# Math 7359 (Elliptic Curves and Modular Forms)

# Lecture #11 of 24 $\sim$ October 16, 2023

Differentials

- Elliptic Curves via Riemann-Roch (leftovers)
- Differentials on Curves

# Recall, I

#### Theorem (Riemann-Roch)

For any algebraic curve C/k, there exists an integer  $g \ge 0$  called the <u>genus</u> of C, and a divisor class C, called the <u>canonical class</u> of C, such that for any divisor  $C \in C$  and any divisor  $A \in Div(K)$ , we have  $\ell(A) = \deg(A) - g + 1 + \ell(C - A)$ .

#### Proposition (Corollaries of Riemann-Roch)

Let C/k be an algebraic curve.

- 1. For any divisor A with  $deg(A) \ge 0$ , we have  $deg(A) g + 1 \le \ell(A) \le deg(A) + 1$ .
- 2. For  $C \in C$  we have  $\ell(C) = g$  and  $\deg(C) = 2g 2$ .
- 3. If  $\deg(A) \ge 2g 2$ , then  $\ell(A) = \deg(A) g + 1$  except when  $A \in C$  (in which case  $\ell(A) = g$ ).
- 4. The genus g is unique, as is the equivalence class  $\mathcal{C}$ .

#### Theorem (Genus-1 Curves)

Suppose C is a smooth curve of genus 1 defined over the field F that has a rational point  $P \in F$ . Then there exist  $x, y \in F(C)$  with  $v_P(x) = 2$  and  $v_P(y) = 3$  such that F(C) = F(x, y) and  $y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6$  for some  $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_6 \in F$ .

#### Definition (Elliptic Curves, Properly)

Let F be a field. An <u>elliptic curve</u> E over F is a smooth projective curve defined over F with genus 1 that has an F-rational point O.

#### Theorem (The Group Law, Again, Continued)

Let F be a field and E be an elliptic curve defined over F with an F-rational point O.

- 5. The group law defines morphisms  $+ : E \times E \to E$  mapping  $(P, Q) \mapsto P + Q$  and  $: E \to E$  mapping  $P \mapsto -P$ .
- 6. For any divisor  $D \in Div(E)$ , D is principal if and only if deg(D) = 0 and the formal sum representing D evaluates to O when viewed as a sum of points using the group law.

### Elliptic Curves But Properly, X

5. The group law defines morphisms  $+ : E \times E \to E$  mapping  $(P, Q) \mapsto P + Q$  and  $- : E \to E$  mapping  $P \mapsto -P$ .

Proof (outline):

- The actual details involve various special cases, but it suffices to show that the maps are rational, since rational maps from a smooth curve to a variety are automatically morphisms.
- But the addition map and the additive-inverse map are both rational on almost all points, as we have already seen via the explicit formulas.
- The only possible exceptions involve adding a point to itself or a point to *O*.
- One may check explicitly in these cases that the maps still yield morphisms by rearranging the formulas using projective equivalences like the ones we did a few weeks ago.

For any divisor D ∈ Div(E), D is principal if and only if deg(D) = 0 and the formal sum representing D evaluates to O when viewed as a sum of points using the group law.

- As we have previously noted, the degree of any principal divisor is 0, so certainly we must have deg(D) = 0.
- Now if D ∈ Div<sup>0</sup>(E) is D = ∑<sub>P</sub> n<sub>P</sub>[P] we have D ~ 0 if and only if σ(D) = O.
- But  $\sigma(D) = \sigma(\sum_P n_P[P]) = \sum_P n_P \sigma([P]) = \sum_P n_P(P-O) = \sum_P n_P P$  by definition of  $\sigma$  and the equivalence of the group operations in (4).
- So we see  $\sigma(D) = O$  if and only if  $\sum_P n_P P = O$  when viewed as a sum of points using the group law.

Some of these results can be packaged together via an exact sequence:

Exercise: Show that we have an exact sequence

$$1 \to k^* \to k(E)^* \stackrel{\text{div}}{\to} \text{Div}^0(E) \stackrel{\text{(6)}}{\to} E \to 0$$

where div represents the divisor map  $f \mapsto \operatorname{div}(f)$  and (6) represents the map discussed in (6) that takes a divisor  $\sum_{P} n_{P}[P]$  and evaluates it as a sum of points on E.

We would now like to establish the converse of our theorem above: namely, that every smooth projective curve with a Weierstrass equation  $Y^2Z + a_1XYZ + a_3YZ^2 = X^3 + a_2X^2Z + a_4XZ^2 + a_6Z^3$ is actually an elliptic curve.

- Since [0:1:0] (the affine point at  $\infty$ ) is always a rational point on this curve, we need only show it has genus 1.
- In order to do this, we need to discuss differentials, since they allow us to understand the genus.

## Differentials, II

So, let's get right to it:

#### Definition

Let C/k be a (smooth projective) curve. The space  $\Omega(C)$  of <u>meromorphic differential 1-forms</u> on C is the k-vector space consisting of symbols of the form dx for  $x \in k(C)$ , subject to the following three relations:

- 1. The additivity relation d(x + y) = dx + dy for all  $x, y \in k(C)$ .
- 2. The Leibniz rule d(xy) = x dy + y dx for all  $x, y \in k(C)$ .
- 3. Derivatives of constants are zero: da = 0 for all  $a \in k$ .

There is a more general notion of differential form defined using the notion of a derivation from a commutative ring R to an R-module M. We won't bother with this.

### Differentials, III

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- Although Ω(C) contains differentials of the form *df* for all *f* ∈ *k*(C), and may therefore appear to be very large, in fact the relations impose all of the familiar rules of calculus.
- <u>Exercise</u>: Show that (1)-(3) also imply the power rule  $d(x^n) = nx^{n-1}dx$  and the quotient rule  $d(\frac{x}{v}) = \frac{x \, dy - y \, dx}{v^2}$ .
- Exercise: Suppose C/k is a curve and x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>,..., x<sub>n</sub> ∈ k(C). For any rational function f ∈ k(x<sub>1</sub>,..., x<sub>n</sub>), show the "chain rule": that df = f<sub>x1</sub> dx<sub>1</sub> + ··· + f<sub>xn</sub> dx<sub>n</sub>, where f<sub>xi</sub> denotes the usual partial derivative. [Hint: First show the result for polynomials f, then use the quotient rule.]

As a corollary of the above exercises, we see immediately that if the function field k(C) is generated (as a field extension) by  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  then  $\Omega(C)$  is spanned by  $dx_1, dx_2, \ldots, dx_n$  as a k(C)-vector space. As a corollary of the above exercises, we see immediately that if the function field k(C) is generated (as a field extension) by  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  then  $\Omega(C)$  is spanned by  $dx_1, dx_2, \ldots, dx_n$  as a k(C)-vector space.

Example:

- For  $C = \mathbb{P}^1$ , we have k(C) = k(x) for x = X/Y.
- Since x generates the function field by itself we see that Ω(C) is spanned by dx.
- In fact, {dx} is a basis, since there are no additional relations arising in the definition of Ω(C).

# Differentials, V

#### Example:

- Let p be a prime. For  $C = \mathbb{P}^1$  over a field of characteristic not equal to p, we know that  $\{dx\}$  is a basis of  $\Omega(C)$ .
- Then for f = x<sup>p</sup>, since df = px<sup>p-1</sup>dx is a nonzero scalar multiple of dx, we see that {df} is also a basis of Ω(C).
- On the other hand, over a field of characteristic p, we have  $df = px^{p-1} dx = 0$ , and so  $\{df\}$  is not a basis of  $\Omega(C)$ .

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#### <u>Example</u>:

- For  $C = V(Y^2Z X^3 XZ^2)$  with x = X/Z and y = Y/Z, we have k(C) = k(x, y), so  $\Omega(C)$  is spanned by dx and dy.
- But since  $y^2 = x^3 + x$ , taking differentials yields a linear dependence  $2y \, dy = (3x^2 + 1) \, dx$ . Thus in fact either dx or dy suffices to span  $\Omega(C)$ .

More generally, one may show similarly that  $\Omega(C)$  is always a 1-dimensional k(C)-vector space for any curve C.

 In general, dx generates Ω(C) if and only if k(C)/k(x) is a separable extension of finite degree. More generally, one may show similarly that  $\Omega(C)$  is always a 1-dimensional k(C)-vector space for any curve C.

- In general, dx generates  $\Omega(C)$  if and only if k(C)/k(x) is a separable extension of finite degree.
- The second example shows that separability is necessary, since if k has characteristic p then  $k(x)/k(x^p)$  is not separable, and as we saw, in that situation  $dx^p$  does not span  $\Omega(C)$ .

Our goal now is to show that we may do calculations with differentials that mirror those for rational functions. First, we will give a well-defined notion of the order of a differential  $\omega$  at a point P, and then we use it to attach a divisor to a differential.

#### Proposition (Properties of Differentials)

Let C/k be a curve, let  $\omega$  be a differential in  $\Omega(C)$ , and let P be a point of C with a local uniformizer t. Then the following hold:

- 1. There exists a unique rational function  $f \in k(C)$  such that  $\omega = f dt$ . (Since f is unique, we may think of it as the "quotient"  $\omega/dt$ .)
- 2. If  $f \in k(C)$  is defined at P, then df/dt is also defined at P.
- If t' is another local uniformizer at P, then ord<sub>P</sub>(ω/dt) = ord<sub>P</sub>(ω/dt'). We may therefore define ord<sub>P</sub>(ω) to be the value ord<sub>P</sub>(ω/dt) for any local uniformizer t.
- Let x ∈ k(C)<sup>×</sup> with x(P) = 0. Then ord<sub>P</sub>(dx) = ord<sub>P</sub>(x) 1 except when the characteristic of k divides ord<sub>P</sub>(x), in which case we have ord<sub>P</sub>(f dx) ≥ ord<sub>P</sub>(x).

#### Proposition (Properties of Differentials, continued)

Let C/k be a curve, let  $\omega$  be a differential in  $\Omega(C)$ , and let P be a point of C with a local uniformizer t. Then the following hold:

- 5. For all but finitely many P, we have  $\operatorname{ord}_P(\omega) = 0$ .
- For any differential ω, its <u>divisor</u> div(ω) = Σ<sub>P</sub> ord<sub>P</sub>(ω) P is well defined, and for any other differential ω<sub>1</sub> we have div(ω) ~ div(ω<sub>1</sub>). We define the <u>canonical class</u> C to be the resulting divisor class of div(ω) in Pic(C).

A differential  $\omega$  is <u>holomorphic</u> if  $\operatorname{div}(\omega) \ge 0$ : equivalently, when  $\operatorname{ord}_P(\omega) \ge 0$  for all P, which is to say, when  $\omega$  has no poles.

7. The holomorphic differentials form a finite-dimensional vector space, whose dimension is defined to be g, the genus of C.

1. There exists a unique rational function  $f \in k(C)$  such that  $\omega = f dt$ . (Since f is unique, we may think of it as the "quotient"  $\omega/dt$ .)

- First, since t is a local uniformizer, the extension k(C)/k(t) has finite degree and is separable.
- Hence by the discussion above, we see that {dt} spans Ω(C) as a k(C)-vector space.
- This means so there exists a unique rational function  $f \in k(C)$  such that  $\omega = f dt$ .

2. If  $f \in k(C)$  is defined at P, then df/dt is also defined at P.

• The most direct proof of this fact follows by working with local Laurent expansions near *P*. We will not need to (or really, we will not want to) do this explicitly, so here is an outline of the idea.

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- The most direct proof of this fact follows by working with local Laurent expansions near *P*. We will not need to (or really, we will not want to) do this explicitly, so here is an outline of the idea.
- One may expand functions in O<sub>P</sub> as infinite formal power series in the formal Laurent series ring of k((t)), and the resulting map D : k(C) → k((t)) is a derivation.
- Elements in the local ring  $\mathcal{O}_P$  (i.e., functions f defined at P) have images lying in the formal power series ring k[[t]], and for such elements, one may show that the term-by-term power series derivative f' yields the rational function with df = f' dt. Since the term-by-term derivative f' lies in k[[t]], it is defined at P.

3. If t' is another local uniformizer at P, then  $\operatorname{ord}_P(\omega/dt) = \operatorname{ord}_P(\omega/dt')$ .

Proof:

• Taking f = t' in (2) shows that dt'/dt = g is defined at P, and interchanging t and t' shows that dt'/dt = 1/g is also defined at P.

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Proof:

- Taking f = t' in (2) shows that dt'/dt = g is defined at P, and interchanging t and t' shows that dt'/dt = 1/g is also defined at P.
- Therefore, we have  $\operatorname{ord}_P(g) \ge 0$  and  $\operatorname{ord}_P(1/g) \ge 0$  whence  $\operatorname{ord}_P(g) = 0$ .
- Then we immediately have  $\operatorname{ord}_{P}(\omega/dt) = \operatorname{ord}_{P}(\omega/dt' \cdot dt'/dt) =$  $\operatorname{ord}_{P}(\omega/dt') + \operatorname{ord}_{P}(g) = \operatorname{ord}_{P}(\omega/dt').$

We now define  $\operatorname{ord}_{P}(\omega)$  to be the value  $\operatorname{ord}_{P}(\omega/dt)$  for any local uniformizer t.

Let x ∈ k(C)<sup>×</sup> with x(P) = 0. Then ord<sub>P</sub>(dx) = ord<sub>P</sub>(x) - 1 except when the characteristic of k divides ord<sub>P</sub>(x), in which case we have ord<sub>P</sub>(f dx) ≥ ord<sub>P</sub>(x).

Proof (part 1):

• Intuitively, the idea of this result is the extremely reasonable notion that taking the derivative of a function lowers its order of vanishing by 1, except in situations where the function is something times a *p*th power in characteristic *p*.

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Proof (part 1):

- Intuitively, the idea of this result is the extremely reasonable notion that taking the derivative of a function lowers its order of vanishing by 1, except in situations where the function is something times a *p*th power in characteristic *p*.
- Since x is not zero we may write x = ut<sup>n</sup> for some u of order
  0, and n = ord<sub>P</sub>(x). Then dx = unt<sup>n-1</sup> dt + (du/dt)t<sup>n</sup> dt by the chain rule.
- From (2) we know that du/dt is defined at P so  $\operatorname{ord}_P(du/dt) \ge 0$ .
- Now we look at the orders of the terms  $unt^{n-1}$  and  $(du/dt)t^n$ .

### Properties of Differentials, VII

Let x ∈ k(C)<sup>×</sup> with x(P) = 0. Then ord<sub>P</sub>(dx) = ord<sub>P</sub>(x) - 1 except when the characteristic of k divides ord<sub>P</sub>(x), in which case we have ord<sub>P</sub>(f dx) ≥ ord<sub>P</sub>(x).

Proof (part 2):

- We have  $x = ut^n$  for some u of order 0, and  $n = ord_P(x)$ .
- Then  $dx = unt^{n-1} dt + (du/dt)t^n dt$  and  $\operatorname{ord}_P(du/dt) \ge 0$ .
- If the characteristic of k divides n, then n = 0 (in k), so  $dx = (du/dt)t^n dt$ . Then  $\operatorname{ord}_P(dx) = \operatorname{ord}_P(dx/dt) = \operatorname{ord}_P(du/dt) + n \ge \operatorname{ord}_P(x)$  as desired.

### Properties of Differentials, VII

Let x ∈ k(C)<sup>×</sup> with x(P) = 0. Then ord<sub>P</sub>(dx) = ord<sub>P</sub>(x) - 1 except when the characteristic of k divides ord<sub>P</sub>(x), in which case we have ord<sub>P</sub>(f dx) ≥ ord<sub>P</sub>(x).

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- We have  $x = ut^n$  for some u of order 0, and  $n = ord_P(x)$ .
- Then  $dx = unt^{n-1} dt + (du/dt)t^n dt$  and  $\operatorname{ord}_P(du/dt) \ge 0$ .
- If the characteristic of k divides n, then n = 0 (in k), so  $dx = (du/dt)t^n dt$ . Then  $\operatorname{ord}_P(dx) = \operatorname{ord}_P(dx/dt) = \operatorname{ord}_P(du/dt) + n \ge \operatorname{ord}_P(x)$  as desired.
- Otherwise, if the characteristic does not divide n, then n ≠ 0 in k so ord<sub>P</sub>(unt<sup>n-1</sup>) = n − 1 while the order of the second term (du/dt)t<sup>n</sup> is at least n (as just calculated above).
- So since  $\operatorname{ord}_P$  is a discrete valuation, the order of the sum  $unt^{n-1} + (du/dt)t^n$  is  $n-1 = \operatorname{ord}_P(x) 1$ , as desired.

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- Pick x to be a local uniformizer at an arbitrary point of C: then by (1) we may write ω = f dx.
- Now, f has finitely many zeroes and poles, as noted in our discussion of divisors of functions.
- Additionally, as we will discuss in more detail later, there are only finitely many points at which x - x(P) fails to be a local uniformizer at P. (These are the points at which x is ramified, when thought of as a map x : C → P<sup>1</sup>.)
- So there are only finitely many points P where f has a zero or pole, or where x - x(P) fails to be a local uniformizer.

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- So there are only finitely many points P where f has a zero or pole, or where x - x(P) fails to be a local uniformizer.
- Let Q be any other point.
- Then x x(Q) is a local uniformizer, so we have  $\operatorname{ord}_Q(dx) = \operatorname{ord}_Q(d(x - x(Q))) = 1 - 1 = 0$  by (4).
- Hence

 $\operatorname{ord}_Q(\omega) = \operatorname{ord}_Q(f \, dx) = \operatorname{ord}_Q(f) + \operatorname{ord}_Q(dx) = 0 + 0 = 0$ because f is defined and does not vanish at Q.

• This applies for all but finitely many points Q, so we are done.

Now, (5) tells us that for any differential  $\omega$ , its <u>divisor</u>  $\operatorname{div}(\omega) = \sum_{P} \operatorname{ord}_{P}(\omega) P$  is well defined.

Define div(ω) = Σ<sub>P</sub> ord<sub>P</sub>(ω) P. Then for any other differential ω<sub>1</sub> we have div(ω) ~ div(ω<sub>1</sub>).

Now, (5) tells us that for any differential  $\omega$ , its <u>divisor</u>  $\operatorname{div}(\omega) = \sum_{P} \operatorname{ord}_{P}(\omega) P$  is well defined.

6. Define  $\operatorname{div}(\omega) = \sum_{P} \operatorname{ord}_{P}(\omega) P$ . Then for any other differential  $\omega_{1}$  we have  $\operatorname{div}(\omega) \sim \operatorname{div}(\omega_{1})$ .

- Suppose  $\omega_1$  is any other differential.
- By (1) there exists f ∈ k(C) such that ω/ω<sub>1</sub> = f: thus div(ω) - div(ω<sub>1</sub>) = div(f) which means by definition that div(ω) ~ div(ω<sub>1</sub>).
- The well-definedness of the canonical class is then immediate from the equivalence.

The result (6) says that the divisors of any two differentials differ by the divisor of a rational function, meaning that their divisor classes are the same.

#### Definition

We define the <u>canonical class</u> C to be the resulting divisor class of  $\operatorname{div}(\omega)$  in  $\operatorname{Pic}(C)$ .

The differential analogue of effective divisors are holomorphic differentials:

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Proof:

• Writing  $\omega = f dt$  we see that  $\omega$  is holomorphic if and only if  $\operatorname{div}(f) \geq -\operatorname{div}(\omega)$ .

7. The holomorphic differentials form a finite-dimensional vector space, whose dimension is defined to be g, the genus of C.

- Writing  $\omega = f dt$  we see that  $\omega$  is holomorphic if and only if  $\operatorname{div}(f) \geq -\operatorname{div}(\omega)$ .
- Therefore, the map ω → ω/dt is an isomorphism of the space of holomorphic differentials with the Riemann-Roch space L(div(ω)), whose dimension l(div(ω)) = l(C) is finite, as follows from our properties of Riemann-Roch spaces.

Of course, the real point of (6) and (7) is to give a proper definition of the canonical class and the genus of a curve that appear in the statement of the Riemann-Roch theorem.

- We can also give some explanation of why the genus g, defined here as the dimension of the space of holomorphic differentials C, corresponds to the topological genus.
- The idea is that when we are working over k = C, then viewing C as a (compact, connected) Riemann surface, we may integrate a holomorphic differential along a path inside C.
- Let  $\Omega(0)$  denote the space of holomorphic differentials.

### The Genius of Genus, II

- By standard results from complex analysis, if two paths are homotopic then integrating any differential along the two paths yields the same value.
- Since the set of paths up to homotopy is the first homology group  $H_1(C)$ , which is a free abelian group of rank g (the topological genus of C), we obtain a pairing between  $H_1(C)$  and  $\Omega(0)$  given by  $\langle C, \omega \rangle = \int_C \omega$ .
- One then shows that this is a perfect pairing, and so these vector spaces are isomorphic.
- Essentially, the idea is that we can obtain independent holomorphic differentials by integrating around independent non-contractible paths on *C*.
- We remark that all of this is just a rephrasing of Poincaré duality applied to the de Rham cohomology groups of *C*, considered as a 2-dimensional manifold.

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- Thus, every differential on C is of the form  $\omega = f \, dx$  for some rational function  $f \in k(x)$ , so  $\operatorname{div}(\omega) = \operatorname{div}(f) + \operatorname{div}(dx)$ .

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- To find div(dx), first observe that for all c ∈ k the function x c is a uniformizer at [c : 1], so ord<sub>[c:1]</sub>(dx) = ord<sub>[c:1]</sub>(x c) 1 = 0 by our results in (4).
- Also, at the point at infinity [1:0], the function 1/x is a uniformizer, so ord<sub>[1:0]</sub>(x) = -1 and thus ord<sub>[1:0]</sub>(dx) = ord<sub>[1:0]</sub>(x) 1 = -2, again by (4).
- Therefore,  $div(dx) = -2P_{[1:0]}$ .

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- Now, since div(dx) = -2P<sub>[1:0]</sub>, the canonical class is the image of -2P<sub>[1:0]</sub> in Pic(C).
- In particular, the degree of any differential must be -2. But since the degree of a holomorphic differential is nonnegative, we see immediately that there are no nonzero holomorphic differentials.
- Hence we see that the genus of P<sup>1</sup> is 0 − as it should be, of course, given the results of our earlier calculations for genus-0 curves using Riemann-Roch.

Example: On  $C = V(Y^2Z - X^3 - XZ^2)$  with x = X/Z and y = Y/Z as usual, show that dx/y is a nonvanishing holomorphic differential, when the characteristic of k is not 2.

Example: On  $C = V(Y^2Z - X^3 - XZ^2)$  with x = X/Z and y = Y/Z as usual, show that dx/y is a nonvanishing holomorphic

differential, when the characteristic of k is not 2.

- We have previously shown  $\operatorname{div}(y) = P_{[0:0:1]} + P_{[i:0:1]} + P_{[-i:0:1]} - 3P_{[0:1:0]}.$
- To find  $\operatorname{div}(dx)$  we need to compute its zeroes and poles.
- Recall that when g(P) = 0 property (4) says  $\operatorname{ord}_P(dg) = \operatorname{ord}_P(g) - 1$  when  $\operatorname{char}(k) \nmid \operatorname{ord}_P(g)$ .
- Since dx = d(x − c) for any c ∈ k we can compute the zero orders by looking for points P where x − x(P) = 0.
- Since x − x(P) is only zero at x = 0, i, −i, we can start with computing div(x).

### Examples of Differentials, IV

<u>Example</u>: On  $C = V(Y^2Z - X^3 - XZ^2)$  with x = X/Z and y = Y/Z as usual, show that dx/y is a nonvanishing holomorphic differential, when the characteristic of k is not 2.

Since x is only zero at [0:0:1] and since y is a local uniformizer there, to check the zero order we observe that x/y<sup>2</sup> = XZ/Y<sup>2</sup> = Z<sup>2</sup>/(X<sup>2</sup> + Z<sup>2</sup>) = 1 is defined and nonzero, so ord<sub>[0:0:1]</sub>x = 2. Then since the only pole of x is at [0:1:0] the pole also has order 2, and so div(x) = 2P<sub>[0:0:1]</sub> - 2P<sub>[0:1:0]</sub>.

### Examples of Differentials, IV

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- Since x is only zero at [0:0:1] and since y is a local uniformizer there, to check the zero order we observe that x/y<sup>2</sup> = XZ/Y<sup>2</sup> = Z<sup>2</sup>/(X<sup>2</sup> + Z<sup>2</sup>) = 1 is defined and nonzero, so ord<sub>[0:0:1]</sub>x = 2. Then since the only pole of x is at [0:1:0] the pole also has order 2, and so div(x) = 2P<sub>[0:0:1]</sub> 2P<sub>[0:1:0]</sub>.
- In the same way we can show that  $\operatorname{div}(x - i) = 2P_{[i:0:1]} - 2P_{[0:1:0]}$  and  $\operatorname{div}(x + i) = 2P_{[-i:0:1]} - 2P_{[0:1:0]}$ .
- Then since x x(P) is only zero at x = 0, i, -i, by property (4) we deduce that the zeroes of dx occur only at [0:0:1], [-i:0:1], and [i:0:1] and the zero order there is 2 1 = 1 in each case.

Example: On  $C = V(Y^2Z - X^3 - XZ^2)$  with x = X/Z and y = Y/Z as usual, show that dx/y is a nonvanishing holomorphic differential, when the characteristic of k is not 2.

• The zeroes of dx occur only at [0:0:1], [-i:0:1], and [i:0:1], and the zero order there is 2-1=1 in each case.

Example: On  $C = V(Y^2Z - X^3 - XZ^2)$  with x = X/Z and y = Y/Z as usual, show that dx/y is a nonvanishing holomorphic differential, when the characteristic of k is not 2.

- The zeroes of dx occur only at [0:0:1], [-i:0:1], and [i:0:1], and the zero order there is 2-1=1 in each case.
- Likewise, since the only pole of dx is at [0:1:0], by (4) again we see the pole order is -2 1 = -3. (Here is where we need the fact that the characteristic is not 2.)
- Putting all of this together shows that  $\operatorname{div}(dx) = P_{[0:0:1]} + P_{[i:0:1]} + P_{[-i:0:1]} 3P_{[0:1:0]}$ . But this is precisely  $\operatorname{div}(y)$ , and so that means  $\operatorname{div}(dx/y) = 0$  whence dx/y is holomorphic and also nonvanishing.

Let us now generalize the last example to complete the proof that smooth projective curves of genus 1 having a rational point (per our highbrow definition of elliptic curves) are the same as nonsingular cubic curves in Weierstrass form (per our original definition).

### Differentials on Elliptic Curves, II

#### Proposition (Differentials on Elliptic Curves)

Let C/k be a smooth projective curve with affine Weierstrass equation  $y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6$ . Then 1. The differential  $\omega = \frac{dx}{dx} = -\frac{dy}{dx}$  is

- 2. The space of holomorphic differentials on C is a 1-dimensional k-vector space, whence C has genus 1.
- 3. Every smooth projective genus-1 curve has a nonsingular Weierstrass equation, and conversely every nonsingular Weierstrass equation gives a smooth projective genus-1 curve.
- 4. The differential  $\omega$  from (1) is translation-invariant, meaning that for any point Q on E, if  $(x, y) + Q = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$ , then  $\omega = \frac{d\tilde{x}}{2\tilde{y} + a_1\tilde{x} + a_3}$  as well.

### Differentials on Elliptic Curves, III

1. The differential  $\omega = \frac{dx}{2y + a_1x + a_3} = -\frac{dy}{3x^2 + 2a_2x + a_4}$  is holomorphic and nonvanishing on *C*.

Proof (part 1):

• Let  $f = y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y - (x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6)$ : then by the chain rule we see that  $\frac{dx}{f_y(x,y)} = -\frac{dy}{f_x(x,y)}$ , showing that the two expressions are equal.

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- Let  $f = y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y (x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6)$ : then by the chain rule we see that  $\frac{dx}{f_y(x, y)} = -\frac{dy}{f_x(x, y)}$ , showing that the two expressions are equal.
- For any finite point  $P = (x_0, y_0)$  we also have  $\omega = \frac{d(x - x_0)}{f_y(x, y)} = -\frac{d(y - y_0)}{f_x(x, y)}$ since translating by a constant does not affect differentials.
- In particular we see that P cannot be a pole of  $\omega$  since this would require  $f_x(P) = f_y(P) = 0$ , but that cannot occur because C is smooth at P. So  $\omega$  could only possibly have a pole at  $\infty$ .

### Differentials on Elliptic Curves, IV

1. The differential  $\omega = \frac{dx}{2y + a_1x + a_3} = -\frac{dy}{3x^2 + 2a_2x + a_4}$  is holomorphic and nonvanishing on *C*.

Proof (part 2):

- For zeroes of  $\omega$  we observe that the map  $\varphi : C \to \mathbb{P}^1$  with  $[X : Y : Z] \mapsto [X : Z]$  has degree 2.
- Therefore we have  $\operatorname{ord}_P(x x_0) \leq 2$  with equality if and only if  $f(x_0, y)$  has a double root in y at  $y = y_0$ , which occurs if and only if  $f_y(x_0, y_0) = 0$ .

### Differentials on Elliptic Curves, IV

1. The differential  $\omega = \frac{dx}{2y + a_1x + a_3} = -\frac{dy}{3x^2 + 2a_2x + a_4}$  is holomorphic and nonvanishing on *C*.

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- For zeroes of  $\omega$  we observe that the map  $\varphi : C \to \mathbb{P}^1$  with  $[X : Y : Z] \mapsto [X : Z]$  has degree 2.
- Therefore we have  $\operatorname{ord}_P(x x_0) \leq 2$  with equality if and only if  $f(x_0, y)$  has a double root in y at  $y = y_0$ , which occurs if and only if  $f_y(x_0, y_0) = 0$ .
- Therefore by property (4) we see that  $\operatorname{ord}_P(\omega) = \operatorname{ord}_P(dx) \operatorname{ord}_P(f_y) = \operatorname{ord}_P(x x_0) \operatorname{ord}_P(f_y) 1 = 0$  in both the situation when  $\operatorname{ord}_P(x x_0) = 1$  and in the situation when  $\operatorname{ord}_P(x x_0) = 2$ .
- So  $\omega$  has order 0 at all finite points. Now for  $\infty$ .

### Differentials on Elliptic Curves, V

1. The differential  $\omega = \frac{dx}{2y + a_1x + a_3} = -\frac{dy}{3x^2 + 2a_2x + a_4}$  is holomorphic and nonvanishing on *C*.

Proof (part 3):

 Let t be a uniformizer at ∞: then because ord<sub>∞</sub>(x) = -2 and ord<sub>∞</sub>(y) = -3 we have x = t<sup>-2</sup>u and y = t<sup>-3</sup>w for some u, w ∈ k(C) that are defined and nonzero at ∞.

### Differentials on Elliptic Curves, V

1. The differential  $\omega = \frac{dx}{2y + a_1x + a_3} = -\frac{dy}{3x^2 + 2a_2x + a_4}$  is holomorphic and nonvanishing on *C*.

Proof (part 3):

 Let t be a uniformizer at ∞: then because ord<sub>∞</sub>(x) = -2 and ord<sub>∞</sub>(y) = -3 we have x = t<sup>-2</sup>u and y = t<sup>-3</sup>w for some u, w ∈ k(C) that are defined and nonzero at ∞.

• Then 
$$\frac{\omega}{dt} = \frac{dx/dt}{f_y(x,y)} = \frac{-2t^{-3}u + t^{-2}(du/dt)}{2t^{-3}w + a_1t^{-2}u + a_3} dt$$
  
$$= \frac{-2u + t(du/dt)}{2w + a_1tu + a_3t^3} dt.$$

• When the characteristic of k is not equal to 2, we can then evaluate this last function at  $\infty$  (note that t = 0 at  $\infty$ ) to obtain  $-u(\infty)/w(\infty)$  which is defined and nonzero.

### Differentials on Elliptic Curves, VI

1. The differential  $\omega = \frac{dx}{2y + a_1x + a_3} = -\frac{dy}{3x^2 + 2a_2x + a_4}$  is holomorphic and nonvanishing on *C*.

<u>Exercise</u>: When the characteristic of k does equal 2, show that the equivalent formula  $\omega = -\frac{dy}{f_x(x, y)}$  evaluates to a quantity that is defined and nonzero at  $\infty$ .

Proof (part 4):

### Differentials on Elliptic Curves, VI

1. The differential  $\omega = \frac{dx}{2y + a_1x + a_3} = -\frac{dy}{3x^2 + 2a_2x + a_4}$  is holomorphic and nonvanishing on *C*.

<u>Exercise</u>: When the characteristic of k does equal 2, show that the equivalent formula  $\omega = -\frac{dy}{f_x(x, y)}$  evaluates to a quantity that is defined and nonzero at  $\infty$ .

#### Proof (part 4):

- By the calculation on the last slide (when char(k) ≠ 2) and the exercise above (when char(k) ≠ 3) we deduce that in all cases, ord<sub>∞</sub>(ω) = 0.
- Putting everything together, we obtain  $div(\omega) = 0$ , whence  $\omega$  is holomorphic and nonvanishing as claimed.

2. The space of holomorphic differentials on *C* is a 1-dimensional *k*-vector space, whence *C* has genus 1.

- Take  $\omega$  as in (1): then  $\operatorname{div}(\omega) = 0$ .
- From our properties of differentials, any other differential ζ is of the form fω for some f ∈ k(C).

2. The space of holomorphic differentials on *C* is a 1-dimensional *k*-vector space, whence *C* has genus 1.

- Take  $\omega$  as in (1): then  $\operatorname{div}(\omega) = 0$ .
- From our properties of differentials, any other differential ζ is of the form fω for some f ∈ k(C).
- But then div(ζ) = div(f) + div(ω) = div(f), so in order for ζ to be holomorphic we must have div(f) ≥ 0, meaning that f is a rational function with no poles.
- But the only such (projective) functions are constants, whence  $\zeta$  is a *k*-scalar multiple of  $\omega$ .
- Thus, the space of holomorphic differentials on *C* is a 1-dimensional *k*-vector space, so *C* has genus 1 as claimed.

 Every smooth projective genus-1 curve has a nonsingular Weierstrass equation, and conversely every nonsingular Weierstrass equation gives a smooth projective genus-1 curve.

- We showed the first part earlier using Riemann-Roch.
- The second part is simply (2).

4. The differential  $\omega$  from (1) is translation-invariant, meaning that for any point Q on E, if  $(x, y) + Q = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$ , then  $\omega = \frac{d\tilde{x}}{2\tilde{y} + a_1\tilde{x} + a_3}$  as well.

- 4. The differential  $\omega$  from (1) is translation-invariant, meaning that for any point Q on E, if  $(x, y) + Q = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$ , then  $\omega = \frac{d\tilde{x}}{2\tilde{y} + a_1\tilde{x} + a_3}$  as well.
  - We could in principle show this result just using the point addition formulas, since they give explicit expressions for  $\tilde{x}$  and  $\tilde{y}$  in terms of x, y, and the coordinates of Q.
  - We will give a less tedious argument.

Because of this result, we call  $\omega$  the invariant differential of *E*.

### Differentials on Elliptic Curves, X

4. The differential  $\omega$  from (1) is translation-invariant, meaning that for any point Q on E, if  $(x, y) + Q = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$ , then  $\omega = \frac{d\tilde{x}}{2\tilde{y} + a_1\tilde{x} + a_3}$  as well.

Proof (part 1):

Since ω̃ is obtained by adding Q to all points on C, for any P on C we see that ord<sub>P</sub>(ω̃) = ord<sub>P-Q</sub>(ω) = 0, and so ω̃ is also a nonvanishing holomorphic differential.

4. The differential  $\omega$  from (1) is translation-invariant, meaning that for any point Q on E, if  $(x, y) + Q = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$ , then  $\omega = \frac{d\tilde{x}}{2\tilde{y} + a_1\tilde{x} + a_3}$  as well.

Proof (part 1):

- Since  $\tilde{\omega}$  is obtained by adding Q to all points on C, for any P on C we see that  $\operatorname{ord}_{P}(\tilde{\omega}) = \operatorname{ord}_{P-Q}(\omega) = 0$ , and so  $\tilde{\omega}$  is also a nonvanishing holomorphic differential.
- By (2) since the space of holomorphic differentials is 1-dimensional, that means  $\tilde{\omega} = c_Q \omega$  for some scalar  $c_Q \in k$ that (a priori) depends on Q.
- Now consider the map φ : E → P<sup>1</sup> sending Q → [c<sub>Q</sub> : 1] for each point Q.

### Differentials on Elliptic Curves, XI

4. The differential  $\omega$  from (1) is translation-invariant, meaning that for any point Q on E, if  $(x, y) + Q = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$ , then  $\omega = \frac{d\tilde{x}}{2\tilde{y} + a_1\tilde{x} + a_3}$  as well.

Proof (part 2):

- Now consider  $\varphi: E \to \mathbb{P}^1$  sending  $Q \mapsto [c_Q: 1]$ .
- This map is necessarily rational (since after all the expressions for  $\tilde{x}$  and  $\tilde{y}$  are rational functions, so the ratio  $\tilde{\omega}/\omega$  is some rational function), but it clearly omits [1 : 0] since  $c_Q$  is defined for all Q.

### Differentials on Elliptic Curves, XI

4. The differential  $\omega$  from (1) is translation-invariant, meaning that for any point Q on E, if  $(x, y) + Q = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$ , then  $\omega = \frac{d\tilde{x}}{2\tilde{y} + a_1\tilde{x} + a_3}$  as well.

Proof (part 2):

- Now consider  $\varphi: E \to \mathbb{P}^1$  sending  $Q \mapsto [c_Q: 1]$ .
- This map is necessarily rational (since after all the expressions for  $\tilde{x}$  and  $\tilde{y}$  are rational functions, so the ratio  $\tilde{\omega}/\omega$  is some rational function), but it clearly omits [1 : 0] since  $c_Q$  is defined for all Q.
- Thus φ is not surjective, meaning that it must be constant since nonconstant rational maps of curves are surjective.
- Finally, setting Q to be the identity O on E shows  $\tilde{\omega}_O = \omega$ , so the constant must be 1. We conclude that  $\tilde{\omega} = \omega$  for all Q.

# Wrap-Up

Now that we have defined differentials, the canonical class, and the genus of C, we can return to our discussion of Riemann-Roch.

- Since it won't take too long, I will start next lecture with an outline of the proof of Riemann-Roch.
- Then we will talk about how morphisms interact with divisors and differentials. This will lead us naturally into our next main topic: isogenies, which are morphisms from one elliptic curve to another.

# Summary

We defined the space of differentials on an algebraic curve C and established some of their basic properties and gave some examples. We constructed the invariant differential on an elliptic curve and used it to show curves with a Weierstrass equation have genus 1.

Next lecture: Riemann-Roch proof outline, interactions of morphisms with divisors and differentials