## UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI ROMA TRE

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# Divisors, linear systems and applications to canonical curves 

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## Introduction


#### Abstract

Algebraic geometry is a subject that somehow connects and unifies several mathematical disciplines, first of all algebra and geometry, but also others (such as number theory, string theory,...), and it has as many applications. Because of this interdisciplinarity, studying it requires an appropriate background. I will therefore try to make this text as self-contained as possible: only a good knowledge of general topology and commutative algebra will be required, as well as a minimal familiarity with category theory and cohomology. All remaining prerequisites (about sheaves, schemes, varieties,...) will be exposed and summarized in chapter 1-Prerequisites. However it would be useful to have a good smattering of classical algebraic geometry (about quasi-projective varieties, also called prevarieties). Instead we will follow the approach developed by Grothendieck and his many coworkers in the 1960's in Paris, concerning the theory of schemes.


What is algebraic geometry? Roughly, it is the kind of geometry you can describe with polynomials. In particular, the closed subsets of a space are loci of points described by a system of polynomial equations.
What are the benefits? What may seems like a limitation, working only with polynomials, however, becomes a powerful tool for studying singular objects (nonsmooth varieties). Moreover we do not need to work only on $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$, and we can generalize by taking any field $k$. Note that starting from chapter 2 (so excluding just the chapter 1-Prerequisites) we will assume that $k$ is algebraically closed.

What is the idea behind the theory of schemes? As described in [5], just as topological manifolds are made by gluing together open balls from Euclidean space, schemes are made by gluing together open sets of a simple kind, called affine schemes. There is already some subtlety here: when you glue things together, you have to specify what kind of gluing is allowed. For example, about topological manifolds, if the transition functions are required to be differentiable, then you get the notion of a differentiable manifold.
Note that a differentiable manifold $M$ is obviously a topological space, but it is a little bit more: specifying its structure as differentiable manifold is equivalent to specifying which of the continuous functions on any open subset of $M$ are differentiable, and these functions form a sheaf $\mathcal{C}^{\infty}(M)$ such that the pair $\left(M, \mathrm{C}^{\infty}(M)\right)$ is locally isomorphic to an open subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with its sheaf of differentiable functions; hence the idea of associating a sheaf of rings $\mathcal{O}_{X}$ to a topological space $X$, and to follow that of scheme.

What is the purpose of this text? I want to use the acquired notions to explicitly describe something: curves. The first step towards a greater knowledge of the varieties is clearly to start from the one-dimensional case.
The question this text wants to answer is very simple: what are the curves and how are they made? With curve, we mean a one-dimensional smooth variety over an algebraically closed field $k$ (see section 2.1 for more information).
A first more explicit question could be: are all curves isomorphic? Obviously not, indeed some are affine and some (such as $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ ) are not. The question could become: are all projective curves isomorphic? In this regard, we will assume that all curves are projective (i.e. complete). Once again the answer to this question is no, indeed we will define an invariant, the genus, and we will show that $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ has genus 0 , while there exist curves of positive genus. One more question: are all curves of genus 0 isomorphic to $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ ? This is true.
Regarding curves of genus 1 (called elliptic) we will see that they are plane cubics. For genus greater than 1, we will distinguish 2 different types: hyperelliptic and non; and in particular we will study non-hyperelliptic curves of low genus.

In order to discuss interesting issues like these we will introduce some useful tools, such as divisors, line bundles and linear systems (in chapter 3 and 4), after briefly summarizing the necessary prerequisites (in chapter 1 and 2), to then deepen the study of curves (in chapter 5).

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## Chapter 1

## Prerequisites

In this chapter we will quickly review all notions and results of algebraic geometry that we need. Consider it a handbook to keep on the tip of the tongue during the whole reading of the text.
Here the main goal is defining schemes and showing their properties.
Note that with ring we will mean a unitary commutative ring.

### 1.1 Sheaves

First, we recall notions about sheaves on a topological space $X$.

1. A presheaf $\mathcal{F}$ on $X$ is a covariant functor from the open subsets of $X$ to a category $C$, that is it consists of

- An object $\mathcal{F}(U) \in C$ for each open subset $U$ of $X$.
(An element $s \in \mathcal{F}(U)$ is called section).
- A morphism, called restriction, $\rho_{V}^{U}: \mathcal{F}(U) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(V)$ for each couple of open subsets $V \subseteq U$ of $X$, such that:

1) $\rho_{U}^{U}=i d$ for every open subset $U$.
2) $\rho_{W}^{V} \circ \rho_{V}^{U}=\rho_{W}^{U}$ for every triple of open subsets $W \subseteq V \subseteq U$.
(We will usually indicate with a section $s$, also its restrictions, as abuse of notation).

In particular if $C$ is the category of rings/modules/groups/sets, we will call $\mathcal{F}$ presheaf of rings/modules/groups/sets.
From now on, we will assume that $C$ is the category of abelian groups.
2. A sheaf $\mathcal{F}$ on $X$ is a presheaf with the following property:

Let $U$ be an open subset of $X$, with $\left\{U_{h}\right\}$ an open cover of $U$
and $s_{h} \in \mathcal{F}\left(U_{h}\right)$ sections s.t. $\rho_{U_{h} \cap U_{k}}^{U_{h}}\left(s_{h}\right)=\rho_{U_{h} \cap U_{k}}^{U_{k}}\left(s_{k}\right) \forall h, k$ then $\exists!s \in \mathcal{F}(U): \rho_{U_{h}}^{U}(s)=s_{h} \forall h$.
3. We can define a sheaf $\mathcal{F}$ on a topological basis $\beta$ of $X$ and then extend to all open subsets $U$ in the following way (see [17, Proposizione 2.1]): $\mathcal{F}(U)=\lim _{\rightleftarrows} \mathcal{F}(W)$, where the inverse limit is on $\{W \in \beta \mid W \subseteq U\}$.

In other words $\mathcal{F}(U)=\left\{\left(s_{W}\right) \in \prod \mathcal{F}(W) \mid \rho_{W^{\prime}}^{W}\left(s_{W}\right)=s_{W^{\prime}}\right\}$.
(Restrictions are projections).
4. A stalk of a presheaf $\mathcal{F}$ on $X$ is $\mathcal{F}_{p}=\underset{\longrightarrow}{\lim } \mathcal{F}(U)$ where $p \in X$ and the direct limit is on its open neighborhoods $U$.
In other words $\mathcal{F}_{p}=\coprod \mathcal{F}(U) / \sim$, where taken $s \in \mathcal{F}(U), t \in \mathcal{F}(V)$ we define the equivalence relation:
$s \sim t \Longleftrightarrow$ there is an open neighborhood $W \subseteq U \cap V$ of $p: \rho_{W}^{U}(s)=\rho_{W}^{V}(t)$. (An element $s_{p}:=[s] \in \mathcal{F}_{p}$ is called germ).
5. Let $s, t \in \mathcal{F}(U)$ be sections of a sheaf. $s_{p}=t_{p} \forall p \in U \Longleftrightarrow s=t$ (see [17, Lemma 3.2]).
6. We can extend a presheaf $\mathcal{F}$ to a sheaf $\mathcal{F}^{+}$so defined (see [17, Teor. 3.7]): $\mathcal{F}^{+}(U)=\left\{s: U \rightarrow \coprod_{p \in X} \mathcal{F}_{p} \mid\right.$ For any $p \in X, s(p) \in \mathcal{F}_{p}$ and there is an open neighborhood $V \subseteq U$ of $p$ and a section $\sigma \in \mathcal{F}(V)$ s.t. $\left.s(x)=\sigma_{x} \forall x \in V\right\}$. (Restrictions are natural restrictions of maps).
7. A morphism of sheaves on $X, \phi: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$, is a natural transformation of functors, that is a collection of maps $\{\phi(U): \mathcal{F}(U) \rightarrow \mathcal{G}(U) \mid U \subseteq X$ open subset $\}$ compatible with the restrictions.
(We will usually indicate $\phi(U)(s)$ simply with $\phi(s)$, as abuse of notation).
8. Let $\phi: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ be a morphism of sheaves, we can define for each point $p \in X$ : $\phi_{p}: \mathcal{F}_{p} \longrightarrow \mathcal{G}_{p}$ $\mathcal{F}_{p} \longrightarrow \mathcal{I}_{p}$
$s_{p} \mapsto(\phi(s))_{p}$ (morphism on the stalks).
9. We say that $\phi$ is injective/surjective/bijective if $\phi_{p}$ is such $\forall p \in X$.

Note that (see [17, Proposizione 3.3 e 3.5]):
$\phi_{p}$ is injective/isomorphism $\Longleftrightarrow \phi(U)$ is such for any open subset $U$ of $X$.

### 1.2 Cohomology of sheaves

Cohomology is a very useful tool. In particular it is good to note that the zero-index case corresponds to the global sections of a sheaf.
Let $X$ be a topological space and let $\mathcal{F}$ be a sheaf of rings or modules on $X$.

1. A sequence of sheaves is exact if it is exact on the stalks.
2. We define $\Gamma(X, \mathcal{F}):=\mathcal{F}(X)$.

In particular $\Gamma(X,-)$ is a functor from $\{$ sheaves of rings on $X\}$ to $\{$ rings $\}$. Note that it is covariant, additive and left-exact (see [17, Proposizione 5.2]).
3. A sheaf is flasque if its restrictions are surjective.
4. $H^{i}(X, \mathcal{F}):=H^{i}\left(\Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{K}^{\bullet}\right)\right)$, where $\mathcal{K}^{\bullet}$ is a flasque resolution of $\mathcal{F}$.
(There exists always a flasque resolution of $\mathcal{F}$, see [17, Definizione 5.5]).
5. $H^{0}(X, \mathcal{F})=\Gamma(X, \mathcal{F})($ see 17 , Proposizione 5.8]).

### 1.3 Locally ringed spaces

The notion of locally ringed spaces is the starting point to define schemes.

1. A ringed space is a couple $\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)$ where

- $X$ is a topological space
- $\mathcal{O}_{X}$ is a sheaf of rings on $X$.

2. Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map of topological spaces, and let $\mathcal{F}$ be a sheaf on $X$, the push-forward of $\mathcal{F}$ is the sheaf $f_{*} \mathcal{F}$ on $Y$ so defined: $f_{*} \mathcal{F}(U)=\mathcal{F}\left(f^{-1}(U)\right)$ for each open subset $U$ of $X$. (Restrictions are induced by restrictions of $\mathcal{F}$ ).
3. A morphism of ringed spaces is a pair $\left(f, f^{\sharp}\right):\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, \mathcal{O}_{Y}\right)$, where:

- $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map of topological spaces.
- $f^{\sharp}: \mathcal{O}_{Y} \rightarrow f_{*} \mathcal{O}_{X}$ is a morphism of sheaves on $Y$.

4. Let $\left(f, f^{\sharp}\right):\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, \mathcal{O}_{Y}\right)$ be a morphism of ringed spaces.

For each $p \in X$ we have a ring homomorphism $f_{p}^{\sharp}: \mathcal{O}_{Y, f(p)} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X, p}$, defined in the following way:

$$
\mathcal{O}_{Y, f(p)}=\underset{V \ni f(p)}{\lim } \mathcal{O}_{Y}(V) \xrightarrow{f^{\sharp}} \underset{V \ni f(p)}{\lim } \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(f^{-1}(V)\right) \rightarrow \underset{U \ni p}{\lim _{\vec{\longrightarrow}}} \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)=\mathcal{O}_{X, p}
$$

Note that $f_{p}^{\sharp}$ (with $p \in X$ ) is different from $\left(f^{\sharp}\right)_{q}$ ( with $q \in Y$ ).
5. A locally ringed space is a ringed space $\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)$ s.t the stalk $\mathcal{O}_{X, x}$ is a local ring for each $x \in X$ (i.e. $\mathcal{O}_{X, x}$ has a unique maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}_{x}$ ).
6. A morphism of locally ringed spaces $\left(f, f^{\sharp}\right):\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, \mathcal{O}_{Y}\right)$ is a morphism of ringed spaces s.t $\left(f_{x}^{\sharp}\right)^{-1}\left(\mathfrak{m}_{x}\right)=\mathfrak{m}_{f(x)} \forall x \in X$ (i.e. $f_{x}^{\sharp}$ is a morphism of local rings).

Now we introduce some conventions:

- We denote a ringed space $\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)$ only with $X$, and a morphism of ringed spaces $\left(f, f^{\sharp}\right)$ only with $f$.
- Let $X$ be a locally ringed space.

For each $p \in X$, we define its residue field $K(p):=\mathcal{O}_{X, p} / \mathfrak{m}_{p}$.

- Let $s \in \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$ be a section, we can consider it as a function $s: U \rightarrow \coprod_{x \in U} K(x), p \mapsto \overline{s_{p}}$
(In particular $s(p)=0 \Longleftrightarrow s_{p} \in \mathfrak{m}_{p}$ ).


## $1.4 \mathcal{O}_{X}$-modules

Dealing with schemes, we will work on particular sheaves, treated below. Let $\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)$ be a ringed space.

1. A sheaf of $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-modules (or simply an $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-module) is a sheaf $\mathcal{F}$ on $X$ such that for each open subset $U, \mathcal{F}(U)$ is an $\mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$-module
(and the restrictions of $\mathcal{F}$ are compatible with the module structure via the restrictions of $\mathcal{O}_{X}$ ).
2. A morphism of $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-modules is a morphism of sheaves $\phi$ consisting in homomorphisms of modules.
Note that $\operatorname{Ker}(\phi), \operatorname{Jm}(\phi), \operatorname{Coker}(\phi)$ are $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-modules
(as defined in [9, Chapter II.1]).
3. Let $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{G}$ be $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-modules, then $\mathcal{F} / \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H o m}_{\mathcal{O}_{X}}(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{G}), \mathcal{F} \otimes_{\mathcal{O}_{X}} \mathcal{G}$ are $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-modules (as defined at the beginning of [9, Chapter II.5]).

### 1.5 Schemes

Let $A$ be a ring. We consider the set $X=\operatorname{Spec}(A)=\{$ prime ideals of $A\}$, and we denote with $P_{x}$ the corresponding ideal of $A$ to an element $x \in X$, and with $[P] \in X$ the corresponding element to an ideal $P$ of $A$.
First, we recall notions about the Zarisky topology on $X$ :

1. We equip $X$ with the topology whose closed subsets are $V(S):=\left\{x \in X \mid S \subseteq P_{x}\right\}$ where $S \subseteq A$.
2. Every closed subset is of the form $V(J)$ where $J$ is a radical ideal of $A$ (see [17, Esercizio 6.1]).
3. Given a closed subset $Z$ of $X$, we can associate to it an ideal $I(Z)=\bigcap_{z \in Z} P_{z}$ of $A$. In particular we have $V(I(Z))=\bar{Z}$ (see [17, Esercizio 6.1]).
4. A closed subset $Z$ is irreducible $\Longleftrightarrow I(Z)$ is prime.

Moreover, a point $\{x\}$ is closed $\Longleftrightarrow P_{x}$ is maximal.
(see [17, Proposizione 6.5]).
In particular, for every $x \in X$ we will say that $x$ is a generic point of the closed subset $\overline{\{x\}}=V\left(P_{x}\right)$.
(If $A$ is an ID, then $X=\overline{\{[0]\}}$ ).
5. A principal open subset of $X$ is $U_{f}:=X \backslash V(f)$, where $f \in A$.

The principal open subsets give a topological basis (by [17, Esercizio 6.2]).
6. $X$ is compact (see [17, Esercizio 6.3]).
7. We define a sheaf $\mathcal{O}_{X}$ on $X$, called structure sheaf, in the following way:

- Let $U_{f}$ be a principal open subset, we have

$$
\mathcal{O}_{X}\left(U_{f}\right)=A_{f}:=\left\{\left.\frac{a}{f^{n}} \right\rvert\, a \in A, n \in \mathbb{N}\right\} .
$$

- Let $U_{g} \subseteq U_{f}$ be principal open subsets
(i.e. $\exists m \in \mathbb{N}, b \in A$ such that $g^{m}=b f$, see [17, Esercizio 6.1]). We have $\rho_{U_{g}}^{U_{f}}: A_{f} \rightarrow A_{g}, \frac{a}{f^{n}} \mapsto \frac{a b^{n}}{g^{n m}}$

Note that it is defined on a topological basis, then we can extend it to all open subsets (by section 1.1(3)).
(If $A$ is an ID, then $\mathcal{O}_{X}(U)=\bigcap_{x \in U} A_{P_{x}}$, see [17, Lemma 7.4]).
Finally, we can define a scheme in the following way:
a. A standard affine scheme is a ringed space $\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)$ with:

- $X=\operatorname{Spec}(A)$ with Zarisky topology (where $A$ is a ring).
- $\mathcal{O}_{X}$ is its structure sheaf.

Note that $\mathcal{O}_{X, x}=A_{P_{x}} \forall x \in X$, hence $X$ is locally ringed. (see 17, Proposizione 7.2]).
b. An affine scheme is a locally ringed space $\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right) \cong\left(\operatorname{Spec}(A), \mathcal{O}_{\text {Spec }(A)}\right)$ for some ring $A$ (called coordinate ring of $X$ ).
c. A scheme is a ringed space $\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)$ s.t. there exists an open cover $\mathcal{U}$ of $X$ : $\left(U, \mathcal{O}_{X \mid U}\right)$ is an affine scheme $\forall U \in \mathcal{U}$.
d. A morphism of schemes is a morphism of locally ringed spaces which are schemes.

Some remarks about schemes:
i. Let $X=\operatorname{Spec}(A)$ be an affine scheme.

A principal open subset $U_{f} \cong \operatorname{Spec}\left(A_{f}\right)$ is an affine scheme.
ii. Every irreducible closed subset $Z$ of a scheme has a unique generic point $z \in Z: Z=\overline{\{z\}}$ (by [17, Lemma 10.2]).
iii. There is a category equivalence: $\{$ affine schemes $\} \leftrightarrow\{\text { rings }\}^{o p}$ (see [17, Teorema 8.2]).
Given a ring homomorphism $\phi: A \rightarrow B$, we can define a morphism of schemes in the following way:

- $\bar{\phi}: \operatorname{Spec}(B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Spec}(A),[P] \mapsto\left[\phi^{-1}(P)\right]$ is a continuous map.
- $\bar{\phi}^{\sharp}: \mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{Spec}(A)} \rightarrow \bar{\phi}_{*} \mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{Spec}(B)}$ is a morphism of sheaves so defined (on principal open subsets):

$$
\bar{\phi}^{\sharp}\left(U_{g}\right): A_{g} \rightarrow B_{\phi(g)}, \frac{a}{g^{n}} \mapsto \frac{\phi(a)}{\phi(g)^{n}} .
$$

Conversely, given a morphism of ringed spaces $f: \operatorname{Spec}(B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Spec}(A)$, we can define a ring homomorphism $\phi_{f}:=f^{\sharp}(\operatorname{Spec}(A)): A \rightarrow B$. More generally (see $\sqrt{17}$, Es. 11.4]): let $X$ be a scheme, let $Y=\operatorname{Spec}(A)$ be an affine scheme, then there is a bijection: $\operatorname{Mor}(X, Y) \leftrightarrow \operatorname{Mor}\left(A, \mathcal{O}_{X}(X)\right)$.

## $1.6 \quad \mathbb{A}^{n}$ and $\mathbb{P}^{n}$

Let $k$ be a field.

1. Let $R=k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ be the ring of polynomials.

The scheme $\mathbb{A}^{n}:=\operatorname{Spec}(R)$ is called affine $n$-space.
2. Let $S=\oplus_{d \geq 0} S_{d}$ be a graded ring.
$S_{+}:=\oplus_{d>0} S_{d}$ is maximal ideal.
$\operatorname{Proj}(S):=\left\{P \subseteq S \mid P\right.$ is a homogenous prime ideal, $\left.P \neq S_{+}\right\}$
is the topological space whose closed subsets are of the form $V(Q)=\{P \in \operatorname{Proj}(S) \mid P \supseteq Q\}$ for some homogeneus ideal $Q$ of $S$.
$X=\operatorname{Proj}(S)$ is a scheme, where the structure sheaf (analogously to affine schemes) is so defined (as presheaf on principal open subsets):
Let $f \in S$ be homogeneous of degree $d$,
$\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{Proj}(S)}\left(U_{f}\right)=S_{(f)}:=\left\{\left.\frac{m}{f^{n}} \right\rvert\, m \in S\right.$ homogeneous of degree $\left.d n\right\}$.
In particular for each $x \in X$, we have
$\mathcal{O}_{X, x}=S_{\left(P_{x}\right)}:=\left\{\left.\frac{m}{a} \right\rvert\, m, a\right.$ homogeneus polynomials in $S$ of the same degree, $\left.a \in S \backslash P_{x}\right\}$.
Moreover principal open subsets $U_{f} \cong \operatorname{Spec}\left(S_{(f)}\right)$ are affine.
3. Let $P=k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ be a (graded) ring of polynomials.

The scheme $\mathbb{P}^{n}:=\operatorname{Proj}(P)$ is called projective $n$-space.
Its standard open cover is $\left\{U_{0}, \ldots, U_{n}\right\}$ with $U_{i}:=U_{X_{i}}$.
4. An hypersurface of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is a closed subset $V=V(F)$ for some homogeneus polynomial $F$, and its degree is $\operatorname{deg}(V):=\operatorname{deg}(F)$.
An hyperplane of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is a hypersurface of degree 1 .
5. Let $P=k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$. We consider the graded ring $P(l):=\oplus_{d \geq 0} P_{l+d}$. The twist sheaf $\mathcal{O}(l)$ is the sheaf on $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ associated to the graded ring $P(l)$ (in analogous way of above). Moreover, by [17, Teorema 15.1]:

- $\Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}, \mathcal{O}(l)\right) \cong \begin{cases}P_{l} & \text { if } l \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text { if } l<0\end{cases}$
- $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}, \mathcal{O}(l)\right)=\binom{n+l}{l} \forall l \geq 0$.
- $\mathcal{O}(l) \otimes \mathcal{O}(m) \cong \mathcal{O}(l+m)$.


### 1.7 Subschemes

Let $X$ be a scheme.

1. An open subscheme of $X$ is a scheme $\left(U, \mathcal{O}_{X \mid U}\right)$ with $U$ open subset of $X$.
2. A closed subscheme of $X$ is a scheme $Z \subseteq X$ such that there exists a closed embedding $i: Z \hookrightarrow X$, that is a morphism of schemes s.t.

- $i: Z \rightarrow i(Z)$ is homeomorphism.
- $i^{\sharp}: \mathcal{O}_{X} \rightarrow i_{*} \mathcal{O}_{Z}$ is surjective.

3. Given a closed subscheme $Z$, we can associate to it a sheaf of ideals $\mathcal{J}_{Z / X}:=\mathcal{K} \operatorname{er}\left(i^{\sharp}\right)$ such that $\mathcal{O}_{Z} \cong \mathcal{O}_{X} / \mathcal{J}_{Z / X}$.
4. Note that a closed subscheme of an affine scheme is affine.

In detail if $X=\operatorname{Spec}(A)$ and $Z$ is closed subscheme, we can associate to $Z$ an ideal $I$ of $A$ s.t $Z \cong \operatorname{Spec}(A / I)$.
5. Let $Z, Z^{\prime}$ be closed subschemes of $X$, the intersection scheme $Z \cap Z^{\prime}$ is the closed subscheme associated to the ideal sheaf $\mathcal{J}_{Z / X}+\mathcal{J}_{Z^{\prime} / X}$.

### 1.8 Properties of schemes

We give some useful definitions. Let $X$ be a scheme.

1. $X$ is reduced if $\mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$ is a reduced ring for every open subset $U$.
2. $X$ is irreducible if it is irreducible as topological space.
3. $X$ is integral if $\mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$ is an ID for every open subset $U$.

Note that: integral $\Longleftrightarrow$ reduced and irreducible (see [9, Prop. II.3.1]).
4. Let $k$ be a field. $X$ is a $k$-scheme if it is equipped with a morphism of schemes $X \rightarrow \operatorname{Spec}(k)$, called structure morphism.
A morphism of $k$-schemes is a morphism of schemes compatible with the structure morphisms.
5. A $k$-scheme $X$ is projective if it is a closed $k$-subscheme of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.

Now, let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a morphism of $k$-schemes (for some field $k$ ).
a. $f$ is of finite type if there is an affine open cover $\left\{V_{i}=\operatorname{Spec}\left(B_{i}\right)\right\}$ of $Y$ such that $\forall i, f^{-1}\left(V_{i}\right)$ can be covered by a finite affine open cover $\left\{U_{j}=\operatorname{Spec}\left(A_{j}\right)\right\}$, where $A_{j}$ are finitely generated $B_{i}$-algebras.
$X$ is of finite type if $X \rightarrow \operatorname{Spec}(k)$ is of finite type, i.e. there exists a finite affine open cover $\left\{U_{i}=\operatorname{Spec}\left(A_{i}\right)\right\}$ of $X$, where $A_{i}$ are finitely generated $k$-algebras (equivalently it holds on every affine open subset, see 17 , Proposizione 10.4]).
b. $f$ is affine if there is an open cover $\mathcal{V}$ of $Y$ s.t. $f^{-1}(V)$ is affine $\forall V \in \mathcal{V}$. (E.g. closed embeddings are affine).
c. $f$ is finite if for every affine open subset $V=\operatorname{Spec}(B)$ of $Y$, we have that $f^{-1}(V)=\operatorname{Spec}(A)$ is affine and $A$ is a $B$-algebra, finitely generated as module.
d. $f$ is separated if the diagonal morphism $X \rightarrow X \times_{Y} X$ is a closed embedding. $X$ is separated if $X \rightarrow \operatorname{Spec}(k)$ is separated.
e. $f$ is proper if it is separated and universally closed (i.e. it is closed and for each morphisms $g: Z \rightarrow Y$, we have that $Z \times_{Y} X \rightarrow Z$ is closed).
Note that: finite $\Longleftrightarrow$ proper with finite fibers (see [6, Appendix B2]). $X$ is proper (or complete) if $X \rightarrow \operatorname{Spec}(k)$ is proper.

### 1.9 Varieties

A variety $X$ is an integral (reduced and irreducible) $k$-scheme of finite type over an algebraically closed field $k$.
In this case we can associate $X$ to a prevariety (see [17, Proposizione 10.6]).
Prevarieties (or quasi-projective varieties) are topic of classical algebraic geometry. See [9, Chapter I] for more information, in particular for the meaning of rational and regular functions, and that of dimension.
In detail, there exists a scheme $\left(X^{\prime}, \mathcal{O}_{X^{\prime}}\right)$ where

- $X^{\prime}$ is a prevariety.
- $\mathcal{O}_{X^{\prime}}$ is the sheaf of regular functions, so defined:

$$
\mathcal{O}_{X^{\prime}}(U)=\{f \in k(X) \mid f \text { is regular on } U\} .
$$

such that

1) $X=X^{\prime} \cup\left\{[W] \mid W \subseteq X^{\prime}\right.$ is irreducible sub-prevariety of positive dimension $\}$.
2) The open subsets of $X$ are of the form $U:=U^{\prime} \cup\left\{[W] \in X \mid W \cap U^{\prime} \neq \emptyset\right\}$ where $U^{\prime}$ is an open subset of $X^{\prime}$.
3) $\mathcal{O}_{X}(U)=\mathcal{O}_{X^{\prime}}\left(U^{\prime}\right)$ for each open subset $U$ of $X$.

### 1.10 Cohomology of projective varieties

There are many important results about cohomology of schemes, in particular involving the notions of coherent and quasi-coherent sheaves, which an interested reader can deepen in [9, Chapter III].
We recall just two of these about a projective variety $X$.

1. Global sections [9, Theorem I.3.4].
$H^{0}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(X)\right) \cong k$.
2. Serre duality [9, Remark III.7.12.1].

Let $X$ be nonsingular of dimension $n$ (see definitions in section 2.2).
Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a locally free $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-module (see definition in section 4.1).
Let $\omega_{X}$ be the canonical sheaf (see definition in section 5.4).
There are isomorphisms $H^{i}(X, \mathcal{F}) \cong H^{n-i}\left(X, \mathcal{F}^{\vee} \otimes \omega_{X}\right)^{\vee}$.

### 1.11 The Gluing Lemma

Finally we recall a very useful tool, used in particular to characterize the notion of line bundle (in section 4.1).

Gluing Lemma. [17, Lemma 17.1]
Let $X$ be a topological space.
Let $\left\{U_{i}\right\}$ be an open cover of $X$.
Given a sheaf $\mathcal{F}_{i}$ on $U_{i}$, for each $i$,
and ("transition") isomorphisms $\phi_{i j}: \mathcal{F}_{j \mid U_{i j}} \xlongequal{\cong} \mathcal{F}_{i \mid U_{i j}}$ on $U_{i j}:=U_{i} \cap U_{j}$ s.t.

- $\phi_{i i}=i d_{\mathcal{F}_{i}}$
- $\phi_{i k}=\phi_{i j} \circ \phi_{j k}$ on $U_{i j k}$.

Then there exists a unique sheaf $\mathcal{F}$ (up to isomorphism) s.t.

1) $\mathcal{F}_{\mid U_{i}} \cong \mathcal{F}_{i} \forall i$ (via isomorphisms $\phi_{i}$ )
2) $\phi_{i j}=\phi_{i} \circ \phi_{j}^{-1}$ on each $U_{i j}$.

## Chapter 2

## First notions

After having seen notions about schemes in the previous chapter, we will redefine them in a more congenial way. Then using the new definitions, we will review other notions and results of algebraic geometry about the local case, which will be essential for understanding what we are going to see in this text.

### 2.1 Notations and conventions

Let $k$ be an algebraically closed field.

- A scheme will be a separated $k$-scheme of finite type.
- A variety will be an integral (reduced and irreducible) scheme.
- A subvariety of a scheme will be a closed subscheme which is a variety.
- A point will be a closed point (and we will write just " $p \in X$ ").

In the next section we will define the dimension of a variety and the notion of smoothness. In particular

- A curve will be a one-dimensional projective (i.e. complete) smooth variety.
(Note that for a one-dimensional smooth variety: projective $\Longleftrightarrow$ complete, see [9, Proposition II.6.7])


### 2.2 Local geometry of schemes

First, we give some definitions.

1. The field of rational functions on a variety $X$ is $R(X):=\mathcal{O}_{X, \eta}$, where $\eta$ is the generic point of $X$.
Note that $R(X) \cong R(U)=Q(A)$, where $U=\operatorname{Spec}(A)$ is an affine open subscheme of $X$ (and $Q(A)$ is the quotient field of $A$ ).
The non-zero elements of this field form the multiplicative group $R(X)^{*}$.
2. A regular function is an element $f \in \mathcal{O}_{X}(X)$.

We can see $f$ as a function $f: X \rightarrow \amalg_{p \in X} K(p)$.
The zero-set of $f$ is $V(f):=\{p \in X \mid f(p)=0\}=\left\{p \in X \mid f_{p} \in \mathfrak{m}_{p}\right\}$.
3. A rational function is an element $f \in R(X)$, i.e. $f=\frac{g}{h}$, with $g, h \in \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$ for some affine open subscheme $U$ of $X$.
Moreover, we say that $f$ is regular at $p \in X$ if $f=\frac{g}{h}$, with $g, h \in \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$ for some affine open neighborhood $U$ of $p$ such that $h(p) \neq 0$.
4. Remark. Let $p \in X$ be a point where $f \in R(X)^{*}$ is regular, then $f(p)=0$ (i.e. $p$ is a zero) $\Longleftrightarrow f^{-1}$ is not regular at $p$ (i.e. $p$ is a pole). (See [3, Corollario 3.6.7])
5. The local ring of a scheme $X$ along a subvariety $V$ is $\mathcal{O}_{X, V}:=\mathcal{O}_{X, \mu}$, where $\mu$ is the generic point of $V$.
Note that $\mathcal{O}_{X, V} \cong A_{P}$ (where $U=\operatorname{Spec}(A)$ is an affine open subscheme such that $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$ and $P$ is the ideal associated to $U \cap V)$. In particular $\mathcal{O}_{X, V}$ is a local ring (with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}_{X, V}$ ).
If $X$ is a variety, $\mathcal{O}_{X, V}=\left\{f \in R(X) \mid f \in \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)\right.$ for some affine open subscheme $U$ s.t. $U \cap V \neq \emptyset\}$.
6. If $V$ is a point $x \in X$, the notion of local ring coincides with that of stalk, moreover $\mathcal{O}_{X, x} \cong \mathcal{O}_{U, x}$ for every open subset $U$ of $X$ containing $x$.
In particular we can locally assume $X=\operatorname{Spec}(A)$ affine, and $\mathcal{O}_{X, x}=A_{P_{x}}$.
7. Let $X$ be a scheme, its dimension is $\operatorname{dim}(X):=\max . l e n g h t\left\{\emptyset \neq V_{0} \subsetneq V_{1} \subsetneq \ldots \subsetneq V_{n} \subseteq X \mid V_{i}\right.$ are irreducible closed subsets\}.
If $X$ is variety, $\operatorname{dim}(X)=\operatorname{Trdeg}_{k} R(X)$.
Now some notions of local geometry.
Let $X$ be a variety of dimension $n$. Let $x \in X$ be a point.
a. The Zarisky cotangent space of $X$ at $x$ is $\left(T_{x} X\right)^{*}:=\mathfrak{m}_{x} / \mathfrak{m}_{x}^{2}$ regarded as a $k$-vector space (of dimension at most $n$ ).
In particular if we assume $X$ affine, $\left(T_{x} X\right)^{*} \cong P_{x} / P_{x}^{2}$.
b. The Zarisky tangent space $T_{x} X$ is the dual space of $\left(T_{x} X\right)^{*}$. In particular if $X \subset \mathbb{A}^{n}=$ Spec $k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ and $x=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$. $T_{x} \mathbb{A}^{n}=V\left(d_{x} F \mid F \in P_{x}\right)$ where $d_{x} F:=\sum \partial_{X_{i}} F(x)\left(X_{i}-a_{i}\right)$.
c. Note that $\operatorname{dim}_{k}\left(T_{x} X\right) \geq \operatorname{dim}(X)$ (see [3, Teorema 5.4.3]). $x$ is a non-singular point if $\operatorname{dim}_{k}\left(T_{x} X\right)=\operatorname{dim}(X)$, otherwise it is singular. (If $X=V(F) \subset \mathbb{A}^{n}$ is a hypersurface, $x$ is singular $\Longleftrightarrow \partial_{X_{i}} F(x)=0 \forall i$ ).
d. $X$ is a non-singular (or smooth) variety if every point is non-singular.
e. Let $Z \subseteq X$ be a closed subscheme. $Z$ is locally principal if $\left(\mathcal{J}_{Z / X}\right)_{p}$ is a principal ideal $\forall p \in X$.
f. $X$ is locally factorial if every local ring $\mathcal{O}_{X, p}$ is an UFD.
g. $X$ is normal if every local ring $\mathcal{O}_{X, p}$ is integrally closed.
h. Remark. $X$ is smooth $\Rightarrow X$ is locally factorial (see [12, Th.48, p.142]) $\Rightarrow X$ is normal (by [18, Lemma 10.119.11]).

## Chapter 3

## Divisors

We take a smooth variety $X$ (e.g. a curve).
We could define divisors in a more general case, but we are interested to this case. Divisors are the first important tool that we introduce. Here the main goal is showing that (in our case) the notions of Weil divisors and Cartier divisors coincide (as well as showing their properties).
Note that on curves, the divisors could be simply seen as finite sums of points.

### 3.1 Weil divisors

We report below the definition of Weil divisors (which we call just divisors), followed by a very useful notion: the degree of a divisor on a projective space.

## Definition 3.1.1.

1. A prime divisor on $X$ is a subvariety $V$ of codimension 1 .
2. $\operatorname{Div}(X)$ is the free abelian group generated by the prime divisors on $X$.
3. A Weil divisor (or simply a divisor) on $X$ is an element $D=\sum n_{i} V_{i}$ of $\operatorname{Div}(X)$. (Note that $n_{i} \neq 0$ for at most a finite number of indexes).
4. A divisor $D=\sum n_{i} V_{i}$ is effective if $n_{i} \geq 0 \forall i$. (We will write " $D \geq 0$ ").
5. The support of a divisor $D$ is the closed subscheme $\operatorname{Supp}(D):=\bigcup_{i: n_{i} \neq 0} V_{i}$.

Definition 3.1.2. Let $X=\mathbb{P}^{n}$.

1. Let $D=\sum n_{i} V_{i} \in \operatorname{Div}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$, the degree of $D$ is $\operatorname{deg}(D):=\sum n_{i} \operatorname{deg}\left(V_{i}\right)$ where $\operatorname{deg}\left(V_{i}\right)$ is the degree as hypersurface.
2. $\operatorname{Div}^{d}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right):=\left\{\right.$ divisors on $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ of degree d$\}$.

Note that $\operatorname{Div}^{0}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$ is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Div}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$.

### 3.2 Orders of Zeros and Poles

In the next section we will define a kind of divisors called principal, but first we need another notion: the order of $f \in R(X)^{*}$ along a prime divisor $V$.
Note that $\mathcal{O}_{X, V}=O_{X, \eta}$ where $\eta$ is the generic point of $V$, hence $\mathcal{O}_{X, V}$ is integrally closed (as seen in section 2.2(h)).
Since $\mathcal{O}_{X, V}$ has dimension 1, applying [2, Proposition 9.2], we have that:

- $\mathcal{O}_{X, V}$ is a DVR.
- $\mathfrak{m}_{X, V}$ is a principal ideal.
- Each ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{X, V}$ is of the form $\left(t^{d}\right)$ where $t$ is a generator of $\mathfrak{m}_{X, V}$.

Definition 3.2.1. ord $_{V}$ is the discrete valuation associated to $\mathcal{O}_{X, V}$. Explicitly:

- If $f \in \mathcal{O}_{X, V}$, we have $\operatorname{ord}_{V}(f)=\max \left\{d \in \mathbb{N} \mid f \in\left(t^{d}\right)\right\}$.
- If $f \in R(X)^{*}$, that is $f=\frac{a}{b}$ where $a, b \in \mathcal{O}_{X, V}$, we have $\operatorname{ord}_{V}(f)=\operatorname{ord}_{V}(a)-\operatorname{ord}_{V}(b)$.


## Definition 3.2.2.

1. If $\operatorname{ord}_{V}(f)>0$, we say that $f$ has a zero along $V$.
2. If $\operatorname{ord}_{V}(f)<0$, we say that $f$ has a pole along $V$.

### 3.3 Principal divisors

Principal divisors are essential to studying divisors, in particular to defining the linear equivalence and the Class group (section 3.5).
In section 3.7, we will see that Cartier divisors are exactly the locally principal divisors; we will also see that in our case Cartier divisors and Weil divisors coincide, hence every divisor is locally principal.
Definition 3.3.1. Let $f \in R(X)^{*}$.
The divisor associated to $f$ is $\operatorname{div}(f):=\sum_{\text {prime divisor } V} \operatorname{ord}_{V}(f) V$.
Remark 3.3.2. Note that $\operatorname{div}(f) \in \operatorname{Div}(X)$, that is $\operatorname{ord}_{V}(f) \neq 0$ for at most a finite number of prime divisors $V$.
Proof. Let $U \subseteq X$ be an open affine subset on which $f$ is regular.
Let $V$ be a prime divisor on $X$ such that $\operatorname{ord}_{V}(f) \neq 0$. We consider two cases:

1. If $V \cap U=\emptyset$, then $V \subseteq X \backslash U$ and it is an irreducible component. Since $X \backslash U$ has a finite number of irreducible components, we have a finite number of possible choices for $V$.
2. If $V \cap U \neq \emptyset$, then $f$ is regular on an open subset meeting $V$, hence $f \in \mathcal{O}_{X, V}$, or better $\operatorname{ord}_{V}(f)>0$, that is $f \in \mathfrak{m}_{X, V}=I_{U}(V \cap U) \mathcal{O}_{U, V \cap U}$.
It follows that $f \in I_{U}(V \cap U)$, hence $V \cap U \subseteq V_{U}(f)$ and it is an irreducible component. If we take the closures, we get that $V \subseteq V_{X}(f)$ and it is an irreducible component, hence we have a finite number of possible choices for $V$.

Remark 3.3.3. $\operatorname{Supp}(\operatorname{div}(f))=\{$ zeros of $f\} \cup\{$ poles of $f\}$
(by definition of zeros and poles).
Proposition 3.3.4. Let $f, g \in R(X)^{*}$.

1. $\operatorname{div}\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)=\operatorname{div}(f)-\operatorname{div}(g)$.
2. $f$ is regular (i.e. $\left.f \in \mathcal{O}_{X}(X)\right) \Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{div}(f) \geq 0$.
3. If $f \in k^{*}$, then $\operatorname{div}(f)=0$.
4. If $X$ is projective, then $f \in k^{*} \Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{div}(f)=0$.

Proof.

1. By properties of the valuations ord ${ }_{V}$.
2. $[\Rightarrow]$ Let $V$ be a prime divisor on $X$. Since $f$ is regular, we have $f \in \mathcal{O}_{X, V}$, hence $\operatorname{ord}_{V}(f) \geq 0$. In conclusion $\operatorname{div}(f)$ is effective.
[ $\Leftarrow]$ Let $U$ be the open subset where $f$ is regular.
Now if we assume that $f$ is not regular (on $X$ ), then $X \backslash U \neq \emptyset$.
By [3, Corollario 4.6.3], $X \backslash U$ has pure codimension 1.
Let $V$ be an irreducible component of $X \backslash U$, then $V$ is a prime divisor on $X$. For any $p \in V, f$ is not regular at $p$ (i.e. $f^{-1}(p)=0$ ), then $f^{-1} \in I_{X}(V)$, in particular $f^{-1} \in \mathfrak{m}_{X, V}$, that is $\operatorname{ord}_{V}\left(f^{-1}\right)>0$, hence $\operatorname{ord}_{V}(f)=-\operatorname{ord}_{V}\left(f^{-1}\right)<0$. It follows that $\operatorname{div}(f)$ is not effective.
3. Let $f=c$ be a non-zero constant, then $c \in \mathcal{O}_{X, V}$ is invertible for each prime divisor $V$, hence $\operatorname{ord}_{V}(c)=0$. It follows that $\operatorname{div}(c)=0$.
4. By point $2, \operatorname{div}(f)=0$ implies that $f$ is regular. Since $X$ is projective, $\Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)=k$, that is every regular function is constant, hence $f \in k^{*}$.

## Definition 3.3.5.

1. $D \in \operatorname{Div}(X)$ is principal if there exists $f \in R(X)^{*}$ such that $D=\operatorname{div}(f)$.
2. $\operatorname{Princ}(X):=\{$ principal divisors on $X\}$

Note that $\operatorname{Princ}(X)$ is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Div}(X)$ by Proposition 3.3.4(1).

### 3.4 Principal divisors on $\mathbb{A}^{n}$ and $\mathbb{P}^{n}$

On $\mathbb{A}^{n}$ and $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ there is an easy way to see principal divisors.
Proposition 3.4.1. Let $X=\mathbb{A}^{n}$.

1. Let $f \in R\left(\mathbb{A}^{n}\right)^{*}$, that is $f=\frac{F}{G}$ with $F, G \in k\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$.

Let $F=F_{1}^{d_{1}} \ldots F_{t}^{d_{t}}, G=G_{1}^{r_{1}} \ldots G_{s}^{r_{s}}$ be their factorizations into irreducible polynomials. Then
$\operatorname{div}(f)=\sum d_{i} V\left(F_{i}\right)-\sum r_{i} V\left(G_{i}\right)$.
2. $\operatorname{div}: R\left(\mathbb{A}^{n}\right)^{*} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Div}\left(\mathbb{A}^{n}\right)$ is surjective.

In particular $\operatorname{Div}\left(\mathbb{A}^{n}\right)=\operatorname{Princ}\left(\mathbb{A}^{n}\right)$.
Proof.

1. By Proposition 3.3.4(1).
2. Let $D=\sum_{i=0}^{l} n_{i} V_{i}$ be an effective divisor. We have $V_{i}=V\left(F_{i}\right)$, where $F_{i}$ are irreducible polynomials. Taken $f_{D}:=\prod_{i=0}^{l} F_{i}^{n_{i}}$, then $\operatorname{div}\left(f_{D}\right)=D$.
Let $D \in \operatorname{Div}\left(\mathbb{A}^{n}\right)$, then $D=E-E^{\prime}$, with $E, E^{\prime} \geq 0$, and $\operatorname{div}\left(\frac{f_{E}}{f_{E^{\prime}}}\right)=D$.

Proposition 3.4.2. Let $X=\mathbb{P}^{n}$.

1. Let $f \in R\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)^{*}$, that is $f=\frac{F}{G}$ with $F, G \in k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ homogenous polynomials of the same degree.
Let $F=F_{1}^{d_{1}} \ldots F_{t}^{d_{t}}, G=G_{1}^{r_{1}} \ldots G_{s}^{r_{s}}$ be their factorizations into irreducible polynomials, then $\operatorname{div}(f)=\sum d_{i} V\left(F_{i}\right)-\sum r_{i} V\left(G_{i}\right)$.
2. Note that $\operatorname{div}(f) \in \operatorname{Div}^{0}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$.
3. div: $R\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)^{*} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Div}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$ is not surjective, but it has image $\operatorname{Div}^{0}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$.

In particular $\operatorname{Div}^{0}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)=\operatorname{Princ}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$.
Proof.
Note that $\operatorname{deg}(\operatorname{div}(f))=\operatorname{deg}(\operatorname{div}(F))-\operatorname{deg}(\operatorname{div}(G))=\operatorname{deg}(F)-\operatorname{deg}(G)=0$.
The remaining proof is analogous to the case $X=\mathbb{A}^{n}$.

### 3.5 Linear equivalence and Class Group

Finally we can define the Class Group and see some particular cases.

## Definition 3.5.1.

1. Let $D, D^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Div}(X)$, $D, D^{\prime}$ are linearly equivalent $\left(D \sim D^{\prime}\right)$ if $D-D^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Princ}(X)$.
2. The Class Group of X is $\mathrm{Cl}(X)=\operatorname{Div}(X) / \operatorname{Princ}(X)$.

## Examples 3.5.2.

1. $\mathrm{Cl}\left(\mathbb{A}^{n}\right)=0$ (by Proposition 3.4.1).

Equivalently, every divisor on $\mathbb{A}^{n}$ is principal.
More generally, let $X=\operatorname{Spec}(A)$ (with $X$ still smooth variety), we have $\bar{A}$ is an UFD $\Longleftrightarrow \mathrm{Cl}(X)=0$ (see [9, Proposition II.6.2]).
2. deg: $\mathrm{Cl}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right) \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is a group isomorphism (by Proposition 3.4.2).

In particular $\mathrm{Cl}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and it is generated by a hyperplane $H$. Note that each equivalence class is of the form $d H(d \in Z)$.

### 3.6 Cartier divisors

We have assumed $X$ to be a smooth variety, but the definition of a Cartier divisor applies to any scheme.
We consider the sheaf of total quotient rings $\mathcal{K}$, defined on the open affine subsets $U=\operatorname{Spec}(A)$ in the following way: $\mathcal{K}(U):=Q(A)$.
We denote with $\mathcal{K}^{*}$ the sheaf (of multiplicative groups) of invertible elements in the sheaf of rings $\mathcal{K}^{*}$.
In our case, since $X$ is variety, we have that:

- $A$ is a domain.
- $Q(A)$ is the quotient field of $A$ (equal to $R(X)$ ).
- $\mathcal{K}$ is a constant sheaf, constantly $R(X)$.


## Definition 3.6.1.

A Cartier divisor $D$ on $X$ is a global section of the sheaf $\mathcal{K}^{*} / \mathcal{O}^{*}$.
In other words $D$ is represented by $\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i}\right)\right\}_{i \in I}$, where

- $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ is an open cover of $X$.
- $f_{i} \in \mathcal{K}^{*}\left(U_{i}\right)$ such that $\frac{f_{i}}{f_{j}} \in \mathcal{O}^{*}\left(U_{i} \cap U_{j}\right) \forall i, j$.

As abuse of notation, we will write $D=\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i}\right)\right\}$.
Moreover let $D^{\prime}=\left\{\left(V_{j}, g_{j}\right)\right\}$ be a Cartier divisor, we have
$D=D^{\prime} \Longleftrightarrow \frac{f_{i}}{g_{j}}, \frac{g_{i}}{f_{j}} \in \mathcal{O}^{*}\left(U_{i} \cap V_{j}\right) \forall i, j$.
Remark 3.6.2. The following conditions are equivalent:

1. $\frac{f_{i}}{f_{j}} \in \mathcal{O}^{*}\left(U_{i} \cap U_{j}\right) \forall i, j$.
2. $\frac{f_{i}}{f_{j}}$ is a unit on $U_{i} \cap U_{j}$ (i.e. regular and nowhere vanishing function) $\forall i, j$.
3. $\operatorname{div}\left(f_{i}\right)=\operatorname{div}\left(f_{j}\right)$ on $U_{i} \cap U_{j} \forall i, j$.

Proof.

- $[1 \Longleftrightarrow 2] \frac{f_{i}}{f_{j}} \in \mathcal{O}^{*}\left(U_{i} \cap U_{j}\right)$ (i.e. regular in $\left.U_{i} \cap U_{j}\right) \forall i, j$
$\Longleftrightarrow \frac{f_{i}}{f_{j}}, \frac{f_{j}}{f_{i}}$ are regular in $U_{i} \cap U_{j} \forall i, j$
$\Longleftrightarrow \frac{f_{i}}{f_{j}}, \frac{f_{j}}{f_{i}}$ are nowhere vanishing in $U_{i} \cap U_{j} \forall i, j$ (by section 2.2 (4))
$\Longleftrightarrow \frac{f_{i}}{f_{j}}$ is unit in $U_{i} \cap U_{j} \forall i, j$.
- $[3 \Longleftrightarrow 1] \operatorname{div}\left(f_{i}\right)=\operatorname{div}\left(f_{j}\right)$ on $U_{i} \cap U_{j} \forall i, j$
$\Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{div}\left(\frac{f_{i}}{f_{j}}\right)=0$ on $U_{i} \cap U_{j} \forall i, j$
$\Longleftrightarrow \frac{f_{i}}{f_{j}}$ is regular on $U_{i} \cap U_{j} \forall i, j$ (by Propositon 3.3.4(2)).

Definition 3.6.3. Let $D=\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i}\right)\right\}$ be a Cartier divisor on $X$.
The support of $D$ is $\operatorname{Supp}(D):=\bigcup_{i}$ zeros and poles of $f_{i}$ in $\left.U_{i}\right\}$

## Definition 3.6.4.

1. $\operatorname{CaDiv}(X)$ is the group of Cartier divisor on $X$, with the following operation: $\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i}\right)\right\}+\left\{\left(V_{j}, g_{j}\right)\right\}=\left\{\left(U_{i} \cap V_{j}, f_{i} g_{j}\right)\right\}$.
Note that $(X, 1)$ is the zero and $\left\{\left(U_{i}, \frac{1}{f_{i}}\right)\right\}$ is the inverse of $\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i}\right)\right\}$.
2. A Cartier divisor $D$ is principal if $D \in \operatorname{Im}\left\{\mathcal{K}^{*}(X) \longrightarrow \mathcal{K}^{*} / \mathcal{O}^{*}(X)\right\}$, in other words, if $D=(X, f)$ with $f \in R(X)^{*}$. We will write $D=(f)$.
3. $\operatorname{CaPrinc}(X)$ is the subgroup of $\operatorname{CaDiv}(X)$ of principal divisors on $X$.
4. Two Cartier divisors $D, D^{\prime}$ are linearly equivalent if $D-D^{\prime} \in \operatorname{CaPrinc}(X)$.
5. $\operatorname{CaCl}(X):=\operatorname{CaDiv}(X) / \operatorname{CaPrinc}(X)$.

## 3.7 $\operatorname{CaDiv}(\mathrm{X})=\operatorname{Div}(\mathrm{X})$

Now we see that, in our case, Cartier divisors and Weil divisors are the same (from smoothness, or better from locally factoriality), but this is not true for any scheme.

## Definition 3.7.1.

1. Let $D=\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i}\right)\right\} \in \operatorname{CaDiv}(X)$, we can define the Weil divisor associated to it as $D:=\sum_{\text {prime-divisor } V} \operatorname{ord}_{V}\left(f_{i}\right) V$, where $i$ is such that $U_{i} \cap V \neq \emptyset$.
2. Let $D=\sum n_{V} V \in \operatorname{Div}(X)$, we can define the Cartier divisor associated to it in the following way: let $p \in X$, then there is an its open neighborhood $U_{p}=\operatorname{Spec}(A)$ such that $A$ is an UFD (because $X$ is locally factorial).
Now by Example 3.5.2 $(1), \mathrm{Cl}\left(U_{p}\right)=0$, that is every divisor is principal, in particular $D_{\mid U_{p}}=\operatorname{div}_{U_{p}}\left(f_{p}\right)$ for some rational function $f_{p} \in R\left(U_{p}\right)^{*}$.
The Cartier divisor associated is $D:=\left\{\left(U_{p}, f_{p}\right)\right\}_{p \in X}$.
(Note that $n_{V}=\operatorname{ord}_{V}\left(f_{p}\right)$ for every prime divisor $V$ such that $V \cap U_{p} \neq \emptyset$, in fact this construction is inverse to the previous one).

Remark 3.7.2. The previous definitions are well-defined, in particular:

1. It does not depend on the choice of $f_{i}$.
2. It does not depend on the choice of $f_{p}$. Proof.
3. Let $V$ be a prime divisor. Let $f_{i} \in R\left(U_{i}\right)^{*}, f_{j} \in R\left(U_{j}\right)^{*}$ be such that $U_{i} \cap V \neq \emptyset$ and $U_{j} \cap V \neq \emptyset$. By definition of Cartier divisor, $\frac{f_{i}}{f_{j}}$ is a unit on $U_{i} \cap U_{j}$, hence $0=\operatorname{ord}_{V}\left(\frac{f_{i}}{f_{j}}\right)=\operatorname{ord}_{V}\left(f_{i}\right)-\operatorname{ord}_{V}\left(f_{j}\right)$. In conclusion $\operatorname{ord}_{V}\left(f_{i}\right)=\operatorname{ord}_{V}\left(f_{j}\right)$.
Moreover note that since $X$ is of finite type (hence there is a finite affine cover), the definition gives a finite sum (hence a Weil divisor).
4. Given $f_{p}, g_{p} \in R\left(U_{p}\right)^{*}$ for any $p \in X$.

Let $p, q \in X$, we have $\operatorname{div}_{U_{p} \cap U_{q}}\left(f_{p}\right)=D_{\mid U_{p} \cap U_{q}}=\operatorname{div}_{U_{p} \cap U_{q}}\left(g_{q}\right)$.
By Remark 3.6.2, we have $\left\{\left(U_{p}, f_{p}\right)\right\}=\left\{\left(U_{p}, g_{p}\right)\right\}$.
Moreover, for the same reason, $\left\{\left(U_{p}, f_{p}\right)\right\}$ is well-defined as a Cartier divisor.

These two constructions are inverse to each other, in particular they give an isomorphism $\operatorname{CaDiv}(X) \cong \operatorname{Div}(X)$ (see [9, Proposition II.6.11]).
It is clear that this isomorphism carries principal divisors to principal divisors, hence we get an isomorphism $\mathrm{CaCl}(X) \cong \mathrm{Cl}(X)$.
From now, we talk just of divisors.
From these constructions, we can see that every divisor is locally principal.
Moreover by this (and by Remark 3.3.3), the two definitions of support agree.

### 3.8 Effective Divisors

In the next chapter we will introduce the notion of linear system, and effective divisors play a key role for it. In this last section of this chapter we will go onto them before moving on the next chapter.
Definition 3.8.1. A Cartier divisor $D$ is effective (we will write " $D \geq 0$ ") if $D=\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i}\right)\right\}$ with $f_{i} \in \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(U_{i}\right) \forall i$.
Remark 3.8.2. Note that the definition of effective for a Cartier divisor agrees with the definition for a Weil divisor (see Definition 3.1.1(4)).
Again, we will talk just of effective divisors.
Proof. Let $D$ be an effective Cartier divisor. Given a prime divisor $V$, we take an index $i: U_{i} \cap V \neq \emptyset$, then $f_{i} \in \mathcal{O}_{X, V}$, hence $\operatorname{ord}_{V}\left(f_{i}\right) \geq 0$.
Conversely, let $D$ be an effective Weil divisor. Let $f \in R(U)^{*}$ and let $U$ be an open subset such that $D_{\mid U}=\operatorname{div}_{U}(f)$. Now we have that $\operatorname{div}_{U}(f) \geq 0$, hence by Proposition 3.3.4 2$), f \in \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$.
Remark 3.8.3. Let $D$ be an effective divisor. We can define the closed subscheme defined by the ideal sheaf $\mathcal{O}_{X}(-D)$ (see Definiton 4.2.1).
We can identify an effective divisor $D$ with this subscheme, and write $D \subseteq X$.

## Chapter 4

## Line bundles and linear systems

Now we introduce other two essential tools: line bundles and linear systems. Main goals of this chapter are: proving that in our case line bundles and divisors coincide (up to isomorphism or to linear equivalence), showing the relation between linear systems and global sections of line bundles, and finally their relation with projective morphisms (in particular with closed embeddings).

Let $X$ be a scheme.
Note that (as specified in the following sections) we will assume $X$ to be smooth when we will work with divisors, and also projective when we will work with linear systems. In particular everything in this chapter holds for curves.

### 4.1 Line Bundles

Line bundles are particular sheaves. We introduce this notion because when $X$ is smooth, it gives a new way to see divisors (as we will see in the next section).

Definition 4.1.1. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be an $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-module.
$\mathcal{L}$ is locally free of rank $r$ if there is an open cover $\mathcal{U}$ of $X$ such that $\mathcal{L}_{\mid U} \cong \mathcal{O}_{U}^{\oplus r}$ for each $U \in \mathcal{U}$.
$\mathcal{L}$ is a line bundle (or an invertible sheaf) if it is locally free of rank 1 . In particular there exist isomorphisms $f_{i}: \mathcal{L}_{\mid U_{i}} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{U_{i}}$ for an open cover $\left\{U_{i}\right\}$ of $X$.
In other words $\mathcal{L}$ is represented by $\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i j}\right)\right\}$ where

- $\left\{U_{i}\right\}$ is an open cover of $X$,
- $f_{i j}: \mathcal{O}_{U_{i j}} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{U_{i j}}$ are transition isomorphisms (as in the Gluing Lemma, see section 1.11), and we can identify $f_{i j}$ with a section $f_{i j}(1)$ of $\mathcal{O}_{U_{i j}}^{*}$.
Example 4.1.2. Let $X=\mathbb{P}^{n}$, then $\mathcal{O}(l)$ is a line bundle $\forall l \in \mathbb{Z}$.
In particular its transition maps are $f_{i j}=\frac{X_{j}^{l}}{X_{i}^{l}}$ (seen as sections).
(See definition of $\mathcal{O}(l)$ in section 1.6(5)).
Proof. Let $X=\mathbb{P}^{n}=\operatorname{Proj}(P)$, where $P=k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$.
Let $\mathcal{U}=\left\{U_{0}, \ldots, U_{n}\right\}$ be its standard open cover.
We consider the multiplications by $X_{i}^{-l}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{i}: \Gamma\left(U_{i}, \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{n}}(l)\right)=\left(P_{X_{i}}\right)_{l} & \rightarrow \Gamma\left(U_{i}, \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{n}}\right)=\left(P_{X_{i}}\right)_{0} \\
\frac{r}{X_{i}^{h}} & \mapsto \frac{r}{X_{i}^{h+l}}
\end{aligned}
$$

These are isomorphisms, hence $\mathcal{O}(l)$ is invertible.
In particular its transition maps $f_{i j}=f_{i} \circ f_{j}^{-1}$ are the isomorphisms given by the multiplications by $X_{i}^{-l} X_{j}^{l}=\frac{X_{j}^{l}}{X_{i}^{l}}$.

Definition 4.1.3. The Picard Group of $X, \operatorname{Pic}(X)$, is the group of the line bundles on $X$, up to isomorphism, with the operation $\otimes$ (tensor product between $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-modules).

Note that $\operatorname{Pic}(X)$ is a group by the following remark:
Remark 4.1.4. Let $\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Pic}(X)$, with transition maps $f_{i j}, g_{i j}$ respectively on an open cover $\left\{U_{i}\right\}$ of $X$.

1. $\mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ is the line bundle with transition maps $f_{i j} g_{i j}$.
2. The neutral element is $\mathcal{O}_{X}$.
3. $\mathcal{L}^{\vee}:=\mathcal{H}$ om $_{O_{X}}\left(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)$ is the inverse of $\mathcal{L}$.

In particular it is the line bundle with transition maps $f_{i j}^{-1}$.
Proof.

1. Note that $\left(\mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{\prime}\right)_{\mid U_{i}}=\mathcal{L}_{\mid U_{i}} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{\prime}{ }_{\mid U_{i}} \cong \mathcal{O}_{U_{i}} \otimes \mathcal{O}_{U_{i}} \cong \mathcal{O}_{U_{i}}$.

The transition maps are

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{O}_{U_{i j}} & \cong \mathcal{O}_{U_{i j}} \otimes \mathcal{O}_{U_{i j}} & \xrightarrow{f_{i j} \otimes g_{i j}} \mathcal{O}_{U_{i j}} \otimes \mathcal{O}_{U_{i j}} \cong \mathcal{O}_{U_{i j}} . \\
& \mapsto 1 \otimes 1 & \mapsto f_{i j} \otimes g_{i j} \mapsto f_{i j} g_{i j}
\end{aligned}
$$

2. $\mathcal{O}_{X}$ is the line bundle with transition map 1 on whole $X$. By 1, it is neutral element.
3. $\mathcal{L}^{\vee}$ is a line bundle, indeed $\mathcal{L}^{\vee}{ }_{\mid U_{i}}=\mathcal{H o m}$ O$_{U_{U_{i}}}\left(\mathcal{O}_{U_{i}}, \mathcal{O}_{U_{i}}\right) \cong \mathcal{O}_{U_{i}}$.

By [9, Ex.II.5.1(b)], $\mathcal{L}^{\vee} \otimes \mathcal{L} \cong \mathcal{H} o m_{O_{X}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}) \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}$, hence $\mathcal{L}^{\vee}$ is the inverse of $\mathcal{L}$. In particular, by 1 , its transition maps are $f_{i j}^{-1}$.

## 4.2 $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathrm{X})=\mathrm{CaCl}(\mathrm{X})$

Assume in the remainder of this chapter, that $X$ is a smooth variety (so divisors are well defined). We will show that line bundles and divisors coincide (up to isomorphism or to linear equivalence).

Definition 4.2.1. Let $D=\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i}\right)\right\} \in \operatorname{CaDiv}(X)$.
The line bundle associated to $D$ is the line bundle $\mathcal{O}_{X}(D) \subseteq \mathcal{K}$ generated by $f_{i}^{-1}$ on $U_{i}$, that is $\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)_{\mid U_{i}}=\mathcal{O}_{U_{i}} f_{i}^{-1}$ (see definition of $\mathcal{K}$ in section 3.6),
i.e. it is the line bundle with transition maps $\left.f_{i j}=\frac{f_{i}}{f_{j}} \in \mathcal{O}_{X}^{*}\left(U_{i j}\right)\right)$.

By this construction, we have a one-to-one correspondence:
$\operatorname{CaDiv}(X) \leftrightarrow\{$ invertible subsheaves of $\mathcal{K}\}$.
Lemma 4.2.2. Let $D, D^{\prime} \in \operatorname{CaDiv}(X)$.

1. $\mathcal{O}_{X}\left(D-D^{\prime}\right) \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}(D) \otimes \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(D^{\prime}\right)^{-1}$.
2. $\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)^{-1} \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}(-D)$.
3. $D \sim 0 \Longleftrightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X}(D) \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}$,
in particular $D \sim D^{\prime} \Longleftrightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X}(D) \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(D^{\prime}\right)$.
Proof.
4. Let $D=\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i}\right)\right\}, D^{\prime}=\left\{\left(U_{i}, g_{i}\right)\right\}$, then $\mathcal{O}_{X}\left(D-D^{\prime}\right)=\mathcal{O}_{X}\left(\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i} g_{i}^{-1}\right)\right\}\right)$ is the line bundle generated by $f_{i}^{-1} g_{i}$ on $U_{i}$, that is $\mathcal{O}_{X}(D) \otimes \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(D^{\prime}\right)^{-1}$.
5. By definition.
6. $\left[\Rightarrow\right.$ ] Assume $D \sim 0$, that is $D=(X, f)$ with $f \in R(X)^{*}$.

We have that $\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)$ is generated by $f^{-1}$ on $X$, that is there exists an isomorphism $\mathcal{O}_{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X}(D), 1 \mapsto f^{-1}$; hence $\mathcal{O}_{X}(D) \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}$. $[\Leftarrow]$ Let $D=\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i}\right)\right\}$. We have isomorphisms $\mathcal{O}_{U_{i}} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)_{\mid U_{i}}, 1 \mapsto f_{i}^{-1}$. Taken an isomorphism $\mathcal{O}_{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X}(D), 1 \mapsto g$, then we have $g_{\mid U_{i}}=a f_{i}^{-1}$, where $a \in \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(U_{i}\right)^{*}$; hence $g f_{i} \in \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(U_{i}\right)^{*}$, that is $D=\left(X, g^{-1}\right)$.

By this Proposition, we have that $\mathrm{CaCl}(X) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}(X), D \mapsto \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)$ is an injective homomorphism of groups, and it should be also surjective (since the one-to-one correspondence above) if every line bundle on $X$ is isomorphic to a subsheaf of $\mathcal{K}$. Now we will show that in our case this happens (because $X$ is integral, in particular $\mathcal{K}$ is a constant sheaf), hence the map is a group isomorphism.

Theorem 4.2.3. $\operatorname{Pic}(X) \cong \operatorname{CaCl}(X)$
Proof.
As we said above we should show that, given $\mathcal{L} \in \operatorname{Pic}(X)$, there exists a line bundle $\mathcal{L}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{K}$ such that $\mathcal{L} \cong \mathcal{L}^{\prime}$.
In our case, by the smoothness, $\mathcal{K}$ is constantly $R(X)$.
Let $\mathcal{U}$ be an open cover of $X$, where $\mathcal{L}_{\mid U} \cong \mathcal{O}_{U} \forall U \in \mathcal{U}$, then $\mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{K}_{\mid U} \cong \mathcal{K}_{\mid U}$ constantly $R(X) \forall U \in \mathcal{U}$, hence $\mathcal{L} \otimes \mathscr{K}$ is isomorphic to the constant sheaf constantly $R(X)$, that is $\mathcal{K}$.
Let $i: \mathcal{O}_{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{K}$ be the injective morphism given by the structure of $\mathcal{O}_{X}$-module. Tensoring with $\mathcal{L}$, we get $i: \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{K} \cong \mathcal{K}$, then $\mathcal{L} \cong i(\mathcal{L}) \subseteq \mathcal{K}$.

Example 4.2.4. Let $X=\mathbb{P}^{n}$.
$\operatorname{Pic}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and it is generated by $\mathcal{O}(1)$.
In particular every line bundle is isomorphic to $\mathcal{O}(l), \exists l \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. $\mathbb{P}^{n}=\operatorname{Proj} k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ and $\operatorname{Pic}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right) \cong \mathrm{Cl}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.
Let $H=\left\{X_{0}=0\right\}$ be the hyperplane class of $\mathrm{Cl}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$, that is a generator.
Let $\left\{U_{0}, . ., U_{n}\right\}$ be the standard open affine cover of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, then $H_{\mid U_{i}}=\operatorname{div}_{U_{i}}\left(\frac{X_{0}}{X_{i}}\right)$, hence the Cartier divisor associated to $H$ is $H=\left\{\left(U_{i}, \frac{X_{0}}{X_{i}}\right)\right\}$, and the line bundle associated has transition maps $f_{i j}=\frac{X_{j}}{X_{i}}$.
Now by Example 4.1.2, $\mathcal{O}_{X}(H)=\mathcal{O}(1)$.

### 4.3 Pullback of line bundles

Let $\phi: X \rightarrow Y$ be a morphism of schemes.
Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a line bundle on $Y$ with transition maps $f_{i j}$ on an open cover $\left\{U_{i}\right\}$.
First, we define the pullback of a line bundle, then the pullback of a section and finally we will see how this notion becomes on divisors.

Definition 4.3.1. The pullback of $\mathcal{L}$ is the line bundle $\phi^{*} \mathcal{L}$ with transition maps $\phi^{\sharp} f_{i j}$ on the open cover $\left\{\phi^{-1}\left(U_{i}\right)\right\}$ of $X$.
It defines a group homomorphism $\phi^{*}: \operatorname{Pic}(Y) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}(X)$.
Remark 4.3.2. The pullback is well-defined.
Proof. Note that $\phi^{\sharp}\left(f_{i j}\right) \in \Gamma\left(U_{i j}, \phi_{*} \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)=\Gamma\left(\phi^{-1}\left(U_{i j}\right), \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)$.
Moreover since $f_{i j} \in \mathcal{O}_{U_{i j}}^{*}$ (i.e. $f_{i j}$ is a unit, that is nowhere vanishing), we have $\left(f_{i j}\right)_{\phi(x)} \notin \mathfrak{m}_{\phi(x)}=\left(\phi_{x}^{\sharp}\right)^{-1}\left(\mathfrak{m}_{x}\right) \forall x \in \phi^{-1}\left(U_{i j}\right)$, that is $\phi_{x}^{\sharp}\left(\left(f_{i j}\right)_{\phi(x)}\right)=\phi^{\sharp}\left(f_{i j}\right)_{x} \notin \mathfrak{m}_{x}$ $\forall x \in \phi^{-1}\left(U_{i j}\right)$; hence $\phi^{\sharp} f_{i j} \in \mathcal{O}_{\phi^{-1}\left(U_{i j}\right)}^{*}$.
Definition 4.3.3. Let $s \in \Gamma(Y, \mathcal{L})$ be a global section,
we can write $s=\left\{s_{i}\right\}$, where $s_{i} \in \Gamma\left(U_{i}, \mathcal{O}_{U_{i}}\right)$.
The pullback of $s$ is the global section $\phi^{*} s=\left\{\phi^{\sharp} s_{i}\right\}$ of $\phi^{*} \mathcal{L}$.
Remark 4.3.4. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be the line bundle generated by $f_{i} \in \mathcal{L}\left(U_{i}\right)$ on $U_{i}$, then $\phi^{*}\left(f_{i}^{-1}\right)=\left(\phi^{*} f_{i}\right)^{-1}$ and $\phi^{*}\left(\mathcal{L}^{-1}\right)=\left(\phi^{*} \mathcal{L}\right)^{-1}$ (by definition).
Hence on the divisors the definition of pullback becomes $\phi^{*}\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i}\right)\right\}:=\left\{\left(\phi^{-1}\left(U_{i}\right), \phi^{*} f_{i}\right)\right\}$.
Note that the pullback sends effective divisors to effective divisors, indeed if $f_{i} \in \mathcal{O}_{Y}\left(U_{i}\right)$ then $\phi^{*} f_{i} \in \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(f^{-1}\left(U_{i}\right)\right)$.

### 4.4 Line bundles generated by global sections

After having introduced line bundles and a useful tool that is the pullback, we want to define linear systems. A notion related to them is that of line bundle generated by global sections. This is particularly relevant for the correspondence with projective morphisms (at the end of this chapter).

Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a line bundle on $X$.
Remark 4.4.1. Let $s \in \Gamma(U, \mathcal{L})$ be a section.

1. Note that we can see $s$ as a function
$s: U \rightarrow \coprod_{p \in U} K(p)$, where $s(p):=\overline{s_{p}} \in \mathcal{L}_{p} / \mathfrak{m}_{p} \mathcal{L}_{p} \cong \mathcal{O}_{X, p} / \mathfrak{m}_{p}=K(p)$.
In particular for any $p \in U, s(p)=0 \Longleftrightarrow s_{p} \in \mathfrak{m}_{p} \mathcal{L}_{p}$.
2. Let $p \in U$. Since $\mathcal{L}_{p} \cong \mathcal{O}_{X, p}$ (where $l_{p} \leftrightarrow 1$ ), there is $f_{s} \in \mathcal{O}_{X, p}: s_{p}=f_{s} l_{p}$. (In particular $s(p)=0 \Longleftrightarrow f_{s} \in \mathfrak{m}_{p}$ ).
3. Let $\phi: X \rightarrow Y$ be a morphism of schemes, then for any $p \in X$ we have $s(\phi(p))=0 \Longleftrightarrow \phi^{*} s(p)=0$ (as in the proof of Remark 4.3.2).

## Definition 4.4.2.

1. $\mathcal{L}$ is generated by global sections at $p \in X$ if there is $s \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L}): s(p) \neq 0$.
2. $\mathcal{L}$ is generated by global sections if it is such at every point $p \in X$.

In other words there are global sections $\left\{s_{i}\right\}$ s.t. $\forall p \in X, \exists i: s_{i}(p) \neq 0$, i.e. $\forall p \in X,\left\{\left(s_{i}\right)_{p}\right\}$ generate $\mathcal{L}_{p}$ as $\mathcal{O}_{X, p}$-module.

Example 4.4.3. $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{r}}(1)$ is generated by global sections.
Proof. Let $\mathbb{P}^{r}=\operatorname{Proj}(P)$ with $P=k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{r}\right]$. Let $x \in \mathbb{P}^{r}$ be a point corresponding to the homogeneus prime ideal $P_{x} \subseteq k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{r}\right]$.
Since $P_{x} \neq P_{+}=\left(X_{0}, . ., X_{r}\right)$, we have that $\exists i: X_{i} \notin P_{x}$. Now note that:

- $X_{i} \in P_{1}=\Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{r}, \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{r}}(1)\right)$.
- $\left(X_{i}\right)_{x}=\frac{X_{i}}{1} \in\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{r}}(1)\right)_{x}=P(1)_{\left(P_{x}\right)}=\left\{\left.\frac{m}{a} \right\rvert\, m \in P(1), a \in P \backslash P_{x}\right.$ homogeneus polynomials of the same degree $\}$.
- $\left(X_{i}\right)_{x}=\frac{X_{i}}{1} \notin \mathfrak{m}_{x}=\left\{\left.\frac{m}{a} \right\rvert\, m \in P_{x}, a \in P \backslash P_{x}\right.$ homogeneus polynomials of the same degree $\}$, that is $X_{i}(x) \neq 0$.

In conclusion $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{r}}(1)$ is generated by the global sections $X_{0}, \ldots, X_{r}$.

## 4.5 (Effective) divisors of zeros

Before defining linear systems, we see as global sections of a line bundle are related with effective divisors. In this way we can describe a linear system through them.

Definition 4.5.1. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a line bundle of $X$.
There are an open cover $\mathcal{U}$ of $X$ and isomorphisms $\phi_{U}: \mathcal{L}_{\mid U} \xlongequal{\cong} \mathcal{O}_{U}(U \in \mathcal{U})$, which define $\mathcal{L}$.
Let $s \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$ be a non-zero global section.
The divisor of zeros of $s$ is the effective divisor $(s)_{0}:=\left\{\left(U, \phi_{U}(s)\right)\right\}$.
Proposition 4.5.2. Let $D \in \operatorname{Div}(X)$ and let $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)$.

1. For any $s \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$ we have that $D \sim(s)_{0}$.
2. Let $E$ be an effective divisor on $X$ such that $D \sim E$, then there exists $s \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L}): E=(s)_{0}$ (or better $E=D+\operatorname{div}(s)$ ).
3. Let $X$ be projective. Let $s, s^{\prime} \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$.
$(s)_{0}=\left(s^{\prime}\right)_{0} \Longleftrightarrow s^{\prime}=\lambda s \exists \lambda \in k^{*}$.
Proof. Let $D=\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i}\right)\right\}$.
4. $\mathcal{L}$ is generated by $f_{i}^{-1}$ on $U_{i}$, hence $s=f_{s} f_{i}^{-1}$ with $f_{s} \in \mathcal{O}_{U_{i}}\left(U_{i}\right)$, or better $f_{s}=\phi_{U_{i}}(s)$ (note that $f_{s}=s f_{i}$ ).
We have $(s)_{0}=\left\{\left(U_{i}, s f_{i}\right)\right\}=\operatorname{div}(s)+D$. (Note that $s \in \mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{K}$, hence it is a rational function and $\operatorname{div}(s)$ is well-defined). In conclusion $(s)_{0} \sim D$.
5. Let $s \in R(X)^{*}$ be such that $D-E=\operatorname{div}(s)$, then $E=\left\{\left(U_{i}, f_{i} s\right)\right\}$. Since $E$ is effective, we have $f_{i} s \in \mathcal{O}_{U_{i}}\left(U_{i}\right)$, in particular $s=f_{s} f_{i}^{-1}$ with $f_{s} \in \mathcal{O}_{U_{i}}\left(U_{i}\right)$, hence $s \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$ and $(s)_{0}=\left\{\left(U_{i}, s f_{i}\right)\right\}=E$.
6. By definition of Cartier divisors, $(s)_{0}=\left(s^{\prime}\right)_{0} \Longleftrightarrow \frac{\phi_{U_{i}}(s)}{\phi_{U_{i}}\left(s^{\prime}\right)} \in \mathcal{O}_{U_{i}}^{*}\left(U_{i}\right) \forall i$. Since $X$ is projective, $\mathcal{O}_{U_{i}}^{*}\left(U_{i}\right) \cong k^{*}$, hence $\phi_{U_{i}}(s)=\lambda_{i} \phi_{U_{i}}\left(s^{\prime}\right)=\phi_{U_{i}}\left(\lambda_{i} s^{\prime}\right)$ for some scalar $\lambda_{i} \in k^{*}$. Now since $\phi_{U_{i}}$ is an isomorphism, $s=\lambda_{i} s^{\prime}$ on $U_{i}$. Note that $\lambda_{i}=\lambda_{j}=: \lambda \forall i, j$ (because $\lambda_{i} s_{\mid U_{i j}}^{\prime}=s_{\mid U_{i j}}=\lambda_{j} s_{\mid U_{i j}}^{\prime}$ ). In conclusion we have $s=\lambda s^{\prime}$ on each $U_{i}$, hence $s=\lambda s^{\prime}$.

Remark 4.5.3. Let $D \in \operatorname{Div}(X)$ and let $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)$.

1. $\Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})=\left\{s \in R(X)^{*} \mid D+\operatorname{div}(s) \geq 0\right\} \cup\{0\}$.
2. $\Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$ is a $k$-vector space.

## Proof.

1. [ $\subseteq$ ] Let $s \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$ be a non-zero section, then $D+\operatorname{div}(s)=(s)_{0} \geq 0$ by Proposition 4.5.2(2).
[〕] Let $s \in R(X)^{*}$. If $D+\operatorname{div}(s) \geq 0$ then there is $s^{\prime} \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$ such that $D+\operatorname{div}(s)=\left(s^{\prime}\right)_{0}$ by Proposition 4.5.2 2 (2), and $\operatorname{div}(s)=\left(s^{\prime}\right)_{0}-D=\operatorname{div}\left(s^{\prime}\right)$, hence $\frac{s}{s^{\prime}}=f \in \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)$. In conclusion $s=f s^{\prime} \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$.
2. Since $X$ is of finite type, we have that $R(X)$ is $k$-vector space.

We want to show that $\Gamma(X, \mathcal{L}) \subseteq R(X)$ is sub-vector space.
Let $D=\sum n_{V} V$. Let $f, g \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$ and $c \in k^{*}$.

- By Prop.3.3.4(1), $D+\operatorname{div}(c f)=D+\operatorname{div}(c)+\operatorname{div}(f)=D+\operatorname{div}(f) \geq 0$, hence $c f \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$.
- Assume $f+g \neq 0$.

Note that $\operatorname{div}(f)=\sum \operatorname{ord}_{V}(f) V$ and $\operatorname{ord}_{V}(f)$ is a valuation. We have $n_{V}+\operatorname{ord}_{V}(f+g) \geq n_{V}+\min \left\{\operatorname{ord}_{V}(f), \operatorname{ord}_{V}(g)\right\} \geq 0$ for each prime divisor $V$; hence $D+\operatorname{div}(f+g) \geq 0$, that is $f+g \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L}))$.

### 4.6 Linear systems

Assume now (and in the following sections) that $X$ is also projective. We can finally define linear systems.

Definition 4.6.1. A complete linear system on $X$ is $|D|:=\{E \in \operatorname{Div}(X)$ effective $\mid E \sim D\}$, where $D \in \operatorname{Div}(X)$.

## Remark 4.6.2.

By Proposition 4.5.2, taken $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)$, we have a one-to-one correspondence $|D| \leftrightarrow(\Gamma(X, \mathcal{L}) \backslash\{0\}) / k^{*}$.
By [9, Theorem II.5.19], $\Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$ is a vector space over $k$ of finite dimension. We define $l(D):=\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$ and $\operatorname{dim}|D|:=l(D)-1$.

## Definition 4.6.3.

A linear system on $X$ is $\Lambda \subseteq|D|$, where $D \in \operatorname{Div}(X)$, corresponding to a $k$-vector subspace $V \subseteq \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$, where $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)$; that is $\Lambda=\left\{(s)_{0} \mid s \in V \backslash\{0\}\right\}$.
We will also denote $\Lambda=(V, \mathcal{L})$.
Moreover $\operatorname{dim}(\Lambda):=\operatorname{dim}(V)-1$.
Definition 4.6.4. Let $\Lambda$ be a linear system on $X$.
A basepoint of $\Lambda$ is a point $p \in X$ such that $p \in \operatorname{Supp}(E), \forall E \in \Lambda$.

### 4.7 Linear systems and projective morphisms

We introduce one of the theorems that we will use most, which relates linear systems and projective morphisms. First we will see the version for line bundles and then we will rephrase it for linear systems.

Lemma 4.7.1. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a line bundle on $X$ and let $s$ be a global section of $\mathcal{L}$.

1. $\operatorname{Supp}(s)_{0}=V(s):=\{$ zeros of $s\}$.

Equivalently, for any $p \in X, p \in \operatorname{Supp}\left((s)_{0}\right) \Longleftrightarrow s(p)=0$.
2. Let $\Lambda=(V, \mathcal{L})$ be a linear system on $X$.
$\Lambda$ is basepoint-free $\Longleftrightarrow \mathcal{L}$ is generated by the global sections in $V$.
3. $X_{s}:=V(s)^{c}=\{x \in X \mid s(x) \neq 0\}$ is open in $X$.

## Proof.

1. Let $(s)_{0}=\left\{\left(U, \phi_{U}(s)\right)\right\}$. Since it is effective, we have that $\phi_{U}(s) \in \mathcal{O}_{U}(U)$ is regular in $U$, i.e. it has no poles.
Moreover since $\phi_{U}$ is an isomorphism, we have
$p$ is a zero of $s \Longleftrightarrow p$ is a zero of $\phi_{U}(s)$.
Hence $\operatorname{Supp}(s)_{0}=\bigcup\left\{\right.$ zeros and poles of $\phi_{U}(s)$ in $\left.U\right\}=\{$ zeros of $s\}$.
2. $\Lambda$ is basepoint-free $\Longleftrightarrow \forall p \in X, \exists s \in V: p \notin \operatorname{Supp}\left((s)_{0}\right)$
$\Longleftrightarrow \forall p \in X, \exists s \in V: s(p) \neq 0$ (by 1)
$\Longleftrightarrow \mathcal{L}$ is generated by the global sections in $V$.
3. Let $\mathcal{U}$ be an open affine cover of $X$ such that $\mathcal{L}_{\mid U} \cong \mathcal{O}_{U} \forall U \in \mathcal{U}$.

For every $U=\operatorname{Spec}(A) \in \mathcal{U}$ we have
$\rho_{U}^{X}: \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L}) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(U, \mathcal{L}_{\mid U}\right)=\Gamma\left(U, \mathcal{O}_{U}\right)=A$. Let $\tilde{s}:=\rho_{U}^{X}(s) \in A$.
Moreover $\forall x \in U, \mathcal{L}_{x} \cong \mathcal{O}_{U, x} \cong A_{P_{x}}$.
Now $U \cap X_{s}=U_{\tilde{s}}$ (principal open subset),
indeed $\forall x \in U$, we have $x \in X_{s} \Longleftrightarrow s_{x} \notin \mathfrak{m}_{x} \mathcal{L}_{x} \Longleftrightarrow \frac{\tilde{s}}{1} \notin P_{x} A_{P_{x}}$
$\Longleftrightarrow \tilde{s} \notin P_{x} \Longleftrightarrow x \notin V(\tilde{s}) \Longleftrightarrow x \in U_{\tilde{s}}$.
In conclusion $U \cap X_{s}$ is open in the open $U$, hence in $X$. It follows that $X_{s}$ is union of open subsets, hence it is open in $X$.

Theorem 4.7.2 (Projective morphisms and line bundles).

1. To give a morphism of schemes $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is equivalent to give a line bundle $\mathcal{L}$ and $n+1$ global sections $s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}$ which generate $\mathcal{L}$.
In detail, $f$ is the unique morphism s.t. $\mathcal{L} \cong f^{*}(\mathcal{O}(1))$ and $s_{i}=f^{*} X_{i}$.
2. Let $f$ be the morphism corresponding to the line bundle $\mathcal{L}$ and global sections $s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}$ which generate a sub-vector space $V \subseteq \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$. Then $f$ is a closed embedding if and only if

- $V$ separates points,
i.e. for any two distinct points $p, q \in X$, there exists $s \in V$ such that $s(p)=0$ and $s(q) \neq 0$.
- $V$ separates tangent vectors,
i.e. for any point $p \in X, \mathfrak{m}_{p} \mathcal{L}_{p} / \mathfrak{m}_{p}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{p}$ is spanned by $\{s \in V \mid s(p)=0\}$.

Proof.

1. $[\Rightarrow] f^{*} \mathcal{O}(1)$ is a line bundle (by definition of pullback) and it is generated by global sections $f^{*} X_{1}, \ldots, f^{*} X_{n}$ (by Remark 4.4.1(3)).
$[\Leftarrow]$ Since $\mathcal{L}$ is generated by global sections $\left\{s_{i}\right\}$, we have that $\left\{X_{s_{i}}\right\}$ is an open cover of $X$.
Let $\left\{U_{i}\right\}$ be the standard open cover of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, where $U_{i} \cong \operatorname{Spec} k\left[\frac{X_{0}}{X_{i}}, \ldots, \frac{X_{n}}{X_{i}}\right]$. Consider the ring homomorphisms

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi_{i}: k\left[\frac{X_{0}}{X_{i}}, \ldots, \frac{X_{n}}{X_{i}}\right] & \rightarrow \Gamma\left(X_{s_{i}}, \mathcal{O}_{X_{s_{i}}}\right) \\
\frac{X_{j}}{X_{i}} & \rightarrow \frac{s_{j}}{s_{i}}
\end{aligned}
$$

By section 1.5 (iii), they correspond to morphisms of schemes $f_{i}: X_{s_{i}} \rightarrow U_{i}$, that we can glue to a morphism $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$.
Moreover $f^{*} X_{i}=f^{*}\left\{\frac{X_{i}}{X_{j}}\right\}_{j}=\left\{\phi_{j} \frac{X_{i}}{X_{j}}\right\}_{j}=\left\{\frac{s_{i}}{s_{j}}\right\}_{j}=s_{i}$ and $f^{*} \mathcal{O}(1)=\mathcal{L}$.
Finally this morphism is unique by construction, indeed let $f^{\prime}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be a such morphism. It induces morphisms $f_{i}^{\prime}: X_{s_{i}} \rightarrow U_{i}$ (because $\left.t \in X_{s_{i}} \Longleftrightarrow s_{i}(t) \neq 0 \Longleftrightarrow X_{i}(f(t)) \neq 0 \Longleftrightarrow f(t) \in U_{i}\right)$, and we call $\phi_{i}^{\prime}$ the corresponding ring homomorphisms.

Now $f^{*} X_{i}=s_{i}=\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{*} X_{i}$, where $X_{i}=\left\{\frac{X_{i}}{X_{j}}\right\}_{j}$,
hence $f_{i}^{*}\left(\frac{X_{i}}{X_{j}}\right)=\left(f_{i}^{\prime}\right)^{*}\left(\frac{X_{i}}{X_{j}}\right)$, that is $\phi_{i}\left(\frac{X_{i}}{X_{j}}\right)=\left(\phi_{i}^{\prime}\right)\left(\frac{X_{i}}{X_{j}}\right)$, hence $f=f^{\prime}$.
2. $[\Rightarrow]$ Since $f$ is a closed embedding, we can consider $X \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$.

In this case $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{O}_{X}(1)$, and $V \subseteq \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}, \mathcal{O}_{X}(1)\right)=\left\{\right.$ hyperplanes in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ meeting $X\}$ is just spanned by the images of $X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n} \in \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}, \mathcal{O}(1)\right)$.

- Let $p, q \in X$ be two distinct points. Since $p \neq q$, there is a hyperplane $V(s)$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ containing $p$ but not $q$, that is there is $s=\sum a_{i} X_{i}$ such that $s(p)=0$ and $s(q) \neq 0$, hence $f^{*} s \in V$ separates $p$ and $q$.
- Let $p=\left(a_{0}: \ldots: a_{n}\right) \in X$. We can consider $p=(1: 0: \ldots: 0)$ (without loss of generality).
In $U_{0} \cong \operatorname{Spec} k\left[\frac{X_{1}}{X_{0}}, \ldots, \frac{X_{n}}{X_{0}}\right]=\operatorname{Spec} k\left[y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right]$, we have $p=(0, \ldots, 0)$.
The space $\mathfrak{m}_{p} \mathcal{L}_{p} / \mathfrak{m}_{p}^{2} \mathcal{L}_{p} \cong \mathfrak{m}_{p} / \mathfrak{m}_{p}^{2}$ is spanned by $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}$.
$[\Leftarrow]$ Note that $f$ is injective (by Remark 4.7 .3 below).
By [9, Theorem II.4.9], $f$ is proper, hence closed. Being a morphism, it is also continuous. It follows that $f$ is homeomorphism on $f(X)$.
Moreover we have
- $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{n}, p} / \mathfrak{m}_{\mathbb{P}^{n}, p} \cong k \cong \mathcal{O}_{X, p} / \mathfrak{m}_{X, p}$ (because they are projective).
- $\mathfrak{m}_{\mathbb{P}^{n}, p} \rightarrow \mathfrak{m}_{X . p} / \mathfrak{m}_{X, p}^{2}, t_{p} \mapsto s_{p}=f^{*} t_{p}$ is surjective
(indeed let $s_{p}$ be a generator of $\mathfrak{m}_{X . p} / \mathfrak{m}_{X, p}^{2}$, with $s \in V$, then $\exists t \in \mathcal{O}(1)$ such that $s=f^{*} t$. Since $s(p)=0$, i.e. $s_{p} \in \mathfrak{m}_{X, p}$, we have $\left.t_{p} \in \mathfrak{m}_{\mathbb{P}^{n}, p}\right)$.
- $\mathcal{O}_{X, p}$ is finitely generated as $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{n}, p}$-module (by Corollary [9, II.5.20]).

It follows that $f^{\sharp}$ is surjective (by [9, Lemma II.7.4]).
In conclusion $f$ is a closed embedding.

Given global sections $s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}$ which generate a line bundle $\mathcal{L}$. The morphism associated to them is set-theoretically given by

$$
f: X \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}, p \mapsto\left(s_{0}(p): \ldots: s_{n}(p)\right)
$$

Note that $s_{i}(p)$ are not all zero because $\mathcal{L}$ is generated by the global sections $s_{i}$.
Remark 4.7.3. $V$ separates two points $p$ and $q \Longleftrightarrow f(p) \neq f(q)$
Proof.
$f(p) \neq f(q) \Longleftrightarrow \exists H=V(F)$ hyperplane in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ s.t. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}f(p) \in H \\ f(q) \notin H\end{array}\right.$
$\Longleftrightarrow \exists F=\sum a_{i} X_{i}:\left\{\begin{array}{l}F(f(p))=0 \\ F(f(q)) \neq 0\end{array}\right.$
$\Longleftrightarrow \exists s=f^{*} F=\sum a_{i} f^{*} X_{i} \in V:\left\{\begin{array}{l}s(p)=f^{*} F(p)=0 \\ s(q)=f^{*} F(q) \neq 0\end{array}\right.$
$\Longleftrightarrow V$ separates $p$ and $q$.
Remark 4.7.4. By Theorem 4.7.2(1), a morphism $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ corresponds to a basepoint-free linear system $\Lambda=(V, \mathcal{L})$.
Indeed given a morphism $f$ we can take $\mathcal{L} \cong f^{*}(\mathcal{O}(1))$ and $V$ generated by $s_{i}=f^{*} X_{i}$. The linear system ( $V, \mathcal{L}$ ) is basepoint-free (by Lemma 4.7.1(2)). Conversely, given a basepoint-free linear system $(V, \mathcal{L})$ we can take a basis $\left\{s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}\right\}$ of $V$ as global sections. They generate $\mathcal{L}$ (by Lemma 4.7.1(2)), hence we can apply Theorem 4.7.2(1) and get the morphism $f$.

Lemma 4.7.5. A basepoint-free linear system $(V, \mathcal{L})$ on $X$ of dimension $n$ corresponds (taking a basis $s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}$ of $V$ ) to a morphism $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$. Moreover

1. $f$ depends by the chosen of the basis of $V$, but it is unique up to automorphism of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.
2. Assume that $s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}$ are generators of $V$. $\left\{s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}\right\}$ is basis of $V \Longleftrightarrow f(X)$ is not contained in any hyperplane.
3. $\operatorname{Supp}\left((s)_{0}\right)$ is preimage of a hyperplane $\forall s \in V$.

Proof. Taken a basis $s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}$ of $V$, by the theorem for line bundles it corresponds to a unique morphism $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$.

1. Let $s_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, s_{n}^{\prime}$ be another basis of $V$ associated to the morphism $f^{\prime}$, and let $A=\left(a_{i j}\right) \in \mathrm{GL}_{n+1}(k)$ be the change-of-basis matrix. We have that $s_{i}^{\prime}=\sum_{j} a_{i j} s_{j}$. Taken the isomorphism
$\phi_{A}: k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right] \rightarrow k\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$

$$
X_{i} \mapsto \sum_{j} a_{i j} X_{j}
$$

it induces an automorphism $\phi_{A}: \mathbb{P}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ such that $f^{\prime}=\phi_{A} \circ f$.
2. $s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}$ are linear independent (i.e. basis)
$\Longleftrightarrow \sum a_{i} s_{i} \neq 0\left(\forall a_{i} \in k\right.$ not-all zero $)$
$\Longleftrightarrow \sum a_{i} s_{i}(p) \neq 0 \exists p \in X\left(\forall a_{i} \in k\right.$ not-all zero $)$
$\Longleftrightarrow \sum a_{i} X_{i}(f(p)) \neq 0 \exists p \in X\left(\forall a_{i} \in k\right.$ not-all zero $)$
$\Longleftrightarrow \sum a_{i} X_{i \mid f(X)} \neq 0\left(\forall a_{i} \in k\right.$ not-all zero $)$
$\Longleftrightarrow f(X) \nsubseteq V\left(\sum a_{i} X_{i}\right)$ for each hyperplane $V\left(\sum a_{i} X_{i}\right)$.
3. $s=\sum a_{i} f^{*} X_{i}=f^{*} F$ with $F \in \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}, \mathcal{O}(1)\right)$.
$V(s)=V\left(f^{*} F\right)=\left\{p \in X \mid f^{*} F(p)=0\right\}=\{p \in X \mid F(f(p))=0\}=$ $=\{p \in X \mid f(p) \in V(F)\}=f^{-1} V(F)$ and $V(F)$ is a hyperplane.

Theorem 4.7.6 (Projective morphisms and linear systems).

1. To give a non-degenerate morphism $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is equivalent to give a basepoint-free linear system $\Lambda=(V, \mathcal{L})$ on $X$ of dimension $n$.
(Non-degenerate means that $f(X)$ is not contained in any hyperplane).
Moreover $\mathcal{L} \cong f^{*}(\mathcal{O}(1))$ and it is generated by global sections $s_{i}=f^{*} X_{i}$.
2. Let $f$ be the morphism corresponding to a linear system $\Lambda$. $f$ is a closed embedding if and only if

- $\Lambda$ separates points,
i.e. for any distinct points $p, q \in X, \exists E \in \Lambda:\left\{\begin{array}{l}p \in \operatorname{Supp}(E) \\ q \notin \operatorname{Supp}(E)\end{array}\right.$
- $\Lambda$ separates tangent vectors, i.e. for any point $p \in X$ and any tangent vector $t \in T_{p}(X)$, $\exists E \in \Lambda:\left\{\begin{array}{l}p \in \operatorname{Supp}(E) \\ t \notin T_{p}(E)\end{array}\right.$
(Note that $E$ is effective, so we can see it as a closed subscheme of $X$ ).
Proof. Rephrasing Theorem 4.7.2 in terms of linear systems.
We can see an application of the theorem:


## Example 4.7.7.

Every automorphism of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is of the form $\phi_{A}$ (as defined in the proof of Lemma 4.7.5(1)). In particular $\operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right) \cong \mathrm{GL}_{n+1}(k) / k^{*}$.

Proof. Let $A \in \mathrm{GL}_{n+1}(k)$. Clearly $\phi_{A}=\phi_{\lambda A} \forall \lambda \in k^{*}$.
Let $\phi: \mathbb{P}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be an automorphism, it induces a group isomorphism
$\phi^{*}: \operatorname{Pic}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$.
We know that $\operatorname{Pic}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathcal{O}(1)$ is a generator of $\operatorname{Pic}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$, hence also $\phi^{*} \mathcal{O}(1)$ is a generator, that is $\mathcal{O}(1)$ or $\mathcal{O}(-1)$. Note that $\Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}, \mathcal{O}(-1)\right)=0$, i.e. it has no non-zero global sections. It follows that $\phi^{*} \mathcal{O}(1) \cong \mathcal{O}(1)$.
Now the sections $s_{i}=\phi^{*} X_{i}$ give a basis of the vector space $\Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}, \mathcal{O}(1)\right)$, hence $\exists A=\left(a_{i j}\right) \in \mathrm{GL}_{n+1}(k)$ such that $s_{i}=\sum_{j} a_{i j} X_{j}$.
Note that $\phi$ is the morphism associated to these global sections but also $\phi_{A}$ is such. By the uniqueness in Theorem 4.7.2(1), $\phi=\phi_{A}$.

## Chapter 5

## Curves

Finally we can apply our knowledge so far acquired to study the one-dimensional case, hence to better describe curves.
As already established in section 2.1, with curve we mean a one-dimensional projective (i.e. complete) smooth variety over an algebraically closed field $k$.
Our main interest is to understand in which projective spaces a curve can be embedded and in what way. Studying closed embeddings, we will use the relation between morphisms and linear systems. In this light, divisors and line bundles assume fundamental importance.
In the first part of this chapter, we will review what a divisor on a curve is and we will introduce the notion of degree of a curve, in particular we will see the Bézout's theorem. After that we will define a particular divisor called canonical and we will introduce the notion of genus of a curve. Finally we will arrive at the Riemann-Roch Theorem, that is a formula involving notions of genus, degree and dimension of a complete linear system.
In the second part, our first goal is showing that every curve can be embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$; after that we will study curves of low genus, in particular we will distinguish two different kinds of curves of genus at least 2: hyperelliptic and non-hyperelliptic curves, and we will focus on the latter, which correspond to canonical curves. Finally, we will give a brief exhibition about higher genus.

### 5.1 Divisors on curves

On a curve $X$, we have $\operatorname{Div}(X) \cong \operatorname{CaDiv}(X)$ and $\operatorname{Cl}(X) \cong \operatorname{Pic}(X)$.
The prime divisors are the points of $X$, hence a divisor is of the form $D=\sum n_{i} P_{i}$ (with $P_{i}$ points of $X$ ), and its degree is $\operatorname{deg}(D):=\sum n_{i}$.
In particular $n_{i}=: m_{D}\left(P_{i}\right)$ is called multiplicity of $P_{i}$ in $D$.
To every divisor $D$ we can associate a line bundle $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)$ and a complete linear system $|D|$. We have defined $l(D)=\operatorname{dim}_{k} H^{0}(X, \mathcal{L})$ and $\operatorname{dim}|D|=l(D)-1$. Now, we want to define the degree of a linear system.

Remark 5.1.1. Let $X$ be a curve. By [9, Corollary II.6.10], we have that the map deg: $\mathrm{Cl}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, D \mapsto \operatorname{deg}(D)$ is a surjective homomorphism. In particular, let $D, D^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Div}(X): D \sim D^{\prime}$, then $\operatorname{deg}(D)=\operatorname{deg}\left(D^{\prime}\right)$.

Definition 5.1.2. Let $X$ be a curve.
The degree of a linear system $\Lambda$ on $X$ is the degree of any divisor in $\Lambda$.
Note that it is well-defined by the previous remark, because in $\Lambda$ the divisors are linearly equivalent.

### 5.2 Degree of curves and degree of morphisms

The first important notion for curves is that of degree of a curve in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$. Note that this is not an invariant, but depends by the closed embedding. For example in the next sections we will see that plane curves of degree 1 and plane curves of degree 2 have genus 0 (by the Genus-degree Formula), hence they are both isomorphic to $\mathbb{P}^{1}$.

Definition 5.2.1. Let $X$ be a curve, with a closed embedding $i: X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$.
Taken the divisor $D$ corresponding to the line bundle $i^{*}(\mathcal{O}(1))$,
the degree of $X$ is $\operatorname{deg}(X):=\operatorname{deg}(D)$.

## Lemma 5.2.2.

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a morphism of curves, then $f$ is constant or surjective.
Moreover if $f$ is non-constant, then
$R(Y) \subseteq R(X)$ is a finite extension of fields and $f$ is finite.
Proof.
Since $X$ is complete, then $f(X)$ is closed (and complete) in $Y$ (by [9, Ex. II.4.4]). Since $\operatorname{dim}(Y)=1$ and $f(X)$ is an irreducible closed subset, we either have that $f(X)$ is a point or $f(X)=Y$, that is $f$ is either constant or surjective.
Now if $f$ is non-constant, hence surjective, $R(Y) \hookrightarrow R(X)$ is an extension of fields. We want to show that it is finite.
We know that $R(X) \cong A_{(0)}$, where $U=\operatorname{Spec}(A)$ is an affine open subscheme of $X$, hence $R(X)$ is a finitely generated $k$-algebra. Since $\operatorname{Trdeg}_{k} R(X)=\operatorname{dim}(X)=1$, we have that $k \subset R(X)$ is a finitely generated extension of fields of transcendence degree 1.
Analogously, $k \subset R(Y)$ is such.
Now $\operatorname{Trdeg}_{R(Y)} R(X)=\operatorname{Trdeg}_{k} R(X)-\operatorname{Trdeg}_{k} R(Y)=1-1=0$. It follows that $R(Y) \subseteq R(X)$ is an algebraic extension, hence finite.

Finally, we want to show that $f$ is finite. Let $V=\operatorname{Spec}(B)$ be an affine open subscheme of $Y$. Note that $B \subseteq Q(B) \cong R(Y) \subseteq R(X)$, and we can take $A:=\bar{B}^{R(X)}$, that is the integral closure of $B$ in $R(X)$.
We know that $A$ is a $B$-algebra, finitely generated as $B$-module (by |21, Ch.V, Th.9, p.267]) and there is an open subset $U \cong \operatorname{Spec}(A)$ of $X$ (by [9, I.6.7]), or better $U=f^{-1}(V)$, hence $f$ is finite.
Definition 5.2.3. Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a non-constant (finite) morphism of curves. The degree of $f$ is $\operatorname{deg}(f):=[R(X): R(Y)]$.

Note that $\operatorname{deg}(f)$ is finite and well-defined by the previous lemma.
Remark 5.2.4. Let $D \in \operatorname{Div}(Y)$, then $\operatorname{deg}\left(f^{*} D\right)=\operatorname{deg}(f) \operatorname{deg}(D)$.
(See [9, Proposition II.6.9]).

Examples 5.2.5. Let $\Lambda$ be the linear system associated to a non-constant morphism $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$, then $\operatorname{deg}(\Lambda)=\operatorname{deg}(f)$.

Proof. Let $\Lambda \subseteq|D|$, then $D=f^{*} H$ with $H$ hyperplane (by Theorem 4.7.6(1)). By Remark 5.2.4, we have $\operatorname{deg}(\Lambda)=\operatorname{deg}(D)=\operatorname{deg}(f) \operatorname{deg}(H)=\operatorname{deg}(f)$.

### 5.3 Bézout's Theorem

Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be a curve.
We saw that we can see the divisors of a basepoint-free linear system as pullbacks of hyperplanes (so as intersections, if the corresponding morphism is a closed embedding). For this reason, it is useful to study the intersection of $X$ and a hypersurface $V=V(F) \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$ s.t. $X \nsubseteq V$.

Definition 5.3.1. Let $j: X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be a closed embedding.
We define the intersection $X \cdot V:=j^{*} V$ in $\operatorname{Pic}(X)$.
Note that it is well-defined, indeed
since $X \nsubseteq V$, we have $\left.F\right|_{X} \neq 0$, hence $j^{*} V=j^{*} \operatorname{div}(F)=j^{*}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}, F\right)=\left(X,\left.F\right|_{X}\right)$. Moreover, let $V^{\prime} \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be another hypersurface s.t. $X \nsubseteq V^{\prime}$, if $\operatorname{deg}(V)=\operatorname{deg}\left(V^{\prime}\right)$ (i.e. $V=V^{\prime}$ in $\operatorname{Pic}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$ ), then $X \cdot V=X \cdot V^{\prime}$ in $\operatorname{Pic}(X)$.

Definition 5.3.2. Let $P \in X$ be a point.
The intersection multiplicity at $P$ is $(X \cdot V)_{P}:=\operatorname{ord}_{P}\left(\left.\frac{F}{G}\right|_{X}\right)$ where $G$ is a homogeneus polynomial of the same degree of $F$ s.t. $G(P) \neq 0$.

## Proposition 5.3.3.

1. $X \cdot V=\sum(X \cdot V)_{P} P$ in $\operatorname{Pic}(X)$.
2. $(X \cdot V)_{P}$ does not depend by the choice of $G$.

We could redefine $X \cdot V:=\sum(X \cdot V)_{P} P($ well-defined in $\operatorname{Div}(X))$.
3. Let $P \in X$.

If $P \in V$, then $(X \cdot V)_{P} \geq 1$.
If $P \notin V$, then $(X \cdot V)_{P}=0$,.
In particular $\sharp(X \cap V) \leq \operatorname{deg}(X \cdot V)$.
4. $(X \cdot V)_{P} \geq 2 \Longleftrightarrow T_{p} X \subseteq T_{P} V$ (i.e. $V$ is tangent to $X$ at $P$ ).

Proof.

1. Note that $V=V(F)=\left\{\left(U_{G}, \frac{F}{G}\right)\right\}$ as divisor.

Indeed we assume that $F$ is an irreducible polynomial of degree $d$, then $\operatorname{div}_{U_{i}}\left(\frac{F}{X_{i}^{d}}\right)=\operatorname{div}_{U_{i}}(F)-d \cdot \operatorname{div}_{U_{i}}\left(X_{i}\right)=V_{U_{i}}(F)$. Hence $\operatorname{div}_{U_{i}}\left(\frac{F}{X_{i}^{d}}\right)=V \cap U_{i}$, that is $V=\left\{\left(U_{i}, \frac{F}{X_{i}^{d}}\right)\right\}$, or better $V=\left\{\left(U_{G}, \frac{F}{G}\right)\right\}$.
Now $X \cdot V=j^{*} V=\left\{\left(U_{G} \cap X,\left.\frac{F}{G}\right|_{X}\right)\right\}=\sum \operatorname{ord}_{P}\left(\frac{F}{G}\right) P$ where $P \in U_{G} \cap X$.
2. By the proof of previous point.
3. If $P \in V(F)$, then $\frac{F}{G}$ is regular at $P$; hence $(X \cdot V)_{P}:=\operatorname{ord}_{P}\left(\left.\frac{F}{G}\right|_{X}\right) \geq 1$. If $P \notin V(F)$, then $P \notin \operatorname{Supp}\left(\operatorname{div}_{U_{G}}\left(\frac{F}{G}\right)\right)$; hence $\operatorname{ord}_{P}\left(\frac{F}{G}\right)=0$.
4. Let $P \in U_{G} \cdot \frac{F}{G}$ is regular in $U_{G}$ and $T_{P} V=T_{P}\left(V \cap U_{G}\right)=V\left(d_{P} \frac{F}{G}\right)$.
$\left.T_{P} X \subseteq T_{P} V \Longleftrightarrow d_{P} \frac{F}{G}\right|_{X}=\left.0 \Longleftrightarrow \frac{F}{G}\right|_{X} \in \mathfrak{m}_{P}^{2}$
$\Longleftrightarrow(X \cdot V)_{P}=\operatorname{ord}_{P}\left(\left.\frac{F}{G}\right|_{X}\right) \geq 2$.

Theorem 5.3.4 (Bézout).

1. $\operatorname{deg}(X)=\operatorname{deg}(X \cdot H)$, with $H$ hyperplane of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ s.t. $X \nsubseteq H$.

In particular we have that $\operatorname{deg}(X)=\max \left\{\sharp(X \cap H) \mid H \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}\right.$ hyperplane s.t. $\left.X \nsubseteq H\right\}$.
2. $\operatorname{deg}(X \cdot V)=\operatorname{deg}(X) \cdot \operatorname{deg}(V)$.

In particular $\sharp(X \cap V) \leq \operatorname{deg}(X) \cdot \operatorname{deg}(V)$.

## Proof.

1. By the definition of degree, $\operatorname{deg}(X)=\operatorname{deg}\left(j^{*} H\right)=\operatorname{deg}(X \cdot H)$.

Let $H^{\prime}$ be a hyperplane not tangent to $X$, then $\left(X \cdot H^{\prime}\right)_{P}=1 \forall P \in X \cap H^{\prime}$; hence $\operatorname{deg}(X)=\operatorname{deg}\left(X \cdot H^{\prime}\right)=\sharp\left(X \cap H^{\prime}\right)$.
2. Let $d=\operatorname{deg}(V)$. We have $V \sim d H$ with $H$ hyperplane, $d \in \mathbb{Z}$.
$\operatorname{deg}(X \cdot V)=\operatorname{deg}(X \cdot d H)=d \cdot \operatorname{deg}(X \cdot H)=d \cdot \operatorname{deg}(X)=\operatorname{deg}(X) \cdot \operatorname{deg}(V)$.

### 5.4 The canonical divisor

The most important divisor is the canonical divisor. We will find it in the definition of genus, in the Riemann-Roch Theorem and in the notion of canonical embedding (closely related to that of non-hyperelliptic curves). Therefore the notion of canonical divisor will be strongly present throughout this chapter.

Definition 5.4.1. Let $X$ be a scheme.
Since $X$ is separated, the diagonal map $\Delta: X \rightarrow X \times_{\operatorname{Spec}(k)} X$ is a closed embedding.
Let $\mathcal{J}$ be the sheaf of ideals of $\Delta(X)$.
The sheaf of relative differentials is the sheaf $\Omega_{X / k}:=\Delta^{*}\left(\mathcal{J} / \mathcal{J}^{2}\right)$.
Remark 5.4.2. If $X$ is variety of dimension $n$, then
$X$ is smooth $\Longleftrightarrow \Omega_{X / k}$ is locally free of rank $n$
(see [9, Theorem II.8.15]).
If $X$ is a curve, then $\Omega_{X / k}$ is a line bundle.

## Definition 5.4.3.

1. Let $X$ be a smooth variety of dimension $n$.

The canonical sheaf of $X$ is $\omega_{X}:=\bigwedge^{n} \Omega_{X / k}$.
In particular if $X$ is a curve, then it is the line bundle $\omega_{X}=\Omega_{X / k}$.
2. Let $X$ be a curve.

A canonical divisor on $X$ is a divisor $K \in \operatorname{Div}(X)$ such that $\mathcal{O}_{X}(K) \cong \omega_{X}$. Note that $K$ is unique in $\mathrm{Cl}(X)$.

### 5.5 Genus of a curve

The most important invariant for curves is the genus. It allows us to make a first distinction between curves, hence (as seen in the introduction) to answer some first questions.

Definition 5.5.1. Let $X$ be a smooth projective variety of dimension $n$.

1. The Euler characteristic of a coherent sheaf $\mathcal{F}$ on $X$ is $\chi(\mathcal{F}):=\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \operatorname{dim}_{k} H^{i}(X, \mathcal{F})$.
2. The arithmetic genus of $X$ is $p_{a}(X):=(-1)^{n}\left(\chi\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}\right)-1\right)$.
3. The geometric genus of $X$ is $p_{g}(X):=\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(X, \omega_{X}\right)$.

Remark 5.5.2. Let $X$ be a curve, then $p_{a}(X)=p_{g}(X)=\operatorname{dim}_{k} H^{1}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)$ and we call this number the genus of $X$. (See [9, Remark III.7.12.2]).

Note that the genus of a curve is invariant under isomorphism.
Moreover it is always non-negative, and conversely for any $g \geq 0$, there exist curves of genus $g$ (see [9, Remark IV.1.1.1]).

Remark 5.5.3 (Genus-degree formula).
If $X$ is a plane curve of degree $d$, then $p_{g}(X)=\frac{1}{2}(d-1)(d-2)$.
Proof. By [9, Ex. II.8.4(e)], we have that $\omega_{X} \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}(d-3)$. It follows that $p_{g}(X)=\binom{2+d-3}{d-3}=\frac{1}{2}(d-1)(d-2)$.

### 5.6 The Riemann-Roch Theorem for curves

A first important formula involving the genus is given by the Riemann-Roch Theorem.

Theorem 5.6.1. (Riemann-Roch)
Let $X$ be a curve of genus $g$ and let $D \in \operatorname{Div}(X)$. Then
$l(D)-l(K-D)=\operatorname{deg}(D)+1-g$.

- We will show first that $\chi\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right)=l(D)-l(K-D)$.

By Serre duality (see section 1.10(2)) we have that
$H^{0}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(K-D)\right)=H^{0}\left(X, \omega_{X} \otimes \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)^{\vee}\right)=H^{1}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right)^{\vee}$.
Hence $l(D)-l(K-D)=\operatorname{dim}_{k} H^{0}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right)-\operatorname{dim}_{k} H^{0}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(K-D)\right)=$ $=\operatorname{dim}_{k} H^{0}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right)-\operatorname{dim}_{k} H^{1}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right)=\chi\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right)$.

- We will show now that $\chi\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right)=\operatorname{deg}(D)+1-g$.

If $D=0$, i.e. $\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)=\mathcal{O}_{X}$, then $H^{0}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right) \cong k$ (because $X$ is projective) and $\operatorname{dim}_{k} H^{1}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)=g$ (by definition), hence we have
$\chi\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}\right)=\operatorname{dim}_{k} H^{0}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)-\operatorname{dim}_{k} H^{1}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)=1-g$.
Now we want to show that the formula is true for $D$ if and only if it is true for $D+P$ (for every divisor $D$ and every point $P \in X$ ). In this way, starting from the case $D=0$, we can get any case.
Let $D^{\prime}=D+P$, then it has degree $\operatorname{deg}\left(D^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{deg}(D)+1$.
We know that $\mathcal{J}_{P / X}=\mathcal{O}_{X}(-P)$ (by Remark 3.8.3).
We can define $k(P):=\mathcal{O}_{X} / \mathcal{J}_{P / X}$ the sheaf of residue fields of $P$, in detail this is constantly $k$ on each open neighborhood of $P$, and 0 everywhere else. Therefore we have the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X}(-P) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X} \rightarrow k(P) \rightarrow 0
$$

Note that $k(P) \otimes \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(D^{\prime}\right) \cong k(P)$ (analogously to the proof of Theorem 4.2.3), hence tensoring with $\mathcal{O}_{X}\left(D^{\prime}\right)=\mathcal{O}_{X}(D+P)$, we get

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X}(D) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(D^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow k(P) \rightarrow 0
$$

The Euler characteristic is additive on short exact sequences (by [9, Ex III.5.1]) and $\chi(k(P))=1$, hence we have
$\chi\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}\left(D^{\prime}\right)\right)=\chi\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right)+\chi(k(P))=\chi\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right)+1$.

### 5.7 Applications of Riemann-Roch Theorem

Let $X$ be a curve of genus $g$. An immediate application is computing $\operatorname{deg}(K)$.
Lemma 5.7.1. $l(K)=g$ and $\operatorname{deg}(K)=2 g-2$.
Proof. By definition, $l(K)=\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(X, \omega_{X}\right)=p_{g}=g$.
Now note that $l(K-K)=l(0)=1$.
By Riemann-Roch, $g-1=\operatorname{deg}(K)+1-g$, hence $\operatorname{deg}(K)=2 g-2$.
Before seeing other applications, it is advisable to see the following lemma.

## Lemma 5.7.2.

1. If $l(D) \neq 0$, then $\operatorname{deg}(D) \geq 0$.
2. If $l(D) \neq 0$ and $\operatorname{deg}(D)=0$, then $D \sim 0$ (i.e. $\left.\mathcal{O}_{X}(D) \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}\right)$.

Proof.

1. If $l(D) \neq 0$, then $|D| \neq \emptyset$, that is there exists a divisor $E \geq 0$ such that $D \sim E$, hence $\operatorname{deg}(D)=\operatorname{deg}(E) \geq 0$.
2. Let $E$ be as above. In this case $\operatorname{deg}(E)=\operatorname{deg}(D)=0$.

Since $E$ is effective, we have $E=0$, hence $D \sim 0$.

A very useful application of Riemann-Roch is the following:
Proposition 5.7.3. If $\operatorname{deg}(D)>2 g-2$, then $\operatorname{dim}|D|=\operatorname{deg}(D)-g$.
Proof. Since $\operatorname{deg}(K-D)=\operatorname{deg}(K)-\operatorname{deg}(D)<(2 g-2)-(2 g-2)=0$, then $l(K-D)=0$ by Lemma 5.7.2. By Riemann-Roch, $\operatorname{dim}|D|=\operatorname{deg}(D)-g$.

Using Riemann-Roch, we can finally see that there exists only one curve of genus 0 (up to isomorphism).

Proposition 5.7.4. $g=0 \Longleftrightarrow X \cong \mathbb{P}^{1}$ (i.e. $X$ is rational).
Proof. Note that $X$ is rational $\Longleftrightarrow X \cong \mathbb{P}^{1}$ (by [9, Example II.6.10.1]).
Now we want to show the proposition.
$[\Leftarrow]$ We can see $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ as hyperplane of $\mathbb{P}^{2}$. By Remark 5.5.3 we have $g=0$.
$[\Rightarrow]$ We assume $g=0$. Let $P, Q$ be two distinct points of $X$. Since
$\operatorname{deg}(K-P+Q)=\operatorname{deg}(K)-\operatorname{deg}(P-Q)=2 g-2-0=-2$, we have $l(K-P+Q)=0$ (by Lemma 5.7.2). Applying Riemann-Roch, we have $l(P-Q)=\operatorname{deg}(P-Q)+1-g=1$, hence $l(P-Q) \neq 0$ and $\operatorname{deg}(P-Q)=0$, then $P-Q \sim 0$ (by Lemma 5.7.2), that is $P \sim Q$.
In conclusion $X$ is rational (by $\mid 9$, Example II.6.10.1]), i.e. $X \cong . \mathbb{P}^{1}$.

### 5.8 Linear systems on curves

In this section we will introduce the notion of very ample divisors. They are particularly important in the study of linear systems as they correspond to closed embeddings in projective spaces.
Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a line bundle on a curve $X$ corresponding to a divisor $D$.

## Definition 5.8.1.

1. $\mathcal{L}($ resp. $D)$ is very ample if there exists a closed embedding $j: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ such that $\mathcal{L} \cong j^{*} \mathcal{O}(1) \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}(1)$.
2. $\mathcal{L}($ resp. $D)$ is ample if there is $n>0$ such that $\mathcal{L}^{n}($ resp. $n D)$ is very ample.

Clearly, very ample implies ample.

## Remark 5.8.2.

- $D$ is very ample $\Rightarrow \mathcal{L}$ is generated by global sections (because $\mathcal{O}(1)$ is such) $\Rightarrow|D|$ is basepoint-free (by Lemma 4.7.1(2)).
- Let $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be the morphism corresponding to $|D|$, then: $D$ is very ample $\Longleftrightarrow f$ is a closed embedding (by definition).

Lemma 5.8.3. Let $P \in X$ be a point.

1. $\operatorname{dim}|D-P| \in\{\operatorname{dim}|D|, \operatorname{dim}|D|-1\}$.
2. $P$ is a basepoint of $|D| \Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{dim}|D-P|=\operatorname{dim}|D|$.

Proof.

1. As in the proof of Riemann-Roch, we have an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{J}_{P}=\mathcal{O}_{X}(-P) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X} \rightarrow k(P) \rightarrow 0
$$

Tensoring by $\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)$, we get

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X}(D-P) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X}(D) \rightarrow k(P) \rightarrow 0
$$

Taken the global sections, we get the left-exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D-P)\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right) \rightarrow \Gamma(X, k(P))=k
$$

Hence
$\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D-P)\right) \leq \operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right) \leq \operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D-P)\right)+1$, that is $l(D) \in\{l(D-P), l(D-P)+1\}$, hence $l(D-P) \in\{l(D), l(D)-1\}$.
2. By Remark 4.5.3, $\Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right)=\{0\} \cup\left\{s \in R(X)^{*} \mid D+\operatorname{div}(s) \geq 0\right\}$.

In particular $\Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D-P)\right) \subseteq \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right)$. Now we have that: $P$ is a basepoint of $|D|$
$\Longleftrightarrow \forall s \in \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right) \backslash\{0\}, P \in \operatorname{Supp}(D+\operatorname{div}(s))$
$\Longleftrightarrow \forall s \in R(X)^{*}$, we have $D+\operatorname{div}(s) \geq 0$ iff $D-P+\operatorname{div}(s) \geq 0$
$\Longleftrightarrow \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D)\right)=\Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(D-P)\right)$
$\Longleftrightarrow l(D)=l(D-P)$.

Remark 5.8.4. Let $D$ be effective.

1. $\operatorname{dim}|D| \leq \operatorname{deg}(D)$.
2. $\operatorname{dim}|D|=\operatorname{deg}(D) \Longleftrightarrow D=0$ or $X \cong \mathbb{P}^{1}$.

Proof.

1. By Lemma 5.8.3, $\operatorname{dim}|D+P| \leq \operatorname{dim}|D|+1 \forall P \in X$.

Now we can iterate, starting by $\operatorname{dim}|P| \leq \operatorname{dim}|0|+1=1=\operatorname{deg}(P)$.
2. $[\Rightarrow]$ Assume $D \neq 0$. If $\operatorname{dim}|D|=\operatorname{deg}(D)$, then by the iteration in the proof of 1 , we have $\operatorname{dim}|P|=1$ for any $P \in \operatorname{Supp}(D)$, in particular $|P|$ corresponds to a morphism $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$ of degree 1 , hence $f$ is an isomorphism and $X \cong \mathbb{P}^{1}$.
$[\Leftarrow]$ If $D=0$, then $\operatorname{dim}|0|=l(0)-1=0=\operatorname{deg}(0)$.
If $X \cong \mathbb{P}^{1}$, then $D \sim n P$, and we have
$\operatorname{dim}|n P|=l(n P)-1=\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}, \mathcal{O}(n)\right)-1=\binom{n+1}{1}-1=n=\operatorname{deg}(n P)$.

## Proposition 5.8.5.

1. $|D|$ is basepoint-free $\Longleftrightarrow \forall P \in X, \operatorname{dim}|D-P|=\operatorname{dim}|D|-1$.
2. $D$ is very ample $\Longleftrightarrow \forall P, Q \in X, \operatorname{dim}|D-P-Q|=\operatorname{dim}|D|-2$.
(Note that we include the case $P=Q$ ).
Proof.
3. By Lemma 5.8.3(2).
4. We can consider $|D|$ to be basepoint-free, indeed:

If $D$ is very ample, then $D$ is basepoint-free (by Remark 5.8.2(1)).
If $D$ satisfies the condition on the right, then we have that for any $P \in X$, $\operatorname{dim}|D-2 P|=\operatorname{dim}|D|-2$, hence $P$ is not a basepoint of $|D|$ (otherwise $\operatorname{dim}|D-2 P| \geq \operatorname{dim}|D-P|-1=\operatorname{dim}|D|-1$, by Lemma 5.8.3)

Now, by $1, \forall P \in X, \operatorname{dim}|D-P|=\operatorname{dim}|D|-1$.
By Theorem 4.7.6(1), $|D|$ corresponds to a unique morphism
$f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ (with $\left.n=\operatorname{dim}|D|\right)$ such that $\mathcal{L} \cong f^{*} \mathcal{O}(1)$.
By Theorem 4.7.6(2), $D$ is very ample $\Longleftrightarrow f$ is a closed embedding $\Longleftrightarrow\left\{\begin{array}{l}|D| \text { separates points, and } \\ |D| \text { separates tangent vectors. }\end{array}\right.$
We will study the two conditions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - }|D| \text { separates points } \Longleftrightarrow \forall P \neq Q \text { in } X, \exists E \in|D|:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
P \in \operatorname{Supp}(E) \\
Q \notin \operatorname{Supp}(E)
\end{array}\right. \\
& \Longleftrightarrow \Longleftrightarrow \forall P \neq Q \text { in } X, \exists E \in|D|:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
E-P \geq 0 \text { (i.e. } E-P \in|D-P|) \\
Q \notin \operatorname{Supp}(E-P)
\end{array}\right. \\
& \Longleftrightarrow \nexists P \neq Q \text { in } X, Q \text { is not a basepoint of }|D-P| \\
& \Longleftrightarrow \text { (by Lemma } 5.8 .3(2)) \forall P \neq Q \text { in } X,
\end{aligned}
$$

- $|D|$ separates tangent vectors

$$
\Longleftrightarrow \forall P \in X, \forall t \in T_{P} X, \exists E \in|D|:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
P \in \operatorname{Supp}(E) \\
t \notin T_{P} E
\end{array}\right.
$$

$\Longleftrightarrow \forall P \in X, \exists E \in|D|:\left\{\begin{array}{l}E-P \geq 0 \\ T_{P} E=0\end{array}\right.$
$\left(\operatorname{dim} T_{P} X=\operatorname{dim} X=1\right.$, because $X$ is smooth, and $\left.T_{P} E \subsetneq T_{P} X\right)$
$\Longleftrightarrow \forall P \in X, \exists E \in|D|:\left\{\begin{array}{l}m_{E}(P) \geq 1 \\ m_{E}(P) \leq 1\end{array}\right.$
$\Longleftrightarrow \forall P \in X, \exists E \in|D|: m_{E}(P)=1$
$\Longleftrightarrow \forall P \in X, \exists E \in|D|:\left\{\begin{array}{l}E-P \geq 0 \text { (i.e. } E-P \in|D-P|) \\ P \notin \operatorname{Supp}(E-P)\end{array}\right.$
$\Longleftrightarrow \forall P \in X, P$ is not basepoint of $|D-P|$
$\Longleftrightarrow$ (by Lemma 5.8.3(2)) $\forall P \in X$,
$\operatorname{dim}|D-P-P|=\operatorname{dim}|D-P|-1=\operatorname{dim}|D|-2$.

## Corollary 5.8.6.

1. If $\operatorname{deg}(D) \geq 2 g$, then $|D|$ is basepoint-free.
2. If $\operatorname{deg}(D) \geq 2 g+1$, then $D$ is very ample.
3. $\operatorname{deg}(D)>0 \Longleftrightarrow D$ is ample.

Proof.

1. By Proposition 5.7.3 if $\operatorname{deg}(D) \geq 2 g>2 g-2$, then $\operatorname{dim}|D|=\operatorname{deg}(D)-g$. For any $P \in X, \operatorname{deg}(D-P) \geq 2 g-1>2 g-2$, then by the same proposition $\operatorname{dim}|D-P|=\operatorname{deg}(D-P)-g=\operatorname{deg}(D)-1-g$; hence we have that $\operatorname{dim}|D-P|=\operatorname{dim}|D|-1$. By Proposition 5.8.5(1) $|D|$ is basepoint-free.
2. As in the previous point, $\operatorname{dim}|D|=\operatorname{deg}(D)-g$.

In analogous way, since for any $P, Q \in X, \operatorname{deg}|D-P-Q| \geq 2 g-1>2 g-2$, we have $\operatorname{dim}|D-P-Q|=\operatorname{deg}(D-P-Q)-g=\operatorname{deg}(D)-2-g=\operatorname{dim}|D|-2$. By Proposition 5.8.5(2), $D$ is very ample.
3. [ $\Leftarrow$ ] If $D$ is ample, i.e. $\exists n>0: n D$ is very ample, then there is a closed embedding $j: X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{m}$ s.t. $n D \sim j^{*} H$ (where $H$ is a hyperplane of $\mathbb{P}^{m}$ ). Since the pullback sends effective divisors to effective divisors, we have $\operatorname{deg}(n D)=\operatorname{deg}\left(j^{*} H\right)>0$, hence $\operatorname{deg}(D)>0$.
$[\Rightarrow]$ If $\operatorname{deg}(D)>0$, then $\exists n>0: \operatorname{deg}(n D)=n \cdot \operatorname{deg}(D) \geq 2 g+1$, and then $n D$ is very ample (by 2 ); hence $D$ is ample.

### 5.9 Curves of low genus

Now we exhibit some first results about curves of low genus.
Applying Corollary 5.8.6 we can give an alternative proof that the only curve of genus 0 is $\mathbb{P}^{1}$. We can also show that the curves of genus 1 (called elliptic curves)
can be seen as plane cubic curves. In the same way we can show that every curve of genus 2 can be embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$; in fact we will see in the next section that every curve can be embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$.
Let $X$ be a curve of genus $g$.

## Examples 5.9.1.

1. If $g=0$, then for any divisor $D$ we have
$D$ is very ample $\Longleftrightarrow D$ is ample (i.e. $\operatorname{deg}(D)>0$ ).
Moreover, $X \cong \mathbb{P}^{1}$.
2. $g=1 \Longleftrightarrow X$ can be embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ as cubic curve.
3. If $g=2$, then $X$ can be embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$ (as curve of degree 5).

## Proof.

1. We know by definition that very ample implies ample.

Let $D \in \operatorname{Div}(X)$. Applying Corollary 5.8.6, we have that if $D$ is ample, then $\operatorname{deg}(D) \geq 1=2 g+1$, and then $D$ is very ample.
Moreover, taken $P \in X$, since $\operatorname{deg}(P)>0$ we have that $P$ is very ample, hence $X$ is embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{1}$, or better $X \cong \mathbb{P}^{1}$.
2. $[\Rightarrow]$ Let $D$ be a divisor of degree 3 . Since $\operatorname{deg}(D) \geq 2 g+1$, we have that $D$ is very ample (by Corollary 5.8.6) and $\operatorname{dim}|D|=2$ (by Proposition 5.7.3). Hence $|D|$ corresponds to a closed embedding $j: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{2}$ and $\operatorname{deg}(X)=\operatorname{deg}(D)=3$. $\left[\Leftarrow\right.$ ] By Remark 5.5.3, $g=\frac{1}{2}(3-1)(3-2)=1$.
3. Analogous to 2.

### 5.10 Embedding in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$

Now our goal is to prove that every curve can be embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$. Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be a curve.

Definition 5.10.1. Let $O \in \mathbb{P}^{n} \backslash X$ be a point.
The projection from $O$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ is $\psi: \mathbb{P}^{n} \backslash\{O\} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n-1}, P \mapsto \overline{O P} \cap \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ where $\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ is a hyperplane of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ not containing $O$, and $\overline{O P}$ is the line in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ passing through $P$ and $O$.

We consider the restriction $\phi:=\psi_{\mid X}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$.
By [9, Ex. I.3.14], $\phi$ is a morphism.
We will investigate when it is a closed embedding.
Definition 5.10.2. Let $P, Q \in X$ be two distinct points.

1. A secant line of $X$ is a line in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ joining two distinct points of $X$. We call $\operatorname{Sec}(X)$ the union of secant lines of $X$.
2. A tangent line of $X$ at a point $P$ is the line $L_{P}$ passing through $P$ such that $T_{P} L_{P}=T_{P} X$ as subspaces of $T_{P} \mathbb{P}^{n}$.
We call $\operatorname{Tan}(X)$ the union of tangents lines of $X$.
Lemma 5.10.3. Let $O \in \mathbb{P}^{n} \backslash X$ be a point.
Let $\phi: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ be the projection from $O$.
$\phi$ is a closed embedding $\Longleftrightarrow O \notin \operatorname{Sec}(X) \cup \operatorname{Tan}(X)$.
Proof. By Theorem 4.7.6(1), $\phi$ corresponds to a basepoint-free linear system $\Lambda=(V, \mathcal{L})$ on $X$. By Lemma 4.7.5(3), for any section $s \in V, \operatorname{Supp}(s)_{0}=X \cap H$ (for some hyperplane $H$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ passing through $O$ ).
By Theorem 4.7.6(2), we have
$\phi$ is a closed embedding $\Longleftrightarrow\left\{\begin{array}{l}\Lambda \text { separates points, and } \\ \Lambda \text { separates tangent vectors. }\end{array}\right.$
We will study the two conditions:

- $\Lambda$ separates points $\Longleftrightarrow \forall P \neq Q$ in $X, \exists s \in V:\left\{\begin{array}{l}P \in \operatorname{Supp}(s)_{0} \\ Q \notin \operatorname{Supp}(s)_{0}\end{array}\right.$ $\Longleftrightarrow \forall P \neq Q$ in $X, \exists H$ hyperplane in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ passing through $O:\left\{\begin{array}{l}P \in H \\ Q \notin H\end{array}\right.$ $\Longleftrightarrow \forall P \neq Q$ in $X, O \notin \overline{P Q} \Longleftrightarrow O \notin \operatorname{Sec}(X)$.
- $\Lambda$ separates tangent vectors $\Longleftrightarrow \forall P \in X, t \in T_{P} X, \exists s \in V:\left\{\begin{array}{l}P \in \operatorname{Supp}(s)_{0} \\ t \notin T_{P}(s)_{0}\end{array}\right.$ $\Longleftrightarrow \forall P \in X, \exists H$ hyperplane in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ passing through $O:\left\{\begin{array}{l}P \in H \\ m_{P}(X \cap H)=1\end{array}\right.$ $\left(\operatorname{dim} T_{P} X=\operatorname{dim} X=1\right.$, because $X$ is smooth, and $T_{P}(X \cap H) \subsetneq T_{P} X$, then $T_{P}(X \cap H)=0$, hence $\left.m_{P}(X \cap H) \leq 1\right)$ $\Longleftrightarrow \forall P \in X, O \notin L_{P} \Longleftrightarrow O \notin \operatorname{Tan}(X)$.

Proposition 5.10.4. Let $n \geq 4$.
There exists $O \in \mathbb{P}^{n} \backslash X$ s.t. the projection $\phi$ from $O$ is a closed embedding.

## Proof.

$\operatorname{Sec}(X)$ is a locally closed subvariety of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ of dimension at most 3 , indeed: we consider the morphism $f:(X \times X \backslash \Delta) \times \mathbb{P}^{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$, who carries $(P, Q, t)$ to the point $t$ of the secant line $\overline{P Q}$ (suitably parameterized).
Then $\operatorname{Sec}(X)=\operatorname{Im}(f)$ and it has dimension at most $\operatorname{dim}\left(X \times X \times \mathbb{P}^{1}\right)=3$.
$\operatorname{Tan}(X)$ is a locally closed subvariety of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ of dimension at most 2 , indeed:
we consider the morphism $g: X \times \mathbb{P}^{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$, who carries $(P, t)$ to the point $t$ of the tangent line $L_{P}$ (suitably parameterized).
Then $\operatorname{Tan}(X)=\operatorname{Im}(g)$ and it has dimension at most $\operatorname{dim}\left(X \times \mathbb{P}^{1}\right)=2$.

Now $\operatorname{dim}(\operatorname{Sec}(X) \cup \operatorname{Tan}(X)) \leq 3$. Since $n \geq 4, \operatorname{Sec}(X) \cup \operatorname{Tan}(X) \subsetneq \mathbb{P}^{n}$, hence $\exists O \notin \operatorname{Sec}(X) \cup \operatorname{Tan}(X)$. Finally, by Lemma 5.10.3, $\phi$ is a closed embedding.

Corollary 5.10.5. Any curve can be embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$.
Proof. Let $X$ be a curve, and let $j: X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be a closed embedding.
If $n \leq 3$, we can consider $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ a subspace of $\mathbb{P}^{3}$, and $X$ is embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$.
If $n \geq 4$, there exists a closed embedding $X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ (by Proposition 5.10.4), and repeating we get a closed embedding $X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{3}$.

### 5.11 Canonical embedding and non-hyperelliptic curves

We make a further distinction between two types of curves: hyperelliptic and non. The latter correspond to the notion of canonical embedded curves.
Let $X$ be a curve of genus $g$.
We will denote with $g_{d}^{r}$ a linear system on $X$ of degree $d$ and dimension $r$.
Note that when it is basepoint-free it corresponds to a morphism $f: X \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{r}$.
Definition 5.11.1. Let $g \geq 2$.
$X$ is hyperelliptic if there exists a finite morphism $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$ of degree 2. In other words if there exists a $g_{2}^{1}$. (Otherwise $X$ is non-hyperelliptic).

Note that in this case a $g_{2}^{1}$ is a basepoint-free linear system.
Indeed, as we will see in the proof of the following proposition, $g_{2}^{1}=|P+Q|$. Now since $g>0$, i.e. $X \not \approx \mathbb{P}^{1}$, we have that $\operatorname{dim}|P+Q-R| \leq 1-1=0$ for any $R \in X$ (by Remark 5.8.4). Finally by Proposition 5.8.5, $g_{2}^{1}$ is basepoint-free.

Proposition 5.11.2. Let $g \geq 2$.
$X$ is hyperelliptic $\Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{dim}|P+Q|=1 \exists P, Q \in X$.
(Equivalently, $X$ is non-hyperelliptic $\Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{dim}|P+Q|=0 \forall P, Q \in X$ ).
Proof. Since $g \neq 0$, we have that $X \neq \mathbb{P}^{1}$.
By Remark 5.8.4, $\operatorname{dim}|P+Q| \leq \operatorname{deg}(P+Q)-1=1$; hence $\operatorname{dim}|P+Q| \in\{0,1\}$. $[\Leftarrow]$ We can take $g_{2}^{1}=|P+Q|$.
$\left[\Rightarrow\right.$ ] Since $X$ is hyperelliptic, there exists a $g_{2}^{1}$. Let $P+Q \in g_{2}^{1}$, we have that $g_{2}^{1} \subseteq|P+Q|$, hence $\operatorname{dim}|P+Q| \geq 1$, or better $\operatorname{dim}|P+Q|=1$.

Now we want to study the morphism corresponding to the canonical divisor. To do this we first study the properties of $|K|$.

## Proposition 5.11.3.

1. If $g=0$ then $|K|=\emptyset$.
2. If $g=1$, then $|K|=0$, or better $K \sim 0$.
3. If $g \geq 2$, then $|K|$ is basepoint-free.
(Hence $|K|$ corresponds to a morphism $\phi: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{g-1}$ ).
4. Let $g \geq 2$.
$X$ is non-hyperelliptic $\Longleftrightarrow K$ is very ample (i.e. $\phi$ is a closed embedding).
Proof
5. We know that $\operatorname{deg}(K)=2 g-2=-2$.

Now any divisor $D \sim K$ has degree $\operatorname{deg}(D)=\operatorname{deg}(K)<0$, hence $|K|=\emptyset$.
2. Since $l(K)=g=1$, we have $\operatorname{dim}|K|=0$.

Since $\operatorname{deg}(K)=2 g-2=0$, we have $K \sim 0$ (by Lemma 5.7.2(2)).
3. Let $P \in X$ be a point. Since $g \neq 0$ we have that $X \not \approx \mathbb{P}^{1}$. It follows that $\operatorname{dim}|P|=0$ (by Remark 5.8.4). Applying Riemann-Roch we have that $\operatorname{dim}|K-P|=\operatorname{dim}|P|-\operatorname{deg}(P)-1+g=g-2=\operatorname{dim}|K|-1$. In conclusion, by Proposition 5.8.5(1), $|K|$ is basepoint-free.
4. $|K|$ is very ample
$\Longleftrightarrow$ (by Proposition 5.8.5(2))
$\operatorname{dim}|K-P-Q|=\operatorname{dim}|K|-2=g-3 \forall P, Q \in X$
$\Longleftrightarrow$ (by Riemann-Roch)
$\operatorname{dim}|P+Q|=\operatorname{dim}|K-P-Q|+\operatorname{deg}(P+Q)+1-g=0 \forall P, Q \in X$
$\Longleftrightarrow$ (by Proposition 5.11.2) $X$ is non-hyperelliptic.

Definition 5.11.4. Let $g \geq 2$.

- $|K|$ corresponds to $\phi: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{g-1}$ called canonical morphism.
- $\phi(X)$ is called a canonical curve.
- $X$ is canonically embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{g-1}$ if $\phi$ is a closed embedding.

In this case, $\operatorname{deg}(X)=\operatorname{deg}\left(\phi^{*} H\right)=\operatorname{deg}(K)=2 g-2$.
Note that, by Proposition 5.11.3(4), we have
$X$ is canonically embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{g-1} \Longleftrightarrow X$ is non-hyperelliptic.
Remark 5.11.5. Every curve of genus 2 is hyperelliptic.
Proof.
Since $\operatorname{dim}|K|=g-1=1$ and $\operatorname{deg}(K)=2 g-2=2$, we have that the canonical morphism is $\phi: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$ of degree 2; hence $X$ is (canonically) hyperelliptic.

### 5.12 Non-hyperelliptic curves of low genus

Now we focus on non-hyperelliptic curves. We saw that every curve of genus 2 is hyperelliptic, so we want to study the case $g \geq 3$, in particular we want to show that there exist non-hyperelliptic curves (and what they are) for $g=3,4,5$. Let $X$ be a curve of genus $g$.

Definition 5.12.1. Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$.
$X$ is a complete intersection if $X=F_{1} \cap \ldots \cap F_{n-1}$ such that

- $F_{i}$ are hypersurfaces of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.
- $\mathcal{J}_{X / \mathbb{P}^{n}}=\mathcal{J}_{F_{1} / \mathbb{P}^{n}}+\ldots+\mathcal{J}_{F_{n-1} / \mathbb{P}^{n}}$ (i.e. $F_{1} \cap \ldots \cap F_{n-1}$ is an intersection scheme).

Note that, by [9, Theorem I.7.7.], $\operatorname{deg}(X)=\prod_{i} \operatorname{deg}\left(F_{i}\right)$.
Proposition 5.12.2. Working up to isomorphism, we have that

1. $g=3$ and $X$ is non-hyperelliptic $\Longleftrightarrow X \subset \mathbb{P}^{2}$ is a plane curve of degree 4
2. $g=4$ and $X$ is non-hyperelliptic $\Longleftrightarrow X=Q \cap F \subset \mathbb{P}^{3}$ (complete intersection) where $Q, F$ are irreducible hypersurfaces of degree (resp.) 2,3 .
3. If $g=5$ and $X$ is non-hyperelliptic, then $X \subseteq Q_{1} \cap Q_{2} \cap Q_{3} \subset \mathbb{P}^{4}$ where $Q_{1}, Q_{2}, Q_{3}$ are irreducible hypersurfaces of degree 2 .
On the other hand, if $X$ is a complete intersection of three quadrics in $\mathbb{P}^{4}$, then $X$ is a non-hyperelliptic curve of genus 5 .

Proof.

1. $\left[\Rightarrow\right.$ ] The canonical embedding is $X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{2}$ and $X$ has degree $2 g-2=4$.
$[\Leftarrow]$ By [9, Ex.II.8.4(e)], $\omega_{X} \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}(4-2-1)=\mathcal{O}_{X}(1)$. Let $i: X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{2}$ be the inclusion, then $i^{*} \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{2}}(1)=\mathcal{O}_{X}(1)=\omega_{X}$, hence $i$ is the morphism associated to $|K|$, that is the canonical embedding and $g=2+1=3$.
2. $[\Rightarrow]$ The canonical embedding is $\phi: X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{3}$ and $X$ has degree 6 .

Let $\mathcal{J}:=\mathcal{J}_{X / \mathbb{P}^{3}}$. We consider the short exact sequence $\left(^{*}\right)$ :

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{3}} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X}=\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{3}} / \mathcal{J} \rightarrow 0
$$

- (*) induces a left-exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{J}(2)\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{O}(2)\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(2)\right)
$$

Now we know that:

1) $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{O}(2)\right)=\binom{3+2}{2}=10$.
2) $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(2)\right)=9$.
(Because $\omega_{X}=\mathcal{O}_{X}(K)=\phi^{*} \mathcal{O}(1)=\mathcal{O}_{X}(1)$, hence $\mathcal{O}_{X}(2 K)=\omega_{X}^{2}=$ $=\mathcal{O}_{X}(1)^{2}=\mathcal{O}_{X}(2)$, and by Riemann-Roch we have $l(2 K)=$ $=l(2 K)-l(K-2 K)=\operatorname{deg}(2 K)+1-g=2(2 g-2)+1-g=9)$. By left-exactness, $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{J}(2)\right) \geq 10-9=1$.
Hence there exists $s \in \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{J}(2)\right)=\left\{\sigma \in \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{O}(2)\right) \mid \sigma_{\mid X}=0\right\}$.
Set $Q:=V(s)$, it is a surface of degree 2 containing $X$.
Moreover $Q$ is irreducible (because $X$ is not contained in any plane, and if we assume $s=l \cdot l^{\prime}$ with $l, l^{\prime}$ homogeneous polynomials of degree 1 , then since $X$ is irreducible we have that $X$ is contained in $V(l)$ or $V\left(l^{\prime}\right)$, that are planes, and this is a contradiction).
Note that $Q$ is unique (because if $X$ is contained in a surface $Q^{\prime} \neq Q$ of degree 2 , then $Q^{\prime}$ is irreducible, in particular it does not have common
components with $Q$, hence $Q \cap Q^{\prime}$ is a complete intersection and it is a curve of degree $2 \cdot 2=4$ containing $X$, but $X$ has degree 6 and this is a contradiction)

- (*) induces a left-exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{J}(3)\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{O}(3)\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(3)\right)
$$

Now we know that

1) $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{O}(3)\right)=\binom{3+3}{3}=20$.
2) $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(3)\right)=15$.
(Indeed, in analogous way of above, we have that $\mathcal{O}_{X}(3)=\mathcal{O}_{X}(3 K)$
and $l(3 K)=\operatorname{deg}(3 K)+1-g=3(2 g-2)+1-g=15)$.
By left-exactness, $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{J}(3)\right) \geq 20-15=5$.
Hence there exists $t \in \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{J}(3)\right)=\left\{\sigma \in \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{O}(3)\right) \mid \sigma_{\mid X}=0\right\}$.
Set $F:=V(t)$, it is a surface of degree 3 containing $X$.
Note that $\left\{t \in \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{J}(3)\right) \mid t=l \cdot s\right.$, with $\left.l \in \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{O}(1)\right)\right\}$ has dimension equal to $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{3}, \mathcal{O}(1)\right)=4$, hence we can choose $t$ such that it has not $s$ as factor, hence $F$ has no common components with $Q$, in particular $Q \cap F$ is a complete intersection.
Moreover $F$ is irreducible (because if we assume $t=l \cdot s^{\prime}$ with $l, s^{\prime}$ homogeneous polynomials of degree respectively 1 and 2 , then we have that $X \nsubseteq V\left(s^{\prime}\right)$ by the uniqueness of $Q$, hence $X$ is contained in the plane $V(l)$, but $X$ is not contained in any plane; this is a contradiction).

In conclusion $X \subseteq Q \cap F$ is a curve of degree $2 \cdot 3=6=\operatorname{deg}(X)$, hence $X=Q \cap F$.
$[\Leftarrow]$ By [9, Ex.II.8.4.(e)] $\omega_{X} \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}(2+3-3-1)=\mathcal{O}_{X}(1)$. Let $i: X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{3}$ be the inclusion, then $i^{*} \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P} 3}(1)=\mathcal{O}_{X}(1)=\omega_{X}$, hence $i$ is the morphism associated to $|K|$, that is the canonical embedding and $g=3+1=4$.
3. $[\Rightarrow]$ The canonical embedding is $\phi: X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{4}$ and $X$ has degree 8 .

Analogously to the previous point we have a left-exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{4}, \mathcal{J}(2)\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{4}, \mathcal{O}(2)\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(2)\right)
$$

and we know that

1) $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{4}, \mathcal{O}(2)\right)=\binom{4+2}{2}=15$.
2) $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(3)\right)=12$.
(Indeed, in analogous way of the previous point, we have $\mathcal{O}_{X}(2)=\mathcal{O}_{X}(2 K)$ and $l(2 K)=\operatorname{deg}(2 K)+1-g=2(2 g-2)+1-g=12)$.
By left-exactness, $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{4}, \mathcal{J}(2)\right) \geq 15-12=3$.
Hence there exist linearly independent sections $s_{1}, s_{2}, s_{3} \in \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{4}, \mathcal{J}(2)\right)$.
Set $Q_{i}:=V\left(s_{i}\right)(i=1,2,3)$, then $Q_{i}$ are hypersurfaces containing $X$ and (as in the previous point) they are irreducible.
$[\Leftarrow]$ By [9, Ex.II.8.4.(e)] $\omega_{X} \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}(2+2+2-4-1)=\mathcal{O}_{X}(1)$. Let $i: X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{4}$ be the inclusion, then $i^{*} \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{4}}(1)=\mathcal{O}_{X}(1)=\omega_{X}$, hence $i$ is the morphism associated to $|K|$, that is the canonical embedding and $g=4+1=5$.

Note that in the case $g=5$ if the intersection $Q_{1} \cap Q_{2} \cap Q_{3}$ is a curve, it has degree $2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2=8=\operatorname{deg}(X)$ and it contains $X$, hence $X$ is a complete intersection of three quadrics. We will better study curves of genus 5 in the next sections.
Finally, note that if $g \geq 6$ we are not so lucky, as we can see in this last remark.

## Remark 5.12.3.

If $g \geq 6$ and $X$ is non-hyperelliptic, then $X$ is not a complete intersection in $\mathbb{P}^{g-1}$.
Proof. Assume that $X$ is a complete intersection in $\mathbb{P}^{g-1}$, then
$X=F_{1} \cap \ldots \cap F_{g-2}$ where $F_{i}$ are hypersurfaces of degree $d_{i}$.
Let $i: X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{g-1}$ be the canonical embedding, then $\mathcal{O}_{X}(1)=i^{*} \mathcal{O}(1)=\omega_{X}$.
By [9, Ex.II.8.4.(e)] $\omega_{X} \cong \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(d_{1}+\ldots+d_{g-2}-(g-1)-1\right)$, hence we have
$1=\bar{d}_{1}+\ldots+d_{g-2}-g$.
Note that $d_{i} \geq 2 \forall i$, because $X$ is not contained in any hyperplane.
Now $1=d_{1}+\ldots+d_{g-2}-g \geq 2(g-2)-g=g-4$, hence $g \leq 5$.

### 5.13 Trigonal curves

We will show that not all curves of genus 5 are canonically complete intersections. In order to show it we will introduce the notion of trigonal curves.

Definition 5.13.1. A curve is trigonal if it is non-hyperelliptic and it has a $g_{3}^{1}$.
Remark 5.13.2. Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^{4}$ be a canonical curve of genus 5 .
$X$ is trigonal $\Longleftrightarrow X$ has a trisecant line.
Proof. Let $P, Q, R$ be points of $X$.
By Riemannn-Roch, $\operatorname{dim}|P+Q+R|-\operatorname{dim}|K-P-Q-R|=-1$ (note that $X$ has degree $2 g-2=8$ ). Now we have that:
$X$ is trigonal $\Longleftrightarrow \exists g_{3}^{1}=|P+Q+R|$
$\Longleftrightarrow \exists P, Q, R \in X, \operatorname{dim}|P+Q+R|=1$
$\Longleftrightarrow \exists P, Q, R \in X, \operatorname{dim}|K-P-Q-R|=2$
$\Longleftrightarrow \exists P, Q, R \in X$ s.t. the linear system of hyperplanes in $\mathbb{P}^{4}$ containing $P, Q, R$ has dimension 2
$\Longleftrightarrow \exists P, Q, R \in X$ collinear points (otherwise they span a plane, and the linear system of hyperplanes containing this plane has dimension 1)
$\Longleftrightarrow X$ has a trisecant line.
Now we want to show that trigonal curves $X$ of genus 5 , in their canonical embedding, are not complete intersection, or even better they are not intersection of quadrics:
if $X$ be an intersection of quadrics $Q_{i}$ (for example, as in Proposition 5.12.2(3)), then $X$ has no trisecant lines $L$ (otherwise $L$ meets each $Q_{i}$ in three points, hence $L$ is contained in every $Q_{i}$, or better $L \subseteq X$. Contradiction!). In conclusion $X$ is not trigonal.
Basically if $X$ is trigonal, in the proof of Remark 5.13.2 we can see that the canonical embedding carries every divisor of the $g_{3}^{1}$ to a triad of collinear points, hence $X$ has infinitely many trisecant lines. It follows that the intersection of
quadrics $Y:=\bigcap_{X \subseteq Q} Q$ contains a surface, that is the union of the trisecant lines to $X$, in particular $Y$ contains $X$ properly (in this case, in the Proposition 5.12.2(3) $Q_{1} \cap Q_{2} \cap Q_{3}$ is a surface, not a curve).

### 5.14 Canonical curves of genus 5

We saw that non-hyperelliptic curves of genus 3 or 4 are canonically complete intersections. We will see that this holds for curves of genus 5 if and only if they are not trigonal. This is a particular case of the Enriques-Petri's Theorem.
In order to show it, we will introduce the Steiner Construction and the Castelnuovo Lemma. First, we give some definitions:

## Definition 5.14.1.

1. A Veronese map is the morphism associated to a linear system $|d H|$ on $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, that is $\left.v_{d}^{n}: \mathbb{P}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{(n+d} d\right)-1,\left(x_{0}: \ldots: x_{n}\right) \mapsto\left(x_{0}^{d}: x_{0}^{d-1} x_{1}: \ldots: x_{n}^{d}\right)$ given by all monomials of degree $d$. The image of a Veronese map is said a Veronese variety.
2. A rational normal curve is a Veronese variety corresponding to $v_{d}^{1}: \mathbb{P}^{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{d},(x: y) \mapsto\left(x^{d}: x^{d-1} y: \ldots: x y^{d-1}: y^{d}\right)$.
3. A Veronese surface is a Veronese variety corresponding to $v_{2}^{2}: \mathbb{P}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{5}$.

Now, we see two useful remarks:

## Remark 5.14.2.

- We recall that a curve in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is non-degenerate if it is not contained in a hyperplane. A such curve has degree at least $n$.
- Clearly a rational normal curve in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is non-degenerate of degree $n$. Conversely, a non-degenerate curve of degree $n$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is a rational normal curve.

Proof.

1. Any $n$ points of a non-degenerate curve $X \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$ are contained in a hyperplane $H$, hence $X \cap H$ consists of at least $n$ points; since $X \nsubseteq H$ then $\operatorname{deg}(X) \geq n$.
2. Let $X$ be a non-degenerate curve of degree $n$ in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.

First, we want to show that $X \cong \mathbb{P}^{1}$.
We take $n-1$ points $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n-1} \in X$ which span a $(n-2)$-plane $V$. Let $\left\{H_{\lambda}\right\}$ be the family of hyperplanes containing $V$, parameterized by $\lambda \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$. Each hyperplane $H_{\lambda}$ meets $X$ in $P_{1}, . ., P_{n-1}$ and in another point which we call $q(\lambda)$ (If $H_{\lambda}$ is tangent to $X$ at $P_{i}$, we set $q(\lambda)=P_{i}$ ). We get an isomorphism $\mathbb{P}^{1} \rightarrow X, \lambda \mapsto q(\lambda)$.
In conclusion, let $X \cong \mathbb{P}^{1} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be a closed embedding, then it is associated to the unique divisor of $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ of degree $n$, that is $n H$; hence it is a Veronese map.

### 5.14.1 Steiner Construction

We will say that a collection of at least $n+1$ points in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ is in general linear position if no $n+1$ of these points are on the same hyperplane.

1. Let $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{5} \in \mathbb{P}^{2}$ be points in general linear position (i.e. no 3 points are collinear). We can find a smooth conic passing through them.
First of all we consider $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ and we define the families $\left\{L_{1}(\lambda)\right\},\left\{L_{2}(\lambda)\right\}$ of lines through $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ respectively, parameterized by $\lambda \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$ so that the unique common line $\overline{P_{1} P_{2}}$ corresponds to different values of $\lambda$, that is so that $L_{1}(\lambda) \neq L_{2}(\lambda)$ for all $\lambda$.
Now we can define $C:=\bigcup_{\lambda}\left(L_{1}(\lambda) \cap L_{2}(\lambda)\right)$. This is a non-degenerate and irreducible curve, containing $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$. Moreover $C$ has degree 2:
indeed its intersection with a line $L \subset \mathbb{P}^{2}$ consists of the fixed points of the automorphism $L \rightarrow L, L \cap L_{1}(\lambda) \mapsto L \cap L_{2}(\lambda)$, and they can be at most 2 . We can choose our parameterizations of the two families so that

- $P_{3} \in L_{1}(0) \cap L_{2}(0)$,
- $P_{4} \in L_{1}(1) \cap L_{2}(1)$,
- $P_{5} \in L_{1}(\infty) \cap L_{2}(\infty)$.

Note that in this way $\overline{P_{1} P_{2}}$ still corresponds to different values of $\lambda$ : indeed if $\overline{P_{1} P_{2}}=L_{1}\left(\lambda_{0}\right)=L_{2}\left(\lambda_{0}\right)$, then taken $L:=\overline{P_{3} P_{4}}$ the automorphism $L \rightarrow L, L \cap L_{1}(\lambda) \mapsto L \cap L_{2}(\lambda)$ would fix the three points $P_{3}, P_{4}$ and $L \cap \overline{P_{1} P_{2}}$, hence it would be the identity, that is $L \cap L_{1}(\lambda)=L \cap L_{2}(\lambda)=L_{1}(\lambda) \cap L_{2}(\lambda)$ for any $\lambda$, in particular $P_{5}=L_{1}(\infty) \cap L_{2}(\infty)=L_{1}(\infty) \cap L \in L$, hence $P_{3}, P_{4}, P_{5}$ would be collinear. Contradiction!.
We can define $C$ as above, and it contains $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{5}$.
2. Let $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n+3} \in \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be points in general linear position. We can generalize the construction in 1 and find a rational normal curve passing through them.
First of all we consider $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}$. Let $V$ be the hyperplane spanned by $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}$ and let $V_{i}$ be the ( $n-2$ )-plane spanned by $P_{1}, . ., \hat{P}_{i}, \ldots, P_{n}$. We define the families $\left\{H_{i}(\lambda)\right\}$ of hyperplanes through $V_{i}$, parameterized by $\lambda \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$ so that the unique common hyperplane $V$ corresponds to different values of $\lambda$. Note that for any $\lambda, H_{1}(\lambda) \cap \ldots \cap H_{n}(\lambda)$ is a point:
indeed if none of $H_{i}(\lambda)$ is $V$, then their intersection cannot meet $V$, hence it is a point; while if $H_{i}(\lambda)=V$, then $H_{i}(\lambda) \cap H_{j}(\lambda)=V_{j}$ for any $j \neq i$, hence $H_{1}(\lambda) \cap \ldots \cap H_{n}(\lambda)=\bigcap_{j \neq i} V_{j}=P_{i}$.
We can define $C:=\bigcup_{\lambda}\left(H_{1}(\lambda) \cap \ldots \cap H_{n}(\lambda)\right)$ and it is a non-degenerate and irreducible curve containing $P_{i}$ for $i=1, . ., n$. Moreover $C$ has degree $n$ :
its intersection with a hyperplane $H \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$ consists of the fixed points of the automorphism $H \rightarrow H, H \cap H_{1}(\lambda) \cap \ldots \cap H_{n-1}(\lambda) \mapsto H \cap H_{2}(\lambda) \cap \ldots \cap H_{n}(\lambda)$, and they can be at most $n$, hence $\operatorname{deg}(C) \leq n$. Since $C$ is non-degenerate, $\operatorname{deg}(C) \geq n$; hence $\operatorname{deg}(C)=n$.
In conclusion $C$ is a rational normal curve.
We can choose our parameterizations of the families so that

- $P_{n+1} \in H_{i}(0)$, for all $i$,
- $P_{n+2} \in H_{i}(1)$, for all $i$,
- $P_{n+3} \in H_{i}(\infty)$, for all $i$.

Note that in this way $V$ still corresponds to different values of $\lambda$ : indeed if $V=H_{i}\left(\lambda_{0}\right)=H_{j}\left(\lambda_{0}\right)$, then taken $L:=\overline{P_{n+1} P_{n+2}}$ the automorphism $L \rightarrow L, L \cap H_{i}(\lambda) \mapsto L \cap H_{j}(\lambda)$ would fix the three points $P_{n+1}, P_{n+2}$ and $L \cap V$, hence it would be the identity, in particular $L$ would meet $H_{i}(\infty) \cap H_{j}(\infty)$, hence the $n+1$ points $P_{n+1}, P_{n+2}, P_{1}, \ldots, \hat{P}_{i}, \ldots, \hat{P}_{j}, \ldots, P_{n}$ and $P_{n+3}$ would be on the same hyperplane. Contradiction!.
We can define $C$ as above, and it contains $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n+3}$.

## Remark 5.14.3.

1. Through any $n+3$ points in general linear position in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ there passes a unique rational normal curve.
2. A rational normal curve is intersection of quadric hypersurfaces.

Proof.

1. Taken $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n+3} \in \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be points in general linear position. We can define a rational normal curve $C$ passing through them as in section 5.14.1.(2).
If $D$ is another rational normal curve passing through them, then each hyperplane $H_{i}(\lambda)$ meets $D$ in $P_{1}, . ., \hat{P}_{i}, \ldots, P_{n}$ and another point which we may denote $q_{i}(\lambda)$.
Now the automorphism $D \rightarrow D, q_{i}(\lambda) \mapsto q_{j}(\lambda)$ fixes the three points $P_{n+1}, P_{n+2}, P_{n+3}$; hence it is the identity, that is $q_{i}(\lambda)=H_{1}(\lambda) \cap \ldots \cap H_{n}(\lambda)$. It follows that $D=C$.
2. Let $V_{1}, V_{2}$ be $(n-2)$-planes of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.

We define the two families $\left\{H_{1}(\lambda)\right\},\left\{H_{2}(\lambda)\right\}$ of hyperplanes through $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ respectively, parameterized by $\lambda \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$ so that $H_{1}(\lambda) \neq H_{2}(\lambda)$ for all $\lambda$. Analogously to section 5.14.1(1) we have a non-degenerate and irreducible quadric hypersurface $Q:=\bigcup_{\lambda}\left(H_{1}(\lambda) \cap H_{2}(\lambda)\right)$.
Now, let $C$ be a rational normal curve. We can see it to be constructed as in section 5.14.1(2). If we set $Q_{i j}:=\bigcup_{\lambda}\left(H_{i}(\lambda) \cap H_{j}(\lambda)\right)$, then $C$ is the intersection of the quadrics $Q_{i j}$.

### 5.14.2 Castelnuovo Lemma

Lemma 5.14.4 (Castelnuovo Lemma). A collection $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{d} \in \mathbb{P}^{n}$ of $d \geq 2 n+3$ points in general linear position which impose only $2 n+1$ conditions on quadrics lies on a rational normal curve.

Proof. Let $\left\{H_{i}(\lambda)\right\}$ (for $i=1, \ldots, n$ ) and $\{H(\lambda)\}$ be the families of hyperplanes passing through $P_{1}, \ldots, \hat{P}_{i}, \ldots, P_{n}($ for $i=1, \ldots, n)$ and $P_{n+1}, \ldots, P_{2 n-1}$ respectively, parameterized by $\lambda \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$ so that

- $P_{2 n} \in H(0), H_{i}(0)$, for all $i$,
- $P_{2 n+1} \in H(1), H_{i}(1)$, for all $i$,
- $P_{2 n+2} \in H(\infty), H_{i}(\infty)$, for all $i$.

Let $Q_{i}:=\bigcup_{\lambda}\left(H_{i}(\lambda) \cap H(\lambda)\right)$, we know that this is a quadric. Since $Q_{i}$ contains $P_{1}, \ldots, \hat{P}_{i}, \ldots, P_{2 n+2}$, then it contains all the points $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{d}$ (because $2 n+1$ points in general linear position impose independent conditions on quadrics), in particular we have $P_{2 n+3}, \ldots, P_{d} \in H_{1}(\lambda) \cap \ldots \cap H_{n}(\lambda)$ for the same $\lambda$.
Now let $C:=\bigcup_{\lambda}\left(H_{1}(\lambda) \cap \ldots \cap H_{n}(\lambda)\right)$, then it is a rational normal curve (as seen in section 5.14.1(2)) and it contains $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}, P_{2 n}, \ldots, P_{d}$.
Analogously any $d-n+1(>n+3)$ of the points $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{d}$ lie on a rational normal curve. Since a rational normal curve is determined by any $n+3$ points (see Remark 5.14.3(1)), then all the points $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{d}$ lie on a rational normal curve.

### 5.14.3 Rational normal scroll

Before seeing the Enriques-Petri's Theorem, we want to introduce some notions about surfaces.

## Definition 5.14.5.

1. As a surface we mean a projective variety of dimension 2 over an algebraically closed field $k$.
As a curve on a surface we mean an effective divisor (not necessarily smooth or irreducible).
2. Let $C, D$ be two curves on a smooth surface $S$. We say that they meet transversally at a point $P \in C \cap D$ if the local equation $f, g$ of $C, D$ at $P$ generate the maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}_{S, P}$.
Moreover there is a unique pairing $\cdot: \operatorname{Div}(X) \times \operatorname{Div}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ such that

- if $C, D$ are smooth curves meeting transversally, then $C \cdot D=\sharp(C \cap D)$. Note that if $C$ is smooth and irreducible, then $C \cdot D=\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}(D)_{\mid C}\right)$.
- $C \cdot D=D \cdot C$.
- $\left(C+C^{\prime}\right) \cdot D=C \cdot D+C^{\prime} \cdot D$.
- if $C \sim C^{\prime}$, then $C \cdot D=C^{\prime} \cdot D$.
(see [9, Theorem V.1.1])
In particular let $D$ be a very ample divisor on $S$, which gives a closed embedding in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$, then for any curve $C$ on $S, C \cdot D=\operatorname{deg}(C)$.
(see [9, Ex.V.1.2]).

3. The degree of a surface $S \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is $\operatorname{deg}(S)=\sharp\left(S \cap H \cap H^{\prime}\right)$ where $H, H^{\prime}$ are general hyperplanes. If $S$ is smooth, $\operatorname{deg}(S)=D^{2}$ where $D \in\left|\mathcal{O}_{S}(1)\right|$ (see [9, Ex.V.1.2]).

At the beginning of this section, we defined a Veronese surface, which is a special case of surface of minimal degree. Now we want to define a rational normal scroll.

## Definition 5.14.6.

1. Let $C$ be a curve and let $\mathcal{E}$ be a locally free sheaf on $C$.

According to [9, Chapter II.7], we can define $P(\mathcal{E})$ and $\mathcal{O}_{P(\varepsilon)}(1)$.
Let $\mathcal{S}=\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{E})=\oplus_{d \geq 0} \mathcal{S}^{d}(\mathcal{E})$ be the symmetric algebra of $\mathcal{E}$ (as defined in [9, Ex.II.5.16]). Explicitly (defined as presheaf): for any open subset $U$ of $\bar{C}$, we first define $\mathfrak{T}^{0}(\mathcal{E})(U)=\mathcal{O}_{C}(U)$ and $\mathfrak{T}^{d}(\mathcal{E})(U)=\mathcal{E}(U) \otimes \ldots \otimes \mathcal{E}(U)$ ( $d$ times) for $d \geq 1$, then we define $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{E})(U)=\oplus_{d \geq 0} \mathcal{T}^{d}(\mathcal{E})(U)$ and finally we define $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{E})(U)=\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{E})(U) /\langle x \otimes y-y \otimes x \mid x, y \in \overline{\mathcal{E}}(U)\rangle$.
Note that $\mathcal{S}$ is a sheaf of graded $\mathcal{O}_{C^{-}}$-algebras such that $\mathcal{S}^{0}=\mathcal{O}_{C}$ and $\mathcal{S}$ is generated by $\mathcal{S}^{1}$ as $\mathcal{O}_{C}$-algebra.
For any open affine subset $U=\operatorname{Spec} A$ of $C$ we have an $A$-algebra $\mathcal{S}(U)$ and a scheme $\operatorname{Proj} \mathcal{S}(U)$ with a projection $\pi_{U}: \operatorname{Proj} \mathcal{S}(U) \rightarrow U$. Gluing together these schemes we get the scheme $P(\mathcal{E})$ with the projection $\pi: P(\mathcal{E}) \rightarrow C$. Moreover gluing together the 1 -twist sheaves we get a sheaf called $\mathcal{O}_{P(\varepsilon)}(1)$.
2. Let $C$ be a curve and let $\mathcal{E}$ be a locally free sheaf on $C$ of rank 2 .

A ruled surface is a smooth surface $S=P(\mathcal{E})$.
In particular there is a projection $\pi: P(\mathcal{E}) \rightarrow C$ such that

1) every fiber is isomorphic to $\mathbb{P}^{1}$
2) there exists a section $\sigma: C \rightarrow P(\mathcal{E})$, that is a morphism s.t. $\pi \circ \sigma=i d_{C}$. By [9, Proposition V.2.8] there is a section $\sigma: C \rightarrow P(\mathcal{E})$ with image $C_{0}$ such that $\mathcal{O}_{S}\left(C_{0}\right) \cong \mathcal{O}_{P(\varepsilon)}(1)$.
3. A scroll is a ruled surface embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{r}$ in such a way that all the fibers $f$ have degree 1 .
4. Let $e \geq 0$.
$X_{e}=P(\mathcal{E})$ is the rational ruled surface over $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ with $\mathcal{E}=\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{1}} \oplus \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{1}}(-e)$. In this case, by [9, Proposition V.2.3 and V.2.9] we have

- $C_{0}^{2}=-e$
- $f^{2}=0$
- $C_{0} . f=1$

Moreover since $\operatorname{Pic}\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}\right)=\mathbb{Z}$, we have $\operatorname{Pic}\left(X_{e}\right)=\mathbb{Z} C_{0} \oplus \mathbb{Z} f$ (see $\sqrt{9}$, Proposition V.2.3]), hence we can consider every divisor of the form $a C_{0}+b f$. We can also consider the canonical divisor $K_{X_{e}}=-2 C_{0}+(-2-e) f$ (see 9, Corollary V.2.11]).
5. Let $e \geq 0$ and let $n \geq e$.

By [9, Theorem V.2.17] the linear system $\left|C_{0}+n f\right|$ on $X_{e}$ is basepoint-free, hence it corresponds to a morphism $\phi: X_{e} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{r}$.
A rational normal scroll is a surface which is image of a such morphism.
(Note that this is a scroll, by Remark 5.14.7(2a)).

## Remark 5.14.7.

1. Let $S$ be a smooth surface and let $C$ be a curve on $S$.

Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a line bundle on $S$ generated by global sections.
Let $r: \Gamma(S, \mathcal{L}) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(C, \mathcal{L}_{\mid C}\right), \sigma \mapsto \sigma_{\mid C}$ and let $V=\operatorname{Im}(r)$.
We have a morphism $\phi_{\mathcal{L}}$ associated to $\Gamma(S, \mathcal{L})$ and a morphism $\phi_{V}$ associated to $V$. Then $\phi_{\mathcal{L} \mid C}=\phi_{V}$.
2. Let $S=X_{e}$ and let $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{O}_{S}\left(C_{0}+n f\right)$, with $n \geq e$. We have that
(a) $\phi_{\mathcal{L}}(f)$ is a line.

In particular a rational normal scroll is a scroll.
(b) Let $D:=\phi_{\mathcal{L}}^{-1}(X)$ be the preimage of a smooth irreducible curve $X$. Then $\operatorname{deg}(X)=\left(C_{0}+n f\right) \cdot D$.

Proof.

1. First, note that $V$ is basepoint-free: indeed for any $x \in C$, then $x \in S$. Since $\mathcal{L}$ is generated by global sections, there is $\sigma \in \Gamma(S, \mathcal{L})$ such that $\sigma(x) \neq 0$; hence we have $\sigma_{\mid C} \in V$ and $\sigma_{\mid C}(x)=\sigma(x) \neq 0$. By Remark 4.7.1 (2), $V$ is basepoint-free.

Now, we recall that $\mathcal{O}_{S}(-C)$ is the ideal sheaf of $C$. We have a short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{S}(-C) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{C} \rightarrow 0
$$

Tensoring with $\mathcal{L}$ we get

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(-C) \rightarrow \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{\mid C} \rightarrow 0
$$

It induces a left-exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \Gamma(S, \mathcal{L}(-C)) \rightarrow \Gamma(S, \mathcal{L}) \xrightarrow{r} \Gamma\left(C, \mathcal{L}_{\mid C}\right)
$$

Hence there is a basis $\left\{\sigma_{0}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}\right\}$ of $\Gamma(S, \mathcal{L})$ such that $\left\{\sigma_{0}, \ldots, \sigma_{s}\right\}$ is basis of $\Gamma(S, \mathcal{L}(-C))$ and $\left\{\sigma_{s+1 \mid C}, \ldots, \sigma_{r \mid C}\right\}$ is basis of $V$.
Consider the map $\phi_{\mathcal{L}}: S \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{r}, x \mapsto\left(\sigma_{0}(x): \ldots: \sigma_{r}(x)\right)$.
If $x \in C$, then $\sigma_{0}(x)=\ldots=\sigma_{s}(x)=0$; hence we get a commutative diagram

where $j:\left(x_{s+1}: \ldots: x_{r}\right) \mapsto\left(0: \ldots: 0: x_{s+1}: \ldots: x_{r}\right)$.
2. (a) We have that $\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}_{\mid f}\right)=\mathcal{L} \cdot f=\left(C_{0}+n f\right) \cdot f=1$. Since $f \cong \mathbb{P}^{1}$, then $\mathcal{L}_{\mid f} \cong \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{1}}(1)$.
Let $V$ be defined as in 1 (with $C=f$ ). We have that:
i) $\operatorname{dim} V \geq 1$ (because $V$ is basepoint-free, as seen in 1 ).
ii) $\operatorname{dim} V \leq \operatorname{dim} \Gamma\left(f, \mathcal{L}_{\mid f}\right)=\operatorname{dim} \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}, \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{1}}(1)\right)=2$.

We can conclude that $\operatorname{dim} V=2$ : otherwise if $\operatorname{dim} V=1$, then $V=k \sigma$ where $\sigma$ has no zeros; but $\sigma \in \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}, \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{1}}(1)\right)$, hence it has a zero.
Now we have $V=\Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}, \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{1}}(1)\right)$. By $1, \phi_{\mathcal{L}}(f)=\phi_{\left|0_{\mathbb{P}^{1}}(1)\right|}\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}\right)$ is a line.
(b) If $n>e, C_{0}+n f$ is very ample (see Remark 5.14.8(1)). By 99, Ex.V.1.2], we have $\operatorname{deg}(X)=\left(C_{0}+n f\right) \cdot D$.
If $n=e, \phi_{\mathcal{L}}\left(X_{e}\right)$ is a cone of vertex $P$ (see again Remark 5.14.8(1)). By |9, Example V.2.11.4], $\phi_{\mathcal{L}}$ is the blowing-up of the cone in $P$ (see |9, Chapter II.7] for the definition of blowing-up) and $\phi_{\mathcal{L}}^{-1}(P)=C_{0}$; hence $\phi_{\mathcal{L} \mid X_{e} \backslash C_{0}}$ is an isomorphism (by [9, Proposition II.7.13]). Since $\phi_{\mathcal{L}}(D)=X$ is smooth, $D$ meets $C_{0}$ in either 0 or 1 point. Hence $\phi_{\mathcal{L} \mid D}$ is a closed embedding. Note that $\phi_{\mathcal{L} \mid D}=\phi_{V}$ as in 1 . We have $\operatorname{deg}(X)=\operatorname{deg}\left(\phi_{V}^{*} \mathcal{O}(1)\right)=\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathcal{L}_{\mid D}\right)=\left(C_{0}+e f\right) \cdot D$.

## Remark 5.14.8.

1. A rational normal scroll $S$ is either a cone (if $n=e$ ) or smooth (if $n>e$ ):

- $[n=e]$ Since $\left(C_{0}+e f\right) \cdot C_{0}=0, C_{0}$ is contracted to a point $P$ (the vertex of the cone). Moreover any fiber $f$ is mapped to a line passing through $P$ : indeed $f \cdot C_{0}=1$, hence $f$ meets $C_{0}$ in a point and the image of $f$ passes through $P$.
- $[n>e]$ By [9, Theorem V.2.17] $C_{0}+n f$ is very ample, hence the corresponding map $\phi$ is a closed embedding, in particular $S$ is smooth. Moreover in this case we can see:
a) $\operatorname{deg}(S)=\left(C_{0}+n f\right)^{2}=2 n-e$,
b) $S$ is embedded (via $\phi$ ) in $\mathbb{P}^{2 n-e+1}$ (by [9, Corollary V.2.19]).

2. del Pezzo's Theorem (see [7, Ch. 4, sec. 3, p. 525]).

A non-degenerate surface in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ of degree $n-1$ is either a Veronese surface or a rational normal scroll.

### 5.14.4 Enriques-Petri's Theorem

## Lemma 5.14.9.

Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}(n \geq 2)$ be a canonical curve (note that it has genus $g=n+1$ ).
Let $S:=\bigcap_{X \subseteq Q} Q$ be the intersection of quadrics in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ containing $X$.

1. The points of a general hyperplane section $X \cap \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ impose only $2 n-1$ conditions on quadrics.
2. Let $P \in \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be a point not lying on infinitely many secant lines of $X$.

Taken a general hyperplane $H$ passing through $P$ we consider the points $\{P\} \cup(X \cap H)$. We have that
(a) they are in general linear position (in $H=\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ ),
(b) if $P \in S$, then they impose only $2 n-1$ conditions on quadrics.
3. Let $g \geq 4$.

If $X \subsetneq S$ then there is a point $P \in S \backslash X$ not lying on infinitely many secant lines of $X$.

Proof.

1. In analogous way as in the proof of Proposition 5.12.2, we can see that:
a) $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}, \mathcal{O}(2)\right)=\binom{n+2}{2}=\frac{(n+2)(n+1)}{2}$,
b) $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma(X, \mathcal{O}(2))=2(2 g-2)+1-g=3 n$,
c) $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}, \mathcal{J}(2)\right) \geq \frac{(n+2)(n+1)}{2}-3 n=\frac{(n-2)(n-1)}{2}$.

Now, let $W$ be the linear system of quadrics of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ containing $X$. It has dimension at least $\frac{(n-2)(n-1)}{2}-1$ (by c).
Since no quadric containing $C$ can contain a hyperplane, the restriction $W_{\mid \mathbb{P}^{n-1}}$ of $W$ to a hyperplane $\mathbb{P}^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is injective. Hence the linear system of quadrics of $\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ containing $X \cap \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ (which contains $W_{\mathbb{P}^{n-1}}$ ) has dimension at least $\frac{(n-2)(n-1)}{2}-1$.
The linear system of quadrics of $\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ has dimension $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}-1$ (by a).
It follows that the points of $X \cap \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ impose only $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}-\frac{(n-2)(n-1)}{2}=2 n-1$ conditions on quadrics.
2. (a) Note that

- Since $H \ni P$ is general, then $H$ contains no secant lines of $X$ passing through $P$ (which are finitely many).
- The projection $\phi: X \rightarrow M$ from $P$ to a hyperplane $M=\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ gives a bijection $\phi_{\mid X \cap H}: X \cap H \rightarrow \phi(X) \cap H^{\prime}$, where $H^{\prime}=H \cap M$ : indeed for any $Q \in X \cap H$, the secant line $\overline{P Q}$ is contained in $H$, hence $\phi(Q) \in \overline{P Q} \subseteq H$, and hence $\phi(Q) \in \phi(X) \cap H^{\prime}$. On the other hand for any $R \in \phi(X) \cap H^{\prime}$, there is $Q \in X$ such that $\phi(Q)=R$, in particular $Q \in \overline{R P} \subseteq H . \overline{R P}$ cannot contain another point of $X$ (otherwise it would be a secant line of $X$ passing through $P$ contained in $H$ ), hence $Q$ is unique.
- $\phi(X)$ is non-degenerate: indeed assume $\phi(X) \subseteq H^{\prime \prime}$ where $H^{\prime \prime}$ is a hyperplane of $M$. Let $\left\langle P, H^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle$ be the hyperplane of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ containing $P$ and $H^{\prime \prime}$. For any $Q \in X$, we have $Q \in \overline{P \phi(Q)} \subseteq\left\langle P, H^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle$; hence $X \subseteq\left\langle P, H^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle$. This is a contradiction, because $X$ is nondegenerate.
- $H^{\prime}$ is a general hyperplane of $M$ : indeed there is a surjective map $\left\{\right.$ hyperplanes of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ containing $\left.P\right\} \rightarrow\{$ hyperplanes of $M\}$, $H \mapsto H^{\prime}=H \cap M$, which is surjective because for any hyperplane $H^{\prime}$ of $M,\left\langle P, H^{\prime}\right\rangle \cap M=H^{\prime}$.
First, we want to show that $P$ and any $n-1$ points of $X \cap H$ are in general linear position. In other words we want to show that, taken $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n-1} \in X \cap H$, then $P \notin\left\langle P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n-1}\right\rangle$
(where $\left\langle P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n-1}\right\rangle$ is the linear variety spanned by $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n-1}$ ):
set $\mathbb{P}^{n}=\mathbb{P}(V)$ with $P=[v], P_{i}=\left[v_{i}\right]$, and set $M=\mathbb{P}^{n-1}=\mathbb{P}(W)$ such that $V=\langle v\rangle \oplus W$. We have $v_{i}=a_{i} v+w_{i}\left(a_{i} \in k\right)$ and
$\phi\left(P_{i}\right)=\left[w_{i}\right] \in M$. By [7, Ch.2, s.3, p.249, Lemma] $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n-1}$ are independent (because $\phi(X)$ is non-degenerate and $H^{\prime}$ is general). If we assume $P \in\left\langle P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n-1}\right\rangle$, that is $v \in\left\langle v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n-1}\right\rangle$, then for some $b_{i} \in k(1 \leq i \leq n-1)$ we have $v=\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} b_{i} v_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} b_{i} a_{i} v+\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} b_{i} w_{i}$, hence $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} b_{i} w_{i}=0$, and hence $b_{i}=0$ for all $i$, that is $v=0$. Contradiction.
Now, we want to show that for a general hyperplane $H$ containing $P$, the points $X \cap H$ are in general linear position. In other words we want to show that, taken $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n} \in X \cap H$, then $H=\left\langle P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\rangle$ :
note that if $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n-1}$ (defined above) are dependent, then there is $\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right) \neq(0, \ldots, 0)$ s.t. $0=\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} b_{i} v_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} b_{i} a_{i} v+\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} b_{i} w_{i}$, and then $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} b_{i} w_{i}=0$, but this is not possible because the $w_{i}$ are independent. We can conclude that $\operatorname{dim}\left\langle P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n-1}\right\rangle=n-2$.
We assume that there exist $n$ points $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}$ s.t. $\left\langle P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\rangle \neq H$ for a general hyperplane $H$ containing $P$, that is $\operatorname{dim}\left\langle P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\rangle \leq n-2$. Therefore $\left\langle P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\rangle=\left\langle P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n-1}\right\rangle$. Since $P \notin\left\langle P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n-1}\right\rangle$, we have $\operatorname{dim}\left\langle P, P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\rangle=n-1$, that is $\left\langle P, P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\rangle=H$.
Let $\operatorname{Hyp}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$ be the variety of hyperplanes in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.
We define $J=\left\{\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}, H\right) \mid H \in \operatorname{Hyp}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right), P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n} \in X \cap H\right.$, and $\left.\operatorname{dim}\left\langle P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\rangle \leq n-2\right\} \subseteq X^{n} \times \operatorname{Hyp}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$.
We consider the projection $\pi_{1}: J \rightarrow X^{n}$.
There is a rational map $\pi_{1}(J) \rightarrow$ \{hyperplanes of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ containing $\left.P\right\}$, $\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right) \mapsto\left\langle P, P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\rangle$ that is defined on a dense open subset of $\pi_{1}(J)$ and whose image contains an open subset of \{hyperplanes containing $P\}$, by what we have seen above.
It follows that $\operatorname{dim} \pi_{1}(J) \geq \operatorname{dim}\{$ hyperplanes containing $P\}=n-1$. Let $\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right) \in \pi_{1}(J)$ be general, then $\operatorname{dim}\left\langle P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\rangle \leq n-2$, and then $\operatorname{dim}\left\{\right.$ hyperplanes of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ containing $\left.\left\langle P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\rangle\right\} \geq 1$, in particular we have $\operatorname{dim} \pi_{1}^{-1}\left(\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right)\right) \geq 1$.
By [3, Teorema 4.7.1], $\operatorname{dim} J=\operatorname{dim} \pi_{1}(J)+\operatorname{dim} \pi_{1}^{-1}\left(\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right)\right) \geq n$. Consider now the projection $\pi_{2}: J \rightarrow \operatorname{Hyp}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$. Since for any hyperplane $H, \sharp(X \cap H)$ is finite, then $\pi_{2}$ has finite fibers; hence by [3, Teorema 4.7.1] $\operatorname{dim} \pi_{2}(J)=\operatorname{dim} J+0 \geq n$. Hence $\pi_{2}(J)=\operatorname{Hyp}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$; that is for any hyperplane $H$, the points $X \cap H$ are not in general linear position in $H$. By 7 , Ch.2, s.3, p.249, Lemma], this is a contradiction.
(b) Consider the linear systems $W_{\mid H}=\left\{Q \cap H \mid Q\right.$ is a quadric in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ containing $X\}$ and $U=\{$ quadrics in $H$ containing $P \cup(X \cap H)\}$.
We have $W_{\mid H} \subseteq U$ : indeed let $Q$ be a quadric in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ containing $X$, then $X \cap H \subseteq Q \cap H$. Moreover $P \in S \subseteq Q$ and $P \in H$, hence $P \cup(X \cap H) \subseteq Q \cap H$.
As in 1, the points $\{P\} \cup(X \cap H)$ impose only $2 n-1$ conditions on quadrics.

3. We define $\operatorname{Cor}(X)$ the variety of secant lines of $X$.

Let $P^{\prime} \in S \backslash X$. We can assume that $P^{\prime}$ lies on infinitely many secant lines of $X$ (otherwise we can take $P=P^{\prime}$ ).
Let $S^{\prime}$ be the surface given by the union of secant lines of $X$ containing $P^{\prime}$.

Let $J:=\left\{(Q, L) \mid Q \in S^{\prime}, L \in \operatorname{Cor}(X), L \ni Q\right\} \subseteq S^{\prime} \times \operatorname{Cor}(X)$.
We consider the projection $\pi_{1}: J \rightarrow S^{\prime}$. This is surjective: indeed for any $Q \in S^{\prime}$ there is a secant line $L$ of $X$ containing $Q$, hence $Q=\pi_{1}(Q, L)$.
Let $Q \in S^{\prime}$ be a general point. We want to show that $\operatorname{dim} \pi_{1}^{-1}(Q)=0$, so that we can take $P=Q$.
We assume that $\operatorname{dim} \pi_{1}^{-1}(Q) \geq 1$. By [3, Teorema 4.7.1], we have that $\operatorname{dim} J=\operatorname{dim} S^{\prime}+\operatorname{dim} \pi_{1}^{-1}(Q) \geq 2+1=3$; hence there is an irreducible component $Z$ of $J$ such that $\operatorname{dim} Z \geq 3$.
Now we consider the projection $\pi_{2}: J \rightarrow \operatorname{Cor}(X)$.
Let $L \in \pi_{2}(Z)$ be a general element. By [3. Teorema 4.7.1], we have that $\operatorname{dim} \pi_{2}^{-1}(L)=\operatorname{dim} Z-\operatorname{dim} \pi_{2 \mid Z}(Z) \geq 3-\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Cor}(X)=3-2=1$. On the other hand $\left.\pi_{2}\right|_{Z} ^{-1}(L) \subseteq \pi_{2}^{-1}(L) \cong L \cap S^{\prime} \subseteq L$, hence $\operatorname{dim} \pi_{2}{ }_{\mid Z}^{-1}(L)=1$.
Hence $L \cap S^{\prime}=L$, that is $L \subseteq S^{\prime}$.
Moreover $\operatorname{dim} \pi_{2}(Z)=\operatorname{dim} Z-\operatorname{dim} \pi_{2 \mid Z}^{-1}(L) \geq 3-1=2$. On the other hand $\pi_{2}(Z) \subseteq \operatorname{Cor}(X)$, hence $\pi_{2}(Z)=\operatorname{Cor}(X)$.
It follows that $L \subseteq S^{\prime}, \forall L \in \operatorname{Cor}(X)$. Hence $S^{\prime}=\bigcup_{L \in \operatorname{Cor}(X)} L=\operatorname{Sec}(X)$. This is a contradiction, because $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Sec}(X)=3$ (since $X$ is non-degenerate).

Theorem 5.14.10 (Enriques-Petri's Theorem for genus 5). Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^{4}$ be a canonical curve (of genus 5), then either

- $X$ is an intersection of quadrics, or
- $X$ is trigonal (in which case, the intersection of quadrics containing $X$ is a rational normal scroll).

More generally, this theorem holds for every genus, with the exception that for $g=6$ there is a third possibility, that is $X$ is a plane quintic (in which case, the intersection of quadrics containing $X$ is a Veronese surface). See [7, Chapter 4, section 3, p. 535].
In our case $(g=5)$, the rational normal scroll is $X_{1}$ embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{4}$ via $\left|C_{0}+2 f\right|$. (Moreover $X \sim 3 C_{0}+5 f$ ).

Proof. Let $S:=\bigcap_{X \subset Q} Q$ be the intersection of quadrics containing $X$.
We saw in section 5.13 that if $X$ is an intersection of quadrics, then it is not trigonal. Now assume that $X$ is not an intersection of quadrics, that is $X \subsetneq S$.
By Lemma 5.14.9(3) we may choose a point $P \in S \backslash X$ not lying on infinitely many secant lines of $X$.
We recall that our curve in $\mathbb{P}^{4}$ has genus $g=5$ and degree $d=8$.
Let $M=\mathbb{P}^{3}$ be a general hyperplane containing $P$. By Lemma 5.14.9(2), the 9 points $\{P\} \cup(X \cap M)$ are in general linear position and they impose 7 conditions on quadrics. Applying Lemma 5.14 .4 in $M$, we get that these points lie on a rational normal curve $C$ (note that $C$ has degree 3 ).
Since any quadric $Q$ containing $X$ meets $C$ in the $8(>6)$ points $X \cap M$, then any such $Q$ contains $C$, hence $C \subseteq S$.
On the other hand, by Proposition 5.14.3(2), $C=\cap_{C \subseteq Q^{\prime}} Q^{\prime}$ is an intersection of quadrics $Q^{\prime}$ of $M$. We consider the two linear systems $W_{\mid M}:=\{Q \cap M \mid Q$ is a
quadric of $\mathbb{P}^{4}$ containing $\left.X\right\}$ and $W^{\prime}:=\left\{Q^{\prime} \mid Q^{\prime}\right.$ is a quadric of $M$ containing $\left.C\right\}$. Since for any quadric $Q$ containing $X, Q \cap M$ is a quadric of $M$ containing $C$, then $W_{\mid M} \subseteq W^{\prime}$. As seen in the proof of Lemma $5.14 .9(1), \operatorname{dim} W_{\mid M} \geq \frac{2 \cdot 3}{2}-1=2$. Since $C$ is a rational normal curve in $M=\mathbb{P}^{3}$, $\operatorname{dim} W^{\prime}=2$ (by [3, Osservazione 4.1.2]). Hence $W_{\mid M}=W^{\prime}$, and $S \cap M=C$.

It follows that $S$ is a surface of degree 3 in $\mathbb{P}^{4}$. By Remark 5.14.8(2), $S$ is a rational normal scroll. (Note that $S$ cannot be a Veronese surface, otherwise it would be a non-degenerate surface in $\mathbb{P}^{5}$ ).
Now since $n \geq e \geq 0$ and $4=2 n-e+1$ we have two cases, that is either:
(a) $n=e=3$ ( $S$ is a cone), or
(b) $n=2, e=1(S$ is smooth).

We consider the map $\phi: X_{e} \rightarrow S \subset \mathbb{P}^{4}$ given by $\left|C_{0}+n f\right|$ and we take the smooth curve $D=\phi^{-1}(X) \cong X$. We have
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}D \cdot\left(C_{0}+n f\right)=\operatorname{deg}(X)=8(\text { by Remark } 5.14 .7 \text { (2b) }) \\ D \cdot\left(D+K_{X_{e}}\right)=2 g-2=8 \text { (by the Adjunction Formula, see [9, Prop.V.1.5]) }\end{array}\right.$
We can set $D=a C_{0}+b f$ and $K_{X_{e}}=-2 C_{0}+(-2-e) f$, hence we have
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}-e a+b+n a=8 \\ -e a(a-2)+b(a-2)+a(b-2-e)=8\end{array}\right.$
We study the two possible cases:
(a) if $n=e=3$, then the system above has one integer solution: $a=3, b=8$.
(b) if $n=2, e=1$, then the system above has one integer solution: $a=3, b=5$.

By [9, Corollary V.2.18(b)] the only possible case is $n=2, e=1, a=3, b=5$.
In particular $S$ is smooth and $D=3 C_{0}+5 f$ (in detail $S$ is $X_{1}$ embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{4}$ via $\left|C_{0}+2 f\right|$. Since $f \cdot D=3$, a fiber is mapped to a trisecant line of $X$. By Remark 5.13.2, $X$ is trigonal.

### 5.14.5 Trigonal canonical curves of genus 5

We saw that non-hyperelliptic curves of genus 5 are either trigonal or complete intersection of three quadrics. Now, we want to give a better description of the trigonal case.
Let $X$ be a canonical curve of genus 5 which is trigonal, then the $g_{3}^{1}$ gives infinitely many secant lines of $X$ (as seen in section 5.13). By Theorem 5.14.10, the union of such lines is a rational normal scroll $S$, or better it is $X_{1}$ embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{4}$ via $\left|C_{0}+2 f\right|$. Since $X \sim 3 C_{0}+5 f$, we have that $X+f \sim 3 C_{0}+6 f \in\left|3\left(C_{0}+2 f\right)\right|$. Since $\left|3\left(C_{0}+2 f\right)\right|$ is the linear system cut out by cubics in $\mathbb{P}^{4}$, then there is a line $L \subset \mathbb{P}^{4}$ and a cubic hypersurface $F \subset \mathbb{P}^{4}$ containing $X$ such that $X \cup L=S \cap F$. We say that $X$ is residue of a line in the intersection $S \cap F$.

### 5.15 Exhibition about canonical curves of higher genus

We conclude with a brief exhibition about canonical curves of higher genus. First, we give the definition of extendable variety.

Definition 5.15.1. Let $Y \subset \mathbb{P}^{r}$ be a variety.
$Y$ is extendable if there exists a variety $Z \subset \mathbb{P}^{r+1}$ such that $Z \cap \mathbb{P}^{r}=Y$ and $Z$ is not a cone over $Y$.

Remark 5.15.2. Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^{g-1}$ be a canonical curve of genus $g$.
If $X$ is extendable to a smooth surface $S \subset \mathbb{P}^{g}$, then $S$ is a K3-surface (i.e. a smooth proper geometrically connected surface with trivial canonical bundle $K_{S} \sim 0$ and $\left.\operatorname{dim}_{k} H^{1}\left(S, \mathcal{O}_{S}\right)=0\right)$.

Proof. Let $X=S \cap H$, where $H$ is a hyperplane of $\mathbb{P}^{g}$.
First, by the Adjunction Formula (see [7, Ch.1, s.1, p.147]) we have that $O_{X}(H) \cong O_{X}\left(K_{X}\right) \cong O_{X}\left(H+K_{S}\right)$; hence $O_{X}\left(K_{S}\right) \cong O_{X}$.
Since the map $\operatorname{Pic}(S) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pic}(X), \mathcal{L} \mapsto \mathcal{L}_{\mid X}$ is injective (see [8, Exposé XII, Cor. 3.6]), we have $O_{S}\left(K_{S}\right) \cong O_{S}$.

Now, consider the short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow O_{S} \rightarrow O_{S}(1) \rightarrow O_{X}(1) \rightarrow 0
$$

By Kodaira Vanishing Theorem (see [9, Remark III.7.15]), we have that $H^{1}\left(O_{S}(1)\right)=H^{1}\left(K_{S}+H\right)=0$; hence by the long exact sequence of cohomology we get

$$
0 \rightarrow H^{0}\left(O_{S}\right) \rightarrow H^{0}\left(O_{S}(1)\right) \rightarrow H^{0}\left(O_{X}(1)\right) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(O_{S}\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

We know that $h^{0}\left(O_{S}\right)=1$ and $h^{0}\left(O_{X}(1)\right)=g$, hence $h^{0}\left(O_{S}(1)\right) \leq g+1$.
But $S$ is embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{g}$, hence $h^{0}\left(O_{S}(1)\right) \geq g+1$, or better $h^{0}\left(O_{S}(1)\right)=g+1$. By exactness, we have $H^{1}\left(O_{S}\right)=0$.

Let $X \subset \mathbb{P}^{g-1}$ be a canonical curve of genus $g \geq 3$.
The question is: when is $X$ extendable? If extendable, when is it a hyperplane section of a smooth surface, i.e. of a K3-surface (in this case we say K3-extendable)? For example if $g=3$, then $X$ is a plane curve, hence extendable.
If $g=4$, we showed that $X=Q \cap F$ is a complete intersection in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$ of a quadric $Q$ and a cubic $F$. We can see that there are a quadric $Q^{\prime}$ and a cubic $F^{\prime}$ in $\mathbb{P}^{4}$ such that $Q^{\prime} \cap \mathbb{P}^{3}=Q, F^{\prime} \cap \mathbb{P}^{3}=F$ and $Q^{\prime} \cap F^{\prime}$ is not a cone. It follows that $X$ is K3-extendable. If $g=5$ and $X$ is not trigonal, it is analogous.
Mukai showed that this still happens for $g \leq 9$ (see [16, §6]). He showed more:

- If $g=6$, then $X$ is a linear section of a quadric section of the Grassmannian $G(2,5)$ embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{9}$ via Plücker if and only if $X$ has at most finitely many $g_{6}^{2}$. See [15, §6] and [1, Proposition 1.2].
- If $g=7$, then $X$ is a linear section of the Orthogonal Grassmannian $O G(5,10)$ embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{15}$ and 9 hyperplanes if and only if $X$ has no $g_{4}^{1}$. See [14, Theorem 2].
- If $g=8$, then $X$ is a linear section of the Grassmannian $G(2,6)$ embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{14}$ via Plücker if and only if $X$ has no $g_{7}^{2}$. See [14, Theorem 1].
- If $g=9$, then $X$ is a linear section of the Symplectic Grassmannian $\operatorname{Sp} G(3,6)$ embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{13}$ if and only if $X$ has no $g_{5}^{1}$. See [14, Theorem 2].

Moreover a general curve of degree 11 is K3-extendable (see [13|), but a general curve of degree 10 is not K3-extendable (see [16, Theorem 0.7]). Finally, as we can see in [16, §0], the space $M_{g}$ of curves of genus $g$ has dimension $3 g-3$; on the other hand the space $F_{g}$ of pairs $(S, X)$ of a K3-surface $S$ and a curve $X \subset S$ of genus $g$ has dimension $19+g$. Since there is a map $F_{g} \rightarrow M_{g},(S, X) \mapsto X$ which cannot be surjective if $19+g<3 g-3$ (i.e. $g>11$ ), we can conclude that a general curve of degree at least 12 is not K3-extendable.
Finally, about extendability, we can see:
Theorem 5.15.3 (Zak, see [20] and [11]).
Let $X \subset P^{r}$ be a smooth variety of codimension at least 2 .
Let $N_{X}$ be the normal bundle of $X$.
If $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(X, N_{X}(-1)\right) \leq r+1$, then $X$ is not extendable.
Theorem 5.15.4 (Wahl, see |19|).
Let $X \subset P^{g-1}$ be a canonical curve.
Let $\Phi_{\omega_{X}}: \Lambda^{2} \Gamma\left(X, \omega_{X}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(X, \omega_{X}^{\otimes 3}\right)$ be the Wahl map.
Then $\operatorname{dim}_{k} \Gamma\left(X, N_{X}(-1)\right)=g+\operatorname{corank}\left(\Phi_{\omega_{X}}\right)$.
Theorem 5.15.5 (Ciliberto-Harris-Miranda, see [4]).
Let $X \subset P^{g-1}$ be a general canonical curve.
If either $g=10$ or $g \geq 12$, then $\Phi_{\omega_{X}}$ is surjective.

## Corollary 5.15.6.

Let $X \subset P^{g-1}$ be a general canonical curve.
If either $g=10$ or $g \geq 12$, then $X$ is not extendable.
We can conclude that a general canonical curve of genus $g$ is extendable if and only if $g \leq 9$ or $g=11$ (and in this case it is K3-extendable).

### 5.16 Conclusion

Finally, we can summarize what has been shown so far about curves.
After having defined in the previous chapters three important tools (divisors, line bundles and linear systems), we adapted what we have seen about them to the case of curves, and we used it to achieve our goals, including that:
Every curve can be embedded in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$.
First of all we defined the main notions associated to a curve, such as the degree, the canonical divisor and the genus. The latter is an important invariant that allowed us to make a first distinction; in particular we focused on the cases of low genus and we showed that (up to isomorphism):

| Genus | Curves |
| :--- | :--- |
| $g=0$ | The only curve is $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ |
| $g=1$ | Plane cubic curve |

For $g \geq 2$ we distinguished two types of curves: hyperelliptic and non.
First we saw that: Every curve of genus 2 is hyperelliptic.
After that we studied the non-hyperelliptic case of low genus, and we saw that in this case we have:

| Genus | Canonical curves |
| :--- | :--- |
| $g=3$ | Plane curve of degree 4 |
| $g=4$ | Complete intersection in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$ of a quadric and a cubic |
| $g=5$ | Either trigonal or complete intersection in $\mathbb{P}^{4}$ of three quadrics |
| $g \geq 6$ | Not complete intersection in $\mathbb{P}^{g-1}$ |

In order to better describe a trigonal canonical curve $X$ of genus 5 , we showed that $X$ is contained in a rational normal scroll $S$ in $\mathbb{P}^{4}$ (where $S$ is the intersection of quadrics containing $X$ ). Such curve $X$ is residue of a line in the intersection of $S$ with a cubic.

Finally, we briefly saw an exhibition of results about the extendability of curves of higher genus. We have that: A canonical curve of genus at most 9 is K3-extendable. Moreover, for general curves we have:

| Genus | General curves |
| :--- | :--- |
| $g \leq 9$ | K3-extendable |
| $g=10$ | Not extendable |
| $g=11$ | K3-extendable |
| $g \geq 12$ | Not extendable |

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