MAT4210—Algebraic geometry I: Notes 8

Non-singular curves
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Hot themes in Notes 8:

Super-Preliminary version o.o as of 12th March 2018 at 9:56am—Well, still not really a version at all, but better. Improvements will follow!

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Intoduction

BlaBla

Overview

Rational and birational maps

Just like we spoke about rational functions on a variety being function defined and regular on a non-empty open subset, one may speak about rational maps from a variety X to another Y. Strictly speaking, this is a pair consisting of an open subset $U \subseteq X$ and a morphism $\phi \colon U \to Y$. Commonly a rational map is indicate by a broken arrow like $\phi \colon X \dashrightarrow Y$.

If V is another open subset of X containing U, an *extension* of ϕ to V is a morphism $\psi \colon V \to Y$ such that $\psi|_U = \phi$; it is common usage to say that ϕ is defined on V. An open subset $U \subseteq X$ is called a *maximal* subset of definition for ϕ if ϕ can not be extended to any open subset strictly containing U. The next proposition tells us that every rational map ϕ has unique maximal set of definition:

Proposition 8.1 Let X and Y be two varities, and $U \subseteq X$ an open nonempty set. Suppose that $\phi \colon U \to Y$ a morphism. Then ϕ has a unique maximal set of definition.

PROOF: Since *X* is a Noetherian topological space, any non-empty collection of open subsets has a maximal element. Hence maximal sets of definition exists, and merely the unicity statement requires some work.

Assume that V_1 and V_2 open subsets of X cotaining U and both being maximal sets of definition for ϕ . Let the two extensions be ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 . Both restrict to morphisms on the intersection $V_1 \cap V_2$, and the salient point is that these two restrictions coincide. Indeed, both ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 restrict to ϕ on U, and because Y is a variety (open subset of varieties are varieties) the Hausdorff axiom holds for $V_1 \cap V_2$.

Consequently, the subset of $V_1 \cap V_2$ where ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 coincide, is closed; and since they coincide on U, which is dense in $V_1 \cap V_2$, they coincide along the entire intersection $V_1 \cap V_2$. This means that ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 can be patched together to give a map defined on $V_1 \cup V_2$, which is a morphism (being a morphism is a local property). My maximality, it follows that $V_1 = V_2$.

DOMINANT RATIONAL MAPS enjoy a weeker but similar functorial property as morphisms. "By composition" they induce in a contravariant way a k-algebra homomorphism, but merely between the function fields of the two involved varieties.

To be precise, assume that $\phi: X \longrightarrow Y$ is the dominant, rational map, and that ϕ is defined on the open set U_{ϕ} . For any open $V \subseteq Y$, the inverse image $\phi^{-1}(V \cap \phi U_{\phi})$ is non-empty since ϕ is dominating and of course it is open. A member f of the function field K(Y) is a regular function defined on some open set V_f of Y and the composition $f \circ \phi$ is a regular function on $\phi^{-1}(V_f \cap \phi U_{\phi})$, and hence defines an element in function field K(X). In this way we obtain a homomorphism $\phi^* : K(Y) \to K(X)$.

An important proertry is that this construction is reversible:

Theorem 8.1 Given two varities X and Y and a k-algebra isomorphism $\alpha \colon K(Y) \to K(X)$. Then there exists a unique dominant rational map $\phi: X \dashrightarrow Y \text{ such that } \phi^* = \alpha.$

Notice that the α is a field isomorphism but it must act trivially on the constants k.

PROOF: We begin by choosing an open and affine set in each of the varieties *X* and *Y*. Call them *U* and *V* with $U \subseteq X$ and $V \subseteq Y$. They have coordinate rings $A = \mathcal{O}_X(U)$ and $B = \mathcal{O}_Y(V)$; then $A \subseteq K(X)$ and $B \subseteq K(Y)$. Furthermore, the function fields are the fractio fieldsa of A and B respectively. As U and V were randomly chose, there is no reason for α to send B into A; but we shall replace B with a localization for this to happen.

The k-algebra B is finitely generated over k; let b_1, \ldots, b_s be generators. The images $\alpha(b_i)$ are form $\alpha(b_i) = a_i a^{-1}$ with the a_i 's and a all belonging to A (the field K(X) is the fraction field of A). But then α sends B into the localized ring A_a .

Translating this algebra into geometry will finish the proof. The localization A_a is the coordinate ring of the distinguished affine open subset U_a of U, and by the main theorem about morphisms between affine varieties, there is a morphism $\phi: U_a \to V$ with ϕ^* equal to $\alpha|_V$. Hence ϕ represents a rational and dominating map with the requested property that $\alpha = \phi^*$ RatFunkKropp

$$K(Y) \xrightarrow{\alpha} K(X)$$

$$\downarrow B \xrightarrow{\alpha} A_a$$

$$\downarrow A$$

A birational map is a rational map which has a rational inverse. To be precise, assume that *X* and *Y* are two varieties; To give a birational map from *X* to *Y* is to give open sets $U \subseteq X$ and $V \subseteq Y$ and an isomorphism $\phi: U \to V$. When there is birational map between X and Y one sais that X and Y are birationally equivalent. Be aware that the open set U might be smaller than the maximal set of definition U_{ϕ} ; like in example 8.1 below. The main theorem (theorem 8.1 above) tells us that two varities X and Y are birationally equivalent if and only if their faunctions fields are isomorphic as *k*-algebras.

BIRATIONAL GEOMETRY did almost dominate algebraic geometry at a certain period. The classification of varities up to birational equivalence is a much courser classification than classification up to isomorphism, and hence it is a priori an easier task (but still, challenging enough). However, for non-singular projective curves, as we later shall see, the two are equivalent. Two such curves are isomorphic if and only if they are birationally equivalent.

Already for projective non-singular surfaces, the situation is completely different. There are infinitely many non-isomorphic surface in the same birational class (see example 8.3 below for a simple example of two), and they can form a very complicated hierarchy. For varities of higher dimension, the picture is even more complicated, but the so called Mori Minimal Model Program that as evolved during the last twenty years, shed some light on the situation.

EXAMPLE 8.1 Consider the map $\sigma(x;y;z) = (yz;xz;xy)$ which is a rational map from \mathbb{P}^2 to \mathbb{P}^2 (by lemma ?? above, it is morphism where it is defined). The map σ is certainly define away from the three points $e_z = (0;0;1)$, $e_y = (0;1;0)$ and $e_x = (1;0;0)$, but can not be extended beyond any of these. Let us check this for the point $e_z = (0,0,1)$. To that end, introduce the two lines $L_x = Z_+(x)$ and $L_y = Z_+(y)$. Now, the point is that σ maps $L_x \setminus e_z$ and $L_y \setminus e_z$ to two different points, namely to e_x and e_y repectively. And this, of course, excludes an extension of σ to a neighbourhood of e_z . For the two other points symmetric arguments hold, and we can conclude that the maximal set of definition for σ is the open set $U_{\sigma} = \mathbb{P}^2 \setminus$ $\{e_x, e_y, e_z\}.$ *

EXAMPLE 8.2 Any rational map $\mathbb{P}^1 \to \mathbb{P}^n$ is defined everywhere; in other words, the maximal set of definition U_{ϕ} of ϕ is equal to the entire \mathbb{P}^1 . Let $D = D_+(x_i)$ be one the basic open sets which meet the image of U_{ϕ} under ϕ . The variety D is an affine n-space with coordinates $\{x_i x_i^{-1}\}.$

The inverse image $V = \phi^{-1}(D \cap \phi(U_{\pi}))$ is an open set, and the ncomponent functions of $\phi|_V$ are rational functions on \mathbb{P}^1 . They may

Birational maps

Birationally equivalent varities

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be brought on the form f_i/f_i with $0 \le i \le n$ and $i \ne i$, where the polynomial f_i is their common denominator and does not vanish on V; that is, at points in V the relation $x_i x_i^{-1} = f_i f_i^{-1}$ holds.

The idea is to use the f_k 's (now including f_i) as the homogenous components of a morphism of \mathbb{P}^1 into \mathbb{P}^n . However, it could happen that the n + 1 polynomials f_k have a common factor, but it can be discarded and hence we can assume that f_k 's are without common zeros. This allows us to define a map $\Phi(x) = (f_0(x); ...; f_n(x))$ which is easily checked to be a morphism that extends ϕ . *

EXAMPLE 8.3 The quadric $Q = Z_{+}(xz - yw) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^{3}$ is birationally equivalent to the projective plane \mathbb{P}^2 , the two are not isomorphic. This is one of the simplest example of two non-isomorphic projective and non-singular surfaces being birationally equivalent.

To begin with, the two are not isomorphic. They are not even homeomorphic since any two curves in \mathbb{P}^2 intersect, but on the quadric there families of disjoint lines. For example the two disjoint lines x = y = 0 and x + z = y + w = 0 both lie on Q.

Next we exhibit a birational map $\phi: Q \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^2$. It will be defined on the open set $U = D_+(x) \cap Q$. In $D_+(x) \simeq \mathbb{A}^3$ with coordinates y, z and w, the equation of Q becomes, z = yw. It is almost obvious that the projection $\mathbb{A}^3 \to \mathbb{A}^2$ sending (y, z, w) to (y, w) induces an isomorphism from $Q \cap D_+(x)$ to \mathbb{A}^2 , but a rewarding exercise for the sudents to check all details.

The case of curves

In this section *X* will denote a curve; that is, a variety of dimension one. The fundamental property of curves in this context is that any rational map from a curve into a projective varletry is defined at all non-singular points of the curve. This implies that binational maps between projective non-singular curves are isomorphisms, and consequently there is up to isomorphism only one non-singular and projective curve in a binational class.

Another consequence of the extension property is that every nonsingular curve is isomorphic to an open set of a non-singular projective curve (it could of course be equal to the whole). In particular, any field of trancendence degree one over an algebraically closed field *k* is the function field of a projective and non-singular curve.

An easy algebraic preparation

If $P \in X$ is a non-singular point, the local ring $\mathcal{O}_{X,P}$ of X at P is regular of dimension one. It is also an integral domain, X being¹ a variety. KvadrikkOgPlan

¹ It is a theorem that regular rings are domains, but we have not proven that.

That $\mathcal{O}_{X,P}$ is regular of dimension one implies that the maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of $\mathcal{O}_{X,P}$ requires just one generator. Let t be one. Then t is a rational function on X which is regular in a neighbourhood V of P, and if the neighbourhood is sufficiently small, t has no other zeros in V but *P*. Such a function t is often called a *uniformizing parameter* at *P*.

The following easy lemma from commutative algebra, tells us that any rational function f on X may be expressed as $f = \alpha t^{\nu}$ where α is a rational function, regular and non-vanishing at P, and where ν is an integer. It holds true that $\nu \geq 0$ precisely when f is regular at P, and $\nu = 0$ exactly when f is regular and non-vanishing at P.

Lemma 8.1 In a local Noetherian domain whose maximal ideal is principal, all ideals are powers of the maximal ideal.

PROOF: Let x a generator for the maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} and let $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq A$ be a non-zero ideal. Let n be the largest integer such that $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}^n$; an n like that exists by *e.g.*, Krull's intersection theorem. Since $\mathfrak{a} \nsubseteq \mathfrak{m}^{n+1}$, there is an $a \in \mathfrak{a}$, such that $a = \alpha x^n$ with $\alpha \notin \mathfrak{m}$, that is α is a unit since the ring is local. It follows that $(x^n) \subseteq \mathfrak{a}$, and we are done.

The lemma shows that *A* is a *discrete valuation ring*; any element in its fraction field K can be written as αt^{ν} with α a unit in A and ν an integer.

The extension lemma

The main property of curves in this context is that any rational map from a curve into a projective varletry is defined at all non-singular points of the curve.

One may think about this as an advanced form of "l'Hôpital's" rule. The tactics of the proof is firts to realize the mapping in a neighbourhood of *P* as the composition $\pi \circ \Phi$ where $\pi \colon \mathbb{A}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\} \to \mathbb{P}^n$ and where $\Phi = (g_0, \dots, g_n)$ with the g_i 's regular near P, and then cancel out common factors of the g_i 's vanishing at P.

Lemma 8.2 Let U be a curve and $P \in U$ a non-singular point. Assume that $\phi \colon U \setminus \{P\} \to \mathbb{P}^n$ is a morphism. Then there exists a morphism $\psi \colon U \to \mathbb{P}^n$ extending ϕ .

PROOF: The first observation is that it suffices to find an open $U_0 \subseteq U$ containing P over which ϕ extends. Indeed, if $\psi_0: U_0 \to \mathbb{P}^n$ is such an extension, the two morphisms ψ_0 and ϕ coincide on $U_0 \setminus \{P\}$, and hence they patch together to a morphism on *U*. It follows that we may assume *U* to be affine.

Secondly, we may, possible after having renumbered the coordinates, assume that the image $\phi(U \setminus \{P\})$ meets the basic open set

Uniformizing parameters

 $D = D_{+}(x_0)$; then the inverse image $V = \phi^{-1}D$ is a non-empty open subset of *U*, and by shrinking *V* if necessary, *V* will be an affine open subset being mapped into D The basic open set D is an affine n-space with coordinates $x_1x_0^{-1}, \ldots, x_nx_0^{-1}$, and the map $\phi|_V$ is therefore given by m component functions on V. They are all rational function on *U*, and may therefore be written as fractions $f_i = g_i/g_0$ of regular functions on *U*.

Consider the morphism $\Phi(x) = (g_0, g_1, \dots, g_n)$ from U into \mathbb{A}^{n+1} . It is well defined at the point *P*, but of course, it might be that it maps P to the origin. However, if this is not the case, the composition $\pi \circ \phi$ is defined at P and extends ϕ to the neighbourhood of P where the g_i 's do not vanish simultaneously, and we will be done.

Now, the salient point is that we have the liberty to alter the morphism Φ by cancelling common factors of the g_i 's without changing the composition $\pi \circ \Phi$: after such a modification the composition $\pi \circ \Phi$ and the original morphism ϕ coinside where they both are defined. Indeed, it holds true that $(hg_0; ...; hg_n) = (g_0; ...; g_n)$ where both sets of homogeneous coordinates are legitimate.

To get rid of common zeros of g_i 's might have at the point P, we introduce a uniformizing parameter t at p; that is, a regular function t on U which generates the maximal ideal of the local ring $\mathcal{O}_{U,P}$. One may then write $g_i = \alpha_i t^{\nu_i}$ with the α_i 's being regular functions on Uthat do not vanish at P, and where the v_i 's are non-negative integers. Putting $\nu = \min_i \nu_i$, the differences $\mu_i = \nu_i - \nu$ will be non-negative and at least one will be zero. Hence replacing g_i by $g_i t^{-n} = \alpha_i t^{\nu_i - \nu}$ we arrive at the requested modification of Φ .

The theorems

Most of the work is done in proving the lemma, and we can collect the fuits. Here comes the theorems:

Theorem 8.2 Let X be a curve and $P \in X$ a non-singular point. Any rational map $\phi: X \dashrightarrow Y$ where Y is a projective variety, is defined at P.

PROOF: Assume the projective variety Y is a closed subvariety of \mathbb{P}^m ; that is, $Y \subseteq \mathbb{P}^m$. Let *U* be a neighbourhood of *P* such that ϕ is defined on $U \setminus \{P\}$. By the extension lemma (lemma 8.2 above), the map ϕ composed with the inclusion Y into \mathbb{P}^m extends to P, and the extension takes values in Y since Y is closed in \mathbb{P}^m .

It is paramount that *P* be a non-singular point. If *X* has *e.g.*, two different branches passing theorug P, the "limit" of ϕ at P along the two branches may be different.

Theorem 8.3 Assume that X and Y are two projective and non-singular curves that are birationally equivalent. Then they are isomorphic.

ExtensionTheorem

PROOF: Let $U \subseteq X$ and $V \subseteq Y$ be two open sets such that there is an isomorphism ϕ : $U \dashrightarrow V$. Since Y is projective and X is non-singular a repeated application of theorem 8.2 above gives a morphism Φ: $X \to Y$ extending ϕ . Similarly, there is morphism $\Psi: Y \to X$ extending ϕ^{-1} . Finally, the Hausdorff axiom holds for both X and Y, and one infers that $\Phi \circ \Psi = id_Y$ and $\Psi \circ \Phi = id_X$ since they extend $\phi \circ \phi^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_V$ and $\phi^{-1} \circ \phi = \mathrm{id}_U$ respectively.