# Abelian Varieties 

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These notes are an introduction to the theory of abelian varieties, including the arithmetic of abelian varieties and Faltings's proof of certain finiteness theorems. The orginal version of the notes was distributed during the teaching of an advanced graduate course.

Alas, the notes are still in very rough form.

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## Notations

We use the standard (Bourbaki) notations: $\mathbb{N}=\{0,1,2, \ldots\}, \mathbb{Z}=$ ring of integers, $\mathbb{Q}=$ field of rational numbers, $\mathbb{R}=$ field of real numbers, $\mathbb{C}=$ field of complex numbers, $\mathbb{F}_{p}=\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}=$ field of $p$ elements, $p$ a prime number. Given an equivalence relation, $[*]$ denotes the equivalence class containing $*$. A family of elements of a set $A$ indexed by a second set $I$, denoted $\left(a_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$, is a function $i \mapsto a_{i}: I \rightarrow A$.

A field $k$ is said to be separably closed if it has no finite separable extensions of degree $>1$. We use $k^{\text {sep }}$ and $k^{\text {al }}$ to denote separable and algebraic closures of $k$ respectively. For a vector space $N$ over a field $k, N^{\vee}$ denotes the dual vector space $\operatorname{Hom}_{k}(N, k)$.

All rings will be commutative with 1 unless it is stated otherwise, and homomorphisms of rings are required to map 1 to 1 . A $k$-algebra is a ring $A$ together with a homomorphism $k \rightarrow A$. For a ring $A, A^{\times}$is the group of units in $A$ :

$$
A^{\times}=\{a \in A \mid \text { there exists a } b \in A \text { such that } a b=1\}
$$

$X \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} Y \quad X$ is defined to be $Y$, or equals $Y$ by definition;
$X \subset Y \quad X$ is a subset of $Y$ (not necessarily proper, i.e., $X$ may equal $Y$ );
$X \approx Y \quad X$ and $Y$ are isomorphic;
$X \simeq Y \quad X$ and $Y$ are canonically isomorphic (or there is a given or unique isomorphism).

## Conventions concerning algebraic geometry

In an attempt to make the notes as accessible as possible, and in order to emphasize the geometry over the commutative algebra, I have based them as far as possible on my notes Algebraic Geometry (AG).

Experts on schemes need only note the following. An algebraic variety over a field $k$ is a geometrically reduced separated scheme of finite type over $k$ except that we omit the nonclosed points from the base space. It need not be connected. Similarly, an algebraic space over a field $k$ is a scheme of finite type over $k$, except that again we omit the nonclosed points.

In more detail, an affine algebra over a field $k$ is a finitely generated $k$-algebra $R$ such that $R \otimes_{k} k^{\text {al }}$ has no nonzero nilpotents for one (hence every) algebraic closure $k^{\text {al }}$ of $k$. With such a $k$-algebra, we associate a ring space $\operatorname{Specm}(R)$ (topological space endowed with a sheaf of $k$-algebras), and an affine variety over $k$ is a ringed space isomorphic to one of this form. An algebraic variety over $k$ is a ringed space $\left(V, \mathcal{O}_{V}\right)$ admitting a finite open covering $V=\bigcup U_{i}$ such that $\left(U_{i}, \mathcal{O}_{V} \mid U_{i}\right)$ is an affine variety for each $i$ and which satisfies the separation axiom. If $V$ is a variety over $k$ and $K \supset k$, then $V(K)$ is the set of points of $V$ with coordinates in $K$ and $V_{K}$ or $V_{/ K}$ is the variety over $K$ obtained from $V$ by extension of scalars.

An algebraic space is similar, except that $\operatorname{Specm}(R)$ is an algebraic space for any finitely generated $k$-algebra and we drop the separatedness condition.

We often describe regular maps by their actions on points. Recall that a regular map $\phi: V \rightarrow W$ of $k$-varieties is determined by the map of points $V\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right) \rightarrow W\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$ that it defines. Moreover, to give a regular map $V \rightarrow W$ of $k$-varieties is the same as to give natural maps $V(R) \rightarrow W(R)$ for $R$ running over the affine $k$-algebras (AG4.37).

Throughout $k$ is a field.

## Prerequisites

As a minimum, the reader is assumed to be familiar with basic algebraic geometry, as for example in my notes AG. Some knowledge of schemes and algebraic number theory will also be helpful.

## References.

In addition to the references listed at the end, I refer to the following of my course notes:
GT Group Theory (v3.00, 2007).
FT Fields and Galois Theory (v4.20, 2008).
AG Algebraic Geometry (v5.10, 2008).
ANT Algebraic Number Theory (v3.00, 2008).
LEC Lectures on Etale Cohomology (v2.01, 1998).
CFT Class Field Theory (v4.00, 2008).

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## Introduction

The easiest way to understand abelian varieties is as higher-dimensional analogues of elliptic curves. Thus we first look at the various definitions of an elliptic curve. Fix a ground field $k$ which, for simplicity, we take to be algebraically closed. An elliptic curve over $k$ can be defined, according to taste, as:
(a) $(\operatorname{char}(k) \neq 2,3)$ a projective plane curve over $k$ of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y^{2} Z=X^{3}+a X Z+b Z^{3}, \quad 4 a^{3}+27 b^{2} \neq 0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(b) a nonsingular projective curve of genus one together with a distinguished point;
(c) a nonsingular projective curve together with a group structure defined by regular maps, or
(d) $(k=\mathbb{C})$ an algebraic curve $E$ such that $E(\mathbb{C}) \approx \mathbb{C} / \Lambda$ (as a complex manifold) for some lattice $\Lambda$ in $\mathbb{C}$.

We briefly sketch the proof of the equivalence of these definitions (see also Milne 2006, Chapter II).
(a) $\longrightarrow(\mathrm{b})$. The condition $4 a^{3}+27 b^{2} \neq 0$ implies that the curve is nonsingular. Since it is defined by an equation of degree 3 , it has genus 1 . Take the distinguished point to be (0:1:0).
(b) $\longrightarrow($ a). Let $\infty$ be the distinguished point on the curve $E$ of genus 1. The RiemannRoch theorem says that

$$
\operatorname{dim} L(D)=\operatorname{deg}(D)+1-g=\operatorname{deg}(D)
$$

where

$$
L(D)=\{f \in k(E) \mid \operatorname{div}(f)+D \geq 0\}
$$

On taking $D=2 \infty$ and $D=3 \infty$ successively, we find that there exists a rational function $x$ on $E$ with a pole of exact order 2 at $\infty$ and no other poles, and a rational function $y$ on $E$ with a pole of exact order 3 at $\infty$ and no other poles. The map

$$
\begin{aligned}
P & \mapsto(x(P): y(P): 1), \quad P \neq \infty \\
\infty & \mapsto(0: 1: 0)
\end{aligned}
$$

defines an embedding

$$
E \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{2}
$$

On applying the Riemann-Roch theorem to $6 \infty$, we find that there is relation (1) between $x$ and $y$, and therefore the image is a curve defined by an equation (1).
$(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}) \longrightarrow(\mathrm{c}):$ Let $\operatorname{Div}^{0}(E)$ be the group of divisors of degree zero on $E$, and let $\mathrm{Pic}^{0}(E)$ be its quotient by the group of principal divisors; thus $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(E)$ is the group of divisor classes of degree zero on $E$. The Riemann-Roch theorem shows that the map

$$
P \mapsto[P]-[\infty]: E(k) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(E)
$$

is a bijection, from which $E(k)$ acquires a canonical group structure. It agrees with the structure defined by chords and tangents, and hence is defined by polynomials, i.e., it is defined by regular maps.
(c) $\longrightarrow(\mathrm{b})$ : We have to show that the existence of the group structure implies that the genus is 1 . Our first argument applies only in the case $k=\mathbb{C}$. The Lefschetz trace formula states that for a compact oriented manifold $X$ and a continuous map $\alpha: X \rightarrow X$ with only finitely many fixed points, each of multiplicity 1 ,

$$
\text { number of fixed points }=\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha \mid H^{0}(X, \mathbb{Q})\right)-\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha \mid H^{1}(X, \mathbb{Q})\right)+\cdots
$$

If $X$ has a group structure, then, for any nonzero point $a \in X$, the translation map $t_{a}: x \mapsto$ $x+a$ has no fixed points, and so

$$
\operatorname{Tr}\left(t_{a}\right) \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=} \sum_{i}(-1)^{i} \operatorname{Tr}\left(t_{a} \mid H^{i}(X, \mathbb{Q})\right)=0
$$

The map $a \mapsto \operatorname{Tr}\left(t_{a}\right): X \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is continuous, and so $\operatorname{Tr}\left(t_{a}\right)=0$ also for $a=0$. But $t_{0}$ is the identity map, and so

$$
\left.\operatorname{Tr}\left(t_{0}\right)=\sum(-1)^{i} \operatorname{dim} H^{i}(X, \mathbb{Q})=\chi(X) \quad \text { (Euler-Poincaré characteristic }\right)
$$

Since the Euler-Poincare characteristic of a complete nonsingular curve of genus $g$ is $2-2 g$, we see that if $X$ has a group structure then $g=1$.

The above argument works over any field when one replaces singular cohomology with étale cohomology. Alternatively, one can use that if $V$ is an algebraic variety with a group structure, then the sheaf of differentials is free. For a curve, this means that the canonical divisor class has degree zero. But this class has degree $2 g-2$, and so again we see that $g=1$.
$(\mathrm{d}) \longrightarrow(\mathrm{b})$. The Weierstrass $\wp$-function and its derivative define an embedding

$$
z \mapsto\left(\wp(z): \wp^{\prime}(z): 1\right): \mathbb{C} / \Lambda \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{2}
$$

whose image is a nonsingular projective curve of genus 1 (in fact, with equation of the form (1)).
(b) $\longrightarrow(d)$. A Riemann surface of genus 1 is of the form $\mathbb{C} / \Lambda$.

## Abelian varieties.

Definition (a) doesn't generalize - there is no simple description of the equations defining an abelian variety of dimension ${ }^{1} g>1$. In general, it is not possible to write down explicit

[^0]Flynn (1990) has found the equations of the Jacobian variety of such a curve in characteristic $\neq 2,3,5-$ they form a set 72 homogeneous equations of degree 2 in 16 variables (they take 6 pages to write out). See Cassels and Flynn 1996
equations for an abelian variety of dimension $>1$, and if one could, they would be too complicated to be of use.

I don't know whether (b) generalizes. Abelian surfaces are the only minimal surfaces with the Betti numbers $1,4,6,4,1$ and canonical class linearly equivalent to zero. In general an abelian variety of dimension $g$ has Betti numbers

$$
1,\binom{2 g}{1}, \ldots,\binom{2 g}{r}, \ldots, 1
$$

Definition (c) does generalize: we can define an abelian variety to be a nonsingular connected projective ${ }^{2}$ variety with a group structure defined by regular maps.

Definition (d) does generalize, but with a caution. If $A$ is an abelian variety over $\mathbb{C}$, then

$$
A(\mathbb{C}) \approx \mathbb{C}^{g} / \Lambda
$$

for some lattice $\Lambda$ in $\mathbb{C}^{g}$ (isomorphism simultaneously of complex manifolds and of groups). However, when $g>1$, the quotient $\mathbb{C}^{g} / \Lambda$ of $\mathbb{C}^{g}$ by a lattice $\Lambda$ does not always arise from an abelian variety. In fact, in general the transcendence degree over $\mathbb{C}$ of the field of meromorphic functions $\mathbb{C}^{g} / \Lambda$ is $\leq g$, with equality holding if and only if $\mathbb{C}^{g} / \Lambda$ is an algebraic (hence abelian) variety. There is a very pleasant criterion on $\Lambda$ for when $\mathbb{C}^{g} / \Lambda$ is algebraic, namely, that $\left(\mathbb{C}^{g}, \Lambda\right)$ admits a Riemann form (see later - Chapter I, §2).

## Abelian varieties as generalizations of elliptic curves.

As we noted, if $E$ is an elliptic curve over an algebraically closed field $k$, then there is a canonical isomorphism

$$
P \mapsto[P]-[0]: E(k) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(E) .
$$

This statement has two generalizations.
(A) Let $C$ be a curve and choose a point $Q \in C(k)$; then there is an abelian variety $J$, called the Jacobian variety of $C$, canonically attached to $C$, and a regular map $\varphi: C \rightarrow J$ such that $\varphi(Q)=0$ and

$$
\sum_{i} n_{i} P_{i} \mapsto \sum_{i} n_{i} \varphi\left(P_{i}\right): \operatorname{Div}^{0}(C) \rightarrow J(k)
$$

induces an isomorphism $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C) \rightarrow J(k)$. The dimension of $J$ is the genus of $C$.
(B) Let $A$ be an abelian variety. Then there is a "dual abelian variety" $A^{\vee}$ such that $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A) \simeq A^{\vee}(k)$ and $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}\left(A^{\vee}\right) \simeq A(k)$ (we shall define $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}$ in this context later). In the case of an elliptic curve, $E^{\vee}=E$. In general, $A$ and $A^{\vee}$ are isogenous, but they are not equal (and usually not even isomorphic).

Appropriately interpreted, most of the statements in Silverman's books on elliptic curves hold for abelian varieties, but because we don't have equations, the proofs are more abstract. In fact, every (reasonable) statement about elliptic curves should have a generalization that applies to all abelian varieties. However, for some, for example, the Taniyama conjecture, the correct generalization is difficult to state ${ }^{3}$. To pass from a statement about elliptic curves

[^1]to one about abelian varieties, replace 1 by $g$ (the dimension of $A$ ), and half the copies of $E$ by $A$ and half by $A^{\vee}$. I give some examples.

Let $E$ be an elliptic curve over an algebraically closed field $k$. For any integer $n$ not divisible by the characteristic, the set of $n$-torsion points on $E, E(k)_{n}$, is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{2}$, and there is a canonical nondegenerate (Weil) pairing

$$
E(k)_{n} \times E(k)_{n} \rightarrow \mu_{n}(k)
$$

where $\mu_{n}(k)$ is the group of $n$th roots of 1 in $k$. Let $A$ be an abelian variety of dimension $g$ over an algebraically closed field $k$. For any integer $n$ not divisible by the characteristic, the set of $n$-torsion points on $A, A(k)_{n}$, is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{2 g}$, and there is a canonical nondegenerate (Weil) pairing

$$
A(k)_{n} \times A^{\vee}(k)_{n} \rightarrow \mu_{n}(k)
$$

Let $E$ be an elliptic curve over a number field $k$. Then $E(k)$ is finitely generated (Mordell-Weil theorem), and there is a canonical height pairing

$$
E(k) \times E(k) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}
$$

which is nondegenerate module torsion. Let $A$ be an abelian variety over a number field $k$. Then $A(k)$ is finitely generated (Mordell-Weil theorem), and there is a canonical height pairing

$$
A(k) \times A^{\vee}(k) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}
$$

which is nondegenerate modulo torsion.
For an elliptic curve $E$ over a number field $k$, the conjecture of Birch and SwinnertonDyer states that

$$
L(E, s) \sim * \frac{|\mathrm{TS}(E)||\mathrm{Disc}|}{\left|E(k)_{\mathrm{tors}}\right|^{2}}(s-1)^{r} \text { as } s \rightarrow 1
$$

where $*$ is a minor term (fudge factor), $T S(E)$ is the Tate-Shafarevich group of $E$, Disc is the discriminant of the height pairing, and $r$ is the rank of $E(k)$. For an abelian variety $A$, Tate generalized the conjecture to the statement

$$
L(A, s) \sim * \frac{|\mathrm{TS}(A)||\operatorname{Disc}|}{\left|A(k)_{\mathrm{tors}}\right|\left|A^{\vee}(k)_{\mathrm{tors}}\right|}(s-1)^{r} \text { as } s \rightarrow 1
$$

We have $L(A, s)=L\left(A^{\vee}, s\right)$, and Tate proved that $|T S(A)|=\left|T S\left(A^{\vee}\right)\right|$ (in fact the two groups, if finite, are canonically dual), and so the formula is invariant under the interchange of $A$ and $A^{\vee} .{ }^{4}$

REMARK 0.1. We noted above that the Betti numbers of an abelian variety of dimension $g$ are $1,\binom{2 g}{1},\binom{2 g}{2}, \ldots, 1$. Therefore the Lefschetz trace formula implies that $\sum_{r}(-1)^{r+1}\binom{2 g}{r}=$ 0 . This can also be proved by using the binomial theorem to expand $(1-1)^{2 g}$.

EXERCISE 0.2 . Assume $A(k)$ and $A^{\vee}(k)$ are finitely generated, of rank $r$ say, and that the height pairing

$$
\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle: A(k) \times A^{\vee}(k) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}
$$

[^2]is nondegenerate modulo torsion. Let $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}$ be elements of $A(k)$ that are linearly independent over $\mathbb{Z}$, and let $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}$ be similar elements of $A^{\vee}(k)$; show that
$$
\frac{\left|\operatorname{det}\left(\left\langle e_{i}, f_{j}\right\rangle\right)\right|}{\left(A(k): \sum \mathbb{Z} e_{i}\right)\left(A^{\vee}(k): \sum \mathbb{Z} f_{j}\right)}
$$
is independent of the choice of the $e_{i}$ and $f_{j}$. [This is an exercise in linear algebra.]
The first chapter of these notes covers the basic (geometric) theory of abelian varieties over arbitrary fields, the second chapter discusses some of the arithmetic of abelian varieties, especially over finite fields, the third chapter is concerned with jacobian varieties, and the final chapter is an introduction to Faltings's proof of the Mordell Conjecture.

NOTES. Weil's books (1948a, 1948b) contain the original account of abelian varieties over fields other than $\mathbb{C}$, but are written in a language which makes them difficult to read. Mumford's book (1970) is the only modern account of the subject, but as an introduction it is rather difficult. It treats only abelian varieties over algebraically closed fields; in particular, it does not cover the arithmetic of abelian varieties. Serre's notes (1989) give an excellent treatment of some of the arithmetic of abelian varieties (heights, Mordell-Weil theorem, work on Mordell's conjecture before Faltings the original title "Autour du théorème de Mordell-Weil" is more descriptive than the English title.). Murty's notes (1993) concentrate on the analytic theory of abelian varieties over $\mathbb{C}$ except for the final 18 pages. The book by Birkenhake and Lange (2004) is a very thorough and complete treatment of the theory of abelian varieties over $\mathbb{C}$.

## Chapter I

## Abelian Varieties: Geometry

## 1 Definitions; Basic Properties.

A group variety over $k$ is an algebraic variety $V$ over $k$ together with regular maps

$$
\begin{aligned}
m: V \times_{k} V & \rightarrow V & & \text { (multiplication) } \\
\text { inv: } V & \rightarrow V & & \text { (inverse) }
\end{aligned}
$$

and an element $e \in V(k)$ such that the structure on $V\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)$ defined by $m$ and inv is a group with identity element $e$.

Such a quadruple ( $V, m, \operatorname{inv}, e$ ) is a group in the category of varieties over $k$. This means that

$$
G \xrightarrow{(\mathrm{id}, e)} G \times_{k} G \xrightarrow{m} G, \quad G \xrightarrow{(e, \mathrm{id})} G \times_{k} G \xrightarrow{m} G
$$

are both the identity map (so $e$ is the identity element), the maps

$$
G \xrightarrow{\Delta} G \times_{k} G \xrightarrow{\xrightarrow{\mathrm{idv} \times \mathrm{id}} \times \mathrm{inv}} G \times_{k} G \xrightarrow{m} G
$$

are both equal to the composite

$$
G \rightarrow \operatorname{Specm}(k) \xrightarrow{e} G
$$

(so inv is the map taking an element to its inverse), and the following diagram commutes

(associativity holds).
To prove that a group variety satisfies these conditions, recall that the set where two morphisms of varieties disagree is open (because the target variety is separated, AG 4.8), and if it is nonempty, then the Nullenstellensatz (AG 2.6) shows that it will have a point with coordinates in $k^{\text {al }}$.

It follows that for every $k$-algebra $R, V(R)$ acquires a group structure, and these group structures depend functorially on $R$ (AG4.42).

Let $V$ be a group variety over $k$. For a point $a$ of $V$ with coordinates in $k$, we define $t_{a}: V \rightarrow V($ right translation by $a)$ to be the composite

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
V & \rightarrow & V \times V & \xrightarrow{m} & V . \\
x & \mapsto & (x, a) & \mapsto & x a
\end{array}
$$

Thus, on points $t_{a}$ is $x \mapsto x a$. It is an isomorphism $V \rightarrow V$ with inverse $t_{\operatorname{inv}(a)}$.
A group variety is automatically nonsingular: it suffices to prove this after $k$ has been replaced by its algebraic closure (AG, Chapter 11); as does any variety, it contains a nonsingular dense open subvariety $U$ (AG, 5.18), and the translates of $U$ cover $V$.

By definition, only one irreducible component of a variety can pass through a nonsingular point of the variety (AG5.16). Thus a connected group variety is irreducible.

A connected group variety is geometrically connected, i.e., remains connected when we extend scalars to the algebraic closure. To see this, we have to show that $k$ is algebraically closed in $k(V)$ (AG 11.7). Let $U$ be any open affine neighbourhood of $e$, and let $R=$ $\Gamma\left(U, \mathcal{O}_{V}\right)$. Then $R$ is a $k$-algebra with field of fractions $k(V)$, and $e$ is a homomorphism $R \rightarrow k$. If $k$ were not algebraically closed in $k(V)$, then there would be a field $k^{\prime} \supset k$, $k^{\prime} \neq k$, contained in $R$. But for such a field, there is no homomorphism $k^{\prime} \rightarrow k$, which contradicts the existence of $e: R \rightarrow k$.

A complete connected group variety is called an abelian variety. As we shall see, they are projective, and (fortunately) commutative. Their group laws will be written additively. Thus $t_{a}$ is now denoted $x \mapsto x+a$ and $e$ is usually denoted 0 .

## Rigidity

The paucity of maps between projective varieties has some interesting consequences.
THEOREM 1.1 (RIGIDITY THEOREM). Consider a regular map $\alpha: V \times W \rightarrow U$, and assume that $V$ is complete and that $V \times W$ is geometrically irreducible. If there are points $u_{0} \in U(k), v_{0} \in V(k)$, and $w_{0} \in W(k)$ such that

$$
\alpha\left(V \times\left\{w_{0}\right\}\right)=\left\{u_{0}\right\}=\alpha\left(\left\{v_{0}\right\} \times W\right)
$$

then $\alpha(V \times W)=\left\{u_{0}\right\}$.

In other words, if the two "coordinate axes" collapse to a point, then this forces the whole space to collapse to the point.

Proof. Since the hypotheses continue to hold after extending scalars from $k$ to $k^{\text {al }}$, we can assume $k$ is algebraically closed. Note that $V$ is connected, because otherwise $V \times_{k} W$ wouldn't be connected, much less irreducible. We need to use the following facts:
(i) If $V$ is complete, then the projection map $q: V \times_{k} W \rightarrow W$ is closed (this is the definition of being complete AG 7.1 .
(ii) If $V$ is complete and connected, and $\varphi: V \rightarrow U$ is a regular map from $V$ into an affine variety, then $\varphi(V)=$ \{point (AG7.5). Let $U_{0}$ be an open affine neighbourhood of $u_{0}$.

Because of $(\mathrm{i}), Z \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=} q\left(\alpha^{-1}\left(U \backslash U_{0}\right)\right)$ is closed in $W$. By definition, $Z$ consists of the second coordinates of points of $V \times W$ not mapping into $U_{0}$. Thus a point $w$ of $W$ lies outside $Z$ if and only $\alpha(V \times\{w\}) \subset U_{0}$. In particular $w_{0}$ lies outside $Z$, and so $W \backslash Z$ is nonempty. As $V \times\{w\}(\approx V)$ is complete and $U_{0}$ is affine, $\alpha(V \times\{w\})$ must be a point whenever $w \in W \backslash Z$ : in fact, $\alpha(V \times\{w\})=\alpha\left(v_{0}, w\right)=\left\{u_{0}\right\}$. Thus $\alpha$ is constant on the subset $V \times(W \backslash Z)$ of $V \times W$. As $V \times(W \backslash Z)$ is nonempty and open in $V \times W$, and $V \times W$ is irreducible, $V \times(W \backslash Z)$ is dense $V \times W$. As $U$ is separated, $\alpha$ must agree with the constant map on the whole of $V \times W$.

Corollary 1.2. Every regular map $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ of abelian varieties is the composite of a homomorphism with a translation.

Proof. The regular map $\alpha$ will send the $k$-rational point 0 of $A$ to a $k$-rational point $b$ of $B$. After composing $\alpha$ with translation by $-b$, we may assume that $\alpha(0)=0$. Consider the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi: A \times A & \rightarrow B \\
\varphi\left(a, a^{\prime}\right) & =\alpha\left(a+a^{\prime}\right)-\alpha(a)-\alpha\left(a^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

By this we mean that $\varphi$ is the difference of the two regular maps

which is a regular map. Then $\varphi(A \times 0)=0=\varphi(0 \times A)$ and so $\varphi=0$. This means that $\alpha$ is a homomorphism.

REMARK 1.3. The corollary shows that the group structure on an abelian variety is uniquely determined by the choice of a zero element (as in the case of an elliptic curve).

Corollary 1.4. The group law on an abelian variety is commutative.
Proof. Commutative groups are distinguished among all groups by the fact that the map taking an element to its inverse is a homomorphism. Since the negative map, $a \mapsto-a$, $A \rightarrow A$, takes the zero element to itself, the preceding corollary shows that it is a homomorphism.

Corollary 1.5. Let $V$ and $W$ be complete varieties over $k$ with $k$-rational points $v_{0}$ and $w_{0}$, and let $p$ and $q$ be the projection maps $V \times W \rightarrow V$ and $V \times W \rightarrow W$. Let $A$ be an abelian variety. Then a morphism $h: V \times W \rightarrow A$ such that $h\left(v_{0}, w_{0}\right)=0$ can be written uniquely as $h=f \circ p+g \circ q$ with $f: V \rightarrow A$ and $g: W \rightarrow A$ morphisms such that $f\left(v_{0}\right)=0$ and $g\left(w_{0}\right)=0$.

Proof. Set

$$
f=h\left|V \times\left\{w_{0}\right\}, \quad g=h\right|\left\{v_{0}\right\} \times W,
$$

and identify $V \times\left\{w_{0}\right\}$ and $\left\{v_{0}\right\} \times W$ with $V$ and $W$. On points, $f(v)=h\left(v, w_{0}\right)$ and $g(w)=h\left(v_{0}, w\right)$, and so $\Delta \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} h-(f \circ p+g \circ q)$ is the map that sends

$$
(v, w) \mapsto h(v, w)-h\left(v, w_{0}\right)-h\left(v_{0}, w\right)
$$

Thus

$$
\Delta\left(V \times\left\{w_{0}\right\}\right)=0=\Delta\left(\left\{v_{0}\right\} \times W\right)
$$

and so the theorem shows that $\Delta=0$.

## 2 Abelian Varieties over the Complex Numbers.

Let $A$ be an abelian variety over $\mathbb{C}$, and assume that $A$ is projective (this will be proved in §6). Then $A(\mathbb{C})$ inherits a complex structure as a submanifold of $\mathbb{P}^{n}(\mathbb{C})$ (see AG, Chapter 15). It is a complex manifold (because $A$ is nonsingular), compact (because it is closed in the compact space $\mathbb{P}^{n}(\mathbb{C})$ ), connected (because it is for the Zariski topology), and has a commutative group structure. It turns out that these facts are sufficient to allow us to give an elementary description of $A(\mathbb{C}$.)

## $A(\mathbb{C})$ is a complex torus.

Let $G$ be a differentiable manifold with a group structure defined by differentiable ${ }^{1}$ maps (i.e., a real Lie group). A one-parameter subgroup of $G$ is a differentiable homomorphism $\varphi: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$. In elementary differential geometry one proves that for every tangent vector $v$ to $G$ at $e$, there is a unique one-parameter subgroup $\varphi_{v}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$ such that $\varphi_{v}(0)=e$ and $\left(d \varphi_{v}\right)(1)=v$ (e.g., Boothby 1975, 5.14). Moreover, there is a unique differentiable map

$$
\exp : \operatorname{Tgt}_{e}(G) \rightarrow G
$$

such that

$$
t \mapsto \exp (t v): \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \operatorname{Tgt}_{e}(G) \rightarrow G
$$

is $\varphi_{v}$ for all $v$; thus $\exp (v)=\varphi_{v}(1)$ (ibid. 6.9). When we identify the tangent space at 0 of $\operatorname{Tgt}_{e}(G)$ with itself, then the differential of exp at 0 becomes the identity map

$$
\operatorname{Tgt}_{e}(G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tgt}_{e}(G)
$$

For example, if $G=\mathbb{R}^{\times}$, then exp is just the usual exponential map $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\times}$. If $G=$ $\mathrm{SL}_{n}(\mathbb{R})$, then $\exp$ is given by the usual formula:

$$
\exp (A)=I+A+A^{2} / 2!+A^{3} / 3!+\cdots, A \in S L_{n}(\mathbb{R})
$$

When $G$ is commutative, the exponential map is a homomorphism. These results extend to complex manifolds, and give the first part of the following proposition.

Proposition 2.1. Let $A$ be an abelian variety of dimension $g$ over $\mathbb{C}$.

[^3](a) There is a unique homomorphism
$$
\exp : \operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(A(\mathbb{C})) \rightarrow A(\mathbb{C})
$$
of complex manifolds such that, for each $v \in \operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(A(\mathbb{C}), z \mapsto \exp (z v)$ is the oneparameter subgroup $\varphi_{v}: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow A(\mathbb{C})$ corresponding to $v$. The differential of $\exp$ at 0 is the identity map
$$
\operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(A(\mathbb{C})) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(A(\mathbb{C}))
$$
(b) The map exp is surjective, and its kernel is a full lattice in the complex vector space $\mathrm{Tgt}_{0}(A(\mathbb{C})$ ).

Proof. It remains to prove (b). The image $H$ of exp is a subgroup of $A(\mathbb{C})$. Because $d(\exp )$ is an isomorphism on the tangent spaces at 0 , the inverse function theorem shows that exp is a local isomorphism at 0 . In particular, its image contains an open neighbourhood $U$ of 0 in $H$. But then, for any $a \in H, a+U$ is an open neighbourhood of $a$ in $H$, and so $H$ is open in $A(\mathbb{C})$. Because the complement of $H$ is a union of translates of $H$ (its cosets), $H$ is also closed. But $A(\mathbb{C})$ is connected, and so any nonempty open and closed subset is the whole space. We have shown that exp is surjective. Denote $\operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(A(\mathbb{C}))$ by $V$, and regard it as a real vector space of dimension $2 g$. Recall that a lattice in $V$ is a subgroup of the form

$$
L=\mathbb{Z} e_{1}+\cdots+Z e_{r}
$$

with $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}$ linearly independent over $\mathbb{R}$; moreover, that a subgroup $L$ of $V$ is a lattice if and only if it is discrete for the induced topology (ANT 4.14, 4.15), and that it is discrete if and only if 0 has a neighbourhood $U$ in $V$ such that $U \cap L=\{0\}$. As we noted above, $\exp$ is a local isomorphism at 0 . In particular, there is an open neighbourhood $U$ of 0 such that $\exp \mid U$ is injective, i.e., such that $U \cap \operatorname{Ker}(\exp )=0$. Therefore $\operatorname{Ker}(\exp )$ is a lattice in $V$. It must be a full lattice (i.e., $r=2 g$ ) because otherwise $V / L \approx A(\mathbb{C}$ ) wouldn't be compact.

We have shown that, if $A$ is an abelian variety, then $A(\mathbb{C}) \approx \mathbb{C}^{g} / L$ for some full lattice $L$ in $\mathbb{C}^{g}$. However, unlike the one-dimensional case, not every quotient $\mathbb{C}^{g} / L$ arises from an abelian variety. Before stating a necessary and sufficient condition for a quotient to arise in this way, we compute the cohomology of a torus.

## The cohomology of a torus.

Let $X$ be the smooth manifold $V / L$ where $V$ is real vector space of dimension $n$ and $L$ is a full lattice in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. Note that $V=\operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(X)$ and $L$ is the kernel of exp: $V \rightarrow X$, and so $X$ and its point 0 determine both $V$ and $L$. We wish to compute the cohomology groups of $X$.

Recall the following statements from algebraic topology (e.g., Greenberg, Lectures on Algebraic Topology, Benjamin, 1967).
2.2. (a) Let $X$ be a topological space, and let $H^{*}(X, \mathbb{Z})=\bigoplus_{r} H^{r}(X, \mathbb{Z})$; then cupproduct defines on $H^{*}(X, \mathbb{Z})$ a ring structure; moreover

$$
a^{r} \cup b^{s}=(-1)^{r s} b^{s} \cup a^{r}, a^{r} \in H^{r}(X, \mathbb{Z}), b^{s} \in H^{s}(X, \mathbb{Z})
$$

(ibid. 24.8).
(b) (Künneth formula): Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces such that $H^{r}(X, \mathbb{Z})$ and $H^{s}(Y, \mathbb{Z})$ are free $\mathbb{Z}$-modules for all $r, s$. Then there is a canonical isomorphism

$$
H^{m}(X \times Y, \mathbb{Z}) \simeq \bigoplus_{r+s=m} H^{r}(X, \mathbb{Z}) \otimes H^{s}(Y, \mathbb{Z})
$$

The map $H^{r}(X, \mathbb{Z}) \otimes H^{s}(Y, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^{r+s}(X \times Y, \mathbb{Z})$ is

$$
a \otimes b \mapsto p^{*} a \cup q^{*} b \text { (cup-product) }
$$

where $p$ and $q$ are the projection maps $X \times Y \rightarrow X, Y$.
(c) If $X$ is a "reasonable" topological space, then

$$
H^{1}(X, \mathbb{Z}) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}\left(\pi_{1}(X, x), \mathbb{Z}\right)
$$

(ibid. 12.1; 23.14).
(d) If $X$ is compact and orientable of dimension $d$, the duality theorems (ibid. 26.6, 23.14) show that there are canonical isomorphisms

$$
H^{r}(X, \mathbb{Z}) \simeq H_{d-r}(X, \mathbb{Z}) \simeq H^{d-r}(X, \mathbb{Z})^{\vee}
$$

when all the cohomology groups are torsion-free.
We first compute the dimension of the groups $H^{r}(X, \mathbb{Z})$. Note that, as a real manifold, $V / L \approx(\mathbb{R} / \mathbb{Z})^{n} \approx\left(S^{1}\right)^{n}$ where $S^{1}$ is the unit circle. We have

$$
H^{r}\left(S^{1}, \mathbb{Z}\right)=\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}, 0, \ldots \text { for } r=0,1,2, \ldots
$$

Hence, by the Künneth formula,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H^{*}\left(\left(S^{1}\right)^{2}, \mathbb{Z}\right)=\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}^{2}, \mathbb{Z}, 0, \ldots \\
& H^{*}\left(\left(S^{1}\right)^{3}, \mathbb{Z}\right)=\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}^{3}, \mathbb{Z}^{3}, \mathbb{Z}, 0, \ldots \\
& H^{*}\left(\left(S^{1}\right)^{4}, \mathbb{Z}\right)=\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}^{4}, \mathbb{Z}^{6}, \mathbb{Z}^{4}, \mathbb{Z}, 0, \ldots \ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

The exponents form a Pascal's triangle:

$$
\operatorname{dim} H^{r}\left(\left(S^{1}\right)^{n}, \mathbb{Z}\right)=\binom{n}{r}
$$

Next we compute the groups $H^{r}(X, \mathbb{Z})$ explicitly. Recall from linear algebra (e.g., Bourbaki, N., Algèbre Multilinéaire, Hermann, 1958) that if $M$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$-module, then $\bigwedge^{r} M$ is the quotient of $\otimes^{r} M$ by the submodule generated by the tensors $a_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes a_{r}$ in which two of the $a_{i}$ are equal. Thus,

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Lambda^{r} M, \mathbb{Z}\right) \simeq\left\{\text { alternating forms } f: M^{r} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}\right\}
$$

(a multilinear form is alternating if $f\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{r}\right)=0$ whenever two $a_{i} \mathrm{~s}$ are equal). If $M$ is free and finitely generated, with basis $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{d}$ say, over $\mathbb{Z}$, then

$$
\left\{e_{1} \wedge \ldots \wedge e_{i_{r}} \mid i_{1}<i_{2}<\cdots<i_{r}\right\}
$$

is a basis for $\bigwedge^{r} M$; moreover, if $M^{\vee}$ is the $\mathbb{Z}$-linear dual $\operatorname{Hom}(M, \mathbb{Z})$ of $M$, then the pairing

$$
\bigwedge^{r} M^{\vee} \times \bigwedge^{r} M \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad\left(y_{1} \wedge \ldots \wedge y_{r}, x_{1} \wedge \ldots \wedge x_{r}\right) \mapsto \operatorname{det}\left(y_{i}\left(x_{j}\right)\right)
$$

realizes each of $\bigwedge^{r} M^{\vee}$ and $\bigwedge^{r} M$ as the $\mathbb{Z}$-linear dual of the other (ibid. §8, Thm 1).

Theorem 2.3. Let $X$ be the torus $V / L$. There are canonical isomorphisms

$$
\bigwedge^{r} H^{1}(X, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^{r}(X, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(\bigwedge^{r} L, \mathbb{Z}\right)
$$

Proof. For any manifold $X$, cup-product (2.21) defines a map

$$
\bigwedge^{r} H^{1}(X, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^{r}(X, \mathbb{Z}), \quad a_{1 \wedge \ldots \wedge} a_{r} \mapsto a_{1} \cup \ldots \cup a_{r} .
$$

Moreover, the Künneth formula (2.2p) shows that, if this map is an isomorphism for $X$ and $Y$ and all $r$, then it is an isomorphism for $X \times Y$ and all $r$. Since this is obviously true for $S^{1}$, it is true for $X \approx\left(S^{1}\right)^{n}$. This defines the first map and proves that it is an isomorphism. The space $V \approx \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is simply connected, and exp: $V \rightarrow X$ is a covering map - therefore it realizes $V$ as the universal covering space of $X$, and so $\pi_{1}(X, x)$ is its group of covering transformations, which is $L$. Hence (2.2k)

$$
H^{1}(X, \mathbb{Z}) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}(L, \mathbb{Z})
$$

The pairing

$$
\bigwedge^{r} L^{\vee} \times \bigwedge^{r} L \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad\left(f_{1 \wedge} \ldots \wedge f_{r}, e_{1 \wedge} \ldots \wedge e_{r}\right) \mapsto \operatorname{det}\left(f_{i}\left(e_{j}\right)\right)
$$

realizes each group as the $\mathbb{Z}$-linear dual of the other, and $L^{\vee}=H^{1}(X, \mathbb{Z})$, and so

$$
\bigwedge^{r} H^{1}(X, \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\simeq} \operatorname{Hom}\left(\bigwedge^{r} L, \mathbb{Z}\right) .
$$

## Riemann forms.

By a complex torus, I mean a quotient $X=V / L$ where $V$ is a complex vector space and $L$ is a full lattice in $V$.

Lemma 2.4. Let $V$ be a complex vector space. There is a one-to-one correspondence between the Hermitian forms $H$ on $V$ and the real-valued skew-symmetric forms $E$ on $V$ satisfying the identity $E(i v, i w)=E(v, w)$, namely,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E(v, w)=\operatorname{Im}(H(v, w)) \\
& H(v, w)=E(i v, w)+i E(v, w)
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. Easy exercise.
Example 2.5. Consider the torus $\mathbb{C} / \mathbb{Z}+\mathbb{Z} i$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
E\left(x+i y, x^{\prime}+i y^{\prime}\right) & =x^{\prime} y-x y^{\prime}, \\
H\left(z, z^{\prime}\right) & =z \bar{z}^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

are a pair as in the lemma.
Let $X=V / L$ be a complex torus of dimension $g$, and let $E$ be a skew-symmetric form $L \times L \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. Since $L \otimes \mathbb{R}=V$, we can extend $E$ to a skew-symmetric $\mathbb{R}$-bilinear form $E_{\mathbb{R}}: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We call $E$ a Riemann form if
(a) $E_{\mathbb{R}}(i v, i w)=E_{\mathbb{R}}(v, w)$;
(b) the associated Hermitian form is positive definite.

Note that (b) implies that $E$ is nondegenerate, but it is says more.
EXERCISE 2.6. If $X$ has dimension 1 , then $\bigwedge^{2} L \approx \mathbb{Z}$, and so there is a skew-symmetric form $E: L \times L \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ such that every other such form is an integral multiple of it. The form $E$ is uniquely determined up to sign, and exactly one of $\pm E$ is a Riemann form.

We shall say that $X$ is polarizable if it admits a Riemann form.
REMARK 2.7. Most complex tori are not polarizable. For an example of a 2-dimensional torus $\mathbb{C}^{2} / L$ with no nonconstant meromorphic functions, see p104 of Siegel 1948 .

THEOREM 2.8. A complex torus $X$ is of the form $A(\mathbb{C})$ if and only if it polarizable.

PROOF (BRIEF SKETCH) $\Longrightarrow$ : Choose an embedding $A \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ with $n$ minimal. There exists a hyperplane $H$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ that doesn't contain the tangent space to any point on $A(\mathbb{C})$. Then $A \cap H$ is a smooth variety of (complex) dimension $g-1$ (easy exercise). It can be "triangulated" by $(2 g-2)$-simplices, and so defines a class in

$$
H_{2 g-2}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \simeq H^{2}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}\left(\bigwedge^{2} L, \mathbb{Z}\right)
$$

and hence a skew-symmetric form on $L$ - this can be shown to be a Riemann form.
$\Longleftarrow$ : Given $E$, it is possible to construct enough functions (in fact quotients of theta functions) on $V$ to give an embedding of $X$ into some projective space.

We define the category of polarizable complex tori as follows: the objects are polarizable complex tori; if $X=V / L$ and $X^{\prime}=V^{\prime} / L^{\prime}$ are complex tori, then $\operatorname{Hom}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ is the set of maps $X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ defined by a $\mathbb{C}$-linear map $\alpha: V \rightarrow V^{\prime}$ mapping $L$ into $L^{\prime}$. (These are in fact all the complex-analytic homomorphisms $X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$.)

THEOREM 2.9. The functor $A \mapsto A(\mathbb{C})$ is an equivalence from the category of abelian varieties over $\mathbb{C}$ to the category of polarizable tori.

In more detail this says that $A \mapsto A(\mathbb{C})$ is a functor, every polarizable complex torus is isomorphic to the torus defined by an abelian variety, and

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)=\operatorname{Hom}(A(\mathbb{C}), B(\mathbb{C}))
$$

Thus the category of abelian varieties over $\mathbb{C}$ is essentially the same as that of polarizable complex tori, which can be studied using only (multi-)linear algebra.

An isogeny of polarizable tori is a surjective homomorphism with finite kernel. The degree of the isogeny is the order of the kernel. Polarizable tori $X$ and $Y$ are said to be isogenous if there exists an isogeny $X \rightarrow Y$.

EXERCISE 2.10. Show that "isogeny" is an equivalence relation.

Let $X=V / L$. Then

$$
V^{*}=\left\{f: V \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid f(\alpha v)=\bar{\alpha} f(v), \quad f\left(v+v^{\prime}\right)=f(v)+f\left(v^{\prime}\right)\right\}
$$

is a complex vector space of the same dimension as $V$. Define

$$
L^{*}=\left\{f \in V^{*} \mid \operatorname{Im} f(L) \subset \mathbb{Z}\right\}
$$

Then $L^{*}$ is a lattice in $V^{*}$, and $X^{\vee} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} V^{*} / L^{*}$ is a polarizable complex torus, called the dual torus.

EXERCISE 2.11. If $X=V / L$, then $X_{m}$, the subgroup of $X$ of elements killed by $m$, is $m^{-1} L / L$. Show that there is a canonical pairing

$$
X_{m} \times\left(X^{\vee}\right)_{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}
$$

This is the Weil pairing.
A Riemann form on $E$ on $X$ defines a homomorphism $\lambda_{E}: X \rightarrow X^{\vee}$ as follows: let $H$ be the associated Hermitian form, and let $\lambda_{E}$ be the map defined by

$$
v \mapsto H(v, \cdot): V \rightarrow V^{*}
$$

Then $\lambda_{E}$ is an isogeny, and we call such a map $\lambda_{E}$ a polarization. The degree of the polarization is the order of the kernel. The polarization is said to be principal if it is of degree 1 .

EXERCISE 2.12. Show that every polarizable tori is isogenous to a principally polarized torus.

A polarizable complex torus is simple if it does not contain a nonzero proper polarizable subtorus $X^{\prime}$.

EXERCISE 2.13. Show that every polarizable torus is isogenous to a direct sum of simple polarizable tori.

Let $E$ be an elliptic curve over $\mathbb{Q}$. Then $\operatorname{End}(E) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ is either $\mathbb{Q}$ or a quadratic imaginary extension of $\mathbb{Q}$. For a simple polarizable torus, $D=\operatorname{End}(X) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ is a division algebra over a field and the polarization defines a positive involution ${ }^{\dagger}$ on $D$. The pairs $\left(D,{ }^{\dagger}\right)$ that arise from a simple abelian variety have been classified (A.A. Albert).

## Notes

There is a concise treatment of complex abelian varieties in Chapter I of Mumford 1970, and a more leisurely account in Murty 1993. The classic account is Siegel 1948. Siegel first develops the theory of complex functions in several variables. See also his books, Topics in Complex Function Theory. There is a very complete modern account in Birkenhake and Lange 2004

## 3 Rational Maps Into Abelian Varieties

Throughout this section, all varieties will be irreducible.

## Rational maps.

We first discuss the general theory of rational maps.
Let $V$ and $W$ be varieties over $k$, and consider pairs $\left(U, \varphi_{U}\right)$ where $U$ is a dense open subset of $V$ and $\varphi_{U}$ is a regular map $U \rightarrow W$. Two such pairs $\left(U, \varphi_{U}\right)$ and $\left(U^{\prime}, \varphi_{U^{\prime}}\right)$ are said to be equivalent if $\varphi_{U}$ and $\varphi_{U^{\prime}}$ agree on $U \cap U^{\prime}$. An equivalence class of pairs is called a rational map $\varphi: V-->W$. A rational map $\varphi$ is said to be defined at a point $v$ of $V$ if $v \in U$ for some $\left(U, \varphi_{U}\right) \in \varphi$. The set $U_{1}$ of $v$ at which $\varphi$ is defined is open, and there is a regular map $\varphi_{1}: U_{1} \rightarrow W$ such that $\left(U_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right) \in \varphi$ - clearly, $U_{1}=\bigcup_{\left(U, \varphi_{U}\right) \in \varphi} U$ and we can define $\varphi_{1}$ to be the regular map such that $\varphi_{1} \mid U=\varphi_{U}$ for all $\left(U, \varphi_{U}\right) \in \varphi$.

The following examples illustrate the major reasons why a rational map $V-->W$ may fail to extend to a regular map on the whole of $V$.
(a) Let $W$ be a proper open subset of $V$; then the rational map $V->W$ represented by id: $W \rightarrow W$ will not extend to $V$. To obviate this problem, we should take $W$ to be complete.
(b) Let $C$ be the cuspidal plane cubic curve $Y^{2}=X^{3}$. The regular map $\mathbb{A}^{1} \rightarrow C$, $t \mapsto\left(t^{2}, t^{3}\right)$, defines an isomorphism $\mathbb{A}^{1} \backslash\{0\} \rightarrow C \backslash\{0\}$. The inverse of this isomorphism represents a rational map $C-->\mathbb{A}^{1}$ which does not extend to a regular map on $C$ because the map on function fields doesn't send the local ring at $0 \in \mathbb{A}^{1}$ into the local ring at $0 \in C$. Roughly speaking, a regular map can only map a singularity to a worse singularity. To obviate this problem, we should take $V$ to be nonsingular (in fact, nonsingular is no more helpful than normal).
(c) Let $P$ be a point on a nonsingular surface $V$. It is possible to "blow-up" $P$ and obtain a surface $W$ and a morphism $\alpha: W \rightarrow V$ which restricts to an isomorphism $W \backslash \alpha^{-1}(P) \rightarrow V \backslash P$ but for which $\alpha^{-1}(P)$ is the projective line of "directions" through $P$. The inverse of the restriction of $\alpha$ to $W \backslash \alpha^{-1}(P)$ represents a rational map $V-\gg$ which does not extend to all $V$, even when $V$ and $W$ are complete roughly speaking, there is no preferred direction through $P$, and hence no obvious choice for the image of $P$.

In view of these examples, the next theorem is best possible.
THEOREM 3.1. A rational map $\varphi$ : $V-->W$ from a normal variety $V$ to a complete variety $W$ is defined on an open subset $U$ of $V$ whose complement $V \backslash U$ has codimension $\geq 2$.

Proof. Assume first that $V$ is a curve. Thus we are given a nonsingular curve $V$ and a regular map $\varphi: U \rightarrow W$ from an open subset of $V$ which we want to extend to $V$. Consider the maps


Let $U^{\prime}$ be the image of $U$ in $V \times W$, and let $Z$ be its closure. The image of $Z$ in $V$ is closed (because $W$ is complete), and contains $U$ (the composite $U \rightarrow V$ is the given inclusion), and so $Z$ maps onto $V$. The maps $U \rightarrow U^{\prime} \rightarrow U$ are isomorphisms. Therefore,
$Z \rightarrow V$ is a surjective map from a complete curve onto a nonsingular complete curve that is an isomorphism on open subsets. Such a map must be an isomorphism (complete nonsingular curves are determined by their function fields). The restriction of the projection map $V \times W \rightarrow W$ to $Z(\simeq V)$ is the extension of $\varphi$ to $V$ we are seeking.

The general case can be reduced to the one-dimensional case (using schemes). Let $U$ be the largest subset on which $\varphi$ is defined, and suppose that $V \backslash U$ has codimension 1. Then there is a prime divisor $Z$ in $V \backslash U$. Because $V$ is normal, its associated local ring is a discrete valuation ring $\mathcal{O}_{Z}$ with field of fractions $k(V)$. The map $\varphi$ defines a morphism of schemes $\operatorname{Spec}(k(V)) \rightarrow W$, which the valuative criterion of properness (Hartshorne 1977, II 4.7) shows extends to a morphism $\operatorname{Spec}\left(\mathcal{O}_{Z}\right) \rightarrow W$. This implies that $\varphi$ has a representative defined on an open subset that meets $Z$ in a nonempty set, which is a contradiction.

## Rational maps into abelian varieties.

THEOREM 3.2. A rational map $\alpha$ : $V-->A$ from a nonsingular variety to an abelian variety is defined on the whole of $V$.

Proof. Combine Theorem 3.1 with the next lemma.
Lemma 3.3. Let $\varphi: V-->G$ be a rational map from a nonsingular variety to a group variety. Then either $\varphi$ is defined on all of $V$ or the points where it is not defined form a closed subset of pure codimension 1 in $V$ (i.e., a finite union of prime divisors).

Proof. Define a rational map

$$
\Phi: V \times V-->G,(x, y) \mapsto \varphi(x) \cdot \varphi(y)^{-1}
$$

More precisely, if $\left(U, \varphi_{U}\right)$ represents $\varphi$, then $\Phi$ is the rational map represented by

$$
U \times U \xrightarrow{\varphi_{U} \times \varphi_{U}} G \times G \xrightarrow{\text { id } \times \text { inv }} G \xrightarrow{m} G
$$

Clearly $\Phi$ is defined at a diagonal point $(x, x)$ if $\varphi$ is defined at $x$, and then $\Phi(x, x)=e$. Conversely, if $\Phi$ is defined at $(x, x)$, then it is defined on an open neighbourhood of $(x, x)$; in particular, there will be an open subset $U$ of $V$ such that $\Phi$ is defined on $\{x\} \times U$. After possible replacing $U$ by a smaller open subset (not necessarily containing $x$ ), $\varphi$ will be defined on $U$. For $u \in U$, the formula

$$
\varphi(x)=\Phi(x, u) \cdot \varphi(u)
$$

defines $\varphi$ at $x$. Thus $\varphi$ is defined at $x$ if and only if $\Phi$ is defined at $(x, x)$. The rational map $\Phi$ defines a map

$$
\Phi^{*}: \mathcal{O}_{G, e} \rightarrow k(V \times V)
$$

Since $\Phi$ sends $(x, x)$ to $e$ if it is defined there, it follows that $\Phi$ is defined at $(x, x)$ if and only if

$$
\operatorname{Im}\left(\mathcal{O}_{G, e}\right) \subset \mathcal{O}_{V \times V,(x, x)}
$$

Now $V \times V$ is nonsingular, and so we have a good theory of divisors (AG, Chapter 12). For a nonzero rational function $f$ on $V \times V$, write

$$
\operatorname{div}(f)=\operatorname{div}(f)_{0}-\operatorname{div}(f)_{\infty}
$$

with $\operatorname{div}(f)_{0}$ and $\operatorname{div}(f)_{\infty}$ effective divisors - note that $\operatorname{div}(f)_{\infty}=\operatorname{div}\left(f^{-1}\right)_{0}$. Then

$$
\mathcal{O}_{V \times V,(x, x)}=\left\{f \in k(V \times V) \mid \operatorname{div}(f)_{\infty} \text { does not contain }(x, x)\right\} \cup\{0\} .
$$

Suppose $\phi$ is not defined at $x$. Then for some $f \in \operatorname{Im}\left(\varphi^{*}\right),(x, x) \in \operatorname{div}(f)_{\infty}$, and clearly $\Phi$ is not defined at the points $(y, y) \in \Delta \cap \operatorname{div}(f)_{\infty}$. This is a subset of pure codimension one in $\Delta$ (AG 9.2), and when we identify it with a subset of $V$, it is a subset of $V$ of codimension one passing through $x$ on which $\varphi$ is not defined.

Theorem 3.4. Let $\alpha: V \times W \rightarrow A$ be a morphism from a product of nonsingular varieties into an abelian variety, and assume that $V \times W$ is geometrically irreducible. If

$$
\alpha\left(V \times\left\{w_{0}\right\}\right)=\left\{a_{0}\right\}=\alpha\left(\left\{v_{0}\right\} \times W\right)
$$

for some $a_{0} \in A(k), v_{0} \in V(k), w_{0} \in W(k)$, then

$$
\alpha(V \times W)=\left\{a_{0}\right\} .
$$

If $V($ or $W$ ) is complete, this is a special case of the Rigidity Theorem (Theorem 1.1). For the general case, we need two lemmas.

Lemma 3.5. (a) Every nonsingular curve $V$ can be realized as an open subset of a complete nonsingular curve $C$.
(b) Let $C$ be a curve; then there is a nonsingular curve $C^{\prime}$ and a regular map $C^{\prime} \rightarrow C$ that is an isomorphism over the set of nonsingular points of $C$.

Proof (Sketch) (a) Let $K=k(V)$. Take $C$ to be the set of discrete valuation rings in $K$ containing $k$ with the topology for which the finite sets and the whole set are closed. For each open subset $U$ of $C$, define

$$
\Gamma\left(U, \mathcal{O}_{C}\right)=\bigcap\{R \mid R \in C\} .
$$

The ringed space $\left(C, \mathcal{O}_{C}\right)$ is a nonsingular curve, and the map $V \rightarrow C$ sending a point $x$ of $V$ to $\mathcal{O}_{V \cdot x}$ is regular.
(b) Take $C^{\prime}$ to be the normalization of $C$.

Lemma 3.6. Let $V$ be an irreducible variety over an algebraically closed field, and let $P$ be a nonsingular point on $V$. Then the union of the irreducible curves passing through $P$ and nonsingular at $P$ is dense in $V$.

Proof. By induction, it suffices to show that the union of the irreducible subvarieties of codimension 1 passing $P$ and nonsingular at $P$ is dense in $V$. We can assume $V$ to be affine, and that $V$ is embedded in affine space. For $H$ a hyperplane passing through $P$ but not containing $\operatorname{Tgt}_{P}(V), V \cap H$ is nonsingular at $P$. Let $V_{H}$ be the irreducible component of $V \cap H$ passing through $P$, regarded as a subvariety of $V$, and let $Z$ be a closed subset of $V$ containing all $V_{H}$. Let $C_{P}(Z)$ be the tangent cone to $Z$ at $P$ (see AG, Chapter 5). Clearly,

$$
\operatorname{Tgt}_{P}(V) \cap H=\operatorname{Tgt}_{P}\left(V_{H}\right)=C_{P}\left(V_{H}\right) \subset C_{P}(Z) \subset C_{P}(V)=\operatorname{Tgt}_{P}(V)
$$

and it follows that $C_{P}(Z)=\operatorname{Tgt}_{P}(V)$. As $\operatorname{dim} C_{P}(Z)=\operatorname{dim}(Z)(\operatorname{AG} 5.40$ et seqq.), this implies that $Z=V$ (AG 2.26).

Proof (of 3.4) Clearly we can assume $k$ to be algebraically closed. Consider first the case that $V$ has dimension 1. From the (3.5), we know that $V$ can be embedded into a nonsingular complete curve $C$, and (3.2) shows that $\alpha$ extends to a map $\bar{\alpha}: C \times W \rightarrow A$. Now the Rigidity Theorem (1.1) shows that $\bar{\alpha}$ is constant. In the general case, let $C$ be an irreducible curve on $V$ passing through $v_{0}$ and nonsingular at $v_{0}$, and let $C^{\prime} \rightarrow C$ be the normalization of $C$. By composition, $\alpha$ defines a morphism $C^{\prime} \times W \rightarrow A$, which the preceding argument shows to be constant. Therefore $\alpha(C \times W)=\left\{a_{0}\right\}$, and Lemma 3.6 completes the proof.

Corollary 3.7. Every rational map $\alpha: G \rightarrow A$ from a group variety to an abelian variety is the composite of a homomorphism $h: G \rightarrow A$ with a translation.

Proof. Theorem 3.2 shows that $\alpha$ is a regular map. The rest of the proof is the same as that of Corollary 1.2 .

## Abelian varieties up to birational equivalence.

A rational map $\varphi: V-->W$ is dominating if $\operatorname{Im}\left(\varphi_{U}\right)$ is dense in $W$ for one (hence all) representatives $\left(U, \varphi_{U}\right)$ of $\varphi$. Then $\varphi$ defines a homomorphism $k(W) \rightarrow k(V)$, and every such homomorphism arises from a (unique) dominating rational map (exercise!).

A rational map $\varphi$ is birational if the corresponding homomorphism $k(W) \rightarrow k(V)$ is an isomorphism. Equivalently, if there exists a rational map $\psi: W \rightarrow V$ such that $\varphi \circ \psi$ and $\psi \circ \varphi$ are both the identity map wherever they are defined. Two varieties $V$ and $W$ are birationally equivalent if there exists a birational map $V-->W$; equivalently, if $k(V) \approx$ $k(W)$.

In general, two varieties can be birationally equivalent without being isomorphic (see the start of this section for examples). In fact, every variety (even complete and nonsingular) of dimension $>1$ will be birationally equivalent to many nonisomorphic varieties. However, Theorem 3.1 shows that two complete nonsingular curves that are birationally equivalent will be isomorphic. The same is true of abelian varieties.

Theorem 3.8. If two abelian varieties are birationally equivalent, then they are isomorphic (as abelian varieties).

Proof. Let $A$ and $B$ be the abelian varieties. A rational map $\varphi: A-->B$ extends to a regular map $A \rightarrow B$ (by 3.2). If $\varphi$ is birational, its inverse $\psi$ also extends to a regular map, and the composites $\varphi \circ \psi$ and $\psi \circ \varphi$ will be identity maps because they are on open sets. Hence there is an isomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ of algebraic varieties. After composing it with a translation, it will map 0 to 0 , and then Corollary 1.2 shows that it preserves the group structure.

Proposition 3.9. Every rational map $\mathbb{A}^{1}-->A$ or $\mathbb{P}^{1}-->A$ is constant.
Proof. According to $\sqrt{3.2}, \alpha$ extends to a regular map on the whole of $\mathbb{A}^{1}$. After composing $\alpha$ with a translation, we may suppose that $\alpha(0)=0$. Then $\alpha$ is a homomorphism,

$$
\alpha(x+y)=\alpha(x)+\alpha(y), \quad \text { all } x, y \in \mathbb{A}^{1}\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)=k^{\text {al }} .
$$

But $\mathbb{A}^{1}-\{0\}$ is also a group variety, and similarly,

$$
\alpha(x y)=\alpha(x)+\alpha(y)+c, \quad \text { all } x, y \in \mathbb{A}^{1}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)=k^{\mathrm{al}} .
$$

This is absurd, unless $\alpha$ is constant.
A variety $V$ over an algebraically closed field is said to be unirational if there is a dominating rational map $\mathbb{A}^{n}-->V$ with $n=\operatorname{dim} V$; equivalently, if $k(V)$ can be embedded into $k\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ (pure transcendental extension of $k$ ). A variety $V$ over an arbitrary field $k$ is said to be unirational if $V_{k^{\text {al }}}$ is unirational.
Proposition 3.10. Every rational map $\alpha$ : $V \rightarrow A$ from a unirational variety to an abelian variety is constant.

Proof. We may suppose that $k$ is algebraically closed. By assumption there is a rational map $\mathbb{A}^{n}-->V$ with dense image, and the composite of this with $\alpha$ extends to a morphism $\beta: \mathbb{P}^{1} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{P}^{1} \rightarrow A$. An induction argument, starting from Corollary 1.5 , shows that there are regular maps $\beta_{i}: \mathbb{P}^{1} \rightarrow A$ such that $\beta\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right)=\sum \beta_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)$, and the lemma shows that each $\beta_{i}$ is constant.

## 4 Review of cohomology

This section needs to be rewritten (some day, AG will include cohomology).
In order to prove some of the theorems concerning abelian varieties, we shall need to make use of results on the cohomology of coherent sheaves. The first of these is Grothendieck's relative version of the theorem asserting that the cohomology groups of coherent sheaves on complete varieties are finite dimensional.

THEOREM 4.1. If $f: V \rightarrow T$ is a proper regular map and $\mathcal{F}$ is a coherent $\mathcal{O}_{V}$-module, then the higher direct image sheaves $R^{r} f_{*} \mathcal{F}$ are coherent $\mathcal{O}_{T}$-modules for all $r \geq 0$.

Proof. When $f$ is projective, this is proved in Hartshorne 1977, III 8.8. Chow's lemma (ibid. II Ex. 4.10) allows one to extend the result to the general case (EGA III 3.2.1).

The second result describes how the dimensions of the cohomology groups of the members of a flat family of coherent sheaves vary.

Theorem 4.2. Let $f: V \rightarrow T$ be a proper flat regular map, and let $\mathcal{F}$ be a locally free $\mathcal{O}_{V}$-module of finite rank. For each $t$ in $T$, write $V_{t}$ for the fibre of $V$ over $t$ and $\mathcal{F}_{t}$ for the inverse image of $\mathcal{F}$ on $V_{t}$.
(a) The formation of the higher direct images of $\mathcal{F}$ commutes with flat base change. In particular, if $T=\operatorname{Specm}(R)$ is affine and $R^{\prime}$ is a flat $R$-algebra, then

$$
H^{r}\left(V^{\prime}, \mathcal{F}\right)=H^{r}(V, \mathcal{F}) \otimes_{R} R^{\prime}
$$

where $V^{\prime}=V \times_{\text {Specm } R}$ Specm $R^{\prime}$ and $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ is the inverse image of $\mathcal{F}$ on $V^{\prime}$.
(b) The function

$$
t \mapsto \chi\left(\mathcal{F}_{t}\right) \stackrel{d f}{=} \sum_{r}(-1)^{r} \operatorname{dim}_{k(t)} H^{r}\left(V_{t}, \mathcal{F}_{t}\right)
$$

is locally constant on $T$.
(c) For each $r$, the function

$$
t \mapsto \operatorname{dim}_{k(t)} H^{r}\left(V_{t}, \mathcal{F}_{t}\right)
$$

is upper semicontinuous (i.e., jumps on closed subsets).
(d) If $T$ is integral and the function in (c) is constant, then $R^{r} f_{*} \mathcal{F}$ is a locally free $\mathcal{O}_{T^{-}}$ module and the natural maps

$$
\mathcal{R}^{r} f_{*} \mathcal{F} \otimes_{\mathcal{O}_{T}} k(t) \rightarrow H^{r}\left(V_{t}, \mathcal{F}_{t}\right)
$$

are isomorphisms.
(e) If $H^{1}\left(V_{t}, \mathcal{F}_{t}\right)=0$ for all $t$ in $T$, then $R^{1} f_{*} \mathcal{F}=0, f_{*} \mathcal{F}$ is locally free, and the formation of $f_{*} \mathcal{F}$ commutes with base change.
Proof. (a) The statement is local on the base, and so it suffices to prove it for the particular case in which we have given an explicit statement. In Mumford 1970, §5, p46, a complex $K^{\bullet}$ of $R$-modules is constructed such that, for all $R$-algebras $R^{\prime}, H^{r}\left(V^{\prime}, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right)=H^{r}\left(K^{\bullet} \otimes_{R}\right.$ $R^{\prime}$ ). In our case, $R^{\prime}$ is flat over $R$, and so $H^{r}\left(K^{\bullet} \otimes_{R} R^{\prime}\right)=H^{r}\left(K^{\bullet}\right) \otimes_{R} R^{\prime}$, which equals $H^{r}(V, \mathcal{F}) \otimes_{R} R^{\prime}$.
(b), (c), (d). These are proved in Mumford 1970, §5.
(e) The hypothesis implies that $R^{1} f_{*} \mathcal{F}=0$ (Hartshorne 1977, III 12.11a), and it follows that $f_{*} \mathcal{F} \otimes_{\mathcal{O}_{T}} k(t) \rightarrow H^{0}\left(V_{t}, \mathcal{F}_{t}\right)$ is surjective for all $t$ (ibid., III 12.11b) and so is an isomorphism. Now (ibid., III 12.11b), applied with $i=0$, shows that $f_{*} \mathcal{F}$ is locally free. $\square$

## 5 The Theorem of the Cube.

We refer the reader to (AG, Chapter 13) for the basic theory of invertible sheaves. For a variety $V, \operatorname{Pic}(V)$ is the group of isomorphism classes of invertible sheaves. [This section needs to be rewritten to include the complete proof of the theorem of the cube.]

## Statement and Applications

Roughly speaking, the theorem of the cube says that an invertible sheaf on the product of three complete varieties is trivial if it becomes trivial when restricted to each of the three "coordinate faces".

THEOREM 5.1 (THEOREM OF THE CUBE). Let $U, V, W$ be complete geometrically irreducible varieties over $k$, and let $u_{0} \in U(k), v_{0} \in V(k), w_{0} \in W(k)$ be base points. Then an invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $U \times V \times W$ is trivial if its restrictions to

$$
U \times V \times\left\{w_{0}\right\}, U \times\left\{v_{0}\right\} \times W,\left\{u_{0}\right\} \times V \times W
$$

are all trivial.
We defer the proof until later in this section [actually, until the next version].
Let $A$ be an abelian variety, and let $p_{i}: A \times A \times A \rightarrow A$ be the projection onto the $i$ th factor (e.g., $p_{2}(x, y, z)=y$ ), let $p_{i j}=p_{i}+p_{j}$ (e.g., $p_{23}(x, y, z)=y+z$ ), and let $p_{123}=p_{1}+p_{2}+p_{3}$ (so that $\left.p_{123}(x, y, z)=x+y+z\right)$.

Corollary 5.2. For any invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on an abelian variety $A$, the sheaf

$$
p_{123}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes p_{12}^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes p_{23}^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes p_{13}^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes p_{1}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes p_{2}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes p_{3}^{*} \mathcal{L}
$$

on $A \times A \times A$ is trivial.

Proof. Let $m, p, q$ be the maps $A \times A \rightarrow A$ sending $(x, y)$ to $x+y, x, y$ respectively. The composites of

$$
(x, y) \mapsto(x, y, 0): A \times A \rightarrow A \times A \times A
$$

with $p_{123}, p_{12}, p_{23}, \ldots, p_{2}, p_{3}$ are respectively $m, m, q, \ldots, q, 0$. Therefore, the restriction of the sheaf in question to $A \times A \times\{0\}(\simeq A \times A)$ is

$$
m^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes m^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{O}_{A \times A}
$$

which is obviously trivial. Similarly, its restriction to $\{0\} \times A \times A$ is

$$
m^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes m^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes \mathcal{O}_{A \times A} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{L}
$$

which is trivial, and its restrictions to $A \times\{0\} \times A$ is trivial. Therefore, the theorem of the cube implies that it is trivial.

Corollary 5.3. Let $f, g, h$ be regular maps from a variety $V$ into an abelian variety $A$. For any invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $A$,
$(f+g+h)^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes(f+g)^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes(g+h)^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes(f+h)^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes f^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes g^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes h^{*} \mathcal{L}$ is trivial.

Proof. The sheaf in question is the inverse image of the sheaf in 5.2 by the map

$$
(f, g, h): V \rightarrow A \times A \times A
$$

For an integer $n$, let $n_{A}: A \rightarrow A$ be the map sending an element of $A$ to its $n$th multiple, i.e., $n_{A}(a)=a+a+\cdots+a$ ( $n$ summands). This is clearly a regular map; for example, $2_{A}$ is the composite

$$
A \xrightarrow{\Delta} A \times A \xrightarrow{m} A
$$

The map $(-1)_{A}$ sends $a$ to $-a$ (it is the map denoted by inv at the start of $\S 1$ ).
Corollary 5.4. For all invertible sheaves $\mathcal{L}$ on an abelian variety $A$,

$$
n_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}^{\left(n^{2}+n\right) / 2} \otimes(-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L}^{\left(n^{2}-n\right) / 2}
$$

In particular,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}^{n^{2}} \text { if } \mathcal{L} \text { is symmetric, i.e., }(-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L} \\
& n_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}^{n} \text { if } \mathcal{L} \text { is antisymmetric, i.e., }(-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. On applying the last corollary to the maps $n_{A}, 1_{A},(-1)_{A}: A \rightarrow A$, we find that

$$
n_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes(n+1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes(n-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes n_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L} \otimes(-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L}
$$

is trivial. In other words

$$
\begin{equation*}
(n+1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx n_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L}^{2} \otimes(n-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes \mathcal{L} \otimes(-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We use this to prove the isomorphism by induction on $n$. For $n=1$, the statement is obvious. Take $n=1$ in (2); then

$$
(2)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}^{2} \otimes \mathcal{L} \otimes(-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}^{3} \otimes(-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L}
$$

as predicted by the first isomorphism of the lemma. When we assume the Corollary for $n$, (2) proves it for $n+1$, because

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[(n+1)^{2}+(n+1)\right] / 2 } & =\left(n^{2}+n\right)-\left[(n-1)^{2}+(n-1)\right] / 2+1 \\
{\left[(n+1)^{2}-(n+1)\right] / 2 } & =\left(n^{2}-n\right)-\left[(n-1)^{2}-(n-1)\right] / 2+1
\end{aligned}
$$

THEOREM 5.5 (THEOREM OF THE SQUARE). For all invertible sheaves $\mathcal{L}$ on $A$ and points $a, b \in A(k)$,

$$
t_{a+b}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L} \approx t_{a}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes t_{b}^{*} \mathcal{L}
$$

Proof. On applying (5.3) to the maps $x \mapsto x, x \mapsto a, x \mapsto b, A \rightarrow A$, we find that

$$
t_{a+b}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes t_{a}^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes t_{b}^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes \mathcal{L}
$$

is trivial.

REMARK 5.6. When we tensor the isomorphism in 5.5 with $\mathcal{L}^{-2}$, we find that

$$
t_{a+b}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{-1} \approx\left(t_{a}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{-1}\right) \otimes\left(t_{b}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{-1}\right)
$$

In other words, the map

$$
a \mapsto t_{a}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{-1}: A(k) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}(A)
$$

is a homorphism. Thus, if $a_{1}+a_{2}+\cdots+a_{n}=0($ in $A(k))$, then

$$
t_{a_{1}}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes t_{a_{2}}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes \cdots \otimes t_{a_{n}}^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}^{n}
$$

REMARK 5.7. We can restate the above results in terms of divisors. For a divisor $D$ on $A$, write $D_{a}$ for the translate $D+a$ of $D$. Unfortunately, $\mathcal{L}\left(D_{a}\right)=t_{-a}^{*} \mathcal{L}(D)$, but the minus sign doesn't matter much because $a \mapsto-a$ is a homomorphism ${ }^{2}$ (that's what it means to be abelian!). Therefore, for any divisor $D$ on $A$, the map

$$
a \mapsto\left[D_{a}-D\right]: A(k) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}(A)
$$

is a homomorphism, where $[*]$ denotes the linear equivalence class of $*$. Hence, if $a_{1}+$ $a_{2}+\cdots+a_{n}=0$, then $\sum D_{a_{i}} \sim n D$.

For example, let $A$ be an elliptic curve, and let $P_{0}$ be the zero element of $A$. Let $D_{0}$ be $P_{0}$ regarded as a divisor of degree 1 on $A$. For any point $P$ on $A$, the translate $D_{P}$ of $D_{0}$ by $P$ is just $P$ regarded as a divisor (i.e., $D_{0}+P=D_{P}$ ). Therefore, in this case, the last map is

$$
P \mapsto\left[P-P_{0}\right]: A(k) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}(A)
$$

as in Milne 2006, 4.10, or Silverman 1986, III 3.4d.

[^4]
## Preliminaries for the proof of the theorem of the cube.

We list some facts that are required for the proof of the theorem of the cube.
5.8. Let $\alpha: M \rightarrow N$ be a homomorphism of free modules of rank 1 over a commutative ring $R$. Choose bases $e$ and $f$ for $M$ and $N$, and set $\alpha(e)=r f, r \in R$. If $\alpha$ is surjective, then $r \in R^{\times}$, and so $\alpha$ is bijective. Consequently, a surjective homomorphism $\mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ of invertible sheaves is an isomorphism (because it is on stalks).
5.9. Let $V$ be a variety over $k$, and consider the structure map $\alpha: V \rightarrow$ Specm $k$. Because Specm $k$ consists of a single point, to give a coherent sheaf on it the same as to give a finitedimensional vector space over $k$. For a sheaf of $\mathcal{O}_{V}$-modules $\mathcal{M}$ on $V, \alpha_{*} \mathcal{M}=\Gamma(V, \mathcal{M})$. For a vector space $M$ over $k, \alpha^{*} M=\mathcal{O}_{V} \otimes_{k} M$; for example, if $M=k e_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus k e_{n}$, then $\alpha^{*} M=\mathcal{O}_{V} e_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathcal{O}_{V} e_{n}$.
5.10. Consider a homomorphism $R \rightarrow S$ of commutative rings. For any $S$-module $M$, there is a natural $S$-linear map

$$
S \otimes_{R} M \rightarrow M, s \otimes m \mapsto s m
$$

Similarly, for any regular map $\alpha: W \rightarrow V$ and coherent $\mathcal{O}_{W}$-module $\mathcal{M}$, there is a canonical map $\alpha^{*} \alpha_{*} \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$. For the structure map $\alpha: V \rightarrow$ Specm $k$, this is the map

$$
\mathcal{O}_{V} \otimes_{k} \Gamma(V, \mathcal{M}) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}, f \otimes m \mapsto f \otimes(m \mid U), f \in \Gamma\left(U, \mathcal{O}_{V}\right)
$$

5.11. Consider a homomorphism $\alpha: M \rightarrow N$ of $R$-modules. For each maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ in $R, \alpha$ induces a homomorphism $\alpha(\mathfrak{m}): M / \mathfrak{m} M \rightarrow N / \mathfrak{m} N$ of $R / \mathfrak{m}$-vector spaces. If $\alpha(\mathfrak{m})$ is surjective, then the homomorphism of $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$-modules $\alpha_{\mathfrak{m}}: M_{\mathfrak{m}} \rightarrow N_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is surjective (by Nakayama's lemma).

Consider a homomorphism $\alpha: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ of coherent $\mathcal{O}_{V}$-modules. For each $v \in V$, this induces a homomorphism $\alpha(v): \mathcal{M}(v) \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(v)$ of $k(v)$-vector spaces, and if these are surjective for all $v$, then Nakayama's lemma shows that $\alpha$ is surjective. If further $\mathcal{M}$ and $\mathcal{N}$ are invertible sheaves, then (5.8) shows that $\alpha$ is an isomorphism.
5.12. Let $V$ be a complete variety over $k$, and let $\mathcal{M}$ be a locally free sheaf of $\mathcal{O}_{V^{-}}$ modules. For any field $K$ containing $k, \mathcal{M}$ defines a sheaf of $\mathcal{O}_{V_{K}}$-modules $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ on $V_{K}$ in an obvious way, and

$$
\Gamma\left(V_{K}, \mathcal{M}^{\prime}\right)=\Gamma(V, \mathcal{M}) \otimes_{k} K
$$

If $D$ is a divisor on a smooth complete variety $V$, and $D^{\prime}$ is the inverse image of $D$ on $V_{K}$, then

$$
L\left(D^{\prime}\right)=L(D) \otimes_{k} K
$$

Here

$$
L(D)=\left\{f \in k(V)^{\times} \mid \operatorname{div}(f)+D \geq 0\right\}=\Gamma(V, \mathcal{L}(D))
$$

(AG, Chapter 12).
5.13. Let $V$ be a complete variety, and let $\mathcal{L}$ be a locally free sheaf on $V$. If $\mathcal{L}$ becomes trivial on $V_{K}$ for some field $K \supset k$, then it is trivial on $V$.

Proof. Recall (AG 13.3) that an invertible sheaf on a complete variety is trivial if and only if it and its dual have nonzero global sections. Thus the statement follows from 4.1).
5.14. Consider a regular map $V \rightarrow T$ of varieties over $k$. For any $t \in T$, the fibre of the map over $t$ is a variety over the residue field $k(t)$ :

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
V & \stackrel{j_{t}}{\leftarrow} & V_{t} & \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} V \times_{k} \operatorname{Specm}(k(t)) \\
\downarrow \varphi & & \downarrow \varphi_{t} & \\
T & \stackrel{i_{t}}{\leftarrow} & t & = & \operatorname{Specm}(k(t))
\end{array}
$$

If $k$ is algebraically closed, then $k(t)=k$. We can think of the map $V \rightarrow T$ as a family of varieties $\left(V_{t}\right)$ parametrized by the points of $T$.

Now let $V$ and $T$ be varieties over $k$, and consider the projection map $q: V \times T \rightarrow T$. Thus we have the "constant" family of varieties: the fibre $V_{t}=V_{k(t)}$ is the variety over $k(t)$ obtained from $V$ by extending scalars. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be an invertible sheaf on $V \times T$. For each $t \in T$, we obtain an invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}_{t}$ on $V_{t}$ by pulling back by the map $V_{t} \rightarrow V \times T$. We regard $\mathcal{L}$ as a family of invertible sheaves $\left(\mathcal{L}_{t}\right)$ on " $V$ " parametrized by the points of $T$. When $k$ is algebraically closed, $V_{t}=V$, and so this is literally true.
[Add an example.]
5.15. Let $\alpha: V \rightarrow T$ be a proper map - for example, $\alpha$ could be the projection map $q: W \times T \rightarrow T$ where $W$ is a complete variety (see AG, Chapter 8 ). For any coherent sheaf $\mathcal{M}$ on $V, \alpha_{*} \mathcal{M}$ is a coherent sheaf on $T$.

Now consider an invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $V \times T$, and assume that $V$ is complete so that $q_{*} \mathcal{L}$ is coherent. The function

$$
t \mapsto \operatorname{dim}_{k(t)} \Gamma\left(V_{t}, \mathcal{L}_{t}\right)
$$

is upper semicontinuous (it jumps on closed subsets). If it is constant, say equal to $n$, then $q_{*} \mathcal{L}$ is locally free of rank $n$, and the canonical map $\left(q_{*} \mathcal{L}\right)(t) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(V_{t}, \mathcal{L}_{t}\right)$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. It is quite difficult to prove that $q_{*} \mathcal{L}$ is coherent - for a proof in the language of schemes when $V$ is projective, see Hartshorne 1977, II 5.19. ${ }^{3}$ Note that, if we assumed that $\left(q_{*} \mathcal{L}\right)(t)$ had constant dimension then it would follow from (AG13.1) that $q_{*} \mathcal{L}$ was locally free of rank $n$. However, our assumption that $\Gamma\left(V_{t}, \mathcal{L}_{t}\right)$ has constant dimension is easier to check, and more useful. We omit the proof. See Mumford 1970, II 5.

## The seesaw principle.

If an invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $V \times T$ is of the form $q^{*} \mathcal{N}$ for some invertible sheaf $\mathcal{N}$ on $T$, then $\mathcal{L}_{t}$ is the inverse image of the restriction of $\mathcal{N}$ to $t$, and is therefore trivial. There is a converse to this statement.

[^5]THEOREM 5.16. Let $V$ and $T$ be varieties over $k$ with $V$ complete, and let $\mathcal{L}$ be an invertible sheaf on $V \times T$. If $\mathcal{L}_{t}$ is trivial for all $t \in T$, then there exists an invertible sheaf $\mathcal{N}$ on $T$ such that $\mathcal{L} \approx q^{*} \mathcal{N}$.

Proof. By assumption, $\mathcal{L}_{t}$ is trivial for all $t \in T$, and so $\Gamma\left(V_{t}, \mathcal{L}_{t}\right) \approx \Gamma\left(V_{t}, \mathcal{O}_{V}\right)=k(t)$. Therefore 4.2 d$)$ shows that the sheaf $\mathcal{N} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} q_{*}(\mathcal{L})$ is invertible. Consider the canonical map (5.10)

$$
\alpha: q^{*} \mathcal{N}=q^{*} q_{*} \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}
$$

Look at this on the fibre $V_{t} \rightarrow$ Specm $k(t)$. As $\mathcal{L}_{t} \approx \mathcal{O}_{V_{t}}$, the restriction of $\alpha$ to $V_{t}$ is isomorphic to the natural map (see ??) $\alpha_{t}: \mathcal{O}_{V_{t}} \otimes_{k(t)} \Gamma\left(V_{t}, \mathcal{O}_{V_{t}}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{V_{t}}$, which is an isomorphism. In particular, for any point in $w \in V_{t}$, the map

$$
\alpha(w):\left(q^{*} \mathcal{N}\right)(w) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(w)
$$

of sheaves on $w$ is an isomorphism. Now (5.11) shows that $\alpha$ is an isomorphism.

Corollary 5.17. Let $V$ and $T$ be varieties over $k$ with $V$ complete, and let $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{M}$ be invertible sheaves on $V \times T$. If $\mathcal{L}_{t} \approx \mathcal{M}_{t}$ for all $t \in T$, then there exists an invertible sheaf $\mathcal{N}$ on $T$ such that $\mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{M} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{N}$.

Proof. Apply 5.16 to $\mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{M}^{-1}$.

Corollary 5.18 (SEESAW Principle). Suppose that, in addition to the hypotheses of (5.17), $\mathcal{L}_{v} \approx \mathcal{M}_{v}$ for at least one $v \in V(k)$. Then $\mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{M}$.

Proof. The previous corollary shows that $\mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{M} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{N}$ for some $\mathcal{N}$ on $T$. On pulling back by the map $t \mapsto(v, t): T \hookrightarrow V \times T$, we obtain an isomorphism $\mathcal{L}_{v} \approx \mathcal{M}_{v} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{N}_{v}$. As $\mathcal{L}_{v} \approx \mathcal{M}_{v}$ and $\left(q^{*} \mathcal{N}\right)_{v}=\mathcal{N}$, this shows that $\mathcal{N}$ is trivial.

The next result shows that the triviality of $\mathcal{L}_{t}$ in the theorem needs only to be checked for $t$ in some dense subset of $T$.

Proposition 5.19. Let $V$ be a complete variety, and let $\mathcal{L}$ be an invertible sheaf on $V \times T$. Then $\left\{t \in T \mid \mathcal{L}_{t}\right.$ is trivial $\}$ is closed in $T$.

Proof. It is the intersection of $\operatorname{Supp}\left(q_{*} \mathcal{L}\right)$ and $\operatorname{Supp}\left(q_{*} \mathcal{L}^{\vee}\right)$, which are closed (see AG, Chapter 13).

## Proof of the theorem of the cube.

After (5.12), we may assume that the ground field $k$ is algebraically closed. Because $\mathcal{L} \mid U \times$ $V \times\left\{w_{0}\right\}$ is trivial, the Seesaw Principle and Proposition 5.18 show that it suffices to prove that $\mathcal{L} \mid z \times W$ is trivial for a dense set of $z$ in $U \times V$. The next lemma shows that we can assume that $V$ is a curve.

LEmmA 5.20. Let $P$ and $Q$ be points of an irreducible variety over an algebraically closed field $k$. Then there is an irreducible curve $C$ on $V$ passing through both $P$ and $Q$.

Proof. If $V$ itself is a curve or $P=Q$, then there is nothing to prove, and so we assume that $\operatorname{dim} V>1$ and $P \neq Q$. Chow's lemma (Mumford 1999, p115) says the following: For any complete variety $V$, there exists a projective variety $W$ and a surjective birational morphism $W \rightarrow V$. If we can prove the lemma for $W$, then clearly we obtain it for $V$, and so we may assume $V$ to be projective. By induction on $\operatorname{dim} V$, it suffices to find a proper closed irreducible subvariety $Z$ of $V$ passing through $P$ and $Q$. Let $\varphi: V^{*} \rightarrow V$ be the blow-up of $V$ at $\{P, Q\}$. Thus the restriction of $\varphi$ to $V^{*} \backslash \varphi^{-1}\{P, Q\}$ is an isomorphism onto $V \backslash\{P, Q\}$, and the inverse images of $P$ and $Q$ are disjoint divisors on $V^{*}$. The variety $V^{*}$ is again projective - we choose a closed immersion $V^{*} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ with $n$ minimal. Bertini's Theorem ${ }^{4}$ states that, for a general hyperplane $H$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n}, H \cap V^{*}$ will be irreducible here "general" means "for all hyperplanes in an open subset of the dual projective space". Choose such an $H$. Then

$$
\operatorname{dim} H \cap V^{*}+\operatorname{dim} \varphi^{-1}(P)=2 \operatorname{dim} V-2 \geq \operatorname{dim} V,
$$

and so $\left(H \cap V^{*}\right) \cap \varphi^{-1}(P)$ is nonempty ( AG 9.23 ). Similarly, $\left(H \cap V^{*}\right) \cap \varphi^{-1}(Q)$ is nonempty, and so the image of $H \cap V^{*}$ in $V$ is a proper closed irreducible subvariety of $V$ passing through $P$ and $Q$.

Thus we can now assume that $V$ is a complete curve, and (by passing to its normalization) a complete nonsingular curve. Now the proof requires nothing more than what we have proved already and the Riemann-Roch theorem for a curve, and so should have been included in the notes (Mumford 1970, p57-58). [See the next version.]

## Restatement in terms of divisors.

We can restate the above results in terms of divisors. Let $V$ and $T$ be nonsingular varieties over $k$ with $V$ complete, and let $D$ be a divisor on $V \times T$. There is an open subset of $t \in T$ for which, for each prime divisor $Z$ occurring in $D, Z \cap V_{t}$ has codimension one in $V_{t}$, and, for such $t$, intersection theory defines a divisor $D_{t} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} D \cdot V_{t}$. If $D_{t} \sim D_{0}$ (a constant divisor on $V$ ) for all $t$ in some open subset of $T$, then

$$
D \sim D_{0} \times T+V \times D^{\prime}
$$

for some divisor $D^{\prime}$ on $T$. (This is the original seesaw principle - see Lang|1959, p241).
Let $V$ and $W$ be complete varieties. A divisorial correspondence between $V$ and $W$ is a divisor $D$ on $V \times W$. A divisorial correspondence is said to be trivial if it is of the form $V \times D+D^{\prime} \times W$ where $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ are divisors on $V$ and $W$. The seesaw principal gives a criterion for triviality.

## 6 Abelian Varieties are Projective

We defined an abelian variety to be a complete group variety, and in this section we prove that it is projective.

As we saw in the introduction, a projective embedding for an elliptic curve $A$ can be constructed as follows: let $D=P_{0}$ where $P_{0}$ is the zero element of $A$; for a suitable choice $\{1, x, y\}$ of a basis for $L(3 D)$, the map

$$
P \mapsto(x(P): y(P): 1): A \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{2}
$$

[^6]is an isomorphism of $A$ onto a cubic curve in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$. We now show how to extend this argument to any abelian variety.

## Embedding varieties in projective space.

For simplicity, in this subsection, we assume $k$ to be algebraically closed; in the next subsection, we explain how to remove this condition.

Let $V$ be a complete nonsingular variety over $k$. A nonempty linear equivalence class of effective divisors on $V$ is called a complete linear system. Thus, if $\mathfrak{d}$ is a complete linear system and $D_{0} \in \mathfrak{d}$, then $\mathfrak{d}$ consists of all the effective divisors of the form

$$
D_{0}+\operatorname{div}(f), f \in k(V)^{\times},
$$

i.e.,

$$
\mathfrak{d}=\left\{D_{0}+\operatorname{div}(f) \mid f \in L\left(D_{0}\right)\right\} .
$$

For any subspace $W \subset L\left(D_{0}\right)$,

$$
\left\{D_{0}+\operatorname{div}(f) \mid f \in W\right\}
$$

is called a linear system.
For example, if $V$ is a closed subvariety of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, then

$$
\left\{V \cap H \mid H \text { a hyperplane in } \mathbb{P}^{n}\right\}
$$

is a linear system. Conversely, we shall associate with a complete linear system on $V$ a rational map $V \rightarrow>\mathbb{P}^{n}$, and we shall find conditions on the linear system sufficient to ensure that the map is an isomorphism of $V$ onto a closed subvariety of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.

Let $D_{0}$ be a divisor in $\mathfrak{d}$, and let $f_{0}, f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}$ be a basis for $L\left(D_{0}\right)$. There is a rational map

$$
P \mapsto\left(f_{0}(P): f_{1}(P): \ldots: f_{n}(P)\right): V-->\mathbb{P}^{n} .
$$

It is defined at $P$ provided no $f_{i}$ has a pole at $P$ and at least one $f_{i}$ is nonzero at $P$ - this is an open set of $V$.

When we change the basis, we change the map only by a projective linear transformation. When we replace $D_{0}$ by a linearly equivalent divisor, say by $D=D_{0}+\operatorname{div}(f)$, then $f_{0} / f, \ldots, f_{n} / f$ will be a basis for $L(D)$, and it defines the same rational map as $D$. Thus, up to a projective linear transformation, the rational map depends only on the linear system d.

Suppose there exists an effective divisor $E$ such that $D \geq E$ for all $D \in \mathfrak{J}$. Such an $E$ is called a fixed divisor of $\mathfrak{d}$. Clearly, $\mathfrak{d}-E \stackrel{\text { df }}{=}\{D-E \mid D \in \mathfrak{d}\}$ is also a complete linear system: If $D_{0} \in \mathfrak{d}$, so that $\mathfrak{d}$ consists of all divisors of the form

$$
D_{0}+\operatorname{div}(f), f \in L\left(D_{0}\right),
$$

then $\mathfrak{d}-E$ consists of all divisors of the form

$$
D_{0}-E+\operatorname{div}(f), f \in L\left(D_{0}-E\right)=L\left(D_{0}\right)
$$

Moreover, $\mathfrak{d}-E$ defines the same map into projective space as $\mathfrak{d}$.
Henceforth, we assume that $\mathfrak{d}$ has no fixed divisor.
A point $P$ of $V$ is said to be a base point of $\mathfrak{d}$ if $P \in \operatorname{Supp}(D)$ for all $D \in \mathfrak{d}$. Every point of a fixed divisor is a base point but, even when there is no fixed divisor, there may be base points.

Proposition 6.1. The rational map $\varphi: V-->\mathbb{P}^{n}$ defined by $\mathfrak{d}$ is defined at $P$ if and only if $P$ is not a base point of $\mathfrak{d}$.

Proof. Suppose $P$ is not a base point of $\mathfrak{d}$, and let $D_{0}$ be an element of $\mathfrak{d}$ such that $P \notin \operatorname{Supp}\left(D_{0}\right)$. Let $f_{0}, \ldots, f_{n}$ be a basis for $L\left(D_{0}\right)$. Because $\mathfrak{d}$ has no fixed divisor, $\operatorname{div}\left(f_{i} / f_{0}\right)=D_{i}-D_{0}$ for some $D_{i} \geq 0$. Because $P \notin \operatorname{Supp}\left(D_{0}\right)$, no $f_{i} / f_{0}$ can have a pole at $P$, and so the map $P \mapsto\left(\frac{f_{1}}{f_{0}}(P): \ldots: \frac{f_{n}}{f_{0}}(P)\right)$ is well-defined at $P$.

Suppose $\mathfrak{d}$ has no base points, and let $\varphi: V-->\mathbb{P}^{n}$ be the corresponding rational map. If $\varphi$ is an isomorphism onto a closed subvariety of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, then

$$
\mathfrak{d}=\left\{\varphi^{-1}(H) \mid H \text { a hyperplane in } \mathbb{P}^{n}\right\}
$$

(with the grain of salt that $\varphi^{-1}(H)$ will not always be a divisor).
Definition 6.2. (a) A linear system $\mathfrak{d}$ is said to separate points if for any pair of points $P, Q \in V$, there exists a $D \in \mathfrak{d}$ such that

$$
P \in \operatorname{Supp}(D), \quad Q \notin \operatorname{Supp}(D) .
$$

(b) A linear system $\mathfrak{d}$ is said to separate tangent directions if for every $P \in V$ and nonzero tangent $t$ to $V$ at $P$, there exists a divisor $D \in \mathfrak{d}$ such that $P \in D$ but $t \notin \operatorname{Tgt}_{P}(D)$. (If $f$ is a local equation for $D$ near $P$, then $\operatorname{Tgt}_{P}(D)$ is the subspace of $\operatorname{Tgt}_{P}(V)$ defined by the equation $(d f)_{P}=0$. Geometrically, the condition means that only one prime divisor $Z$ occurring in $D$ can pass through $P$, that $Z$ occurs with multiplicity 1 in $D$, and that $t \notin \operatorname{Tgt}_{P}(Z)$.)

Proposition 6.3. Assume that $\mathfrak{d}$ has no base points. Then the map $\varphi: V \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ defined by $\mathfrak{d}$ is a closed immersion if and only if $\mathfrak{d}$ separates points and separates tangent directions.

Proof. From the above remarks, the condition is obviously necessary. For the sufficiency, see, for example, Hartshorne 1977, II 7.8.2.

Theorem 6.4. Every abelian variety $A$ is projective.
Proof. The first step is to show that there exists a finite set of prime divisors $Z_{i}$ such that $\sum Z_{i}$ separates 0 from the remaining points of $V$, and separates the tangent directions at 0 . More precisely, we want that:
(a) $\bigcap Z_{i}=\{0\}$ (here 0 is the zero element of $A$ );
(b) $\cap \operatorname{Tgt}_{0}\left(Z_{i}\right)=\{0\}$ (here 0 is the zero element of $\operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(A)$ ).

To prove this we verify that any two points 0 and $P$ of $A$ are contained in an open affine subvariety of $A$. Let $U$ be an open affine neighbourhood of 0 , and let $U+P$ be its translate by $P$. Choose a point $u$ of $U \cap(U+P)$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
u \in U+P & \Longrightarrow 0 \in U+P-u \\
u+P \in U+P & \Longrightarrow P \in U+P-u
\end{aligned}
$$

and so $U^{\prime} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} U+P-u$ is an open affine neighbourhood of both 0 and $P$. Identify $U^{\prime}$ with a closed subset of $\mathbb{A}^{n}$, some $n$. There is a hyperplane $H$ in $\mathbb{A}^{n}$ passing through 0 but not $P$, and we take $Z_{1}$ to be the closure of $H \cap U^{\prime}$ in $A$. If there is a $P^{\prime}$ on $Z_{1}$ other than 0 , choose $Z_{2}$ to pass through 0 but not $P^{\prime}$. Continue in this fashion. Because $A$ has the descending chain condition for closed subsets, this process will end in a finite set of $Z_{i}$ s such that $\bigcap Z_{i}=\{0\}$. Now choose any open affine neighbourhood $U$ of $P$, and let $t \in \operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(P)$. Suppose $t \in \operatorname{Tgt}_{0}\left(Z_{i}\right)$ for all $i$. Embed $U \hookrightarrow \mathbb{A}^{n}$, and choose a hyperplane $H$ through 0 such that $t \notin H$, and add the closure $Z$ of $H \cap A$ in $A$ to the set $\left\{Z_{i}\right\}$. Continue in this way until (b) holds.

Let $D$ be the divisor $\sum Z_{i}$ where $\left(Z_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ satisfies conditions (a) and (b). The second step is to show that $3 D$ defines an embedding of $A$ into $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, some $n$. For any family $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} ; b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right\}$ of points on $A$, the theorem of the square 5.5,5.6) shows that

$$
\sum_{i}\left(Z_{i, a_{i}}+Z_{i, b_{i}}+Z_{i,-a_{i}-b_{i}}\right) \sim \sum_{i} 3 Z_{i}=3 D
$$

This construction gives a very large class of divisors in the complete linear system defined by $3 D$. Let $a$ and $b$ be distinct points of $A$. By (a), for some $i$, say $i=1, Z_{i}$ does not contain $b-a$. Choose $a_{1}=a$. Then $Z_{1, a_{1}}$ passes through $a$ but not $b$. The sets

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\{b_{1} \mid Z_{1, b_{1}} \text { passes through } b\right\} \\
& \left\{b_{1} \mid Z_{1,-a_{1}-b_{1}} \text { passes through } b\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

are proper closed subsets of $A$. Therefore, it is possible to choose a $b_{1}$ that lies on neither. Similarly, $a_{i}$ and $b_{i}$ for $i \geq 2$ can be chosen so that none of $Z_{i, a_{i}}, Z_{i, b_{i}}$, or $Z_{i,-a_{i}-b_{i}}$ passes through $b$. Then $a$ is in the support of $\sum_{i}\left(Z_{i, a_{i}}+Z_{i, b_{i}}+Z_{i,-a_{i}-b_{i}}\right)$ but $b$ is not, which shows that the linear system defined by $3 D$ separates points. The proof that it separates tangents is similar.

## Ample divisors.

Let $V$ be a nonsingular complete variety. A divisor $D$ on $V$ is very ample if the complete linear system it defines gives a closed immersion of $V$ into $\mathbb{P}^{n}$. A divisor $D$ is ample if $n D$ is very ample for some $n>0$. There are similar definitions for invertible sheaves.

In the last subsection, we showed that (when $k$ is algebraically closed), there exists an ample divisor $D$ on an abelian variety $A$ such that $3 D$ is very ample. It is known (but difficult to prove) that if $D$ is ample on $A$, then $3 D$ is always very ample.

Example 6.5. Let $A$ be an elliptic curve, and let $D=3 P_{0}$, where $P_{0}$ is the zero element for the group structure. There are three independent functions $1, x, y$ on $A$ having poles only at $P_{0}$, and there having no worse than a triple pole, that define an embedding of $A$ into $\mathbb{P}^{3}$. Thus $D$ is very ample, and $P_{0}$ (regarded as a divisor) is ample. Since there is nothing special about $P_{0}$ (ignoring the group structure), we see that, for any point $P$, the divisor $P$ is ample. In fact, it follows easily (from the Riemann-Roch theorem), that $D$ is ample if and only if $\operatorname{deg} D>0$, and that if $\operatorname{deg} D>3$, then $D$ is very ample.

Something similar is true for any curve $C$ : a divisor $D$ on $C$ is ample if and only if $\operatorname{deg} D>0$, and $D$ is very ample if $\operatorname{deg} D>2 g+1$ (Hartshorne 1977, pp307-308).

The next proposition removes the condition that $k$ be algebraically closed from Theorem 6.4

Proposition 6.6. (a) If $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ are ample, so also is $D+D^{\prime}$.
(b) If $D$ is an ample divisor on $V$, then $D \mid W$ is ample for any closed subvariety $W$ of $V$ (assuming $D \mid W$ is defined).
(c) A divisor $D$ on $V$ is ample if and only if its extension of scalars to $k^{\text {al }}$ is ample on $V_{k^{a l}}$.
(d) A variety $V$ has an ample divisor if $V_{k^{a l}}$ has an ample divisor.

Proof. (a) By definition, there exists an $n$ such that both $n D$ and $n D^{\prime}$ are very ample. Hence the functions in $L(n D)$ define an embedding of $V$ into projective space. Because $n D^{\prime}$ is very ample, it is linearly equivalent to an effective divisor $D$. Now $L(n D+D) \supset$ $L(n D)$, and so $n D+D$ is very ample, which implies that $n D+n D^{\prime}$ is very ample (it defines the same complete linear system as $n D+D$ ).
(b) The restriction of the map defined by $D$ to $W$ is the map defined by the restriction of $D$ to $W$.
(c) The map obtained by extension of scalars from the map $V \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ defined by $D$ is that defined by $D_{k^{\text {al }}}(\mathrm{cf} .5 .12$.
(d) Let $D$ be an ample divisor on $V_{k^{\text {al }}}$. Then $D$ will be defined over some finite extension $k^{\prime}$ of $k$, and so the set $\left\{\sigma D \mid \sigma \in \operatorname{Aut}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}} / k\right)\right\}$ is finite. Let $D_{0}$ be the sum of the distinct $\sigma D$ 's - by (a), $D_{0}$ will be again ample. Then $D_{0}$ is defined over a finite purely inseparable extension of $k$. If $k$ is perfect, then $D_{0}$ is defined over $k$; otherwise, $p^{m} D_{0}$ will be defined over $k$ for some power $p^{m}$ of the characteristic of $k$.

Notes. We defined an abelian variety to be a complete group variety, and in this section we proved that it is projective. Of course, we could have avoided this problem by simply defining an abelian variety to be projective, but this would be historically incorrect.

In 1940 Weil announced the proof of the Riemann hypothesis for curves over finite fields, based on a theory of Jacobian varieties of curves over finite fields that did not at the time exist ${ }^{5}$. Weil developed the theory of abelian varieties and Jacobian varieties over fields other than $\mathbb{C}$ in the 1940s. At the time he couldn't prove that his Jacobian varieties were projective. This forced him to introduce the notion of an "abstract" variety, i.e., a variety that is not embedded in projective space, and to completely rewrite the foundations of algebraic geometry. In particular, he had to develop a new intersection theory since the then existing theory used that the variety was embedded in projective space. In 1946 he published his "Foundations of Algebraic Geometry", and in 1948 his two books on abelian varieties and Jacobian varieties in which he proved the Riemann hypothesis for curves and abelian varieties.

For me, his work during these years is one of the great achievements of twentieth century mathematics, but its repercussions for mathematics were not all good. In his foundations he made little use of commutative algebra and none of sheaf theory. Beginning in about 1960 Grothendieck completely rewrote the foundations of algebraic geometry in a way so different from that of Weil that a generation of mathematicians who had learnt algebraic geometry from Weil's Foundations found that they had to learn the subject all over again if they wanted to stay current - many never did.

About the same time as Weil, Zariski was also rewriting the foundations of algebraic geometry, but he based his approach on commutative algebra, which leads very naturally into Grothendieck's approach. Unfortunately, Zariski did not complete his book on the foundations of algebraic geometry, but only (with the help of Samuel) his volumes on Commutative Algebra ("the child of an unborn parent").

Barsotti (1953), Matsusaka (1953), and Weil (1957) proved that abelian varieties are projective. Here we presented Weil's proof.

[^7]
## 7 Isogenies

Let $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ be a homomorphism of abelian varieties. We define the kernel of $\alpha$ to be the fibre of $\alpha$ over 0 in the sense of algebraic spaces ${ }^{6,7}$. It is a closed algebraic subspace of $A$, and it is a group in the category of algebraic spaces (a finite group space or scheme). Hence, if $k$ has characteristic zero, $\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)$ is an algebraic variety (AG11.17d), and hence equals the fibre over 0 in the sense of algebraic varieties.

A homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ of abelian varieties is called an isogeny if it is surjective, and has finite kernel (i.e., the kernel has dimension zero).

Proposition 7.1. For a homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ of abelian varieties, the following are equivalent:
(a) $\alpha$ is an isogeny;
(b) $\operatorname{dim} A=\operatorname{dim} B$ and $\alpha$ is surjective;
(c) $\operatorname{dim} A=\operatorname{dim} B$ and $\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)$ is finite;
(d) $\alpha$ is finite, flat, and surjective.

Proof. Because $A$ is complete, $\alpha(A)$ is a closed subvariety of $B$ (AG7.3k). For any point $b \in \alpha(A), t_{b}$ defines an isomorphism of $\alpha^{-1}(0)_{k(b)} \rightarrow \alpha^{-1}(b)$. Thus, up to an extension of scalars, all fibres of the map $\alpha$ over points of $\alpha(A)$ are isomorphic. In particular, they have the same dimension. Recall, (AG 10.9) that, for $b \in \alpha(A)$,

$$
\operatorname{dim} \alpha^{-1}(b) \geq \operatorname{dim} A-\operatorname{dim} \alpha(A)
$$

and that equality holds on an open set. Therefore the preceding remark shows that, for $b \in \alpha(A)$,

$$
\operatorname{dim} \alpha^{-1}(b)=\operatorname{dim} A-\operatorname{dim} \alpha(A)
$$

The equivalence of (a), (b), and (c) follows immediately from this equality. It is clear that (d) implies (a), and so assume (a). The above arguments show that every fibre has dimension zero, and so the map is quasi-finite. Now we use the following elementary result: if $\beta \circ \alpha$ is proper and $\beta$ is separated, then $\alpha$ is proper Hartshorne 1977, p102). We apply this to the sequence of maps

$$
A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \rightarrow \mathrm{pt}
$$

to deduce that $\alpha$ is proper. Now (AG 8.25) shows that $\alpha$, being proper and quasi-finite, is finite. Hence (see 5.15), $\alpha_{*} \mathcal{O}_{A}$ is a coherent $\mathcal{O}_{B}$-module, and (AG 13.1) shows that it is locally free.

The degree of an isogeny $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ is its degree as a regular map, i.e., the degree of the field extension $\left[k(A): \alpha^{*} k(B)\right]$. If $\alpha$ has degree $d$, then $\alpha_{*} \mathcal{O}_{A}$ is locally free of rank $d$. If $\alpha$ is separable, then it is étale (because of the homogeneity, if one point were ramified, every point would be); if further $k$ is algebraically closed, then every fibre of $A \rightarrow B$ has exactly $\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)$ points.

[^8]Recall that $n_{A}: A \rightarrow A$ for the regular map that (on points) is

$$
a \mapsto n a=a+\cdots+a
$$

ThEOREM 7.2. Let $A$ be an abelian variety of dimension $g$, and let $n>0$. Then $n_{A}: A \rightarrow$ $A$ is an isogeny of degree $n^{2 g}$. It is always étale when $k$ has characteristic zero, and it is étale when $k$ has characteristic $p \neq 0$ if and only if $p$ does not divide $n$.

Proof. From 6.4, 6.6, we know that there is a very ample invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $A$. The sheaf $(-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L}$ is again very ample because $(-1)_{A}: A \rightarrow A$ is an isomorphism, and so $\mathcal{L} \otimes(-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L}$ is also ample (see 6.6a). But it is symmetric:

$$
(-1)_{A}^{*}\left(\mathcal{L} \otimes(-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L}\right) \simeq \mathcal{L} \otimes(-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L}
$$

because $(-1)(-1)=1$. Thus we have a symmetric very ample sheaf on $A$, which we again denote by $\mathcal{L}$. From 5.4 we know that $\left(n_{A}\right)^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}^{n^{2}}$, which is again very ample. Let $Z=\operatorname{Ker}\left(n_{A}\right)$. Then $\left(n_{A}\right)^{*} \mathcal{L}\left|Z \approx \mathcal{L}^{n^{2}}\right| Z$, which is both ample and trivial. For a connected variety $V, \mathcal{O}_{V}$ can be very ample only if $V$ consists of a single point. This proves that $\operatorname{Ker}\left(n_{A}\right)$ has dimension zero. Fix a very ample symmetric invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$, and write it $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{L}(D)$. Then $(\mathrm{AG} 12.10$,

$$
\left(n_{A}^{*} D \cdot \ldots \cdot n_{A}^{*} D\right)=\operatorname{deg}\left(n_{A}\right) \cdot(D \cdot \ldots \cdot D)
$$

But $n_{A}^{*} D \sim n^{2} D$, and so

$$
\left(n_{A}^{*} D \cdot \ldots \cdot n_{A}^{*} D\right)=\left(n^{2} D \cdot \ldots \cdot n^{2} D\right)=n^{2 g}(D \cdot \ldots \cdot D)
$$

This implies that $\operatorname{deg}\left(n_{A}\right)=n^{2 g}$, provided we can show that $(D \cdot \ldots \cdot D) \neq 0$. But we chose $D$ to be very ample. Therefore it defines an embedding $A \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$, some $n$, and the linear system containing $D$ consists of all the hyperplane sections of $A$ (at least, it is once remove any fixed component). Therefore, in forming ( $D \cdot \ldots \cdot D$ ) we can replace $D$ with any hyperplane section of $A$. We can find hyperplanes $H_{1}, \ldots, H_{g}$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ such that $H_{1} \cap A, \ldots, H_{g} \cap A$ will intersect properly, and then

$$
\left(\left(H_{1} \cap A\right) \cdot \ldots \cdot\left(H_{g} \cap A\right)\right)=\operatorname{deg}(A) \neq 0
$$

(In fact one can even choose the $H_{i}$ so that the points of intersection are of multiplicity one, so that $\left(\bigcap H_{i}\right) \cap A$ has exactly $\operatorname{deg}(A)$ points.) The differential of a homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ of abelian varieties is a linear map $(d \alpha)_{0}: \operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(B)$. It is true, but not quite obvious, that

$$
d(\alpha+\beta)_{0}=(d \alpha)_{0}+(d \beta)_{0}
$$

i.e., $\alpha \mapsto(d \alpha)_{0}$ is a homomorphism. (The first + uses the group structure on $B$; the second uses the vector space structure on $\operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(B)$; it needs to be checked that they are related.) Therefore, $\left(d n_{A}\right)_{0}=n$ (multiplication by $\left.n, x \mapsto n x\right)$. Since $\operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(A)$ is a vector space over $k$, this is an isomorphism if $\operatorname{char}(k)$ does not divide $n$, and it is zero otherwise. In the first case, $n_{A}$ is étale at 0 , and hence (by homogeneity) at every point; in the second it isn't.

REMARK 7.3. Assume $k$ is separably closed. For any $n$ not divisible by the characteristic of $k$,

$$
A_{n}(k) \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=} \operatorname{Ker}(n: A(k) \rightarrow A(k))
$$

has order $n^{2 g}$. Since this is also true for any $m$ dividing $n, A_{n}(k)$ must be a free $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ module of rank $2 g$ (easy exercise using the structure theorem for finite abelian groups).

Fix a prime $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$, and define

$$
T_{\ell} A=\lim _{\longleftarrow} A_{\ell^{n}}(k)
$$

In down-to-earth terms, an element of $T_{\ell} A$ is an infinite sequence

$$
\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}, \ldots\right), \quad a_{n} \in A(k)
$$

with $\ell a_{n}=a_{n-1}, \ell a_{1}=0$ (and so, in particular, $a_{n} \in A(k)_{\ell^{n}}$ ). One shows that $T_{\ell} A$ is a free $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$-module of rank $2 g$. It is called the Tate module of $A$.

When $k$ is not algebraically closed, then one defines

$$
T_{\ell} A=\lim _{\longleftarrow} A_{\ell^{n}}\left(k^{\mathrm{sep}}\right)
$$

There is an action of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\mathrm{sep}} / k\right)$ on this module, which is of tremendous interest arithmetically - see later.

REMARK 7.4. Let $k$ be algebraically closed of characteristic $p \neq 0$. In terms of varieties, all one can say is that $\left|A_{p}(k)\right|=p^{r}, 0 \leq r \leq g$. The typical case is $r=g$ (i.e., this is true for the abelian varieties in an open subset of the moduli space). In terms of schemes, one can show that

$$
\operatorname{Ker}(p: A \rightarrow A) \approx(\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z})^{r} \times \alpha_{p}^{2 g-2 r} \times \mu_{p}^{r}
$$

where $\alpha_{p}$ is the group scheme $\operatorname{Spec} k[T] /\left(T^{p}\right)$, and $\mu_{p}=\operatorname{Spec} k[T] /\left(T^{p}-1\right)$. Both $\mu_{p}$ and $\alpha_{p}$ are group schemes whose underlying set has a single point. For a $k$-algebra $R$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \alpha_{p}(R)=\left\{r \in R \mid r^{p}=0\right\} \\
& \mu_{p}(R)=\left\{r \in R^{\times} \mid r^{p}=1\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## 8 The Dual Abelian Variety.

Let $\mathcal{L}$ be an invertible sheaf on $A$. It follows from the theorem of the square $5.5 ; 5.6$ that the map

$$
\lambda_{\mathcal{L}}: A(k) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}(A), a \mapsto t_{a}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{-1}
$$

is a homomorphism. Consider the sheaf $m^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ on $A \times A$, where $m$ and $p$ are the maps $A \times A \rightarrow A$ sending $(a, b)$ to $a+b$ and $a$ respectively. We can regard it as a family of invertible sheaves on $A$ (first factor) parametrized by $A$ (second factor). Let

$$
K(\mathcal{L})=\left\{a \in A\left|\left(m^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1}\right)\right| A \times\{a\} \text { is trivial }\right\}
$$

According to 5.19, this is a closed subset of $A$. Its definition commutes with extension of scalars (because of 5.12).

Note that $m \circ(x \mapsto(x, a))=t_{a}$ and $p \circ(x \mapsto(x, a))=\mathrm{id}$, and so

$$
\left(m^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1}\right) \mid A \times\{a\}=t_{a}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{-1}
$$

Hence

$$
K(\mathcal{L})(k)=\left\{a \in A(k) \mid \lambda_{\mathcal{L}}(a)=0\right\}
$$

Proposition 8.1. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be an invertible sheaf such that $\Gamma(A, \mathcal{L}) \neq 0$; then $\mathcal{L}$ is ample if and only if $K(\mathcal{L})$ has dimension zero.

Proof. We can suppose that $k$ is algebraically closed (because of 5.12, 6.6. We prove only that

$$
\mathcal{L} \text { ample } \Longrightarrow K(\mathcal{L}) \text { has dimension zero. }
$$

Assume $\mathcal{L}$ is ample, and let $B$ be the connected component of $K(\mathcal{L})$ passing through 0. It is an abelian variety ${ }^{8}$ (possible zero) and $\mathcal{L}_{B} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} \mathcal{L} \mid B$ is ample on $B$ 6.6p). Because, $t_{b}^{*} \mathcal{L}_{B} \approx \mathcal{L}_{B}$ for all $b \in B$, which implies that the sheaf $m^{*} \mathcal{L}_{B} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}_{B}^{-1} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{L}_{B}^{-1}$ on $B \times B$ is trivial (apply 8.4 below). On taking the inverse image of this sheaf by the regular map

$$
B \rightarrow B \times B, b \mapsto(b,-b)
$$

we find that $\mathcal{L}_{B} \otimes\left(-1_{B}\right)^{*} \mathcal{L}_{B}$ is trivial on $B$. But, as we saw in the proof of 7.2 , $\mathcal{L}_{B}$ ample implies $\mathcal{L}_{B} \otimes\left(-1_{B}\right)^{*} \mathcal{L}_{B}$ ample. As in the proof of 77.2$)$, the fact that the trivial invertible sheaf on $B$ is ample implies that $\operatorname{dim} B=0$, and so $B=0$. [Need to add converse.]

REMARK 8.2. Let $D$ be an effective divisor, and let $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{L}(D)$. By definition, $\Gamma(A, \mathcal{L}(D))=$ $L(D)$, and so if $D$ is effective, then $\Gamma(A, \mathcal{L}(D)) \neq 0$. Therefore, the proposition shows that that $D$ is ample if and only if the homomorphism

$$
\lambda_{D}: A\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}\left(A_{k^{\mathrm{al}}}\right), a \mapsto D_{a}-D
$$

has finite kernel.

Example 8.3. Let $A$ be an elliptic curve, and let $D$ be an effective divisor on $A$. We have seen (6.5) that

$$
D \text { is ample } \Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{deg}(D)>0
$$

Moreover, we know that $\lambda_{D}=(\operatorname{deg} D)^{2} \lambda_{D_{0}}$ where $D_{0}=P_{0}$ (zero element of $A$ ). Hence

$$
\lambda_{D} \text { has finite kernel } \Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{deg}(D)>0
$$

Thus Proposition 8.1 is easy for elliptic curves.

Definition of $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$.
For a curve $C, \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C)$ is defined to be the subgroup of $\operatorname{Pic}(C)$ of divisor classes of degree 0 . Later, we shall define $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(V)$ for any complete variety, but first we define $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$ for $A$ an abelian variety. From the formula $\lambda_{D}=(\operatorname{deg} D)^{2} \lambda_{D}$ in 8.3), on an elliptic curve

$$
\operatorname{deg}(D)=0 \Longleftrightarrow \lambda_{D}=0
$$

This suggests defining $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$ to be the set of isomorphism classes of invertible sheaves $\mathcal{L}$ for which $\lambda_{\mathcal{L}}=0$

Proposition 8.4. For an invertible sheaf on $A$, the following conditions are equivalent:
(a) $K(\mathcal{L})=A$;

[^9](b) $t_{a}^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}$ on $A_{k^{a l}}$, for all $a \in A\left(k^{a l}\right)$;
(c) $m^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx p^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{L}$.

Proof. The equivalence of (a) and (b) is obvious from the definition of $K(\mathcal{L})$. Condition (c) implies that

$$
\left(m^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1}\right)\left|(A \times\{a\}) \approx q^{*} \mathcal{L}\right| A \times\{a\}
$$

which is trivial, and so $(\mathrm{c}) \Longrightarrow(\mathrm{a})$. The converse follows easily from the Seesaw Principle (5.18) because (a) implies that $m^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \mid A \times\{a\}$ and $q^{*} \mathcal{L} \mid A \times\{a\}$ are both trivial for all $a \in A\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)$, and $m^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left|\{0\} \times A=\mathcal{L}=q^{*} \mathcal{L}\right|\{0\} \times A$.

We define $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$ to be the set of isomorphism classes of invertible sheaves satisfying the conditions of 8.4). I often write $\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$ to mean that the isomorphism class of $\mathcal{L}$ lies in $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$.

REMARK 8.5. Let $\alpha, \beta: V \rightrightarrows A$ be two regular maps. Their sum $\alpha+\beta$ is the composite $m \circ(\alpha \times \beta)$. If $\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$, then

$$
(\alpha+\beta)^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \alpha^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes \beta^{*} \mathcal{L}
$$

This follows from applying $(\alpha \times \beta)^{*}$ to the isomorphism in 8.4 r). Thus the map

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(V, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A), \operatorname{Pic}(V)\right)
$$

is a homomorphism of groups. In particular,

$$
\operatorname{End}(A) \rightarrow \operatorname{End}\left(\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)\right)
$$

is a homomorphism. When we apply this to $n_{A}=1_{A}+\cdots+1_{A}$, we find that $\left(n_{A}\right)^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}^{n}$. Contrast this to the statement that $\left(n_{A}\right)^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}^{n^{2}}$ when $\mathcal{L}$ is symmetric. They are not contradictory, because

$$
\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A) \Rightarrow(-1)_{A}^{*} \mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}^{-1}
$$

i.e., $\mathcal{L}$ is antisymmetric.

REMARK 8.6. Let $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ be an isogeny. If $\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha) \subset A_{n}$, then $\alpha$ factors into

$$
A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \quad \beta \circ \alpha=n
$$

and $\operatorname{deg}(\alpha) \cdot \operatorname{deg}(\beta)=n^{2 g}$. (Because $\alpha$ identifies $B$ with the quotient of $A$ by the subgroup (scheme) $\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)$ (see 8.10), and $\beta$ exists because of the universal properties of quotients.)

## The dual abelian variety.

The points of the dual abelian, or Picard, variety $A^{\vee}$ of $A$ should parametrize the elements of $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$.

Consider a pair $\left(A^{\vee}, \mathcal{P}\right)$ where $A^{\vee}$ is an algebraic variety over $k$ and $\mathcal{P}$ is an invertible sheaf on $A \times A^{\vee}$. Assume
(a) $\left.\mathcal{P}\right|_{A \times\{b\}} \in \operatorname{Pic}^{0}\left(A_{b}\right)$ for all $b \in A^{\vee}$, and
(b) $\left.\mathcal{P}\right|_{\{0\} \times A^{\vee}}$ is trivial.

We call $A^{\vee}$ the dual abelian variety of $A$, and $\mathcal{P}$ the Poincaré sheaf, if the pair $\left(A^{\vee}, \mathcal{P}\right)$ has the following universal property: for any pair $(T, \mathcal{L})$ consisting of a variety $T$ over $k$ and an invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ such that
(a') $\left.\mathcal{L}\right|_{A \times\{t\}} \in \operatorname{Pic}^{0}\left(A_{t}\right)$ for all $t \in T$, and
( $\left.\mathrm{b}^{\prime}\right)\left.\mathcal{L}\right|_{\{0\} \times T}$ is trivial,
there is a unique regular map $\alpha: T \rightarrow A$ such that $(1 \times \alpha)^{*} \mathcal{P} \approx \mathcal{L}$.
REMARK 8.7. (a) If it exists, the pair $\left(A^{\vee}, \mathcal{P}\right)$ is uniquely determined by the universal property up to a unique isomorphism.
(b) The Picard variety commutes with extension of scalars, i.e., if $\left(A^{\vee}, \mathcal{P}\right)$ is the Picard variety of $A$ over $k$, then $\left(\left(A^{\vee}\right)_{K}, \mathcal{P}_{K}\right)$ is the Picard variety of $A_{K}$.
(c) The universal property says that

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(T, A^{\vee}\right) \simeq\left\{\text { invertible sheaves on } A \times T \text { satisfying }\left(\mathrm{a}^{\prime}\right),\left(\mathrm{b}^{\prime}\right)\right\} / \approx
$$

In particular

$$
A^{\vee}(k)=\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)
$$

Hence every isomorphism class of invertible sheaves on $A$ lying in $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$ is represented exactly once in the family

$$
\left\{\mathcal{P}_{b} \mid b \in A^{\vee}(k)\right\}
$$

(d) The condition (b) is a normalization.
(e) By using the description of tangent vectors in terms of dual numbers 5.37, one can show easily that there is a canonical isomorphism

$$
H^{1}\left(A, \mathcal{O}_{A}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tgt}_{0}\left(A^{\vee}\right)
$$

Cf. the proof of III 2.1 below. In particular, $\operatorname{dim} A^{\vee}=\operatorname{dim} A$.
LEMMA 8.8. For any invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $A$ and any $a \in A(k), t_{a}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{-1} \in \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$.

Proof. I prefer to prove this in terms of divisors. Let $D$ be a divisor on $A$; we have to show that, for all $a \in A(k),\left[D_{a}-D\right] \in \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$, i.e., that $\left(D_{a}-D\right)_{b}-\left(D_{a}-D\right) \sim 0$ for all $b \in A(k)$. But

$$
\left(D_{a}-D\right)_{b}-\left(D_{a}-D\right)=D_{a+b}+D-\left(D_{a}+D_{b}\right) \sim 0
$$

by the theorem of the square.

Once we've shown Picard varieties exist, we'll see that map $A \mapsto A^{\vee}$ is a functor, and has the property to be a good duality, namely, $A^{\vee \vee} \simeq A$. The last statement follows from the next theorem. First it is useful to define a divisorial correspondence between two abelian varieties to be an invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $A \times B$ whose restrictions to $\{0\} \times B$ and $A \times\{0\}$ are both trivial. Let $s$ be the "switch" map $(a, b) \mapsto(b, a): A \times B \rightarrow B \times A$. If $\mathcal{L}$ is a divisorial correspondence between $A$ and $B$, then $s^{*} \mathcal{L}$ is a divisorial correspondence between $B$ and $A$.

THEOREM 8.9. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be divisorial correspondence between $A$ and $B$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:
(a) $(B, \mathcal{L})$ is the dual of $A$;
(b) $\mathcal{L} \mid A \times\{b\}$ trivial $\Longrightarrow b=0$;
(c) $\mathcal{L} \mid\{a\} \times B$ trivial $\Longrightarrow a=0$;
(d) $\left(A, s^{*} \mathcal{L}\right)$ is the dual of $B$.

Proof. This is not difficult—see Mumford 1970, p81.

## Construction of the dual abelian variety (sketch).

To construct the dual abelian variety, one must form quotients of varieties by the action of a finite group (group scheme in nonzero characteristic). Since this is quite elementary in characteristic zero, we sketch the proof. For simplicity, we assume that $k$ is algebraically closed.

PROPOSITION 8.10 (EXISTENCE OF QUOTIENTS.). Let $V$ be an algebraic variety over an algebraically closed field $k$, and let $G$ be a finite group acting on $V$ by regular maps (on the right). Assume that every orbit of $G$ is contained in an open affine subset of $V$. Then there exists a variety $W$ and a finite regular map $\pi: V \rightarrow W$ such that
(a) as a topological space, $(W, \pi)$ is the quotient of $V$ by $G$, i.e., $W=V / G$ as a set, and $U \subset W$ is open $\Longleftrightarrow \pi^{-1}(U)$ is open;
(b) for any open affine $U \subset W, \Gamma\left(U, \mathcal{O}_{U}\right)=\Gamma\left(\pi^{-1}(U), \mathcal{O}_{V}\right)^{G}$.

The pair $(W, \pi)$ is uniquely determined up to a unique isomorphism by these conditions. The map $\pi$ is surjective, and it is étale if $G$ acts freely (i.e., if $g x=x \Longrightarrow g=1$ ).

Proof. See Mumford 1970, p66, or Serre 1959, p57.

The variety $W$ in the theorem is denoted by $V / G$ and called the quotient of $V$ by $G$.
REMARK 8.11. We make some comments on the proof of the proposition.
(a) It is clear that the conditions determine $(W, \pi)$ uniquely.
(b) If $V$ is affine, to give an action of $G$ on $V$ on the right is the same as to give an action of $G$ on $\Gamma\left(V, \mathcal{O}_{V}\right)$ on the left. If $V=\operatorname{Specm}(R)$, then clearly we should try defining

$$
W=\operatorname{Specm}(S), S=R^{G}
$$

To prove (8.10) in this case, one shows that $R$ is a finite $R$-algebra, and verifies that $W$ has the required properties. This is all quite elementary.
(c) Let $v \in V$. By assumption, there exists an open affine subset $U$ of $V$ containing the orbit $v G$ of $v$. Then $\bigcap U g$ is again an open affine (see AG4.27) and contains $v$; it is also stable under the action of $G$. Therefore $V$ is covered by open affines stable under the action of $G$, and we can construct the quotient affine by affine, as in (b), and patch them together to get $W$.
(d) The final statement is not surprising: if $G$ acts effectively (i.e., $G \rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}(V)$ is injective), then the branch points of the map $V \rightarrow W$ are the points $x$ such that $\operatorname{Stab}(x) \neq$ $\{e\}$.
(e) When $V$ is quasi-projective (e.g., affine or projective) every finite set is contained in an open affine, because for any finite subset of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, there exists a hyperplane missing the
set, and we can take $U=V \cap H$ (AG 6.25). Therefore each orbit of $G$ is automatically contained in an open affine subset.
(f) The pair $(W, \pi)$ has the following universal property: any regular map $\alpha: V \rightarrow W^{\prime}$ that is constant on the orbits of $G$ in $V$ factors uniquely into $\alpha=\alpha^{\prime} \circ \pi$.
(g) Lest the reader think that the whole subject of quotients of varieties by finite groups is trivial, I point out that there exists a nonsingular variety $V$ of dimension 3 on which $G=\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}$ acts freely and such that $V / G$ does not exist in any reasonable way as an algebraic variety (Hironaka, Annals 1962). This is a minimal example: the 3 can't be replaced by 2 , nor the 2 by 1 . The quotient fails to exist because there exists an orbit that is not contained in an open affine subvariety.

REmARK 8.12. Assume $k$ is algebraically closed. Let $A$ be an abelian variety over $k$, and let $G$ be a finite subgroup of $A$. Then we can form the quotient $B=A / G$. It is an abelian variety, and $\pi: A \rightarrow B$ is an isogeny with kernel $G$.

Recall that an isogeny $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ is separable if the field extension $k(A) \supset k(B)$ is separable. This is equivalent to saying that $\alpha$ is étale, because it is then étale at one point (see AG 10.12 b ), and so it is étale at all points by homogeneity.

Let $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ be a separable isogeny (for example, any isogeny of degree prime to the characteristic), and let $G=\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)$. From the universal property of $A / G$, we have a regular map $A / G \rightarrow B$. This is again separable, and it is bijective. Because $B$ is normal, this implies that it is an isomorphism (see AG 8.19): $B=A / G$.

Now consider two separable isogenies $\beta: A \rightarrow B, \gamma: A \rightarrow C$, and suppose that $\operatorname{Ker}(\beta) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(\gamma)$. On identifying $B$ with $A / \operatorname{Ker}(\beta)$ and using the universal property of quotients, we find that there is a (unique) regular map $\delta: B \rightarrow C$ such that $\delta \circ \beta=\gamma$. Moreover, $\delta$ is automatically a homomorphism (because it maps 0 to 0 ).

For example, suppose $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ is a separable isogeny such that $\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha) \supset A_{n}$. Then $\alpha=\beta \circ n_{A}$ for some isogeny $\beta: A \rightarrow B$, i.e., $\alpha$ is divisible by $n$ in $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$.

Let $W=V / G$. We shall need to consider the relation between sheaves on $V$ and sheaves on $W$. By a coherent $G$-sheaf on $V$, we mean a coherent sheaf $\mathcal{M}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{V}$-modules together with an action of $G$ on $\mathcal{M}$ compatible with its action on $V$.
Proposition 8.13. Assume that the finite group $G$ acts freely on $V$, and let $W=V / G$. The map $\mathcal{M} \mapsto \pi^{*} \mathcal{M}$ defines an equivalence from the category of coherent $\mathcal{O}_{W}$-modules to the category of coherent $G$-sheaves on $V$ under which locally free sheaves of rank $r$ correspond to locally free sheaves of rank $r$.

Proof. See Mumford 1970, p70.
The next result is very important.
Proposition 8.14. If $\mathcal{L}$ is ample, then $\lambda_{\mathcal{L}}$ maps $A$ onto $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$.
Proof. See Mumford 1970, §8, p77, or Lang 1959, p99.
Let $\mathcal{L}$ be an invertible sheaf on A , and consider the invertible sheaf

$$
\mathcal{L}^{*}=m^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1}
$$

on $A \times A$. Then $\left.\mathcal{L}^{*}\right|_{\{0\} \times A}=\mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{-1}$, which is trivial, and for $a$ in $A(k),\left.\mathcal{L}^{*}\right|_{A \times\{a\}}=$ $t_{a}^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{-1}=\varphi_{\mathcal{L}}(a)$, which, as we have just seen, lies in $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$. Therefore, $\mathcal{L}^{*}$ defines a family of sheaves on $A$ parametrized by $A$ such that $\left(\mathcal{L}^{*}\right)_{a}=\varphi_{\mathcal{L}}(a)$. If $\mathcal{L}$ is ample, then 8.14 shows that each element of $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$ is represented by $\left(\mathcal{L}^{*}\right)_{a}$ for a (nonzero) finite number of $a$ in $A$. Consequently, if $\left(A^{\vee}, \mathcal{P}\right)$ exists, then there is a unique isogeny $\varphi: A \rightarrow A^{\vee}$ such that $(1 \times \varphi)^{*} \mathcal{P}=\mathcal{L}^{*}$. Moreover $\varphi=\lambda_{\mathcal{L}}$, and the fibres of $A \rightarrow A^{\vee}$ are the equivalence classes for the relation " $a \sim b$ if and only if $\mathcal{L}_{a} \approx \mathcal{L}_{b}$ ".

In characteristic zero, we even know what the kernel of $\varphi$ is, because it is determined by its underlying set: it equals $K(\mathcal{L})$. Therefore, in this case we define $A^{\vee}$ to be the quotient $A / K(\mathcal{L})$, which exists because of $8.10,8.11$ ). The action of $K(\mathcal{L})$ on the second factor of $A \times A$ lifts to an action on $\mathcal{L}^{*}$ over $A \times A$, which corresponds by 8.13 to a sheaf $\mathcal{P}$ on $A \times A^{\vee}$ such that $\left(1 \times \varphi_{\mathcal{L}}\right)^{*} \mathcal{P}=\mathcal{L}^{*}$.

We now check that the pair $\left(A^{\vee}, \mathcal{P}\right)$ just constructed has the correct universal property for families of sheaves $\mathcal{M}$ parametrized by normal varieties over $k$ (in particular, this will imply that it is independent of the choice of $\mathcal{L}$ ). Let $\mathcal{M}$ on $A \times T$ be such a family, and let $\mathcal{F}$ be the invertible sheaf $p_{12}^{*} \mathcal{M} \otimes p_{13}^{*} \mathcal{P}^{-1}$ on $A \times T \times A^{\vee}$, where $p_{i j}$ is the projection onto the $(i, j)$ th factor. Then

$$
\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{A \times(t, b)} \approx \mathcal{M}_{t} \otimes \mathcal{P}_{b}^{-1}
$$

and so if we let $\Gamma$ denote the closed subset of $T \times A^{\vee}$ of points $(t, b)$ such $\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{A \times(t, b)}$ is trivial, then $\Gamma$ is the graph of a map $T \rightarrow A^{\vee}$ sending a point $t$ to the unique point $b$ such that $\mathcal{P}_{b} \approx \mathcal{F}_{t}$. Regard $\Gamma$ as a closed subvariety of $T \times A^{\vee}$. Then the projection $\Gamma \rightarrow T$ has separable degree 1 because it induces a bijection on points (see AG 10.12). As $k$ has characteristic zero, it must in fact have degree 1 , and now the original form of Zariski's Main Theorem (AG 8.16) shows that $\Gamma \rightarrow T$ is an isomorphism. The morphism $f: T \simeq \Gamma \xrightarrow{q} A^{\vee}$ has the property that $(1 \times f)^{*} \mathcal{P}=\mathcal{M}$, as required.

When $k$ has nonzero characteristic, the theory is the same in outline, but the proofs become technically much more complicated. The dual variety $A^{\vee}$ is still the quotient of $A$ by a subgroup $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{L})$ having support $K(\mathcal{L})$, but $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{L})$ need not be reduced: it is now subgroup scheme of $V$. One defines $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{L})$ to be the maximal subscheme of $A$ such that the restriction of $m^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ to $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{L}) \times A$ defines a trivial family on $A$. Then one defines $A^{\vee}=A / \mathcal{K}(\mathcal{L})$. The proof that this has the correct universal property is similar to the above, but involves much more. However, if one works with schemes, one obtains more, namely, that $\left(A^{\vee}, \mathcal{P}\right)$ has the universal property in its definition for any scheme $T$. See Mumford 1970, Chapter III.

REMARK 8.15. The construction of quotients of algebraic varieties by group schemes is quite subtle. For algebraic spaces in the sense of Artin, the construction is easier. In particular, Deligne has proved very general theorem that the quotient of an algebraic space (sense of Artin) by a finite group scheme exists in a very strong sense. ${ }^{9}$ Thus, it is more natural to define $A^{\vee}$ as the algebraic space quotient of $A$ by $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{L})$. The same argument as in $\$ 6$ then shows that a complete algebraic space having a group structure is a projective algebraic variety.

[^10]
## 9 The Dual Exact Sequence.

Let $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ be a homomorphism of abelian varieties, and let $\mathcal{P}_{B}$ be the Poincaré sheaf on $B \times B^{\vee}$. According to the definition of the dual abelian variety in the last section, the invertible sheaf $(\alpha \times 1)^{*} \mathcal{P}_{B}$ on $A \times B^{\vee}$ gives rise to a homomorphism $\alpha^{\vee}: B^{\vee} \rightarrow A^{\vee}$ such that $\left(1 \times \alpha^{\vee}\right)^{*} \mathcal{P}_{A} \approx(\alpha \times 1)^{*} \mathcal{P}_{B}$. On points $\alpha^{\vee}$ is simply the map $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$ sending the isomorphism class of an invertible sheaf on $B$ to its inverse image on $A$.

THEOREM 9.1. If $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ is an isogeny with kernel $N$, then $\alpha^{\vee}: B^{\vee} \rightarrow A^{\vee}$ is an isogeny with kernel $N^{\vee}$, the Cartier dual of $N$. In other words, the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow 0
$$

gives rise to a dual exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow N^{\vee} \rightarrow B^{\vee} \rightarrow A^{\vee} \rightarrow 0
$$

Proof. See Mumford 1970, §15, p143 (case $k$ is algebraically closed), or Oort 1966 (general case).

The statement about the kernels requires explanation. There is a (Cartier) duality theory $N \mapsto N^{\vee}$ for finite group schemes with the property that $N^{\vee \vee} \simeq N$. If $N$ has order prime to the characteristic of $k$, the duality can be described as follows: when $k$ is separably closed, $N$ can be identified with the abstract group $N(k)$, which is finite and commutative, and

$$
N^{\vee}=\operatorname{Hom}\left(N, \mu_{n}\left(k^{\mathrm{sep}}\right)\right),
$$

where $n$ is any integer killing $N$ and $\mu_{n}$ is the group of $n$th roots of 1 in $k^{\text {sep }}$; when $k$ is not separably closed, then $N\left(k^{\text {sep }}\right)$ has an action of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\text {sep }} / k\right)$, and $N^{\vee}\left(k^{\text {sep }}\right)$ has the induced action. When the order of $N$ is not prime to the characteristic, it is more complicated to describe the duality (see Waterhouse 1979). We mention only that $(\mathbb{Z} / p Z)^{\vee}=\mu_{p}$, and $\alpha_{p}^{\vee}=\alpha_{p}$.

There is another approach to Theorem 9.1 which offers a different insight. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be an invertible sheaf on $A$ whose class is in $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$, and let $L$ be the line bundle associated with $\mathcal{L}$. The isomorphism $p^{*} \mathcal{L} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{L} \rightarrow m^{*} \mathcal{L}$ of (8.4) gives rise to a map $m_{L}: L \times L \rightarrow L$ lying over $m: A \times A \rightarrow A$. The absence of nonconstant regular functions on $A$ forces numerous compatibility properties of $m_{L}$, which are summarized by the following statement.

Proposition 9.2. Let $G(\mathcal{L})$ denote $L$ with the zero section removed; then, for some $k$ rational point $e$ of $G(\mathcal{L}), m_{L}$ defines on $G(\mathcal{L})$ the structure of a commutative group variety with identity element $e$ relative to which $G(\mathcal{L})$ is an extension of $A$ by $\mathbb{G}_{m}$.

Thus $\mathcal{L}$ gives rise to an exact sequence

$$
E(\mathcal{L}): 0 \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_{m} \rightarrow G(\mathcal{L}) \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0
$$

The commutative group schemes over $k$ form an abelian category, and so it is possible to define $\operatorname{Ext}_{k}^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{G}_{m}\right)$ to be the group of classes of extensions of $A$ by $\mathbb{G}_{m}$ in this category. We have:

Proposition 9.3. The map $\mathcal{L} \mapsto E(\mathcal{L})$ defines an isomorphism $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{k}^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{G}_{m}\right)$.

Proofs of these results can be found in Serre 1959, VII §3. They show that the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow N^{\vee}(k) \rightarrow B^{\vee}(k) \rightarrow A^{\vee}(k)
$$

can be identified with the sequence of Exts

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{k}\left(N, \mathbb{G}_{m}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{k}^{1}\left(B, \mathbb{G}_{m}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{k}^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{G}_{m}\right)
$$

(The reason for the zero at the left of the second sequence is that $\operatorname{Hom}_{k}\left(A, \mathbb{G}_{m}\right)=0$.)
ASIDE 9.4. It is not true that there is a pairing $A \times A^{\vee} \rightarrow$ ?, at least not in the category of abelian varieties. It is possible to embed the category of abelian varieties into another category which has many of the properties of the category of vector spaces over $\mathbb{Q}$; for example, it has tensor products, duals, etc. In this new category, there exists a map $h(A) \otimes$ $h\left(A^{\vee}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ which can be thought of as a pairing. The new category is the category of motives, and $h(A)$ is the motive attached to $A$.

## 10 Endomorphisms

We now write $A \sim B$ if there exists an isogeny $A \rightarrow B$; then $\sim$ is an equivalence relation (because of 8.6).

## Decomposing abelian varieties.

An abelian variety $A$ is said to be simple if there does not exist an abelian variety $B \subset A$, $0 \neq B \neq A$.
Proposition 10.1. For any abelian variety $A$, there are simple abelian subvarieties $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \subset$ $A$ such that the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{1} \times \ldots \times A_{n} & \rightarrow A \\
\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) & \mapsto a_{1}+\cdots+a_{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

is an isogeny.
Proof. By induction, it suffices to prove the following statement: let $B$ be an abelian subvariety of $A, 0 \neq B \neq A$; then there exists an abelian variety $B^{\prime} \subset A$ such that the map

$$
\left(b, b^{\prime}\right) \mapsto b+b^{\prime}: B \times B^{\prime} \rightarrow A
$$

is an isogeny. Let $i$ denote the inclusion $B \hookrightarrow A$. Choose an ample sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $A$, and define $B^{\prime}$ to be the connected component of the kernel of

$$
i^{\vee} \circ \lambda_{\mathcal{L}}: A \rightarrow B^{\vee}
$$

passing through 0 . Then $B^{\prime}$ is an abelian variety. ${ }^{10}$ From (AG 10.9) we know that

$$
\operatorname{dim} B^{\prime} \geq \operatorname{dim} A-\operatorname{dim} B
$$

The restriction of the morphism $A \rightarrow B^{\vee}$ to $B$ is $\lambda_{\mathcal{L} \mid B}: B \rightarrow B^{\vee}$, which has finite kernel because $\mathcal{L} \mid B$ is ample 8.1, 6.6). Therefore $B \cap B^{\prime}$ is finite, and the map $B \times B^{\prime} \rightarrow A$, $\left(b, b^{\prime}\right) \mapsto b+b^{\prime}$ is an isogeny.

[^11]REMARK 10.2. The above proof should be compared with a standard proof (GT 7.5-7.7) for the semisimplicity of a representation of a finite group $G$ on a finite-dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{Q}$ (say). Let $V$ be a finite dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{Q}$ with an action of $G$, and let $W$ be a $G$-stable subspace: we want to construct a complement $W^{\prime}$ to $W$, i.e., a $G$-stable subspace such that the map

$$
w, w^{\prime} \mapsto w+w^{\prime}: W \oplus W^{\prime} \rightarrow V
$$

is an isomorphism. I claim that there is a $G$-invariant positive-definite form $\phi: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$. Indeed, let $\phi_{0}$ be any positive-definite form, and let $\phi=\sum g \phi_{0}$. Let $W^{\prime}=W^{\perp}$. It is stable under $G$ because $W$ is and $\phi$ is $G$-invariant. There are at most $\operatorname{dim} W$ independent constraints on a vector to lie in $W^{\prime}$ and so $\operatorname{dim} W^{\prime} \geq \operatorname{dim} V-\operatorname{dim} W$. On the other hand, $\phi \mid W$ is nondegenerate (because it is positive-definite), and so $W \cap W^{\prime}=\{0\}$. This proves that $W \oplus W^{\prime} \simeq V$.

The form $\phi$ defines an isomorphism of $\mathbb{Q}[G]$-spaces $V \rightarrow V^{\vee}, x \mapsto \psi(x, \cdot)$, and $W^{\prime}$ is the kernel of $V \rightarrow V^{\vee} \rightarrow W^{\vee}$. For abelian varieties, we only have the map $A \rightarrow A^{\vee}$, but in many ways having a polarization on $A$ is like having a positive-definite bilinear form on $A$.

Let $A$ be a simple abelian variety, and let $\alpha \in \operatorname{End}(A)$. The connected component of $\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)$ containing 0 is an abelian variety, ${ }^{11}$ and so it is either $A$ or 0 . Hence $\alpha$ is either 0 or an isogeny. In the second case, there is an isogeny $\beta: A \rightarrow A$ such that $\beta \circ \alpha=n$, some $n \in \mathbb{Q}$. This means that $\alpha$ becomes invertible in $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$. From this it follows that $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ is a division algebra, i.e., it is ring, possibly noncommutative, in which every nonzero element has an inverse. (Division algebras are also called skew fields.) We let $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)=\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$.

Let $A$ and $B$ be simple abelian varieties. If $A$ and $B$ are isogenous, then

$$
\operatorname{End}^{0}(A) \approx \operatorname{Hom}^{0}(A, B) \approx \operatorname{End}^{0}(B)
$$

More precisely, $\operatorname{Hom}^{0}(A, B)$ is a vector space over $\mathbb{Q}$ which is a free right $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$ module of rank 1 , and a free left $\operatorname{End}^{0}(B)$ module of rank 1. If they are not isogenous, then $\operatorname{Hom}^{0}(A, B)=0$.

Let $A$ be a simple abelian variety, and let $D=\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$. Then $\operatorname{End}\left(A^{n}\right) \simeq M_{n}(D)$ ( $n \times n$ matrices with coefficients in $D$ ).

Now consider an arbitrary abelian variety A. We have

$$
A \sim A_{1}^{n_{1}} \times \cdots \times A_{r}^{n_{r}}
$$

where each $A_{i}$ is simple, and $A_{i}$ is not isogenous to $A_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. The above remarks show that

$$
\operatorname{End}^{0}(A) \approx \prod M_{n_{i}}\left(D_{i}\right), \quad D_{i}=\operatorname{End}^{0}\left(A_{i}\right)
$$

Shortly, we shall see that $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$ is finite-dimensional over $\mathbb{Q}$.

[^12]
## The representation on $T_{\ell} A$.

Let $A$ be an abelian variety of dimension $g$ over a field $k$. Recall that, for any $m$ not divisible by the characteristic of $k, A_{m}\left(k^{\text {sep }}\right)$ has order $m^{2 g}$, and that, for a prime $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$, $T_{\ell} A=\lim _{\longleftarrow} A_{\ell^{n}}\left(k^{\text {sep }}\right)($ see 7.3$)$.
Lemma 10.3. Let $Q$ be a torsion abelian group, and let (as always) $Q_{n}$ be the subgroup of elements of order dividing $n$. Suppose there exists a $d$ such that $\left|Q_{n}\right|=n^{d}$ for all integers $n$. Then $Q \approx(\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})^{d}$.

Proof. The hypothesis implies that for every $n, Q_{n}$ is a free $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$-module of rank $d$. The choice of a basis $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{d}$ for $Q_{n}$ determines an isomorphism

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
Q_{n} & \stackrel{\approx}{\rightarrow}(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{d} & \stackrel{\approx}{\rightarrow}\left(n^{-1} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z}\right)^{d} \\
\sum a_{i} e_{i} & \mapsto\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right) & \mapsto \\
\left(\frac{a_{1}}{n}, \frac{a_{2}}{n}, \ldots\right) .
\end{array}
$$

Choose a sequence of positive integers $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{i}, \ldots$ such each $n_{i}$ divides its successor $n_{i+1}$ and every integer divides some $n_{i}$. Choose a basis $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$ for $Q_{n_{1}}$; then choose a basis $e_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime}$ for $Q_{n_{2}}$ such that $\frac{n_{2}}{n_{1}} e_{i}^{\prime}=e_{i}$ for all $i$; and so on. [It must be possible to say this better!]

Lemma 10.4. Let $Q$ be an $\ell$-primary torsion group, and suppose $\left|Q_{\ell^{n}}\right|=\left(\ell^{n}\right)^{d}$ all $n>0$. Set $\ell^{-\infty} \mathbb{Z}=\bigcup \ell^{-n} \mathbb{Z}$ (inside $\mathbb{Q}$ ). Then

$$
Q \approx\left(\ell^{-\infty} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z}\right)^{d} \simeq\left(\mathbb{Q}_{\ell} / \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)^{d}
$$

Proof. Variant of the above proof.

These lemmas show that

$$
A\left(k^{\text {sep }}\right)_{\mathrm{tors}} \approx(\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})^{2 g}
$$

(ignoring $p$-torsion in characteristic $p$ ) and that, for $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$,

$$
A\left(k^{\mathrm{sep}}\right)(\ell) \approx\left(\ell^{-\infty} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z}\right)^{2 g} \simeq\left(\mathbb{Q}_{\ell} / \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)^{2 g}
$$

Recall that

$$
\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}=\lim _{\longleftarrow} \mathbb{Z} / \ell^{n} \mathbb{Z}
$$

where the transition maps are the canonical quotient maps $\mathbb{Z} / \ell^{n+1} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} / \ell^{n} \mathbb{Z}$. Thus an element of $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$ can be regarded as an infinite sequence

$$
\alpha=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, \ldots .\right)
$$

with $a_{n} \in \mathbb{Z} / \ell^{n} \mathbb{Z}$ and $a_{n} \equiv a_{n-1} \bmod \ell^{n-1}$. Alternatively,

$$
\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}=\lim _{\longleftarrow} \ell^{-n} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z}
$$

where the transition map $\ell^{-n-1} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \ell^{-n} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z}$ is multiplication by $\ell$. Thus an element of $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$ can be regarded as an infinite sequence

$$
\alpha=\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}, \ldots\right)
$$

with $b_{n} \in \ell^{-\infty} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z}, \ell b_{1}=0$, and $\ell b_{n}=b_{n-1}$.
For any abelian group $Q$, define

$$
T_{\ell} Q=\lim _{\longleftarrow} Q_{\ell}
$$

The above discussion shows that $T_{\ell}\left(\ell^{-\infty} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z}\right)=\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$. On combining these remarks we obtain the following result (already mentioned in $\S 6)$ :

Proposition 10.5. For $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k), T_{\ell} A$ is a free $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$-module of rank $2 g$.
A homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ induces a homomorphism $A_{n}\left(k^{\text {sep }}\right) \rightarrow B_{n}\left(k^{\text {sep }}\right)$, and hence a homomorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
T_{\ell} \alpha: T_{\ell} A & \rightarrow T_{\ell} B \\
\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right) & \mapsto\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \alpha\left(a_{2}\right), \ldots\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $T_{\ell}$ is a functor from abelian varieties to $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$-modules.
LEMMA 10.6. For any prime $\ell \neq p$, the natural map

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}}\left(T_{\ell} A, T_{\ell} B\right)
$$

is injective. In particular, $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ is torsion-free.

Proof. Let $\alpha$ be a homomorphism such that $T_{\ell} \alpha=0$. Then $\alpha(P)=0$ for every $P \in$ $A\left(k^{\text {sep }}\right)$ such that $\ell^{n} P=0$ for some $n$. Consider a simple abelian variety $A^{\prime} \subset A$. Then the kernel of $\alpha \mid A^{\prime}$ is not finite because it contains $A_{\ell^{n}}^{\prime}$ for all $n$, and so $\alpha \mid A^{\prime}=0$. Hence $\alpha$ is zero on every simple abelian subvariety of $A$, and 10.1 implies it is zero on the whole of $A$.

REMARK 10.7. Let $k=\mathbb{C}$. The choice of an isomorphism $A(\mathbb{C}) \simeq \mathbb{C}^{g} / \Lambda$ determines isomorphisms $A_{n}(\mathbb{C}) \simeq n^{-1} \Lambda / \Lambda$. As $n^{-1} \Lambda / \Lambda \simeq \Lambda \otimes(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}),{ }^{12}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
T_{\ell}(A) & \simeq \lim _{\leftarrow} \ell^{-n} \Lambda / \Lambda \\
& \simeq \lim _{\leftarrow} \Lambda \otimes\left(\ell^{-n^{2}} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z}\right) \\
& \simeq \Lambda \otimes\left(\lim \ell^{-n^{Z}} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z}\right) \\
& \simeq \Lambda \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus (2.3)

$$
T_{\ell} A=H_{1}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}
$$

One should think of $T_{\ell} A$ as being " $H_{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)$ ". In fact, this is true, not only over $\mathbb{C}$, but over any field $k-T_{\ell} A$ is the first étale homology group of $A$ (see LEC).

[^13]
## The characteristic polynomial of an endomorphism.

Suppose first that $k=\mathbb{C}$. An endomorphism $\alpha$ of $A$ defines an endomorphism of $H_{1}(A, \mathbb{Q})$, which is a vector space of dimension $2 g$ over $\mathbb{Q}$. Hence the characteristic polynomial $P_{\alpha}$ of $\alpha$ is defined:

$$
P_{\alpha}(X)=\operatorname{det}\left(\alpha-X \mid H_{1}(A, \mathbb{Q})\right)
$$

It is monic, of degree $2 g$, and has coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}$ (because $\alpha$ preserves the lattice $H_{1}(A, \mathbb{Z})$ ). More generally, we define the characteristic polynomial of any element of $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ by the same formula.

We want to define the characteristic polynomial of an endomorphism of an abelian variety defined over a field an arbitrary field.. Write $V_{\ell} A=T_{\ell} A \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}} \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}\left(=T_{\ell} A \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q}\right)$. When $k=\mathbb{C}, V_{\ell} A \simeq H_{1}(A, \mathbb{Q}) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$, and so it natural to try definining

$$
P_{\alpha}(X)=\operatorname{det}\left(\alpha-X \mid V_{\ell} A\right), \quad \ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)
$$

However, when $k \neq \mathbb{C}$, it is not obvious that the polynomial one obtains is independent of $\ell$, nor even that it has coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}$. Instead, following Weil, we adopt a different approach.

Lemma 10.8. Let $\alpha$ be an endomorphism of a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\Lambda$ of finite rank such that $\alpha \otimes 1: \Lambda \otimes \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \Lambda \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ is an isomorphism. Then

$$
(\Lambda: \alpha \Lambda)=|\operatorname{det}(\alpha)|
$$

Proof. Suppose there exists a basis $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$ of $\Lambda$ relative to which the matrix of $\alpha$ is diagonal, say $\alpha e_{i}=m_{i} e_{i}$ for $i=1, \ldots, n .$. Then $(\Lambda: \alpha \Lambda)=\left|\prod m_{i}\right|$ and $\operatorname{det}(\alpha)=$ $\prod m_{i}$. The general case is left as an exercise to the reader. (See Serre 1962, III 1, for example.)

Consider an endomorphism $\alpha$ of an abelian variety $A$ over $\mathbb{C}$, and write $A=\mathbb{C}^{g} / \Lambda$, $\Lambda=H_{1}(A, \mathbb{Z})$. Then $\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)=\alpha^{-1} \Lambda / \Lambda$. If $\alpha$ is an isogeny, then $\alpha: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda$ is injective, and it defines a bijection

$$
\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)=\alpha^{-1}(\Lambda) / \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda / \alpha \Lambda
$$

Therefore, for an isogeny $\alpha: A \rightarrow A$,

$$
\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)=\left|\operatorname{det}\left(\alpha \mid H_{1}(A, \mathbb{Q})\right)\right|=\left|P_{\alpha}(0)\right|
$$

More generally, for any integer $r$,

$$
\operatorname{deg}(\alpha-r)=\left|P_{\alpha}(r)\right|
$$

We are almost ready to state our theorem. Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{End}(A)$. If $\alpha$ is an isogeny, we define $\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)$ as before; otherwise, we set $\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)=0$.
THEOREM 10.9. Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{End}(A)$. There is a unique monic polynomial $P_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ of degree $2 g$ such that $P_{\alpha}(r)=\operatorname{deg}(\alpha-r)$ for all integers $r$.

REMARK 10.10. The uniqueness is obvious: if $P$ and $Q$ are two polynomials such that $P(r)=Q(r)$ for all integers $r$, then $P=Q$, because otherwise $P-Q$ would have infinitely many roots.

REMARK 10.11. For $\alpha \in \operatorname{End}(A)$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$
\operatorname{deg}(n \alpha)=\operatorname{deg}\left(n_{A}\right) \cdot \operatorname{deg}(\alpha)=n^{2 g} \operatorname{deg}(\alpha)
$$

We can use this formula to extend the definition of deg to $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$. Since $\operatorname{End}(A)$ is torsion-free, we can identify $\operatorname{End}(A)$ with a submodule of $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$. For $\alpha \in \operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$, define

$$
\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)=n^{-2 g} \operatorname{deg}(n \alpha)
$$

if $n$ is any integer such that $n \alpha \in \operatorname{End}(A)$. The previous formula shows that this is independent of the choice of $n$. Similarly, once we have proved the theorem, we can define

$$
P_{\alpha}(X)=n^{-2 g} P_{n \alpha}(n X), \alpha \in \operatorname{End}^{0}(A), n \alpha \in \operatorname{End}(A)
$$

Then $P_{\alpha}(X)$ is a monic polynomial of degree $2 g$ with rational coefficients, and

$$
P_{\alpha}(r)=\operatorname{deg}(\alpha-r), \text { any } r \in \mathbb{Q}
$$

To prove the theorem we shall prove the following: fix $\alpha \in \operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$; then the map $r \mapsto \operatorname{deg}(\alpha-r), \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$, is given by a polynomial in $r$ of the correct form. In fact, we shall prove a little more.

A function $f: V \rightarrow K$ on a vector space $V$ over a field $K$ is said to be a polynomial function of degree $d$ if for every finite linearly independent set $\left\{e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}\right\}$ of elements of $V, f\left(x_{1} e_{1}+\cdots+x_{n} e_{n}\right)$ is a polynomial function of degree $d$ in the $x_{i}$ with coefficients in $K$ (i.e., there is a polynomial $P \in K\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ such that $f\left(x_{1} e_{1}+\cdots+x_{n} e_{n}\right)=$ $P\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ for all $\left.\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in K^{n}\right)$. A homogeneous polynomial function is defined similarly.

Lemma 10.12. Let $V$ be a vector space over an infinite field $K$, and let $f: V \rightarrow K$ be a function such that, for all $v, w$ in $V, x \mapsto f(x v+w): K \rightarrow K$ is a polynomial in $x$ with coefficients in $K$; then $f$ is a polynomial function.

Proof. We show by induction on $n$ that, for every subset $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}, w\right\}$ of $V, f\left(x_{1} v_{1}+\right.$ $\cdots+x_{n} v_{n}+w$ ) is a polynomial in the $x_{i}$. For $n=1$, this is true by hypothesis; assume it for $n-1$. The original hypothesis applied with $v=v_{n}$ shows that

$$
f\left(x_{1} v_{1}+\cdots+x_{n} v_{n}+w\right)=a_{0}\left(x_{1}, . ., x_{n-1}\right)+\cdots+a_{d}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right) x_{n}^{d}
$$

for some $d$, with the $a_{i}$ functions $k^{n-1} \rightarrow k$. Choose distinct elements $c_{0}, \ldots, c_{d}$ of $K$; on solving the system of linear equations

$$
f\left(x_{1} v_{1}+\cdots+x_{n-1} v_{n-1}+c_{j} v_{n}+w\right)=\Sigma a_{i}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right) c_{j}^{i}, \quad j=0,1, \ldots, d
$$

for $a_{i}$, we obtain an expression for $a_{i}$ as a linear combination of the terms $f\left(x_{1} v_{1}+\right.$ $\left.\cdots+x_{n-1} v_{n-1}+c_{j} v_{n}+w\right)$, which the induction assumption says are polynomials in $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}$.

Proposition 10.13. The function $\alpha \mapsto \operatorname{deg}(\alpha): \operatorname{End}^{0}(A) \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ is a homogeneous polynomial function of degree $2 g$ in $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$.

Proof. According to the lemma, to show that $\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)$ is a polynomial function, it suffices to show that $\operatorname{deg}(n \alpha+\beta)$ is a polynomial in $n$ for fixed $\alpha, \beta \in \operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$. But we already know that deg is homogeneous of degree $2 g$, i.e., we know

$$
\operatorname{deg}(n \alpha)=n^{2 g} \operatorname{deg}(\alpha)
$$

and using this one sees that it suffices to prove that $\operatorname{deg}(n \alpha+\beta)$ is a polynomial of degree $\leq 2 g$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and fixed $\alpha, \beta \in \operatorname{End}(A)$. Let $D$ be a very ample divisor on $A$, and let $D_{n}=(n \alpha+\beta)^{*} D$. Then (AG 12.10)

$$
\left(D_{n} \cdot \ldots \cdot D_{n}\right)=\operatorname{deg}(n \alpha+\beta) \cdot(D \cdot \ldots \cdot D)
$$

and so it suffices to show that $\left(D_{n}^{g}\right)$ is a polynomial of degree $\leq 2 g$ in $n$. Corollary 5.3) applied to the maps $n \alpha+\beta, \alpha, \alpha: A \rightarrow A$ and the sheaf $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{L}(D)$ shows that

$$
D_{n+2}-2 D_{n+1}-(2 \alpha)^{*} D+D_{n}+2\left(\alpha^{*} D\right) \sim 0
$$

i.e.,

$$
D_{n+2}-2 D_{n+1}+D_{n}=D^{\prime}, \text { where } D^{\prime}=(2 \alpha)^{*} D-2\left(\alpha^{*} D\right)
$$

An induction argument now shows that

$$
D_{n}=\frac{n(n-1)}{2} D^{\prime}+n D_{1}-(n-1) D_{0}
$$

and so

$$
\operatorname{deg}(n \alpha+\beta) \cdot\left(D^{g}\right)=\left(D_{n}^{g}\right)=\left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right)^{g}\left(D^{\prime g}\right)+\ldots
$$

which is a polynomial in $n$ of degree $\leq 2 g$.
Proof (of Theorem 10.9) Proposition 10.13 shows that, for each $\alpha$ in $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$, there is a polynomial $P_{\alpha}(X) \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ of degree $2 g$ such that, for all rational numbers $r, P_{\alpha}(r)=$ $\operatorname{deg}\left(\alpha-r_{A}\right)$. It remains to show that $P_{\alpha}$ is monic and has integer coefficients when $\alpha \in$ $\operatorname{End}(A)$. Let $D$ be an ample symmetric divisor on $A$; then

$$
P_{\alpha}(-n) \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} \operatorname{deg}(\alpha+n)=\left(D_{n}^{g}\right) /\left(D^{g}\right), D_{n}=(\alpha+n)^{*} D
$$

and the calculation in the proof of 10.13 shows that

$$
D_{n}=(n(n-1) / 2) D^{\prime}+\left(\alpha+n_{A}\right)^{*} D+\alpha^{*} D
$$

with $D^{\prime}=\left(2_{A}\right)^{*} D-2 D \sim 2 D$. It follows now that $P_{\alpha}$ is monic and that it has integer coefficients.

We call $P_{\alpha}$ the characteristic polynomial of $\alpha$ and we define the trace $\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha)$ of $\alpha$ by the equation

$$
P_{\alpha}(X)=X^{2 g}-\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha) X^{2 g-1}+\cdots+\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)
$$

## The representation on $T_{\ell} A$ (continued).

We know that $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ injects into $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}}\left(T_{\ell} A, T_{\ell} B\right)$, which is a free $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$-module of rank $2 \operatorname{dim}(A) \times 2 \operatorname{dim}(B)$. Unfortunately, this doesn't show that $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ is of finite rank, because $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$ is not finitely generated as a $\mathbb{Z}$-module. What we need is that
$e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}$ linearly independent over $\mathbb{Z} \Longrightarrow T_{\ell}\left(e_{1}\right), \ldots, T_{\ell}\left(e_{r}\right)$ linearly independent over $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$, or equivalently, that

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{\ell} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(T_{\ell} A, T_{\ell} B\right)
$$

is injective.
Aside 10.14. The situation is similar to that in which we have a $\mathbb{Z}$-module $M$ contained in a finite-dimensional real vector space $V$. In that case we want $M$ to be a lattice in $V$. Clearly, $M$ needn't be finitely generated, but even if it is, it needn't be a lattice - consider

$$
M=\{m+n \sqrt{2} \mid m, n \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subset \mathbb{R} .
$$

The way we usually prove that such an $M$ is a lattice is to prove that it is discrete in $V$. Here we use the existence of $P_{\alpha}$ to prove something similar for $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$.

Theorem 10.15. For any abelian varieties $A$ and $B$, and $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$, the natural map

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{\ell} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(T_{\ell} A, T_{\ell} B\right)
$$

is injective, with torsion-free cokernel. Hence $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ is a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module of finite rank $\leq 4 \operatorname{dim}(A) \operatorname{dim}(B)$.

Lemma 10.16. Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$; if $\alpha$ is divisible by $\ell^{n}$ in $\operatorname{Hom}\left(T_{\ell} A, T_{\ell} B\right)$, then it is divisible by $\ell^{n}$ in $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$.

Proof. The hypothesis implies that $\alpha$ is zero on $A \ell^{n}$, and so we can apply the last statement in (8.12) to write $\alpha=\beta \circ \ell^{n}$.

Proof (of Theorem 10.15) We first prove 10.15 ) under the assumption that $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ is finitely generated over $\mathbb{Z}$. Let $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{m}$ be a basis for $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$, and suppose that $\sum a_{i} T_{\ell}\left(e_{i}\right)=0$ with $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$. For each $i$, choose a sequence of integers $n_{i}(r)$ converging $\ell$-adically to $a_{i}$. Then $\left|n_{i}(r)\right|_{\ell}$ is constant for $r$ large, i.e., the power of $\ell$ dividing $n_{i}(r)$ doesn't change after a certain point. But for $r$ large $T_{\ell}\left(\sum n_{i}(r) e_{i}\right)=\sum n_{i}(r) T_{\ell}\left(e_{i}\right)$ is close to zero in $\operatorname{Hom}\left(T_{\ell} A, T_{\ell} B\right)$, which means that it is divisible by a high power of $\ell$, and so each $n_{i}(r)$ is divisible by a high power of $\ell$. The contradicts the earlier statement.

Thus it remains to prove that $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ is finitely generated over $\mathbb{Z}$. We first show that $\operatorname{End}(A)$ is finitely generated when $A$ is simple. Let $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{m}$ be linearly independent over $\mathbb{Z}$ in $\operatorname{End}(A)$. Let $P$ be the polynomial function on $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$ such that $P(\alpha)=$ $\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)$ for all $\alpha \in \operatorname{End}(A)$. Because $A$ is simple, a nonzero endomorphism $\alpha$ of $A$ is an isogeny, and so $P(\alpha)$ is an integer $>0$. Let $M$ be the $\mathbb{Z}$-submodule of $\operatorname{End}\left(T_{\ell} A\right)$ generated by the $e_{i}$. The map $P: \mathbb{Q} M \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ is continuous for the real topology because it is a polynomial in the coordinates, and so $U=\{v \mid P(v)<1\}$ is an open neighbourhood of 0 . As $(\mathbb{Q} M \cap \operatorname{End} A) \cap U=0$, we see that $\mathbb{Q} M \cap \operatorname{End}(A)$ is discrete in $\mathbb{Q} M$, and therefore is a finitely generated $\mathbb{Z}$-module (ANT 4.15). Now choose the $e_{i}$ to be a $\mathbb{Q}$-basis for $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$. Then $\mathbb{Q} M \cap \operatorname{End}(A)=\operatorname{End}(A)$, which is therefore finitely generated.

For arbitrary $A, B$ choose isogenies $\prod_{i} A_{i}^{r_{i}} \rightarrow A$ and $B \rightarrow \prod_{j} B_{j}^{s_{j}}$ with the $A_{i}$ and $B_{j}$ simple. Then

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \prod_{i, j} \operatorname{Hom}\left(A_{i}, B_{j}\right)
$$

is injective. As $\operatorname{Hom}\left(A_{i}, B_{j}\right)=0$ if $A_{i}$ and $B_{j}$ are not isogenous, and $\operatorname{Hom}\left(A_{i}, B_{j}\right) \hookrightarrow$ $\operatorname{End}\left(A_{i}\right)$ if there exists an isogeny $B_{j} \rightarrow A_{i}$, this completes the proof.

REMARK 10.17. Recall that for a field $k$, the prime field of $k$ is its smallest subfield. Thus the prime field of $k$ is $\mathbb{Q}$ if $\operatorname{char}(k)=0$ and it is $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ if $\operatorname{char}(k)=p \neq 0$. Suppose that $k$ is finitely generated over its prime field $k_{0}$, so that $k$ has finite transcendence degree and is a finite extension of a pure transcendental extension. For example, $k$ could be any number field or any finite field. Let $\Gamma=\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}} / k\right)$, and let $A$ and $B$ be abelian varieties over $k$. In 1964, Tate conjectured that

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{\ell} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(T_{\ell} A, T_{\ell} B\right)^{\Gamma}
$$

is an isomorphism. Here the superscript $\Gamma$ means that we take only the $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$-linear homomorphisms $T_{\ell} A \rightarrow T_{\ell} B$ that commute with the action of $\Gamma$.

Tate proved this in 1966 for a finite field; Zarhin proved it for many function fields in characteristic $p$, and Faltings proved in characteristic 0 in the same paper in which he first proved the Mordell conjecture - see Chapter IV, $\$ 2$, below.

## The Néron-Severi group.

For a complete nonsingular variety $V, \operatorname{Pic}(V) / \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(V)$ is called the Néron-SeverigroupNS $(V)$ of $V$. Severi proved that $\mathrm{NS}(V)$ is finitely generated for varieties over $\mathbb{C}$, and Néron proved the same result over any field $k$ (whence the name). Note that, for a curve $C$ over an algebraically closed field $k$, the degree map gives an isomorphism $\operatorname{NS}(C) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ (if $k$ is not algebraically closed, the image may be of finite index in $\mathbb{Z}$, i.e., the curve may not have a divisor class of degree 1 ).

For abelian varieties, we can prove something stronger than the Néron-Severi theorem.
Corollary 10.18. The Néron-Severi group of an abelian variety is a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module of $\operatorname{rank} \leq 4 \cdot \operatorname{dim}(A)^{2}$.

Proof. Clearly $\mathcal{L} \mapsto \lambda_{\mathcal{L}}$ defines an injection $\mathrm{NS}(A) \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, A^{\vee}\right)$, and so this follows from (10.15).

REMARK 10.19. The group $\operatorname{NS}(A)$ is a functor of $A$. Direct calculations show that $t_{a}$ acts as the identity on $\operatorname{NS}(A)$ for all $a$ in $A(k)$ (because $\lambda_{t_{a}^{*} \mathcal{L}}=\lambda_{\mathcal{L}}$ ) and $n$ acts as $n^{2}$ (because -1 acts as 1 , and so $n^{*} \mathcal{L} \equiv \mathcal{L}^{n^{2}}$ in $\operatorname{NS}(A)$ by 5.4.

## The representation on $T_{\ell} A$ (continued).

As we noted above, $P_{\alpha}$ should be the characteristic polynomial of $\alpha$ acting on $V_{\ell} A$ for any $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$. Here we verify this.

PROPOSITION 10.20. For all $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k), P_{\alpha}(X)$ is the characteristic polynomial of $\alpha$ acting on $V_{\ell} A$; hence the trace and degree of $\alpha$ are the trace and determinant of $\alpha$ acting on $V_{\ell} A$.

We need two elementary lemmas.
Lemma 10.21. Let $P(X)=\Pi\left(X-a_{i}\right)$ and $Q(X)=\Pi\left(X-b_{i}\right)$ be monic polynomials of the same degree with coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$; if $\left|\prod_{i} F\left(a_{i}\right)\right|_{\ell}=\left|\prod_{i} F\left(b_{i}\right)\right|_{\ell}$ for all $F \in \mathbb{Z}[T]$, then $P=Q$.

Proof. By continuity, $P$ and $Q$ will satisfy the condition for all $F$ with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$, and even in $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$. Let $d$ and $e$ be the multiplicities of $a_{1}$ as a root of $P$ and $Q$ respectively — we shall prove the lemma by verifying that $d=e$. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}^{\text {al }}$ be close to $a_{1}$, but not equal to $a_{1}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& |P(\alpha)|_{\ell}=\left|\alpha-a_{1}\right|_{\ell}^{d} \prod_{a_{i} \neq a_{1}}\left|\alpha-a_{i}\right| \\
& |Q(\alpha)|_{\ell}=\left|\alpha-a_{1}\right|_{\ell}^{e} \prod_{b_{i} \neq a_{1}}\left|\alpha-b_{i}\right| .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $F$ be the minimum polynomial of $\alpha$ over $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$, and let $m=\operatorname{deg} F$. Let $\Sigma$ be a set of automorphisms $\sigma$ of $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}^{\text {al }}$ such $\{\sigma \alpha \mid \sigma \in \Sigma\}$ is the set of distinct conjugates of $\alpha$. Then,

$$
\prod_{i} F\left(a_{i}\right)=\prod_{\sigma, i}\left(a_{i}-\sigma \alpha\right)
$$

Because $\sigma$ permutes the $a_{i}$,

$$
\prod_{i}\left(a_{i}-\sigma \alpha\right)=\prod_{i}\left(\sigma a_{i}-\sigma \alpha\right)
$$

and because the automorphisms of $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}^{\text {al }}$ preserve valuations,

$$
\left|\left(\sigma a_{i}-\sigma \alpha\right)\right|_{\ell}=\left|a_{i}-\alpha\right|_{\ell}
$$

Hence

$$
\left|\prod_{i} F\left(a_{i}\right)\right|_{\ell}=\left|\prod_{i}\left(a_{i}-\alpha\right)\right|_{\ell}^{m}
$$

Similarly,

$$
\left|\prod_{i} F\left(b_{i}\right)\right|_{\ell}=\left|\prod_{i}\left(b_{i}-\alpha\right)\right|_{\ell}^{m}
$$

and so our hypothesis implies that

$$
\left|\alpha-a_{1}\right|_{\ell}^{d} \prod_{a_{i} \neq a_{1}}\left|\alpha-a_{i}\right|=\left|\alpha-a_{1}\right|_{\ell}^{e} \prod_{b_{i} \neq a_{1}}\left|\alpha-b_{i}\right|
$$

As $\alpha$ approaches $a_{1}$ the factors not involving $a_{1}$ will remain constant, from which it follows that $d=e$.

Lemma 10.22. Let $E$ be an algebra over a field $K$, and let $\delta: E \rightarrow K$ be a polynomial function on $E$ (regarded as a vector space over $K$ ) such that $\delta(\alpha \beta)=\delta(\alpha) \delta(\beta)$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in E$. Let $\alpha \in E$, and let $P=\prod_{i}\left(X-a_{i}\right)$ be the polynomial such that $P(x)=$ $\delta(\alpha-x)$. Then $\delta(F(\alpha))= \pm \prod_{i} F\left(a_{i}\right)$ for any $F \in K[T]$.

Proof. After extending $K$, we may assume that the roots $b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots$ of $F$ and of $P$ lie in $K$; then

$$
\delta(F(\alpha))=\delta\left(\prod_{j}\left(\alpha-b_{j}\right)\right)=\prod_{j} P\left(b_{j}\right)=\prod_{i, j}\left(b_{j}-a_{i}\right)= \pm \prod_{i} F\left(a_{i}\right)
$$

Proof. We now prove 10.20 . Clearly we may assume $k=k_{s}$. For any $\beta \in \operatorname{End}(A)$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
|\operatorname{deg}(\beta)|_{\ell} & =|\#(\operatorname{Ker}(\beta))|_{\ell} \\
& =\#(\operatorname{Ker}(\beta)(\ell))^{-1} \\
& =\#\left(\operatorname{Coker}\left(T_{\ell} \beta\right)\right)^{-1} \\
& =\left|\operatorname{det}\left(T_{\ell} \circ \beta\right)\right|_{\ell} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Consider $\alpha \in \operatorname{End}(A)$, and let $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots$ be the roots of $P_{\alpha}$. Then for any polynomial $F \in \mathbb{Z}[T]$, by 10.22 ,

$$
\left|\prod F\left(a_{i}\right)\right|_{\ell}=|\operatorname{deg} F(\alpha)|_{\ell}=\left|\operatorname{det} T_{\ell}(F(\alpha))\right|_{\ell}=\left|\prod F\left(b_{i}\right)\right|_{\ell}
$$

where the $b_{i}$ are the eigenvalues of $T_{\ell} \beta$. By Lemma 10.21 , this proves the proposition.

## Study of the endomorphism algebra of an abelian variety

Let $D$ be a simple algebra (not necessarily commutative) of finite-degree over its centre $K$ (a field). The reduced trace and reduced norm of $D$ over $K$ satisfy

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Tr}_{D / K}(\alpha) & =[D: K]^{\frac{1}{2}} \operatorname{Trd}_{D / K}(\alpha) \\
\operatorname{Nm}_{D / K}(\alpha) & =\operatorname{Nrd}_{D / K}(\alpha)^{[D: K]^{\frac{1}{2}}}, \alpha \in D
\end{aligned}
$$

When $D$ is a matrix algebra $M_{r}(K)$, then the reduced trace of $\alpha$ is the trace of $\alpha$ regarded as a matrix and the reduced norm of $\alpha$ is its determinant. In general, $D \otimes_{K} L \approx M_{r}(L)$ for some finite Galois extension $L$ of $K$, and the reduced trace and norm of an element of $D$ can be defined to be the trace and determinant of its image in $M_{r}(L)$ - these are invariant under the Galois group, and so lie in $K$. Similarly, the reduced characteristic polynomial of $\alpha$ in $D / K$ satisfies

$$
P_{D / K, \alpha}(X)=\left(\operatorname{Prd}_{D / K, \alpha}(X)\right)^{[D: K]}
$$

For a simple algebra $D$ of finite degree over $\mathbb{Q}$, we define

$$
\operatorname{Tr}_{D / \mathbb{Q}}=\operatorname{Tr}_{K / \mathbb{Q}} \circ \operatorname{Tr} d_{D / K}, \quad \operatorname{Nm}_{D / \mathbb{Q}}=\operatorname{Nm}_{K / \mathbb{Q}} \circ \operatorname{Nrd}_{D / K}
$$

where $K$ is the centre of $D$. Similarly, we define $P_{D / \mathbb{Q}, \alpha}(X)$ to agree with the usual characteristic polynomial when $D$ is commutative and the reduced characteristic polynomial when $D$ has centre $K \supset \mathbb{Q}$.
Proposition 10.23. Let $K$ be a $\mathbb{Q}$-subalgebra of $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$. (in particular, $K$ and $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ have the same identity element), and assume that $K$ is a field. Let $f=[K: \mathbb{Q}]$. Then $V_{\ell}(A)$ is a free $K \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$-module of rank $(2 \operatorname{dim} A) / f$. Therefore, the trace of $\alpha$ (as an endomorphism of $A$ ) is $(2 g / f) \operatorname{Tr}_{K / \mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)$ and $\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)=\operatorname{Nm}_{K / \mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)^{2 g / f}$.

Proof. In fact, we shall prove a stronger result in which $D$ is assumed only to be a division algebra (i.e., we allow it to be noncommutative). Let $K$ be the centre of $D$, and let $d=$ $\sqrt{[D: K]}$ and $f=[K: \mathbb{Q}]$. If $D \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ is again a division algebra, then $V_{\ell}(A) \approx V^{2 g / f d^{2}}$ where $V$ is any simple $D \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$-module. ${ }^{13}$ In general, $D \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ will decompose into a product

$$
D \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}=\prod D_{i}
$$

[^14]with each $D_{i}$ a simple algebra over $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ (if $K \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}=\prod K_{i}$ is the decomposition of $K \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ into product of fields, then $\left.D_{i}=D \otimes_{K} K_{i}\right)$. Let $V_{i}$ be a simple $M_{r_{i}}\left(D_{i}\right)$ module. Then $V_{\ell}(A) \approx \bigoplus_{i} m_{i} V_{i}$ for some $m_{i} \geq 0$. We shall that the $m_{i}$ are all equal. Let $\alpha \in D$. The characteristic polyomial $P_{\alpha}(X)$ of $\alpha$ as an endomorphism of $A$ is monic of degree $2 \operatorname{dim} A$ with coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}$, and it is equal to the characteristic polynomial of $V_{\ell}(\alpha)$ acting on the $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$-vector space $V_{\ell}(A)$. From the above decomposition of $D \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$, we find that
$$
P_{D / \mathbb{Q}, \alpha}(X)=\prod P_{D_{i} / \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}, \alpha}(X) .
$$

From the isomorphism of $D \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$-modules $V_{\ell}(A) \approx \oplus m_{i} V_{i}$, we find that

$$
P_{\alpha}(X)=\prod P_{D_{i} / \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}, \alpha}(X)^{m_{i}}
$$

If we assume that $\alpha$ generates a maximal subfield of $D$, so that $P_{D / \mathbb{Q}, \alpha}(X)$ is irreducible, then the two equations show that any monic irreducible factor of $P_{\alpha}(X)$ in $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ shares a root with $P_{D / \mathbb{Q}, \alpha}(X)$, and therefore equals it. Hence $P_{\alpha}(X)=P_{D / \mathbb{Q}, \alpha}(X)^{m}$ for some integer $m$, and each $m_{i}$ equals $m$.

Corollary 10.24. Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$, and assume $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ is a product of fields. Let $C_{\alpha}(X)$ be the characteristic polynomial of $\alpha$ acting on $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ (e.g., if $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ is a field, this is the minimum polynomial of $\alpha$ ); then

$$
\left\{a \in \mathbb{C} \mid C_{\alpha}(a)=0\right\}=\left\{a \in \mathbb{C} \mid P_{\alpha}(a)=0\right\}
$$

Notes. For an abelian variety $A$ and an $\ell$ distinct from the characteristic of $k$, let $A\left(\ell^{n}\right)$ be the $\ell$-primary component of the group $A\left(k^{\text {sep }}\right)$, so $A\left(\ell^{n}\right)=\lim _{\rightarrow n} A\left(k^{\text {sep }}\right)\left(\ell^{n}\right)$. Thus $A\left(\ell^{n}\right) \approx$ $\left(\mathbb{Q}_{\ell} / \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)^{\operatorname{dim} A}$. Then

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(A\left(\ell^{n}\right), B\left(\ell^{n}\right)\right) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}\left(T_{\ell} A, T_{\ell} B\right)
$$

Most of the results in the section are due to Weil, but with $A\left(\ell^{n}\right)$ for $T_{\ell} A$. Tate pointed out that it was easier to work with the inverse limit $T_{\ell} A=\lim _{n} A\left(k^{\text {sep }}\right)\left(\ell^{n}\right)$ rather than the direct limit, and so $T_{\ell} A$ is called the Tate module of $A$. When asked whether it wouldn't be more appropriate to call it the Weil module, Weil responded that names in mathematics are like street names; they don't (necessarily) mean that the person had anything to do with it. ${ }^{14}$

## 11 Polarizations and Invertible Sheaves

As Weil pointed out, for many purposes, the correct higher dimensional analogue of an elliptic curve is not an abelian variety, but a polarized abelian variety.

A polarization ${ }^{15} \lambda$ of an abelian variety $A$ is an isogeny $\lambda: A \rightarrow A^{\vee}$ such that, over $k^{\text {al }}$, $\lambda$ becomes of the form $\lambda_{\mathcal{L}}$ for some ample sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $A_{k^{\text {al }}}$. Unfortunately, this is not quite the same as requiring that $\lambda$ itself be of the form $\lambda_{\mathcal{L}}$ for $\mathcal{L}$ an ample invertible sheaf on $A$ (Milne 1986, 13.2).

The degree of a polarization is its degree as an isogeny. An abelian variety together with a polarization is called a polarized abelian variety. When $\lambda$ has degree $1,(A, \lambda)$ is said to belong to the principal family, and $\lambda$ is called a principal polarization.

There is the following very interesting theorem (Mumford 1970, p150).

[^15]Theorem 11.1. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be an invertible sheaf on $A$, and let

$$
\chi(\mathcal{L})=\sum(-1)^{i} \operatorname{dim}_{k} H^{i}(A, \mathcal{L})
$$

(Zariski cohomology).
(a) The degree of $\lambda_{\mathcal{L}}$ is $\chi(\mathcal{L})^{2}$.
(b) (Riemann-Roch) If $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{L}(D)$, then $\chi(\mathcal{L})=\left(D^{g}\right) / g$ !.
(c) If $\operatorname{dim} K(\mathcal{L})=0$, then $H^{r}(A, \mathcal{L})$ is nonzero for exactly one integer.

If $\mathcal{L}$ is ample, we know that $\operatorname{dim} K(\mathcal{L})=0$. If $\mathcal{L}$ is very ample, we know that $\Gamma(A, \mathcal{L}) \neq 0$, and so the theorem implies that $H^{r}(A, \mathcal{L})=0$ for all $r \neq 0$.

## A Finiteness Theorem

Up to isomorphism, there are only finitely many elliptic curves over a finite field $k$, because each such curve can be realized as a cubic curve in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ and there are only finitely many cubic equations in three variables with coefficients in $k$. Using Theorem 10.1 it is possible to extend this result to abelian varieties.

Theorem 11.2. Let $k$ be a finite field, and let $g$ and $d$ be positive integers. Up to isomorphism, there are only finitely many abelian varieties $A$ over $k$ of dimension $g$ possessing a polarization of degree $d^{2}$.

Using Theorem 11.1, one shows that $A$ can be realized as a variety of degree $3^{g} d(g!)$ in $\mathbb{P}^{3^{g} d-1}$. The Chow form of such a variety is homogeneous of degree $3^{g} d(g!)$ in each of $g+1$ sets of $3^{g} d$ variables, and it determines the isomorphism class of the variety. There are only finitely many such polynomials with coefficients in $k$.

REMARK 11.3. Theorem 11.2 played a crucial role in Tate's proof of his conjecture (9.17) over finite fields (see later).

## 12 The Etale Cohomology of an Abelian Variety

Let $V$ be a variety over a field $k$. When $k=\mathbb{C}$, we can endow $V$ with the complex topology, and form the cohomology groups $H^{i}(V, \mathbb{Q})$. Weil was the first to observe that various phenomena, for example the numbers of points on varieties, behaved as if the whole theory (cohomology groups, Poincaré duality theorems, Lefschetz traces formula...) continued to exist, even in characteristic $p$, and with the same Betti numbers. It is not clear whether Weil actually believed that such a theory should exist, or that it just appeared to exist.

However, there can't exist cohomology groups with coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}$ and the correct Betti numbers functorially attached to a variety in characteristic $p$ because, if $A$ is a supersingular elliptic curve in characteristic $p$, then $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$ a division algebra of dimension 4 over $\mathbb{Q}$, and if $H^{1}(A, \mathbb{Q})$ had dimension 2 over $\mathbb{Q}$, then it would have dimension $1 / 2$ over $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$, which is nonsense. However, $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A) \approx M_{2}\left(\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}\right), \ell \neq p$, and so there is no reason there should not be a vector space $H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}\right)$ of dimension 2 over $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ functorially attached to $A$ - in fact, we know there is, namely $V_{\ell} A$ (better, its dual).

Grothendieck constructed such a theory, and called it étale cohomology (see Milne 1980 or my notes LEC).

For abelian varieties, the étale cohomology groups are what you would expect given the complex groups.

THEOREM 12.1. Let $A$ be an abelian variety of dimension $g$ over a separably closed field $k$, and let $\ell$ be a prime different from $\operatorname{char}(k)$.
(a) There is a canonical isomorphism

$$
H^{1}\left(A_{\mathrm{et}}, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \xrightarrow{\simeq} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}}\left(T_{\ell} A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)
$$

(b) The cup-product pairings define isomorphisms

$$
\bigwedge^{r} H^{1}\left(A_{\mathrm{et}}, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \rightarrow H^{r}\left(A_{\mathrm{et}}, Z_{\ell}\right) \text { for all } r
$$

In particular, $H^{r}\left(A_{\mathrm{et}}, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)$ is a free $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$-module of $\operatorname{rank}\binom{2 g}{r}$.
If $\pi_{1}^{\mathrm{et}}(A, 0)$ now denotes the étale fundamental group, then

$$
H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{\text {conts }}\left(\pi_{1}^{\mathrm{et}}(A, 0), \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)
$$

For each $n, \ell_{A}^{n}: A \rightarrow A$ is a finite étale covering of $A$ with group of covering transformations $\operatorname{Ker}\left(\ell_{A}^{n}\right)=A_{\ell^{n}}(k)$. By definition $\pi_{1}^{\text {et }}(A, 0)$ classifies such coverings, and therefore there is a canonical epimorphism $\pi_{1}^{\text {et }}(A, 0) \rightarrow A_{\ell^{n}}(k)$ (see Milne 1980, I 5). On passing to the inverse limit, we get an epimorphism $\pi_{1}^{\mathrm{et}}(A, 0) \rightarrow T_{\ell} A$, and consequently an injection

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}}\left(T_{\ell} A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \hookrightarrow H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)
$$

To proceed further, we need to work with other coefficient groups. Let $R$ be $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$, $\mathbb{F}_{\ell}$, or $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$, and write $H^{*}(A)$ for $\bigoplus_{r \geq 0} H^{r}\left(A_{\text {et }}, R\right)$. The cup-product pairing makes this into a graded, associative, anticommutative algebra. There is a canonical map $H^{*}(A) \otimes$ $H^{*}(A) \rightarrow H^{*}(A \times A)$, which the Künneth formula shows to be an isomorphism when $R$ is a field. In this case, the addition map $m: A \times A \rightarrow A$ defines a map

$$
m^{*}: H^{*}(A) \rightarrow H^{*}(A \times A) \simeq H^{*}(A) \otimes H^{*}(A)
$$

Moreover, the map $a \mapsto(a, 0): A \rightarrow A \times A$ identifies $H^{*}(A)$ with the direct summand $H^{*}(A) \otimes H^{0}(A)$ of $H^{*}(A) \otimes H^{*}(A)$. As $m \circ(a \mapsto(a, 0))=$ id, the projection of $H^{*}(A) \otimes H^{*}(A)$ onto $H^{*}(A) \otimes H^{0}(A)$ sends $m^{*}(x)$ to $x \otimes 1$. As the same remark applies to $a \mapsto(0, a)$, this shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
m^{*}(x)=x \otimes 1+1 \otimes x+\sum x_{i} \otimes y_{i}, \quad \operatorname{deg}\left(x_{i}\right), \operatorname{deg}\left(y_{i}\right)>0 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

LEMMA 12.2. Let $H^{*}$ be a graded, associative, anticommutative algebra over a perfect field $K$. Assume that there is a map $m^{*}: H^{*} \rightarrow H^{*} \otimes H^{*}$ satisfying the identity (3). If $H^{0}=K$ and $H^{r}=0$ for all $r$ greater than some integer $d$, then $\operatorname{dim}\left(H^{1}\right) \leq d$, and when equality holds, $H^{*}$ is canonically isomorphic to the exterior algebra on $H^{1}$.

Proof. A fundamental structure theorem for Hopf algebras (Borel 1953) shows that $H^{*}$ is equal to the associative algebra generated by certain elements $x_{i}$ subject only to the relations imposed by the anticommutativity of $H^{*}$ and the nilpotence of each $x_{i}$. The product of the $x_{i}$ has degree $\sum \operatorname{deg}\left(x_{i}\right)$, from which it follows that $\sum \operatorname{deg}\left(x_{i}\right) \leq d$. In particular, the number of $x_{i}$ of degree 1 is $\leq d$; as this number is equal to the dimension of $H^{1}$, this shows that its dimension is $\leq d$. When equality holds, all the $x_{i}$ must have degree 1; moreover, their squares must all be zero because otherwise there would be a nonzero element $x_{1} x_{2} \cdots x_{i}^{2} \cdots x_{d}$ of degree $d+1$. Hence $H^{*}$ is identified with the exterior algebra on $H^{1}$.

Proof (of Theorem 12.1) When $R$ is $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ or $\mathbb{F}_{\ell}$, the conditions of the lemma are fulfilled with $d=2 g$ (Milne 1980, VI 1.1). Therefore $H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}\right)$ has dimension $\leq 2 g$. But $H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}\right) \simeq H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}} \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$, and so the earlier calculation shows that $H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}\right)$ has dimension $2 g$. The lemma now shows that $H^{r}\left(A, \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}\right) \simeq \bigwedge^{r} H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}\right)$, and, in particular, that its dimension if $\binom{2 g}{r}$. This implies that $H^{r}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)$ has rank $\binom{2 g}{r}$. The exact sequence (Milne|1980, VI 1.11)

$$
\cdots \rightarrow H^{r}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \xrightarrow{\ell} H^{r}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \rightarrow H^{r}\left(A, \mathbb{F}_{\ell}\right) \rightarrow H^{r+1}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \xrightarrow{\ell} \cdots
$$

now shows that $\operatorname{dim} H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{F}_{\ell}\right) \geq 2 g$, and so the lemma implies that this dimension equals $2 g$ and that $\operatorname{dim} H^{r}\left(A, \mathbb{F}_{\ell}\right)=\binom{2}{r}$. On looking at the exact sequence again, we see that $H^{r}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)$ must be torsion-free for all $r$. Consequently, $\bigwedge^{r} H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)$ is injective because it becomes so when tensored with $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$, and it is surjective because it becomes so when tensored with $\mathbb{F}_{\ell}$.

REMARK 12.3. In the course of the above proof, we have shown that the maximal abelian $\ell$-quotient of $\pi_{1}^{\mathrm{et}}(A, 0)$ is isomorphic to $T_{\ell} A$. In fact, it is known that $\pi_{1}^{\mathrm{et}}(A, 0) \simeq T A$ where $T A \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} \underset{\longleftarrow}{\lim } A_{n}(k)$ (limit over the integers $n>0$ prime to $n$ ). In order to prove this, one has show that all finite étale coverings of $A$ are isogenies. ${ }^{16}$ This is accomplished by the following theorem (Mumford 1970, §18):

Let $A$ be an abelian variety over an algebraically closed field, and let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be a finite étale covering with $B$ connected; then it is possible to define on $B$ the structure of abelian variety relative to which $f$ is an isogeny.

REMARK 12.4. We have shown that the following three algebras are isomorphic:
(a) $H^{*}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)$ with its cup-product structure;
(b) the exterior algebra $\bigwedge^{*} H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)$ with its wedge-product structure;
(c) the dual of $\bigwedge^{*} T_{\ell} A$ with its wedge-product structure.

If we denote the pairing

$$
T_{\ell} A \times H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}
$$

by $\langle\cdot \mid \cdot\rangle$, then the pairing

$$
\bigwedge^{r} T_{\ell} A \times H^{r}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}
$$

is determined by

$$
\left(a_{1} \wedge \ldots \wedge a_{r}, b_{1} \cup \ldots \cup b_{r}\right)=\operatorname{det}\left(\left\langle a_{i} \mid b_{j}\right\rangle\right)
$$

REMARK 12.5. Theorem 12.1 is still true if $k$ is only separably closed (see Milne 1980, II 3.17). If $A$ is defined over a field $k$, then the isomorphism

$$
\bigwedge^{*} \operatorname{Hom}\left(T_{\ell}, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \rightarrow H^{*}\left(A_{k^{\text {sep }}}, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)
$$

is compatible with the natural actions of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\text {sep }} / k\right)$.

[^16]
## 13 Weil Pairings

For an elliptic curve $A$ over a field $k$, and an integer $m$ not divisible by the characteristic of $k$, one has a canonical pairing

$$
A\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)_{m} \times A\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)_{m} \rightarrow \mu_{m}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)
$$

where $\mu_{m}\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$ is the group of $m$ th roots of 1 in $k^{\text {al }}(\approx \mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z})$. This pairing is nondegenerate, skew-symmetric, and commutes with the action of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}} / k\right)$.

For an abelian variety $A$, this becomes a pairing

$$
e_{m}: A\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)_{m} \times A^{\vee}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)_{m} \rightarrow \mu_{m}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)
$$

Again, it is nondegenerate, and it commutes with the action of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}} / k\right)$. When combined with a polarization

$$
\lambda: A \rightarrow A^{\vee}
$$

this becomes a pairing

$$
\begin{aligned}
e_{m}^{\lambda}: A_{m}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right) \times A_{m}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right) & \rightarrow \mu_{m}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right), \\
e_{m}^{\lambda}(a, b) & =e_{m}(a, \lambda b)
\end{aligned}
$$

The $e_{m}$-pairing can be defined as follows. For simplicity, assume $k$ to be algebraically closed. Let $a \in A_{m}(k)$ and let $a^{\prime} \in A_{m}^{\vee}(k) \subset \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)$. If $a^{\prime}$ is represented by the divisor $D$ on $A$, then $m_{A}^{*} D$ is linearly equivalent to $m D$ (see 8.5; $m_{A}$ is the map $x \mapsto m x: A \rightarrow A$ ), which, by assumption, is linearly equivalent to zero. Therefore there are rational functions $f$ and $g$ on $A$ such that $m D=(f)$ and $m_{A}^{*} D=(g)$. Since

$$
\operatorname{div}\left(f \circ m_{A}\right)=m_{A}^{*}(\operatorname{div}(f))=m_{A}^{*}(m D)=m\left(m_{A}^{*} D\right)=\operatorname{div}\left(g^{m}\right)
$$

we see that $g^{m} /\left(f \circ m_{A}\right)$ is rational function on $A$ without zeros or poles - it is therefore a constant function $c$ on $A$. In particular,

$$
g(x+a)^{m}=c f(m x+m a)=c f(m x)=g(x)^{m}
$$

Therefore $g /\left(g \circ t_{a}\right)$ is a function on $A$ whose $m$ th power is one. This means that it is an $m$ th root of 1 in $k(A)$ and can be identified with an element of $k$. Define

$$
e_{m}\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)=g /\left(g \circ t_{a}\right)
$$

(Cf. Mumford 1970, §20, p184.)
LEMMA 13.1. Let $m$ and $n$ be integers not divisible by the characteristic of $k$. Then for all $a \in A_{m n}(k)$ and $a^{\prime} \in A_{m n}^{\vee}(k)$,

$$
e_{m n}\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)^{n}=e_{m}\left(n a, n a^{\prime}\right)
$$

Proof. See Milne 1986, 16.1 (or prove it as an exercise).

Let $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}(1)=\lim _{\longleftarrow} \mu_{\ell^{n}}$ for $\ell$ a prime not equal to the characteristic of $k$. The lemma allows us to define a pairing $e_{\ell}: T_{\ell} A \times T_{\ell} A^{\vee} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}(1)$ by the rule ${ }^{17}$

$$
e_{\ell}\left(\left(a_{n}\right),\left(a_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)=\left(e_{\ell^{n}}\left(a_{n}, a_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)
$$

For a homomorphism $\lambda: A \rightarrow A^{\vee}$, we define pairings

$$
\begin{aligned}
e_{m}^{\lambda}: A_{m} \times A_{m} & \rightarrow \mu_{m}(1), \quad\left(a, a^{\prime}\right) \mapsto e_{m}\left(a, \lambda a^{\prime}\right) \\
e_{\ell}^{\lambda}: T_{\ell} A \times T_{\ell} A & \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}(1), \quad\left(a, a^{\prime}\right) \mapsto e_{\ell}\left(a, \lambda a^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

If $\lambda=\lambda_{\mathcal{L}}, \mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}(A)$, then we write $e_{\ell}^{\mathcal{L}}$ for $e_{\ell}^{\lambda}$.
Proposition 13.2. There are the following formulas: for a homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$,
(a) $e_{\ell}\left(a, \alpha^{\vee}(b)\right)=e_{\ell}(\alpha(a), b), a \in T_{\ell} A, b \in T_{\ell} B$;
(b) $e_{\ell}^{\alpha^{\vee} \circ \lambda \circ f}\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)=e_{\ell}^{\lambda}\left(\alpha(a), \alpha\left(a^{\prime}\right)\right), a, a^{\prime} \in T_{\ell} A, \lambda \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(B, B^{\vee}\right)$;
(c) $e_{\ell}^{\alpha * \mathcal{L}}\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)=e_{\ell}^{\mathcal{L}}\left(\alpha(a), \alpha\left(a^{\prime}\right)\right), a, a^{\prime} \in T_{\ell} A, \mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}(B)$. Moreover,
(d) $\mathcal{L} \mapsto e_{\ell}^{\mathcal{L}}$ is a homomorphism $\operatorname{Pic}(A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(\Lambda^{2} T_{\ell} A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}(1)\right)$; in particular, $e_{\ell}^{\mathcal{L}}$ is skew-symmetric.

Proof. See Milne 1986, 16.2 (or prove it as an exercise).
EXAMPLE 13.3. Let $A$ be an abelian variety over $\mathbb{C}$. The exact sequence of sheaves on $A(\mathbb{C})$

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{A^{\mathrm{an}}} \xrightarrow{e^{2 \pi i(\cdot)}} \mathcal{O}_{A^{\mathrm{an}}}^{\times} \rightarrow 0
$$

gives rise to an exact sequence

$$
H^{1}(A(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^{1}(A(\mathbb{C}), \mathcal{O}) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(A(\mathbb{C}), \mathcal{O}^{\times}\right) \rightarrow H^{1}(A(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^{2}(A(\mathbb{C}), \mathcal{O})
$$

As

$$
\begin{aligned}
H^{1}\left(A(\mathbb{C}), \mathcal{O}^{\times}\right) & \simeq \operatorname{Pic}(A) \text { and } \\
H^{1}(A(\mathbb{C}), \mathcal{O}) / H^{1}(A(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{Z}) & \simeq A^{\vee}(\mathbb{C})
\end{aligned}
$$

we can extract from this an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathrm{NS}(A) \rightarrow H^{2}(A(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^{2}(A(\mathbb{C}), \mathcal{O})
$$

Let $\lambda \in \operatorname{NS}(A)$, and let $E^{\lambda}$ be its image in $H^{2}(A(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{Z})$. Then $E^{\lambda}$ can be regarded as a skew-symmetric form on $H_{1}(A(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{Z})$. It is a nondegenerate Riemann form if and only if $\lambda$ is ample. As was explained above, $\lambda$ induces a pairing $e_{\ell}^{\lambda}$, and it is shown in Mumford 1970, p237, that the diagram

$$
\begin{array}{cccccc}
E^{\lambda}: & H_{1}(A, \mathbb{Z}) & \times & H_{1}(A, \mathbb{Z}) & \rightarrow & \mathbb{Z} \\
& \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
e_{\ell}^{\lambda}: & T_{\ell} A & \times & T_{\ell} A & \rightarrow & \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}(1)
\end{array}
$$

[^17]commutes with a minus sign if the maps $H^{1}(A(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow T_{\ell} A$ are taken to be the obvious ones and $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}(1)$ is taken to be $m \mapsto \zeta^{m}, \zeta=\left(\ldots, e^{2 \pi i / \ell^{n}}, \ldots\right)$. In other words,
$$
e_{\ell}^{\lambda}\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)=\zeta^{-E^{\lambda}\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)}
$$

In Milne 1986, §16, it is shown how étale cohomology can be used to give short proofs of some important results concerning polarizations. For proofs that don't use étale cohomology (and don't neglect the $p$ part in characteristic $p$ ) see Mumford 1970, §20, §23. Here we merely list the results. We continue to assume that $k$ is algebraically closed.

THEOREM 13.4. Let $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ be an isogeny of degree prime to the characteristic of $k$, and let $\lambda \in \operatorname{NS}(A)$. Then $\lambda=\alpha^{*}\left(\lambda^{\prime}\right)$ for some $\lambda^{\prime} \in \operatorname{NS}(B)$ if and only if, for all $\ell$ dividing $\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)$, there exists a skew-symmetric form $e: T_{\ell} B \times T_{\ell} B \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}(1)$ such that $e_{\ell}^{\lambda}\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)=e\left(\alpha(a), \alpha\left(a^{\prime}\right)\right)$ for all $a, a^{\prime} \in T_{\ell} A$.

Corollary 13.5. Assume $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$. An element $\lambda$ of $\mathrm{NS}(A)$ is divisible by $\ell^{n}$ if and only if $e_{\ell}^{\lambda}$ is divisible by $\ell^{n}$ in $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\bigwedge^{2} T_{\ell} A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}(1)\right)$.

Proof. Apply the proposition to $\ell_{A}^{n}: A \rightarrow A$.

Proposition 13.6. Assume $\operatorname{char}(k) \neq 2, \ell$. A homomorphism $\lambda: A \rightarrow A^{\vee}$ is of the form $\lambda_{\mathcal{L}}$ for some $\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}(A)$ if and only if $e_{\ell}^{\lambda}$ is skew-symmetric.

Lemma 13.7. Let $\mathcal{P}$ be the Poincaré sheaf on $A \times A^{\vee}$. Then

$$
e_{\ell}^{\mathcal{P}}\left((a, b),\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)\right)=e_{\ell}\left(a, b^{\prime}\right)-e_{\ell}\left(a^{\prime}, b\right)
$$

for $a, a^{\prime} \in T_{\ell} A$ and $b, b^{\prime} \in T_{\ell} A^{\vee}$.

For a polarization $\lambda: A \rightarrow A^{\vee}$, define

$$
e^{\lambda}: \operatorname{Ker}(\lambda) \times \operatorname{Ker}(\lambda) \rightarrow \mu_{m}
$$

as follows: suppose $m$ kills $\operatorname{Ker}(\lambda)$, and let $a$ and $a^{\prime}$ be in $\operatorname{Ker}(\lambda)$; choose a $b$ such that $m b=a^{\prime}$, and let $e^{\lambda}\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)=e_{m}(a, \lambda b)$; this makes sense because $m(\lambda b)=\lambda(m b)=0$. Also it is independent of the choice of $b$ and $m$ because if $m n b^{\prime}=a^{\prime}$ and $n c=a$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
e_{m n}\left(a, \lambda b^{\prime}\right) & =e_{m n}(c, \lambda b)^{n} \\
& =e_{m}\left(a, \lambda n b^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

(by 13.1), and so

$$
\begin{aligned}
e_{m n}\left(a, \lambda b^{\prime}\right) / e_{m}(a, \lambda b) & =e_{m}\left(a, \lambda\left(n b^{\prime}-b\right)\right) \\
& =e_{m}^{\lambda}\left(a, n b^{\prime}-b\right) \\
& =e_{m}^{\lambda}\left(n b^{\prime}-b, a\right)^{-1} \\
& =1
\end{aligned}
$$

because $\lambda a=0$. Let $a=\left(a_{n}\right)$ and $a^{\prime}=\left(a_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ be in $T_{\ell} A$. If $\lambda a_{m}=0=\lambda a_{m}^{\prime}$ for some $m$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
e^{\lambda}\left(a_{m}, a_{m}^{\prime}\right) & =e_{\ell^{m}}\left(a_{m}, \lambda a_{2 m}^{\prime}\right) \\
& =e_{\ell^{2 m}}\left(a_{2 m}, \lambda a_{3 m}^{\prime}\right)^{\ell^{m}} \\
& =e_{\ell^{2 m}}^{\lambda}\left(a_{2 m}, a_{2 m}^{\prime}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that this implies that $e^{\lambda}$ is skew-symmetric.
Proposition 13.8. Let $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ be an isogeny of degree prime to char $(k)$, and let $\lambda: A \rightarrow A^{\vee}$ be a polarization of $A$. Then $\lambda=\alpha^{*}\left(\lambda^{\prime}\right)$ for some polarization $\lambda^{\prime}$ on $B$ if and only if $\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(\lambda)$ and $e^{\lambda}$ is trivial on $\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha) \times \operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)$.

Remark 13.9. The degrees of $\lambda$ and $\lambda^{\prime}$ are related by

$$
\operatorname{deg}(\lambda)=\operatorname{deg}\left(\lambda^{\prime}\right) \cdot \operatorname{deg}(\alpha)^{2},
$$

because $\lambda=\alpha^{\vee} \circ \lambda^{\prime} \circ \alpha$.

Corollary 13.10. Let $A$ be an abelian variety having a polarization of degree prime to $\operatorname{char}(k)$. Then $A$ is isogenous to a principally polarized abelian variety.

Proof. Let $\lambda$ be a polarization of $A$, and let $\ell$ be a prime dividing the degree of $\lambda$. Choose a subgroup $N$ of $\operatorname{Ker}(\lambda)$ of order $\ell$, and let $B=A / N$. As $e^{\lambda}$ is skew-symmetric, it must be zero on $N \times N$, and so the last proposition implies that $B$ has a polarization of degree $\operatorname{deg}(\lambda) / \ell^{2}$.

Corollary 13.11. Let $\lambda$ be a polarization of $A$, and assume that $\operatorname{Ker}(\lambda) \subset A_{m}$ with $m$ prime to char $(k)$. If there exists an element $\alpha$ of $\operatorname{End}(A)$ such that $\alpha(\operatorname{Ker}(\lambda)) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(\lambda)$ and $\alpha^{\vee} \circ \lambda \circ \alpha=-\lambda$ on $A_{m^{2}}$, then $A \times A^{\vee}$ is principally polarized.

Since $\left(A \times A^{\vee}\right)^{\vee} \simeq A^{\vee} \times A$, there is a canonical isomorphism $A \times A^{\vee} \rightarrow\left(A \times A^{\vee}\right)^{\vee}$. The problem is to show that there is such an isomorphism that is a polarization, i.e., of the form $\lambda_{\mathcal{L}}$ for some ample invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ - for this we need to replace $A$ with $A^{4}$.

Theorem 13.12 (ZARHIN's TRICK). For any abelian variety $A,\left(A \times A^{\vee}\right)^{4}$ is principally polarized.

Proof. To prove the theorem, we have to prove that, for every polarized abelian variety $(A, \lambda)$, there exists an $\alpha$ satisfying the condition of 13.11 for $\left(A^{4}, \lambda^{4}\right)$. Lagrange showed that every positive integer is a sum of 4 squares (ANT 4.20). Therefore, there are integers $a, b, c, d$ such that

$$
a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2} \equiv-1 \bmod m^{2},
$$

and we let

$$
\alpha=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
a & -b & -c & -d \\
b & a & d & -c \\
c & -d & a & b \\
d & c & -b & a
\end{array}\right) \in M_{4}(\mathbb{Z}) \subset \operatorname{End}\left(A^{4}\right) .
$$

Since $\alpha$ commutes with $\lambda^{4}=\operatorname{diag}(\lambda, \lambda, \lambda, \lambda)$, we have

$$
\alpha\left(\operatorname{Ker}\left(\lambda^{4}\right)\right) \subset \operatorname{Ker}\left(\lambda^{4}\right)
$$

Moreover, $\alpha^{\vee}$ is the transpose of $\alpha$ (as a matrix), and so

$$
\alpha^{\vee} \circ \lambda^{4} \circ \alpha=\alpha^{\operatorname{tr}} \circ \lambda^{4} \circ \alpha=\lambda^{4} \circ \alpha^{\operatorname{tr}} \circ \alpha
$$

But

$$
\alpha^{\operatorname{tr}} \circ \alpha=\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}\right) I_{4}
$$

Corollary 13.13. Let $k$ be a finite field; for each integer $g$, there exist only finitely many isomorphism classes of abelian varieties of dimension $g$ over $k$.

Proof. Let $A$ be an abelian variety of dimension $g$ over $k$. From 13.12) we know that $\left(A \times A^{\vee}\right)^{4}$ has a principal polarization, and according to 11.2 , the abelian varieties of dimension $8 g$ over $k$ having principal polarizations fall into finitely many isomorphism classes. But $A$ is a direct factor of $\left(A \times A^{\vee}\right)^{4}$, and 15.1 shows that $\left(A \times A^{\vee}\right)^{4}$ has only finitely many direct factors.

Notes. Corollary 13.5 is "the proposition on the last page of Weil 1948b" that plays a crucial role in Tate 1966 (ibid. p137). In the proof of Tate's theorem, it can now be replace by "Zarhin's trick" which, however, depends on the stronger form of the Corollary 13.5 .

## 14 The Rosati Involution

Fix a polarization $\lambda$ on $A$. As $\lambda$ is an isogeny $A \rightarrow A^{\vee}$, it has an inverse in $\operatorname{Hom}^{0}\left(A^{\vee}, A\right) \stackrel{\text { df }}{=}$ $\operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\vee}, A\right) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$. The Rosati involution on $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ corresponding to $\lambda$ is

$$
\alpha \mapsto \alpha^{\dagger}=\lambda^{-1} \circ \alpha^{\vee} \circ \lambda
$$

This has the following obvious properties:

$$
(\alpha+\beta)^{\dagger}=\alpha^{\dagger}+\beta^{\dagger}, \quad(\alpha \beta)^{\dagger}=\beta \alpha, \quad a^{\dagger}=a \text { for } a \in \mathbb{Q}
$$

For any $a, a^{\prime} \in T_{\ell} A \otimes \mathbb{Q}, \ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$,

$$
e_{\ell}^{\lambda}\left(\alpha a, a^{\prime}\right)=e_{\ell}\left(\alpha a, \lambda a^{\prime}\right)=e_{\ell}\left(a, \alpha^{\vee} \circ \lambda a^{\prime}\right)=e_{\ell}^{\lambda}\left(a, \alpha^{\dagger} a^{\prime}\right)
$$

from which it follows that $\alpha^{\dagger \dagger}=\alpha$.
REMARK 14.1. The second condition on $\alpha$ in 13.11) can now be stated as $\alpha^{\dagger} \circ \alpha=-1$ on $A_{m^{2}}\left(\right.$ provided $\alpha^{\dagger}$ lies in $\left.\operatorname{End}(A)\right)$.

Proposition 14.2. Assume that $k$ is algebraically closed. Then the map

$$
\mathcal{L} \mapsto \lambda^{-1} \circ \lambda_{\mathcal{L}}: \mathrm{NS}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}
$$

identifies $\mathrm{NS}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ with the subset of $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ of elements fixed by $\dagger$.

Proof. Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$, and let $\ell$ be an odd prime distinct from the characteristic of $k$. According to 13.6, $\lambda \circ \alpha$ is of the form $\lambda_{\mathcal{L}}$ if and only if $e_{\ell}^{\lambda \circ \alpha}\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)=-e_{\ell}^{\lambda \circ \alpha}\left(a^{\prime}, a\right)$ for all $a, a^{\prime} \in T_{\ell} A \otimes \mathbb{Q}$. But

$$
\begin{aligned}
e_{\ell}^{\lambda \circ \alpha}\left(a, a^{\prime}\right) & =e_{\ell}^{\lambda}\left(a, \alpha a^{\prime}\right) \\
& =-e_{\ell}^{\lambda}\left(\alpha a^{\prime}, a\right) \\
& =-e_{\ell}\left(a^{\prime}, \alpha^{\vee} \circ \lambda(a)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and so this is equivalent to $\lambda \circ \alpha=\alpha^{\vee} \circ \lambda$, i.e., to $\alpha=\alpha^{\dagger}$.
(2) In general, this set will not be a subalgebra of $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$, because $\alpha$ and $\beta$ can be fixed by $\dagger$ without $\alpha \beta$ being fixed (when $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are fixed, then $(\alpha \beta)^{\dagger}=\beta \alpha$, which need not equal $\alpha \beta$ ).

The next result is very important.
THEOREM 14.3. The bilinear form

$$
(\alpha, \beta) \mapsto \operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha \circ \beta^{\dagger}\right): \operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q} \times \operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}
$$

is positive definite, i.e., $\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha \circ \alpha^{\dagger}\right)>0$ for $\alpha \neq 0$. More precisely, let $D$ be the ample divisor defining the polarization used in the definition of $\dagger$; then

$$
\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha \circ \alpha^{\dagger}\right)=\frac{2 g}{\left(D^{g}\right)}\left(D^{g-1} \cdot \alpha^{*}(D)\right)
$$

Proof. As $D$ is ample and $\alpha^{*}(D)$ is effective, the intersection number $\left(D^{g-1} \cdot \alpha^{*}(D)\right)$ is positive. Thus the second statement implies the first. The second statement is proved by a calculation, which we omit for the present (see Milne 1986, §17).

Proposition 14.4. Let $\lambda$ be a polarization of the abelian variety $A$.
(a) The group of automorphisms of $(A, \lambda)$ is finite.
(b) For any integer $n \geq 3$, an automorphism of $(A, \lambda)$ acting as the identity on $A_{n}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)$ is equal to the identity.

PROOF. (a) Let $\alpha$ be an automorphism of $A$. In order for $\alpha$ to be an automorphism of $(A, \lambda)$, we must have $\lambda=\alpha^{\vee} \circ \lambda \circ \alpha$, and therefore $\alpha^{\dagger} \alpha=1$, where ${ }^{\dagger}$ is the Rosati involution defined by $\lambda$. Consequently,

$$
\alpha \in \operatorname{End}(A) \cap\left\{\alpha \in \operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{R} \mid \operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha^{\dagger} \alpha\right)=2 g\right\}
$$

But $\operatorname{End}(A)$ is discrete in $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{R}$, and $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{R}$ is compact.
(b) Assume further that $\alpha$ acts as the identity on $A_{n}$. Then $\alpha-1$ is zero on $A_{n}$, and so it is of the form $n \beta$ with $\beta \in \operatorname{End}(A)$ (see 10.16). The eigenvalues of $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are algebraic integers, and those of $\alpha$ are roots of 1 because it has finite order. The next lemma shows that the eigenvalues of $\alpha$ equal 1 . Therefore $\alpha$ is unipotent, and so $\alpha-1=n \beta$ is nilpotent. Suppose that $\beta \neq 0$. Then $\beta^{\prime} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} \beta^{\dagger} \beta \neq 0$ because $\operatorname{Tr}\left(\beta^{\dagger} \beta\right)>0$. As $\beta^{\prime}=\beta^{\prime \dagger}$, this implies that $\operatorname{Tr}\left(\beta^{\prime 2}\right)>0$, and so $\beta^{\prime 2} \neq 0$. Similarly, $\beta^{\prime 4} \neq 0$, and so on, which contradicts the nilpotence of $\beta$.

LEMMA 14.5. If $\zeta$ is a root of 1 such that for some algebraic integer $\gamma$ and integer $n \geq 3$, $\zeta=1+n \gamma$, then $\zeta=1$.

PROOF. If $\zeta \neq 1$, then, after raising it to a power, we may assume that it is a primitive $p$ th root of 1 for some prime $p$. Then $\mathrm{Nm}_{\mathbb{Q}[\zeta] / \mathbb{Q}}(\zeta-1)=(-1)^{p-1} p$, because the minimum polynomial of $\zeta-1$ is

$$
(X+1)^{p-1}+\cdots+1=X^{p-1}+\cdots+p
$$

(see ANT, Chapter 6). Now the equation $\zeta-1=n \gamma$ implies that $(-1)^{p-1} p=n^{p-1} N(\gamma)$. This is impossible because $p$ is prime.

REMARK 14.6. (a) Let $(A, \lambda)$ and $\left(A^{\prime}, \lambda^{\prime}\right)$ be polarized abelian varieties over a perfect field $k$. If there exists an $n \geq 3$ such that both $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ have all their points of order $n$ rational over $k$, then any isomorphism $(A, \lambda) \rightarrow\left(A, \lambda^{\prime}\right)$ defined over some extension field of $k$ is automatically defined over $k$ (apply AG 16.9 ).
(b) Let $\Omega \supset k$ be fields such that the fixed field of $\Gamma=\operatorname{Aut}(\Omega / k)$ is $k$ and $\Omega$ is algebraically closed. Let $(A, \lambda)$ be a polarized abelian variety over $\Omega$, and let $\left(\varphi_{\sigma}\right)_{\sigma \in \Gamma}$ be a descent system on $(A, \lambda)$, i.e., $\varphi_{\sigma}$ is an isomorphism $\sigma(A, \lambda) \rightarrow(A, \lambda)$ and $\varphi_{\sigma} \circ$ $\left(\sigma \varphi_{\tau}\right)=\varphi_{\sigma \tau}$ for all $\sigma, \tau \in \Gamma$. Assume that for some $n \geq 3$, there exists a subfield $K$ of $\Omega$ finitely generated over $k$ such that $\varphi_{\sigma}(\sigma P)=P$ for all $P$ killed by $n$ and all $\sigma$ fixing $K$. Then $(A, \lambda)$ has a model over $k$ splitting $\left(\varphi_{\sigma}\right)$, i.e., there exists a polarized abelian variety $\left(A_{0}, \lambda_{0}\right)$ over $k$ and an isomorphism $\varphi: V_{0 \Omega} \rightarrow V$ such that $\varphi_{\sigma}=\varphi^{-1} \circ \sigma \varphi$ for all $\sigma \in \Gamma$ (apply AG 16.33).

## 15 Geometric Finiteness Theorems

In this section we prove two finiteness theorems that hold for abelian varieties over any field $k$. The first theorem says that an abelian variety can be endowed with a polarization of a fixed degree in only a finite number of essentially different ways. The second says that, up to isomorphism, an abelian variety has only finitely many direct factors. As a corollary we find that there are only finitely many isomorphism classes of abelian varieties of a fixed dimension over a finite field. This simplifies the proof of Tate's isogeny theorem.

THEOREM 15.1. Let $A$ be an abelian variety over a field $k$, and let $d$ be an integer; then there exist only finitely many isomorphism classes of polarized abelian varieties $(A, \lambda)$ with $\lambda$ of degree $d$.

Let $(A, \lambda)$ and $\left(A^{\prime}, \lambda^{\prime}\right)$ be polarized abelian varieties. From a homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow$ $A^{\prime}$, we obtain a map

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\lambda^{\prime}\right) \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=} \alpha^{\vee} \circ \lambda^{\prime} \circ \alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\vee}
$$

When $\alpha$ is an isomorphism and $\alpha^{*}\left(\lambda^{\prime}\right)=\lambda$, we call $\alpha$ an $\operatorname{isomorphism}(A, \lambda) \rightarrow\left(A^{\prime}, \lambda^{\prime}\right)$ of polarized abelian varieties.

The theorem can be restated as follows: Let $\operatorname{Pol}(A)$ be the set of polarizations on $A$, and let $\operatorname{End}(A)^{\times}$act on $\operatorname{Pol}(A)$ by $u \mapsto u^{\vee} \circ \lambda \circ u$; then there are only finitely many orbits under this action.

Note that $\operatorname{End}(A)^{\times}=\operatorname{Aut}(A)$. If $u$ is an automorphism of $A$, and $\mathcal{L}$ is an ample invertible sheaf on $A$, the $u^{*} \mathcal{L}$ is also an ample invertible sheaf, and $\lambda_{u^{*} \mathcal{L}}=u^{\vee} \circ \lambda_{\mathcal{L}} \circ u$; thus $\operatorname{End}(A)^{\times}$does act on $\operatorname{Pol}(A)$.

Fix a polarization $\lambda_{0}$ of A , and let $\dagger$ be the Rosati involution on $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ defined by $\lambda_{0}$. The map $\lambda \mapsto \lambda_{0}^{-1} \circ \lambda$ identifies $\operatorname{Pol}(A)$ with a subset of the set $(\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q})^{\dagger}$ of elements of $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ fixed by $\dagger$. Because $\lambda_{0}$ is an isogeny, there exists an isogeny $\alpha: A^{\vee} \rightarrow A$ such that $\alpha \circ \lambda_{0}=n$, some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, and then $\lambda_{0}^{-1}=\left(n_{A}^{-1}\right) \circ \alpha$. Therefore the image of

$$
\operatorname{Pol}(A) \hookrightarrow(\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q})^{\dagger}
$$

lies in $L \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} n^{-1} \operatorname{End}(A)$.
Let $\operatorname{End}(A)^{\times}$act on $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ by

$$
\alpha \mapsto u^{\dagger} \circ \alpha \circ u, \quad u \in \operatorname{End}(A)^{\times}, \quad \alpha \in \operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q} .
$$

Then $L$ is stable under this action, and the $\operatorname{map} \operatorname{Pol}(A) \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ is equivariant for this action, because $u^{\vee} \circ \lambda \circ u \mapsto \lambda_{0}^{-1} \circ u^{\vee} \circ \lambda \circ u=\lambda_{0}^{-1} \circ u^{\vee} \circ \lambda_{0} \circ \lambda_{0}^{-1} \circ \lambda \circ u=$ $u^{\dagger} \circ\left(\lambda_{0}{ }^{-1} \lambda\right) \circ u$.

Note that $\operatorname{deg}\left(\lambda_{0}{ }^{-1} \circ \lambda\right)=\operatorname{deg}\left(\lambda_{0}\right)^{-1} \operatorname{deg}(\lambda)$. Also (see 10.23 , for an endomorphism $\alpha$ of $\mathrm{A}, \operatorname{deg}(\alpha)$ is a fixed power of $\operatorname{Nm}(\alpha)(\operatorname{norm}$ from $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ to $\mathbb{Q})$. Therefore, as $\lambda$ runs through a subset of $\operatorname{Pol}(A)$ of elements with bounded degrees, then $\lambda_{0}{ }^{-1} \circ \lambda$ runs through a subset of $L$ of elements with bounded norms. Thus the theorem is a consequence of the following number theoretic result.
Proposition 15.2. Let $E$ be a finite-dimensional semisimple algebra over $\mathbb{Q}$ with an involution $\dagger$, and let $R$ be an order in $E$. Let $L$ be a lattice in $E$ that is stable under the action $\alpha \mapsto u^{\dagger} \alpha u$ of $R^{\times}$on $E$. Then for any integer $N$, there are only finitely many orbits for the action of $R^{\times}$on

$$
S=\{v \in L \mid \operatorname{Nm}(v) \leq N\},
$$

i.e., $S / R^{\times}$is finite.

An order in $E$ is a subring $R$ of $E$ that is a full lattice, i.e., free of $\operatorname{rank} \operatorname{dim}(E)$ over $\mathbb{Z}$. In the application, $R=\operatorname{End}(A)$.

This proposition will be proved using a general result from the reduction theory of arithmetic subgroups - see below (15.9).

We come now to the second main result of this section. An abelian subvariety $B$ of $A$ is said to be a direct factor of $A$ if there exists an abelian subvariety $C$ of $A$ such that the map $(b, c) \mapsto b+c: B \times C \rightarrow A$ is an isomorphism. Two direct factors $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ of $A$ are said to be isomorphic if there exists an automorphism $\alpha$ of $A$ such that $\alpha(B)=B^{\prime}$.
Theorem 15.3. Up to isomorphism, an abelian variety $A$ has only finitely many direct factors.

Proof. Let $B$ be a direct factor of $A$ with complement $C$ say, and define $e$ to be the composite

$$
A \simeq B \times C \xrightarrow{(b, c) \mapsto(b, 0)} B \times C \simeq A .
$$

Then $e$ is an idempotent (i.e., $e^{2}=e$ ), and $B$ is determined by $e$ because $B \simeq \operatorname{Ker}(1-e)$. Conversely, for any idempotent $e$ of $\operatorname{End}(A)$

$$
A=\operatorname{Ker}(1-e) \times \operatorname{Ker}(e) .
$$

Let $u \in \operatorname{End}(A)^{\times}$. Then $e^{\prime}=u e u^{-1}$ is also an idempotent in $\operatorname{End}(A)$, and $u$ defines an isomorphism

$$
\operatorname{Ker}(1-e) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ker}\left(1-e^{\prime}\right)
$$

Therefore, we have a surjection
$\{\operatorname{idempotents}$ in $\operatorname{End}(A)\} / \operatorname{End}(A)^{\times} \rightarrow\{$ direct factors of $A\} / \approx$, and so the theorem is a consequence of the following number theoretic result.

Proposition 15.4. Let $E$ be a semisimple algebra of finite dimension over $\mathbb{Q}$, and let $R$ be an order in $E$. Then

$$
\{\text { idempotents in } R\} / R^{\times}
$$

is finite (here $R^{\times}$acts on the set of idempotents by conjugation).

This proposition will again be proved using a general result from the reduction theory of arithmetic subgroups (see 15.8), which we now state.

THEOREM 15.5. Let $G$ be a reductive group over $\mathbb{Q}$, and let $\Gamma$ be an arithmetic subgroup of $G(\mathbb{Q})$; let $G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V)$ be a representation of $G$ on a $\mathbb{Q}$-vector space $V$, and let $L$ be a lattice in $V$ that is stable under $\Gamma$. If $X$ is a closed orbit of $G$ in $V$, then $L \cap X$ is the union of a finite number of orbits of $\Gamma$.

Proof. Borel 1969, 9.11. (The theorem is due to Borel and Harish-Chandra, but special cases of it were known earlier.)

REMARK 15.6. (a) By an algebraic group we mean an affine group variety. It is reductive if it has no closed normal connected subgroup $U$ consisting of unipotent elements (i.e., elements such that $u^{n}=1$ for some $n$ ). A connected algebraic group $G$ is reductive if and only if the identity component $Z^{0}$ of its centre is a torus and $G / Z^{0}$ is a semisimple group. For example, $\mathrm{GL}_{n}$ is reductive. The group

$$
B=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
0 & c
\end{array}\right) \right\rvert\, \quad a c \neq 0\right\}
$$

is not reductive, because $U=\left\{\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & b \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)\right\}$ is a closed normal connected subgroup consisting of unipotent matrices.
(b) Let $G$ be an algebraic group over $\mathbb{Q}$. Then $G$ can be realized as a closed subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{Q})$ for some $n$ (this is often taken to be the definition of an algebraic group). Let

$$
\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{Z})=\left\{A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{Z}) \mid \operatorname{det}(A)= \pm 1\right\}
$$

Then $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$ is a group, and we let $\Gamma_{0}=\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{Z}) \cap G(\mathbb{Q})$. A subgroup $\Gamma$ of $G(\mathbb{Q})$ is said to be arithmetic if it is commensurable with $\Gamma_{0}$, i.e., if $\Gamma \cap \Gamma_{0}$ is of finite index in both $\Gamma$ and $\Gamma_{0}$ - this is an equivalence relation. One can show that, although $\Gamma_{0}$ depends on the choice of the embedding $G \hookrightarrow \mathrm{GL}_{n}$, two embeddings give commensurable groups, and hence the notion of an arithmetic subgroup doesn't depend on the embedding. Let

$$
\Gamma(N)=\left\{A \in G(\mathbb{Q}) \mid A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{Z}), \quad A \equiv I \bmod (N)\right\}
$$

Then $\Gamma(N)$ is a subgroup of finite index in $\Gamma_{0}$, and so it is arithmetic. An arithmetic subgroup of this type is said to be a principal congruence subgroup. ${ }^{18}$
(c) A representation of $G$ on a vector space $V$ is a homomorphism $G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V)$ of algebraic groups. We can regard $V$ itself as an algebraic variety (the choice of a basis for $V$ determines an isomorphism $V \approx \mathbb{A}^{n}, n=\operatorname{dim}(V)$ ), and we are given mapping of algebraic varieties

$$
G \times V \rightarrow V .
$$

If $v$ is an element of $V$, then the orbit $G v$ is the image of the map

$$
G \times\{v\} \rightarrow V, g \mapsto g \cdot v .
$$

It is a constructible set, but it need not be closed in general. To check that the orbit is closed, one needs to check that

$$
X\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)=\left\{g v \mid g \in G\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)\right\}
$$

is closed in $V \otimes k^{\text {al }}\left(\approx \mathbb{A}^{n}\right)$. One should interprete $L \cap X$ as $L \cap X\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$.
We give three applications of (15.5).
Application 15.7. Let $G=\mathrm{SL}_{n}$, and let $\Gamma=\mathrm{SL}_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$. Then $G$ acts in a natural way on the space $V$ of quadratic forms in $n$ variables with rational coefficients,

$$
V=\left\{\sum a_{i j} X_{i} X_{j} \mid a_{i j} \in \mathbb{Q}\right\}=\{\text { symmetric } n \times n \text { matrices, coeffs in } \mathbb{Q}\},
$$

— if $q(X)=X A X^{\mathrm{tr}}$, then $(g q)(X)=X \cdot g A g^{\mathrm{tr}} \cdot X^{\mathrm{tr}}$ - and $\Gamma$ preserves the lattice $L$ of such forms with integer coefficients. Let $q$ be a quadratic form with nonzero discriminant $d$, and let $X$ be the orbit of $q$, i.e., the image $G \cdot q$ of $G$ under the map of algebraic varieties $g \mapsto g \cdot q: G \rightarrow V$. The theory of quadratic forms shows that $X\left(\mathbb{Q}^{\text {al }}\right)$ is equal to the set of all quadratic forms (with coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}^{\text {al }}$ ) of discriminant $d$. Clearly this is closed, and so the theorem shows that $X \cap L$ contains only finitely many $\mathrm{SL}_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$-orbits: the quadratic forms with integer coefficients and discriminant $d$ fall into a finite number of proper equivalence classes.

Application 15.8. With the notations of 15.4 , there exists an algebraic group $G$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ with $G(\mathbb{Q})=E^{\times}$which is automatically reductive (this only has to be checked over $\mathbb{Q}^{\text {al }}$; but $E \otimes \mathbb{Q}^{\text {al }}$ is a product of matrix algebras, and so $G_{\mathbb{Q}^{a l}}$ is a product of $\left.\mathrm{GL}_{n} \mathrm{~s}\right)$. Take $\Gamma$ to be the arithmetic subgroup $R^{\times}$of $G(\mathbb{Q}), V$ to be $E$ with $G$ acting by inner automorphisms, and $L$ to be $R$. Then the idempotents in $E$ form a finite set of orbits under $G$, and each of these orbits is closed. In proving these statements we may again replace $\mathbb{Q}$ by $\mathbb{Q}^{\text {al }}$ and assume $E$ to be a product of matrix algebra; in fact, we may take $E=M_{n}(k)$. Then the argument in the proof of 15.3 shows that

$$
\{\text { idempotents in } E\} / E^{\times} \simeq\left\{\text { direct factors of } k^{n}\right\} / \approx .
$$

But, up to isomorphism, there is only one direct factor of $k^{n}$ for each dimension $\leq n$. Thus, each idempotent is conjugate to one of the form $e=\operatorname{diag}(1, \ldots, 1,0, \ldots, 0)$. If $r$ is the number of 1 s , then the orbit of $e$ under $E^{\times}$corresponds to the set of subspaces of

[^18]$k^{n}$ of dimension $r$. The latter is a Grassmann variety, which is complete (e.g., the orbit of $e=\operatorname{diag}(1,0, \ldots, 0)$ corresponds to the set of lines in $k^{n}$ through the origin, i.e., with $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ ), and hence is closed when realized as a subvariety of any variety. Now we can apply Theorem 15.5 to obtain Proposition 15.4 .

Application 15.9. With the notations of 15.2 , let $G$ be the algebraic group over $\mathbb{Q}$ such that

$$
G(\mathbb{Q})=\{a \in E \mid \operatorname{Nm}(a)= \pm 1\}
$$

let $\Gamma=R^{\times}$, let $V=E$, and let $L \subset V$ the lattice in 5.2. One verifies:
(a) $G$ is a reductive group having $\Gamma$ as an arithmetic subgroup;
(b) the orbits of $G$ on $V$ are all closed;
(c) for any rational number $d, V_{d} \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=}\{v \in V \mid \operatorname{Nm}(v)=d\}$ is the union of a finite number of orbits of $G$.

Then (15.5) shows that $L \cap V_{d}$ comprises only finitely many $\Gamma$-orbits, as is asserted by (15.2). For details, see Milne 1986, §18.

## 16 Families of Abelian Varieties

Let $S$ be a variety over $k$. A family of abelian varieties over $S$ is a proper smooth map $\pi: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow S$ with a law of composition

$$
\text { mult: } \mathcal{A} \times_{S} \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}
$$

and a section such that each fibre is an abelian variety. A homomorphism of families of abelian varieties is a regular map $\alpha: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ compatible with the structure maps $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow S$, $\mathcal{B} \rightarrow S$, and with the multiplication maps. Many results concerning abelian varieties extend to families of abelian varieties.

Proposition 16.1 (Rigidity Lemma). Let $S$ be a connected variety, and let $\pi: \mathcal{V} \rightarrow S$ be a proper flat map whose fibres are geometrically connected varieties; let $\pi^{\prime}: \mathcal{V}^{\prime} \rightarrow S$ be a variety over $S$, and let $\alpha: \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}^{\prime}$ be a morphism of varieties over $S$. If for some point $s$ of $S$, the image of the fibre $\mathcal{V}_{s}$ in $\mathcal{V}_{s}^{\prime}$ is a single point, then $f$ factors through $S$ (that is, there exists a map $f^{\prime}: S \rightarrow \mathcal{V}^{\prime}$ such that $\left.f=f^{\prime} \circ \pi\right)$.

Proof. Mumford, D., Geometric Invariant Theory, Springer, 1965, 6.1.

COROLLARY 16.2. (a) Every morphism of families of abelian varieties carrying the zero section into the zero section is a homomorphism.
(b) The group structure on a family of abelian varieties is uniquely determined by the choice of a zero section.
(c) A family of abelian varieties is commutative.

Proof. (a) Apply the proposition to the map $\varphi: \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ defined as in the proof of (1.2).
(b) This follows immediately from (a).
(c) The map $a \mapsto a^{-1}$ is a homomorphism.

The next result is a little surprising: it says that a constant family of abelian varieties can't contain a nonconstant subfamily.

Proposition 16.3. Let $A$ be an abelian variety over a field $k$, and let $S$ be a variety over $k$ such that $S(k) \neq \emptyset$. For any injective homomorphism $\alpha: \mathcal{B} \hookrightarrow A \times S$ of families of abelian varieties over $S$, there is an abelian subvariety $B$ of $A$ (defined over $k$ ) such that $\alpha(\mathcal{B})=B \times S$.

Proof. Let $s \in S(k)$, and let $B=\mathcal{B}_{s}$ (fibre over $s$ ). Then $\alpha_{s}$ identifies $B$ with a subvariety of $A$. The map $h: \mathcal{B} \hookrightarrow A \times S \rightarrow(A / B) \times S$ has fibre $B_{s} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A / B_{s}$ over $s$, which is zero, and so 16.1 shows that $h=0$. It follows that $\alpha(\mathcal{B}) \subset B \times S$. In fact, the two are equal because their fibres over $S$ are connected and have the same dimension.

Recall that a finitely generated extension $K$ of a field $k$ is regular if it is linearly disjoint from $k^{\text {al }}$; equivalently, if $K=k(V)$ for some variety $V$ over $k$.

Corollary 16.4. Let $K$ be a regular extension of a field $k$.
(a) Let $A$ be an abelian variety over $k$. Then every abelian subvariety of $A_{K}$ is defined over $k$.
(b) If $A$ and $B$ are abelian varieties over $k$, then every homomorphism $\alpha$ : $A_{K} \rightarrow B_{K}$ is defined over $k$.

Proof. (a) Let $V$ be a variety over $k$ such that $k(V)=K$. After $V$ has been replaced by an open subvariety, we can assume that $B$ extends to a family of abelian varieties over $V$. If $V$ has a $k$-rational point, then the proposition shows that $B$ is defined over $k$. In any case, there exists a finite Galois extension $k^{\prime}$ of $k$ and an abelian subvariety $B^{\prime}$ of $A_{k^{\prime}}$ such that $B_{K k^{\prime}}^{\prime}=B_{K k^{\prime}}$ as subvarieties of $A_{K k^{\prime}}$. The equality uniquely determines $B^{\prime}$ as a subvariety of $A$. As $\sigma B$ has the same property for any $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\prime} / k\right)$, we must have $\sigma B=B$, and this shows that $B$ is defined over $k$.
(b) Part (a) shows that the graph of $\alpha$ is defined over $k$.

THEOREM 16.5. Let $K / k$ be a regular extension of fields, and let $A$ be an abelian variety over $K$. Then there exists an abelian variety $B$ over $k$ and a homomorphism $\alpha: B_{K} \rightarrow$ $A$ with finite kernel having the following universal property: for any abelian variety $B^{\prime}$ and homomorphism $\alpha^{\prime}: B_{K}^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ with finite kernel, there exists a unique homomorphism $\varphi: B^{\prime} \rightarrow B$ such that $\alpha^{\prime}=\alpha \circ \varphi_{K}$.

Proof. Consider the collection of pairs ( $B, \alpha$ ) with $B$ an abelian variety over $k$ and $\alpha$ a homomorphism $B_{K} \rightarrow A$ with finite kernel, and let $A^{*}$ be the abelian subvariety of $A$ generated by the images the $\alpha$. Consider two pairs $\left(B_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right)$ and $\left(B_{2}, \alpha_{2}\right)$. Then the identity component $C$ of the kernel of $\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right):\left(B_{1} \times B_{2}\right)_{K} \rightarrow A$ is an abelian subvariety of $B_{1} \times B_{2}$, which 16.4 ) shows to be defined over $k$. The map $\left(B_{1} \times B_{2} / C\right)_{K} \rightarrow A$ has finite kernel and image the subvariety of $A$ generated by $\alpha_{1}\left(B_{1}\right)$ and $\alpha_{2}(B)$. It is now clear that there is a pair $(B, \alpha)$ such that the image of $\alpha$ is $A^{*}$. Divide $B$ by the largest subgroup scheme $N$ of $\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)$ to be defined over $k$. Then it is not difficult to see that the pair $(B / N, \alpha)$ has the correct universal property (given $\alpha^{\prime}: B_{K}^{\prime} \rightarrow A$, note that for a suitable $C$ contained in the kernel of $(B / N)_{K} \times B_{K}^{\prime} \rightarrow A$, the map $b \mapsto(b, 0): B / N \rightarrow$ $(B / N) \times B^{\prime} / C$ is an isomorphism).

REMARK 16.6. The pair ( $B, \alpha$ ) is obviously uniquely determined up to a unique isomorphism by the condition of the theorem; it is called the $K / k$-trace of $A$. (For more details on the $K / k$-trace and the reverse concept, the $K / k$-image, see Lang 1959, VIII; Conrad 2006, Kahn|2006, App. A).

## Mordell-Weil theorem.

Recall that, for an elliptic curve $A$ over a number field $K, A(K)$ is finitely generated (Milne) 2006, Chapter IV). More generally, there is the following theorem.
Theorem 16.7. Let $A$ be an abelian variety over a field $K$ that is finitely generated over the prime field. Then $A(K)$ is finitely generated.

Proof. For elliptic curves over $\mathbb{Q}$, this was proved by Mordell; for Jacobian varieties, it was proved by Weil in his thesis (Weil stated his result in terms of curves, since Jacobian varieties hadn't been defined over any fields except $\mathbb{C}$ at the time); it was proved for abelian varieties over number fields by Taniyama; the extension to other fields was made by Lang and Néron. For a proof for abelian varieties over number fields, see Serre 1989, Chapter 4.

Clearly, one needs some condition on $K$ in order to have $A(K)$ finitely generated - if $K$ is algebraically closed, $A(K)_{\text {tors }}$ is never finitely generated. However, Lang and Néron (1959) proved the following result.

Theorem 16.8. Assume $K$ is finitely generated (as a field) over $k$, and that $k$ is algebraically closed in $K$. Let $(B, \alpha)$ be the $K / k$ trace of A. Then $A(K) / \alpha(B)(k)$ is finitely generated.

For proofs, see Conrad 2006; Hindry (App. B to Kahn|2006); Kahn ArXive:math.AG/0703063.

## 17 Néron models; Semistable Reduction

Let $R$ be a discrete valuation ring with field of fractions $K$ and residue field $k$. Let $\pi$ be a prime element of $R$, so that $k=R /(\pi)$. We wish to study the reduction ${ }^{19}$ of an elliptic curve $E$ over $K$. For simplicity, we assume $p \neq 2,3$. Then $E$ can be described by an equation

$$
Y^{2}=X^{3}+a X+b, \quad \Delta \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=} 4 a^{3}+27 b^{2} \neq 0
$$

By making the substitutions $X \mapsto X / c^{2}, Y \mapsto Y / c^{3}$, we can transform the equation to

$$
Y^{2}=X^{3}+a c^{4} X+b c^{6}
$$

and this is essentially the only way we can transform the equation. A minimal equation for $E$ is an equation of this form with $a, b \in R$ for which $\operatorname{ord}(\Delta)$ is a minimum. A minimal equation is unique up to a transformation of the form

$$
(a, b) \mapsto\left(a c^{4}, b c^{6}\right), c \in R^{\times}
$$

Choose a minimal equation for $E$, and let $E_{0}$ be the curve over $k$ defined by the equation $\bmod (\pi)$. There are three cases:

[^19](a) $E_{0}$ is nonsingular, and is therefore is an elliptic curve. This occurs when $\operatorname{ord}(\Delta)=0$. In this case, we say that $E$ has good reduction.
(b) $E_{0}$ has a node. This occurs when $\pi \mid \Delta$ but does not divide both $a$ and $b$. In this case $E_{0}(k)_{\text {nonsing }} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} E_{0}(k)-\{$ node $\}$ is isomorphic to $k^{\times}$as an algebraic group (or becomes so after a quadratic extension of $k$ ), and $E$ is said to have multiplicative reduction.
(c) $E_{0}$ has a cusp. This occurs when $\pi$ divides both $a$ and $b$ (and hence also $\Delta$ ). In this case $E_{0}(k)_{\text {nonsing }}$ is isomorphic to $k^{+}$, and $E$ is said to have additive reduction.

The curve $E$ is said to have semistable reduction when either (a) or (b) occurs. Now suppose we extend the field from $K$ to $L,[L: K]<\infty$, and choose a discrete valuation ring $S$ with field of fractions $L$ such that $S \cap K=R$. When we pass from $K$ to $L$, the minimal equation of $E$ remains minimal in cases (a) and (b), but it may change in case (c). For a suitable choice of $L$, case (c) will become either case (a) or case (b). In other words, if $E$ has good reduction (or multiplicative) reduction over $K$, then the reduction stays good (or multiplicative) over every finite extension $L$; if $E$ has additive reduction, then the reduction can stay additive or it may become good or multiplicative over an extension $L$, and for a suitable extension it will become good or multiplicative.

The proof of the statement is elementary. For example, suppose $E$ has additive reduction, and adjoin a sixth root $\varpi$ of $\pi$ to $K$. Then we can replace the equation by

$$
Y^{2}=X^{3}+\left(a / \varpi^{4}\right) X+\left(b / \varpi^{6}\right)
$$

If both $\operatorname{ord}_{L}\left(a / \varpi^{4}\right)>0$ and $\operatorname{ord}_{L}\left(b / \varpi^{6}\right)>0$, then continue....
These statements extend to abelian varieties, but then become much more difficult to prove.

ThEOREM 17.1 (NÉRON). Let $A$ be an abelian variety over a field $K$ as above. Then there is a canonical way to attach to $A$ an algebraic group $A_{0}$ over $k$.

REMARK 17.2. In fact Néron proves the following: the functor from smooth schemes over $R$,

$$
S \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Spec} K}\left(S \times_{\operatorname{Spec} R} \operatorname{Spec} K, A\right)
$$

is representable by a smooth group scheme $\mathcal{A}$ over $R$. The scheme $\mathcal{A}$ is unique (because of the Yoneda lemma-see AG 1.39 , and we set $A_{0}=\mathcal{A} \times{ }_{\text {Spec } R}$ Spec $k$. The scheme $\mathcal{A}$ is called the Néron model of $A$.

A general theorem on algebraic groups shows that $A_{0}$ has a filtration:

$$
A_{0} \supset\left(A_{0}\right)^{0} \supset\left(A_{0}\right)^{1} \supset 0
$$

with $A_{0} /\left(A_{0}\right)^{0}$ a finite algebraic group $\left(\left(A_{0}\right)^{0}\right.$ is the connected component of $A_{0}$ containing the identity element), $\left(A_{0}\right)^{0} /\left(A_{0}\right)^{1}$ an abelian variety, and $\left(A_{0}\right)^{1}$ a commutative affine group scheme. Again there are three cases to consider:
(a) $A_{0}$ is an abelian variety. In this case $A$ is said to have good reduction.
(b) $\left(A_{0}\right)^{1}$ is a torus ${ }^{20}$, i.e., after a finite extension of $k,\left(A_{0}\right)^{1}$ becomes isomorphic to a product of copies $\mathbb{A}^{1}-\{0\}=k^{\times}$.

[^20](c) $\left(A_{0}\right)^{1}$ contains copies of $\mathbb{A}^{1}=k^{+}$.

The abelian variety $A$ is said to have semistable reduction in case (a) or (b).
Theorem 17.3. If $A$ has good reduction, then $A_{0}$ doesn't change under a finite field extension; if $A$ has semistable reduction, then $\left(A_{0}\right)^{0}$ doesn't change under a finite field extension; $A$ always acquires semistable reduction after a finite extension.

The proofs of these theorems are long and quite difficult. Fortunately, for most purposes one only needs the statements, and these are very believable given what is true for elliptic curves

Notes. The original paper of Néron (1964) is almost unreadable, because it is written in a private language (a relative version of Weil's language). ${ }^{21}$ The article Artin 1986 is too concise. In view of this, the book Bosch et al. 1990 is invaluable. It gives a very complete and detailed treatment of the topic.

## 18 Abel and Jacobi

Abel 1802-29.
Jacobi 1804-1851.
Let $f(X, Y) \in \mathbb{R}[X, Y]$. We can regard the equation $f(X, Y)=0$ as defining $Y$ (implicitly) as a multivalued function of $X$. An integral of the form,

$$
\int g(Y) d X
$$

with $g(Y)$ a rational function, is called an abelian integral, after Abel who made a profound study of them. For example, if $f(X, Y)=Y^{2}-X^{3}-a X-b$, then

$$
\int \frac{d X}{Y}=\int \frac{d X}{\left(X^{3}+a X+b\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}}
$$

is an example of an abelian integral - in this case it is a elliptic integral, which had been studied in the eighteenth century. The difficulty with these integrals is that, unless the curve $f(X, Y)=0$ has genus 0 , they can't be evaluated in terms of the elementary functions.

Today, rather than integrals of multivalued functions, we prefer to think of differentials on a Riemann surface, e.g., the compact Riemann surface (i.e., curve over $\mathbb{C}$ ) defined by $f(X, Y)=0$.

Let $C$ be a compact Riemann surface. Recall Cartan 1963 that $C$ is covered by coordinate neigbourhoods $(U, z)$ where $U$ can be identified with an open subset of $\mathbb{C}$ and $z$ is the complex variable; if $\left(U_{1}, z_{1}\right)$ is a second open set, then $z=u\left(z_{1}\right)$ and $z_{1}=v(z)$ with $u$ and $v$ holomorphic functions on $U \cap U_{1}$. To give a differential form $\omega$ on $C$, one has to give an expression $f(z) d z$ on each $(U, z)$ such that, on $U \cap U_{1}$,

$$
f\left(u\left(z_{1}\right)\right) \cdot u^{\prime}\left(z_{1}\right) \cdot d z_{1}=f_{1}\left(z_{1}\right) \cdot d z_{1} .
$$

[^21]A differential form is holomorphic if each of the functions $f(z)$ is holomorphic (rather than meromorphic). Let $\omega$ be a differential on $C$ and let $\gamma$ be a path in $U \cap U_{1}$; then

$$
\int_{\gamma} f(z) \circ d z=\int_{\gamma} f_{1}\left(z_{1}\right) \circ d z_{1}
$$

Thus, it makes sense to integrate $\omega$ along any path in $C$.
Theorem 18.1. The set of holomorphic differentials on $C$ forms a $g$-dimensional vector space where $g$ is the genus of $C$.

We denote this vector space by $\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)$. If $\omega_{1}, \ldots, \omega_{g}$ is a basis for the space, then every holomorphic differential is a linear combination, $\omega=\Sigma a_{i} \omega_{i}$, of the $\omega_{i}$, and $\int_{\gamma} \omega=$ $a \int_{\gamma} \omega_{i}$; therefore it suffices to understand the finite set of integrals $\left\{\int_{\gamma} \omega_{1}, \ldots, \int_{\gamma} \omega_{g}\right\}$.

Recall (from topology) that $C$ is a $g$-holed torus, and that $H_{1}(C, \mathbb{Z})$ has a canonical basis $\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{2 g}$ - roughly speaking each $\gamma_{i}$ goes once round one hole. The vectors

$$
\pi_{j}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
\int_{\gamma_{j}} \omega_{1} \\
\vdots \\
\int_{\gamma_{j}} \omega_{g}
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{C}^{g}, \quad j=1, \ldots, 2 g
$$

are called the period vectors.
Theorem 18.2. The $2 g$ period vectors are linearly independent over $\mathbb{R}$.
Thus $\mathbb{C}^{g} / \sum \mathbb{Z} \pi_{i}$ is a torus. We shall see that in fact it is an abelian variety (i.e., it has a Riemann form), and that it is the Jacobian variety.

Fix a point $P_{0}$ on $C$. If $P$ is a second point, and $\gamma$ is a path from $P_{0}$ to $P$, then $\omega \mapsto \int_{\gamma} \omega$ is linear map $\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Note that if we replace $\gamma$ with a different path $\gamma^{\prime}$ from $P_{0}$ to $P$, then $\gamma^{\prime}$ differs from $\gamma$ by a loop. If the loop is contractible, then $\int_{\gamma} \omega=\int_{\gamma^{\prime}} \omega$; otherwise the two integrals differ by a sum of periods.

THEOREM 18.3 (JACOBI INVERSION FORMULA). Let $\ell$ be a linear map $\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$; then there exist points $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{g}$ on $C$ and paths $\gamma_{i}$ from $P$ to $P_{i}$ such that

$$
\ell(\omega)=\sum \int_{\gamma_{i}} \omega
$$

for all $\omega \in \Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)$.
Theorem 18.4 (Abel). Let $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r}$ and $Q_{1}, \ldots, Q_{r}$ be points on $C$ (not necessarily distinct). Then there exists a meromorphic function $f$ on $C$ with poles exactly at the $P_{i}$ and zeros exactly at the $Q_{i}$ if and only if, for all paths $\gamma_{i}$ from $P$ to $P_{i}$ and all paths $\gamma_{i}^{\prime}$ from $P$ to $Q_{i}$, there exists an element $\gamma \in H_{1}(C, \mathbb{Z})$ such that

$$
\sum \int_{\gamma_{i}} \omega-\sum \int_{\gamma_{i}^{\prime}} \omega=\int_{\gamma} \omega
$$

for all $\omega \in \Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)$.

Let $\gamma \in H_{1}(C, \mathbb{Z})$; then

$$
\omega \mapsto \int_{\gamma} \omega
$$

is a linear function on the vector space $\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)$, i.e., an element of $\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)^{\vee}$. Thus we have a map

$$
\gamma \mapsto \int_{\gamma}: H_{1}(C, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)^{\vee}
$$

which (18.2) implies is injective. Set

$$
J=\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)^{\vee} / H_{1}(C, \mathbb{Z})
$$

The choice of a basis for $\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)$ identifies $J$ with $\mathbb{C}^{g} / \sum Z \pi_{j}$, which is therefore a complex torus.

THEOREM 18.5. The intersection product

$$
H_{1}(C, \mathbb{Z}) \times H_{1}(C, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}
$$

is a Riemann form on $J$. Hence $J$ is an abelian variety.

Fix a point $P$ on $C$. As we noted above, $\int_{P}^{Q} \omega$ doesn't make sense, because it depends on the choice of a path from $P$ to $Q$. But two choices differ by a loop, and so $\omega \mapsto \int_{P}^{Q} \omega$ is well-defined as an element of

$$
\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)^{\vee} / H_{1}(C, \mathbb{Z})
$$

Thus we have a canonical map $\varphi_{P}: C \rightarrow J$ sending $P$ to 0 .
Now consider the map

$$
\sum n_{i} P_{i} \mapsto\left(\omega \mapsto \sum n_{i} \int_{P}^{P_{i}} \omega\right): \operatorname{Div}^{0}(C) \rightarrow J
$$

The Jacobi inversion formula shows that this map is surjective (in fact it proves more than that). Abel's theorem shows that the kernel of the map is precisely the group of principal divisors. Therefore, the theorems of Abel and Jacobi show precisely that the above map defines an isomorphism

$$
\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C) \rightarrow J
$$

Notes. For more on these topics, see
Griffiths, P., Introduction to Algebraic Curves, AMS, 1989. (Treats algebraic curves over $\mathbb{C}$. Chapter V is on the theorems of Abel and Jacobi.)

Fulton, W., Algebraic Topology, Springer, 1995, especially Chapter 21.

## Chapter II

## Abelian Varieties: Arithmetic

## 1 The Zeta Function of an Abelian Variety

We write $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ for a finite field with $q$ elements, $\mathbb{F}$ for an algebraic closure of $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, and $\mathbb{F}_{q^{m}}$ for the unique subfield of $\mathbb{F}$ with $q^{m}$ elements. Thus the elements of $\mathbb{F}_{q^{m}}$ are the solutions of $c^{q^{m}}=c$.

For a variety $V$ over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, the Frobenius map $\pi_{V}: V \rightarrow V$ is defined to be the identity map on the underlying topological space of $V$ and is the map $f \mapsto f^{q}$ on $\mathcal{O}_{V}$. For example, if $V=\mathbb{P}^{n}=\operatorname{Proj}\left(k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]\right)$, then $\pi_{V}$ is defined by the homomorphism of rings

$$
X_{i} \mapsto X_{i}^{q}: k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right] \rightarrow k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]
$$

and induces the map on points

$$
\left(x_{0}: \cdots: x_{n}\right) \mapsto\left(x_{0}^{q}: \cdots: x_{n}^{q}\right): \mathbb{P}^{n}(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}(\mathbb{F})
$$

For any regular map $\varphi: W \rightarrow V$ of varieties over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, it is obvious that $\varphi \circ \pi_{W}=\pi_{V} \circ \varphi$. Therefore, if $V \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is a projective embedding of $V$, then $\pi_{V}$ induces the map

$$
\left(x_{0}: \ldots: x_{n}\right) \mapsto\left(x_{0}^{q}: \ldots: x_{n}^{q}\right)
$$

on $V(\mathbb{F})$. Thus $V\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$ is the set of fixed points of $\pi_{V}: V(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow V(\mathbb{F})$.
Let $A$ be an abelian variety over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. Then $\pi_{A}$ maps 0 to 0 (because $0 \in V\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$ ), and so it is an endomorphism of $A$. Recall that its characteristic polynomial $P_{\pi}$ is a monic polynomial of degree $2 g, g=\operatorname{dim}(A)$, with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 1.1. Write $P_{\pi}(X)=\prod_{i}\left(X-a_{i}\right)$, and let $N_{m}=\left|A\left(\mathbb{F}_{q^{m}}\right)\right|$. Then
(a) $N_{m}=\prod_{i=1}^{2 g}\left(1-a_{i}^{m}\right)$ for all $m \geq 1$, and
(b) (Riemann hypothesis) $\left|a_{i}\right|=q^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

Hence

$$
\left|N_{m}-q^{m g}\right| \leq 2 g \cdot q^{m\left(g-\frac{1}{2}\right)}+\left(2^{2 g}-2 g-1\right) q^{m(g-1)}
$$

Proof. We first deduce the inequality from the preceding statements. Take $m=1$ in (a) and expand out to get

$$
\left|A\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)\right|=a_{1} \cdots a_{2 g}-\sum_{i=1}^{2 g} a_{1} \cdots a_{i-1} a_{i+1} \cdots a_{2 g}+\cdots
$$

The first term on the right is an integer, and in fact a positive integer because it is $P_{\pi}(0)=$ $\operatorname{deg}(\pi)$, and (b) shows that it has absolute value $q^{g}$. Hence it equals $q^{g}$ (actually, it easy to prove directly that $\operatorname{deg}(\pi)=q^{g}$ ). The Riemann hypothesis shows that each term $a_{1} \cdots a_{i-1} a_{i+1} \cdots a_{2 g}$ has absolute value $=q^{g-\frac{1}{2}}$, and so the sum has absolute value $\leq 2 g \cdot q^{g-\frac{1}{2}}$. There are ( $2^{g}-2 g-1$ ) terms remaining, and each has absolute value $\leq q^{g-1}$, whence the inequality. We first prove (a) in the case $m=1$. The kernel of

$$
\pi-\mathrm{id}: A(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow A(\mathbb{F})
$$

is $A\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$. I claim that the map

$$
(d \pi)_{0}: \operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(A)
$$

is zero - in fact, that this is true for any variety. In proving it, we can replace $A$ with an open affine neighbourhood $U$, and embed $U$ into $\mathbb{A}^{m}$ some $m$ in such a way that 0 maps to the origin 0 . The map $(d \pi)_{0}$ on $\operatorname{Tgt}_{0}(U)$ is the restriction of the map $(d \pi)_{0}$ on $\operatorname{Tgt}_{0}\left(\mathbb{A}^{m}\right)$. But $\pi: \mathbb{A}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^{n}$ is given by the equations $Y_{i}=X_{i}^{q}$, and $d\left(X_{i}^{q}\right)=q X_{i}^{q-1}=0$ (in characteristic $p$ ). We now find that

$$
d(\pi-\mathrm{id})_{0}=(d \pi)_{0}-(d(i d))_{0}=-1
$$

Hence $\pi-1$ is étale at the origin, and so, by homogeneity, it is étale at every point - each point in the kernel occurs with multiplicity 1 . Therefore,

$$
\left|A\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)\right|=\operatorname{deg}(\pi-\mathrm{id}) .
$$

But, from the definition of $P_{\pi}$, we know that

$$
\operatorname{deg}(\pi-\mathrm{id})=P_{\pi}(1)
$$

and this is $\prod\left(1-a_{i}\right)$. When we replace $\pi$ with $\pi^{m}$ in the above argument, we find that

$$
\left|A\left(\mathbb{F}_{q^{m}}\right)\right|=P_{\pi^{m}}(1)
$$

Recall (10.20p that $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{2 g}$ can be interpreted as the eigenvalues of $\pi$ acting on $T_{\ell} A$. Clearly $\pi^{m}$ has eigenvalues $a_{1}^{m}, \ldots, a_{2 g}^{m}$, and so

$$
P_{\pi^{m}}(X)=\prod\left(X-a_{i}^{m}\right), P_{\pi^{m}}(1)=\prod\left(1-a_{i}^{m}\right)
$$

which proves (a) for a general $m$.
Part (b) follows from the next two lemmas.
Lemma 1.2. Let $\dagger$ be the Rosati involution on $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ defined by a polarization of $A$; then $\pi_{A}^{\dagger} \circ \pi_{A}=q_{A}$.

Proof. Let $D$ be the ample divisor on $A$ defining the polarization; thus $\lambda(a)=\left[D_{a}-D\right]$. We have to show that

$$
\pi^{\vee} \circ \lambda \circ \pi=q \lambda
$$

Recall that, on points, $\pi^{\vee}$ is the map

$$
\left[D^{\prime}\right] \mapsto\left[\pi^{*} D^{\prime}\right]: \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(A)
$$

Let $D^{\prime}$ be a divisor on $A$ (or, in fact any variety defined over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ ). If $D^{\prime}=\operatorname{div}(f)$ near $\pi(P)$, then, by definition, $\pi^{*} D^{\prime}=\operatorname{div}(f \circ \pi)$ near $P$. But $\pi(P)=P$ and $f \circ \pi=f^{q}$ (this was the definition of $\pi$ ), and $\operatorname{div}\left(f^{q}\right)=q \operatorname{div}(f)$; thus $\pi^{*} D^{\prime}=q D$. Next observe that, for any homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow A$ and any point $a$ on $A$,

$$
\alpha \circ t_{a}(x)=\alpha(a+x)=\alpha(a)+\alpha(x)=t_{\alpha(a)} \circ \alpha(x)
$$

We can now prove the lemma. For any $a \in A(\mathbb{F})$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\pi^{\vee} \circ \lambda \circ \pi\right)(a) & =\pi^{*}\left[D_{\pi(a)}-D\right] \\
& =\left[\pi^{*} t_{\pi(a)}^{*} D-\pi^{*} D\right] \\
& =\left[\left(t_{\pi(a)} \circ \pi\right)^{*} D-\pi^{*} D\right] \\
& =\left[\left(\pi \circ t_{a}\right)^{*} D-\pi^{*} D\right] \\
& =\left[t_{a}^{*} \pi^{*} D-\pi^{*} D\right] \\
& =\left[t_{a}^{*} q D-q D\right] \\
& =q \lambda(a)
\end{aligned}
$$

as required.

Lemma 1.3. Let $A$ be an abelian variety over a field $k$ (not necessarily finite). Let $\alpha$ be an element of $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ such that $\alpha^{\dagger} \circ \alpha$ is an integer $r$; for any root $a$ of $P_{\alpha}$ in $\mathbb{C},|a|^{2}=r$.

Proof. Note that $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ is a commutative ring of finite-dimension over $\mathbb{Q}$; it is therefore an Artin ring. According to (Atiyah and Macdonald 1969, Chapter 8) ${ }^{1}$, it has only finitely many prime ideals $\mathfrak{m}_{1}, \ldots, \mathfrak{m}_{n}$ each of which is also maximal, every element of $\bigcap \mathfrak{m}_{i}$ is nilpotent, and $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] / \bigcap \mathfrak{m}_{i}$ is a product of fields

$$
\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] / \bigcap \mathfrak{m}_{i}=K_{1} \times \cdots \times K_{n}, \quad K_{i}=\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] / \mathfrak{m}_{i}
$$

We first show that $\bigcap \mathfrak{m}_{i}=0$, i.e., that $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ has no nonzero nilpotents. Note that $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ is stable under the action of $\dagger$. Let $a \neq 0 \in \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$. Then $b \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} a^{\dagger} \cdot a \neq 0$, because $\operatorname{Tr}\left(a^{\dagger} \cdot a\right)>0$. As $b^{\dagger}=b, \operatorname{Tr}\left(b^{2}\right)=\operatorname{Tr}\left(b^{\dagger} \cdot b\right)>0$, and so $b^{2} \neq 0$. Similarly, $b^{4} \neq 0$, and so on, which implies $b$ is not nilpotent, and so neither is $a$. Any automorphism $\tau$ of $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ permutes the maximal ideals $\mathfrak{m}_{i}$; it therefore permutes the factors $K_{i}$, i.e., there is a permutation $\sigma$ of $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ and isomorphisms $\tau_{i}: K_{i} \rightarrow K_{\sigma(i)}$ such that $\tau\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=$ $\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)$ with $b_{\sigma(i)}=\tau_{i}\left(a_{i}\right)$. In the case that $\tau=\dagger, \sigma$ must be the trivial permutation, for otherwise $\operatorname{Tr}\left(a^{\dagger} \cdot a\right)$ would not always be positive (consider $\left(a_{1}, 0,0, \ldots\right)$ if $\sigma(1) \neq$ 1). Hence $\dagger$ preserves the factors of $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$, and is a positive-definite involution on each of them. The involution $\dagger$ extends by linearity (equivalently by continuity) to a positivedefinite involution of $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] \otimes \mathbb{R}$. The above remarks also apply to $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] \otimes \mathbb{R}$ : it is a product of fields, and $\dagger$ preserves each factor and is a positive-definite involution on each of them. But now each factor is isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$ or to $\mathbb{C}$. The field $\mathbb{R}$ has no nontrivial automorphisms at all, and so $\dagger$ must act on a real factor of $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] \otimes \mathbb{R}$ as the identity map. The field $\mathbb{C}$ has only two automorphisms of finite order: the identity map and complex conjugation. The identity

[^22]map is not positive-definite, and so $\dagger$ must act on a complex factor as complex conjugation. We have shown: for any homomorphism $\rho: \mathbb{Q}[\alpha] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \rho\left(\alpha^{\dagger}\right)=\overline{\rho(\alpha)}$. Thus, for any such homomorphism, $r=\rho\left(\alpha^{\dagger} \cdot \alpha\right)=|\rho(\alpha)|^{2}$, and so every root of the minimum polynomial of $\alpha$ in $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] / \mathbb{Q}$ has absolute value $r^{\frac{1}{2}}$. Now 10.24 completes the proof.

REMARK 1.4. We have actually proved the following: $\mathbb{Q}[\pi]$ is a product of fields, stable under the involution $\dagger$; under every map $\tau: \mathbb{Q}[\pi] \rightarrow C, \tau\left(\pi^{\dagger}\right)=\overline{\tau(\pi)}$, and $|\tau \pi|=q^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

The zeta function of a variety $V$ over $k$ is defined to be the formal power series

$$
Z(V, t)=\exp \left(\sum_{m \geq 1} N_{m} \frac{t^{m}}{m}\right), \quad N_{m}=\left|A\left(\mathbb{F}_{q^{m}}\right)\right|
$$

Thus

$$
Z(V, t)=1+\left(\sum_{m \geq 1} N_{m} \frac{t^{m}}{m}\right)+\frac{1}{2}\left(\sum_{m \geq 1} N_{m} \frac{t^{m}}{m}\right)^{2}+\cdots \in \mathbb{Q}[[t]]
$$

Corollary 1.5. Let $P_{r}(t)=\prod\left(1-a_{i}, r\right)$, where the $a_{i, r}$ for a fixed $r$ run through the products $a_{i_{1}} a_{i_{2}} \cdots a_{i_{r}}, 0<i_{1}<\cdots<i_{r} \leq 2 g, a_{i}$ a root of $P(t)$. Then

$$
Z(A, t)=\frac{P_{1}(t) \cdots P_{2 g-1}(t)}{P_{0}(t) P_{2}(t) \cdots P_{2 g-2} P_{2 g}(t)}
$$

Proof. Take the logarithm of each side, and use 1.1 ) and the identity (from calculus)

$$
-\log (1-t)=t+t^{2} / 2+t^{3} / 3+\ldots
$$

REMARK 1.6. (a) The polynomial $P_{r}(t)$ is the characteristic polynomial of $\pi$ acting on $\bigwedge^{r} T_{\ell} A$.
(b) Let $\zeta(V, s)=Z\left(V, q^{-s}\right)$; then (1.1b) implies that the zeros of $\zeta(V, s)$ lie on the lines $\mathfrak{R}(s)=1 / 2,3 / 2, \ldots,(2 g-1) / 2$ and the poles on the lines $\Re(s)=0,1, \ldots, 2 g$, whence its name "Riemann hypothesis".

## 2 Abelian Varieties over Finite Fields

[A future version of the notes will include a complete proof of the Honda-Tate theorem, assuming the Shimura-Taniyama theorem (proved in the next section).]

For a field $k$, we can consider the following category:
objects: abelian varieties over $k$;
morphisms: $\operatorname{Mor}(A, B)=\operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$.
This is called the category of abelian varieties up to isogeny, $\operatorname{Isab}(k)$, over $k$ because two abelian varieties become isomorphic in $\operatorname{Isab}(k)$ if and only if they are isogenous. It is $\mathbb{Q}$-linear category (i.e., it is additive and the Hom-sets are vector spaces over $\mathbb{Q}$ ) and 10.1 implies that every object in $\operatorname{Isab}(k)$ is a direct sum of a finite number of simple objects. In order to describe such a category (up to a nonunique equivalence), it suffices to list the isomorphism classes of simple objects and, for each class, the endomorphism algebra. The
theorems of Honda and Tate, which we now explain, allow this to be done in the case $k=\mathbb{F}_{q}$.

For abelian varieties $A$ and $B$, we use $\operatorname{Hom}^{0}(A, B)$ to denote $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ - it is a finite-dimensional $\mathbb{Q}$-vector space.

Let $A$ be a abelian variety over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, and let $\pi=\pi_{A}$ be the Frobenius endomorphism of $A$. Then $\pi$ commutes with all endomorphisms of $A$, and so lies in the centre of $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$. If $A$ is simple, then $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$ is a division algebra. Therefore, in this case, $\mathbb{Q}[\pi]$ is a field (not merely a product of fields). An isogeny $A \rightarrow B$ of simple abelian varieties defines an isomorphism $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A) \rightarrow \operatorname{End}^{0}(B)$ carrying $\pi_{A}$ into $\pi_{B}$, and hence mapping $\mathbb{Q}\left[\pi_{A}\right]$ isomorphically onto $\mathbb{Q}\left[\pi_{B}\right]$.

Define a Weil $q$-integer to be an algebraic integer such that, for every embedding $\sigma: \mathbb{Q}[\pi] \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C},|\sigma \pi|=q^{\frac{1}{2}}$, and let $W(q)$ be the set of Weil $q$-integers in $\mathbb{C}$. Say that two elements $\pi$ and $\pi^{\prime}$ are conjugate, $\pi \sim \pi^{\prime}$, if any one of the following (equivalent) conditions holds:
(a) $\pi$ and $\pi^{\prime}$ have the same minimum polynomial over $\mathbb{Q}$;
(b) there is an isomorphism $\mathbb{Q}[\pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}\left[\pi^{\prime}\right]$ carrying $\pi$ into $\pi^{\prime}$;
(c) $\pi$ and $\pi^{\prime}$ lie in the same orbit under the action of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{Q}^{\mathrm{al}} / \mathbb{Q}\right)$ on $W(q)$.

For any simple abelian variety $A$, the image of $\pi_{A}$ in $\mathbb{Q}^{\text {al }}$ under any homomorphism $\mathbb{Q}\left[\pi_{A}\right] \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}^{\text {al }}$ is a Weil $q$-integer, well-defined up to conjugacy (see 1.1). The remark above, shows that the conjugacy class of $\pi_{A}$ depends only on the isogeny class of $A$.

TheOrem 2.1. The map $A \mapsto \pi_{A}$ defines a bijection

$$
\left\{\text { simple abelian varieties } / \mathbb{F}_{q}\right\} /(\text { isogeny }) \rightarrow W(q) /(\text { conjugacy }) .
$$

Proof. The injectivity was proved by Tate and the surjectivity by Honda. We discuss the proof below.

To complete the description of $\operatorname{Isab}\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$ in terms of Weil $q$-integers, we have to describe the division algebra $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ in terms of $\pi_{A}$, but before we can do that, we need to review the classification of division algebras over a number field - see CFT Chapter IV.

A central simple algebra over a field $k$ is a $k$-algebra $R$ such that:
(a) $R$ is finite-dimensional over $k$;
(b) $k$ is the centre of $R$;
(c) $R$ is a simple ring (i.e., it has no 2 -sided ideals except the obvious two).

If $R$ is also a division algebra, we call it a central division algebra over $k$.
LEMMA 2.2. If $R$ and $S$ are central simple algebras over $k$, then so also is $R \otimes_{k} S$.

## Proof. See CFT IV 2.8.

For example, if $R$ is a central simple algebra over $k$, then so also is $M_{r}(R)=R \otimes_{k}$ $M_{r}(k)$. Here $M_{r}(R)$ is the $R$-algebra of $r \times r$ matrices with coefficients in $R$.

PROPOSITION 2.3 (WEDDERBURN's THEOREM). Every central simple algebra $R$ over $k$ is isomorphic to $M_{r}(D)$ for some $r \geq 1$ and central division algebra $D$ over $k$; moreover $r$ is uniquely determined by $R$, and $D$ is uniquely determined up to isomorphism.

Proof. CFT IV 1.15, 1.20.

The Brauer group $\operatorname{Br}(k)$ of a field is defined as follows. Its elements are the isomorphism classes of central division algebras over $k$. If $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ are two such algebras, then, according to 2.2, 2.3) $D \otimes_{k} D^{\prime}$ is isomorphic $M_{r}\left(D^{\prime \prime}\right)$ for some central division algebra $D^{\prime \prime}$ over $k$, and we set $[D] \cdot\left[D^{\prime}\right]=\left[D^{\prime \prime}\right]$. This is a group - the identity element is $[k]$, and $[D]^{-1}=\left[D^{\mathrm{opp}}\right]$ where $D^{\mathrm{opp}}$ has the same underlying set and addition, but the multiplication is reversed (if $a b=c$ in $D$, then $b a=c$ in $D^{\mathrm{opp}}$ ).

THEOREM 2.4. For any local field $k$, there is a canonical injective homomorphism

$$
\text { inv: } \operatorname{Br}(k) \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}
$$

If $k$ is nonarchimedean, inv is an isomorphism; if $k=\mathbb{R}$, then the image is $\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z}$; if $k=\mathbb{C}$, then $\operatorname{Br}(k)=0$.

Proof. CFT III 2.1, and IV 4.3.

REMARK 2.5. (a) In fact, $\operatorname{Br}(k)=0$ for any algebraically closed field $k$.
(b) The nonzero element of $\operatorname{Br}(\mathbb{R})$ is represented by the usual (i.e., Hamilton's original) quaternions, $\mathbb{H}=\mathbb{R}+\mathbb{R} i+\mathbb{R} j+\mathbb{R} i j$.

THEOREM 2.6. For a number field $k$, there is an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Br}(k) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{v} \operatorname{Br}\left(k_{v}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0
$$

Here the sum is over all primes of $k$ (including the infinite primes), the first map sends $[D]$ to the family $\left(\left[D \otimes_{k} k_{v}\right]\right)_{v}$, and the second map sends $\left(a_{v}\right)$ to $\sum_{v} \operatorname{inv}\left(a_{v}\right)$.

Proof. See CFT VIII 4.2 - it is no easier to prove than the main theorem of abelian class field theory.

REMARK 2.7. For a number field $k$ and prime $v$, write $\operatorname{inv}_{v}(D)$ for $\operatorname{inv}_{k_{v}}\left(D \otimes k_{v}\right)$. The theorem says that a central division algebra $D$ over $k$ is uniquely determined up to isomorphism by its invariants $\operatorname{inv}_{v}(D)$; moreover, a family $\left(i_{v}\right), i_{v} \in \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$, arises from a central division algebra over $k$ if and only if it satisfies the following conditions,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\diamond & i_{v}=0 \text { for all but finitely many } v, \\
\diamond & i_{v} \in \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z} \text { if } v \text { is real and } i_{v}=0 \text { if } v \text { is complex, and } \\
\diamond \quad \sum_{v} i_{v}=0(\text { in } \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}) .
\end{array}
$$

We need one further result.
THEOREM 2.8. For a central division algebra $D$ over a number field $k$, the order of $[D]$ in $\operatorname{Br}(k)$ is $\sqrt{[D: k]}$. It is also equal to the least common denominator of the numbers $\operatorname{inv}_{v}(D)$.

Proof. Since the order of an element of $\bigoplus_{v} \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ is the least common denominator of its components, the second statement follows directly from Theorem 2.6. The first follows from the Grunwald-Wang theorem (CFT VIII 2.4); see Reiner, I., Maximal Orders, 32.19 [and the next version of CFT].

We now finally state our theorem.
Theorem 2.9. Let $A$ be a simple abelian variety over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$; let $D=\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)$ and let $\pi \in D$ be the Frobenius element of $A$. Then:
(a) The centre of $D$ is $\mathbb{Q}[\pi]$; therefore, $D$ is a central division algebra over $\mathbb{Q}[\pi]$.
(b) For a prime $v$ of $\mathbb{Q}[\pi]$, let $i_{v}=\operatorname{inv}_{v}(D)$. Then $\|\pi\|_{v}=q^{-i_{v}}$ (here $\|\cdot\|_{v}$ is the normalized valuation at the prime $v$; hence $\operatorname{inv}_{v}(D)=1 / 2$ if $v$ is real, $\operatorname{and}_{\operatorname{inv}}^{v}(D)=0$ if $v$ doesn't divide $p$ or $\infty$ ); equivalently,

$$
\operatorname{inv}_{v}(D)=\frac{\operatorname{ord}_{v}(\pi)}{\operatorname{ord}_{v}(q)}\left[\mathbb{Q}[\pi]_{v}: \mathbb{Q}_{p}\right] .
$$

(c) $2 \operatorname{dim}(A)=[D: \mathbb{Q}[\pi]]^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot[\mathbb{Q}[\pi]: \mathbb{Q}]$.

Proof. This was proved by Tate (Inventiones Math. 1966) who, however, neglected to publish the proof of (b) (see Waterhouse and Milne, Proc. Symp. Pure Math., AMS XX, 1971).

The injectivity of the map $A \mapsto\left[\pi_{A}\right]$ in (2.1) follows easily from Tate's theorem:

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \simeq \operatorname{Hom}\left(V_{\ell} A, V_{\ell} B\right)^{\Gamma}, \Gamma=\operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{F} / \mathbb{F}_{q}\right) .
$$

In fact, the canonical generator of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{F} / \mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$ acts on $V_{\ell} A$ and $V_{\ell} B$ as $\pi_{A}$ and $\pi_{B}$ respectively, and these action are semisimple (i.e., over some extension of $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ there exist bases of eigenvectors). It is now an easy exercise in linear algebra to prove that:

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(V_{\ell} A, V_{\ell} B\right)^{\Gamma}=\#\left\{(i, j) \mid a_{i}=b_{j}\right\}
$$

where $P_{\pi_{A}}(X)=\Pi\left(X-a_{i}\right), P_{\pi_{B}}(X)=\Pi\left(X-b_{j}\right)$.
The surjectivity was proved by Honda. I will only sketch the main idea [for the present]. Obviously, we have to construct over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ sufficient abelian varieties to exhaust all the conjugacy classes of Weil numbers, but we can't write the equations for a single abelian variety of dimension $>2$ over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, so how do we proceed? We construct (special) abelian varieties over $\mathbb{C}$, realize them over number fields, and then reduce their equations modulo $p$, to obtain abelian varieties over finite fields.

Recall (Milne 2006, III 3.17) that, for an elliptic curve $A$ over $\mathbb{C}$, either $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)=\mathbb{Q}$ or $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)=E$, a quadratic imaginary number field. The first case is typical; the second is special. In the second case, $A$ is said to have complex multiplication by $E$.

In higher dimensions something similar holds. An algebraic number field $E$ is said to be a $C M$-field ${ }^{2}$ if it is quadratic totally imaginary extension of a totally real field $F$. Equivalent definition: there is an involution $\iota \neq 1$ of $E$ such that for every embedding $\tau: E \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, complex conjugation acts on $\tau E$ as $\tau \iota \tau^{-1}$. An abelian variety $A$ is said to have complex multiplication ${ }^{3}$ by the CM-field $E$ if $E \subset \operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ and
(a) $2 \operatorname{dim} A=[E: \mathbb{Q}]$, and

[^23](b) for some polarization of $A$, the Rosati involution on $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ stabilizes $E$, and acts on it as $\iota$.

Typically, an abelian variety of dimension $g$ over $\mathbb{C}$ has $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)=\mathbb{Q}$; the opposite extreme is that $A$ has complex multiplication (of course, now there are many intermediate possibilities).

Let $A$ be an abelian variety defined over a nonarchimedean local field $k$ (so $k$ is the field of fractions of a complete discrete valuation ring $R$, with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ say; let $R / \mathfrak{m}=$ $\left.k_{0}\right)$. Embed $A$ into projective space $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, and let $\mathfrak{a} \subset k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ be the ideal corresponding to $A$. Let $\mathfrak{a}_{0}$ be the image of $\mathfrak{a} \cap R\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ in $k_{0}\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]=R\left[X_{0}, \ldots\right] / \mathfrak{m} R\left[X_{0}, \ldots\right]$. It defines a variety $A_{0}$ over $k_{0}$. In general $A_{0}$ may be singular, and it may depend on the choice of the embedding of $A$ into projective space. However, if the embedding can be chosen so that $A_{0}$ is nonsingular, then $A_{0}$ is independent of all choices, and it is again an abelian variety. In this case, we say that $A$ has good reduction, and we call $A_{0}$ the reduced variety. When $A$ is an abelian variety over a number field $k$, then we say $A$ has good reduction at a finite prime $v$ of $k$ if $A_{k_{v}}$ has good reduction ( $k_{v}=$ completion of $k$ at $v$ ).

Proposition 2.10. Let $A$ be an abelian variety over $\mathbb{C}$ with complex multiplication by $E$. Then $A$ has a model over some number field $k$, and, after possibly replacing $k$ with a larger number field, $A$ will have good reduction at every prime of $k$.

Proof. Omitted.
We can construct all abelian varieties over $\mathbb{C}$ with complex multiplication by a fixed CM-field $E$ (up to isogeny) as follows. Let $[E: \mathbb{Q}]=2 g$; the embeddings $E \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ fall into $g$ conjugate pairs $\{\varphi, \iota \circ \varphi\}$ (here $\iota$ is complex conjugation on $\mathbb{C}$ ). A $\boldsymbol{C M}$-type for $E$ is a choice of $g$ embeddings $\Phi=\left\{\varphi_{1}, \ldots, \varphi_{g}\right\}$ of $E$ into $\mathbb{C}$, no two of which differ by complex conjugation (thus there are $2^{g}$ different CM-types on $E$ ). Let $\Phi$ also denote the map

$$
E \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{g}, x \mapsto\left(\varphi_{1}(x), \ldots, \varphi_{g}(x)\right)
$$

and define $A=\mathbb{C}^{g} / \Phi\left(\mathcal{O}_{E}\right)$. This is a complex torus, which has a Riemann form, and hence is an abelian variety. Evidently we can let $x \in \mathcal{O}_{E}$ act on $A$ as $\Phi(x)$, and so $A$ has complex multiplication by $E$.

Thus, starting from a CM-field $E$ and a CM-type $\Phi$, we get an abelian variety $A$, initially over $\mathbb{C}$. Proposition 2.10 says that $A$ will be defined over some number field, and moreover (after possibly replacing the number field by a finite extension) it will reduce to an abelian variety over some finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. What is the Weil integer of this abelian variety?

Given a CM-field $E$ and a CM-type $\Phi$, we can a construct a Weil integer as follows. Let $\mathfrak{p}$ be a prime ideal of $E$ lying over $p$. Then $\mathfrak{p}^{h}$ is principal for some $h$, say $\mathfrak{p}^{h}=(a)$. I claim that $\pi \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} \prod_{\varphi \in \Phi} \varphi\left(a^{2 n}\right)$ is Weil $q$-integer for some power $q$ of $p$ and that, if $n$ is taken large enough, it is independent of the choice of the element $a$ generating $\mathfrak{p}^{h}$.

Note first that

$$
\pi \cdot \bar{\pi}=\prod_{\varphi \in \Phi} \varphi\left(a^{2 n}\right) \cdot \overline{\varphi\left(a^{2 n}\right)}=\prod_{\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(E, \mathbb{C})} \varphi\left(a^{2 n}\right)=\left(\operatorname{Nm}_{E / \mathbb{Q}} a^{n}\right)^{2},
$$

which is a positive integer. The ideal

$$
\left(\operatorname{Nm}_{E / \mathbb{Q}} a\right)=\operatorname{Nm}_{E / \mathbb{Q}} \mathfrak{p}=(p)^{f}
$$

where $f=f(\mathfrak{p} / p)$ (residue class field degree) - see ANT 4.1. Thus $\pi \cdot \bar{\pi}=q$, where $q=p^{2 n f(\mathfrak{p} / p)}$. Similarly, one shows that the conjugates of $\pi$ have this property, so that $\pi$ is a Weil $q$-integer.

Next note that the unit theorem (ANT 5.9) implies that

$$
\operatorname{rank}\left(U_{E}\right)=g-1=\operatorname{rank}\left(U_{F}\right)
$$

where $U_{E}$ and $U_{F}$ are the groups of units in $E$ and $F$. Let $n=\left(U_{E}: U_{F}\right)$. A different generator of $\mathfrak{p}^{h}$ will be of the form $a \cdot u, u \in U_{E}$, and $u^{n} \in U_{F}$. But $\left\{\varphi_{1}\left|F, \ldots, \varphi_{g}\right| F\right\}$ is the full set of embeddings of $F$ into $\mathbb{R}$, and so for any $c \in F, \prod_{\varphi \in \Phi} \varphi c=\mathrm{Nm}_{F / \mathbb{Q}} c$; in particular, if $c \in U_{F}$, then $\prod_{\varphi \in \Phi} \varphi c=\mathrm{Nm}_{F / \mathbb{Q}} c$ is a unit in $\mathbb{Z}$, i.e., it is $\pm 1$. Hence $\prod_{\varphi}\left(\varphi(a u)^{2 n}\right)=\pi \cdot \mathrm{Nm}_{F / \mathbb{Q}}\left(u^{n}\right)^{2}=\pi \cdot( \pm 1)^{2}=\pi$.

After this miraculous calculation, it will come as no surprise that:
THEOREM 2.11. Let $A$ be the abelian variety $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ obtained by reduction from an abelian variety of CM-type $(E, \Phi)$. Then the Weil $q$-integer associated to $A$ is that constructed by the above procedure (up to a root of 1 ).

Proof. This is the main theorem of Shimura and Taniyama, Complex Multiplication of Abelian Varieties and its Applications to Number Theory, 1961. For a concise modern exposition, see Milne, J., The fundamental theorem of complex multiplication, arXiv:0705.3446.ם

After these observations, it is an exercise in number theory to prove that the map in (2.1) is surjective. For the details, see (Honda, J. Math. Soc. Japan 20, 1968, 83-95), or, better, (Tate, Séminaire Bourbaki, 1968/69, Exposé 352, Benjamin, New York).

## 3 Abelian varieties with complex multiplication

Include a proof of the Shimura-Taniyama theorem, and a sketch of the whole theory.

## Chapter III

## Jacobian Varieties

This chapter contains a detailed treatment of Jacobian varieties. Sections 2, 5, and 6 prove the basic properties of Jacobian varieties starting from the definition in $\S 1$, while the construction of the Jacobian is carried out in $\S 3$ and $\S 4$. The remaining sections are largely independent of one another.

## 1 Overview and definitions

## Overview

Let $C$ be a nonsingular projective curve over a field $k$. We would like to define an abelian variety $J$, called the Jacobian variety of $C$, such that $J(k)=\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C)$ (functorially). Unfortunately, this is not always possible: clearly, we would want that $J\left(k^{\text {sep }}\right)=\operatorname{Pic}^{0}\left(C_{k^{\text {sep }}}\right)$; but then

$$
J\left(k^{\mathrm{sep}}\right)^{\Gamma}=J(k)=\operatorname{Pic}^{0}\left(C_{k^{\mathrm{sep}}}\right)^{\Gamma}, \Gamma=\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\mathrm{sep}} / k\right)
$$

and it is not always true that $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}\left(C_{k} \text { sep }\right)^{\Gamma}=\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C)$. However, this is true when $C(k) \neq$ $\emptyset$.

ASIDE 1.1. Let C be a category. An object $X$ of C defines a contravariant functor

$$
h_{X}: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{Set}, T \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}(T, X)
$$

Moreover $X \mapsto h_{X}$ defines a functor $\mathrm{C} \rightarrow$ Fun(C, Set) (category of contravariant functors from C to sets). We can think of $h_{X}(T)$ as being the set of " $T$-points" of $X$. It is very easy to show that the functor $X \mapsto h_{X}$ is fully faithful, i.e., $\operatorname{Hom}(X, Y)=\operatorname{Hom}\left(h_{X}, h_{Y}\right)$ - this is the Yoneda Lemma (AG 1.39). Thus $C$ can be regarded as a full subcategory of Fun(C, Set): $X$ is known (up to a unique isomorphism) once we know the functor it defines, and every morphism of functors $h_{X} \rightarrow h_{Y}$ arises from a unique morphism $X \rightarrow Y$. A contravariant functor $F: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow$ Set is said to be representable if it is isomorphic to $h_{X}$ for some object $X$ of C , and $X$ is then said to represent $F$.

## Definition of the Jacobian variety.

For varieties $V$ and $T$ over $k$, set $V(T)=\operatorname{Hom}(T, V)=h_{V}(T)$. For a nonsingular variety $T$,

$$
P_{C}^{0}(T)=\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C \times T) / q^{*} \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(T)
$$

(families of invertible sheaves of degree zero on $C$ parametrized by $T$, modulo trivial families-cf. (4.16)). This is a contravariant functor from the category of varieties over $k$ to the category of abelian groups.

THEOREM 1.2. Assume $C(k) \neq \emptyset$. The functor $P_{C}^{0}$ is represented by an abelian variety $J$.

From (1.1), we know that $J$ is uniquely determined. It is called the Jacobian variety of $C$.

A pointed variety over $k$ is a pair $(T, t)$ with $T$ a variety over $k$ and $t \in T(k)$. We always regard an abelian variety as a pointed variety by taking the distinguished point to be 0 . A divisorial correspondence between two pointed varieties $(S, s)$ and $(T, t)$ is an invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $S \times T$ whose restrictions to $S \times\{t\}$ and $\{s\} \times T$ are both trivial.

Proposition 1.3. Let $P \in C(k)$, and let $J=\operatorname{Jac}(C)$. There is a divisorial correspondence $\mathcal{M}$ on $C \times J$ that is universal in the following sense: for any divisorial correspondence $\mathcal{L}$ on $C \times T$ (some pointed variety $T$ ) such that $\mathcal{L}_{t}$ is of degree 0 for all $t$, there is a regular map $\varphi: T \rightarrow J$ sending the distinguished point of $T$ to 0 and such that $(1 \times \varphi)^{*} \mathcal{M} \approx \mathcal{L}$.

REMARK 1.4. (a) The Jacobian variety is defined even when $C(k)=\emptyset$; however, it then doesn't (quite) represent the functor $P$ (because the functor is not representable). See below.
(b) The Jacobian variety commutes with extension of scalars, i.e., $\operatorname{Jac}\left(C_{k^{\prime}}\right)=(\operatorname{Jac}(C))_{k^{\prime}}$ for any field $k^{\prime} \supset k$.
(c) Let $\mathcal{M}$ be the sheaf in 1.3 ; as $x$ runs through the elements of $J(k), \mathcal{M}_{x}$ runs through a set of representatives for the isomorphism classes of invertible sheaves of degree 0 on $C$.
(d) Fix a point $P_{0}$ in $J(k)$. There is a regular map $\varphi_{P_{0}}: C \rightarrow J$ such that, on points, $\varphi_{P_{0}}$ sends $P$ to $\left[P-P_{0}\right]$; in particular, $\varphi_{P_{0}}$ sends $P_{0}$ to 0 . The map $\varphi_{Q_{0}}$ differs from $\varphi_{P_{0}}$ by translation by $\left[P_{0}-Q_{0}\right]$ (regarded as a point on $J$ ).
(e) The dimension of $J$ is the genus of $C$. If $C$ has genus zero, then $\operatorname{Jac}(C)=0$ (this is obvious, because $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C)=0$, even when one goes to the algebraic closure). If $C$ has genus 1, then $\operatorname{Jac}(C)=C$ (provided $C$ has a rational point; otherwise it differs from $C$ because $\operatorname{Jac}(C)$ always has a point).

## Construction of the Jacobian variety.

Fix a nonsingular projective curve over $k$. For simplicity, assume $k=k^{\text {al }}$. We want to construct a variety such that $J(k)$ is the group of divisor classes of degree zero on $C$. As a first step, we construct a variety whose points are the effective divisors of degree $r$, some $r>0$. Let $C^{r}=C \times C \times \ldots \times C$ ( $r$ copies). A point on $C^{r}$ is an ordered $r$-tuple of points on $C$. The symmetric group on $r$ letters, $S_{r}$, acts on $C^{r}$ by permuting the factors, and the points on the quotient variety $C^{(r)} \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=} C^{r} / S_{r}$ are the unordered $r$-tuples of points on $C$. But an unordered $r$-tuple is just an effective divisor of degree $r, \sum_{i} P_{i}$. Thus

$$
C^{(r)}=\operatorname{Div}^{r}(C) \stackrel{\text { df }}{=}\{\text { effective divisors of degree } r \text { on } C\}
$$

Write $\pi$ for the quotient map $C^{r} \rightarrow C^{(r)},\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r}\right) \mapsto \sum P_{i}$.
Lemma 1.5. The variety $C^{(r)}$ is nonsingular.

Proof. In general, when a finite group acts freely on a nonsingular variety, the quotient will be nonsingular. In our case, there are points on $C^{r}$ whose stabilizer subgroup is nontrivial, namely the points $\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r}\right)$ in which two (or more) $P_{i}$ coincide, and we have to show that they don't give singularities on the quotient variety. The worst case is a point $Q=(P, \ldots, P)$, and here one can show that

$$
\widehat{\mathcal{O}}_{Q} \simeq k\left[\left[\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}\right]\right]
$$

the power series ring in the elementary symmetric functions $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}$ in the $X_{i}$, and this is a regular ring. See 3.2.

Let $\operatorname{Pic}^{r}(C)$ be the set of divisor classes of degree $r$. For a fixed point $P_{0}$ on $C$, the map

$$
[D] \mapsto\left[D+r P_{0}\right]: \operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}^{r}(C)
$$

is a bijection (both $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C)$ and $\operatorname{Pic}^{r}(C)$ are fibres of the map deg: $\operatorname{Pic}(C) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ ). This remains true when we regard $\mathrm{Pic}^{0}(C)$ and $\mathrm{Pic}^{r}(C)$ as functors of varieties over $k$ (see above), and so it suffices to find a variety representing the $\mathrm{Pic}^{r}(C)$.

For a divisor of degree $r$, the Riemann-Roch theorem says that

$$
\ell(D)=r+1-g+\ell(K-D)
$$

where $K$ is the canonical divisor. Since $\operatorname{deg}(K)=2 g-2, \operatorname{deg}(K-D)<0$ and $\ell(K-D)=$ 0 when $\operatorname{deg}(D)>2 g-2$. Thus,

$$
\ell(D)=r+1-g>0, \text { if } r=\operatorname{deg}(D)>2 g-2
$$

In particular, every divisor class of degree $r$ contains an effective divisor, and so the map

$$
\varphi:\{\text { effective divisors of degree } r\} \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}^{r}(C), D \mapsto[D]
$$

is surjective when $r>2 g-2$. We can regard this as a morphism of functors

$$
\varphi: C^{(r)} \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}^{r}(C)
$$

Suppose that we could find a section $s$ to $\varphi$, i.e., a morphism of functors $s$ : $\mathrm{Pic}^{r}(C) \rightarrow$ $C^{(r)}$ such that $\varphi \circ s=\mathrm{id}$. Then $s \circ \varphi$ is a morphism of functors $C^{(r)} \rightarrow C^{(r)}$ and hence by (??) a regular map, and we can form the fibre product:


Then the map from

$$
J^{\prime}(k) \stackrel{\text { df }}{=}\left\{(a, b) \in C^{(r)} \times C^{(r)} \mid a=b, \quad b=s \circ \varphi(a)\right\}
$$

to $\operatorname{Pic}^{r}(C)$ sending $b$ to $\varphi(b)$ is an isomorphism. Thus we will have constructed the Jacobian variety; in fact $J^{\prime}$ will be a closed subvariety of $C^{(r)}$. Unfortunately, it is not possible to find such a section: the Riemann-Roch theorem tells us that, for $r>2 g-2$, each divisor class of degree $r$ is represented by an $(r-g)$-dimensional family of effective divisors, and there is no nice functorial way of choosing a representative. However, it is possible to do this " locally", and so construct $J^{\prime}$ as a union of varieties, each of which is a closed subvariety of an open subvariety of $C^{(r)}$. For the details, see $\S 4$ below.

## Definitions and main statements

Recall that for an algebraic space $S, \operatorname{Pic}(S)$ denotes the group $H^{1}\left(S, \mathcal{O}_{S}^{\times}\right)$of isomorphism classes of invertible sheaves on $S$, and that $S \mapsto \operatorname{Pic}(S)$ is a functor from the category of algebraic spaces over $k$ to that of abelian groups.

Let $C$ be a complete nonsingular curve over $k$. The degree of a divisor $D=n_{i} P_{i}$ on $C$ is $n_{i}\left[k\left(P_{i}\right): k\right]$. Since every invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $C$ is of the form $\mathcal{L}(D)$ for some divisor $D$, and $D$ is uniquely determined up to linear equivalence, we can define $\operatorname{deg}(\mathcal{L})=\operatorname{deg}(D)$. Then

$$
\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}^{n}\right)=\operatorname{deg}(n D)=n \operatorname{deg}(D),
$$

and the Riemann-Roch theorem says that

$$
\chi\left(C, \mathcal{L}^{n}\right)=n \operatorname{deg}(\mathcal{L})+1-g .
$$

This gives a more canonical description of $\operatorname{deg}(\mathcal{L})$ : when $\chi\left(C, \mathcal{L}^{n}\right)$ is written as a polynomial in $n, \operatorname{deg}(\mathcal{L})$ is the leading coefficient. We write $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C)$ for the group of isomorphism classes of invertible sheaves of degree zero on $C$.

Let $T$ be a connected algebraic space over $k$, and let $\mathcal{L}$ be an invertible sheaf on $C \times T$. Then (I 4.2) shows that $\chi\left(C_{t}, \mathcal{L}_{t}^{n}\right)$, and therefore $\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}_{t}\right)$, is independent of $t$; moreover, the constant degree of $\mathcal{L}_{t}$ is invariant under base change relative to maps $T^{\prime} \rightarrow T$. Note that for a sheaf $\mathcal{M}$ on $C \times T,\left(q^{*} \mathcal{M}\right)_{t}$ is isomorphic to $\mathcal{O}_{C_{t}}$ and, in particular, has degree 0 . Let

$$
P_{C}^{0}(T)=\left\{\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}(C \times T) \mid \operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}_{t}\right)=0 \text { all } t\right\} / q^{*} \operatorname{Pic}(T)
$$

Thus $P_{C}^{0}(T)$ is the group of families of invertible sheaves on $C$ of degree 0 parametrized by $T$, modulo the trivial families. Note that $P_{C}^{0}$ is a functor from algebraic spaces over $k$ to abelian groups. It is this functor that the Jacobian attempts to represent.
Theorem 1.6. There exists an abelian variety $J$ over $k$ and a morphism of functors $\iota: P_{C}^{0} \rightarrow J$ such that $\ell: P_{C}^{0}(T) \rightarrow J(T)$ is an isomorphism whenever $C(T)$ is nonempty.

Because $C$ is an algebraic variety, there exists a finite Galois extension $k^{\prime}$ of $k$ such that $C\left(k^{\prime}\right)$ is nonempty. Let $G$ be the Galois group of $k^{\prime}$ over $k$. Then for every algebraic space $T$ over $k, C\left(T_{k^{\prime}}\right)$ is nonempty, and so $\iota\left(T_{k^{\prime}}\right): P_{C}^{0}\left(T_{k^{\prime}}\right) \rightarrow J\left(T_{k^{\prime}}\right)$ is an isomorphism. As

$$
J(T) \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} \operatorname{Mor}_{k}(T, J) \simeq \operatorname{Mor}_{k^{\prime}}\left(T_{k^{\prime}}, J_{k^{\prime}}\right)^{G}=J\left(T_{k^{\prime}}\right)^{G},
$$

we see that $J$ represents the functor $T \mapsto P_{C}^{0}\left(T_{k^{\prime}}\right)^{G}$, and this implies that the pair $(J, \iota)$ is uniquely determined up to a unique isomorphism by the condition in the theorem. The variety $J$ is called the Jacobian variety of $C$. Note that for any field $k^{\prime} \supset k$ in which $C$ has a rational point, $\iota$ defines an isomorphism $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C) \rightarrow J\left(k^{\prime}\right)$.

When $C$ has a $k$-rational point, the definition takes on a more attractive form. A pointed $k$-space is a connected algebraic $k$-space together with an element $s \in S(k)$. Abelian varieties will always be regarded as being pointed by the zero element. A divisorial correspondence between two pointed spaces ( $S, s$ ) and ( $T, t$ ) over $k$ is an invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $S \times T$ such that $\mathcal{L} \mid S \times\{t\}$ and $\mathcal{L} \mid\{s\} \times T$ are both trivial.

Theorem 1.7. Let $P$ be a $k$-rational point on $C$. Then there is a divisorial correspondence $\mathcal{M}^{P}$ between $(C, P)$ and $J$ such that, for every divisorial correspondence $\mathcal{L}$ between $(C, P)$ and a pointed $k$-scheme ( $T, t$ ), there exists a unique morphism $\varphi: T \rightarrow J$ such that $\varphi(t)=0$ and $(1 \times \varphi)^{*} \mathcal{M}^{P} \approx \mathcal{L}$.

Clearly the pair $\left(J, \mathcal{M}^{P}\right)$ is uniquely determined up to a unique isomorphism by the condition in (1.7). Note that each element of $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C)$ is represented by exactly one sheaf $\mathcal{M}_{a}, a \in J(k)$, and the map $\varphi: T \rightarrow J$ sends $t \in T(k)$ to the unique $a$ such that $\mathcal{M}_{a} \approx \mathcal{L}_{t}$. Theorem 1.6 will be proved in $\S 4$. Here we merely show that it implies (1.7).

Lemma 1.8. Theorem 1.6 implies Theorem 1.7.
Proof. Assume there is a $k$-rational point $P$ on $C$. Then for any $k$-space $T$, the projection $q: C \times T \rightarrow T$ has a section $s=(t \mapsto(P, t))$, which induces a map

$$
s^{*}=(\mathcal{L} \mapsto \mathcal{L} \mid\{P\} \times T): \operatorname{Pic}(C \times T) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}(T)
$$

such that $s^{*} q^{*}=$ id. Consequently, $\operatorname{Pic}(C \times T)=\operatorname{Im}\left(q^{*}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Ker}\left(s^{*}\right)$, and so $P_{C}^{0}(T)$ can be identified with

$$
P^{\prime}(T)=\left\{\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}(C \times T) \mid \operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}_{t}\right)=0 \text { all } t, \mathcal{L} \mid\{P\} \times T \text { is trivial }\right\} .
$$

Now assume 1.6. As $C(T)$ is nonempty for all $k$-schemes $T, J$ represents the functor $P_{C}^{0}=P^{\prime}$. This means that there is an element $\mathcal{M}$ of $P^{\prime}(J)$ (corresponding to id: $J \rightarrow J$ under $\iota$ ) such that, for every $k$-scheme $T$ and $\mathcal{L} \in P^{\prime}(T)$, there exists a unique morphism $\varphi: T \rightarrow J$ such that $(1 \times \varphi)^{*} \mathcal{M} \approx \mathcal{L}$. In particular, for each invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $C$ of degree 0 , there is a unique $a \in J(k)$ such that $\mathcal{M}_{a} \approx \mathcal{L}$. After replacing $\mathcal{M}$ with $\left(1 \times t_{a}\right)^{*} \mathcal{M}$ for a suitable $a \in J(k)$, we can assume that $\mathcal{M}_{0}$ is trivial, and therefore that $\mathcal{M}$ is a divisorial correspondence between $(C, P)$ and $J$. It is clear that $\mathcal{M}$ has the universal property required by (1.7).

EXERCISE 1.9. Let $\left(J, \mathcal{M}^{P}\right)$ be a pair having the universal property in 1.7 relative to some point $P$ on C. Show that $J$ is the Jacobian of $C$.

We next make some remarks concerning the relation between $P_{C}^{0}$ and $J$ in the case that $C$ does not have a $k$-rational point.

Remark 1.10. For all $k$-spaces $T, \iota(T): P_{C}^{0}(T) \rightarrow J(T)$ is injective. The proof of this is based on two observations. Firstly, because $C$ is a complete variety $H^{0}\left(C, \mathcal{O}_{C}\right)=k$, and this holds universally: for any $k$-scheme $T$, the canonical map $\mathcal{O}_{T} \rightarrow q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{C \times T}$ is an isomorphism. Secondly, for any morphism $q: X \rightarrow T$ of schemes such that $\mathcal{O}_{T} \xrightarrow{\approx} q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{X}$, the functor $\mathcal{M} \mapsto q^{*} \mathcal{M}$ from the category of locally free $\mathcal{O}_{T}$-modules of finite-type to the category of locally free $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-modules of finite-type is fully faithful, and the essential image is formed of those modules $\mathcal{F}$ on $X$ such that $q_{*} \mathcal{F}$ is locally free and the canonical map $q^{*}\left(q_{*} \mathcal{F}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}$ is an isomorphism. (The proof is similar to that of I 5.16)

Now let $\mathcal{L}$ be an invertible sheaf on $C \times T$ that has degree 0 on the fibres and which maps to zero in $J(T)$; we have to show that $\mathcal{L} \approx q^{*} \mathcal{M}$ for some invertible sheaf $\mathcal{M}$ on $T$. Let $k^{\prime}$ be a finite extension of $k$ such that $C$ has a $k^{\prime}$-rational point, and let $\mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ be the inverse image of $\mathcal{L}$ on $(C \times T)_{k^{\prime}}$. Then $\mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ maps to zero in $J\left(T_{k^{\prime}}\right)$, and so (by definition of $J$ ) we must have $\mathcal{L}^{\prime} \approx q^{*} \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ for some invertible sheaf $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ on $T_{k^{\prime}}$. Therefore $q_{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ is locally free of rank one on $T_{k^{\prime}}$, and the canonical map $q^{*}\left(q_{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ is an isomorphism. But $q_{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ is the inverse image of $q_{*} \mathcal{L}$ under $T^{\prime} \rightarrow T$ (see I 4.2 a ), and elementary descent theory (cf. 1.13 below) shows that the properties of $\mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ in the last sentence descend to $\mathcal{L}$; therefore $\mathcal{L} \approx q^{*} \mathcal{M}$ with $\mathcal{M}=q_{*} \mathcal{L}$.

REMARK 1.11. It is sometimes possible to compute the cokernel to $\iota: P_{C}^{0}(k) \rightarrow J(k)$. There is always an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow P_{C}^{0}(k) \rightarrow J(k) \rightarrow \operatorname{Br}(k)
$$

where $\operatorname{Br}(k)$ is the Brauer group of $k$. When $k$ is a finite extension of $\mathbb{Q}_{p}, \operatorname{Br}(k)=\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$, and it is known (see Lichtenbaum 1969, p130) that that the image of $J(k)$ in $\operatorname{Br}(k)$ is $P^{-1} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z}$, where $P$ (the period of $C$ ) is the greatest common divisor of the degrees of the $k$-rational divisors classes on $C$.

REMARK 1.12. Regard $P_{C}^{0}$ as a presheaf on the large étale site over $C$; then the precise relation between $J$ and $P_{C}^{0}$ is that $J$ represents the sheaf associated with $P_{C}^{0}$ (see Grothendieck|1968, §5).

Finally we show that it suffices to prove (1.6) after an extension of the base field. For the sake of reference, we first state a result from descent theory. Let $k^{\prime}$ be a finite Galois extension of a field $k$ with Galois group $G$, and let $V$ be a variety over $k^{\prime}$. A descent datum for $V$ relative to $k^{\prime} / k$ is a collection of isomorphisms $\varphi_{\sigma}: \sigma V \rightarrow V$, one for each $\sigma \in G$, such that $\varphi_{\sigma \tau}=\varphi_{\sigma} \circ \sigma \varphi_{\tau}$ for all $\sigma$ and $\tau$. There is an obvious notion of a morphism of varieties preserving the descent data. Note that for a variety $V$ over $k, V_{k^{\prime}}$ has a canonical descent datum. If $V$ is a variety over $k$ and $V^{\prime}=V_{k^{\prime}}$, then a descent datum on an $\mathcal{O}_{V^{\prime}}$ module $\mathcal{M}$ is a family of isomorphisms $\varphi_{\sigma}: \sigma \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$ such that $\varphi_{\tau \sigma}=\varphi_{\tau} \tau \varphi_{\sigma}$ for all $\sigma$ and $\tau$.

Proposition 1.13. Let $k^{\prime} / k$ be a finite Galois extension with Galois group $G$.
(a) The map sending a variety $V$ over $k$ to $V_{k^{\prime}}$ endowed with its canonical descent datum defines an equivalence between the category of quasi-projective varieties over $k$ and that of quasi-projective varieties over $k^{\prime}$ endowed with a descent datum.
(b) Let $V$ be a variety over $k$, and let $V^{\prime}=V_{k^{\prime}}$. The map sending an $\mathcal{O}_{V}$-module $\mathcal{M}$ to $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}=\mathcal{O}_{V^{\prime}} \otimes \mathcal{M}$ endowed with its canonical descent datum defines an equivalence between the category of coherent $\mathcal{O}_{V}$-modules and that of coherent $\mathcal{O}_{V^{\prime}}$-modules endowed with a descent datum. Moreover, if $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ is locally free, then so also is $\mathcal{M}$.

Proof. (a) See AG 16.23 .
(b) See Serre 1959, V.20, or Waterhouse 1979, §17. (For the final statement, note that being locally free is equivalent to being flat, and that $V^{\prime}$ is faithfully flat over $V$.)

Proposition 1.14. Let $k^{\prime}$ be a finite separable extension of $k$; if (1.6) is true for $C_{k^{\prime}}$, then it is true for $C$.

Proof. After possibly enlarging $k^{\prime}$, we may assume that it is Galois over $k$ (with Galois group $G$, say) and that $C\left(k^{\prime}\right)$ is nonempty. Let $J^{\prime}$ be the Jacobian of $C_{k^{\prime}}$. Then $J^{\prime}$ represents $P_{C_{k^{\prime}}}^{0}$, and so there is a universal $\mathcal{M}$ in $P_{C}^{0}\left(J^{\prime}\right)$. For any $\sigma \in G, \sigma \mathcal{M} \in P_{C}^{0}\left(\sigma J^{\prime}\right)$, and so there is a unique map $\varphi_{\sigma}: \sigma J^{\prime} \rightarrow J^{\prime}$ such that $\left(1 \times \varphi_{\sigma}\right)^{*} \mathcal{M}=\sigma \mathcal{M}$ (in $P_{C}^{0}\left(\sigma J^{\prime}\right)$ ). One checks directly that $\varphi_{\sigma \tau}=\varphi_{\sigma} \circ \sigma \varphi_{\tau}$; in particular, $\varphi_{\sigma} \varphi_{\sigma^{-1}}=\varphi_{\mathrm{id}}$, and so the $\varphi_{\sigma}$ are isomorphisms and define a descent datum on $J^{\prime}$. We conclude from (1.13) that $J^{\prime}$ has a
model $J$ over $k$ such that the map $P_{C}^{0}\left(T_{k^{\prime}}\right) \rightarrow J\left(T_{k^{\prime}}\right)$ is $G$-equivariant for all $k$-schemes $T$. In particular, for all $T$, there is a map

$$
P_{C}^{0}(T) \rightarrow P_{C}^{0}\left(T_{k^{\prime}}\right)^{G} \stackrel{\approx}{\sim} J\left(k^{\prime}\right)^{G}=J(k) .
$$

To see that the map is an isomorphism when $C(T)$ is nonempty, we have to show that in this case $P_{C}^{0}(T) \rightarrow P_{C}^{0}\left(T_{k^{\prime}}\right)^{G}$ is an isomorphism. Let $s \in C(T)$; then (cf. the proof of (1.8)), we can identify $P_{C}^{0}\left(T_{k^{\prime}}\right)$ with the set of isomorphism classes of pairs $(\mathcal{L}, \alpha)$ where $\mathcal{L}$ is an invertible sheaf on $C \times T_{k^{\prime}}$ whose fibres are of degree 0 and $\alpha$ is an isomorphism $\mathcal{O}_{T_{k^{\prime}}} \xrightarrow{\approx}(s, 1)^{*} \mathcal{L}$. Such pairs are rigid—they have no automorphisms-and so each such pair fixed under $G$ has a canonical descent datum, and therefore arises from an invertible sheaf on $C \times T$.

## 2 The canonical maps from $C$ to its Jacobian variety

Throughout this section, $C$ will be a complete nonsingular curve, and $J$ will be its Jacobian variety (assumed to exist).

Proposition 2.1. The tangent space to $J$ at 0 is canonically isomorphic to $H^{1}\left(C, \mathcal{O}_{C}\right)$; consequently, the dimension of $J$ is equal to the genus of $C$.

Proof. The tangent space $T_{0}(J)$ is equal to the kernel of $J(k[\varepsilon]) \rightarrow J(k)$, where $k[\varepsilon]$ is ring in which $\varepsilon^{2}=0\left(\mathrm{AG}\right.$, Chapter 5). Analogously, we define the tangent space $T_{0}\left(P_{C}^{0}\right)$ to $P_{C}^{0}$ at 0 to be the kernel of $P_{C}^{0}(k[\varepsilon]) \rightarrow P_{C}^{0}(k)$. From the definition of $J$, we obtain a map of $k$-linear vector spaces $T_{0}\left(P_{C}^{0}\right) \rightarrow T_{0}(J)$ which is an isomorphism if $C(k) \neq \emptyset$. Since the vector spaces and the map commute with base change, it follows that the map is always an isomorphism.

Let $C_{\varepsilon}=C_{k[\varepsilon]}$; then, by definition, $P_{C}^{0}(k[\varepsilon])$ is equal to the group of invertible sheaves on $C_{\varepsilon}$ whose restrictions to the closed subscheme $C$ of $C_{\varepsilon}$ have degree zero. It follows that $T_{0}\left(P_{C}^{0}\right)$ is equal to the kernel of $H^{1}\left(C_{\varepsilon}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{\varepsilon}}^{\times}\right) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(C, \mathcal{O}_{C}^{\times}\right)$. The algebraic space $C_{\varepsilon}$ has the same underlying topological space as $C$, but

$$
\mathcal{O}_{C_{\varepsilon}}=\mathcal{O}_{C} \otimes_{k} k[\varepsilon]=\mathcal{O}_{C} \oplus \mathcal{O}_{C} \varepsilon
$$

Therefore we can identify the sheaf $\mathcal{O}_{C_{\varepsilon}}^{\times}$on $C_{\varepsilon}$ with the sheaf $\mathcal{O}_{C}^{\times} \oplus \mathcal{O}_{C} \varepsilon$ on $C$, and so $H^{1}\left(C_{\varepsilon}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{\varepsilon}}^{\times}\right)=H^{1}\left(C, \mathcal{O}_{C}^{\times}\right) \oplus H^{1}\left(C, \mathcal{O}_{C} \varepsilon\right)$. It follows that the map

$$
a \mapsto \exp (a \varepsilon)=1+a \varepsilon: \mathcal{O}_{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{\boldsymbol{C}_{\varepsilon}}^{\times}
$$

induces an isomorphism $H^{1}\left(C, \mathcal{O}_{C}\right) \rightarrow T_{0}\left(P_{C}^{0}\right)$.

Let $P \in C(k)$, and let $\mathcal{L}^{P}$ be the invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}(\Delta-C \times\{P\}-\{P\} \times C)$ on $C \times C$, where $\Delta$ denotes the diagonal. Note that $\mathcal{L}^{P}$ is symmetric and that $\mathcal{L}^{P} \mid C \times\{Q\} \approx$ $\mathcal{L}(Q-P)$. In particular, $\mathcal{L}^{P} \mid\{P\} \times C$ and $\mathcal{L}^{P} \mid C \times\{P\}$ are both trivial, and so $\mathcal{L}^{P}$ is a divisorial correspondence between $(C, P)$ and itself. Therefore, according to 1.7 p there is a unique map $f^{P}: C \rightarrow J$ such that $f^{P}(P)=0$ and $\left(1 \times f^{P}\right)^{*} \mathcal{M}^{P} \approx \mathcal{L}^{P}$. When $J(k)$ is identified with $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C), f^{P}: C(k) \rightarrow J(k)$ becomes identified with the map $Q \mapsto \mathcal{L}(Q) \otimes \mathcal{L}(P)^{-1}$ (or, in terms of divisors, the map sending $Q$ to the linear equivalence
class $[Q-P]$ of $Q-P)$. Note that the map $\sum_{Q} n_{Q} Q \mapsto \sum_{Q} n_{Q} f^{P}(Q)=\left[\sum_{Q} n_{Q} Q\right]$ from the group of divisors of degree zero on $C$ to $J(k)$ induced by $f^{P}$ is simply the map defined by $\iota$. In particular, it is independent of $P$, is surjective, and its kernel consists of the principal divisors.

From its definition (or from the above descriptions of its action on the points) it is clear that if $P^{\prime}$ is a second point on $C$, then $f^{P^{\prime}}$ is the composite of $f^{P}$ with the translation map $t_{\left[P-P^{\prime}\right]}$, and that if $P$ is defined over a Galois extension $k^{\prime}$ of $k$, then $\sigma f^{P}=f^{\sigma P}$ for all $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\prime} / k\right)$.

If $C$ has genus zero, then (1.6) shows that $J=0$. From now on we assume that $C$ has genus $g>0$.

Proposition 2.2. The map $f^{*}: \Gamma\left(J, \Omega_{J}^{1}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(C, \Omega_{C}^{1}\right)$ is an isomorphism.
Proof. As for any group variety, the canonical map $h_{J}: \Gamma\left(J, \Omega_{J}^{1}\right) \rightarrow T_{0}(J)^{\vee}$ is an isomorphism Shafarevich 1994. III, 5.2. Also there is a well known duality between $\Gamma\left(C, \Omega_{C}^{1}\right)$ and $H^{1}\left(C, \mathcal{O}_{C}\right)$. We leave it as an exercise to the reader (unfortunately rather complicated) to show that the following diagram commutes:

(the bottom isomorphism is the dual of the isomorphism in (1.6)).
Proposition 2.3. The map $f^{P}$ is a closed immersion (that is, its image $f^{P}(C)$ is closed and $f^{P}$ is an isomorphism from $C$ onto $f^{P}(C)$ ); in particular, $f^{P}(C)$ is nonsingular.

It suffices to prove this in the case that $k$ is algebraically closed.
Lemma 2.4. Let $f: V \rightarrow W$ be a map of varieties over an algebraically closed field $k$, and assume that $V$ is complete. If the map $V(k) \rightarrow W(k)$ is injective and, for all points $Q$ of $V$, the map on tangent spaces $T_{Q}(V) \rightarrow T_{f Q}(W)$ is injective, then $f$ is a closed immersion.

Proof. The image of $f$ is closed because $V$ is complete, and the condition on the tangent spaces (together with Nakayama's lemma) shows that the maps $\mathcal{O}_{f Q} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{Q}$ on the local rings are surjective.

Proof (of 2.3) We apply the lemma to $f=f^{P}$. If $f(Q)=f\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$ for some $Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$ in $C(k)$, then the divisors $Q-P$ and $Q^{\prime}-P$ are linearly equivalent. This implies that $Q-Q^{\prime}$ is linearly equivalent to zero, which is impossible if $Q \neq Q^{\prime}$ because $C$ has genus $>0$. Consequently, $f$ is injective, and it remains to show that the maps on tangent spaces $\left(d f^{P}\right)_{Q}: T_{Q}(C) \rightarrow T_{f Q}(J)$ are injective. Because $f^{Q}$ differs from $f^{P}$ by a translation, it suffices to do this in the case that $Q=P$. The dual of $\left(d f^{P}\right)_{P}: T_{P}(C) \rightarrow T_{0}(J)$ is clearly

$$
\Gamma\left(J, \Omega^{1}\right) \xrightarrow{f^{*}} \Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right) \xrightarrow{h_{C}} T_{P}(C)^{\vee},
$$

where $h_{C}$ is the canonical map, and it remains to show that $h_{C}$ is surjective. The kernel of $h_{C}$ is $\left\{\omega \in \Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right) \mid \omega(P)=0\right\}=\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}(-P)\right)$, which is dual to $H^{1}(C, \mathcal{L}(P))$. The Riemann-Roch theorem shows that this last group has dimension $g-1$, and so $\operatorname{Ker}\left(h_{C}\right) \neq$ $\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right): h_{C}$ is surjective, and the proof is complete.

We now assume that $k=\mathbb{C}$ and sketch the relation between the abstract and classical definitions of the Jacobian. In this case, $\Gamma\left(C(\mathbb{C}), \Omega^{1}\right.$ ) (where $\Omega^{1}$ denotes the sheaf of holomorphic differentials in the sense of complex analysis) is a complex vector space of dimension $g$, and one shows in the theory of abelian integrals that the map $\sigma \mapsto(\omega \mapsto$ $\left.\int_{\sigma} \omega\right)$ embeds $H_{1}(C(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{Z})$ as a lattice into the dual space $\Gamma\left(C(\mathbb{C}), \Omega^{1}\right)^{\vee}$. Therefore $J^{\mathrm{an}} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} \Gamma\left(C(\mathbb{C}), \Omega^{1}\right)^{\vee} / H_{1}(C(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{Z})$ is a complex torus, and the pairing

$$
H_{1}(C(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{Z}) \times H_{1}(C(\mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}
$$

defined by Poincaré duality gives a nondegenerate Riemann form on $J^{\text {an }}$. Therefore $J^{\text {an }}$ is an abelian variety over $\mathbb{C}$. For each $P$ there is a canonical map $g^{P}: C \rightarrow J^{\text {an }}$ sending a point $Q$ to the element represented by $\left(\omega \mapsto \int_{\gamma} \omega\right)$, where $\gamma$ is any path from $P$ to $Q$. Define $e: \Gamma\left(C(\mathbb{C}), \Omega^{1}\right)^{\vee} \rightarrow J(\mathbb{C})$ to be the surjection in the diagram:

$$
\begin{array}{clll}
\Gamma\left(C(\mathbb{C}), \Omega^{1}\right)^{\vee} & & \text { onto } & J(\mathbb{C}) \\
\simeq \downarrow f^{* \vee} & & \uparrow_{\exp } \\
\Gamma\left(J, \Omega^{1}\right)^{\vee} & \xrightarrow{\simeq} T_{0}(J) .
\end{array}
$$

Note that if $\Gamma\left(C(\mathbb{C}), \Omega^{1}\right)^{\vee}$ is identified with $T_{P}(C)$, then $(d e)_{0}=\left(d f^{P}\right)_{P}$. It follows that if $\gamma$ is a path from $P$ to $Q$ and $\ell=\left(\omega \mapsto \int \gamma_{\gamma} \omega\right)$, then $e(\ell)=f^{P}(Q)$.

Theorem 2.5. The canonical surjection $e: \Gamma\left(C(\mathbb{C}), \Omega^{1}\right)^{\vee} \rightarrow J(C)$ induces an isomorphism $J^{\text {an }} \rightarrow J$ carrying $g^{P}$ into $f^{P}$.

Proof. We have to show that the kernel of $e$ is $H_{1}(C(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{Z})$, but this follows from Abel's theorem and the Jacobi inversion theorem.
(Abel): Let $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r}$ and $Q_{1}, \ldots, Q_{r}$ be elements of $C(\mathbb{C})$; then there is a meromorphic function on $C(\mathbb{C})$ with its poles at the $P_{i}$ and its zeros at the $Q_{i}$ if and only if for any paths $\gamma_{i}$ from $P$ to $P_{i}$ and $\gamma_{i}^{\prime}$ from $P$ to $Q_{i}$ there exists a $\gamma$ in $H_{1}(C(\mathbb{C}), Z)$ such that

$$
\sum \int_{\gamma_{i}} \omega-\sum \int_{\gamma_{i}^{\prime}} \omega=\int_{\gamma} \omega \text { all } \omega .
$$

(Jacobi) Let $\ell$ be a linear mapping $\Gamma\left(C(\mathbb{C}), \Omega^{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Then there exist $g$ points $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{g}$ on $C(\mathbb{C})$ and paths $\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{g}$ from $P$ to $P_{i}$ such that $\ell(\omega)=\sum_{i} \int_{\gamma_{i}} \omega$ for all $\omega \in \Gamma\left(C(\mathbb{C}), \Omega^{1}\right)$.

Let $\ell \in \Gamma\left(C(\mathbb{C}), \Omega^{1}\right)^{\vee}$; we may assume it is defined by $g$ points $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{g}$. Then $\ell$ maps to zero in $J(\mathbb{C})$ if and only if the divisor $\sum P_{i}-g P$ is linearly equivalent to zero, and Abel's theorem shows that this is equivalent to $\ell$ lying in $H_{1}(C(\mathbb{C}), \mathbb{Z})$.

## 3 The symmetric powers of a curve

Both in order to understand the structure of the Jacobian, and as an aid in its construction, we shall need to study the symmetric powers of $C$.

For any variety $V$, the symmetric group $S_{r}$ on $r$ letters acts on the product of $r$ copies $V^{r}$ of $V$ by permuting the factors, and we want to define the $r$ th symmetric power $V^{(r)}$ of $V$ to be the quotient $S_{r} \backslash V^{r}$. The next proposition demonstrates the existence of $V^{(r)}$ and lists its main properties.

A morphism $\varphi: V^{r} \rightarrow T$ is said to be symmetric if $\varphi \sigma=\varphi$ for all $\sigma$ in $S_{r}$.
Proposition 3.1. Let $V$ be a variety over $k$. Then there exists a variety $V^{(r)}$ and a symmetric morphism $\pi: V^{r} \rightarrow V^{(r)}$ having the following properties:
(a) as a topological space, $\left(V^{(r)}, \pi\right)$ is the quotient of $V^{r}$ by $S_{r}$;
(b) for any open affine subset $U$ of $V, U^{(r)}$ is an open affine subset of $V^{(r)}$ and

$$
\Gamma\left(U^{(r)}, \mathcal{O}_{V^{(r)}}\right)=\Gamma\left(U^{r}, \mathcal{O}_{V^{r}}\right)^{S_{r}}
$$

(set of elements fixed by the action of $S_{r}$ ).
The pair $\left(V^{(r)}, \pi\right)$ has the following universal property: every symmetric $k$-morphism $\varphi: V^{r} \rightarrow T$ factors uniquely through $\pi$.

The map $\pi$ is finite, surjective, and separable.
Proof. If $V$ is affine, say $V=\operatorname{Specm}(A)$, define $V^{(r)}$ to be $\operatorname{Specm}\left(\left(A \otimes_{k} \ldots \otimes_{k} A\right)^{S_{r}}\right)$. In the general case, write $V$ as a union $\bigcup U_{i}$ of open affines, and construct $V$ by patching together the $U_{i}^{(r)}$. See Mumford 1970. II, §7, p66, and III, $\S 11, ~ p 112$, for the details.

The pair $\left(V^{(r)}, \pi\right)$ is uniquely determined up to a unique isomorphism by its universal property. It is called the rth symmetric power of $V$.
PROPOSITION 3.2. The symmetric power $C^{(r)}$ of a nonsingular curve is nonsingular.
Proof. We may assume that $k$ is algebraically closed. The most likely candidate for a singular point on $C^{(r)}$ is the image $Q$ of a fixed point $(P, \ldots, P)$ of $S_{r}$ on $C^{r}$, where $P$ is a closed point of C . The completion $\hat{\mathcal{O}}_{P}$ of the local ring at $P$ is isomorphic to $k[[X]]$, and so

$$
\hat{\mathcal{O}}_{(P, \ldots, P)} \approx k[[X]] \hat{\otimes} \ldots \hat{\otimes} k[[X]] \approx k\left[\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}\right]\right]
$$

It follows that $\hat{\mathcal{O}}_{Q} \approx k\left[\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}\right]\right]^{S_{r}}$ where $S_{r}$ acts by permuting the variables. The fundamental theorem on symmetric functions says that, over any ring, a symmetric polynomial can be expressed as a polynomial in the elementary symmetric functions $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}$. This implies that

$$
k\left[\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}\right]\right]^{S_{r}}=k\left[\left[\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}\right]\right]
$$

which is regular, and so $Q$ is nonsingular.
For a general point $Q=\pi\left(P, P, \ldots, P^{\prime}, \ldots\right)$ with $P$ occurring $r^{\prime}$ times, $P^{\prime}$ occurring $r^{\prime \prime}$ times, and so on,

$$
\hat{\mathcal{O}}_{Q} \approx k\left[\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r^{\prime}}\right]\right]^{S_{r^{\prime}}} \hat{\otimes} k\left[\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r^{\prime \prime}}\right]\right]^{S_{r^{\prime \prime}}} \hat{\otimes} \ldots
$$

which the same argument shows to be regular.

Remark 3.3. The reader may find it surprising that the fixed points of the action of $S_{r}$ on $C^{r}$ do not force singularities on $C^{(r)}$. The following remarks may help clarify the situation. Let $G$ be a finite group acting effectively on a nonsingular variety $V$, and supppose that the quotient variety $W=G \backslash V$ exists. Then $V \rightarrow W$ is ramified exactly at the fixed points of the action. A purity theorem Grothendieck 1971, X, 3.1, says $W$ can be nonsingular only if the ramification locus is empty or has pure codimension 1 in $V$. As the ramification locus of $V^{r}$ over $V^{(r)}$ has pure codimension $\operatorname{dim}(V)$, this implies that $V^{(r)}$ can be nonsingular only if $V$ is a curve.

Let $K$ be field containing $k$. If $K$ is algebraically closed, then (3.11) shows that $C^{(r)}(K)=S_{r} \backslash C(K)^{r}$, and so a point of $C^{(r)}$ with coordinates in $K$ is an unordered $r$-tuple of $K$-rational points. This is the same thing as an effective divisor of degree $r$ on $C_{K}$. When $K$ is perfect, the divisors on $C_{K}$ can be identified with those on $C_{K}$ fixed under the action of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\text {al }} / K\right)$. Since the same is true of the points on $C^{(r)}$, we see again that $C^{(r)}(K)$ can be identified with the set of effective divisors of degree $r$ on C. In the remainder of this section we shall show that $C^{(r)}(T)$ has a similar interpretation for any $k$ scheme. (Since this is mainly needed for the construction of $J$, the reader more interested in the properties of $J$ can pass to the section 5 .)

Let $X$ be an algebraic space over $k$. Recall Hartshorne 1977, II 6 p145, that a Cartier divisor $D$ is effective if it can be represented by a family $\left(U_{i}, g_{i}\right)_{i}$ with the $g_{i}$ in $\Gamma\left(U_{i}, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)$. Let $\mathcal{I}(D)$ be the subsheaf of $\mathcal{O}_{X}$ such that $\mathcal{I}(D) \mid U_{i}$ is generated by $g_{i}$. Then $\mathcal{I}(D)=$ $\mathcal{L}(-D)$, and there is an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{I}(D) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{D} \rightarrow 0
$$

where $\mathcal{O}_{D}$ is the structure sheaf of the closed algebraic subspace of $T$ associated with $D$. The closed subspaces arising from effective Cartier divisors are precisely those whose sheaf of ideals can be locally generated by a single element that is not a zero-divisor. We shall often identify $D$ with its associated closed subscheme.

For example, let $T=\mathbb{A}^{1}=$ Specm $k[Y]$, and let $D$ be the Cartier divisor associated with the Weil divisor $n P$, where $P$ is the origin. Then $D$ is represented by $\left(Y^{n}, \mathbb{A}^{1}\right)$, and the associated algebraic subspace is $\operatorname{Specm}\left(k[Y] /\left(Y^{n}\right)\right)$.

Definition 3.4. Let $\pi: X \rightarrow T$ be a morphism of $k$-schemes. A relative effective Cartier divisor on $X / T$ is a Cartier divisor on $X$ that is flat over $T$ when regarded as an subspace of $X$.

Loosely speaking, the flatness condition means that the divisor has no vertical components, that is, no components contained in a fibre. When $T$ is affine, say $T=\operatorname{Specm}(R)$, an algebraic subspace $D$ of $X$ is a relative effective Cartier divisor if and only if there exists an open affine covering $X=\bigcup U_{i}$ and $g_{i} \in \Gamma\left(U_{i}, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)=R_{i}$ such that
(a) $D \cap U_{i}=\operatorname{Specm}\left(R_{i} / g_{i} R_{i}\right)$,
(b) $g_{i}$ is not a zero-divisor, and
(c) $R_{i} / g_{i} R_{i}$ is flat over $R$, for all $i$.

Henceforth all divisors will be Cartier divisors.
Lemma 3.5. If $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ are relative effective divisors on $X / T$, then so also is their sum $D_{1}+D_{2}$.

Proof. It suffices to prove this in the case that $T$ is affine, say $T=\operatorname{Specm}(R)$. We have to check that if conditions (b) and (c) above hold for $g_{i}$ and $g_{i}^{\prime}$, then they also hold for $g_{i} g_{i}^{\prime}$. Condition (b) is obvious, and the flatness of $R_{i} / g_{i} g_{i}^{\prime} R_{i}$ over $R$ follows from the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow R_{i} / g_{i} R_{i} \xrightarrow{g_{i}^{\prime}} R_{i} / g_{i} g_{i}^{\prime} R_{i} \rightarrow R_{i} / g_{i}^{\prime} R_{i} \rightarrow 0
$$

which exhibits it as an extension of flat modules.

REMARK 3.6. Let $D$ be a relative effective divisor on $X / T$. On tensoring the inclusion $\mathcal{I}(D) \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X}$ with $\mathcal{L}(D)$ we obtain an inclusion $\mathcal{O}_{X} \hookrightarrow \mathcal{L}(D)$ and hence a canonical global section $s_{D}$ of $\mathcal{L}(D)$. For example, in the case that $T$ is affine and $D$ is represented as in the above example, $\mathcal{L}(D) \mid U_{i}$ is $g_{i}^{-1} R_{i}$ and $s_{D} \mid U_{i}$ is the identity element in $R_{i}$.

The map $D \mapsto\left(\mathcal{L}(D), s_{D}\right)$ defines a one-to-one correspondence between relative effective divisors on $X / T$ and isomorphism classes of pairs $(\mathcal{L}, s)$ where $\mathcal{L}$ is an invertible sheaf on $X$ and $s \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$ is such that

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X} \xrightarrow{s} \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L} / s \mathcal{O}_{X} \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact and $\mathcal{L} / s \mathcal{O}_{X}$ is flat over $T$.
Observe that, in the case that $X$ is flat over $T, \mathcal{L} / s \mathcal{O}_{X}$ is flat over $T$ if and only if, for all $t$ in $T$, $s$ does not become a zero divisor in $\mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{O}_{X_{t}}$. (Use that an $R$-module $M$ is flat if $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, N)=0$ for all finitely generated modules $N$, and that any such module $N$ has a composition series whose quotients are the quotient of $R$ by a prime ideal; therefore the criterion has only to be checked with $N$ equal to such a module.)

Proposition 3.7. Consider the Cartesian square


If $D$ is a relative effective divisor on $X / T$, then its pull-back to a closed subspace $D^{\prime}$ of $X^{\prime}$ is a relative effective divisor on $X^{\prime} / T^{\prime}$.

Proof. We may assume both $T$ and $T^{\prime}$ are affine, say $T=\operatorname{Specm} R$ and $T^{\prime}=\operatorname{Specm} R^{\prime}$, and then have to check that the conditions (a), (b), and (c) above are stable under the base change $R \rightarrow R^{\prime}$. Write $U_{i}^{\prime}=U \times_{T} T^{\prime}$; clearly $D^{\prime} \cap U_{i}^{\prime}=\operatorname{Specm}\left(R_{i}^{\prime} / g_{i} R_{i}^{\prime}\right)$. The conditions (b) and (c) state that

$$
0 \rightarrow R_{i} \xrightarrow{g_{i}} R_{i} \rightarrow R_{i} / g_{i} R_{i} \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact and that $R_{i} / g_{i} R_{i}$ is flat over $R$. Both assertions continue to hold after the sequence has been tensored with $R^{\prime}$.

Proposition 3.8. Let $D$ be a closed subscheme of $X$, and assume that $D$ and $X$ are both flat over $T$. If $D_{t} \stackrel{d f}{=} D \times_{T}\{t\}$ is an effective divisor on $X_{t} / t$ for all points $t$ of $T$, then $D$ is a relative effective divisor on $X$.

Proof. From the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{I}(D) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{D} \rightarrow 0
$$

and the flatness of $X$ and $D$ over $T$, we see that $\mathcal{I}(D)$ is flat over $T$. The flatness of $\mathcal{O}_{D}$ implies that, for any $t \in T$, the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{I}(D) \otimes_{\mathcal{O}_{T}} k(t) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X_{t}} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{D_{t}} \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact. In particular, $\mathcal{I}(D) \otimes k(t) \stackrel{\approx}{\longrightarrow} \mathcal{I}\left(D_{t}\right)$. As $D_{t}$ is a Cartier divisor, $\mathcal{I}\left(D_{t}\right)$ (and therefore also $\mathcal{I}(D) \otimes k(t))$ is an invertible $\mathcal{O}_{X_{t}}$-module. We now apply the fibre-by-fibre criterion of flatness: if $X$ is flat over $T$ and $\mathcal{F}$ is a coherent $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-module that is flat over $T$ and such that $\mathcal{F}_{t}$ is a flat $\mathcal{O}_{X_{t}}$-module for all $t$ in $T$, then $\mathcal{F}$ is flat over $X$ (Bourbaki 1989, III, 5.4). This implies that $\mathcal{I}(D)$ is a flat $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-module, and since it is also coherent, it is locally free over $\mathcal{O}_{X}$. Now the isomorphism $\mathcal{I}(D) \otimes k(t) \xrightarrow{\approx} \mathcal{I}\left(D_{t}\right)$ shows that it is of rank one. It is therefore locally generated by a single element, and the element is not a zero-divisor; this shows that $D$ is a relative effective divisor.

Let $\pi: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow T$ be a proper smooth morphism with fibres of dimension one. If $D$ is a relative effective divisor on $\mathcal{C} / T$, then $D_{t}$ is an effective divisor on $\mathcal{C}_{t}$, and if $T$ is connected, then the degree of $D_{t}$ is constant; it is called the degree of $D$. Note that $\operatorname{deg}(D)=r$ if and only if $\mathcal{O}_{D}$ is a locally free $\mathcal{O}_{T}$-module of degree $r$.

Corollary 3.9. A closed subspace $D$ of $\mathcal{C}$ is a relative effective divisor on $\mathcal{C} / T$ if and only if it is finite and flat over $T$; in particular, if $s: T \rightarrow C$ is a section to $\pi$, then $s(T)$ is a relative effective divisor of degree 1 on $C / T$.

Proof. A closed subspace of a curve over a field is an effective divisor if and only if it is finite. Therefore (3.8) shows that a closed subspace $D$ of $\mathcal{C}$ is a relative effective divisor on $\mathcal{C} / T$ if and only if it is flat over $T$ and has finite fibres, but such a subspace $D$ is proper over $T$ and therefore has finite fibres if and only if it is finite over $T$ (see Milne 1980, I 1.10, or Hartshorne|1977, III, Ex. 11.3).

When $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ are relative effective divisors on $\mathcal{C} / T$, we write $D \geq D^{\prime}$ if $D \supset D^{\prime}$ as subspaces of $\mathcal{C}$ (that is, $\mathcal{I}(D) \subset \mathcal{I}\left(D^{\prime}\right)$ ).

Proposition 3.10. If $D_{t} \geq D_{t}^{\prime}$ (as divisors on $C_{t}$ ) for all $t$ in $T$, then $D \geq D^{\prime}$.
Proof. Represent $D$ as a pair $(s, \mathcal{L})$ (see 3.6. Then $D \geq D^{\prime}$ if and only if $s$ becomes zero in $\mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{O}_{D^{\prime}}=\mathcal{L} \mid D^{\prime}$. But $\mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{O}_{D^{\prime}}$ is a locally free $\mathcal{O}_{T}$-module of finite rank, and so the support of $s$ is closed subspace of $T$. The hypothesis implies that this subspace is the whole of $T$.

Let $D$ be a relative effective divisor of degree $r$ on $\mathcal{C} / T$. We shall say that $D$ is split if $\operatorname{Supp}(D)=\bigcup s_{i}(T)$ for some sections $s_{i}$ to $\pi$. For example, a divisor $D=\sum n_{i} P_{i}$ on a curve over a field is split if and only if $k\left(P_{i}\right)=k$ for all $i$.

Proposition 3.11. Every split relative effective divisor $D$ on $\mathcal{C} / T$ can be written uniquely in the form $D=\sum n_{i} s_{i}(T)$ for some sections $s_{i}$.

Proof. Let $\operatorname{Supp}(D)=\bigcup_{i} s_{i}(T)$, and suppose that $D \mid s_{i}(T)$ has degree $n_{i}$. Then $D_{t}=$ $\left(\sum n_{i} s_{i}(T)\right)_{t}$ for all $t$, and so (3.10) shows that $D=\sum n_{i} s_{i}(T)$.

Example 3.12. Consider a complete nonsingular curve $C$ over a field $k$. For each $i$ there is a canonical section $s_{i}$ to $q: C \times C^{r} \rightarrow C^{r}$, namely, $\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r}\right) \mapsto\left(P_{i}, P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r}\right)$. Let $D_{i}$ to be $s_{i}\left(C^{r}\right)$ regarded as a relative effective divisor on $C \times C^{r} / C^{r}$, and let $D=\sum D_{i}$. Then $D$ is the unique relative effective divisor $C \times C^{r} / T$ whose fibre over $\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r}\right)$ is $\sum P_{i}$. Clearly $D$ is stable under the action of the symmetric group $S_{r}$, and $D_{\text {can }}=S_{r} \backslash D$ (quotient as a subscheme of $C \times C^{r}$ ) is a relative effective divisor on $C \times C^{(r)} / C^{(r)}$ whose fibre over $D \in C^{(r)}(k)$ is $D$.

For $C$ a complete smooth curve over $k$ and $T$ a $k$-scheme, define $\operatorname{Div}_{C}^{r}(T)$ to be the set of relative effective Cartier divisors on $C \times T / T$ of degree $r$. Proposition 3.7 shows that $\operatorname{Div}_{C}^{r}$ is a functor on the category of $k$-schemes.
Theorem 3.13. For any relative effective divisor $D$ on $(C \times T) / T$ of degree $r$, there is a unique morphism $\varphi: T \rightarrow C^{(r)}$ such that $D=(1 \times \varphi)^{-1}\left(D_{\text {can }}\right)$. Therefore $C^{(r)}$ represents $\operatorname{Div}_{C}^{r}$.

Proof. Assume first that $D$ is split, so that $D=\sum n_{i} s_{i}(T)$ for some sections $s_{i}: T \rightarrow$ $C \times T$. In this case, we define $T \rightarrow C^{r}$ to be the map ( $p \circ s_{1}, \ldots, p \circ s_{1}, p \circ s_{2}, \ldots$ ), where each $s_{i}$ occurs $n_{i}$ times, and we take $\varphi$ to be the composite $T \rightarrow C^{r} \rightarrow C^{(r)}$. In general, we can choose a finite flat covering $\psi: T^{\prime} \rightarrow T$ such that the inverse image $D^{\prime}$ of $D$ on $C \times T^{\prime}$ is split, and let $\varphi^{\prime}: T^{\prime} \rightarrow C^{(r)}$ be the map defined by $D^{\prime}$. Then the two maps $\varphi^{\prime} \circ p$ and $\varphi^{\prime} \circ q$ from $T^{\prime} \times_{T} T^{\prime}$ to $T^{\prime}$ are equal because they both correspond to the same relative effective divisor

$$
p^{-1}\left(D^{\prime}\right)=(\psi \circ p)^{-1}(D)=(\psi \circ q)^{-1}(D)=q^{-1}(D)
$$

on $T^{\prime} \times_{T} T^{\prime}$. Now descent theory (Milne 1980, I, 2.17) shows that $\varphi^{\prime}$ factors through $T$. ם
EXERCISE 3.14. Let $E$ be an effective Cartier divisor of degree $r$ on $C$, and define a subfunctor $\operatorname{Div}_{C}^{E}$ of $\operatorname{Div}_{C}^{r}$ by

$$
\operatorname{Div}_{C}^{E}(T)=\left\{D \in \operatorname{Div}_{C}^{r}(T) \mid D_{t} \sim E \text { all } t \in T\right\} .
$$

Show that $\operatorname{Div}_{C}^{E}$ is representable by $\mathbb{P}(V)$ where $V$ is the vector space $\Gamma(C, \mathcal{L}(E)$ ) (use Hartshorne 1977, II 7.12, and that the inclusion $\operatorname{Div}_{C}^{E} \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Div}_{C}^{r}$ defines a closed immersion $\left.\widetilde{\mathbb{P}}(V) \hookrightarrow C^{(r)}\right)$.

Remark 3.15. Theorem 3.13 says that $C^{(r)}$ is the Hilbert scheme $\operatorname{Hilb}_{C / k}^{P}$ where $P$ is the constant polynomial $r$.

## 4 The construction of the Jacobian variety

${ }^{1}$ In this section, $C$ will be a complete nonsingular curve of genus $g>0$, and $P$ will be a $k$-rational point on C. Recall (1.14), that in constructing $J$, we are allowed to make a finite separable extension of $k$.

[^24]For an algebraic $k$-space $T$, let

$$
P_{C}^{r}(T)=\left\{\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}(C \times T) \mid \operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}_{t}\right)=r \text { all } t\right\} / \sim,
$$

where $\mathcal{L} \sim \mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ means $\mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}^{\prime} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{M}$ for some invertible sheaf $\mathcal{M}$ on T. Let $\mathcal{L}_{r}=\mathcal{L}(r P)$; then $\mathcal{L} \mapsto \mathcal{L} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}_{r}$ is an isomorphism $P_{C}^{0}(T) \rightarrow P_{C}^{r}(T)$, and so, to prove 1.6 , it suffices to show that $P_{C}^{r}$ is representable for some $r$. We shall do this for a fixed $r>2 g$.

Note that there is a natural transformation of functors $f: \operatorname{Div}_{C}^{r} \rightarrow P_{C}^{r}$ sending a relative effective divisor $D$ on $C \times T / T$ to the class of $\mathcal{L}(D)$ (or, in other terms, $(s, \mathcal{L})$ to the class of $\mathcal{L}$ ).

Lemma 4.1. Suppose there exists a section s to $f: \operatorname{Div}_{C}^{r} \rightarrow P_{C}^{r}$. Then $P_{C}^{r}$ is representable by a closed subscheme of $C^{(r)}$.

Proof. The composite $\varphi=s \circ f$ is a natural transformation of functors Div ${ }_{C}^{r} \rightarrow \operatorname{Div}_{C}^{r}$ and $\operatorname{Div}_{C}^{r}$ is representable by $C^{(r)}$, and so $\varphi$ is represented by a morphism of varieties. Define $J^{\prime}$ to be the fibre product,


Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
J^{\prime}(T) & =\left\{(a, b) \in C^{(r)}(T) \times C^{(r)}(T) \mid a=b, a=\varphi b\right\} \\
& =\left\{a \in C^{(r)}(T) \mid a=\varphi(a)\right\} \\
& =\left\{a \in C^{(r)}(T) \mid a=s c, \text { some } c \in P_{C}^{r}(T)\right\} \\
& \approx P_{C}^{r}(T),
\end{aligned}
$$

because $s$ is injective. This shows that $P_{C}^{r}$ is represented by $J^{\prime}$, which is a closed subspace of $C^{(r)}$ because $\Delta$ is a closed immersion.

The problem is therefore to define a section $s$ or, in other words, to find a natural way of associating with a family of invertible sheaves $\mathcal{L}$ of degree $r$ a relative effective divisor. For $\mathcal{L}$ an invertible sheaf of degree $r$ on $C$, the dimension $h^{0}(\mathcal{L})$ of $H^{0}(C, \mathcal{L})$ is $r+1-g$, and so there is an $r-g$ dimensional system of effective divisors $D$ such that $\mathcal{L}(D) \approx \mathcal{L}$. One way to cut down the size of this system is to fix a family $\gamma=\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r-g}\right)$ of $k$ rational points on $C$ and consider only divisors $D$ in the system such that $D \geq D_{\gamma}$, where $D_{\gamma}=\sum P_{i}$. As we shall see, this provides a partial solution to the problem.

Proposition 4.2. Let $\gamma$ be an $(r-g)$-tuple of $k$-rational points on $C$, and let $\mathcal{L}_{\gamma}=$ $\mathcal{L}\left(\sum_{P \in \gamma} P\right)$.
(a) There is an open subvariety $C^{\gamma}$ of $C^{(r)}$ such that, for all $k$-schemes $T$,

$$
C^{\gamma}(T)=\left\{D \in \operatorname{Div}_{C}^{r}(T) \mid h^{0}\left(D_{t}-D_{\gamma}\right)=1, \text { all } t \in T\right\} .
$$

If $k$ is separably closed, then $C^{(r)}$ is the union of the subvarieties $C^{\gamma}$.
(b) For all $k$-schemes $T$, define

$$
P^{\gamma}(T)=\left\{\mathcal{L} \in P_{C}^{r}(T) \mid h^{0}\left(\mathcal{L}_{t} \otimes \mathcal{L}_{\gamma}^{-1}\right)=1 \text {, all } t \in T\right\} .
$$

Then $P^{\gamma}$ is a subfunctor of $P$ and the obvious natural transformation $f: C^{\gamma} \rightarrow P^{\gamma}$ has a section.

Proof. (a) Note that for any effective divisor $D$ of degree $r$ on $C, h^{0}\left(D-D_{\gamma}\right) \geq 1$, and that equality holds for at least one $D$ (for example, $D=D_{\gamma}+Q_{1}+\cdots+Q_{g}$ for a suitable choice of points $Q_{1}, \ldots, Q_{g}$; see the elementary result (5.2p) below). Let $D_{\text {can }}$ be the canonical relative effective divisor of degree $r$ on $C \times C^{(r)} / C^{(r)}$. Then (I 4.2e) applied to $\mathcal{L}\left(D_{\text {can }}-p^{-1} D_{\gamma}\right)$ shows that there is an open subscheme $C^{\gamma}$ of $C^{(r)}$ such that $h^{0}\left(\left(D_{\text {can }}\right)_{t}-D_{\gamma}\right)=1$ for $t$ in $C^{\gamma}$ and $h^{0}\left(\left(D_{\text {can }}\right)_{t}-D_{\gamma}\right)>1$ otherwise. Let $T$ be an algebraic $k$-space, and let $D$ be a relative effective divisor of degree $r$ on $C \times T / T$ such that $h^{0}\left(D_{t}-D_{\gamma}\right)=1$. Then 3.13) shows that there is a unique morphism $\varphi: T \rightarrow C^{(r)}$ such that $(1 \times \varphi)^{-1}\left(D_{\text {can }}\right)=D$, and it is clear that $\varphi$ maps $T$ into $C^{\gamma}$. This proves the first assertion.

Assume that $k$ is separably closed. To show that $C=\bigcup C^{\gamma}$, it suffices to show that $C(k)=\bigcup C^{\gamma}(k)$, or that for every divisor $D$ of degree $r$ on $C$, there exists a $\gamma$ such that $h^{0}\left(D-D_{\gamma}\right)=1$. Choose a basis $e_{0}, \ldots, e_{r-g}$ for $H^{0}(C, \mathcal{L}(D))$, and consider the corresponding embedding $t: C \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{r-g}$. Then $\iota(C)$ is not contained in any hyperplane (if it were contained in $\sum a_{i} X_{i}=0$, then $\sum a_{i} e_{i}$ would be zero on $C$ ), and so there exist $r-g$ points $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r-g}$ on $C$ disjoint from $D$ whose images are not contained in linear subspace of codimension 2 (choose $P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots$ inductively so that $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{i}$ is not contained in a linear subspace of dimension $i-2)$. The $(r-g)$-tuple $\gamma=\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r-g}\right)$ satisfies the condition because

$$
H^{0}\left(C, \mathcal{L}\left(D-\sum P_{j}\right)\right)=\left\{\sum a_{i} e_{i} \mid \sum a_{i} e_{i}\left(P_{j}\right)=0, j=1, \ldots, r-g\right\}
$$

which has dimension $<2$.
(b). Let $\mathcal{L}$ be an invertible sheaf on $C \times T$ representing an element of $P^{\gamma}(T)$. Then $h^{0}\left(D_{t}-D_{\gamma}\right)=1$ for all $t$, and the Reimann-Roch theorem shows that $h^{1}\left(D_{t}-D_{\gamma}\right)=0$ for all $t$. Now I, 4.2e, shows that $\mathcal{M} \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=} q_{*}\left(\mathcal{L} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}_{\gamma}^{-1}\right)$ is an invertible sheaf on $T$ and that its formation commutes with base change. This proves that $P_{C}^{\gamma}$ is a subfunctor of $P_{C}^{r}$. On tensoring the canonical map $q^{*} \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{L} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}_{\gamma}^{-1}$ with $q^{*} \mathcal{M}^{-1}$, we obtain a canonical map $\mathcal{O}_{C \times T} \rightarrow \mathcal{L} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}_{\gamma}^{-1} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{M}^{-1}$. The natural map $\mathcal{L}_{\gamma} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{C}$ induces a map $p^{*} \mathcal{L}_{\gamma}^{-1} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{C \times T}$, and on combining this with the preceding map, we obtain a canonical map $s_{\gamma}: \mathcal{O}_{C \times T} \rightarrow \mathcal{L} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{M}^{-1}$. The pair ( $s_{\gamma}, \mathcal{L} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{M}^{-1}$ ) is a relative effective divisor on $C \times T / T$ whose image under $f$ in $P^{\gamma}(T)$ is represented by $\mathcal{L} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{M}^{-1} \sim \mathcal{L}$. We have defined a section to $C^{\gamma}(T) \rightarrow P^{\gamma}(T)$, and our construction is obviously functorial.

Corollary 4.3. The functor $P^{\gamma}$ is representable by a closed subvariety $J^{\gamma}$ of $C^{\gamma}$.
Proof. The proof is the same as that of 4.1).
Proof (of Theorem 1.6) Now consider two ( $g-r$ )-tuples $\gamma$ and $\gamma^{\prime}$, and define $P^{\gamma, \gamma^{\prime}}$ to be the functor such that $P^{\gamma, \gamma^{\prime}}(T)=P^{\gamma}(T) \cap P^{\gamma^{\prime}}(T)$ for all $k$-schemes $T$. It easy to see
that $P^{\gamma, \gamma^{\prime}}$ is representable by a variety $J^{\gamma, \gamma^{\prime}}$ such that the maps $J^{\gamma, \gamma^{\prime}} \hookrightarrow J^{\gamma}$ and $J^{\gamma, \gamma^{\prime}} \hookrightarrow$ $J^{\gamma^{\prime}}$ defined by the inclusions $P^{\gamma, \gamma^{\prime}} \hookrightarrow P^{\gamma}$ and $P^{\gamma, \gamma^{\prime}} \hookrightarrow P^{\gamma^{\prime}}$ are open immersions.

We are now ready to construct the Jacobian of $C$. Choose tuples $\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{m}$ of points in $C\left(k^{\text {sep }}\right)$ such that $C^{(r)}=\bigcup C^{\gamma_{i}}$. After extending $k$, we can assume that the $\gamma_{i}$ are tuples of $k$-rational points. Define $J$ by patching together the varieties $J^{\gamma_{i}}$ using the open immersions $J^{\gamma_{i}, \gamma_{j}} \hookrightarrow J^{\gamma_{i}}, J^{\gamma_{j}}$. It is easy to see that $J$ represents the functor $P_{C}^{r}$, and therefore also the functor $P_{C}^{0}$. Since the latter is a group functor, $J$ is a group variety. The natural transformations Div ${ }_{C}^{r} \rightarrow P_{C}^{r} \rightarrow P_{C}^{0}$ induce a morphism $C^{(r)} \rightarrow J$, which shows that $J$ is complete and is therefore an abelian variety.

## 5 The canonical maps from the symmetric powers of $C$ to its Jacobian variety

Throughout this section $C$ will be a complete nonsingular curve of genus $g>0$. Assume there is a $k$-rational point $P$ on $C$, and write $f$ for the map $f^{P}$ defined in $\S 2$.

Let $f^{r}$ be the map $C^{r} \rightarrow J$ sending $\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r}\right)$ to $f\left(P_{1}\right)+\cdots+f\left(P_{r}\right)$. On points, $f^{r}$ is the map $\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r}\right) \mapsto\left[P_{1}+\cdots+P_{r}-r P\right]$. Clearly it is symmetric, and so induces a map $f^{(r)}: C^{(r)} \rightarrow J$. We can regard $f^{(r)}$ as being the map sending an effective divisor $D$ of degree $r$ on $C$ to the linear equivalence class of $D-r P$. The fibre of the map $f^{(r)}: C^{(r)}(k) \rightarrow J(k)$ containing $D$ can be identified with the space of effective divisors linearly equivalent to $D$, that is, with the linear system $|D|$. The image of $C^{(r)}$ in $J$ is a closed subvariety $W^{r}$ of $J$, which can also be written $W^{r}=f(C)+\cdots+f(C)(r$ summands).
THEOREM 5.1. (a) For all $r \leq g$, the morphism $f^{(r)}: C^{(r)} \rightarrow W^{r}$ is birational; in particular, $f^{(g)}$ is a birational map from $C^{(g)}$ onto $J$.
(b) Let $D$ be an effective divisor of degree $r$ on $C$, and let $F$ be the fibre of $f^{(r)}$ containing $D$. Then no tangent vector to $C^{(r)}$ at $D$ maps to zero under $\left(d f^{(r)}\right)_{D}$ unless it lies in the direction of $F$; in other words, the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow T_{D}(F) \rightarrow T_{D}\left(C^{(r)}\right) \rightarrow T_{a}(J), \quad a=f^{(r)}(D),
$$

is exact. In particular, $\left(d f^{(r)}\right)_{D}: T_{D}\left(C^{(r)}\right) \rightarrow T_{a}(J)$ is injective if $|D|$ has dimension zero.
The proof will occupy the rest of this section.
For $D$ a divisor on $C$, we write $h^{0}(D)$ for the dimension of

$$
H^{0}(C, \mathcal{L}(D))=\{f \in k(C) \mid(f)+D \geq 0\}
$$

and $h^{1}(D)$ for the dimension of $H^{1}(C, \mathcal{L}(D))$. Recall that

$$
h^{0}(D)-h^{1}(D)=\operatorname{deg}(D)+1-g,
$$

and that $H^{1}(C, \mathcal{L}(D))^{\vee}=H^{0}\left(C, \Omega^{1}(-D)\right)$, which can be identified with the set of $\omega \in$ $\Omega_{k(C) / k}^{1}$ whose divisor $(\omega) \geq D$.
Lemma 5.2. (a) Let $D$ be a divisor on $C$ such that $h^{1}(D)>0$; then there is a nonempty open subset $U$ of $C$ such that $h^{1}(D+Q)=h^{1}(D)-1$ for all points $Q$ in $U$, and $h^{1}(D+Q)=h^{1}(D)$ for $Q \notin U$.
(b) For any $r \leq g$, there is an open subset $U$ of $C^{r}$ such that $h^{0}\left(\sum P_{i}\right)=1$ for all $\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r}\right)$ in $U$.

Proof. (a) If $Q$ is not in the support of $D$, then

$$
H^{1}(C, \mathcal{L}(D+Q))^{\vee}=\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}(-D-Q)\right)
$$

can be identified with the subspace of $\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}(-D)\right)$ of differentials with a zero at $Q$. Clearly therefore we can take $U$ to be the complement of the zero set of a basis of $H^{1}(C, \mathcal{L}(D))$ together with a subset of the support of $D$.
(b) Let $D_{0}$ be the divisor zero on $C$. Then $h^{1}\left(D_{0}\right)=g$, and on applying (a) repeatedly, we find that there is an open subset $U$ of $C^{r}$ such that $h^{1}\left(\sum P_{i}\right)=g-r$ for all $\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r}\right)$ in $U$. The Riemann-Roch theorem now shows that $h^{0}\left(\sum P_{i}\right)=r+(1-g)+(g-r)=1$ for all $\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{r}\right)$ in $U$.

In proving (5.1), we can assume that $k$ is algebraically closed. If $U^{\prime}$ is the image in $C^{(r)}$ of the set $U$ in 5.2b), then $f^{(r)}: C^{(r)}(k) \rightarrow J(k)$ is injective on $U^{\prime}(k)$, and so $f^{(r)}: C^{(r)} \rightarrow W^{r}$ must either be birational or else purely inseparable of degree $>1$. The second possibility is excluded by part (b) of the theorem, but before we can prove that we need another proposition.

PROPOSITION 5.3. (a) For all $r \geq 1$, there are canonical isomorphisms

$$
\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right) \stackrel{\simeq}{\longrightarrow} \Gamma\left(C^{r}, \Omega^{1}\right)^{S_{r}} \xrightarrow{\simeq} \Gamma\left(C^{(r)}, \Omega^{1}\right)
$$

Let $\omega \in \Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)$ correspond to $\omega^{\prime} \in \Gamma\left(C^{(r)}, \Omega^{1}\right)$; then for any effective divisor $D$ of degree $r$ on $C,(\omega) \geq D$ if and only if $\omega^{\prime}$ has a zero at $D$.
(b) For all $r \geq 1$, the map $f^{(r) *}: \Gamma\left(J, \Omega^{1}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(C^{(r)}, \Omega^{1}\right)$ is an isomorphism.

A global 1-form on a product of projective varieties is a sum of global 1-forms on the factors. Therefore $\Gamma\left(C^{r}, \Omega^{1}\right)=\bigoplus_{i} p_{i}^{*} \Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)$, where the $p_{i}$ are the projection maps onto the factors, and so it is clear that the map $\omega \mapsto \sum p_{i}^{*} \omega$ identifies $\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)$ with $\Gamma\left(C^{r}, \Omega^{1}\right)^{S_{r}}$. Because $\pi: C^{r} \rightarrow C^{(r)}$ is separable, $\pi^{*}: \Gamma\left(C^{(r)}, \Omega^{1}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(C^{r}, \Omega^{1}\right)$ is injective, and its image is obviously fixed by the action of $S_{r}$. The composite map

$$
\Gamma\left(J, \Omega^{1}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(C^{(r)}, \Omega^{1}\right) \hookrightarrow \Gamma\left(C^{r}, \Omega^{1}\right)^{S_{r}} \simeq \Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)
$$

sends $\omega$ to the element $\omega^{\prime}$ of $\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)$ such that $f^{r *} \omega=\sum p_{i}^{*} \omega^{\prime}$. As $f^{r}=\sum f \circ p_{i}$, clearly $\omega^{\prime}=f^{*} \omega$, and so the composite map is $f^{*}$ which we know to be an isomorphism (2.2). This proves that both maps in the above sequence are isomorphisms. It also completes the proof of the proposition except for the second part of (a), and for this we need a combinatorial lemma.

Lemma 5.4. Let $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}$ be the elementary symmetric polynomials in $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}$, and let $\tau_{j}=\sum X_{i}^{j} d X_{i}$. Then

$$
\sigma_{m} \tau_{0}-\sigma_{m-1} \tau_{1}+\cdots+(-1)^{m} \tau_{m}=d \sigma_{m+1}, \text { all } m \leq r-1
$$

Proof. Let $\sigma_{m}(i)$ be the $m$ th elementary symmetric polynomial in the variables

$$
X_{1}, \ldots, X_{i-1}, X_{i+1}, \ldots, X_{r}
$$

Then

$$
\sigma_{m-n}=\sigma_{m-n}(i)+X_{i} \sigma_{m-n-1}(i),
$$

and on multiplying this by $(-1)^{n} X_{i}^{n}$ and summing over $n$ (so that the successive terms cancel out) we obtain the identity

$$
\sigma_{m}-\sigma_{m-1} X_{i}+\cdots+(-1)^{m} X_{i}^{m}=\sigma_{m}(i)
$$

On multiplying this with $d X_{i}$ and summing, we get the required identity.
We now complete the proof of 5.3 . First let $D=r Q$. Then $\hat{\mathcal{O}}_{Q}=k[[X]]$ and $\hat{\mathcal{O}}_{D}=k\left[\left[\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}\right]\right]$ (see the proof of $\sqrt{3.2}$; by $\mathcal{O}_{D}$ we mean the local ring at the point $D$ on $\left.C^{(r)}\right)$. If $\omega=\left(a_{0}+a_{1} X+a_{2} X^{2}+\cdots\right) d X, a_{i} \in k$, when regarded as an element of $\Omega_{\hat{\mathcal{O}}_{Q} / k}^{1}$, then $\omega^{\prime}=a_{0} \tau_{0}+a_{1} \tau_{1}+\cdots$. We know that $\left\{d \sigma_{1}, \ldots, d \sigma_{r}\right\}$ is a basis for $\Omega_{\hat{\mathcal{O}}_{Q} / k}^{1}$ as an $\hat{\mathcal{O}}_{D}$-module, but the lemma shows that $\tau_{0}, \ldots, \tau_{r-1}$ is also a basis. Now $(\omega) \geq D$ and $\omega^{\prime}(D)=0$ are both obviously equivalent to $a_{0}=a_{1}=\cdots=a_{r-1}=0$. The proof for other divisors is similar.

We finally prove the exactness of the sequence in (5.1). The injectivity of $(d i)_{D}$ follows from the fact that $i: F \hookrightarrow C^{(r)}$ is a closed immersion. Moreover the sequence is a complex because $f \circ i$ is the constant map $x \mapsto a$. It remains to show that

$$
\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Im}(d i)_{D}=\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Ker}\left(d f^{(r)}\right)_{D}
$$

Identify $T_{a}(J)^{\vee}$ with $\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}\right)$ using the isomorphisms arising from 2.1. Then 5.3 ) shows that $\omega$ is zero on the image of $T_{D}\left(C^{(r)}\right)$ if and only if $(\omega) \geq D$, that is, $\omega \in$ $\Gamma\left(C, \Omega^{1}(-D)\right)$. Therefore the image of $\left(d f^{(r)}\right)_{D}$ has dimension $g-h^{0}\left(\Omega^{1}(-D)\right)=$ $g-h^{1}(D)$, and so its kernel has dimension $r-g+h^{1}(D)$. On the other hand, the image of $(d i)_{D}$ has dimension $|D|$. The Riemann-Roch theorem says precisely that these two numbers are equal, and so completes the proof.

Corollary 5.5. For all $r \leq g, f^{r}: C^{r} \rightarrow W^{r}$ has degree $r!$.

Proof. It is the composite of $\pi: C^{r} \rightarrow C^{(r)}$ and $f^{(r)}$.

REMARK 5.6. (a) The theorem shows that $J$ is the unique abelian variety birationally equivalent to $C^{(g)}$. This observation is the basis of Weil's construction of the Jacobian. (See §7.)
(b) The exact sequence in 5.1p) can be regarded as a geometric statement of the Riemann-Roch theorem (see especially the end of the proof). In fact it is possible to prove the Riemann-Roch theorem this way (see Mattuck and Mayer 1963).
(c) As we observed above, the fibre of $f^{(r)}: C^{(r)}(k) \rightarrow J(k)$ containing $D$ can be identified with the linear system $|D|$. More precisely, the fibre of the map of functors $C^{(r)} \rightarrow J$ is the functor $\operatorname{Div}_{C}^{D}$ of 3.14 ; therefore the fibre of $f^{(r)}$ containing $D$ (in the sense of algebraic spaces) is a copy of projective space of dimension $h^{0}(D)-1$. Corollary 3.10 of Chapter I shows that conversely every copy of projective space in $C^{(r)}$ is contained in some fibre of $f^{(r)}$. Consequently, the closed points of the Jacobian can be identified with the set of maximal subvarieties of $C^{(r)}$ isomorphic to projective space.

Note that for $r>2 g-2,|D|$ has dimension $r-g$, and so $\left(d f^{(r)}\right)_{D}$ is surjective, for all $D$. Therefore $f^{(r)}$ is smooth (see Hartshorne 1977, III 10.4), and the fibres of $f^{(r)}$ are precisely the copies of $\mathbb{P}^{r-g}$ contained in $C^{(r)}$. This last observation is the starting point of Chow's construction of the Jacobian Chow 1954 .

## 6 The Jacobian variety as Albanese variety; autoduality

Throughout this section $C$ will be a complete nonsingular curve of genus $g>0$ over a field $k$, and $J$ will be its Jacobian variety.

Proposition 6.1. Let $P$ be a $k$-rational point on $C$. The map $f^{P}: C \rightarrow J$ has the following universal property: for any map $\varphi: C \rightarrow A$ from $C$ into an abelian variety sending $P$ to 0 , there is a unique homomorphism $\psi: J \rightarrow A$ such that $\varphi=\psi \circ f^{P}$.

Proof. Consider the map

$$
\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{g}\right) \mapsto \sum_{i} \psi\left(P_{i}\right): C^{g} \rightarrow A
$$

Clearly this is symmetric, and so it factors through $C^{(g)}$. It therefore defines a rational map $\psi: J \rightarrow A$, which (I 3.2) shows to be a regular map. It is clear from the construction that $\psi \circ f^{P}=\varphi$ (note that $f^{P}$ is the composite of $Q \mapsto Q+(g-1) P: C \rightarrow C^{(g)}$ with $f^{(g)}: C^{(g)} \rightarrow J$ ). In particular, $\psi$ maps 0 to 0 , and (I 1.2) shows that it is therefore a homomorphism. If $\psi^{\prime}$ is a second homomorphism such that $\psi^{\prime} \circ f^{P}=\varphi$, then $\psi$ and $\psi^{\prime}$ agree on $f^{P}(C)+\cdots+f^{P}(C)(g$ copies $)$, which is the whole of $J$.

Corollary 6.2. Let $\mathcal{N}$ be a divisorial correspondence between $(C, P)$ and $J$ such that $\left(1 \times f^{P}\right)^{*} \mathcal{N} \approx \mathcal{L}^{P} ;$ then $\mathcal{N} \approx \mathcal{M}^{P}$ (notations as in §2 and (1.7)).

Proof. Because of (I5.13), we can assume $k$ to be algebraically closed. According to 1.7) there is a unique map $\varphi: J \rightarrow J$ such that $\mathcal{N} \approx(1 \times \varphi)^{*} \mathcal{M}^{P}$. On points $\varphi$ is the map sending $a \in J(k)$ to the unique $b$ such that $\mathcal{M}^{P}|C \times\{b\} \approx \mathcal{N}| C \times\{a\}$. By assumption,

$$
\mathcal{N}\left|C \times\left\{f^{P} Q\right\} \approx \mathcal{L}^{P}\right| C \times\{Q\} \approx \mathcal{M}^{P} \mid C \times\left\{f^{P} Q\right\}
$$

and so $\left(\varphi \circ f^{P}\right)(Q)=f^{P}(Q)$ for all $Q$. Now 6.1 shows that $f$ is the identity map.
Corollary 6.3. Let $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ be curves over $k$ with $k$-rational points $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$, and let $J_{1}$ and $J_{2}$ be their Jacobians. There is a one-to-one correspondence between $\operatorname{Hom}_{k}\left(J_{1}, J_{2}\right)$ and the set of isomorphism classes of divisorial correspondences between ( $C_{1}, P_{1}$ ) and ( $C_{2}, P_{2}$ ).

Proof. A divisorial correspondence between $\left(C_{2}, P_{2}\right)$ and ( $C_{1}, P_{1}$ ) gives rise to a morphism $\left(C_{1}, P_{1}\right) \rightarrow J_{2}$ (by 1.7), and this morphism gives rise to homomorphism $J_{1} \rightarrow J_{2}$ (by 6.1). Conversely, a homomorphism $\psi: J_{1} \rightarrow J_{2}$ defines a divisorial correspondence $\left(1 \times\left(f^{P_{1}} \circ \psi\right)\right)^{*} \mathcal{M}^{P_{2}}$ between $\left(C_{2}, P_{2}\right)$ and $\left(C_{1}, P_{1}\right)$.

In the case that $C$ has a point $P$ rational over $k$, define $F: C \times C \rightarrow J$ to be the map $\left(P_{1}, P_{2}\right) \mapsto f^{P}\left(P_{1}\right)-f^{P}\left(P_{2}\right)$. One checks immediately that this is independent of the choice of $P$. Thus, if $P \in C\left(k^{\prime}\right)$ for some Galois extension $k^{\prime}$ of $k$, and $F: C_{k^{\prime}} \times C_{k^{\prime}} \rightarrow J_{k^{\prime}}$ is the corresponding map, then $\sigma F=F$ for all $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\prime} / k\right)$; therefore $F$ is defined over $k$ whether or not $C$ has a $k$-rational point. Note that it is zero on the diagonal $\Delta$ of $C \times C$.

Proposition 6.4. Let $A$ be an abelian variety over $k$. For any map $\varphi: C \times C \rightarrow A$ such that $\varphi(\Delta)=0$, there is a unique homomorphism $\psi: J \rightarrow A$ such that $\psi \circ F=\varphi$.

Proof. Let $k^{\prime}$ be a finite Galois extension of $k$, and suppose that there exists a unique homomorphism $\psi: C_{k^{\prime}} \rightarrow J_{k^{\prime}}$ such that $\psi \circ F_{k^{\prime}}=\varphi_{k^{\prime}}$. Then the uniqueness implies that $\sigma \psi=\psi$ for all $\sigma$ in $\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\prime} / k\right)$, and so $\psi$ is defined over $k$. It suffices therefore to prove the proposition after extending $k$, and so we can assume that $C$ has a $k$-rational point $P$. Now (I 1.5) shows that there exist unique maps $\varphi_{1}$ and $\varphi_{2}$ from $C$ to $A$ such that $\varphi_{1}(P)=0=\varphi_{2}(P)$ and $\varphi(a, b)=\varphi_{1}(a)+\varphi_{2}(b)$ for all $(a, b) \in C \times C$. Because $\varphi$ is zero on the diagonal, $\varphi_{1}=-\varphi_{2}$. From (6.1) we know that there exists a unique homomorphism $\psi$ from $J$ to $A$ such that $\varphi_{1}=\psi \circ f$, and clearly $\psi$ is also the unique homomorphism such that $\varphi=\psi \circ F$.

REMARK 6.5. The proposition says that $(A, F)$ is the Albanese variety of $C$ in the sense of Lang 1959, II 3, p45. Clearly the pairs $\left(J, f^{P}\right)$ and $(J, F)$ are characterized by the universal properties in 6.1) and 6.4.

Assume again that $C$ has a $k$-rational point $P$, and let $\Theta=W^{g-1}$. It is a divisor on $J$, and if $P$ is replaced by a second $k$-rational point, $\Theta$ is replaced by a translate. For any effective divisor $D$ on $J$, write

$$
\mathcal{L}^{\prime}(D)=m^{*} \mathcal{L}(D) \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}(D)^{-1} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{L}(D)^{-1}=\mathcal{L}\left(m^{-1}(D)-D \times J^{\vee} J \times D\right)
$$

Recall (I 8.1 et seqq.), that $D$ is ample if and only if $\varphi_{\mathcal{L}(D)}: J \rightarrow J^{\vee}$ is an isogeny, and then $\left(1 \times \varphi_{\mathcal{L}}(D)\right)^{*}(\mathcal{P})=\mathcal{L}^{\prime}(D)$, where $\mathcal{P}$ is the Poincaré sheaf on $J \times J^{\vee}$. Write $\Theta^{-}$ for the image of $\Theta$ under the map $(-1)_{J}: J \rightarrow J$, and $\Theta_{a}$ for $t_{a} \Theta=\Theta+a, a \in J(k)$. Abbreviate $\left(\Theta^{-}\right)_{a}$ by $\Theta_{a}^{-}$.

THEOREM 6.6. The map $\varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}: J \rightarrow J^{\vee}$ is an isomorphism; therefore, $1 \times \varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}$ is an isomorphism $\left(J \times J, \mathcal{L}^{\prime}(\Theta)\right) \rightarrow\left(J \times J^{\vee}, \mathcal{P}\right)$.

Proof. As usual, we can assume $k$ to be algebraically closed. Recall (Milne 1986, 12.13) that $\varphi_{\mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right)}=(-1)^{2} \varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}=\varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}$, and that $\varphi_{\mathcal{L}\left(\Theta_{a}\right)}=\varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}$ for all $a \in J(k)$.

Lemma 6.7. Let $U$ be the largest open subset of $J$ such that
(i) the fibre of $f^{(g)}: C^{(g)} \rightarrow J$ at any point of $U$ has dimension zero, and
(ii) if $a \in U(k)$ and $D(a)$ is the unique element of $C^{(r)}(k)$ mapping to a, then $D(a)$ is a sum of $g$ distinct points of $C(k)$.

Then $f^{-1}\left(\Theta_{a}^{-}\right)=D(a)$ (as a Cartier divisor) for all $a \in U(k)$, where $f=f^{P}: C \rightarrow J$.

Proof. Note first that $U$ can be obtained by removing the subset over which the fibres have dimension $>0$, which is closed ( AG 10.9 ), together with the images of certain closed subsets of the form $\Delta \times C^{g-2}$. These last sets are also closed because $C^{g} \rightarrow J$ is proper (AG Chapter 7), and it follows that $U$ is a dense open subset of $J$.

Let $a \in U(k)$, and let $D(a)=\sum_{i} P_{i}, P_{i} \neq P_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. A point $Q_{1}$ of $C$ maps to a point of $\Theta_{a}^{-}$if and only if there exists a divisor $\sum_{i=2}^{g} Q_{i}$ on $C$ such that $f^{P}(Q)=-\sum_{i} f^{P}\left(Q_{i}\right)+a$. The equality implies $\sum_{i=1}^{g} Q_{i} \sim D$, and the fact that
$|D|$ has dimension 0 implies that $\sum_{i} Q_{i}=D$. It follows that the support of $f^{-1}\left(\Theta_{a}^{-}\right)$is $\left\{P_{1}, \ldots, P_{g}\right\}$, and it remains to show that $f^{-1}\left(\Theta_{a}^{-}\right)$has degree $\leq g$ for all $a$.

Consider the map $\psi: C \times \Theta \rightarrow J$ sending $(Q, b)$ to $f(Q)+b$. As the composite of $\psi$ with $1 \times f^{g-1}: C \times C^{g-1} \rightarrow C \times \Theta$ is $f^{g}: C^{g} \rightarrow J$, and these maps have degrees $(g-1)!$ and $g!$ respectively $(5.5), \psi$ has degree $g$. Also $\psi$ is projective because $C \times \Theta$ is a projective variety (see Hartshorne 1977, II, Ex. 4.9). Consider $a \in U$; the fibre of $\psi$ over $a$ is $f^{-1}\left(\Theta_{a}^{-}\right)$(more accurately, it is the algebraic subspace of $C$ associated with the Cartier divisor $\Theta_{a}^{-}$). Therefore the restriction of $\psi$ to $\psi^{-1}(U)$ is quasi-finite and projective, and so is finite (AG 8.19). As $U$ is normal, this means that all the fibres of $\psi$ over points of $U$ are finite schemes of rank $\leq g(\mathrm{AG} 10.12)$. This completes the proof of the lemma.

LEMmA 6.8. (a) Let $a \in J(k)$, and let $f^{(g)}(D)=a$; then $f^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta_{a}^{-}\right) \approx \mathcal{L}(D)$.
(b) The sheaves $\left(f \times(-1)_{J}\right)^{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}\left(\theta^{-}\right)$and $\mathcal{M}^{P}$ on $C \times J$ are isomorphic.

Proof. Note that (6.7) shows that the isomorphism in (a) holds for all $a$ in a dense open subset of $J$. Note also that the map

$$
C \xrightarrow{Q \mapsto(Q, a)} C \times\{a\} \xrightarrow{f \times(-1)} J \times J \xrightarrow{m} J
$$

equals $t_{-a} \circ f$, and so

$$
(f \times(-1))^{*} m^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right)\left|C \times\{a\} \simeq \mathcal{L}\left(t_{-a}^{-1} \Theta^{-}\right)\right| f(C) \simeq \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta_{a}^{-}\right) \mid f(C) \approx f^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta_{a}^{-}\right)
$$

Similarly

$$
(f \times(-1))^{*} p^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right) \mid C \times\{a\} \simeq f^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right)
$$

and

$$
(f \times(-1))^{*} q^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right) \mid C \times\{a\}
$$

is trivial. On the other hand, $\mathcal{M}^{P}$ is an invertible sheaf on $C \times J$ such that
(i) $\mathcal{M}^{P} \mid C \times\{a\} \approx \mathcal{L}(D-g P)$ if $D$ is an effective divisor of degree $g$ on $C$ such that $f^{(g)}(D)=a ;$
(ii) $\mathcal{M}^{P} \mid\{P\} \times J$ is trivial.

Therefore (a) is equivalent to $(f \times(-1))^{*} m^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right) \mid C \times\{a\}$ being isomorphic to $\mathcal{M}^{P} \otimes$ $p^{*} \mathcal{L}(g P) \mid C \times\{a\}$ for all $a$. As we know this is true for all $a$ in a dense subset of $J$, (I5.19 applied to

$$
\mathcal{M}^{P} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}(g P) \otimes(f \times(-1))^{*} m^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right)^{-1}
$$

proves (a). In particular, on taking $a=0$, we find that $f^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right) \approx \mathcal{L}(g P)$, and so $(f \times(-1))^{*} p^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right) \approx p^{*} \mathcal{L}(g P)$. Now (I 5.16) shows that

$$
(f \times(-1))^{*}\left(m^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right) \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right)^{-1}\right) \approx \mathcal{M}^{P} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{N}
$$

for some invertible sheaf $\mathcal{N}$ of $J$. On computing the restrictions of the sheaves to $\{P\} \times J$, we find that $\mathcal{N} \approx(-1)^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right)$, which completes the proof.

Consider the invertible sheaf $(f \times 1)^{*} \mathcal{P}$ on $C \times J^{\vee}$. Clearly it is a divisorial correspondence, and so there is a unique homomorphism $f^{\vee}: J^{\vee} \rightarrow J$ such that $\left(1 \times f^{\vee}\right)^{*} \mathcal{M}^{P} \approx$ $(f \times 1)^{*} \mathcal{P}$. The next lemma completes the proof of the theorem.
LEMMA 6.9. The maps $-f^{\vee}: J^{\vee} \rightarrow J$ and $\varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}: J \rightarrow J^{\vee}$ are inverse.

Proof. Write $\psi=-\varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}=-\varphi_{\mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right)}$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(1 \times \psi)^{*}\left(1 \times f^{\vee}\right)^{*} \mathcal{M}^{P} & \approx(1 \times \psi)^{*}(f \times 1)^{*} \mathcal{P} \\
& \approx(f \times \psi)^{*} \mathcal{P} \\
& \approx(f \times(-1))^{*}\left(1 \times \varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}\right)^{*} \mathcal{P} \\
& \approx(f \times(-1))^{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}\left(\Theta^{-}\right) \\
& \approx \mathcal{M}^{P} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, $f^{\vee} \circ \psi$ is a map $\alpha: J \rightarrow J$ such that $(1 \times \alpha)^{*} \mathcal{M}^{P} \approx \mathcal{M}^{P}$; but the only map with this property is the identity.

Remark 6.10. (a) Lemma 6.7 shows that $f(C)$ and $\Theta$ cross transversely at any point of U . This can be proved more directly by using the descriptions of the tangent spaces implicitly given near the end of the proof of (5.1).
(b) In 6.8 we showed that $\mathcal{M}^{P} \approx(f \times(-1))^{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}\left(\Theta^{-}\right)$. This implies

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{M}^{P} & \approx(f \times(-1))^{*}\left(1 \times \varphi_{\mathcal{L}\left(\Theta^{-}\right)}\right)^{*} \mathcal{P} \\
& \approx(f \times(-1))^{*}\left(1 \times \varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}\right)^{*} \mathcal{P} \\
& \approx(f \times(-1))^{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}(\Theta) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Also, because $D \mapsto \varphi_{\mathcal{L}(D)}$ is a homomorphism, $\varphi_{\mathcal{L}(-\Theta)}=-\varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}$, and so

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{M}^{P} & \approx(f \times(-1))^{*}\left(1 \times \varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}\right)^{*} \mathcal{P} \\
& \approx(f \times 1)^{*}\left(1 \times \varphi_{\mathcal{L}(-\Theta)}\right)^{*} \mathcal{P} \\
& \approx(f \times 1)^{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}(-\Theta) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) The map on points $J^{\vee}(k) \rightarrow J(k)$ defined by $f^{\vee}$ is induced by $f^{*}: \operatorname{Pic}(J) \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{Pic}(C)$.
(d) Lemma 6.7 can be generalized as follows. An effective canonical divisor $K$ defines a point on $C^{(2 g-2)}$ whose image in $J$ will be denoted $\kappa$. Let $a$ be a point of $J$ such that $a-\kappa$ is not in $\left(W^{g-2}\right)^{-}$, and write $a=\sum_{i} f\left(P_{i}\right)$ with $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{g}$ points on $C$. Then $W^{r}$ and $\left(W^{g-r}\right)_{a}^{-}$intersect properly, and $W^{r} \cdot\left(W^{g-r}\right)_{a}^{-}=\sum\left(w_{i_{1} \ldots i_{r}}\right)$ where

$$
w_{i_{1} \ldots i_{r}}=f\left(P_{i_{1}}\right)+\cdots+f\left(P_{i_{r}}\right)
$$

and the sum runs over the $\binom{g}{r}$ combinations obtained by taking $r$ elements from $\{1,2, \ldots, g\}$. See Weil 1948b, §39, Proposition 17.

SUmmary 6.11. Between $(C, P)$ and itself, there is a divisorial correspondence $\mathcal{L}^{P}=$ $\mathcal{L}(\Delta-\{P\} \times C-C \times\{P\})$.

Between $(C, P)$ and $J$ there is the divisorial correspondence $\mathcal{M}^{P}$; for any divisorial correspondence $\mathcal{L}$ between $(C, P)$ and a pointed $k$-scheme $(T, t)$, there is a unique morphism of pointed $k$-schemes $\varphi: T \rightarrow J$ such that $(1 \times \varphi)^{*} \mathcal{M}^{P} \approx \mathcal{L}^{P}$. In particular, there is a unique map $f^{P}: C \rightarrow J$ such that $\left(1 \times f^{P}\right)^{*} \mathcal{M}^{P} \approx \mathcal{L}^{P}$ and $f(P)=0$.

Between $J$ and $J^{\vee}$ there is a canonical divisorial correspondence $\mathcal{P}$ (the Poincaré sheaf); for any divisorial correspondence $\mathcal{L}$ between $J$ and a pointed $k$-scheme ( $T, t$ ) there is a unique morphism of pointed $k$-schemes $\psi: T \rightarrow J$ such that $(1 \times \psi)^{*} \mathcal{P} \approx \mathcal{L}$.

Between $J$ and $J$ there is the divisorial correspondence $\mathcal{L}^{\prime}(\Theta)$. The unique morphism $J \rightarrow J^{\vee}$ such that $(1 \times \psi)^{*} \mathcal{P} \approx \mathcal{L}^{\prime}(\Theta)$ is $\varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}$, which is an isomorphism. Thus $\varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}$ is a principal polarization of $J$, called the canonical polarization. There are the following formulas:

$$
\mathcal{M}^{P} \approx(f \times(-1))^{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}(\Theta) \approx(f \times 1)^{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}(\Theta)^{-1} .
$$

Consequently,

$$
\mathcal{L}^{P} \approx(f \times f)^{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}(\Theta)^{-1}
$$

If $f^{\vee}: J^{\vee} \rightarrow J$ is the morphism such that $(f \times 1)^{*} \mathcal{P} \approx\left(1 \times f^{\vee}\right)^{*} \mathcal{M}^{P}$, then $f^{\vee}=$ $-\varphi_{\mathcal{L}(\Theta)}^{-1}$.

ExERCISE 6.12. It follows from (6.6) and the Riemann-Roch theorem (I 11.1 ) that $\left(\Theta^{g}\right)=$ $g$ !. Prove this directly by studying the inverse image of $\Theta$ (and its translates) by the map $C^{g} \rightarrow J$. (Cf. AG 12.10 but note that the map is not finite.) Hence deduce another proof of (6.6).

## 7 Weil's construction of the Jacobian variety

As we saw in (5.6a), the Jacobian $J$ of a curve $C$ is the unique abelian variety that is birationally equivalent to $C^{(g)}$. To construct $J$, Weil used the Riemann-Roch theorem to define a rational law of composition on $C^{(g)}$ and then proved a general theorem that allowed him to construct an algebraic group out of $C^{(g)}$ and the rational law. Finally, he verified that the algebraic group so obtained had the requisite properties to be called the Jacobian of $C$. We give a sketch of this approach.

A birational group over $k$ (or a nonsingular variety with a normal law of composition in the terminology of Weil $1948 \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{~V}$ ) is a nonsingular variety $V$ together with a rational map $m: V \times V-->V$ such that
(a) $m$ is associative (that is, $(a b) c=a(b c)$ whenever both terms are defined);
(b) the rational maps $(a, b) \mapsto(a, a b)$ and $(a, b) \mapsto(b, a b)$ from $V \times V$ to $V \times V$ are both birational.

Assume that $C$ has a $k$-rational point $P$.
Lemma 7.1. (a) There exists an open subvariety $U$ of $C^{(g)} \times C^{(g)}$ such that, for all fields $K$ containing $k$ and all $\left(D, D^{\prime}\right)$ in $U(K), h^{0}\left(D+D^{\prime}-g P\right)=1$.
(b) There exists an open subset $V$ of $C^{(g)} \times C^{(g)}$ such that for all fields $K$ containing $k$ and all $\left(D, D^{\prime}\right)$ in $V(K), h^{0}\left(D^{\prime}-D+g P\right)=1$.

Proof. (a) Let $D_{\text {can }}$ be the canonical relative effective divisor on $C \times C^{(2 g)} / C^{(2 g)}$ constructed in $\S 3$. According to the Riemann-Roch theorem, $h^{0}(D-g P) \geq 1$ for all divisors of degree $2 g$ on $C$, and so (I 4.2) shows that the subset $U$ of $C^{(2 g)}$ of points $t$ such that $h^{0}\left(\left(D_{\text {can }}\right)_{t}-g P\right)=1$ is open. On the other hand, 5.2p) shows that there exist positive divisors $D$ of degree $g$ such that $h^{0}((D+g P)-g P)=1$, and so $U$ is nonempty. Its inverse image in $C^{(g)} \times C^{(g)}$ is the required set.
(b) The proof is similar to that of (a): the Riemann-Roch theorem shows that $h^{0}\left(D^{\prime}-\right.$ $D+g P) \geq 1$ for all $D$ and $D^{\prime}$, we know there exists a $D^{\prime}$ such that $h^{0}\left(D^{\prime}-g P+g P\right)=$ $h^{0}\left(D^{\prime}\right)=1$, and (I 4.2) applied to the appropriate invertible sheaf on $C \times C^{(r)} \times C^{(r)}$ gives the result.

Proposition 7.2. There exists a unique rational map

$$
m: C^{(g)} \times C^{(g)}-->C^{(g)}
$$

whose domain of definition contains the subset $U$ of (7.19) and which is such that for all fields $K$ containing $k$ and all $\left(D, D^{\prime}\right)$ in $U(K), m\left(D, D^{\prime}\right) \sim D+D^{\prime}-g P$; moreover $m$ makes $C^{(g)}$ into a birational group.

Proof. Let $T$ be an integral algebraic space over $k$. If we identify $C^{(g)}$ with the functor it represents (see 3.13), then an element of $U(T)$ is a pair of relative effective divisors ( $D, D^{\prime}$ ) on $C \times T / T$ such that, for all $t \in T, h^{0}\left(D_{t}+D_{t}^{\prime}-g P\right)=1$. Let $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{L}\left(D+D^{\prime}-g \cdot P \times T\right)$. Then (I 4.2 d ) shows that $q_{*}(\mathcal{L})$ is an invertible sheaf on $T$. The canonical map $q^{*} q_{*} \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}$ when tensored with $\left(q^{*} q_{*} \mathcal{L}\right)^{-1}$ gives a canonical global section $s: \mathcal{O}_{T} \rightarrow \mathcal{L} \otimes\left(q^{*} q_{*} \mathcal{L}\right)^{-1}$, which determines a relative effective divisor $m\left(D, D^{\prime}\right)$ of degree $g$ on $C \times T / T$ (see 3.6). The construction is clearly functorial. Therefore we have constructed a map $m: U \rightarrow C^{(g)}$ as functors of integral schemes over $k$, and this is represented by a map of varieties. On making the map explicit in the case that $K$ is the spectrum of a field, one sees easily that $m\left(D, D^{\prime}\right) \sim D+D^{\prime}-g P$ in this case.

The uniqueness of the map is obvious. Also associativity is obvious since it holds on an open subset of $U(K)$ :

$$
m\left(\left(D, D^{\prime}\right), D^{\prime \prime}\right)=m\left(D,\left(D^{\prime}, D^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)
$$

because each is an effective divisor on $C$ linearly equivalent to $D+D^{\prime}+D^{\prime \prime}-2 g P$, and in general $h^{0}\left(D+D^{\prime}+D^{\prime \prime}-2 g P\right)=1$.

A similar argument using (7.11) shows that there is a map $r: V \rightarrow C^{(g)}$ such that ( $p, r$ ) is a birational inverse to

$$
(a, b) \mapsto(a, a b): C^{(g)} \times C^{(g)}-->C^{(g)} \times C^{(g)} .
$$

Because the law of composition is commutative, this shows that $(a, b) \mapsto(b, a b)$ is also birational. The proof is complete.

Theorem 7.3. For any birational group $V$ over $k$, there is a group variety $G$ over $k$ and a birational map $f: V \rightarrow-\rightarrow$ such that $f(a b)=f(a) f(b)$ whenever ab is defined; moreover, $G$ is unique up to a unique isomorphism.

Proof. In the case that $V(k)$ is dense in $V$ (for example, $k$ is separably closed), this is proved in Artin 1986 §2. (Briefly, one replaces $V$ by an open subset where $m$ has better properties, and obtains $G$ by patching together copies of translates of $U$ by elements of $V(k)$.) From this it follows that, in the general case, the theorem holds over a finite Galois extension $k^{\prime}$ of $k$. Let $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\prime} / k\right)$. Then $\sigma f: \sigma V_{k^{\prime}}-->\sigma G$ is a birational map, and as $\sigma V_{k^{\prime}}=V_{k^{\prime}}$, the uniqueness of $G$ shows that there is a unique isomorphism $\varphi_{\sigma}: \sigma G \rightarrow G$ such that $\varphi_{\sigma} \circ \sigma f=f$. For any $\sigma, \tau \in \operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\prime} / k\right)$,

$$
\left(\varphi_{\tau} \circ \tau \varphi_{\sigma}\right) \circ(\tau \sigma f)=\varphi_{\tau} \circ \tau\left(\varphi_{\sigma} \circ \sigma f\right)=f=\varphi_{\tau \sigma} \circ \tau \sigma f,
$$

and so $\varphi_{\tau} \circ \tau \varphi_{\sigma}=\varphi_{\sigma \tau}$. Descent theory (see 1.13) now shows that $G$ is defined over $k$.
Let $J$ be the algebraic group associated by (7.3) to the rational group defined in (7.2).

Proposition 7.4. The variety $J$ is complete.

Proof. This can be proved using the valuative criterion of properness. (For Weil's original account, see Weil 1948b, Théoreme 16, et seqq..)

Corollary 7.5. The rational map $f: C^{(g)}-->J$ is a morphism. If $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ are linearly equivalent divisors on $C_{K}$ for some field $K$ containing $k$, then $f(D)=f\left(D^{\prime}\right)$.

Proof. The first statement follows from (I 3.2). For the second, recall that if $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ are linearly equivalent then they lie in a copy of projective space contained in $C^{(g)}$ (see 3.14). Consequently (I3.10) shows that they map to the same point in $J$.

We now prove that $J$ has the correct universal property.
THEOREM 7.6. There is a canonical isomorphism of functors $\iota: P_{C}^{0} \rightarrow J$.

Proof. As in $\S 4$, it suffices to show that $P_{C}^{r}$ is representable by $J$ for some $r$. In this case we take $r=g$. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be an invertible sheaf with fibres of degree $g$ on $C \times T$. If $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(C_{t}, \mathcal{L}_{t}\right)=1$ for some $t$, then this holds for all points in an open neighbourhood $U_{t}$ of $t$. As in the proof of 7.2 , we get a relative effective divisor $s: \mathcal{O}_{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{L} \otimes\left(q^{*} q_{*} \mathcal{L}\right)^{-1}$ of degree $g$ on $U_{t}$. This family of Cartier divisors defines a map $U_{t} \rightarrow C^{(g)}$ which, when composed with $f$, gives a map $\psi_{\mathcal{L}}: U_{t} \rightarrow J$. On the other hand, if $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(C_{t}, \mathcal{L}_{t}\right)>1$, then we choose an invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ of degree zero on $C$ such that $\operatorname{dim} \Gamma\left(C_{t}, \mathcal{L}_{t} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{\prime}\right)=$ 1, and define $\psi_{\mathcal{L}}: U_{t} \rightarrow C^{(g)}$ on a neighbourhood of $t$ to be the composite of $\psi_{\mathcal{L}} \otimes p^{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ with $t_{-a}$, where $a=f(D)$ for $D$ an effective divisor of degree $g$ such that $\mathcal{L}(D-g P) \approx \mathcal{L}^{\prime}$. One checks that this map depends only on $\mathcal{L}$, and that the maps for different $t$ agree on the overlaps of the neighbourhoods. They therefore define a map $T \rightarrow J$.

REMARK 7.7. Weil of course did not show that the Jacobian variety represented a functor on $k$-schemes. Rather, in the days before schemes, the Jacobian variety was characterized by the universal property in 6.1 , or 6.4 , and shown to have the property that $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(C) \xrightarrow{\simeq}$ $J(k)$. See Weil 1948b or Lang 1959.

## 8 Generalizations

It is possible to construct Jacobians for families of curves. Let $\pi: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow S$ be projective flat morphism whose fibres are integral curves. For any $S$-scheme $T$ of finite-type, define

$$
P_{\mathcal{C}}^{r}(T)=\left\{\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}\left(\mathcal{C} \times_{S} T\right) \mid \operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}_{t}\right)=r \text { all } t\right\} / \sim
$$

where $\mathcal{L} \sim \mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ if and only if $\mathcal{L} \approx \mathcal{L}^{\prime} \otimes q^{*} \mathcal{M}$ for some invertible sheaf $\mathcal{M}$ on T . (The degree of an invertible sheaf on a singular curve is defined as in the nonsingular case: it is the leading coefficient of $\chi\left(C, \mathcal{L}^{n}\right)$ as a polynomial in $\left.n\right)$. Note that $P_{\mathcal{C}}^{r}$ is a functor on the category of $S$-schemes of finite-type.

THEOREM 8.1. Let $\pi: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow S$ be as above; then there is a group scheme $\mathcal{J}$ over $S$ with connected fibres and a morphism of functors $P_{\mathcal{C}}^{0} \rightarrow \mathcal{J}$ such that $P_{\mathcal{C}}^{0}(T) \rightarrow \mathcal{J}(T)$ is always injective and is an isomorphism whenever $\mathcal{C} \times{ }_{S} T \rightarrow T$ has a section.

In the case that $S$ is the spectrum of a field (but $\mathcal{C}$ may be singular), the existence of $\mathcal{J}$ can be proved by Weil's method (see Serre 1959, V). When $\mathcal{C}$ is smooth over $S$, one can show as in $\S 3$ that $\mathcal{C}^{(r)}$ (quotient of $\mathcal{C} \times_{S} \ldots \times_{S} \mathcal{C}$ by $S_{r}$ ) represents the functor $\operatorname{Div}_{\mathcal{C} / S}^{r}$ sending an $S$-scheme $T$ to the set of relative effective Cartier divisors of degree $r$ on $\mathcal{C} \times{ }_{S} T / T$. In general one can only show more abstractly that $\operatorname{Div}_{\mathcal{C} / S}^{r}$ is represented by a Hilbert scheme. There is a canonical map $\operatorname{Div}_{\mathcal{C} / S}^{r} \rightarrow P_{\mathcal{C} / S}^{r}$ and the second part of the proof deduces the representability of $P_{\mathcal{C} / S}^{r}$ from that of $\operatorname{Div}_{\mathcal{C} / S}^{r}$. (The only reference for the proof in the general case seems to be Grothendieck's original rather succinct account Grothendieck 62,$232 ;{ }^{2}$ we sketch some of its ideas below.)

As in the case that the base scheme is the spectrum of a field, the conditions of the theorem determine $\mathcal{J}$ uniquely; it is called the Jacobian scheme of $\mathcal{C} / S$. Clearly $\mathcal{J}$ commutes with base change: the Jacobian of $\mathcal{C} \times_{S} T$ over $T$ is $\mathcal{J} \times_{S} T$. In particular, if $\mathcal{C}_{t}$ is a smooth curve over $k(t)$, then $\mathcal{J}_{t}$ is the Jacobian of $\mathcal{C}_{t}$ in the sense of $\S 1$. Therefore if $\mathcal{C}$ is smooth over $S$, then $\mathcal{J}$ is an abelian scheme, and we may think of it as a family of Jacobian varieties. If $\mathcal{C}$ is not smooth over $S$, then $\mathcal{J}$ need not be proper, even in the case that $S$ is the spectrum of a field.

EXAMPLE 8.2. Let $C$ be complete smooth curve over an algebraically closed field $k$. By a modulus for $C$ one simply means an effective divisor $\mathfrak{m}=\sum_{P} n_{P} P$ on $C$. Let $\mathfrak{m}$ be such a modulus, and assume that $\operatorname{deg}(\mathfrak{m}) \geq 2$. We shall associate with $C$ and $\mathfrak{m}$ a new curve $C_{\mathfrak{m}}$ having a single singularity at a point to be denoted by $Q$. The underlying topological space of $C_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is $(C-S) \cup\{Q\}$, where $S$ is the support of $\mathfrak{m}$. Let $\mathcal{O}_{Q}=k+\mathfrak{c}_{Q}$, where

$$
\mathfrak{c}_{Q}=\left\{f \in k(C) \mid \operatorname{ord}(f) \geq n_{P} \text { all } P \text { in } S\right\}
$$

and define $\mathcal{O}_{C_{\mathrm{m}}}$ to be the sheaf such that $\Gamma\left(U, \mathcal{O}_{C_{\mathrm{m}}}\right)=\bigcap_{P \in U} \mathcal{O}_{P}$. The Jacobian scheme $J_{\mathfrak{m}}$ of $C_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is an algebraic group over $k$ called the generalized Jacobian of $C$ relative to $\mathfrak{m}$. By definition, $J_{\mathfrak{m}}(K)$ is the group of isomorphism classes of invertible sheaves on $C_{\mathfrak{m}}$ of degree 0 . It can also be described as the group of divisors of degree 0 on $C$ relatively prime to $\mathfrak{m}$, modulo the principal divisors defined by elements congruent to 1 modulo $\mathfrak{m}$ (an element of $k(C)$ is congruent to 1 modulo if $\operatorname{ord}_{P}(f-1) \geq n_{P}$ for all $P$ in $S$ ). For each modulus $\mathfrak{m}$ with support on $S$ there is a canonical map $f_{\mathfrak{m}}: C \backslash S \rightarrow J_{\mathfrak{m}}$, and these maps are universal in the following sense: for any morphism $f: C \backslash S \rightarrow G$ from $C \backslash S$ into an algebraic group, there is a modulus $\mathfrak{m}$ and a homomorphism $\varphi: J_{\mathfrak{m}} \rightarrow G$ such that $f$ is the composite of $f_{\mathfrak{m}} \circ \varphi$ with a translation. (For a detailed account of this theory, see Serre|1959.)

We now give a brief sketch of part of Grothendieck's proof of 8.1). First we need the notion of the Grassmann scheme.

Let $\mathcal{E}$ be a locally free sheaf of $\mathcal{O}_{S}$-modules of finite rank, and, for an $S$-scheme $T$ of finite-type, define $\operatorname{Grass}_{n}^{\mathcal{E}}(T)$ to be the set of isomorphism classes of pairs $(\mathcal{V}, h)$, where $\mathcal{V}$ is a locally free $\mathcal{O}_{T}$-module of rank $n$ and $h$ is an epimorphism $\mathcal{O}_{T} \otimes_{k} \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$. For example, if $\mathcal{E}=\mathcal{O}_{S}^{m}$, then $\operatorname{Grass}_{n}^{\mathcal{E}}(T)$ can be identified with the set of isomorphism classes of pairs $\left(\mathcal{V},\left(e_{1}, \ldots, e_{m}\right)\right)$ where $\mathcal{V}$ is a locally free sheaf of rank $n$ on $T$ and the $e_{i}$ are sections of $\mathcal{V}$ over $T$ that generate $\mathcal{V}$; two such pairs $\left(\mathcal{V},\left(e_{1}, \ldots, e_{m}\right)\right)$ and $\left(\mathcal{V}^{\prime},\left(e_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{m}^{\prime}\right)\right)$

[^25]are isomorphic if there is an isomorphism $\mathcal{V} \xrightarrow{\approx} \mathcal{V}^{\prime}$ carrying each $e_{i}$ to $e_{i}^{\prime}$. In particular, $\operatorname{Grass}_{1}^{\mathcal{S}^{N+1}}(T)=\mathbb{P}_{S}^{N}(T)$ (cf. Hartshorne 1977, II 7.1).
Proposition 8.3. The functor $T \mapsto \operatorname{Grass}_{n}^{\mathcal{E}}(T)$ is representable by a projective variety $G_{n}^{\mathcal{E}}$ over $S$.

Proof. The construction of $G_{n}^{\mathcal{E}}$ is scarcely more difficult than that of $\mathbb{P}_{S}^{N}$ (see Grothendieck and Dieudonné| 1971, 9.7).

Choose an $r>2 g-2$ and an $m>2 g-2+r$. As in the case that $S$ is the spectrum of a field, we first need to construct the Jacobian under the assumption that there is a section $s: S \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$. Let $E$ be the relative effective divisor on $\mathcal{C} / S$ defined by $s$ (see 3.9), and for any invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $\mathcal{C} \times{ }_{S} T$, write $\mathcal{L}(m)$ for $\mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}(m E)$. The first step is to define an embedding of $\operatorname{Div}^{r}{ }_{\mathcal{C} / \mathcal{S}}$ into a suitable Grassmann scheme.

Let $D \in \operatorname{Div}_{\mathcal{C} / S}^{r}(T)$, and consider the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(-D) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C} \times T} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{D} \rightarrow 0
$$

on $\mathcal{C} \times{ }_{S} T$ (we often drop the $S$ from $\mathcal{C} \times{ }_{S} T$ ). This gives rise to an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(-D)(m) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C} \times T}(m) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{D}(m) \rightarrow 0
$$

and on applying $q_{*}$ we get an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow q_{*} \mathcal{L}(-D)(m) \rightarrow q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{C \times T}(m) \rightarrow q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{D}(m) \rightarrow R^{1} q_{*} \mathcal{L}(-D)(m) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

Note that, for all $t$ in $T, H^{1}\left(\mathcal{C}_{t}, \mathcal{L}(-D)(m)\right)$ is dual to $H^{0}\left(C_{t}, \mathcal{L}\left(K+D-m E_{t}\right)\right)$, where $E_{t}$ is the divisor $s(t)$ of degree one on $\mathcal{C}_{t}$. Because of our assumptions, this last group is zero, and so (I 4.2e) $R^{1} q_{*} \mathcal{L}(-D)(m)$ is zero and we have an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow q_{*} \mathcal{L}(-D)(m) \rightarrow q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C} \times T}(m) \rightarrow q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{D}(m) \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Moreover $q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{D}(m)$ is locally free of rank $r$, and $q_{*}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C} \times T}(m)\right)=q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C}}(m) \otimes \mathcal{O}_{T}$ (loc. cit.), and so we have constructed an element $\Phi(D)$ of $\operatorname{Grass}_{r}^{q_{*}} \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C}}(m)(T)$.

On the other hand, suppose $a=\left(q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C} \times T}(m) \rightarrow \mathcal{V}\right)$ is an element of $\operatorname{Grass}_{n}^{q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C}}(m)}(T)$. If $\mathcal{K}$ is the kernel of $q^{*} q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C} \times T}(m) \rightarrow q^{*} \mathcal{V}$, then $\mathcal{K}(-m)$ is a subsheaf of $q^{*} q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C} \times T}$, and its image under $q^{*} q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C} \times T} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C} \times T}$ is an ideal in $\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C} \times T}$. Let $\Psi(a)$ be the subscheme associated to this ideal. It is clear from the constructions that $\Psi \Phi(D)=D$ for any relative divisor of degree $r$. We have a diagram of natural transformations

$$
\operatorname{Div}_{\mathcal{C}}^{r}(T) \xrightarrow{\Phi} \operatorname{Grass}_{n}^{q_{*} \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C}}(m)}(T) \xrightarrow{\Psi} \mathcal{S}(T) \supset \operatorname{Div}_{\mathcal{C}}^{r}(T), \quad \Psi \Phi=i d,
$$

where $\mathcal{S}(T)$ denotes the set of all closed subschemes of $\mathcal{C} \times_{S} T$. In particular, we see that $\Phi$ is injective.
Proposition 8.4. The functor $\Phi$ identifies Div ${ }_{\mathcal{C}}^{r}$ with a closed subscheme of $\mathrm{Grass}_{n}{ }_{*} \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C}}(m)$.
Proof. See Grothendieck 62, p221-12, (or, under different hypotheses, Mumford 1970, Lecture 15).

Finally one shows that the fibres of the map $\operatorname{Div}_{\mathcal{C} / S}^{r} \rightarrow P_{\mathcal{C} / S}^{r}$ are represented by the projective space bundles associated with certain sheaves of $\mathcal{O}_{S}$-modules (Grothendieck 62, p232-11; cf. (5.6e)) and deduces the representability of $P_{\mathcal{C} / S}^{r}$ (loc. cit.).

## 9 Obtaining coverings of a curve from its Jacobian; application to Mordell's conjecture

Let $V$ be a variety over field $k$, and let $\pi: W \rightarrow V$ be a finite étale map. If there is a finite group $G$ acting freely on $W$ by $V$-morphisms in such a way that $V=G \backslash W$, then $(W, \pi)$ is said to be Galois covering ${ }^{3}$ of $V$ with Galois group G. When $G$ is abelian, $(W, \pi)$ is said to be an abelian covering of $V$. Fix a point $P$ on $V$. Then the Galois coverings of $V$ are classified by the (étale) fundamental group $\pi_{1}(V, P)$ and the abelian coverings by the maximal abelian quotient $\pi_{1}(V, P)^{\mathrm{ab}}$ of $\pi_{1}(V, P)$. For any finite abelian group $M$, $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\pi_{1}(V, P), M\right)$ (set of continuous homomorphisms) is equal to the set of isomorphism classes of Galois coverings of $V$ with Galois group $M$. If, for example, $V$ is nonsingular and we take $P$ to be the generic point of $V$, then every finite connected étale covering of $V$ is isomorphic to the normalization of $V$ in some finite extension $K^{\prime}$ of $k(P)$ contained in a fixed separable algebraic closure $K^{\text {sep }}$ of $K$; moreover, $\pi_{1}(V, P)=\operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\text {un }} / K\right)$ where $K^{\mathrm{un}}$ is the union of all finite extensions $K^{\prime}$ of $k(P)$ in $K^{\text {sep }}$ such that the normalization of $V$ in $K^{\prime}$ is étale over V . The covering corresponding to a continuous homomorphism $\alpha: \operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\mathrm{un}} / K\right) \rightarrow M$ is the normalization of $V$ in $\left(K^{\mathrm{sep}}\right)^{\mathrm{Ker}(\alpha)}$. (See LEC, $\S 3$, or Milne 1980, I $\S 5$, for a more detailed discussion of étale fundamental groups.)

Now let $C$ be a complete nonsingular curve over a field $k$, and let $f=f^{P}$ for some $P$ in $C(k)$. From a finite étale covering $J^{\prime} \rightarrow J$ of $J$, we obtain an étale covering of $C$ by pulling back relative to $f$ :


Because all finite étale coverings of $J$ are abelian (cf. I 12.3 ), we only obtain abelian coverings of $C$ in this way. The next proposition shows that we obtain all such coverings.

Henceforth, $k$ will be separably closed.
Proposition 9.1. If $J^{\prime} \rightarrow J$ is a connected étale covering of $J$, then $C^{\prime}=C \times{ }_{J} J^{\prime} \rightarrow C$ is a connected étale covering of $C$, and every connected abelian covering of $C$ is obtained in this way. Equivalently, the map $\pi_{1}(C, P)^{\mathrm{ab}} \rightarrow \pi_{1}(J, 0)$ induced by $f^{P}$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. The equivalence of the two assertions follows from the interpretation of

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(\pi_{1}(V, P), M\right)
$$

recalled above and the fact that $\pi_{1}(J, 0)$ is abelian. We shall prove the second assertion. For this it suffices to show that for all integers $n$, the map

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(\pi_{1}(J, 0), \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(\pi_{1}(C, P), \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}\right)
$$

induced by $f^{P}$ is an isomorphism. The next two lemmas take care of the case that $n$ is prime to the characteristic of $k$.

[^26]Lemma 9.2. Let $V$ be complete nonsingular variety and let $P$ be a point of $V$; then for all integers $n$ prime to the characteristic of $k$,

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\text {conts }}\left(\pi_{1}(V, P), \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}\right) \simeq \operatorname{Pic}(V)_{n}
$$

Proof. Let $D$ be a (Weil) divisor on $V$ such that $n D=(g)$ for some $g \in k(V)$, and let $V^{\prime}$ be the normalization of $V$ in the Kummer extension $k(V)\left(g^{1 / n}\right)$ of $k(V)$. A purity theorem Grothendieck 1971, X 3.1, shows that $V^{\prime} \rightarrow V$ is étale if, for all prime divisors $Z$ on $V$, the discrete valuation ring $\mathcal{O}_{Z}$ (local ring at the generic point of $Z$ ) is unramified in $k\left(V^{\prime}\right)$. But the extension $k\left(V^{\prime}\right) / k(V)$ was constructed by extracting the $n$th root of an element $g$ such that $\operatorname{ord}_{Z}(g)=0$ if $Z$ is not in the support of $D$ and is divisible by $n$ otherwise, and it follows from this that $\mathcal{O}_{Z}$ is unramified. Conversely, let $V^{\prime} \rightarrow V$ be a Galois covering with Galois group $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$. Kummer theory shows that the $k\left(V^{\prime}\right) / k(V)$ is obtained by extracting the $n$th root of an element $g$ of $k(V)$. Let $Z$ be a prime divisor on V. Because $\mathcal{O}_{Z}$ is unramified in $k\left(V^{\prime}\right), \operatorname{ord}_{Z}(g)$ must be divisible by $n$ (or is zero), and so $(g)=n D$ for some divisor $D$. Obviously $D$ represents an element of $\operatorname{Pic}(V)_{n}$. It is easy to see now that the correspondence we have defined between coverings of $V$ and elements of $\operatorname{Pic}(V)_{n}$ is one-to-one. (For a proof using étale cohomology, see Milne 1980, III, 4.11.) $\square_{\square}$

Lemma 9.3. The map $\operatorname{Pic}(J) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}(C)$ defined by $f$ induces an isomorphism $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(J) \rightarrow$ $\mathrm{Pic}^{0}(C)$.

Proof. This was noted in (6.10k).
In the case that $n=p=\operatorname{char}(k)$, 9.2) and 9.3) must be replaced by the following analogues.

Lemma 9.4. For any complete nonsingular variety $V$ and point $P$,

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(\pi_{1}(V, P), \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}\right) \simeq \operatorname{Ker}\left(1-F: H^{1}\left(V, \mathcal{O}_{V}\right) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(V, \mathcal{O}_{V}\right)\right),
$$

where $F$ is the map induced by $a \mapsto a^{p}: \mathcal{O}_{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{V}$.
Proof. See Milne 1980, p127, for a proof using étale cohomology as well as for hints for an elementary proof.

Lemma 9.5. The map $f^{P}: C \rightarrow J$ induces an isomorphism $H^{1}\left(J, \mathcal{O}_{J}\right) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(C, \mathcal{O}_{C}\right)$.
Proof. See Serre 1959, VII, Théoreme 9. (Alternatively, note that the same argument as in the proof of 2.1) gives an isomorphism $H^{1}\left(J, \mathcal{O}_{J}\right) \xrightarrow{\simeq} T_{0}\left(J^{\vee}\right)$, and we know that $J \simeq J^{\vee}$.)

To prove the case $n=p^{m}$, one only has to replace $\mathcal{O}_{C}$ and $\mathcal{O}_{J}$ by the sheaves of Witt vectors of length $m, W_{m} \mathcal{O}_{C}$ and $W_{m} \mathcal{O}_{J}$. (It is also possible to use a five-lemma argument starting from the case $m=1$.)

Corollary 9.6. For all primes $\ell$, the map of étale cohomology groups $H^{1}\left(J, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \rightarrow$ $H^{1}\left(C, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)$ induced by $f$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. For any variety $V, H^{1}\left(V_{\text {et }}, \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}\right)=\operatorname{Hom}\left(\pi_{1}(V, P), \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}\right)$ Milne 1980, III. 4. Therefore, there are isomorphisms

$$
\begin{aligned}
H^{1}\left(J, \mathbb{Z} / \ell^{m} \mathbb{Z}\right) & \simeq \operatorname{Hom}\left(\pi_{1}(J, P), \mathbb{Z} / \ell^{m} \mathbb{Z}\right) \\
& \simeq \operatorname{Hom}\left(\pi_{1}(C, P), \mathbb{Z} / \ell^{m} \mathbb{Z}\right) \\
& \simeq H^{1}\left(C, Z / \ell^{m} Z\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and we obtained the required isomorphism by passing to the limit.
To obtain ramified coverings of $C$, one can use the generalized Jacobians.
Proposition 9.7. Let $C^{\prime} \rightarrow C$ be a finite abelian covering of $C$ that is unramified outside a finite set $\Sigma$. Then there is a modulus $\mathfrak{m}$ with support on $\Sigma$ and an étale isogeny $J^{\prime} \rightarrow J_{\mathfrak{m}}$ whose pull-back by $f_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is $C^{\prime} \backslash f^{-1}(\Sigma)$.

Proof. See Serre 1959.
EXAMPLE 9.8. In the case that the curve is $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ and $\mathfrak{m}=0+\infty$, we have $J_{\mathfrak{m}}=$ $\mathbb{P}^{1} \backslash\{0, \infty\}$, which is just the multiplicative group $\mathrm{GL}_{1}$, and $f_{\mathfrak{m}}$ is an isomorphism. For any $n$ prime to the characteristic, there is a unique unramified covering of $\mathbb{P}^{1} \backslash\{0, \infty\}$ of degree $n$, namely multiplication by $n$ on $\mathbb{P}^{1} \backslash\{0, \infty\}$. When $k=\mathbb{C}$, this covering is the usual unramified covering $z \mapsto z^{n}: \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$.

Proposition 9.9. Let $C$ be a curve of genus $g$ over a number field $k$, and let $P$ be a $k$ rational point of $C$. Let $S$ be a finite set of primes of $k$ containing all primes dividing 2 and such that $C$ has good reduction outside $S$. Then there exists a field $k^{\prime}$ of degree $\leq 2^{2 g}$ over $k$ and unramified over $S$, and a finite map $f_{P}: C_{P} \rightarrow C_{k^{\prime}}$ of degree $\leq 2^{2^{2 g}}(g-1)+2 g+1$, ramified exactly over $P$, and such that $C_{P}$ has good reduction outside $S$.

Proof (SKETCH) Let $C^{\prime}$ be the pull-back of 2: $J \rightarrow J$; it is an abelian étale covering of $C$ of degree $2^{2 g}$, and the Hurwitz genus formula (Hartshorne 1977, IV 2.4) shows that the genus $g^{\prime}$ of $C^{\prime}$ satisfies

$$
2 g^{\prime}-2=2^{2 g}(2 g-2)
$$

so that $g^{\prime}=2^{2 g}(g-1)+1$. Let $D$ be the inverse image of $P$ on $C^{\prime}$. It is a divisor of degree $2^{2 g}$ on $C^{\prime}$, and after an extension $k^{\prime}$ of $k$ of degree $\leq 2^{2 g}$ unramified over $S$, some point $P$ of $D$ will be rational. Let $\mathfrak{m}=D-P$, and let $C^{\prime \prime}$ be the pull-back of the covering 2: $J_{\mathfrak{m}} \rightarrow J_{\mathfrak{m}}$ (of degree $\leq 2^{2 g^{\prime}}$ ) by $C \backslash \Sigma \rightarrow J_{\mathfrak{m}}$, where $\Sigma=\operatorname{Supp}(D) \backslash\{P\}$. Then $C^{\prime \prime}$ is a curve over $k^{\prime}$, and we take $C_{P}$ to the associated complete nonsingular curve.

This result has a very striking consequence. Recall that a conjecture of Shafarevich states the following:
9.10. For any number field $k$, integer $g$, and finite set $S$ of primes of $k$, there are only finitely many isomorphism classes of curves $C$ of genus $g$ over $k$ having good reduction at all primes outside $S$.

THEOREM 9.11. Shafarevich's conjecture (9.10) implies Mordell's conjecture.

Proof. Let $C$ be curve of genus $g \geq 2$ over $k$ with good reduction outside a set $S$ containing all primes of $k$ lying over 2 . There is a finite field extension $K$ of $k$ containing all extensions $k^{\prime}$ of $k$ of degree $\leq 2^{2 g}$ that are unramified outside $S$. For each $k$-rational point $P$ on $C$, Proposition 9.10 provides a map $f_{P}: C_{P} \rightarrow C_{K}$ of degree $\leq a$ fixed bound $B(g)$ which is ramified exactly over $P$; moreover, $C_{P}$ has good reduction outside $S$. The Hurwitz genus formula shows that

$$
2 g\left(C_{P}\right)-2 \leq B(g)(2 g-2)+B(g)-1
$$

Therefore Shafarevich's conjecture implies that there can be only finitely many curves $C_{P}$. A classical result of de Franchis (Lang 1983, p223) states that for each $C_{P}$, there are only finitely many maps $C_{P} \rightarrow C$ (this is where it is used that $g \geq 2$ ). Therefore there can be only finitely many of $k$-rational points on $C$, as predicted by Mordell.

## 10 Abelian varieties are quotients of Jacobian varieties

The main result in this section sometimes allows questions concerning abelian varieties to be reduced to the special case of Jacobian varieties.

THEOREM 10.1. For any abelian variety $A$ over an infinite field $k$, there is a Jacobian variety $J$ and a surjective homomorpism $J \rightarrow A .{ }^{4}$

LEMMA 10.2. Let $\pi: W \rightarrow V$ be a finite morphism of complete varieties, and let $\mathcal{L}$ be an invertible sheaf on $V$. If $\mathcal{L}$ is ample, then so also is $\pi^{*} \mathcal{L}$.

Proof. We shall use the following criterion (Hartshorne 1977, III, 5.3): an invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on a complete variety is ample if and only if, for all coherent $\mathcal{O}_{V}$-modules $\mathcal{F}, H^{i}(V, \mathcal{F} \otimes$ $\left.\mathcal{L}^{n}\right)=0$ for all $i>0$ and sufficiently large $n$. Also we shall need an elementary projection formula: if $\mathcal{N}$ and $\mathcal{M}$ are coherent sheaves of modules on $W$ and $V$ respectively, then

$$
\pi_{*}\left(\mathcal{N} \otimes \pi^{*} \mathcal{M}\right) \simeq \pi_{*} \mathcal{N} \otimes \mathcal{M}
$$

(Locally, this says that if $B$ is an A-algebra and $N$ and $M$ are modules over $B$ and A respectively, then $N \otimes_{B}\left(B \otimes_{A} M\right) \simeq N \otimes_{A} M$ as A-modules.)

Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a coherent $\mathcal{O}_{W}$-module. Because $\pi$ is finite (hence affine), we have by (Hartshorne 1977, II Ex.4.1, or Ex.8.2) that

$$
H^{i}\left(W, \mathcal{F} \otimes \pi^{*} \mathcal{L}^{n}\right) \simeq H^{i}\left(V, \pi_{*}\left(\mathcal{F} \otimes \pi^{*} \mathcal{L}^{n}\right)\right)
$$

The projection formula shows that the second group equals $H^{i}\left(V, \pi_{*} \mathcal{F} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{n}\right)$, which is zero for all $i>0$ and sufficiently large $n$ because $\mathcal{L}$ is ample and $\pi_{*} \mathcal{F}$ is coherent (Hartshorne 1977, II 4.1). The criterion now shows that $\pi^{*} \mathcal{L}$ is ample.

LEMMA 10.3. Let $V$ be a nonsingular projective variety of dimension $\geq 2$ over a field $k$, and let $Z$ be a hyperplane section of $V$ relative to some fixed embedding $V \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$. Then, for any finite map $\pi$ from a nonsingular variety $W$ to $V, \pi^{-1}(Z)$ is geometrically connected (i.e., is connected and remains connected under extensions of the base field).

[^27]Proof. The hypotheses are stable under a change of the base field, and so we can assume that $k$ is algebraically closed. It then suffices to show that $\pi^{-1}(Z)$ is connected. Because $Z$ is an ample divisor on $V$, the preceding lemma shows that $\pi^{-1}(Z)$ is the support of an ample divisor on $W$, which implies that it is connected (Hartshorne 1977, III, 7.9).

Proof (proof of 10.1) Since all elliptic curves are their own Jacobians, we can assume that $\operatorname{dim}(A)>1$. Fix an embedding $A \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ of $A$ into projective space. Then Bertini's theorem (Hartshorne 1977, II, 8.18) shows that there exists an open dense subset $U$ of the dual projective space $\mathbb{P}_{\bar{k}}^{n \vee}$ of $\mathbb{P}_{\bar{k}}^{n}$ such that, for all hyperplanes $H$ in $U, A_{\bar{k}} \cap H$ is nonsingular and connected. Because $k$ is infinite, $U(k)$ is nonempty (consider a line $L$ in $\mathbb{P}_{\bar{k}}^{n \vee}$ ), and so there exists such an $H$ with coordinates in $k$. Then $A \cap H$ is a (geometrically connected) nonsingular variety in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$. On repeating the $\operatorname{argument} \operatorname{dim}(A)-1$ times, we arrive at a nonsingular curve $C$ on $A$ that is the intersection of $A$ with a linear subspace of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$. Now 10.3 applied several times shows that for any nonsingular variety $W$ and finite map $\pi: W \rightarrow A, \pi^{-1}(C)$ is geometrically connected.

Consider the map $J \rightarrow A$ arising from the inclusion of $C$ into $A$, and let $A_{1}$ be the image of the map. It is an abelian subvariety of $A$, and if it is not the whole of $A$, then there is an abelian subvariety $A_{2}$ of $A$ such that $A_{1} \times A_{2} \rightarrow A$ is an isogeny (I 10.1); in particular, $A_{1} \cap A_{2}$ is finite. As $C \subset A_{1}$, this implies that $C \cap A_{2}$ is finite. Let $W=A_{1} \times A_{2}$ and take $\pi$ to be the composite of $1 \times n_{A_{2}}: A_{1} \times A_{2} \rightarrow A_{1} \times A_{2}$ with $A_{1} \times A_{2} \rightarrow A$, where $n>1$ is an integer prime to the characteristic of $k$. Then $\pi^{-1}(C)$ is not geometrically connected because $q\left(\pi^{-1} C\right)=n_{A_{2}}^{-1}\left(A_{2} \cap C\right)$. This is a contradiction, and so $A_{1}$ must equal $A$.

REMARK 10.4. (a). Lemma 10.2 has the following useful restatement: let $V$ be a variety over a field $k$ and let $D$ be divisor on $V$ such that the linear system $|D|$ is without base points; if the map $V \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ defined by $|D|$ is finite, then $D$ is ample.
(b). If some of the major theorems from étale cohomology are assumed, then it is possible to give a very short proof of the theorem. They show that, for any curve $C$ on $A$ constructed as in the above proof, the map $H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(C, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)$ induced by the inclusion of $C$ into $A$ is injective (see Milne 1980, VI 5.6). But $H^{1}\left(A, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)$ is dual to $T_{\ell} A$ and $H^{1}\left(C, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)$ is dual to $T_{\ell} J$, and so this says that the map $T_{\ell} J \rightarrow T_{\ell} A$ induced by $J \rightarrow A$ is surjective. Clearly this implies that $J$ maps onto $A$.

QUESTION 10.5 (OPEN). Let $A$ be an abelian variety over an algebraically closed field $k$. We have shown that there is a surjection $J \rightarrow A$ with $J$ a Jacobian variety. Let $A_{1}$ be the subvariety of $J$ with support the identity component of the kernel of this map. Then $A_{1}$ is an abelian variety, and so there is a surjection $J_{1} \rightarrow A_{1}$. Continuing in this way, we obtain a sequence of abelian varieties $A, A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots$ and a complex

$$
\cdots \rightarrow J_{2} \rightarrow J_{1} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0
$$

Is it possible to make the constructions in such a way that the sequence terminates with 0 ? That is, does there exist a finite resolution (up to isogeny) of an arbitrary abelian variety by Jacobian varieties?

## 11 The zeta function of a curve

Let $C$ be a complete nonsingular curve over a finite field $k=\mathbb{F}_{q}$. The best way to prove the Riemann hypothesis for $C$ is to use intersection theory on $C \times C$ (see Hartshorne 1977, V,

Ex. 1.10), but in this section we show how it can be derived from the corresponding result for the Jacobian of $C$. Recall (II §1) that the characteristic polynomial of the Frobenius endomorphism $\pi_{J}$ of $J$ acting on $T_{\ell} J$ is a polynomial $P(X)$ of degree $2 g$ with integral coefficients whose roots $a_{i}$ have absolute value $q^{1 / 2}$.

THEOREM 11.1. The number $N$ of points on $C$ with coordinates in $k$ is equal to $1-\sum a_{i}+$ $q$. Therefore, $|N-q-1| \leq 2 g q^{1 / 2}$.

The proof will be based on the following analogue of the Lefschetz trace formula. A map $\alpha: C \rightarrow C$ induces a unique endomorphism $\alpha^{\prime}$ of $J$ such that $f^{P} \alpha=\alpha^{\prime} f^{P}$ for any point $P$ in $C\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$ (cf. 6.1).

Proposition 11.2. For any endomorphism $\alpha$ of $C$,

$$
\left(\Gamma_{\alpha} \cdot \Delta\right)=1-\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)
$$

Recall (I §10) that if $P_{\alpha^{\prime}}(X)=\left(X-a_{i}\right)$, then $\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha)=a_{i}$, and that $\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)=$ $\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha^{\prime} \mid T_{\ell} J\right)$. We now show that the proposition implies the theorem. Let $\pi_{C}: C_{k^{\text {al }}} \rightarrow C_{k^{\text {al }}}$ be the Frobenius endomorphism of $C$ (see II §1).

Then $\left(\Gamma_{\pi_{C}} \cdot \Delta\right)=N$, the degree of $\pi_{C}$ is $q$, and the map induced by $\pi_{C}$ on $J$ is $\pi_{J}$. Therefore the formula in 11.2 immediately gives that in 11.1). Before proving (11.2) we need a lemma.

Lemma 11.3. Let $A$ be an abelian variety of dimension $g$ over a field $k$, and let $H$ be the class of an ample divisor in $\mathrm{NS}(A)$. For any endomorphism $\alpha$ of $A$, write $D_{H}(\alpha)=$ $(\alpha+1)^{*}(H)-\alpha^{*}(H)-H$. Then

$$
\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha)=g \frac{\left(H^{g-1} \cdot D_{H}(\alpha)\right)}{\left(H^{g}\right)}
$$

Proof. ${ }^{5}$ The calculation in (I 10.13, shows that

$$
(\alpha+n)^{*}(H)=n(n-1) H+n(\alpha+1)^{*} H-(n-1) \alpha^{*}(H)
$$

(because $\left(2_{A}\right)^{*} H=4 H$ in $\mathrm{NS}(A)$ ), and so

$$
(\alpha+n)^{*} H=n^{2} H+n D_{H}(\alpha)+\alpha^{*}(H)
$$

Now the required identity can be read off from the equation

$$
P_{\alpha}(-n)=\operatorname{deg}(\alpha+n)=\left(\left((\alpha+n)^{*} H\right)^{g}\right) /\left(H^{g}\right)
$$

(AG 12.10 because $P_{\alpha}(-n)=n^{2 g}+\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha) n^{2 g-1}+\cdots$.
We now prove 11.2 . Consider the commutative diagram


[^28]where $f=f^{P}$ for some rational point $P$ of $C$. Consider the sheaf
$$
\mathcal{L}^{\prime}(\Theta) \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} \mathcal{L}\left(m^{*} \Theta-\Theta \times J-J \times \Theta\right)
$$
on $J \times J$ (see §6). Then
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\left(1 \times \alpha^{\prime}\right)(f \times f)\right)^{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}(\Theta) & =((f \times f)(1 \times \alpha))^{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}(\Theta) \\
& \simeq(1 \times \alpha)^{*}(f \times f)^{*} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}(\Theta) \\
& \simeq(1 \times \alpha)^{*}\left(\mathcal{L}^{P}\right)^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

by a formula in 6.11. Now

$$
\Delta^{*}(1 \times \alpha)^{*} \mathcal{L}^{P}=\mathcal{L}\left(\Gamma_{\alpha} \cdot(\Delta-P \times C-C \times P)\right)
$$

which has degree $\left(\Gamma_{\alpha} \cdot \Delta\right)-1-\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)$. We next compute the sheaf by going round the diagram the other way. As $(1 \times \alpha) \circ \Delta=(1, \alpha)$, we have

$$
((1 \times \alpha) \circ \Delta)^{*} \mathcal{L}\left(m^{*} \Theta\right) \approx(1+\alpha)^{*} \mathcal{L}(\Theta)
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{deg} f^{*} \mathcal{L}\left((1+\alpha)^{*}(\Theta)\right)=\operatorname{deg} f^{*}(1+\alpha)^{*} \Theta
$$

Similarly

$$
\operatorname{deg} f^{*}((1 \times \alpha) \Delta)^{*} \mathcal{L}(\Theta \times J)=\operatorname{deg} f^{*} \Theta
$$

and ${ }^{6}$

$$
\operatorname{deg} f^{*}((1 \times \alpha) \Delta)^{*} \mathcal{L}(J \times \Theta)=\mathcal{L}\left(C \cdot \alpha^{*} \theta\right)
$$

and so we find that

$$
1-\left(\Gamma_{\alpha} \cdot \Delta\right)+\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)=\operatorname{deg} f^{*}\left(D_{\Theta}(\alpha)\right)
$$

We know 6.12 that $\left(\Theta^{g}\right)=g!$, and it is possible to show that $f^{*}\left(D_{\theta}(\alpha)\right)=(f(C) \cdot$ $D_{\Theta}(\alpha)$ ) is equal to $(g-1)!\left(\Theta^{g-1} \cdot D_{\Theta}(\alpha)\right)$ (see Lang 1959, IV, $\left.\S 3\right)$. Therefore 11.3 ) completes the proof.

Corollary 11.4. The zeta function of $C$ is equal to

$$
Z(C, t)=\frac{P(t)}{(1-t)(1-q t)} .
$$

REMARK 11.5. As we saw in 9.6,

$$
H^{1}\left(C_{\mathrm{et}}, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)=H^{1}\left(J_{\mathrm{et}}, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)=\left(T_{\ell} J\right)^{\vee}
$$

and so 11.2 ) can be rewritten as

$$
\left(\Gamma_{\alpha} \cdot \Delta\right)=(-1)^{i} \operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha \mid H^{i}\left(C_{\mathrm{et}}, \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right)\right)
$$

[^29]
## 12 Torelli's theorem: statement and applications

Torelli's theorem says that a curve $C$ is uniquely determined by its canonically polarized Jacobian ( $J, \lambda$ ).

THEOREM 12.1. Let $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ be complete smooth curves over an algebraically closed field $k$, and let $f: C \rightarrow J$ and $f^{\prime}: C^{\prime} \rightarrow J^{\prime}$ be the maps of $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ into their Jacobians defined by points $P$ and $P^{\prime}$ on $C$ and $C^{\prime}$. Let $\beta:(J, \lambda) \rightarrow\left(J^{\prime}, \lambda^{\prime}\right)$ be an isomorphism from the canonically polarized Jacobian of $C$ to that of $C^{\prime}$.
(a) There exists an isomorphism $\alpha$ : $C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$ such that $f^{\prime} \alpha= \pm \beta f+c$, for some $c$ in $J^{\prime}(k)$.
(b) Assume that $C$ has genus $\geq 2$. If $C$ is not hyperelliptic, then the map $\alpha$, the sign $\pm$, and $c$ are uniquely determined by $\beta, P, P^{\prime}$. If $C$ is hyperelliptic, the sign can be chosen arbitrarily, and then $\alpha$ and $c$ are uniquely determined.

PROOF. (a) The proof involves complicated combinatorial arguments in the $W^{r}$ - we defer it to the next section.
(b) Recall Hartshorne 1977, IV, 5, that a curve $C$ is hyperelliptic if there exists a finite map $\pi: C \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$ of degree 2 ; the fibres of such a map form a linear system on $C$ of degree 2 and dimension 1 , and this is the unique such linear system on $C$. Conversely if $C$ has a linear system of degree 2 and dimension 1 , then the linear system defines a finite map $\pi: C \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$ of degree 2 , and so $C$ is hyperelliptic; the fibres of $\pi$ are the members of the linear system, and so the nontrivial automorphism $\iota$ of $C$ such that $\pi \iota=\pi$ preserves these individual members.

Now suppose that there exist $\alpha, \alpha^{\prime}, c$, and $c^{\prime}$ such that

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{c}
f^{\prime} \alpha=+\beta f+c  \tag{4}\\
f^{\prime} \alpha^{\prime}=+\beta f+c^{\prime} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Then $f^{\prime}(\alpha(Q))-f^{\prime}\left(\alpha^{\prime}(Q)\right)=c-c^{\prime}$ for all $Q \in C(k)$, which is a constant. Since the fibres of the map $\operatorname{Div}_{C}^{0}(k) \rightarrow J(k)$ defined by $f^{\prime}$ are the linear equivalence classes (see $\S 2$ ), this implies that for all $Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$ in $C(k)$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \alpha(Q)-\alpha^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right) \sim \alpha^{\prime}(Q)-\alpha\left(Q^{\prime}\right) \\
& \alpha(Q)+\alpha^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right) \sim \alpha^{\prime}(Q)+\alpha\left(Q^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose $\alpha \neq \alpha^{\prime}$. Then $\alpha\left(Q_{0}\right) \neq \alpha^{\prime}\left(Q_{0}\right)$ for some $Q_{0} \in C(k)$ and, for a suitable $Q_{0}^{\prime}$, $\alpha\left(Q_{0}\right) \neq \alpha\left(Q_{0}^{\prime}\right)$. Therefore $\left|\alpha\left(Q_{0}\right)+\alpha^{\prime}\left(Q_{0}^{\prime}\right)\right|$ is a linear system and dimension $\geq 1$ (and degree 2 ) on $C^{\prime}$. If $C$ (hence $C^{\prime}$ ) is nonhyperelliptic, there is no such system, and we have a contradiction. If $C$ is hyperelliptic, then there is a unique linear system of dimension 1 and degree 2 , but it is obvious that by varying the points $Q_{0}$ and $Q_{0}^{\prime}$ we must get more than one system. Again we have a contradiction. We conclude that $\alpha=\alpha^{\prime}$, and this implies that $c=c^{\prime}$.

On the other hand, suppose that the equations (4) hold with different signs, say with a plus and a minus respectively. Then the same argument shows that

$$
\alpha(Q)+\alpha^{\prime}(Q) \sim \alpha\left(Q^{\prime}\right)+\alpha^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right), \text { all } Q, Q^{\prime} \text { in } C(k)
$$

Therefore $\left\{\alpha(Q)+\alpha^{\prime}(Q) \mid Q \in C(k)\right\}$ is a linear system on $C^{\prime}$ of dimension $\geq 1$, which is impossible if $C$ is nonhyperelliptic. (In the case $C$ is hyperelliptic, there is an involution $\iota$ of $C^{\prime}$ such that $\iota \alpha=\alpha^{\prime}$.)

The case that the equations (4) hold with minus signs can be treated the same way as the first case.

Finally let $C^{\prime}$ be hyperelliptic with an involution $\iota$ such that $\left|Q^{\prime}+\iota Q^{\prime}\right|$ is a linear system and $f^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)+f^{\prime}\left(\iota Q^{\prime}\right)=$ constant. Then if $f^{\prime} \circ \alpha=\beta \circ f+c$, we have $f^{\prime} \circ \iota \alpha=-\beta \circ f+c^{\prime}$.

Corollary 12.2. Let $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ be curves of genus $\geq 2$ over a perfect field $k$. If the canonically polarized Jacobian varieties of $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ are isomorphic over $k$, then so also are $C$ and $C^{\prime}$.

Proof. Choose an isomorphism $\beta:(J, \lambda) \rightarrow\left(J^{\prime}, \lambda^{\prime}\right)$ defined over $k$. For each choice of a pair of points $P$ and $P^{\prime}$ in $C\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$ and $C^{\prime}\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$, there is a unique isomorphism $\alpha: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$ such that

$$
f^{P} \circ \alpha= \pm \beta \circ f^{P}+c
$$

for some $c$ in $J^{\prime}\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$ (in the case that $C$ is hyperelliptic, we choose the sign to be + ). Note that if $\left(P, P^{\prime}\right)$ are replaced by the pair $\left(Q, Q^{\prime}\right)$, then $f^{Q}=f^{P}+d$ and $f^{Q^{\prime}}=f^{P^{\prime}}+e$ for some $d \in J\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)$ and $e \in J^{\prime}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)$, and so

$$
f^{Q^{\prime}} \circ \alpha=f^{P^{\prime}} \circ \alpha+e= \pm \beta \circ f^{P}+c+e= \pm \beta \circ f^{Q} \bar{\mp} \beta(d)+c+e
$$

In particular, we see that $\alpha$ does not depend on the choice of the pair ( $P, P^{\prime}$ ). On applying $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\text {al }} / k\right)$ to the above equation, we obtain an equation

$$
\sigma f^{P^{\prime}} \circ \sigma \alpha= \pm \beta \circ \sigma f^{P}+\sigma c
$$

As $\sigma f^{P^{\prime}}=f^{\sigma P^{\prime}}$ and $\sigma f^{P}=f^{\sigma P}$, we see that $\sigma \alpha=\alpha$, and so $\alpha$ is defined over $k$.
Corollary 12.3. Let $k$ be an algebraic number field, and let $S$ be a finite set of primes in $k$. The map $C \mapsto\left(J_{C}, \lambda\right)$ sending a curve to its canonically polarized Jacobian variety defines an injection from the set of isomorphism classes of curves of genus $\geq 2$ with good reduction outside $S$ into the set of isomorphism classes of principally polarized abelian varieties over $k$ with good reduction outside $S$.

Proof. Let $R$ be the discrete valuation ring in $k$ corresponding to prime of $k$ not in S . Then $C$ extends to a smooth proper curve $\mathcal{C}$ over spec $(R)$, and (see $\S 8$ ) the Jacobian $\mathcal{J}$ of $\mathcal{C}$ has generic fibre the Jacobian of $C$ and special fibre the Jacobian of the reduction of $C$. Therefore $J_{C}$ has good reduction at the prime in question. The corollary is now obvious. $\square$

Corollary 12.4. Suppose that for any number field $k$, any finite set $S$ primes of $k$, and any integer $g$, there are only finitely many principally polarized abelian varieties of dimension $g$ over $k$ having good reduction outside $S$. Then Mordell's conjecture is true.

Proof. Combine the last corollary with 9.11 .
Remark 12.5. Corollary 12.2 is false as stated without the condition that the genus of $C$ is greater than 1 . It would say that all curves of genus zero over $k$ are isomorphic to $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ (but in general there exist conics defined over $k$ having no rational point in $k$ ), and it would say that all curves of genus 1 are isomorphic to their Jacobians (and, in particular, have a rational point). However it is obviously true (without restriction on the genus) that two curves over $k$ having $k$-rational points are isomorphic over $k$ if their canonically polarized Jacobians are isomorphic over $k$.

## 13 Torelli's theorem: the proof

The proof that follows is short and elementary but unilluminating (to me, at least). There are many proofs of Torelli's theorem, but I don't know if there is one that is short, elementary, and conceptual. Advice appreciated.

Throughout this section, $C$ will be a complete nonsingular curve of genus $g \geq 2$ over an algebraically closed field $k$, and $P$ will be a closed point of $C$. The maps $f^{P}: C \rightarrow J$ and $f^{(r)}: C^{(r)} \rightarrow J$ corresponding to $P$ will all be denoted by $f$. Therefore $f\left(D+D^{\prime}\right)=$ $f(D)+f\left(D^{\prime}\right)$, and if $f(D)=f\left(D^{\prime}\right)$, then $D \sim D^{\prime}+r P$ where $r=\operatorname{deg}(D)-\operatorname{deg}\left(D^{\prime}\right)$. As usual, the image of $C^{(r)}$ in $J$ is denoted by $W^{r}$. A canonical divisor $K$ on $C$ defines a point on $C^{(2 g-2)}$ whose image in $J$ will be denoted by $\kappa$. For any subvariety $Z$ of $J, Z^{*}$ will denote the image of $Z$ under the map $x \mapsto \kappa-x$.

Lemma 13.1. For all $a$ in $J(k),\left(W_{a}^{g-1}\right)^{*}=W_{-a}^{g-1}$.
Proof. For any effective divisor $D$ of degree $g-1$ on $C$,

$$
h^{0}(K-D)=h^{1}(K-D)=h^{0}(D) \geq 1
$$

and so there exists an effective divisor $D^{\prime}$ such that $K-D \sim D^{\prime}$. Then $\kappa-f(D)-a=$ $f\left(D^{\prime}\right)$ - a, which shows that $\left(W_{a}^{g-1}\right)^{*} \subset W_{-a}^{g-1}$. On replacing $a$ by $-a$, we get that $\left(W_{-a}^{g-1}\right)^{*} \subset W_{a}^{g-1}$, and so $W_{-a}^{g-1}=\left(W_{-a}^{g-1}\right)^{* *} \subset\left(W_{-a}^{g-1}\right)^{*}$.

LEMMA 13.2. For any $r$ such that $0 \leq r \leq g-1$,

$$
W_{a}^{r} \subset W_{b}^{g-1} \Longleftrightarrow a \in W_{b}^{g-1-r}
$$

PROOF. $\Longleftarrow$ : If $c=f(D)+a$ with $D$ an effective divisor of degree $r$, and $a=f\left(D^{\prime}\right)+b$ with $D^{\prime}$ an effective divisor of degree $g-1-r$, then $c=f\left(D+D^{\prime}\right)+b$ with $D+D^{\prime}$ an effective divisor of degree $g-1$.
$\Longrightarrow$ As $a \in W_{b}^{g-1}$, there is an effective divisor $A$ of degree $g-1$ such that $a=$ $f(A)+b$. Let $D$ be effective of degree $r$. The hypothesis states that $f(D)+a=f(\bar{D})+b$ for some $\bar{D}$ effective of degree $g-1$, and so $f(D)+f(A)=f(\bar{D})$ and

$$
D+A \sim \bar{D}+r P
$$

Choose effective divisors $A^{\prime}$ and $\bar{D}^{\prime}$ of degree $g-1$ such that $A+A^{\prime}$ and $\bar{D}+\bar{D}^{\prime}$ are linearly equivalent to $K$ (cf. the proof of 13.1 ). Then

$$
D+K-A^{\prime} \sim K-\bar{D}^{\prime}+r P
$$

and so

$$
D+\bar{D}^{\prime} \sim A^{\prime}+r P
$$

As the $D$ s form a family of dimension $r$, this shows that $h^{0}\left(A^{\prime}+r P\right) \geq r+1$. (In more detail, $\left|A^{\prime}+r P\right|$ can be regarded as a closed subvariety of $C^{(r+g-1)}$, and we have shown that it projects onto the whole of $C^{(r)}$.) It follows from the Riemann-Roch theorem that $h^{0}\left(K-A^{\prime}-r P\right) \geq 1$, and so there is an effective divisor $\bar{A}$ of degree $g-1+r$ such that

$$
A^{\prime}+\bar{A}+r P \sim K
$$

Therefore $\bar{A}+r P \sim K-A^{\prime} \sim A$, and so $f(\bar{A})=f\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ and $a=f(\bar{A})+b \in W_{b}^{g-1-r}$.ם

LEMMA 13.3. For any $r$ such that $0 \leq r \leq g-1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
W^{g-1-r} & =\bigcap\left\{W_{-a}^{g-1} \mid a \in W^{r}\right\} \text { and } \\
\left(W^{g-1-r}\right)^{*} & =\bigcap\left\{W_{a}^{g-1} \mid a \in W^{r}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. Clearly, for a fixed $a$ in $J(k)$,

$$
W^{g-1-r} \subset W_{-a}^{g-1} \Longleftrightarrow W_{a}^{g-1-r} \subset W^{g-1}
$$

and 13.2 shows that both hold if $a \in W^{r}$. Therefore

$$
W^{g-1-r} \subset \bigcap\left\{W_{-a}^{g-1} \mid a \in W^{r}\right\}
$$

Conversely, $c \in W_{-a}^{g-1} \Longleftrightarrow a \in W_{-c}^{g-1}$, and so if $c \in W_{-a}^{g-1}$ for all $a \in W^{r}$, then $W^{r} \subset W_{-c}^{g-1}$ and $W_{c}^{r} \subset W^{g-1}$. According to 13.2 , this implies that $c \in W^{g-1-r}$, which completes the proof the first equality. The second follows from the first and the equation

$$
\begin{aligned}
\bigcap\left\{W_{a}^{g-1} \mid a \in W^{r}\right\} & =\bigcap\left\{\left(W_{-a}^{g-1}\right)^{*} \mid a \in W^{r}\right\} \\
& =\left(\bigcap\left\{W_{-a}^{g-1} \mid a \in W^{r}\right\}\right)^{*}
\end{aligned}
$$

LEmmA 13.4. Let $r$ be such that $0 \leq r \leq g-2$, and let $a$ and $b$ be points of $J(k)$ related by an equation $a+x=b+y$ with $x \in W^{1}$ and $y \in W^{g-1-r}$. If $W_{a}^{r+1} \nsubseteq W_{b}^{g-1}$, then $W_{a}^{r+1} \cap W_{b}^{g-1}=W_{a+x}^{r} S$ with $S=W_{a}^{r+1} \cap\left(W_{y-a}^{g-2}\right)^{*}$.

Proof. Write $x=f(X)$ and $y=f(Y)$ with $X$ and $Y$ effective divisors of degree 1 and $g-1-r$. If $Y \geq X$, then, because $f(X)+a=f(Y)+b$, we will have $a=f(Y-X)+b$ with $Y-X$ an effective divisor of degree $g-2-r$. Therefore $a \in W_{b}^{g-2-r}$, and so $W_{a}^{r+1} \subset W_{b}^{g-1}$ (by 13.2 . Consequently, we may assume that $X$ is not a point of $Y$.

Let $c \in W_{a}^{r+1} \cap W_{b}^{g-1}$. Then $c=f(D)+a=f\left(D^{\prime}\right)+b$ for some effective divisors $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ of degree $r+1$ and $g-1$. Note that

$$
f(D)+y=f(D)+a+x-b=f\left(D^{\prime}\right)+x
$$

and so $D+Y \sim D^{\prime}+X$.
If $D+Y=D^{\prime}+X$, then $D \geq X$, and so $c=f(D)+a=f(D-X)+x+a$; in this case $c \in W_{a+x}^{r}$.

If $D+Y \neq D^{\prime}+X$, then $h^{0}(D+Y) \geq 2$, and so for any point $Q$ of $C(k), h^{0}(D+$ $Y-Q) \geq 1$, and there is an effective divisor $\bar{Q}$ of degree $g-1$ such that $D+Y \sim Q+\bar{Q}$. Then

$$
c=f(D)+a=f(\bar{Q})+a-y+f(Q)
$$

and so $c \in \bigcap\left\{W_{a-y+d}^{g-1} \mid d \in W^{1}\right\}=\left(W^{g-2}\right)_{a-y}^{*}\left(\right.$ by 13.3 . As $\left(W^{g-2}\right)_{a-y}^{*}=\left(W_{y-a}^{g-2}\right)^{*}$ and $c$ is in $W_{a}^{r+1}$ by assumption, this completes the proof that $W_{a}^{r+1} \sum W_{b}^{g-1} \subset W_{a+x}^{r} S$.

The reverse inclusion follows from the obvious inclusions: $W_{a+x}^{r} \subset W_{a}^{r+1} ; W_{a+x}^{r}=$ $W_{b+y}^{r} \subset W_{b}^{g-1} ;\left(W_{y-a}^{g-2}\right)^{*} \subset\left(W_{y-a-x}^{g-1}\right)^{*}=W_{b}^{g-1}$.

Lemma 13.5. Let $a \in J(k)$ be such that $W^{1} \nsubseteq W_{a}^{g-1}$; then there is a unique effective divisor $D(a)$ of degree $g$ on $C$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(D(a))=a+\kappa \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $W^{1} \cdot W_{a}^{g-1}$, when regarded as a divisor on $C$, equals $D(a)$.
Proof. We use the notations of $\S 6$; in particular, $\Theta=W^{g-1}$. For $a=0,13.1$ says that $\left(\Theta^{-}\right)_{\kappa}=\Theta$. Therefore, on applying 6.8), we find that $W^{1} \cdot W_{a}^{g-1}=f(C) \cdot\left(\Theta^{-}\right)_{a+\kappa} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=}$ $f^{-1}\left(\left(\Theta^{-}\right)_{a+\kappa}\right)=D$, where $D$ is a divisor of degree $g$ on $C$ such that $f^{(g)}(D)=a+\kappa$. This is the required result.

We are now ready to prove 12.1 a$)$. We use $\beta$ to identify $J$ with $J^{\prime}$, and write $V^{r}$ for the images of $C^{\prime(r)}$ in $J$. As $W^{g-1}$ and $V^{g-1}$ define the same polarization of $J$, they give the same element of $\mathrm{NS}(J)$ (see $\mathrm{I}, \S 10$ ), and therefore one is a translate of the other, say $W^{g-1}=V_{c}^{g-1}, c \in J(k)$. To prove 12.1 a$)$, we shall show that $V^{1}$ is a translate of $W^{1}$ or of $\left(W^{1}\right)^{*}$.

Let $r$ be the smallest integer such that $V^{1}$ is contained in a translate of $W^{r+1}$ or $\left(W^{r+1}\right)^{*}$. The theorem will be proved if we can show that $r=0$. (Clearly, $r<g-1$.) Assume on the contrary that $r>0$. We may suppose (after possibly replacing $\beta$ by $-\beta$ ) that $V^{1} \subset W_{a}^{r+1}$. Choose an $x$ in $W^{1}$ and a $y$ in $W^{g-1-r}$, and set $b=a+x-y$. Then, unless $W_{a}^{r+1} \subset W_{b}^{g-1}$, we have (with the notations of 13.4 .

$$
V^{1} \cap W_{b}^{g-1}=V^{1} \cap W_{a}^{r+1} \cap W_{b}^{g-1}=\left(V^{1} \cap W_{a+x}^{r}\right) \cup\left(V^{1} \cap S\right)
$$

Note that, for a fixed a, $W_{a+x}^{r}$ depends only on $x$ and $S$ depends only on $y$.
Fix an $x$; we shall show that for almost all $y, V^{1} \nsubseteq W_{b}^{g-1}$, which implies that $W_{a}^{r+1} \nsubseteq$ $W_{b}^{g-1}$ for the same $y$. As $y$ runs over $W^{g-1-r},-b$ runs over $W_{-(a+x)}^{g-1-r}$. Now, if $V^{1} \subset$ $W_{b}^{g-1}$ for all $-b$ in $W_{-(a+x)}^{g-1-r}$, then $V^{1} \subset W_{a+x}^{r}$ (by 13.3. This contradicts the definition of $r$, and so there exist $b$ for which $V^{1} \nsubseteq W_{b}^{g-1}$. Note that $V^{1} \subset W_{b}^{g-1}\left(=V_{b+c}^{g-1}\right) \Longleftrightarrow$ $-b \in V_{c}^{g-2}$ (by 13.2 . Therefore $V_{c}^{g-2} \nsubseteq W_{-(a+x)}^{g-1-r}$, and so the intersection of these sets is a lower dimensional subset of $W_{-(a+x)}^{g-1-r}$ whose points are the $-b$ for which $V^{1} \subset W_{b}^{g-1}$.

We now return to the consideration of the intersection $V^{1} \cap W_{b}^{g-1}$, which equals ( $V^{1} \cap$ $\left.W_{a+x}^{r}\right) \cup\left(V^{1} \cap S\right)$ for almost all $y$. We first show that $V^{1} \cap W_{a+x}^{r}$ contains at most one point. If not, then as $-b$ runs over almost all points of $W_{-(a+x)}^{g-1-r}$ (for a fixed $x$ ), the element $D^{\prime}(b) \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} f^{\prime-1}\left(V^{\prime} \cdot W_{b}^{g-1}\right)(c f .13 .5$ will contain at least two fixed points (because $\left.W_{a+x}^{r} \subset W_{a+x-y}^{g-1}=W_{b}^{g-1}\right)$, and hence $f\left(D^{\prime}(b)\right)$ will lie in a translate of $V^{g-2}$. As $f^{\prime}\left(D^{\prime}(b)\right)=b+\kappa^{\prime}$, we would then have $\left(W^{g-1-r}\right)^{*}$ contained in a translate of $V^{g-2}$, say $V_{d}^{g-2}$, and so

$$
\bigcap\left\{V_{c-u}^{g-1} \mid u \in V_{d}^{g-2}\right\} \subset \bigcap\left\{W_{-u}^{g-1} \mid u \in\left(W^{g-1-r}\right)^{*}\right\} .
$$

On applying 13.3 to each side, we then get an inclusion of $V$ in translate of $\left(W^{r}\right)^{*}$, contradicting the definition of $r$.

Keeping $y$ fixed and varying $x$, we see from (5) that $V^{1} \cap W_{a+x}^{r}$ must contain at least one point, and hence it contains exactly one point; according to the preceding argument, the point occurs in $D^{\prime}(b)$ with multiplicity one for almost all choices of $y$.

It is now easily seen that we can find $x, x^{\prime}$ in $W^{1}$ and $y$ in $W^{g-1-r}$ such that $\left(D^{\prime}(b)=\right.$ ) $D^{\prime}(a+x-y)=Q+\bar{D}$ and $\left(D^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right)=\right) D^{\prime}\left(a+x^{\prime}-y\right)=Q^{\prime}+\bar{D}$ where $Q, Q^{\prime}$ are in $C^{\prime}$ and $\bar{D}$ is an effective divisor of degree $g-1$ on $C^{\prime}$ not containing $Q$ or $Q^{\prime}$. By equation (5), $f(Q)-f\left(Q^{\prime}\right)=x-x^{\prime}$, and hence $W^{1}$ has two distinct points in common with some translate of $V^{1}$. Now, if $x, x^{\prime}$ are in $W^{1}$, then $W_{-x}^{g-1} \cap W_{-x^{\prime}}^{g-1}=W^{g-2} \cup\left(W_{x+x^{\prime}}^{g-2}\right)^{*}$ (by 13.4. According to 13.3 , we now get an inclusion of some translate of $V^{g-2}$ in $W^{g-2}$ or $\left(W^{g-2}\right)^{*}$. Finally 13.3 ) shows that

$$
V^{1}=\bigcap\left\{V_{-e} \mid e \in V^{g-2}\right\}
$$

which is contained in a translate of $W^{1}$ or $W^{1 *}$ according as $V^{g-2}$ is contained in a translate of $W^{g-2}$ or $\left(W^{g-2}\right)^{*}$. This completes the proof.

## 14 Bibliographic notes for Abelian Varieties and Jacobian Varieties

[These notes will be expanded, and distributed among the various sections.]
The theory of abelian varieties over $\mathbb{C}$ has a long history. On the other hand, the "abstract" theory over arbitrary fields, can be said to have begun with Weil's famous announcement of the proof of the Riemann hypothesis for function fields [Sur les fonctions algébriques a corps de constantes fini, C.R. 210 (1940) 592-594]. Parts of the projected proof (for example, the key "lemme important") can best be understood in terms of intersection theory on the Jacobian variety of the curve, and Weil was to spend the next six years developing the foundational material necessary for making his proof rigorous. Unable in 1941 to construct the Jacobian as a projective variety, Weil was led to introduce the notion of an abstract variety (that is, a variety that is not quasi-projective). He then had to develop the theory of such varieties, and he was forced to develop his intersection theory by local methods (rather than the projective methods used by van der Waerden [Einfuhring in die algebraische Geometrie, Springer, 1939]). In 1944 Weil completed his book [Foundations of algebraic geometry, AMS Coll., XXIX, 1946], which laid the necessary foundations in algebraic geometry, and in 1946 he completed his two books [Sur les courbes algébriques et les variétés qui s'en déduisent, Hermann, 1948] and Weil 1948b, which developed the basic theory of Abelian varieties and Jacobian varieties and gave a detailed account of his proof of the Riemann hypothesis. In the last work, abelian varieties are defined much as we defined them and Jacobian varieties are constructed, but it was not shown that the Jacobian could be defined over the same field as the curve.

Chow ([Algebraic systems of positive cycles in an algebraic variety, Amer. J. Math. 72 (1950) 247-283] and Chow 1954) gave a construction of the Jacobian variety which realized it as a projective variety defined over the same ground field as the original curve. Matsusaka [On the algebraic construction of the Picard variety, Japan J. Math 21 (1951) 217-235 and 22 (1952) 51-62] gave the first algebraic construction of the Picard and Albanese varieties and demonstrated also that they were projective and had the same field of definition as the original varieties. Weil showed that his construction of a group variety starting from a birational group could also be carried out without making an extension of the ground field [On algebraic groups of transformations, Amer. J. Math., 77 (1955) 355-391], and in [The field of definition of a variety, Amer. J. Math., 78 (1956) 509-524] he further developed his methods of descending the field of definition of a variety. Finally Barsotti [A note on abelian varieties, Rend. Circ. Mat. di Palermo, 2 (1953) 236-257], Matsusaka [Some theorems on abelian varieties, Nat. Sci. Report Ochanomizu Univ. 4 (1953) 22-35], and Weil [On the projective embedding of abelian varieties, in Algebraic geometry and topology, A symposium in honor of S.Lefschetz, Princeton, 1957, pp177-181] showed that all abelian varieties are projective. In a course at the University of Chicago, 1954-55, Weil made substantial improvements to the theory of abelian varieties (the seesaw principle and the theorem of the cube, for example), and these and the results mentioned above together with Chow's theory of the " $k$-image" and " $k$-trace" [Abelian varieties over function fields, Trans. AMS, 78 (1955) 253-275] were incorporated by Lang in his
book Lang 1959. The main lacuna at this time (1958/1959) was a satisfactory theory of isogenies of degree $p$ and their kernels in characteristic $p$; for example, it was not known that the canonical map from an abelian variety to the dual of its dual was an isomorphism (its degree might have been divisible by $p$ ). Cartier [Isogenies and duality of abelian varieties, Ann of Math. 71 (1960) 315-351] and Nishi [The Frobenius theorem and the duality theorem on an abelian variety, Mem. Coll. Sc. Kyoto (A), 32 (1959) 333-350] settled this particular point, but the full understanding of the $p$-structure of abelian varieties required the development of the theories of finite group schemes and Barsotti-Tate groups. The book of Mumford Mumford 1970 represents a substantial contribution to the subject of abelian varieties: it uses modern methods to give a comprehensive account of abelian varieties including the $p$-theory in characteristic $p$, and avoids the crutch of using Jacobians to prove results about general abelian varieties. (It has been a significant loss to the mathematical community that Mumford did not go on to write a second volume on topics suggested in the introduction: Jacobians; Abelian schemes: deformation theory and moduli; The ring of modular forms and the global structure of the moduli space; The Dieudonné theory of the "fine" characteristic p structure; Arithmetic theory: abelian schemes over local, global fields. We still lack satisfactory accounts of some of these topics.)

Much of the present two articles has been based on these sources; we now give some other sources and references. Abelian Varieties will be abbreviated by AV and Jacobian Varieties by JV.

The proof that abelian varieties are projective in AV §7 is Weil's 1957 proof. The term "isogeny" was invented by Weil: previously, "isomorphism" had frequently been used in the same situation. The fact that the kernel of $m_{A}$ has $m^{2 g}$ elements when $m$ is prime to the characteristic was one of the main results that Weil had to check in order to give substance to his proof of the Riemann hypothesis. Proposition 11.3 of AV is mentioned briefly by Weil in [Variétés abéliennes. Colloque d'algebre et theorie des nombres, Paris, 1949, 125-128], and is treated in detail by Barsotti [Structure theorems for group varieties, Annali di Mat. 38 (1955) 77-119]. Theorem 14.1 is folklore: it was used by Tate in [End omorphisms of abelian varieties over finite fields, Invent. math., 2 (1966) 134-144], which was one of the starting points for the work that led to Faltings's recent proof of Mordell's theorem. The étale cohomology of an abelian variety is known to everyone who knows étale cohomology, but I was surprised not to be able to find an adequate reference for its calculation: in Kleiman [Algebraic cycles and the Weil conjectures, in Dix exposés sur la cohomologie des schémas, NorthHolland, 1968, pp 359-386] Jacobians are used, and it was omitted from Milne 1980 In his 1940 announcement, Weil gives a definition of the $e_{m}$-pairing (in our terminology, $\bar{e}_{m}$-pairing) for divisor classes of degree zero and order $m$ on a curve which is analogous to the explicit description at the start of $\S 16$ of AV. The results of that section mainly go back to Weil's 1948 monograph Weil 1948b, but they were reworked and extended to the $p$-part in Mumford's book. The observation (see 16.12 of AV ) that $\left(A \times A^{\vee}\right)^{4}$ is always principally polarized is due to Zarhin [A finiteness theorem for unpolarized Abelian varieties over number fields with prescribed places of bad reduction, Invent. math. 79 (1985) 309-321]. Theorem 18.1 of AV was proved by Narasimhan and Nori [Polarizations on an abelian variety, in Geometry and Analysis, Springer, (1981), p125-128]. Proposition 20.1 of AV is due to Grothendieck (cf. Mumford [Geometric Invariant Theory, Springer, 1965, 6.1]), and (20.5) of AV (defining the $K / k$-trace) is due to Chow (reference above). The Mordell-Weil Theorem was proved by Mordell [On the rational solutions of the indeterminate equations of the third and fourth degrees, Proc. Cambridge Phil. Soc. 21 (1922) 179-192] (the same paper in which he stated his famous conjecture) for an elliptic curve over the rational numbers and by Weil [L'arithmétique sur les courbes algébriques, Acta Math. 52 (1928) 281-315] for the Jacobian variety of a curve over a number field. (Weil, of course, stated the result in terms of divisors on a curve.)

The first seven sections of JV were pieced together from two disparate sources, Lang's book Lang 1959 and Grothendieck's Bourbaki talks Grothendieck| 62, with some help from Serre|1959, Mumford 1966, and the first section of Katz and Mazur [Arithmetic Moduli of Elliptic Surfaces, Princeton, 1985].

Rosenlicht [Generalized Jacobian varieties, Ann. of Math.,59 (1954) 505-530, and A universal mapping property of generalized Jacobians, ibid, (1957), 80-88], was the first to construct the generalized Jacobian of a curve relative to a modulus. The proof that all abelian coverings of a curve can be obtained from isogenies of its generalized Jacobians (Theorem 9.7 of JV) is due to Lang [Sur
les séries $L$ d'une variété algébrique, Bull. SMF, 84 (1956) 555-563]. Results close to Theorem 8.1 of JV were obtained by Igusa [Fibre systems of Jacobian varieties I,II,III, Amer. J. Math., 78 (1956) p171-199, p745-760, and 81 (1959) p453-476]. Theorem 9.11 is due to Parshin [Algebraic curves over function fields, I, Math. USSR - Izvestija, 2 (1968) 1145-1169]. Matsusaka [On a generating curve of an abelian variety, Nat Sc. Rep. Ochanomizu Univ. 3 (1952) 1-4] showed that every abelian variety over an algebraically closed field is generated by a curve (cf. 10.1 of JV). Regarding (11.2) of JV, Hurwitz [Math. Ann. 28 (1886)] was the first to show the relation between the number of fixed points of a correspondence on a Rieman surface $C$ and the trace of a matrix describing its action on the homology of the surface (equivalently that of its Jacobian). This result of Hurwitz inspired both Lefschetz in his proof of his trace formula and Weil in his proof of the Riemann hypothesis for curves.

Proofs of Torelli's theorem can be found in Andreotti [On a theorem of Torelli, Amer. J. Math., 80 (1958) 801-821], Matsusaka [On a theorem of Torelli, Amer. J. Math., 80 (1958) 784-800], Weil [Zum Beweis des Torellischen Satzes, Gott. Nachr. 2 (1957) 33-53], and Ciliberto [On a proof of Torelli's theorem, in Algebraic geometry - open problems, Lecture notes in math. 997, Springer, $1983 \mathrm{pp113-223}$ ]. The proof in $\S 13$ of JV is taken from Martens [A new proof of Torelli's theorem, Ann. Math. 78 (1963) 107-111]. Torelli's original paper is [Sulle varieta di Jacobi, Rend. R. Acad. Sci. Torino, 50 (1914-15) 439-455]. Torelli's theorem shows that the map from the moduli space of curves into that of principally polarized abelian varieties is injective on geometric points; a finer discussion of the map can be found in the paper by Oort and Steenbrink [The local Torelli problem for algebraic curves, in Algebraic Geometry Angers 1979, Sijthoff \& Noordhoff, 1980, pp157-204].

Finally, we mention that Mumford [Curves and their Jacobians, U. of Mich, Ann Arbor] provides a useful survey of the topics in its title, and that the commentaries in Weil [Collected Papers, Springer, 1979] give a fascinating insight into the origins of parts of the subject of arithmetic geometry.

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## Chapter IV

## Finiteness Theorems

At the end of the paper ${ }^{1}$ in which he proved that all the rational points on elliptic curve can be obtained from a finite number by the tangent and chord contruction, Mordell made the following remark:

In conclusion, I might note that the preceding work suggests to me the truth of the following statements concerning indeterminate equations, none of which, however, I can prove. The left-hand sides are supposed to have no squared factors in $x$, the curves represented by the equations are not degenerate, and the genus of the equations is supposed not less than one.
(3) The equation

$$
a x^{6}+b x^{5} y+\ldots f x y^{5}+g y^{6}=z^{2}
$$

can be satisfied by only a finite number of rational values of $x$ and $y$ with the obvious extension to equations of higher degree.
(4) The same theorem holds for the equation

$$
a x^{4}+b y^{4}+c z^{4}+2 f y^{2} z^{2}+2 g z^{2} x^{2}+2 h x^{2} y^{2}=0
$$

(5) The same theorem holds for any homogeneous equation of genus greater than unity, say, $f(x, y, z)=0$.

Statement (5) became known as Mordell's conjecture. In this part of the course, we discuss Faltings's famous paper which, among other things, proves Mordell's conjecture. In the years since it was published, there have been some improvements and simplifications.

Throughout, "(algebraic) number field" will mean a finite extension of $\mathbb{Q}$.

## 1 Introduction

Mordell's conjecture. It states:
if $C$ is a projective nonsingular curve of genus $g \geq 2$ over a number field $k$, then $C(k)$ is finite.

[^30]This was proved by Faltings in May/June 1983:
Clearly we can omit the "projective" - removing points only makes $C(k)$ smaller and we can omit the "nonsingular" because the map $C^{\prime} \rightarrow C$ from the desingularization (normalization) $C^{\prime}$ of $C$ to $C$ induces a map $C^{\prime}(k) \rightarrow C(k)$ that becomes bijective when a finite number of points are removed from $C^{\prime}(k)$ and $C(k)$. However, one must be careful to check that the genus of the associated complete nonsingular curve is $\geq 2$.

We illustrate this by examining when Faltings's theorem implies that the equation

$$
F(X, Y, Z)=\sum_{i+j+k=n} a_{i j k} X^{i} Y^{j} Z^{k}=0, a_{i j k} \in k
$$

has only finitely many solutions in $k$ (counted in the sense of projective geometry).
First we need to assume that $F(X, Y, Z)$ is absolutely irreducible, i.e., that it is irreducible and remains so over every extension of $k$. This is not a serious restriction, because $F(X, Y, Z)$ will factor into absolutely irreducible polynomials over a finite extension $k^{\prime}$ of $k$, and we can replace $F$ with one of the factors and $k$ with $k^{\prime}$. Thus, we may suppose that $F(X, Y, Z)$ defines a complete geometrically irreducible curve over $k$. The genus of the associated nonsingular curve is

$$
g=\frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}-\Sigma n_{P}
$$

(Plücker's formula) ${ }^{2}$ where the sum is over the singular points on the curve $F(X, Y, Z)=$ 0 with coordinates in $\mathbb{C}$. There are formulas for $n_{P}$. For example, if $P$ is an ordinary singularity with multiplicity $m$, then

$$
n_{P}=m(m-1) / 2
$$

If $g \geq 2$, then Faltings's theorem states that $C(k)$ is finite. For example, the Fermat curve

$$
X^{n}+Y^{n}=Z^{n}, \quad n \geq 4
$$

has only finitely many solutions in any number field (up to multiplication by a constant).
If $g=1$, then either $C(k)$ is empty or there is a map from a finitely generated abelian group to $C(k)$ that becomes bijective when a finite number of points are removed from each of the curves. For example, over $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt[3]{D}]$ for certain $D$, the points on

$$
X^{3}+Y^{3}=Z^{3}
$$

form an abelian group of rank $\geq 3$.
If $g=0$, then either $C(k)$ is empty, or there is a map $\mathbb{P}^{1}(k) \rightarrow C(k)$ that becomes bijective when a finite number of points are removed from each of the curves. For example, for the curve

$$
X^{2}+Y^{2}=Z^{2}
$$

there is a bijection

$$
\mathbb{P}^{1}(k) \rightarrow C(k), \quad(t: u) \mapsto\left(t^{2}-u^{2}: 2 t u: t^{2}+u^{2}\right)
$$

[^31]There is an algorithm for deciding whether a curve of genus 0 over $\mathbb{Q}$ has a rational point. Thus, except for $g=1$, we have an algorithm for deciding whether $C(k)$ is finite therefore, $g=1$ is the interesting case!

It is possible to give a bound for $\# C(k)$ - this is not entirely clear from Faltings's approach, but it is clear from the Vojta-Faltings-Bombieri approach. However, there is at present no algorithm for finding all the points on $C$. For this, one would need an effective bound on the heights of the points on $C$ (for a point $P=(x: y: z) \in \mathbb{P}^{2}(\mathbb{Q}), H(P)=$ $\max (|x|,|y|,|z|)$ where $x, y, z$ are chosen to be relatively prime integers). With such a bound $N$, one would only need to check whether each of the finitely many points $P$ with $H(P) \leq N$ lies on $C$. Finding an effective bound on the heights appears to be an extremely difficult problem: for example, it was only in the 1960s that Baker showed that there was a bound on the heights of the integer solutions of $Y^{2}=X^{3}+k$ (for which he received the Fields medal).

Heuristic argument for the conjecture. Let $C$ be a complete nonsingular curve over a number field $k$, and let $J$ be its Jacobian variety. If $C(k)$ is empty, then it is certainly finite. Otherwise there is an embedding $C \hookrightarrow J$. Consider the diagram:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
C(\mathbb{C}) & & \hookrightarrow \\
\uparrow & J(\mathbb{C}) \\
C(k)=C(\mathbb{C}) \cap J(k) & & \uparrow \\
& J(k)
\end{array}
$$

According to the Mordell-Weil theorem, $J(k)$ is a finitely generated group, and if $g \geq 2$, then

$$
\operatorname{dim} C(\mathbb{C})<\operatorname{dim} J(\mathbb{C})
$$

Since there is no reason to expect any relation between $C(\mathbb{C})$ and $J(k)$ as subsets of $J(\mathbb{C})$, and both are sparse, $C(\mathbb{C}) \cap J(k)$ should be finite. People have tried to make this into a proof, but without success ${ }^{3}$.

Finiteness I and its Consequences. Most of the main theorems of Faltings's paper follow from the following elementary statement.

THEOREM 1.1 (FINITENESS I). Let $A$ be an abelian variety over an algebraic number field $k$. Then, up to isomorphism, there are only finitely many abelian varieties $B$ over $k$ that are isogenous to $A$.

In other words, the abelian varieties over $k$ isogenous to $A$ fall into only finitely many isomorphism classes. At first sight, this statement is rather surprising. Let $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ be an isogeny. Then $N \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} \operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)$ is a finite subgroup variety of $A$, and $N\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$ is a finite subgroup of $A\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$ stable under the action of . Conversely, from every finite subgroup $N$ of $A\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$ stable under $\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\text {al }} / k\right)$ we get an isogeny $A \rightarrow A / N$. Clearly, there are infinitely many possible $N$ 's, but of course there may be isomorphisms $A / N \approx A / N^{\prime}$; for example, $A \approx A / A_{n}, A_{n}=\operatorname{Ker}(A \xrightarrow{n} A)$. The theorem is a rather strong statement about the absence of exotic finite subgroups of $A\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$ stable under $\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}} / k\right)$, and about the existence of isomorphisms between the quotients $A / N$.

Finiteness I implies the following theorems:
THEOREM 1.2 (SEMISIMPLICITY). Let $A$ be an abelian variety over a number field $k$; for all primes $\ell$, the action of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}} / k\right)$ on $V_{\ell} A$ is semisimple.

[^32]THEOREM 1.3 (TATE'S CONJECTURE). For abelian varieties $A$ and $B$ over a number field $k$, the map

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{\ell} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(T_{\ell} A, T_{\ell} B\right)^{\Gamma}, \Gamma=\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}} / k\right)
$$

is bijective.

THEOREM 1.4 (Finiteness II). Given a number field $k$, an integer $g$, and a finite set of finite primes $S$ of $k$, there are only finitely many isomorphism classes of abelian varieties $A$ over $k$ of dimension $g$ having good reduction outside $S$.

For elliptic curves, Finiteness II was proved by Shafarevich - see Silverman 1986, IX, Theorem 6.1. Faltings's proof is (necessarily) completely different.

That $V_{\ell} A$ is a semisimple $\Gamma$-module means that every subspace $W$ of $V_{\ell} A$ stable under the action of $\Gamma$ has a complement $W^{\prime}$ also stable under $\Gamma$, i.e., $V_{\ell} A=W \oplus W^{\prime}$ with $W^{\prime}$ $\Gamma$-stable. This implies that $V_{\ell} A$ is a direct sum of simple $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}[\Gamma]$-modules (i.e., subspaces stable under $\Gamma$ with no nontrivial $\Gamma$-stable subspaces).

The action of a finite group on a finite-dimensional vector space over a field of characteristic zero is automatically semisimple (see 10.2). Essentially the same proof as in 10.2 ) shows that the action of a compact group on a finite-dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{R}$ is semisimple (replace $\sum g \psi$ with $\int g \psi$ ). However, this is not true for a compact group acting on a finite-dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$. For example the action of the compact group

$$
\Gamma=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
0 & c
\end{array}\right) \right\rvert\, a c=1, \quad a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}\right\}
$$

on $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}^{2}$ is not semisimple because $\left\{\binom{*}{0}\right\}$ is a $\Gamma$-stable subspace having no $\Gamma$-stable complement.

The Tate conjecture has been discussed already in 10.17). Faltings's methods also allow one to prove it for a field $k$ finitely generated over $\mathbb{Q}$. It was known (Zarhin, Izv. 1975) that Finiteness II implies the Tate conjecture. Faltings turned things around by
(i) proving a weak form of Finiteness II;
(ii) proving the Tate conjecture;
(iii) deducing Finiteness II.

Finiteness II implies the following result:
Theorem 1.5 (Shafarevich's conjecture). Given a number field $k$, an integer $g$, and a finite set of finite primes $S$ of $k$, there are only finitely many isomorphism classes of nonsingular complete curves $C$ over $k$ of genus $g$ having good reduction outside $S$.

This is proved by applying Finiteness II to the Jacobians of the curves (see later).
In 1968, Parshin showed that Shafarevich's conjecture implies Mordell's conjecture. The idea of the proof is to attach to a point $P$ in $C(k)$ a covering

$$
\varphi_{P}: C_{P} \rightarrow C_{k^{\prime}}
$$

where
(a) $\left(C_{P}, \varphi_{P}\right)$ is defined over a fixed finite extension $k^{\prime}$ of $k$,
(b) $C_{P}$ has bounded genus,
(c) $C_{P}$ has good reduction outside a fixed finite set of primes of $k^{\prime}$,
(d) $\varphi_{P}$ is ramified exactly at $P$.

The statements (a),(b),(c) and Shafarevich's conjecture show that there are only finitely many curves $C_{P}$, and (d) shows that the map $P \mapsto\left(C_{P}, \varphi_{P}\right)$ is injective. Finally, a classical theorem of de Franchis states that, for fixed $C^{\prime}$ and $C$, there can be only finitely many surjective maps $C^{\prime} \rightarrow C$ when $C$ has genus $\geq 2$, and so $P \mapsto C_{P}$ is finite-to-one. (This is the only place in the argument that $g \geq 2$ is used!)

The proof of Finiteness I. Here I briefly sketch the proof of Finiteness I. In the next section, we define the notion of semistable reduction for an abelian variety (it is weaker than good reduction), and we note that an abelian variety acquires semistable reduction at every prime after a finite extension of the ground field.

Given an abelian variety $A$ over a number field, Faltings attaches a real number, $h(A)$ to $A$, called the Faltings height of $A$. The Faltings heights of two isogenous abelian varieties are related, and Faltings proved:

THEOREM 1.6. Let $A$ be an abelian variety with semistable reduction over a number field $k$. The set

$$
\{h(B) \mid B \text { is isogenous to } A\}
$$

is finite.

There is natural notion of the height of a point in $\mathbb{P}^{n}(k)$, namely, if $P=\left(a_{0}: \cdots: a_{n}\right)$, then

$$
H(P)=\prod_{v} \max _{i}\left(\left|a_{i}\right|_{v}\right)
$$

Here the $v$ 's run through all primes of $k$ (including the archimedean primes) and $|\cdot|_{v}$ denotes the normalized valuation corresponding to $v$. Note that

$$
\prod_{v} \max _{i}\left(\left|c a_{i}\right| v\right)=\left(\prod_{v} \max _{i}\left(\left|a_{i}\right| v\right)\right)\left(\prod_{v}|c| v\right)=\prod_{v} \max _{i}\left(\left|a_{i}\right| v\right)
$$

because the product formula shows that $\prod_{v}|c|_{v}=1$. Therefore $H(P)$ is independent of the choice of a representative for $P$. When $k=\mathbb{Q}$, we can represent $P$ by an $n$-tuple $\left(a_{0}: \ldots: a_{n}\right)$ with the $a_{i}$ relatively prime integers. Then $\max _{i}\left(\left|a_{i}\right|_{p}\right)=1$ for all prime numbers $p$, and so the formula for the height becomes

$$
H(P)=\max _{i}\left|a_{i}\right| \text { (usual absolute value). }
$$

A fundamental property of heights is that, for any integer $N$,

$$
\operatorname{Card}\left\{P \in \mathbb{P}^{n}(k) \mid H(P) \leq N\right\}
$$

is finite. When $k=\mathbb{Q}$, this is obvious.
Using heights on projective space, it is possible to attach another height to an abelian variety. There is a variety $V$ (the Siegel modular variety) over $\mathbb{Q}$ that parametrizes isomorphism classes of principally polarized abelian varieties of a fixed dimension $g$. It has a canonical class of embeddings into projective space

$$
V \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}
$$

An abelian variety $A$ over $k$ corresponds to a point $v(A)$ in $V(k)$, and we define the modular height of $A$ to be

$$
H(A)=H(v(A))
$$

We know that the set of isomorphism classes of principally polarized abelian varieties over $k$ of fixed dimension and bounded modular height is finite.

Note that if we ignore the "principally polarized" in the last statement, and the "semistable" in the last theorem, then they will imply Finiteness I once we relate the two notions of height. Both heights are "continuous" functions on the Siegel modular variety, which has a canonical compactification. If the difference of the two functions $h$ and $H$ extended to the compact variety, then it would be bounded, and we would have proved Finiteness I. Unfortunately, the proof is not that easy, and the hardest part of Faltings's paper is the study of the singularities of the functions as they approach the boundary. One thing that makes this especially difficult is that, in order to control the contributions at the finite primes, this has to be done over $\mathbb{Z}$, i.e., one has to work with a compactification of the Siegel modular scheme over $\mathbb{Z}$.

## References.

The original source is:
Faltings, G., Endlichkeitssätze für Abelsche Varietäten über Zahlkörpern, Invent. Math. 73 (1983), 349-366; Erratum, ibid. 1984, 75, p381. (There is a translation: Finiteness Theorems for Abelian Varieties over Number Fields, in "Arithmetic Geometry" pp 9-27.)

Mathematically, this is a wonderful paper; unfortunately, the exposition, as in all of Faltings's papers, is poor.

The following books contain background material for the proof:
Serre: Lectures on the Mordell-Weil theorem, Vieweg, 1989.
Arithmetic Geometry (ed. Cornell and Silverman), Springer, 1986 (cited as Arithmetic Geometry).

There are two published seminars expanding on the paper:
Faltings, G., Grunewald, F., Schappacher, N., Stuhler, U., and Wüstholz, G., Rational Points (Seminar Bonn/Wuppertal 1983/84), Vieweg 1984.

Szpiro, L., et al. Séminaire sur les Pinceaux Arithmétique: La Conjecture de Mordell, Astérisque 127, 1985.

Although it is sketchy in some parts, the first is the best introduction to Faltings's paper. In the second seminar, the proofs are very reliable and complete, and they improve many of the results, but the seminar is very difficult to read.

There are two Bourbaki talks:
Szpiro, L., La Conjecture de Mordell, Séminaire Bourbaki, 1983/84. Deligne, P., Preuve des conjectures de Tate et Shafarevitch, ibid.
There is a summary of part of the theory in:
Lang, S., Number Theory III, Springer, 1991, Chapter IV.
Faltings's proofs depend heavily on the theory of Néron models of abelian varieties and the compactification of Siegel modular varieties over $\mathbb{Z}$. Recently books have appeared on these two topics:

Bosch, S., Lütkebohmert, W., and Raynaud, M., Néron Models, Springer, 1990.
Chai, Ching-Li and Faltings, G., Degeneration of Abelian Varieties, Springer, 1990.

## 2 The Tate Conjecture; Semisimplicity.

In this section, we prove that Tate's conjecture is implied by Finiteness I. Throughout the section, $k$ is a field and $\Gamma=\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}} / k\right)$. We begin with some elementary lemmas.

Lemma 2.1. If $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ is an isogeny of degree prime to chark, then $\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)$ is a finite subgroup of $A\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)$ stable under the action of $\Gamma$; conversely, every such subgroup arises as the kernel of such an isogeny, i.e., the quotient $A / N$ exists over $k$.

Proof. Over $k^{\text {al }}$, this follows from 8.10. The only additional fact needed is that, if $N\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$ is stable under the action of $\Gamma$, then the quotient $A / N$ is defined over $k$.

Lemma 2.2. (a) For any abelian variety $A$ and $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$, there is an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow T_{\ell} A \xrightarrow{\ell^{n}} T_{\ell} A \rightarrow A_{\ell^{n}}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

(b) An isogeny $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ of degree prime to char( $k$ ) defines an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow T_{\ell} A \rightarrow T_{\ell} B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0
$$

with the order of $C$ equal to the power of $\ell$ dividing $\operatorname{deg}(\alpha)$..

Proof. (a) This follows easily from the definition

$$
T_{\ell} A=\left\{\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \geq 1} \mid a_{n} \in A_{\ell}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right), \quad \ell a_{n}=a_{n-1}, \quad \ell a_{1}=0\right\}
$$

(b) To prove this, consider the following infinite diagram:


For $n$ sufficiently large, $K_{n}=K_{n+1}=\ldots=K$, say. Because $K$ is finite, it has no element divisible by all powers of $\ell$, and so

$$
\lim _{\hookleftarrow} K_{n} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=}\left\{\left(a_{n}\right) \mid a_{n} \in K_{n}, \ell a_{n}=a_{n-1}, \ell a_{1}=0\right\}
$$

is zero. Since $\# B_{\ell^{n}}\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)=\left(\ell^{n}\right)^{2 g}=\# A_{\ell^{n}}\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$, we must have $\# K_{n}=\# C_{n}$. Therefore $\# C_{n}$ is constant for $n$ large. The map $C_{n+1} \rightarrow C_{n}$ is surjective; therefore for $n$ large it is bijective, and it follows that $\lim _{\longleftarrow} C_{m} \rightarrow C_{n}$ is a bijection for all large $n$. On passing to the inverse limit we get an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow T_{\ell} B \rightarrow T_{\ell} A \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0
$$

as required.

Let $\alpha: B \rightarrow A$ be an isogeny. Then the image of $T_{\ell} \alpha: T_{\ell} B \rightarrow T_{\ell} A$ is $\Gamma$-stable $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell^{-}}$ module of finite index in $T_{\ell} A$. Our final elementary lemma shows that every such submodule arises from an isogeny $\alpha$, and even that $\alpha$ can be taken to have degree a power of $\ell$.

Lemma 2.3. Assume $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$. For any $\Gamma$-stable submodule $W$ of finite index in $T_{\ell} A$, there an abelian variety $B$ and an isogeny $\alpha: B \rightarrow A$ of degree a power of $\ell$ such that $\alpha\left(T_{\ell} B\right)=W$.

Proof. Choose $n$ so large that $W \supset \ell^{n} T_{\ell} A$, and let $N$ be the image of $W$ in $T_{\ell} A / \ell^{n} T_{\ell} A=$ $A_{\ell n}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)$. Then $N$ is stable under the action of $\Gamma$, and we define $B=A / N$. Because $N \subset A_{\ell^{n}}$, the map $\ell^{n}: A \rightarrow A$ factors through $A \rightarrow A / N:$


It remains to show that $\operatorname{Im}\left(T_{\ell} \alpha: T_{\ell} B \rightarrow T_{\ell} A\right)=W$. From the diagram

it is clear that $\operatorname{Im}\left(T_{\ell} \alpha\right) \supset \ell^{n} T_{\ell} A$, and so it suffices to show that the image of $\operatorname{Im}\left(T_{\ell} \alpha\right)$ in $T_{\ell} A / \ell^{n} T_{\ell} A=A_{\ell^{n}}\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)$ is $N$. But

$$
B\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right) \ell^{n}=\left\{a \in A\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right) \mid \ell^{n} a \in N\right\} / N,
$$

and if $b \in B\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)_{\ell^{n}}$ is represented by $a \in A\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)$, then $\alpha(b)=\ell^{n} a$. It is now clear that $\alpha$ maps $B\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)_{\ell}{ }^{n}$ onto $N$.

Let $A$ be an abelian variety over a field $k$, and let $\ell$ be a prime $\neq$ char $k$. Consider the following condition (slightly weaker than Finiteness I):
(*) up to isomorphism, there are only finitely many abelian varieties $B$ isogenous to $A$ by an isogeny of degree a power of $\ell$.

Lemma 2.4. Suppose $A$ satisfies (*). For any $W \subset V_{\ell} A$ stable under $\Gamma$, there is a $u \in$ $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ such that $u V_{\ell} A=W$.

Proof. Set $T_{\ell}=T_{\ell} A$ and $V_{\ell}=V_{\ell} A$. Let

$$
X_{n}=\left(T_{\ell} \cap W\right)+\ell^{n} T_{\ell} .
$$

This is a $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$-submodule of $T_{\ell}$ stable under $\Gamma$ and of finite index in $T_{\ell}$. Therefore, there is an isogeny

$$
f_{n}: B(n) \rightarrow A, \text { such that } f_{n}\left(T_{\ell} B(n)\right)=X_{n} .
$$

According to $\left(^{*}\right)$, the $B(n)$ fall into only finitely many distinct isomorphism classes, and so at least one class has infinitely many $B(n)$ 's: there is an infinite set $I$ of positive integers such that all the $B(i)$ for $i \in I$ are isomorphic. Let $i_{0}$ be the smallest element of $I$. For each $i \in I$, choose an isomorphism $v_{i}: B\left(i_{0}\right) \rightarrow B(i)$, and consider:

| $B\left(i_{0}\right)$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\downarrow f_{i}$ | $B(i)$ | $T_{\ell} B\left(i_{0}\right)$ | $T_{\ell} B(i)$ |
| $A$ | $\downarrow f_{i}$ | $\approx \downarrow f_{i_{0}}$ | $\approx \downarrow f_{i}$ |
| $A$ | $X_{i_{0}}$ | $X_{i}$ |  |

Because $f_{i_{0}}$ is an isogeny, $u_{i} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} f_{i} v_{i} f_{i_{0}}^{-1}$ makes sense as an element of $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$, and hence as an element of $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$. Moreover, it is clear from the second diagram that $u_{i}\left(X_{i_{0}}\right)=X_{i}$. Because $X_{i} \subset X_{i_{0}}$, the $u_{i}$ for $i \in I$ are in the compact set $\operatorname{End}\left(X_{i_{0}}\right)$, and so, after possibly replacing $\left(u_{i}\right)$ with a subsequence, we can assume $\left(u_{i}\right)$ converges to a limit $u$ in $\operatorname{End}\left(X_{i_{0}}\right) \subset \operatorname{End}\left(V_{\ell} A\right)$. Now $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)_{\ell}$ is a subspace of $\operatorname{End}\left(V_{\ell} A\right)$, and hence is closed. Since each $u_{i}$ lies in $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$, so also does their limit $u$. For any $x \in X_{i_{0}}, u(x)=\lim u_{i}(x) \subset \cap X_{i}$. Conversely, if $y \in \cap X_{i}$, then there exists for each $i \in I$, an element $x_{i} \in X_{i_{0}}$ such that $u_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)=y$. From the compactness of $X_{i_{0}}$ again, we deduce that, after possibly replacing $I$ with a subset, the sequence $\left(x_{i}\right)$ will converge to a limit $x \in X_{i_{0}}$. Now $u(x)=\lim u\left(x_{i}\right)=\lim u_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)=y$. Thus $u\left(X_{i_{0}}\right)=\cap X_{j}=T_{\ell} \cap W$, and it follows that $u\left(V_{\ell} A\right)=W$.

Before proving the main theorem of this section, we need to review a little of the theory of noncommutative rings (CFT, Chapter IV). By a $k$-algebra, I will mean a ring $R$, not necessarily commutative, containing $k$ in its centre and of finite dimension over $k$, and by an $R$-module I'll mean an $R$-module that is of finite dimension over $k$. If $R$ has a faithful semisimple module, then every $R$-module is semisimple, and the $k$-algebra $R$ is said to be semisimple. A simple $k$-algebra, i.e., a $k$-algebra with no two-sided ideals except for the obvious two, is semisimple and a theorem of Wedderburn says that, conversely, a semisimple $k$-algebra is a finite product of simple $k$-algebras.

Another theorem of Wedderburn says that every simple $k$-algebra is isomorphic to $M_{n}(D)$ for some $n$ and some division $k$-algebra $D$.

Let $D$ be a division algebra over $k$. The right ideals in $M_{n}(D)$ are the sets of the form $\mathfrak{a}(J)$ with $J \subset\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ and $\mathfrak{a}(J)$ the set of matrices whose $j$ th columns are zero for $j \notin J$. Note that $\mathfrak{a}(J)$ is generated by the idempotent $e=\operatorname{diag}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ with $a_{j}=1$ for $j \in J$ and $a_{j}=0$ otherwise. On combining this remark with the Wedderburn theorems, we find that every right ideal in a semisimple $k$-algebra $R$ is generated by an idempotent: $\mathfrak{a}=e R$ for some $e$ with $e^{2}=e$.

The centralizer $C_{E}(R)$ of subalgebra $R$ of a $k$-algebra $E$ consists of the elements $\gamma$ of $E$ such that $\gamma \alpha=\alpha \gamma$ for all $\alpha \in R$. Let $R$ be a $k$-algebra and let $E=\operatorname{End}_{k}(V)$ for some faithful semisimple $R$-module $V$; the Double Centralizer Theorem says that $C_{E}\left(C_{E}(R)\right)=$ $R$.

If $R$ is a semisimple $k$-algebra, then $R \otimes_{k} k^{\prime}$ need not be semisimple - for example, if $R=k[\alpha]$ with $\alpha^{p} \in k, \alpha \notin k$, then $R \otimes_{k} k^{\text {al }}$ contains the nilpotent element $\alpha \otimes 1-1 \otimes \alpha$. However, this only happens in characteristic $p$ : if $k$ is of characteristic 0 , then $R$ semisimple $\Longrightarrow R \otimes_{k} k^{\prime}$ semisimple.

Let $A$ be an abelian variety. Then $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ is a finite-dimensional algebra over $\mathbb{Q}$ (10.15), and it is isomorphic to a product of matrix algebras over division algebras (see the first subsection of $\S 9$ ). It is, therefore, a semisimple $\mathbb{Q}$-algebra.

THEOREM 2.5. Let $A$ be an abelian variety over $k$, and assume that $A \times A$ and $A$ satisfy (*) for some $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k)$. Then
(a) $V_{\ell} A$ is a semisimple $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}[\Gamma]$-module.
(b) $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}=\operatorname{End}\left(V_{\ell} A\right)^{\Gamma}$.

Proof. (a) Let $W$ be a $\Gamma$-subspace of $V_{\ell} A$ - we have to construct a complement $W^{\prime}$ to $W$ that is stable under $\Gamma$. Let

$$
\mathfrak{a}=\left\{u \in \operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \mid u V_{\ell} A \subset W\right\}
$$

This is a right ideal in $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$, and $\mathfrak{a} V_{\ell} A=W$ because the hypothesis on $A$ and 2.4 imply there exists a $u \in \operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ such that $u V_{\ell} A=W$. From the above remarks, we know that $\mathfrak{a}$ is generated by an idempotent $e$, and clearly $e V_{\ell}=W$. Because $e$ is idempotent

$$
V_{\ell} A=e V_{\ell} A \oplus(1-e) V_{\ell} A=W \oplus W^{\prime}
$$

Since the elements of $\Gamma$ commute with the elements of $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}, W^{\prime} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=}(1-e) V_{\ell} A$ is stable under the action of $\Gamma$. (b) Let $C$ be the centralizer of $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ in $\operatorname{End}\left(V_{\ell} A\right)$, and let $B$ be the centralizer of $C$. Because $\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ is semisimple, $B=\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$. Consider $\alpha \in \operatorname{End}\left(V_{\ell} A\right)^{\Gamma}$ - we have to show that $\alpha \in B$. The graph of $\alpha$

$$
W \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=}\left\{(x, \alpha x) \mid x \in V_{\ell} A\right\}
$$

is a $\Gamma$-invariant subspace of $V_{\ell} A \times V_{\ell} A$, and so there is a $u \in \operatorname{End}(A \times A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}=$ $M_{2}(\operatorname{End}(A)) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ such that $u\left(V_{\ell}(A \times A)\right)=W$. Let $c \in C$. Then $\left(\begin{array}{ll}c & 0 \\ 0 & c\end{array}\right) \in \operatorname{End}\left(V_{\ell} A \times\right.$ $\left.V_{\ell} A\right)$ commutes with $\operatorname{End}(A \times A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$, and, in particular, with $u$. Consequently,

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
c & 0 \\
0 & c
\end{array}\right) W=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
c & 0 \\
0 & c
\end{array}\right) u V_{\ell} A=u\left(\begin{array}{cc}
c & 0 \\
0 & c
\end{array}\right) V_{\ell} A \subset W
$$

This says that, for any $x \in V_{\ell} A,(c x, c \alpha x) \in W=$ graph of $\alpha$. Thus $\alpha$ maps $c x$ to $c \alpha x$, i.e., $\alpha c x=c \alpha x$. Thus $c \alpha=\alpha c$, and since this holds for all $c, \alpha \in B=\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$. $\square$

Corollary 2.6. Assume $\left(^{*}\right)$ holds for abelian varieties over $k$. Then the map

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(V_{\ell} A, V_{\ell} B\right)^{\Gamma}
$$

is an isomorphism.
Proof. Consider the diagram of finite-dimensional vector spaces over $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{End}\left(V_{\ell}(A \times B)\right)^{\Gamma} & =\operatorname{End}\left(V_{\ell} A\right)^{\Gamma} \times \operatorname{Hom}\left(V_{\ell} A, V_{\ell} B\right)^{\Gamma} \times \operatorname{Hom}\left(V_{\ell} B, V_{\ell} A\right)^{\Gamma} \times \operatorname{End}\left(V_{\ell} B\right)^{\Gamma} \\
\operatorname{End}(A \times B) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} & =\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \times \quad \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \times \operatorname{Hom}(B, A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell} \times \operatorname{End}(B) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}
\end{aligned}
$$

The theorem shows that the inclusion at left is an equality, and it follows that the remaining inclusions are also equalities.

Corollary 2.7. Let $R$ be the image of $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}[\Gamma]$ in $\operatorname{End}\left(V_{\ell} A\right)$. Then $R$ is the centralizer of $\operatorname{End}^{0}(A)_{\ell}$ in $\operatorname{End}\left(V_{\ell} A\right)$.

Proof. Theorem 2.5a shows that $V_{\ell} A$ is a semisimple $R$-module. As it is also faithful, this implies that $R$ is a semisimple ring. The double centralizer theorem says that $C(C(R))=$ $R$, and 2.5 p) says that $C(R)=\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$. On putting these statements together, we find that $C\left(\operatorname{End}(A) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}\right)=R$.

## 3 Finiteness I implies Finiteness II.

In this section we assume Finiteness I (up to isomorphism, there are only finitely many abelian varieties over a number field $k$ isogenous to a fixed abelian variety). Hence we can apply Tate's conjecture and the semisimplicity theorem.

We first need a result from algebraic number theory which is the analogue of the theorem that a compact Riemann surface has only finitely many coverings with fixed degree unramified outside a fixed finite set.

Theorem 3.1. For any number field $K$, integer $N$, and finite set of primes $S$ of $K$, there are only finitely many fields $L \supset K$ unramified outside $S$ and of degree $N$ (up to $K$ isomorphism of course).

Proof. First recall from ANT, 7.65, that for any prime $v$ and integer $N$, there are only finitely many extensions of $K_{v}$ of degree dividing $N$ ( $K_{v}=$ completion of $K$ at $v$ ). This follows from Krasner's lemma: roughly speaking, such an extension is described by a monic polynomial $P(T)$ of degree $d \mid N$ with coefficients in $\mathcal{O}_{v}$; the set of such polynomials is compact, and Krasner's lemma implies that two such polynomials that are close define the same extension. Now, recall that $\operatorname{Disc}(L / K)=\prod \operatorname{Disc}\left(L_{w} / K_{v}\right)$ (in an obvious sense), and because we are assuming $L$ is ramified only at primes in $S$, the product on the right is over the primes $w$ dividing a prime $v$ in $S$. Therefore $\operatorname{Disc}(L / K)$ is bounded, and we can apply the the following classical result.

Theorem 3.2 (Hermite 1857). There are only finitely many number fields with a given discriminant (up to isomorphism).

Proof. Recall (ANT 4.3) that, for an extension $K$ of $\mathbb{Q}$ of degree $n$, there exists a set of representatives for the ideal class group of $K$ consisting of integral ideals $\mathfrak{a}$ with

$$
\mathbb{N}(\mathfrak{a}) \leq \frac{n!}{n^{n}}\left(\frac{4}{\pi}\right)^{s}\left|\operatorname{Disc}_{K / \mathbb{Q}}\right|^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$

Here $s$ is the number of conjugate pairs of nonreal complex embeddings of $K$. Since $\mathbb{N}(\mathfrak{a})>$ 1, this implies that

$$
\left|\operatorname{Disc}_{K / \mathbb{Q}}\right|>\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)^{2 s}\left(\frac{n^{n}}{n!}\right)^{2}
$$

Since $\frac{n^{n}}{n!} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (by Stirling's formula, if it isn't obvious), we see that if we bound $\left|\operatorname{Disc}_{K / \mathbb{Q}}\right|$ then we bound $n$. Thus, it remains to show that, for a fixed $n$, there are only finitely many number fields with a given discriminant $d$. Let $D=|d|$. Let $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}$ be the embeddings of $F$ into $\mathbb{R}$, and let $\sigma_{r+1}, \bar{\sigma}_{r+1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r+s}, \bar{\sigma}_{r+s}$ be the complex embeddings. Consider the map

$$
\bar{\sigma}: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{r+s}, \quad x \mapsto\left(\sigma_{1}(x), \ldots, \sigma_{r}(x), \Re \sigma_{r+1}(x), \mathfrak{s} \sigma_{r+1}(x), \ldots\right) .
$$

In the case that $r \neq 0$, define $X$ to be the set of $n$-tuples $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}, y_{r+1}, z_{r+1}, \ldots\right)$ such that $\left|x_{i}\right|<C_{i}$ and $y_{j}^{2}+z_{j}^{2}<1$, where $C_{1}=\sqrt{D+1}$ and $C_{i}=1$ for $i \neq 1$. In the contrary
case, define $Y$ to be the set of $n$-tuples $\left(y_{1}, z_{1}, \ldots\right)$ such that $\left|y_{1}\right|<1,\left|z_{1}\right|<\sqrt{D+1}$, and $y_{i}^{2}+z_{i}^{2}<1$ for $i>1$. One checks easily that the volumes of these sets are

$$
\mu(X)=2^{r} \pi^{s} \sqrt{1+D}, \quad \mu(Y)=2 \pi^{s-1} \sqrt{1+D}
$$

and so both quotients $\mu(X) / 2^{r} \sqrt{D}$ and $\mu(Y) / \sqrt{D}$ are greater than 1. By Minkowski's Theorem (ANT 4.19), there exist nonzero integers in $K$ that are mapped into $X$ or $Y$, according to the case. Let $\alpha$ be one of them. Since its conjugates are absolutely bounded by a constant depending only on $D$, the coefficients of the minimum polynomial of $\alpha$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ are bounded, and so there are only finitely many possibilities for $\alpha$. We shall complete the proof by showing that $K=\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$. If $r \neq 0$, then $\sigma_{1} \alpha$ is the only conjugate of $\alpha$ lying outside the unit circle (if it didn't lie outside, then $\operatorname{Nm}_{K / \mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)<1$ ). If $r=0$, then $\sigma_{1} \alpha$ and $\bar{\sigma}_{1} \alpha$ are the only conjugates of $\alpha$ with this property, and $\sigma_{1} \alpha \neq \bar{\sigma}_{1} \alpha$ since otherwise every conjugate of $\alpha$ would lie on the unit circle. Thus, in both cases, there exists a conjugate of $\alpha$ that is distinct from all other conjugates, and so $\alpha$ generates $K$.

Let $K$ be a number field, and let $L$ be a Galois extension of $K$ with Galois group $G$. Let $w$ be a prime of $L$. The decomposition group is

$$
D(w)=\{\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L / K) \mid \sigma w=w\}
$$

The elements of $D(w)$ act continuously on $L$ for the $w$-adic topology, and therefore extend to the completion $L_{w}$ of $L$. In fact $L_{w}$ is Galois over $K_{v}$ with Galois group $D(w)$. The group $D(w)$ acts on the residue field $k(w)$, and so we get a homomorphism

$$
D(w) \rightarrow \operatorname{Gal}(k(w) / k(v))
$$

The kernel is called the inertia group $I(w)$. When $I(w)=1, L$ is said to be unramified over $K$ at $w$, and we define the Frobenius element $\operatorname{Frob}_{w}$ at $w$ to be the element of $D(w)$ corresponding to the canonical generator of $\operatorname{Gal}(k(w) / k(v))$. Thus $\operatorname{Frob}_{w}$ is the unique element of $G$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Frob}_{w}\left(\mathfrak{P}_{w}\right)=\mathfrak{P}_{w}, \quad \operatorname{Frob}_{w}(a) \equiv a^{q_{v}}\left(\bmod \mathfrak{P}_{w}\right)
$$

where $\mathfrak{P}_{w}$ is the prime ideal of $L$ corresponding to $w, q_{v}=\# k(w)$, and $a$ is any element of the ring of integers of $L$. Because $L$ is Galois, the decomposition groups at the primes lying over $v$ are conjugate, and so are the inertia groups. Therefore, if one prime $w$ lying over $v$ is unramified they all are, and $\left\{\operatorname{Frob}_{w}|w| v\right\}$ is a conjugacy class in $G$ - we denote it by $(v, L / K)$.

THEOREM 3.3 (CHEBOTAREV DENSITY THEOREM). Let $L$ be a finite Galois extension of a number field $K$ with Galois group $G$. Let $C$ be a subset of $G$ stable under conjugation. Then the set of primes $v$ of $L$ such that $(v, L / K)=C$ has density $|C| /|G|$.

Proof. For a discussion of the theorem, see ANT, 8.31, and for a proof, see CFT, VIII §7.

REMARK 3.4. The theorem is effective, i.e., given a class $C$, there is a known bound $B$ such that there will be a prime $v$ with $\mathbb{N}(v) \leq B$ for which $(v, L / K)=C$.

Now consider an infinite Galois extension $L$ over $K$ with Galois group $G$. Recall (FT, §7) that $G$ has a natural topology for which it is compact, and that the main theorem of Galois theory holds for infinite extension, except that it now provides a one-to-one correspondence between the intermediate fields $M, L \supset M \supset K$, and the closed subgroups of $G$. The above definitions of decomposition group etc. still make sense for infinite extensions. (One difference: the set of primes ramifying in $L$ may be infinite.)

Let $V$ be a finite dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$. A representation of $\Gamma \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} \operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\text {al }} / K\right)$ on $V$ is a continuous homomorphism

$$
\rho: \Gamma \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V)={ }_{d f} \operatorname{Aut}(V)
$$

The kernel of $\rho$ is a closed normal subgroup of $\Gamma$, corresponding to a (possibly infinite) Galois extension $L$ of $K$. The representation $\rho$ is said to be unramified at a prime $v$ of $K$ if $v$ is unramified in $L$.

We are especially interested in the representation of $\Gamma$ on $V_{\ell} A, A$ an abelian variety over $K$. Then the field $L$ in the last paragraph is the smallest extension of $K$ such that all the $\ell$-power torsion points of $A$ are rational over it, i.e., such that $A(L)(\ell)=A\left(K^{\mathrm{al}}\right)(\ell)$.

THEOREM 3.5. Let $A$ be an abelian variety over a number field $K$. Let $v$ be a finite prime of $K$, and let $\ell$ be a prime distinct from the characteristic of $k(v)$ (i.e., such that $v \nmid \ell$ ). Then $A$ has good reduction at $v$ if and only if the representation of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\mathrm{al}} / K\right)$ on $V_{\ell} A$ is unramified at $v$.

PROOF. $\Rightarrow$ : For elliptic curves, this is proved in Silverman, 1986, VII 4.1. The proof for abelian varieties is not much more difficult. $\Leftarrow$ : For elliptic curves, see Silverman, 1986, 7.1. As we now explain, the statement for abelian varieties is an immediate consequence of the existence of Néron models (and hence is best called the Néron criterion). Clearly the statement is really about $A$ regarded as an abelian variety over the local field $K_{v}$. As we noted in $\S 20$, Néron showed that there is a canonical way to pass from an abelian variety $A$ over $K_{v}$ to a commutative algebraic group $A_{0}$ over the residue field $k=k(v)$. For any prime $\ell \neq \operatorname{char}(k(v))$, the reduction map

$$
A\left(K_{v}\right)_{\ell^{n}} \rightarrow A_{0}(k)_{\ell^{n}}
$$

is a bijection. The algebraic group $A_{0}$ doesn't change when $K_{v}$ is replaced by an unramified extension. It has a filtration whose quotients are successively a finite algebraic group $F$ (i.e., an algebraic group of dimension 0 ), an abelian variety $B$, a torus $T$, and an additive group $U$. We have

$$
\operatorname{dim} A=\operatorname{dim} B+\operatorname{dim} T+\operatorname{dim} U
$$

Moreover: $\# B\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)_{\ell^{n}}=\ell^{2 n \operatorname{dim}(B)} ; \# T\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)_{\ell^{n}}=\ell^{n \operatorname{dim}(T)}$, because $T_{k^{\mathrm{al}}} \approx \mathbb{G}_{m}^{\operatorname{dim} T}$, $\mathbb{G}_{m}(L)=L^{\times}$all fields $L \supset \mathbb{Q} ; \# U\left(k^{\text {al }}\right)_{\ell^{n}}=0$, because $U_{k^{\mathrm{al}}} \approx \mathbb{G}_{a}^{\operatorname{dim} U}, \mathbb{G}_{a}(L)=L$ all fields $L \supset \mathbb{Q}$. Now suppose that $A$ has good reduction, so that $A_{0}=B$. For all $n$,

$$
A\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{un}}\right)_{\ell^{n}}=A_{0}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)_{\ell^{n}}
$$

has $\ell^{2 n \operatorname{dim} A}$ elements, and so $A\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{un}}\right)_{\ell^{n}}=A\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{al}}\right)_{\ell^{n}}$. Therefore the action of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{al}} / K_{v}\right)$ on $V_{\ell} A$ factors through $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{un}} / K_{v}\right)$, which is what it means for the representation of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{al}} / K_{v}\right)$ on $V_{\ell} A$ to be unramified. On the other hand, if $A$ does not have good reduction, then

$$
\# A\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{un}}\right)_{\ell^{n}}=\# A_{0}\left(k^{\mathrm{al}}\right)_{\ell^{n}}<\ell^{2 n \operatorname{dim} A}
$$

for $n$ sufficiently large. As

$$
A\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{un}}\right)_{\ell^{n}}=A\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{al}}\right)^{\operatorname{Gal}\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{al}} / K_{v}^{\mathrm{un}}\right)}
$$

this shows that

$$
A\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{al}}\right)^{\mathrm{Gal}\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{al}} / K_{v}^{\mathrm{un}}\right)} \neq A\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{al}}\right)_{\ell^{n}}, \quad n \gg 0
$$

Therefore the representation of the Galois group on $V_{\ell} A$ is ramified at $v$.
Corollary 3.6. If $A$ and $B$ are isogenous over $K$, and one has good reduction at $v$, then so also does the other.

Proof. The isogeny defines an isomorphism $V_{\ell} A \rightarrow V_{\ell} B$ commuting with the actions of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\mathrm{al}} / K\right)$.

Recall that for an abelian variety $A$ over a finite field $k$ with $q$ elements, the characteristic polynomial $P(A, t)$ of the Frobenius endomorphism $\pi$ of $A$ is a monic polynomial of degree $2 g$ in $\mathbb{Z}[t]$, and its roots all have absolute value $q^{\frac{1}{2}}(\S \S 9,16)$. Also, that $P(A, t)$ is the characteristic polynomial of $\pi$ acting on $V_{\ell} A$. Now consider an abelian variety $A$ over a number field $K$, and assume $A$ has good reduction at $v$. Let $A(v)$ be the corresponding abelian variety over $k(v)$, and define

$$
P_{v}(A, t)=P(A(v), t)
$$

For any prime $w$ lying over $v$, the isomorphism $V_{\ell}(A) \rightarrow V_{\ell}(A(v))$ is compatible with the $\operatorname{map} D(w) \rightarrow \operatorname{Gal}(k(w) / k(v))$. Since the canonical generator of $\operatorname{Gal}(k(w) / k(v))$ acts on $V_{\ell} A(v)$ as $\pi$ (this is obvious from the definition of $\pi$ ), we see that $\mathrm{Frob}_{w}$ acts on $V_{\ell} A$ as $\pi$, and so $P_{v}(A, t)$ is the characteristic polynomial of $\mathrm{Frob}_{w}$ acting on $V_{\ell} A$. If $w^{\prime}$ also lies over $v$, then $\operatorname{Frob}_{w^{\prime}}$ is conjugate to $\mathrm{Frob}_{w}$, and so it has the same characteristic polynomial.

Theorem 3.7. Let $A$ and $B$ be abelian varieties of dimension $g$ over a number field $K$. Let $S$ be a finite set of primes of $K$ containing all primes at which $A$ or $B$ has bad reduction, and let $\ell$ be a prime different from the residue characteristics of the primes in $S$. Then there exists a finite set of primes $T=T(S, \ell, g)$ of $K$, depending only on $S$, $\ell$, and $g$ and disjoint from $S \cup\{v|v| \ell\}$, such that

$$
P_{v}(A, t)=P_{v}(B, t) \text { all } v \in T \Longrightarrow A, B \text { isogenous. }
$$

Proof. Recall: (a) $A, B$ have good reduction at $v \in S \Rightarrow V_{\ell} A, V_{\ell} B$ are unramified at $v \in S$ (provided $v \nmid \ell$ ) (see 3.5; (b) the action of $\Gamma={ }_{d f} \operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\text {al }} / K\right)$ on $V_{\ell} A$ is semisimple (see 2.5, remember we are assuming Finiteness I); (c) $A$ and $B$ are isogenous if $V_{\ell} A$ and $V_{\ell} B$ are isomorphic as $\Gamma$-modules (this is the Tate conjecture 2.6). Therefore, the theorem is a consequence of the following result concerning $\ell$-adic representations (take $V=V_{\ell} A$ and $\left.W=V_{\ell} B\right)$.

Lemma 3.8. Let $(V, \rho)$ and $(W, \sigma)$ be semisimple representations of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\mathrm{al}} / K\right)$ on $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ vector spaces of dimension $d$. Assume that there is a finite set $S$ of primes of $K$ such that $\rho$ and $\sigma$ are unramified outside $S \cup\{v|v| \ell\}$. Then there is a finite set $T=T(S, \ell, d)$ of primes $K$, depending only on $S, \ell$, and $d$ and from disjoint from $S \cup\{v|v| \ell\}$, such that

$$
P_{v}(A, t)=P_{v}(B, t) \text { all } v \in T \Longrightarrow(V, \rho) \approx(W, \sigma)
$$

Proof. According to Theorem 3.1, there are only finitely many subfields of $K^{\text {al }}$ containing $K$, of degree $\leq \ell^{2 d^{2}}$ over $K$, and unramfied outside $S \cup\{v|v| \ell\}$. Let $L$ be their composite — it is finite and Galois over $K$ and unramified outside $S \cup\{v|v| \ell\}$. According to the Chebotarev Density Theorem (3.3), each conjugacy class in $\operatorname{Gal}(L / K)$ is the Frobenius class $(v, L / K)$ of some prime $v$ of $K$ not in $S \cup\{v|v| \ell\}$. We shall prove the lemma with $T$ any finite set of such $v$ 's for which

$$
\operatorname{Gal}(L / K)=\bigcup_{v \in T}(v, L / K)
$$

Let $M_{0}$ be a full lattice in $V$, i.e., the $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$-module generated by a $\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$-basis for $V$. Then $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}}\left(M_{0}\right)$ is an open subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}_{\ell}}(V)$, and so $M_{0}$ is stabilized by an open subgroup of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\mathrm{al}} / K\right)$. As $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\mathrm{al}} / K\right)$ is compact, this shows that the lattices $\gamma M_{0}$, $\gamma \in \operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\mathrm{al}} / K\right)$, form a finite set. Their sum is therefore a lattice $M$ stable under $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\text {al }} / K\right)$. Similarly, $W$ has a full lattice $N$ stable under $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\text {al }} / K\right)$. By assumption, there exists a field $\Omega \subset K^{\text {al }}$, Galois over $K$ and unramified outside the primes in $S \cup\{v|v| \ell\}$, such that both $\rho$ and $\sigma$ factor through $\operatorname{Gal}(\Omega / K)$. Because $T$ is disjoint from $S \cup\{v|v| \ell\}$, for each prime $w$ of $\Omega$ dividing a prime $v$ of $T$, we have a Frobenius element $\operatorname{Frob}_{w} \in \operatorname{Gal}(\Omega / K)$. We are given an action of $\operatorname{Gal}(\Omega / K)$ on $M$ and $N$, and hence on $M \times N$. Let $R$ be the $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$-submodule of $\operatorname{End}(M) \times \operatorname{End}(N)$ generated by the endomorphisms given by elements of $\operatorname{Gal}(\Omega / K)$. Then $R$ is a ring acting on each of $M$ and $N$, we have a homomorphism $\operatorname{Gal}(\Omega / K) \rightarrow R^{\times}$, and $\operatorname{Gal}(\Omega / K)$ acts on $M$ and $N$ and through this homomorphism and the action of $R$ on $M$ and $N$. Note that, by assumption, for any $w \mid v \in T, \operatorname{Frob}_{w}$ has the same characteristic polynomial whether we regard it as acting on $M$ or on $N$; therefore it has the same trace,

$$
\operatorname{Tr}\left(\operatorname{Frob}_{w} \mid M\right)=\operatorname{Tr}\left(\operatorname{Frob}_{w} \mid N\right)
$$

If we can show that the endomorphisms of $M \times N$ given by the $\operatorname{Frob}_{w}, w \mid v \in T$, generate $R$ as a $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$-module, then (by linearity) we have that

$$
\operatorname{Tr}(r \mid M)=\operatorname{Tr}(r \mid N), \text { all } r \in R
$$

Then the next lemma (applied to $R \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{\ell}$ ) will imply that $V$ and $W$ are isomorphic as $R$-modules, and hence as $\operatorname{Gal}(\Omega / K)$-modules.

Lemma 3.9. Let $k$ be a field of characteristic zero, and let $R$ be a $k$-algebra of finite dimension over $k$. Two semisimple $R$-modules of finite-dimension over $k$ are isomorphic if they have the same trace.

Proof. This is a standard result — see Bourbaki, Algèbre Chap $8, \S 12$, no. 1, Prop. 3.

It remains to show that the endomorphisms of $M \times N$ given by the $\operatorname{Frob}_{w}, w \mid v \in T$, generate $R$ (as a $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$-module). By Nakayama's lemma, it suffices to show that $R / \ell R$ is generated by these Frobenius elements. Clearly $R$ is a free $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$-module of rank $\leq 2 d^{2}$, and so

$$
\#(R / \ell R)^{\times}<\#(R / \ell R) \leq \ell^{2 d^{2}}
$$

Therefore the homomorphism $\operatorname{Gal}(\Omega / K) \rightarrow(R / \ell R)^{\times}$factors through $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\prime} / K\right)$ for some $K^{\prime} \subset \Omega$ with $\left[K^{\prime}: K\right] \leq \ell^{2 d^{2}}$. But such a $K^{\prime}$ is contained in $L$, and by assumption therefore, $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\prime} / K\right)$ is equal to $\left\{\operatorname{Frob}_{w}|w| v \in T\right\}$.

## THEOREM 3.10. Finiteness $I \Rightarrow$ Finiteness II.

Proof. Recall the statement of Finiteness II: given a number field $K$, an integer $g$, and a finite set of primes $S$ of $K$, there are only finitely many isomorphism classes of abelian varieties of $K$ of dimension $g$ having good reduction outside $S$. Since we are assuming Finiteness I, which states that each isogeny class of abelian varieties over $K$ contains only finitely many isomorphism classes, we can can replace "isomorphism" with "isogeny" in the statement to be proved. Fix a prime $\ell$ different from the residue characteristics of the primes in $S$, and choose $T=T(S, \ell, g)$ as in the statement of Theorem3.7. That theorem then says that the isogeny class of an abelian variety $A$ over $K$ of dimension $g$ and with good reduction outside $S$ is determined by the finite set of polynomials:

$$
\left\{P_{v}(A, t) \mid v \in T\right\}
$$

But for each $v$ there are only finitely many possible $P_{v}(A, t)$ 's (they are polynomials of degree $2 g$ with integer coefficients which the Riemann hypothesis shows to be bounded), and so there are only finitely many isogeny classes of $A$ 's.

## 4 Finiteness II implies the Shafarevich Conjecture.

Recall the two statements:
Finiteness II For any number field $K$, integer $g$, and finite set $S$ of primes of $K$, there are only finitely many isomorphism classes of abelian varieties over $K$ of dimension $g$ having good reduction at all primes not in $S$.

Shafarevich Conjecture For any number field $K$, integer $g \geq 2$, and finite set of primes $S$ of $K$, there are only finitely many isomorphism classes of complete nonsingular curves over $K$ of dimension $g$ having good reduction outside $S$.

Recall from 15.1 that, for an abelian variety $A$ over a field $k$, there are only finitely many isomorphism classes of principally polarized abelian varieties $(B, \lambda)$ over $k$ with $B \approx A$. Therefore, in the statement of Finiteness II, we can replace "abelian variety" with "principally polarized abelian variety".

Recall that associated with any complete smooth curve $C$ over a field $k$, there is an abelian variety $J(C)$ of dimension $g=$ genus $(C)$. In fact, $J(C)$ has a canonical principal polarization $\lambda(C)$. (We noted in 18.5 ) that, when $k=\mathbb{C}$, there is a canonical Riemann form; for a general $k$, see III §6.)

Proposition 4.1. Let $C$ be a curve over a number field $K$. If $C$ has good reduction at a prime $v$ of $K$, then so also does $\operatorname{Jac}(C)$.

THEOREM 4.2 (RATIONAL VERSION OF TORELLI'S THEOREM). Let $C$ be a complete nonsingular curve of genus $\geq 2$ over a perfect field $k$. The isomorphism class of $C$ is uniquely determined by that of the principally polarized abelian variety $(J(C), \lambda(C))$.

On combining these two results we obtain the following theorem.
THEOREM 4.3. Finiteness II implies the Shafarevich conjecture.

Proof. Let $K$ be an algebraic number field, and let $S$ be a finite set of primes in $K$. From (4.1) and (4.2) we know that the map $C \mapsto(J(C), \lambda(C))$ defines an injection from the set of isomorphism classes of complete nonsingular curves of genus $\geq 2$ to the set of isomorphism classes of principally polarized abelian varieties over $K$ with good reduction outside $S$. Thus Shafarevich's conjecture follows from the modified version of Finiteness II.

Proof (of4.1) We are given a complete nonsingular curve $C$ over $K$ that reduces to a complete nonsingular curve $C(v)$ over the residue field $k(v)$. Therefore we have Jacobian varieties $J(C)$ over $K$ and $J(C(v))$ over $k(v)$, and the problem is to show that $J(C)$ reduces to $J(C(v))$ (and therefore has good reduction). It is possible to do this using only varieties, but it is much more natural to use schemes. Let $R$ be the local ring corresponding to the prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}_{v}$ in $\mathcal{O}_{K}$. To say that $C$ has good reduction to $C(v)$ means that there is a proper smooth scheme $\mathcal{C}$ over $\operatorname{Spec} R$ whose general and special fibres are $C$ and $C(v)$ respectively. The construction of the Jacobian variety sketched in (§17) works over $R$ (see JV, §8), and gives us an abelian scheme $\mathcal{J}(\mathcal{C})$ over Spec $R$ whose general and special fibres are $J(C)$ and $J(C(v))$, which is what we are looking for.

Proof (of4.2) The original Torelli theorem applied only over an algebraically closed field and had no restriction on the genus (of course, Torelli's original paper (1914-15) only applied over $\mathbb{C}$ ). The proof over an algebraically closed field proceeds by a combinatorial study of the subvarieties of $C^{(r)}$, and is unilluminating (at least to me, even my own exposition in JV, §13). Now consider two curves $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ over a perfect field $k$, and suppose that there is an isomorphism $\beta: J(C) \rightarrow J\left(C^{\prime}\right)$ (over $k$ ) sending the polarization $\lambda(C)$ to $\lambda\left(C^{\prime}\right)$. Then the original Torelli theorem implies that there is an isomorphism $\gamma: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$ over $k^{\text {al }}$. In fact, it is possible to specify $\gamma$ uniquely (in terms of $\beta$ ). For any $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\text {al }} / k\right)$, the map of curves associated with $\sigma \beta$ is $\sigma \gamma$. But $\sigma \beta=\beta$ (this is what it means to be defined over $k$ ), and so $\sigma \gamma=\gamma$, which implies that it too is defined over $k$ (III $\S 12$, for the details). $\square$

EXERCISE 4.4. Does 4.2 hold if we drop the condition that $g \geq 2$ ? Hints: A curve of genus 0 over a field $k$, having no point in $k$, is described by a homogeneous quadratic equation in three variables, i.e., by a quadratic form in three variables; now apply results on quadratic forms (e.g., CFT, Chapter VIII). If $C$ is a curve of genus 1 without a point, then $\operatorname{Jac}(C)$ is an elliptic curve (with a point).

REMARK 4.5. Torelli's theorem 4.2 obviously holds for curves $C$ of genus $<2$ over $k$ for which $C(k) \neq \emptyset-$ a curve of genus zero with $C(k) \neq \emptyset$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{P}^{1}$; a curve of genus one with $C(k) \neq \emptyset$ is its Jacobian variety.

## 5 Shafarevich's Conjecture implies Mordell's Conjecture.

In this section, we write $(f)$ for the $\operatorname{divisor} \operatorname{div}(f)$ of a rational function on a curve. A p-adic prime of a number field is a prime dividing $p$; a dyadic prime is a prime dividing 2. The proof that Shafarevich's conjecture implies Mordell's conjecture is based on the following construction (of Kodaira and Parshin).

THEOREM 5.1. Let $K$ be a number field and let $S$ be a finite set of primes of $K$ containing the dyadic primes. For any complete nonsingular curve $C$ of genus $g \geq 1$ over $K$ having
good reduction outside $S$, there exists a finite extension $L$ of $K$ with the following property: for each point $P \in C(K)$ there exists a curve $C_{P}$ over $L$ and a finite map $\varphi_{P}: C_{P} \rightarrow C_{/ L}$ (defined over $L$ ) such that:
(i) $C_{P}$ has good reduction outside $\{w|w| v \in S\}$;
(ii) the genus of $C_{P}$ is bounded;
(iii) $\varphi_{P}$ is ramified exactly at $P$.

We shall also need the following classical result.
Theorem 5.2 (DE FRANCHIS). Let $C^{\prime}$ and $C$ be curves over a field $k$. If $C$ has genus $\geq 2$, then there are only finitely many nonconstant maps $C^{\prime} \rightarrow C$.

Using (5.1) and (5.2), we show that Shafarevich's conjecture implies Mordell's conjecture. For each $P \in C(K)$, choose a pair $\left(C_{P}, \varphi_{P}\right)$ as in (5.1). Because of Shafarevich's conjecture, the $C_{P}$ fall into only finitely many distinct isomorphism classes. Let $X$ be a curve over $L$. If $X \approx C_{P}$ for some $P \in C(K)$, then we have a nonconstant map $X \approx C_{P} \xrightarrow{\varphi_{P}} C_{/ L}$ ramified exactly over $P$, and if $X \approx C_{Q}$, then we have nonconstant map $X \rightarrow C_{/ L}$ ramified exactly over $Q$ - if $P \neq Q$, then the maps differ. Thus, de Franchis's Theorem shows that map sending $\left(C_{P}, \varphi_{P}\right)$ to the isomorphism class of $C_{P}$ is finite-to-one, and it follows that $C(K)$ is finite.

Before proving 5.1, we make some general remarks. When is $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{f}]$ unramified at $p \neq 2$ ? Exactly when $\operatorname{ord}_{p}(f)$ is odd. This is a general phenomenon: if $K$ is the field of fractions of a discrete valuation ring $R$ and the residue characteristic is $\neq 2$, then $K[\sqrt{f]}$ is ramified if and only if $\operatorname{ord}(f)$ is odd. (After a change of variables, $Y^{2}-f$ will be an Eisenstein polynomial if $\operatorname{ord}(f)$ is odd, and will be of the form $Y^{2}-u$ with $u$ a unit if $\operatorname{ord}(f)$ is even. In the second case, the discriminant is a unit.)

Consider a nonsingular curve $C$ over an algebraically closed field $k$ of characteristic $\neq 2$, and let $f$ be a nonzero rational function on $C$. Then there is a unique nonsingular curve $C^{\prime}$ over $k$ and finite map $C^{\prime} \rightarrow C$ such that the corresponding map $k(C) \hookrightarrow k\left(C^{\prime}\right)$ is the inclusion $k(C) \hookrightarrow k(C)\left[\sqrt{f]}\right.$. Moreover, when we write $(f)=2 D+D^{\prime}$ with $D^{\prime}$ having as few terms as possible, the remark in the preceding paragraph shows that $\varphi$ is ramified exactly at the points of support of $D^{\prime}$. (If $C$ is affine, corresponding to the ring $R$, then $C^{\prime}$ is affine, corresponding to the integral closure of $R$ in $k(C)[\sqrt{f]}$.) For example, consider the case when $C$ is the affine line $\mathbb{A}^{1}$, and let $f(X) \in k[X]$. Write

$$
f(X)=f_{1}(X) \cdot g(X)^{2}, \quad f_{1}(X) \text { square-free. }
$$

Then $k\left(C^{\prime}\right) \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} k(X)\left[\sqrt{f]}=k(X)\left[\sqrt{f_{1}}\right]\right.$, and the curve

$$
C^{\prime}: \quad Y^{2}=f_{1}(X)
$$

is nonsingular because $f_{1}(X)$ does not have repeated roots. The map $C^{\prime} \rightarrow C,(x, y) \mapsto x$, is finite, and is ramified exactly over the roots of $f_{1}(X)$.

When in this last example, we replace the algebraically closed field $k$ with $\mathbb{Q}$, one additional complication occurs: $f$ might be constant, say $f=r, r \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then $C^{\prime} \rightarrow$ Specm $\mathbb{Q}$ is the composite

$$
C_{\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{r}]} \rightarrow C \rightarrow \operatorname{Specm} C_{\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{r}]}
$$

- here $C^{\prime}$ is not geometrically connected. This doesn't happen if $\operatorname{ord}_{P}(f)$ is odd for some point $P$ of $C$.

Next fix a pair of distinct points $P_{1}, P_{2} \in \mathbb{A}^{1}(\mathbb{Q})$, and let $f \in \mathbb{Q}(X)$ be such that $(f)=P_{1}-P_{2}$. Construct the $C^{\prime}$ corresponding to $f$. Where does $C^{\prime}$ have good reduction? Note we can replace $f$ with $c f$ for any $c \in \mathbb{Q}^{\times}$without changing its divisor. If we want $C^{\prime}$ to have good reduction on as large a set as possible, we choose

$$
f=\left(X-P_{1}\right) /\left(X-P_{2}\right)
$$

rather than, say, (*)

$$
f=p\left(X-P_{1}\right) /\left(X-P_{2}\right) .
$$

The curve

$$
Y^{2}=\left(X-P_{1}\right) /\left(X-P_{2}\right)
$$

has good reduction at any prime where $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ remain distinct (except perhaps 2). After these remarks, the next result should not seem too surprising.

Lemma 5.3. Let $C$ be a complete nonsingular curve over a number field $K$, and consider a principal divisor of the form

$$
P_{1}-P_{2}+2 D, \quad P_{1}, P_{2} \in C(K) .
$$

Choose an $f \in K(C)^{\times}$such that $(f)=P_{1}-P_{2}+2 D$, and let $\varphi: C^{\prime} \rightarrow C$ be the finite covering of nonsingular curves corresponding to the inclusion $K(C) \hookrightarrow K(C)[\sqrt{f}]$. With a suitable choice of $f$, the following hold:
(a) The map $\varphi$ is ramified exactly at $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$.
(b) Let $S$ be a finite set of primes of $K$ containing those $v$ at which $C$ has bad reduction, those $v$ at which $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ become equal, and all primes dividing 2. If the ring of $S$-integers is a principal then $C^{\prime}$ has good reduction at all the primes in $S$.

Proof. (a) We have already seen this-it is really a geometric statement. (b) (Sketch.) By assumption $C$ extends to smooth curve $\mathcal{C}$ over $\operatorname{Spec}(R)$, where $R$ is the ring of $S$-integers. The Zariski closure of $D^{\prime} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} P_{1}-P_{2}+2 D$ in $\mathcal{C}$ is a divisor on $\mathcal{C}$ without any "vertical components", i.e., without any components containing a whole fibre $C(v)$ of $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow \operatorname{Spec}(R)$. We can regard $f$ as a rational function on $\mathcal{C}$ and consider its divisor as well. Unfortunately, as in the above example (*), it may have vertical components. In order to remove them we have to replace $f$ with a multiple by an element $c \in K$ having exactly the correct value $\operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}(c)$ for every prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$ in $R$. To be sure that such an element exists, we have to assume that $R$ is principal.

Remark 5.4. (Variant of the lemma.) Recall that the Hilbert class field $K^{\mathrm{HCF}}$ of $K$ is a finite unramified extension in which every ideal in $K$ becomes principal. Even if the ring of $S$-integers is not principal, there will exist an $f$ as in the theorem in $K^{\mathrm{HCF}}(C)$.

Proposition 5.5. Let $A$ be an abelian variety over a number field $K$ with good reduction outside a set of primes $S$. Then there is a finite extension $L$ of $K$ such that $A(K) \subset 2 A(L)$.

Proof. The Mordell-Weil Theorem implies that $A(K) / 2 A(K)$ is finite, and we can choose $L$ to be any field containing the coordinates of a set of representatives for $A(K) / 2 A(K)$. [In fact, the proposition is more elementary than the Mordell-Weil Theorem - it is proved in the course of proving the Weak Mordell-Weil Theorem.

Proof (OF5.1) If $C(K)$ is empty, there is nothing to prove. Otherwise, we choose a rational point and use it to embed $C$ into its Jacobian. The map $2_{J}: J \rightarrow J$ is étale of degree $2^{2 g}$ (see 7.2). When we restrict the map to the inverse image of $C$, we get a covering $\varphi: C^{\prime} \rightarrow C$ that is étale of degree $2^{2 g}$. I claim that $C^{\prime}$ has good reduction outside $S$, and that each point of $\varphi^{-1}(P)$ has coordinates in a field $L$ that is unramfied over $K$ outside $S$. To see this, we need to use that multiplication by 2 is an étale map $\mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{J}$ of abelian schemes over $\operatorname{Spec} R_{S}$ ( $R_{S}$ is the ring of $S$-integers in $K$ ). The inclusion $C \hookrightarrow J$ extends to an inclusion $\mathcal{C} \hookrightarrow \mathcal{J}$ of schemes smooth and proper over $\operatorname{Spec} R_{S}$, and fibre product of this with 2: $\mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{J}$ gives an étale map $\mathcal{C}^{\prime} \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{J} \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$. Therefore $\mathcal{C}^{\prime} \rightarrow \operatorname{Spec} R_{S}$ is smooth (being the composite of an étale and a smooth morphism), which means that $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ has good reduction outside $S$. The point $P$ defines an $R_{S}$-valued point $\operatorname{Spec}\left(R_{S}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$, and the pull-back of $\mathcal{C}^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ by this is a scheme finite and étale over $\operatorname{Spec}\left(R_{S}\right)$ whose generic fibre is $\varphi^{-1}(P)$ - this proves the second part of the claim. For any $Q \in \varphi^{-1}(P),[K(Q)$ : $K] \leq 2^{2 g}$. Therefore, according to Theorem 3.1, there will be a finite field extension $L_{1}$ of $K$ such that all the points of $\varphi^{-1}(P)$ are rational over $L_{1}$ for all $P \in C(K)$. Now choose two distinct points $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ lying over $P$, and consider the divisor $P_{1}-P_{2}$. According to (5.5), for some finite extension $L_{2}$ of $L_{1}$, every element of $J\left(L_{1}\right)$ lies in $2 J\left(L_{2}\right)$. In particular, there is a divisor $D$ on $C_{/ L_{2}}$ such that $2 D \sim P_{1}-P_{2}$. Now replace $L_{2}$ with its Hilbert class field $L_{3}$. Finally choose an appropriate $f$ such that $(f)=P_{1}-P_{2}-2 D$, and extract a square root, as in (5.3|5.4). We obtain a map $\varphi_{P}$

$$
C_{P} \rightarrow C_{/ L_{3}} \xrightarrow{\varphi} C_{/ L_{3}}
$$

over $L_{3}$ of degree $2 \cdot 2^{2 g}$ that is ramified exactly over $P$. Now the Hurwitz genus formula

$$
2-2 g\left(C_{P}\right)=(2-2 g(C)) \cdot \operatorname{deg} \varphi+\sum_{Q \mapsto P}\left(e_{Q}-1\right)
$$

shows that $g\left(C_{P}\right)$ is bounded independently of $P$. The field $L_{3}$ is independent of $P$, and (by construction) $C_{P}$ has good reduction outside the primes lying over $S$. Thus the proof of Theorem 5.1 is complete.

Proof (OF5.2) The proof uses some algebraic geometry of surfaces (Hartshorne, Chapter V). Consider a nonconstant map $\varphi: C^{\prime} \rightarrow C$ of curves. Its graph $\Gamma_{\varphi} \subset C^{\prime} \times C \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} X$ is a curve isomorphic to $C^{\prime}$, and is therefore of genus $g^{\prime}=$ genus $C^{\prime}$. Note that

$$
\Gamma_{\varphi} \cdot\left(\left\{P^{\prime}\right\} \times C\right)=1, \quad \Gamma_{\varphi} \cdot\left(C^{\prime} \times\{P\}\right)=\# \varphi^{-1}(P)=d, \quad d=\operatorname{deg}(\varphi) .
$$

The canonical class of $X$ is

$$
K_{X} \equiv(2 g-2)\left(C^{\prime} \times\{P\}\right)+\left(2 g^{\prime}-2\right)\left(\left\{P^{\prime}\right\} \times C\right)
$$

and so

$$
\Gamma_{\varphi} \cdot K_{X}=(2 g-2) d+\left(2 g^{\prime}-2\right) .
$$

But the adjunction formula (Hartshorne V.1.5) states that

$$
\Gamma_{\varphi} \cdot K_{X}=2 g^{\prime}-2-\Gamma_{\varphi}^{2}
$$

We deduce that

$$
\Gamma_{\varphi}^{2}=-(2 g-2) d
$$

which is negative, because of our assumption on $g=g(C)$. Note that $d$ is bounded: the Hurwitz formula says that

$$
2 g-2=d\left(2 g^{\prime}-2\right)+(\text { positive })
$$

Thus, there is an integer $N$ (independent of $\varphi$ ) such that

$$
N \leq \Gamma_{\varphi}^{2}<0
$$

For each polynomial $P$ there exists a Hilbert scheme, $\operatorname{Hilb}_{P}$, classifying the curves on $X$ with Hilbert polynomial $P$. We know that $\operatorname{Hilb}_{P}$ is a finite union of varieties $V_{i}$ (when the ambient space is $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, it is even connected), and that if $\Gamma \in V_{i}$, then $\operatorname{dim} V_{i}=\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(\Gamma, N_{\Gamma}\right)$ (by deformation theory) where $N_{\Gamma}$ is the normal bundle. In our case, $N_{\Gamma}=0$ since $\Gamma_{\varphi}^{2}<0$. Thus each $V_{i}$ is a point. We deduce that

$$
\left\{\Gamma_{\varphi} \mid \varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}^{\text {noncnst }}\left(C, C^{\prime}\right)\right\}
$$

is finite, and since a map is determined by its graph, this proves the theorem. Alternative approach: Use differential geometry. The condition $g(C)>1$ implies that $C(\mathbb{C})$ is hyperbolic.

## 6 The Faltings Height.

To any abelian variety $A$ over a number field $K$, Faltings attaches a canonical height $H(A) \in \mathbb{R}$.

## The Faltings height of an elliptic curve over $\mathbb{Q}$

Consider first an elliptic curve $E$ over $\mathbb{C}$. We want to attach a number $H(E)$ to $E$ which is a measure of its "size". The most natural first attempt would be to write $E \approx \mathbb{C} / \Lambda$, and define $H(E)$ to be the reciprocal of the area of a fundamental domain for $\Lambda$, i.e., if $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z} \omega_{1}+\mathbb{Z} \omega_{2}$, then

$$
H(E)=\left|\omega_{1} \wedge \omega_{2}\right|^{-1}
$$

Unfortunately this doesn't make sense, because we can scale the isomorphism to make the area of the fundamental domain any positive real number we choose. In order to get a height, we need additional data.

Proposition 6.1. Let $E$ be an elliptic curve over $\mathbb{C}$. Then each of the following choices determines the remainder:
(a) an isomorphism $\mathbb{C} / \Lambda \rightarrow E(\mathbb{C})$;
(b) the choice of a basis for $\Gamma\left(E, \Omega^{1}\right)$, i.e., the choice of a nonzero holomorphic differential on $E$;
(c) the choice of an equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y^{2}=4 X^{3}-g_{2} X-g_{3} \tag{}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $E$.
Proof. (a) $\rightarrow$ (c). There are associated with a lattice $\Lambda$, a Weierstrass function $\wp(z)$ and numbers $g_{2}(\Lambda), g_{3}(\Lambda)$ for which there is an isomorphism

$$
E(\mathbb{C})=\mathbb{C} / \Lambda \rightarrow E^{\prime} \subset \mathbb{P}^{2}, \quad z \mapsto\left(\wp(z): \wp^{\prime}(z): 1\right)
$$

where $E^{\prime}$ is the projective curve given by the equation $(*)$.
(c) $\rightarrow$ (b). Take $\omega=\frac{d X}{Y}$.
(b) $\rightarrow$ (a). From a differential $\omega$ on $E$ and an isomorphism $\alpha: \mathbb{C} / \Lambda \rightarrow E(\mathbb{C})$ we obtain a differential $\alpha^{*}(\omega)$ on $\mathbb{C}$ invariant under translation by elements of $\Lambda$. For example, if $\alpha$ is the map given by $\wp$ and $\omega=\frac{d X}{Y}$, then $\alpha^{*}(\omega)=\frac{d \wp(z)}{\wp^{\prime}(z)}=d z$. Thus we should choose the $\alpha$ so that $\alpha^{*}(\omega)=d z$. This we can do as follows: consider the map $P \mapsto \int_{0}^{P} \omega: E(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. This is not well-defined because the integral depends on the choice of the path. However, if $\gamma_{1}$ and $\gamma_{2}$ are generators for $H_{1}(E, \mathbb{Z})$, then (up to homotopy), two paths from 0 to $P$ will differ by a loop $m_{1} \gamma_{1}+m_{2} \gamma_{2}$, and because $\omega$ is holomorphic, the integral depends only on the homotopy class of the path. Therefore, we obtain a well-defined map $E(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathbb{C} / \Lambda$, $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z} \omega_{1}+\mathbb{Z} \omega_{2}, \omega_{i}=\int_{\gamma_{i}} \omega$, which is an isomorphism.

Now, given a pair $(E, \omega)$ over $\mathbb{C}$, we can define

$$
H(E, \omega)^{-1}=\frac{i}{2} \int_{E(\mathbb{C})} \omega \wedge \bar{\omega}=\frac{i}{2} \int_{D} d z \wedge d \bar{z}=\frac{i}{2} \int_{D} d(x+i y) \wedge d(x-i y)=\int_{D} d x \wedge d y
$$

where $D$ is a fundamental domain for $\Lambda$. Thus $H(E, \omega)^{-1}$ is the area of $D$.
When the elliptic curve is given over $\mathbb{Q}$ (rather than $\mathbb{C}$ ), then we choose an equation

$$
Y^{2}=4 X^{3}-g_{2} X-g_{3}, \quad g_{2}, g_{3} \in \mathbb{Q}
$$

and take the differential $\omega$ to be $d X / Y$. When we change the choice of the equation, $\omega$ is only multiplied by a nonzero rational number, and so

$$
H(E) \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=} H(E, \omega)
$$

is a well-defined element of $\mathbb{R}^{+} / \mathbb{Q}^{+}$, but we can do better: we know that $E$ has a global minimal model i.e., an equation

$$
Y^{2}+a_{1} X Y+a_{3} Y=X^{3}+a_{2} X^{2}+a_{4} X+a_{6}, \quad a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad \Delta \text { minimal. }
$$

The Weierstrass (=Néron) differential,

$$
\omega=\frac{d X}{2 Y+a_{1} X+a_{3}}
$$

is well-defined up to a multiplication by a unit in $\mathbb{Z}$, i.e., up to sign. Now $H(E)=H(E, \omega)$ is uniquely determined.

When we consider an elliptic curve over a number field $K$ two complications arise. Firstly, $K$ may have several infinite primes, and so we may have to take the product over their separate contributions. Secondly, and more importantly, $\mathcal{O}_{K}$ may not be a principal ideal domain, and so there may not be a global minimal equation. Before describing how to get around this last problem, it is useful to consider a more general construction.

## The height of a normed module

A norm on a vector space $M$ over $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$ is a mapping $\|\cdot\|: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ such that

$$
\|x+y\| \leq\|x\|+\|y\|, \quad\|a x\|=|a|\|x\|, \quad x, y \in M, \quad a \text { scalar. }
$$

Here $|\cdot|$ is the usual absolute value.
Now let $K$ be a number field, and let $R$ be the ring of integers in $K$. Recall that a fractional ideal in $K$ is a projective $R$-module of rank 1 ; conversely, if $M$ is a projective $R$-module of rank 1 , then $M \otimes_{R} K \approx K$, and the choice of an isomorphism identifies $M$ with a fractional ideal in $K$. Let $M$ be such an $R$-module. Suppose we are given a norm $\|\cdot\|_{v}$ on $M \otimes_{R} K_{v}$ for each $v \mid \infty$. We define the height of $M$ (better, of $\left.\left(M,\left(\|\cdot\|_{v}\right)_{v \mid \infty}\right)\right)$ to be

$$
H(M)=\frac{(M: R m)}{\prod_{v \mid \infty}\|m\|_{v}^{\varepsilon_{v}}}, \quad m \text { any nonzero element of } M, \quad \varepsilon_{v}= \begin{cases}1 & v \text { real } \\ 2 & v \text { complex. } .\end{cases}
$$

Lemma 6.2. The definition is independent of the choice of $m$.
Proof. Recall that, for a finite prime $v$ corresponding to a prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$, the normalized absolute value is defined by,

$$
|a|_{v}=(R: \mathfrak{p})^{-\operatorname{ord}_{v}(a)}, \quad \operatorname{ord}_{v}: K \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}
$$

and that for any infinite prime $v$,

$$
|a|_{v}=|a|^{\varepsilon_{v}}
$$

Moreover, for the normalized absolute values, the product formula holds:

$$
\prod|a|_{v}=1
$$

The Chinese remainder theorem shows that

$$
M / R m \approx \oplus_{v \text { finite }} M_{v} / R_{v} m
$$

where $R_{v}$ is the completion of $R$ at $v$ and $M_{v}=R_{v} \otimes_{R} M$. Now $M_{v}$ is a projective module of rank 1 over $R_{v}$, and hence it is free of rank 1 (because $R_{v}$ is principal), say $M_{v}=R_{v} m_{v}$. Therefore

$$
\left(M_{v}: R_{v} m\right)=\left(R_{v} m_{v}: R_{v} m\right)=\left|\frac{m_{v}}{m}\right|_{v}
$$

where by $m_{v} / m$ we mean the unique element $a$ of $K_{v}$ such that $a m=m_{v}$. Hence we find that

$$
\begin{equation*}
H(M)=\frac{1}{\prod_{v \text { finite }}\left|\frac{m}{m_{v}}\right|_{v} \cdot \prod_{v \mid \infty}\|m\|_{v}^{\varepsilon_{v}}} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is obvious that the expression on the right is unchanged when $m$ is replaced with $a m$.
Lemma 6.3. In the expression (6) for $H(M), m$ can be taken to be any element of $M \otimes_{R}$ $K$. When we define,

$$
h(M)=\frac{1}{[K: \mathbb{Q}]} \log H(M)
$$

then, for any finite extension $L$ of $K$,

$$
h\left(R_{L} \otimes_{R} M\right)=h(M)
$$

Proof. Exercise in algebraic number theory.

## The Faltings height of an abelian variety

Proposition 6.4. Let $V$ be a smooth algebraic variety of dimension $g$ over a field $k$.
(a) The sheaf of differentials $\Omega_{V / k}^{1}$ on $V$ is a locally free sheaf of $\mathcal{O}_{V}$-modules of rank $g$.
(b) If $V$ is a group variety, then $\Omega^{1}$ is free.

Proof. See T. Springer, Linear Algebraic Groups, Birkhäuser, 1981, 3.2, 3.3.
COROLLARY 6.5. Let $V$ be a smooth algebraic variety of dimension $g$ over a field $k$. Then $\Omega^{g}={ }_{d f} \Lambda^{g} \Omega^{1}$ is a locally free sheaf of rank 1 , and it is free if $V$ is a group variety.

Proof. Immediate from 6.4.

Let $\mathcal{M}$ be a coherent sheaf on a variety $V$. For any point $v \in V$ we obtain a vector space $\mathcal{M}(v)$ over the residue field $k(v)$. For example, if $V$ is affine, say $V=\operatorname{Specm}(R)$, then $\mathcal{M}$ corresponds to the $R$-module $M=\Gamma(V, \mathcal{M})$, and if $v \leftrightarrow \mathfrak{m}$, then $\mathcal{M}(v)=M / \mathfrak{m} M$. Note that, for any open subset $U$ of $V$ containing $v$, there is a canonical map $\Gamma(U, \mathcal{M}) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(v)$.

PROPOSITION 6.6. Let $V$ be a complete geometrically connected variety over a field $k$, and let $\mathcal{M}$ be a free sheaf of finite rank on $V$. For any $v \in V(k)$, the map $\Gamma(V, \mathcal{M}) \rightarrow$ $\mathcal{M}(v)$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. For $\mathcal{M}=\mathcal{O}_{V}, \Gamma(V, \mathcal{M})=k$ (the only functions regular on the whole of a complete variety are the constant functions), and the map is the identity map $k \rightarrow k$. By assumption $\mathcal{M} \approx\left(\mathcal{O}_{V}\right)^{n}$ for some $n$, and so the statement is obvious.

Proposition 6.7. Let $A$ be an abelian variety of dimension $g$ over a field $k$. The canonical maps

$$
\Gamma\left(A, \Omega^{1}\right) \rightarrow \Omega^{1}(0), \quad \Gamma\left(A, \Omega^{g}\right) \rightarrow \Omega^{g}(0)
$$

are isomorphisms.

Proof. By 0 we mean the zero element of $A$. For the proof, combine the last two results.a
Now let $A$ be an abelian variety over a number field $K$, and let $R$ be the ring of integers in $K$. Recall from $\mathrm{I}, \S 17$, that there is a canonical extension of $A$ to a smooth group scheme $\mathcal{A}$ over $\operatorname{Spec} R$ (the Néron model). The sheaf $\Omega_{\mathcal{A} / R}^{g}$ of (relative) differential $g$-forms on $\mathcal{A}$ is a locally free sheaf of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{A}}$-modules of rank 1 (it becomes free of rank 1 when restricted to each fibre, but is not free on the whole of $\mathcal{A}$ ). There is a section $s$ : $\operatorname{Spec} R \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ whose image in each fibre is the zero element. Define $M=s^{*} \Omega_{\mathcal{A} / R}^{g}$. It is a locally free sheaf of rank 1 on $\operatorname{Spec} R$, and it can therefore be regarded as a projective $R$-module of rank 1 . We have

$$
M \otimes_{R} K=\Omega_{A / K}^{g}(0)=\Gamma\left(A, \Omega_{A / K}^{g}\right)
$$

—the first equality simply says that $\Omega_{\mathcal{A} / R}^{g}$ restricted to the zero section of $\mathcal{A}$ and then to the generic fibre, is equal to $\Omega_{\mathcal{A} / R}^{g}$ restricted to the generic fibre, and then to the zero section; the second equality is 6.7).

Let $v$ be an infinite prime of $K$. We have to define a norm on $M \otimes_{K} K_{v}$. But $M \otimes_{K}$ $K_{v}=\Gamma\left(A_{K_{v}}, \Omega_{A_{K_{v} / K_{v}}}^{g}\right)$, and we can set

$$
\|\omega\|_{v}=\left(\left(\frac{i}{2}\right)^{g} \int_{A\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{al}}\right)} \omega \wedge \bar{\omega}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$

Note that $K_{v}^{\text {al }}=\mathbb{C}$. Now $\left(M,\left(\|\cdot\|_{v}\right)\right)$ is a normed $R$-module, and we define the Faltings height of $A$,

$$
H(A)=H(M)
$$

We can make this more explicit by using the expression (26.2.1) for $H(M)$. Choose a holomorphic differential $g$-form $\omega$ on $A / K$-this will be our $m$. It is well-defined up to multiplication by an element of $K^{\times}$. For a finite prime $v$, we have a Néron differential $g$-form $\omega_{v}$ for $A / K_{v}$ (well-defined up to multiplication by a unit in $R_{v}$ ), and we have

$$
H(A)=\frac{1}{\prod_{v \nmid \infty}\left|\frac{\omega}{\omega_{v}}\right| \cdot \prod_{v \mid \infty}\left(\left(\frac{i}{2}\right)^{g} \int_{A\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{al}}\right)} \omega \wedge \bar{\omega}\right)^{\varepsilon_{v} / 2}}
$$

For any infinite prime $v$, choose an isomorphism

$$
\alpha: \mathbb{C}^{g} / \Lambda \rightarrow A\left(K_{v}^{\mathrm{al}}\right)
$$

such that $\alpha^{*}(\omega)=d z_{1} \wedge d z_{2} \wedge \ldots \wedge d z_{g}$; then the contribution of the prime $v$ is

$$
\text { (volume of a fundamental domain for } \Lambda)^{\frac{\varepsilon_{v}}{2}}
$$

This is all very explicit when $A$ is an elliptic curve. In this case, $\omega_{v}$ is the differential corresponding to the Weierstrass minimal equation (see above, and Silverman 1986, VII.1). There is an algorithm for finding the Faltings height of an elliptic curve, which has surely been implemented for curves over $\mathbb{Q}$ (put in the coefficients; out comes the height).

Define

$$
h(A)=\frac{1}{[K: \mathbb{Q}]} \log H(A)
$$

If $L$ is a finite extension of $K$, it is not necessarily true that $h\left(A_{L}\right)=h(A)$ because the Néron minimal model may change (Weierstrass minimal equation in the case of elliptic curves). However, if $A$ has semistable reduction everywhere, then $h(A)$ is invariant under finite field extensions. We define the stable Faltings height of $A$,

$$
h_{F}(A)=h\left(A_{L}\right)
$$

where $L$ is any finite field extension of $K$ such that $A_{L}$ has semistable reduction at all primes of $L$ (see I 17.3 ).

## 7 The Modular Height.

## Heights on projective space

(Serre, 1989, §2). Let $K$ be a number field, and let $P=\left(x_{0}: \ldots: x_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{P}^{n}(K)$. The height of $P$ is defined to be

$$
H(P)=\prod_{v} \max _{0 \leq i \leq n}\left|x_{i}\right|_{v}
$$

Define

$$
h(P)=\frac{1}{[K: \mathbb{Q}]} \log H(P)
$$

2 Serre puts the factor $[K: \mathbb{Q}]$ into $H(P)$.
Proposition 7.1. For any number $C$, there are only finitely many points $P$ of $\mathbb{P}^{n}(K)$ with $H(P) \leq C$.

Note that an embedding $\alpha: V \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ of an algebraic variety into $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ defines on it a height function, $H(P)=H(\alpha(P))$.

Proposition 7.2. Let $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{2}$ be two embedding of $V$ into $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ such that $\alpha_{1}^{-1}$ (hyperplane) $\sim$ $\alpha_{2}^{-1}$ (hyperplane). Then the height functions defined by $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{2}$ on $V$ differ by a bounded amount.

In other words, given a variety $V$ and a very ample divisor on $V$, we get a height function on $V(K)$, well defined up to a bounded function.

## The Siegel modular variety

For any field $L$, let $\mathcal{M}_{g, d}(L)$ be the set of isomorphism classes of pairs $(A, \lambda)$ with $A$ an abelian variety over $L$ of dimension $g$ and $\lambda$ a polarization of $A$ of degree $d$.

THEOREM 7.3. There exists a unique algebraic variety $M_{g, d}$ over $\mathbb{C}$ and a bijection

$$
j: \mathcal{M}_{g, d}(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow M_{g, d}(\mathbb{C})
$$

such that:
(a) for every point $P \in M_{g, d}$, there is an open neighbourhood $U$ of $P$ and a family $\mathcal{A}$ of polarized abelian varieties over $U$ such that the fibre $\mathcal{A}_{Q}$ represents $j^{-1}(Q)$ for all $Q \in M_{g, d}$;
(b) for any variety $T$ over $\mathbb{C}$, and family $\mathcal{A}$ of polarized abelian varieties over $T$ of dimension $g$ and degree $d$, the map $T \rightarrow M_{g, d}, t \mapsto j\left(\mathcal{A}_{t}\right)$, is regular (i.e., is a morphism of algebraic varieties).

Proof. Uniqueness: Let $\left(M^{\prime}, j^{\prime}\right)$ be a second pair, and consider the map $j^{\prime} \circ j: M_{g, d}(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow$ $M^{\prime}(\mathbb{C})$. To prove that this is regular, it suffices to prove that it is regular in a neighbourhood of each point $P$ of $M_{g, d}$. But given $P$, we can find a neighbourhood $U$ of $P$ as in (a), and condition (b) for $M^{\prime}$ implies that $\left(j^{\prime} \circ j\right) \mid U$ is regular. Similarly, its inverse is regular. Existence: This is difficult. Siegel constructed $M_{g, d}$ as a complex manifold, and Satake and others showed about 1958 that it was an algebraic variety. See E. Freitag, Siegelsche Modulfunktionen, Springer, 1983.

The variety in the theorem is called the Siegel modular variety.
EXAmple 7.4. The $j$-invariant defines a bijection

$$
\{\text { elliptic curves over } \mathbb{C}\} / \approx=\mathcal{M}_{1,1}(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow M_{1,1}(\mathbb{C}), \quad M_{1,1}=\mathbb{A}^{1}
$$

See, for example, Milne 2006, V 2.2.

Note that the automorphisms of $\mathbb{C}$ act on $\mathcal{M}_{g, d}(\mathbb{C})$.
Let $V$ be a variety over $\mathbb{C}$, and suppose that there is given a model $V_{0}$ of $V$ over $\mathbb{Q}(\mathrm{AG}$, Chapter 16). Then the automorphisms of $\mathbb{C}$ act on $V_{0}(\mathbb{C})=V(\mathbb{C})$.

THEOREM 7.5. There exists a unique model of $M_{g, d}$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ such the bijection $j: \mathcal{M}_{g, d}(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow$ $M_{g, d}(\mathbb{C})$ commutes with the two actions of $\operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{C})$ noted above.

Write $M_{g, d}$ again for this model. For each field $L \supset \mathbb{Q}$, there is a well-defined map

$$
j: \mathcal{M}_{g, d}(L) \rightarrow M_{g, d}(L)
$$

that is functorial in $L$ and is an isomorphism whenever $L$ is algebraically closed.
Proof. This is not difficult ${ }^{4}$, given 7.3.

Example 7.6. The model of $M_{1,1}$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ is just $\mathbb{A}^{1}$ again. The fact that $j$ commutes with the actions of $\operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{C})$ simply means that, for any automorphism $\sigma$ of $\mathbb{C}$ and elliptic curve $E$ over $\mathbb{C}, j(\sigma E)=\sigma j(E)$-if $E$ has equation

$$
Y^{2}=X^{3}+a X+b
$$

then $\sigma E$ has equation

$$
Y^{2}=X^{3}+\sigma a X+\sigma b
$$

and so this is obvious.
Note that $j: \mathcal{M}_{1,1}(L) \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^{1}(L)=L$ will not in general be a bijection unless $L$ is algebraically closed. For example, if $c \in L$, then the curve

$$
E_{c}: \quad Y^{2}=X^{3}+a c^{2} X+b c^{3}
$$

has the same $j$-invariant as

$$
E: \quad Y^{2}=X^{3}+a X+b
$$

but it is not isomorphic to $E$ over $L$ unless $c$ is a square in $L$.

REMARK 7.7. Let $K$ be a number field, and consider the diagram:


Clearly $j(A, \lambda)=j\left(A^{\prime}, \lambda^{\prime}\right)$ if and only if $(A, \lambda)$ becomes isomorphic to $\left(A^{\prime}, \lambda^{\prime}\right)$ over $K^{\text {al }}$.

[^33]
## The modular height

The proof that $M_{g, d}$ is an algebraic variety shows more, namely, that there is a canonical ample divisor on $M_{g, d}$, and therefore a height function $h$ on $M_{g, d}(K)$, any number field $K$, well-defined up to a bounded function, and we define the modular height of a polarized abelian variety $(A, \lambda)$ over $K$ by

$$
h_{M}(A, \lambda)=h(j(A, \lambda))
$$

For example, consider the elliptic curve $E$ over $\mathbb{Q}$; write $j(E)=\frac{m}{n}$ with $m$ and $n$ relatively prime integers. Then $h_{M}(E)=\log \max \{|m|,|n|\}$.

THEOREM 7.8. For every polarized abelian variety $(A, \lambda)$ over a number field $K$,

$$
h_{F}(A)=h_{M}(A, \lambda)+O\left(\log h_{M}(A, \lambda)\right)
$$

Proof. Technically, this is by far the hardest part of the proof. It involves studying the two height functions on a compactification of the modular variety over $\mathbb{Z}$ (see Chai and Faltings 1990 for moduli schemes over $\mathbb{Z}$ ).

EXERCISE 7.9. Prove (7.8) for elliptic curves.
THEOREM 7.10. Let $K$ be a number field, and let $g, d, C$ be integers. Up to isomorphism, there are only finitely many polarized abelian varieties $(A, \lambda)$ over $K$ of dimension $g$ and degree $d$ with semistable reduction everywhere and

$$
h_{M}(A, \lambda) \leq C
$$

REMARK 7.11. The semistability condition is essential, for consider an elliptic curve

$$
E: \quad Y^{2}=X^{3}+a X+b
$$

over $K$. For any $c \in K^{\times}, c \notin K^{\times 2}$,

$$
E_{c}: \quad Y^{2}=X^{3}+a c^{2} X+b c^{3}
$$

has the same height as $E$ (because it has the same $j$-invariant), but it is not isomorphic to $E$ over $K$.

Proof. (of Theorem 7.10). We know from 7.1) that

$$
\left\{P \in M_{g, d}(K) \mid H(P) \leq C\right\}
$$

is finite, and we noted above, that $(A, \lambda)$ and $\left(A^{\prime}, \lambda^{\prime}\right)$ define the same point in $M_{g, d}(K)$ if and only if they become isomorphic over $K^{\text {al }}$. Therefore, it suffices to prove the following statement:

Let $\left(A_{0}, \lambda_{0}\right)$ be a polarized abelian variety over $K$ with semistable reduction everywhere; then up to $K$-isomorphism, there are only finitely many $(A, \lambda)$ over $K$ with semistable reduction everywhere such that $(A, \lambda) \approx\left(A_{0}, \lambda_{0}\right)$ over $K^{\text {al }}$.

Step 1. Let $S$ be the set of primes of $K$ at which $A_{0}$ has bad reduction, and let $A$ be as in the statement. Then $S$ is also the set of primes where $A$ has bad reduction. Proof: We know that $A$ and $A_{0}$ become isomorphic over a finite extension $L$ of $K$. Because $A_{0}$ and $A$ have semstable stable reduction everywhere, when we pass from $K$ to $L$, bad reduction stays bad reduction and good reduction stays good reduction, and so the set of primes of $K$ where $A$ has bad reduction can be read off from the similar set for $L$.

Step 2. Now fix an $\ell \geq 3$. There exists a finite extension $L$ of $K$ such that all the $A$ 's in the statement have their points of order $\ell$ rational over $L$.

Proof: The extension $K\left(A_{\ell}\right)$ of $K$ obtained by adjoining the points of order $\ell$ is an extension of $K$ of degree $\leq \# \mathrm{GL}_{2 g}\left(\mathbb{F}_{\ell}\right) \mathbb{Z} / \ell \mathbb{Z}$ ) unramified outside $S$ and $\{v|v| \ell\}$ (see 3.5), and so we can apply (3.1).

Step 3. Every $(A, \lambda)$ as in the statement becomes isomorphic to $\left(A_{0}, \lambda_{0}\right)$ over the field $L$ in the Step 2.

Proof: Recall (I 14.4 ) that any automorphism of $(A, \lambda)$ that acts as the identity map on the points of order 3 is itself the identity map. We are given that there is an isomorphism $\alpha:(A, \lambda) \rightarrow\left(A_{0}, \lambda_{0}\right)$ over $K^{\text {al }}$. Let $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\text {al }} / L\right)$. Then $\sigma \alpha$ is a second isomorphism $(A, \lambda) \rightarrow\left(A_{0}, \lambda_{0}\right)$, and $\sigma \alpha$ and $\alpha$ have the same action on the points of order 3 of $A$. (By definition $(\sigma \alpha)(P)=\sigma\left(\alpha\left(\sigma^{-1} P\right)\right.$, but because $\sigma$ fixes $L, \sigma^{-1} P=P$ and $\sigma(\alpha P)=\alpha P$.) Hence $\sigma \alpha \circ \alpha^{-1}$ is an automorphism of $\left(A_{0}, \lambda_{0}\right)$ fixing the points of order 3, and so it is the identity map. Therefore $\sigma \alpha=\alpha$, and this means $\alpha$ is defined over $L$.

Step 4. Take the field $L$ in step 2 to be Galois over $K$. Then there is a canonical bijection between the following two sets:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left\{(A, \lambda) \mid(A, \lambda) \approx\left(A_{0}, \lambda_{0}\right) \text { over } L\right\} /(K \text {-isomorphism }) \\
H^{1}\left(\operatorname{Gal}(L / K), \operatorname{Aut}\left(A_{L}, \lambda_{L}\right)\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

Proof: Given $(A, \lambda)$, choose an isomorphism $\alpha:(A, \lambda) \rightarrow\left(A_{0}, \lambda_{0}\right)$ over $L$, and let

$$
a_{\sigma}=\sigma \alpha \circ \alpha^{-1}, \quad \sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L / K)
$$

Then $\sigma \mapsto a_{\sigma}$ is a crossed homomorphism $\operatorname{Gal}(L / K) \rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}\left(A_{L}, \lambda_{L}\right)$, and it is not difficult to prove that the map sending $(A, \lambda)$ to the cohomology class of $\left(a_{\sigma}\right)$ is a bijection. The group $H^{1}\left(\operatorname{Gal}(L / K), \operatorname{Aut}\left(A_{L}, \lambda_{L}\right)\right)$ is finite because $\operatorname{Gal}(L / K)$ and $\left.\operatorname{Aut}\left(A_{L}, \lambda_{L}\right)\right)$ are both finite (for the second group, see I 14.4), and this completes the proof of the Theorem.

Corollary 7.12. Let $K$ be a number field, and let $g, d, C$ be integers. Up to isomorphism, there are only finitely many polarized abelian varieties $(A, \lambda)$ over $K$ of dimension $g$ and degree $d$ with semistable reduction everywhere and

$$
h_{F}(A) \leq C
$$

Proof. Apply 7.8.

Corollary 7.13. Let $K$ be a number field, and let $g, C$ be integers. Up to isomorphism, there are only finitely many abelian varieties $A$ over $K$ of dimension $g$ with semistable reduction everywhere and

$$
h_{F}(A) \leq C
$$

Proof. We need one more result, namely that $h_{F}(A)=h_{F}\left(A^{\vee}\right)$. (This is proved by Raynaud in the Szpiro seminar.) Given an $A$ as in the statement, $B \stackrel{\text { df }}{=}\left(A \times A^{\vee}\right)^{4}$ is a principally polarized abelian variety over $K$ (see I 13.12) with semistable reduction everywhere, and

$$
h(B)=8 h(A) \leq 8 C
$$

Therefore we can apply (7.12) (and I 15.3 ).

## 8 The Completion of the Proof of Finiteness I.

It remains to prove:
Finiteness I: Let $A$ be an abelian variety over a number field $K$. There are only finitely many isomorphism classes of abelian varieties $B$ over $K$ isogenous to $A$.

THEOREM 8.1. Let $A$ be an abelian variety over a number field $K$ having semistable reduction everywhere. The set of Faltings heights of abelian varieties $B$ over $K$ isogenous to $A$ is finite.

Before discussing the proof of (8.1), we explain how to deduce Finiteness I. First assume that $A$ has semistable reduction everywhere. Then so also does any $B$ isogenous to $A$, and so $(7.13$ and 8.1 show that the set of isomorphism classes of such $B$ 's is finite.

Now consider an arbitrary $A$. There will be a finite extension $L$ of $K$ such that $A$ acquires semistable reduction over $L$, and so Finiteness I follows from the next statement: up to isomorphism, there are only finitely many abelian varieties $B$ over $K$ isogenous to a fixed abelian variety $B_{0}$ over $K$, and isomorphic to $B_{0}$ over $L$. (Cf. the proof of the last step of 7.10 .)

PROOF (OF8.1) Faltings's original proof used algebraic geometry, and in particular a theorem of Raynaud's on finite group schemes. In his talks in Szpiro's seminar, Raynaud improved Faltings's results by making them more effective.

## Appendix: Review of Faltings 1983 (MR 85g:11026)

Faltings, G.,<br>Endlichkeitssätze für abelsche Varietäten über Zahlkörpern. [Finiteness Theorems for Abelian Varieties over Number Fields], Invent. Math. 73 (1983), 349-366; Erratum,ibid. (1984), 75, 381.

The most spectacular result proved in this paper is Mordell's famous 1922 conjecture: a nonsingular projective curve of genus at least two over a number field has only finitely many points with coordinates in the number field. This result is in fact obtained as a corollary of finiteness theorems concerning abelian varieties which are themselves of at least equal significance. We begin by stating them. Unless indicated otherwise, $K$ will be a number field, $\Gamma$ the absolute Galois group $\operatorname{Gal}(\bar{K} / K)$ of $K, S$ a finite set of primes of $K$, and $A$ an
abelian variety over $K$. For a prime number $l, T_{l} A$ will denote the Tate group of $A$ (inverse limit of the groups of $l^{n}$-torsion points on $A$ ) and $V_{l} A=\mathbb{Q}_{l} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}_{l}} T_{l} A$. The paper proves the following theorems.

THEOREM 3. The representation of $\Gamma$ on $V_{l} A$ is semisimple.
THEOREM 4. The canonical map $\operatorname{End}_{K}(A) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}_{l} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}\left(T_{l} A\right)^{\Gamma}$ is an isomorphism.
THEOREM 5. For given $S$ and $g$, there are only finitely many isogeny classes of abelian varieties over $K$ with dimension $g$ and good reduction outside $S$.

THEOREM 6. For given $S, g$, and $d$, there are only finitely many isomorphism classes of polarized abelian varieties over $K$ with dimension $g$, degree (of the polarization) $d$, and good reduction outside $S$.

Both Theorem 3 and Theorem 4 are special cases of conjectures concerning the étale cohomology of any smooth projective variety. The first is sometimes called the GrothendieckSerre conjecture; the second is the Tate conjecture. Theorem 6 is usually called Shafarevich's conjecture because it is suggested by an analogous conjecture of his for curves (see below).

In proving these theorems, the author makes use of a new notion of the height $h(A)$ of an abelian variety: roughly, $h(A)$ is a measure of the volumes of the manifolds $A\left(\bar{K}_{v}\right), v$ an Archimedean prime of $K$, relative to a Néron differential on $A$. The paper proves:

THEOREM 1. For given $g$ and $h$, there exist only finitely many principally polarized abelian varieties over $K$ with dimension $g$, height $\leq h$, and semistable reduction everywhere.

THEOREM 2. Let $A(\bar{K})(l)$ be the $l$-primary component of $A(\bar{K})$, some prime number $l$, and let $G$ be an $l$-divisible subgroup of $A(\bar{K})(l)$ stable under $\Gamma$. Let $G_{n}$ denote the set of elements of $G$ killed by $l^{n}$. Then, for $n$ sufficiently large, $h\left(A / G_{n}\right)$ is independent of $n$.

ThEOREM (*) Let $A$ be an abelian variety over $K$ with semistable reduction everywhere; then there is an $N$ such that for every isogeny $A \rightarrow B$ of degree prime to $N$, $h(A)=h(B)$.

The proof of Theorem 4 is modelled on a proof of J. T. Tate for the case of a finite field $K$ [same journal 2 (1966), 134-144; MR 34\#5829]. There, Tate makes use of a (trivial) analogue of Theorem 6 for a finite field to show that a special element of $\operatorname{End}\left(T_{l} A\right)^{\Gamma}$ lies in the image of the map. At the same point in the proof, the author applies his Theorems 1 and 2. An argument of Yu. G. Zarkhin [Izv. Akad. Nauk SSSR Ser. Mat. 39 (1975), no. 2, 272-277; MR 51\#8114] allows one to pass from the special elements to a general element. Theorem 3 is proved simultaneously with Theorem 4.

From Theorem 4 in the case of a finite field, it follows that the isogeny class of an abelian variety over a finite field is determined by the characteristic polynomial of the Frobenius element. By making an adroit application of the Chebotarev density theorem (and Theorems 3 and 4), the author shows the following: given $S$ and $g$, there exists a finite set $T$ of primes of $K$ such that the isogeny class of an abelian variety over $K$ of dimension $g$ with good reduction outside $S$ is determined by the characteristic polynomials of the Frobenius elements at the $v$ in $T$. (This in fact seems to give an algorithm for deciding when two abelian varieties over a number field are isogenous.) Since the known properties of these polynomials (work of Weil) imply there are only finitely many possibilities for each prime, this proves Theorem 5.

In proving Theorem 6, only abelian varieties $B$ isogenous to a fixed abelian variety $A$ need be considered (because of Theorem 5), and, after $K$ has been extended, $A$ can be
assumed to have semistable reduction everywhere. The definition of the height is such that

$$
e(B / A) \stackrel{\text { df }}{=} \exp (2[K: \mathbb{Q}](h(B)-h(A))
$$

is a rational number whose numerator and denominator are divisible only by primes dividing the degree of the isogeny between $A$ and $B$. Therefore (*) shows that there exists an integer $N$ such that e(A/B) involves only the primes dividing $N$. The isogenies whose degrees are divisible only by the primes dividing $N$ correspond to the $\Gamma$-stable sublattices of $\prod_{l \mid N} T_{l} A$. From what has been shown about $T_{l} A$, there exist only finitely many isomorphism classes of such sublattices, and this shows that the set of possible values $h(B)$ is finite. Now Theorem 1 can be applied to prove Theorem 6.

The proof of Theorem 1 is the longest and most difficult part of the paper. The basic idea is to relate the theorem to the following elementary result: given $h$, there are only finitely many points in $\mathbb{P}^{n}(K)$ with height (in the usual sense) $\leq h$. The author's height defines a function on the moduli space $M_{g}$ of principally polarized abelian varieties of dimension $g$. If $M_{g}$ is embedded in $\mathbb{P}_{K}^{n}$ by means of modular forms rational over $K$, then the usual height function on $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ defines a second function on $M_{g}$. The two functions must be compared. Both are defined by Hermitian line bundles on $M_{g}$ and the main points are to show (a) the Hermitian structure corresponding to the author's height does not increase too rapidly as one approaches the boundary of $M_{g}$ (it has only logarithmic singularities) and (b) by studying the line bundles on compactifications of moduli schemes over $\mathbb{Z}$, one sees that the contributions to the two heights by the finite primes differ by only a bounded amount. This leads to a proof of Theorem 1. (P. Deligne has given a very concise, but clear, account of this part of the paper ["Preuve des conjectures de Tate et de Shafarevitch", Seminaire Bourbaki, Vol. 1983/84 (Paris, 1983/84), no. 616; per revr.].)

The proofs of Theorems 2 and $(*)$ are less difficult: they involve calculations which reduce the questions to formulas of M. Raynaud [Bull. Soc. Math. France 102 (1974), 241-280; MR 547488]. (To obtain a correct proof of Theorem 2, one should replace the $A$ of the proof in the paper by $A / G_{n}$, some n sufficiently large.)

Torelli's theorem says that a curve is determined by its canonically polarized Jacobian. Thus Theorem 6 implies the (original) conjecture of Shafarevich: given $S$ and $g$, there exist only finitely many nonsingular projective curves over $K$ of genus $g$ and good reduction outside $S$. An argument of A. N. Parshin [Izv. Akad. Nauk SSSR Ser. Mat. 32 (1968), 1191-1219; MR 411740] shows that Shafarevich's conjecture implies that of Mordell: to each rational point $P$ on the curve $X$ one associates a covering $\varphi_{P}: X_{P} \rightarrow X$ of $X$; the curve $X_{P}$ has bounded genus and good reduction outside $S$; thus there are only finitely many possible curves $X_{P}$, and a classical theorem of de Franchis shows that for each $X_{P}$ there are only finitely many possible $\varphi_{P}$; as the association $P \mapsto\left(X_{P}, \varphi_{P}\right)$ is one-to-one, this proves that there are only finitely many $P$.

Before this paper, it was known that Theorem 6 implies Theorems 3 and 4 (and Mordell's conjecture). One of the author's innovations was to see that by proving a weak form of Theorem 6 (namely Theorem 1) he could still prove Theorems 3 and 4 and then could go back to get Theorem 6.

Only one misprint is worth noting: the second incorrect reference in the proof of Theorems 3 and 4 should be to Zarkhin's 1975 paper [op. cit.], not his 1974 paper.

James Milne .

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The case $g=2$ is something of an exception to this statement. Every abelian variety of dimension 2 is the Jacobian variety of a curve of genus 2, and every curve of genus 2 has an equation of the form

    $$
    Y^{2} Z^{4}=f_{0} X^{6}+f_{1} X^{5} Z+\cdots+f_{6} Z^{6}
    $$

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ For historical reasons, we define them to be complete varieties rather than projective varieties, but they turn out to be projective.
    ${ }^{3}$ Blasius has pointed out that, by looking at infinity types, one can see that the obvious generalization of the Taniyama conjecture, namely, that every abelian variety over $\mathbb{Q}$ is a quotient of an Albanese variety of a Shimura variety, can't be true.

[^2]:    ${ }^{4}$ The unscrupulous need read no further: they already know enough to fake a knowledge of abelian varieties.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ By differentiable I always mean $C^{\infty}$.

[^4]:    ${ }^{2}$ In fact, in this version of the notes, we ignore the sign. Thus, there are some sign differences between when we express things in terms of divisors and in terms of invertible sheaves.

[^5]:    ${ }^{3}$ We know that for any complete variety $V$ over $k, \Gamma\left(V, \mathcal{O}_{V}\right)=k$, which is certainly a finite-dimensional vector space. When we allow a finite number of poles of bounded order, we still get a finite-dimensional vector space, i.e., for any divisor $D$ on $V, \operatorname{dim}_{k} L(D)$ is finite. When $V$ is nonsingular, this says that $\Gamma(V, \mathcal{L})$ is finite-dimensional for any invertible sheaf $\mathcal{L}$ on $V$.

[^6]:    ${ }^{4}$ Jouanolou, J-P., Théorèmes de Bertini et Applications, Birkhäuser, 1983, 6.3; also Grothendieck's EGA5.

[^7]:    ${ }^{5}$ At the time, April 1940, Weil was in a military prison at Rouen as the result of "un différend avec les autorités françaises au sujet de mes "obligations" militaires". Weil said "En d'autres circonstances, une publication m'aurait paru bien prématurée. Mais, en avril 1940, pouvait-on se croire assuré du lendemain?"

[^8]:    ${ }^{6}$ In characteristic $p$, it would cause great confusion to define the kernel to be the fibre in the sense of algebraic varieties. For example, the formation of the kernel would not commute with extension of the base field. Unfortunately, the kernel is defined this way in the standard books on Algebraic Groups (but not in my notes AAG, which include a discussion of this point on p57).
    ${ }^{7} \mathrm{Or}$ schemes if the reader prefers.

[^9]:    ${ }^{8}$ When $k$ is not perfect, it needs to be checked that $B$ is geometrically reduced.

[^10]:    ${ }^{9}$ See: David Rydh, Existence of quotients by finite groups and coarse moduli spaces, arXiv:0708.3333, Theorem 5.4.

[^11]:    ${ }^{10}$ This requires proof when $k$ is not perfect, because it is not obvious that $B^{\prime}$ is geometrically reduced (to be added).

[^12]:    ${ }^{11}$ Again, when $k$ is not perfect, it needs to be checked that $A$ is geometrically reduced.

[^13]:    ${ }^{12}$ Tensor products don't always commute with inverse limits. They do in this case because $\Lambda$ is a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module of finite rank.

[^14]:    ${ }^{13}$ Most of the theory of vector spaces over fields extends to modules over division algebras; in particular, finitely generated modules have bases and so are free.

[^15]:    ${ }^{14}$ This was told to me first hand by David Gieseker.
    ${ }^{15}$ This notion of polarization differs slightly from Weil's original definition.

[^16]:    ${ }^{16}$ Actually, it suffices to show that all coverings are abelian. Perhaps this is easier.

[^17]:    ${ }^{17}$ Note that $e_{\ell}$ is ambiguous: it denotes both the $\mathbb{Z} / \ell \mathbb{Z}$ pairing and the $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$ pairing. To avoid confusion, we shall use $e_{\ell}$ only to mean the $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}$-pairing. Also, it should be noted that we sometimes write $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}(1)$ multiplicatively and sometimes additively.

[^18]:    ${ }^{18}$ The congruence subgroup problem asks whether every arithmetic subgroup contains a congruence subgroup. It has largely been solved - for some groups $G$ they do; for some groups $G$ they don't.

[^19]:    ${ }^{19}$ For another discussion of the Néron models of elliptic curves, see Milne 2006. II 6.

[^20]:    ${ }^{20}$ This notion should not be confused with that of a complex torus discussed in $\S 2$.

[^21]:    ${ }^{21}$ For a period, Weil's foundations of algebraic geometry were the only ones available, but they only applied over a ground field, and so those who wished to work over a ring were forced to device their own foundations.

[^22]:    ${ }^{1}$ In fact, it is easy to prove this directly. Let $f(X)$ be a monic polynomial generating the kernel of $\mathbb{Q}[X] \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$. Then $\mathbb{Q}[X] /(f(X)) \simeq \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$, and the maximal ideals of $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ correspond to the distinct irreducible factors of $f(X)$.

[^23]:    ${ }^{2} \mathrm{CM}=$ complex multiplication
    ${ }^{3}$ For more on abelian varieties with complex multiplication, see my notes Complex Multiplication (under Books on my homepage).

[^24]:    ${ }^{1}$ The method of construction of the Jacobian variety in this section was suggested to me by János Kollár.

[^25]:    ${ }^{2}$ See also: Fantechi, Barbara; Göttsche, Lothar; Illusie, Luc; Kleiman, Steven L.; Nitsure, Nitin; Vistoli, Angelo. Fundamental algebraic geometry. Grothendieck's FGA explained. Mathematical Surveys and Monographs, 123. American Mathematical Society, Providence, RI, 2005. x+339 pp.

[^26]:    ${ }^{3}$ Some authors call a finite covering $W \rightarrow V$ is Galois if the field extension $k(W) / k(V)$ is Galois, i.e., if it is generically Galois, but this conflicts with Grothendieck's terminology and is not the natural definition.

[^27]:    ${ }^{4}$ This is true also over finite fields. See:
    Gabber, O. On space filling curves and Albanese varieties. Geom. Funct. Anal. 11 (2001), no. 6, 11921200.

    Poonen, Bjorn, Bertini theorems over finite fields. Ann. of Math. (2) 160 (2004), no. 3, 1099-1127.

[^28]:    ${ }^{5}$ See also Kleiman, Dix Exposes, p378.

[^29]:    ${ }^{6}$ Needs fixing.

[^30]:    ${ }^{1}$ Mordell, L.J., On the rational solutions of the indeterminate equations of third and fourth degrees, Proc. Camb. Philos. Soc. 21 (1922), 179-192.

[^31]:    ${ }^{2}$ See Fulton, W., Algebraic Curves, Benjamin, 1969, p199 for a proof of Plücker's formula in the case that $C$ has only ordinary singularities.

[^32]:    ${ }^{3}$ There has been progress on these questions since the notes were written.

[^33]:    ${ }^{4}$ That's what my original notes say, but I'm not sure I believe it.

