \cdot xz}{F_3} : \frac{x \cdot y^2}{F_3} : \frac{x \cdot yz}{F_3} : \frac{x \cdot z^2}{F_3} \right\}.$$

What is the map $\varphi_{\mathcal{W}_L}$ corresponding to \mathcal{W}_L ? It is

$$\mathbb{P}^2 \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^5$$
$$[x:y:z] \longmapsto \left[\frac{x^3}{F_3}: \frac{x^2y}{F_3}: \dots: \frac{xz^2}{F_3}\right] = \left[x^2: xy: \dots: z^2\right].$$

Note that \mathcal{W}_L gives the same map as $|C_2|$.

Note 19.27. Let $X \dashrightarrow \varphi \mathbb{P}^n$ and $D \in \text{Div}(\mathbb{P}^n)$. What is $\varphi^* D$? We have

and $X \setminus U$ has codimension ≥ 2 . Then

$$\varphi^* D \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \overline{\varphi^*_U D},$$

the unique divisor D' on X such that $D'|_{U} = (\varphi_n^* D)$.

Example 19.28. In general, the Veronese map $\mathbb{P}^n \xrightarrow{\nu_d} \mathbb{P}^{\binom{n+d}{d}-1}$ corresponds to the complete linear system |dH| on \mathbb{P}^n .

Definition 19.29. A divisor D is *very ample* if the map $\varphi_{|D|} : X \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^n$ corresponding to the complete linear system |D| is an embedding.

A divisor D is *ample* if $\exists m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that mD is very ample.

Example 19.30. Consider the projection

$$\mathbb{P}^3 \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{P}^2$$
$$[x:y:z:w] \longmapsto [x:y:z]$$

from p = [0:0:0:1]. Let $H = \mathbb{V}(ax + by + cz) \in |H|$. Then hyperplanes H correspond to hyperplanes on \mathbb{P}^3 which contain p, i.e.,

 $|H_p| = \text{linear system on } \mathbb{P}^3$ of hyperplanes through p.

This is fixed component free, since the base locus is $\{p\}$, the locus of indeterminacy of φ .

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

$$T = \left\{ (x, \ell) \mid x \in \ell \right\} \subseteq k^{n+1} \times \mathbb{P}^r$$

with the projection map $T \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{P}^n$. The fiber

$$\pi^{-1}(\ell) = \left\{ (x,\ell) \mid x \in \ell \right\}$$

is the set of points in the line which is ℓ .

A section is a morphism $\mathbb{P}^n \xrightarrow{s} T$ such that $\pi \circ s = \operatorname{id} |_{\mathbb{P}^n}$. 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:

$$s_1 + s_2 : \mathbb{P}^n \longrightarrow T$$
$$\ell \longmapsto s_1(\ell) + s_2(\ell)$$

We can also multiply a section $s: \mathbb{P}^n \longrightarrow T$ by any function $f: \mathbb{P}^n \longrightarrow k$:

$$\begin{split} fs: \mathbb{P}^n &\longrightarrow T \\ fs(\ell) = f(\ell) s(\ell) \in \pi^{-1}(\ell) \end{split}$$

20.2. Differential forms.

Definition 20.1. A *differential form* ψ on X is an assignment associating to each $x \in X$ some $\psi(x) \in (T_x X)^*$.

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 df is a differential form:

$$df(x) = d_x f = \sum_{i=1}^n \left. \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_i} \right|_x \left(x - x_i(x) \right) \Big|_{T_x X \subseteq T_x \mathbb{A}^n}.$$

We can add two differential forms:

 $(\psi_1 + \psi_2)(x) = \psi_1(x) + \psi_2(x).$

Can also multiply ψ by any k-valued function φ :

$$(\varphi\psi)(x) = \varphi(x) \cdot \psi(x).$$

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 , $\sin x \, dy + \cos x \, dx \in \Psi[x]$ is a differential form.

20.3. Regular differential forms.

Definition 20.5. A differential form ψ on X is *regular* if $\forall x \in X$, there is an open neighborhood $U \ni x$ such that $\psi|_U$ agrees with $\sum_{i=1}^t g_i df_i$, where $f_i, g_i \in \mathcal{O}_X(U)$.

In other words, viewing ψ as a section of the cotangent bundle of X, the section map is regular.

Example 20.6. The differential form

$$\psi = 2x \, d(xy) = 2x \, (x \, dy + y \, dx) = 2x^2 \, dy + 2xy \, dx$$

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, Ω_X is a *sheaf* of \mathcal{O}_X -modules.

Example 20.9. On \mathbb{A}^n , Ω_X is the free \mathcal{O}_X -module generated by dx_1, \ldots, dx_n .

Theorem 20.10. If X is smooth, then Ω_X is a locally free \mathcal{O}_X -module of rank dim X.

Proof sketch. Take $x \in X$, and take local parameters x_1, \ldots, x_n at x. Show that dx_1, \ldots, dx_n are a free basis for Ω_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 $\mathbb{I}(V) = (g_1, \ldots, g_t) \subseteq k[\mathbb{A}^n]$. Then $\Omega_V(V)$ is the $\mathcal{O}_V(V)$ -module

$$\frac{k[V] dx_1|_V + \dots + k[V] dx_n|_V}{k[V] \text{-submodule generated by } (dg_1, \dots, dg_t)}$$

Note that if g vanishes on V, then dg = 0 on V.

Example 20.12. Let $V = \mathbb{V}(t - s^2) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^2$. Then

$$\Omega_V = \frac{k[V]\,dt + k[V]\,ds}{(dt - 2s\,ds)}.$$

This is free, since $dt = 2s \, ds$ in Ω_V , so the generator dt is redundant, and $\Omega_V = k[V] \, ds$.

Example 20.13. Consider \mathbb{P}^1 with homogeneous coordinates x, y, and with $t = \frac{x}{y}$, $s = \frac{y}{x}$. Say ψ is a global regular differential form on \mathbb{P}^1 . Then

$$\psi \big|_{U_y} \in \Omega_{\mathbb{P}^1}(U_y) = k[t] dt$$

$$\psi \big|_{U_x} \in \Omega_{\mathbb{P}^1}(U_x) = k[s] ds.$$

If we have $p(t) dt \in k[t] dt$ and $q(s) ds \in k[t] dt$, then

$$p(t) dt = q(1/t) d(1/t)$$

on $U_x \cap U_y$. Then

$$p(t) dt = -q(1/t)\frac{dt}{t^2},$$

 \mathbf{SO}

$$t^2 p(t) = -q(1/t)$$

in $k[t, t^{-1}]$. Thus p = q = 0, i.e., there are no nontrivial global regular differential forms on \mathbb{P}^1 .

However, on $X = \mathbb{V}(x^3 + y^3 + z^3) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$, there is a 1-dimensional k-vector space of global differential forms. And, on $X = \mathbb{V}(x^4 + y^4 + z^4) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2$, 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 $f_1dg_1 + \cdots + f_rdg_r$, 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, φ) where $U \subseteq X$ is open and $\varphi \in \Omega_X(U)$. [As with rational functions, $(U, \varphi) \sim (U', \varphi')$ means $\varphi|_{U \cap U'} = \varphi'|_{U \cap U'}$.]

We can define the divisor of a rational differential form.

Definition 20.16. If ω 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,

$$\dim \mathscr{L}(K_X) = \operatorname{genus}(X).$$

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 $X_{\rm sm} \subseteq X$; since $\operatorname{codim}(X \setminus X_{\rm sm}) \ge 2$, we won't miss any divisors).

Consider the sheaf Ω_X of regular differential forms on X. [In U, $\Omega_X(U)$ is the set of differential forms φ on U such that $\forall x \in U$, there exists an open neighborhood where φ agrees with $\sum f_i dg_i$, where f_i, g_i are regular functions.]

The sheaf Ω_X is a *locally* free \mathcal{O}_X -module of rank $d = \dim X$.

Fact 20.18. The set of rational differential forms¹⁰ 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 $\{u_i\}$ over which k(X) is separable algebraic [i.e., $k(u_1, \ldots, u_n) \hookrightarrow k(X)$ is separable algebraic].

Example 20.20. Consider $X = \mathbb{P}^2$. Then

$$k\left(\frac{x}{y}, \frac{z}{y}\right) \xrightarrow{\simeq} k(\mathbb{P}^2),$$

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 du_1, \ldots, du_n is a basis for the space of rational differential forms on X over k(X).

Proof sketch. We have $k(u_1, \ldots, u_n) \hookrightarrow k(X)$. Given $\sum f_i dg_i$ with $f_i, g_i \in k(X)$, it suffices for each $g = g_i \in k(X)$ that we can write

$$dg = r_1 du_1 + \dots + r_n du_n$$

for $r_i \in k(X)$.

Then g satisfies a minimal polynomial

$$g^m + a_1 g^{m-1} + \dots + a_m = 0$$

with $a_i \in k(u_1, \ldots, u_n)$. Apply "d":

$$mg^{m-1}dg + g^m da_1 + a_1 \cdot (m-1)g^{m-2}dg + \dots + da_m = 0.$$
(*)

¹⁰Shafarevich denotes this $\Theta(X)$.

Solve for dg_i :

(rational function) $dg \in k(X)$ -span of du_1, \ldots, du_n .

(Check the coefficient on dg is not zero if (*) is separable.) So $dg \in k(X)$ -span of du_1, \ldots, du_n . \Box

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 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i dg_{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dg_{i_p}$.

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 $\binom{n}{n}$.

Proof. If u_1, \ldots, u_n is a separating transcendence basis, then $\{du_{i_1} \land \cdots \land du_{i_p}\}$ 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, dim X = n) is

$$\omega_X = \bigwedge^n \Omega_X.$$

Note 20.24. (1) ω_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

$$fd\left(\frac{x}{z}\right) \wedge d\left(\frac{y}{z}\right)$$

We have

$$d\left(\frac{x}{z}\right) \wedge d\left(\frac{y}{z}\right) = d\left(\frac{s}{t}\right) \wedge d\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)$$
$$= \left(\frac{t\,ds - s\,dt}{t^2}\right) \wedge \frac{(-dt)}{t^2}$$
$$= \frac{-t\,ds \wedge dt}{t^4} = \frac{-ds \wedge dt}{t^3}.$$

On U_z , there are no zeros or poles. On U_y , we have a pole of order 3 along t = 0 (the divisor $\mathbb{V}(z) \subset \mathbb{P}^2$).

So:

div
$$\left(d\left(\frac{x}{z}\right) \wedge d\left(\frac{y}{z}\right)\right) = -3L_{\infty},$$

where $L_{\infty} = \mathbb{V}(z) \subset \mathbb{P}^2$.

Definition 20.26. The divisor of a rational canonical form φ on X is the divisor

$$\operatorname{div}(\varphi) = \sum_{\substack{D \text{ prime} \\ \operatorname{divisor}}} \nu_D(\varphi) D,$$

where $\nu_D(\varphi)$ is computed as follows: Pick any u_1, \ldots, u_n parameters for a point $x \in D$. Write

$$\varphi = f \cdot du_1 \wedge \dots \wedge du_n,$$

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 $f \in k(X)$, ω 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 $div(\omega)$ 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 $\mathit{classify}$ varieties. If we embed



then $X \cong Y \iff$ there is a projective change of coordinates taking X to Y.

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