Projective Planes and Beyond

Thematic Program on Rationality and Hyperbolicity

Undergraduate Workshop

Juan Migliore

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Slides available by emailing migliore.1@nd.edu or from the conference website.

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Lecture 3: Who or what lives in projective space?

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Lecture 3: Who or what lives in projective space?

Or: Projective varieties and graded rings

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Recall that classical projective planes \mathbb{P}^2_k were defined via

- 1-dimensional subspaces (points) and
- 2-dimensional subspaces (lines)
- of a 3-dimensional vector space.

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Recall that classical projective planes \mathbb{P}^2_k were defined via

- 1-dimensional subspaces (points) and
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of a 3-dimensional vector space.

Questions.

- What happens if we pass to an (n + 1)-dimensional vector space? (We'll define Pⁿ_k.)
- And are there other interesting subsets of \mathbb{P}^2_k or \mathbb{P}^n_k besides points and lines?

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A line through the origin passing through a point $(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ $((a, b, c) \neq (0, 0, 0))$ can be described as

 $\{(ta, tb, tc) \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

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So

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(E.g. [1,2,3] = [2,4,6] in $\mathbb{P}^2_{\mathbb{R}}$.)

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So

$$\mathbb{P}^2_{\mathbb{R}} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} (a,b,c) \neq (0,0,0) \text{ and} \\ [a,b,c] = [ta,tb,tc] \forall \ 0 \neq t \in \mathbb{R} \end{array} \right\}$$

(E.g. [1,2,3] = [2,4,6] in $\mathbb{P}^2_{\mathbb{R}}$.)

And the same works over any field k in place of \mathbb{R} . More precisely:

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A line through the origin in k^{n+1} passing through a point

$$(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in k^{n+1}, \ (a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) \neq (0, 0, \ldots, 0)$$

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$$\{(ta_0, ta_1, \ldots, ta_n) \mid t \in k\}.$$

So

$$\mathbb{P}_{k}^{n} = \begin{cases} [a_{0}, a_{1}, \dots, a_{n}] \\ [a_{0}, a_{1}, \dots, a_{n}] \\ [a_{0}, a_{1}, \dots, a_{n}] = [ta_{0}, ta_{1}, \dots, ta_{n}] \\ \forall \ 0 \neq t \in k \end{cases}$$

These are homogeneous coordinates for points in \mathbb{P}_{k}^{n} .

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In the same way that

a line in $\mathbb{P}^2_k \iff$ a 2-dimensional linear vector subspace of k^3 , we get

an *s*-dimensional linear variety in \mathbb{P}^n_k \longleftrightarrow

(s + 1)-dimensional (linear) vector subspace of k^{n+1}

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But we can do much more!

(Reference: Cox, Little and O'Shea.)

If $P \in \mathbb{P}_k^n$ is a point, it has n + 1 coordinates, each of which is an element of k.

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Thus for a polynomial *f* to vanish at *P*, *f* has to be a polynomial in n + 1 variables, with coefficients in *k*.

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So we focus on $R = k[x_0, x_1, ..., x_n]$.

Question: Let $P \in \mathbb{P}_k^n$ and $f \in R$. Is the statement

f vanishes at P

well-defined?

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Example 1. n = 2, P = [1, 2, 3], $f_1 = x_0 + x_1 + x_2 - 6$.

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Example 2. n = 2, P = [1, 2, 3], $f_2 = x_0 + x_1 - x_2$. $f_2(1, 2, 3) = 1 + 2 - 3 = 0$

and in fact

$$f_2(t, 2t, 3t) = t + 2t - 3t = 0$$
 for all t.

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$$f_1 = x_0 + x_1 + x_2 - 6$$
 and $f_2 = x_0 + x_1 - x_2$

is that f_2 is homogeneous while f_1 is not.

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and let

$$f \in \boldsymbol{R} = \boldsymbol{k}[\boldsymbol{x}_0, \boldsymbol{x}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_n]$$

be a homogeneous polynomial of degree d. Then

$$f(a_0,\ldots,a_n)=0$$
 iff $f(ta_0,\ldots,ta_n)=0$ $\forall t\in k$.

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Proof: $\forall t$, $f(ta_0, \ldots, ta_n) = t^d f(a_0, \ldots, a_n)$ (exercise).

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Notation. If $P = [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n]$, we write f(P) = 0 (when it's well-defined) in place of $f(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0$.

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Definition. A subset $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}_k^n$ is a projective algebraic variety if there exist homogeneous polynomials

$$f_1,\ldots,f_s\in R=k[x_0,x_1,\ldots,x_n]$$

such that

$$V = \left\{ \boldsymbol{P} \in \mathbb{P}_k^n \mid f_i(\boldsymbol{P}) = 0 \quad \text{for all} \quad 1 \leq i \leq s
ight\}.$$

We write $V = \mathbb{V}(f_1, \ldots, f_s)$. Note $\{f_1, \ldots, f_s\}$ is a finite set.

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What are the connections with projective varieties?

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$$\mathbb{V}(I) = \{ P \in \mathbb{P}_k^n \mid f(P) = 0 \ \forall f \in I \}.$$

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Proposition. $\mathbb{V}(I)$ is a projective variety.

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<u>Claim</u>: $\mathbb{V}(I) = \mathbb{V}(f_1, \ldots, f_s).$

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⊇: Let $P \in \mathbb{V}(f_1, ..., f_s)$ and $f \in I$ (not necessarily homogeneous). Then $f(P) = \sum_{i=1}^s A_i(P)f_i(P) = 0$.

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Definition.

 $\mathbb{I}(S) = \{ f \in R = k[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] \mid f(P) = 0 \text{ for all } P \in S \}.$

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Proposition. I(S) is a homogeneous ideal.

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It's clear that $\mathbb{I}(S)$ is an ideal: it's closed under addition and under multiplication by any element of R.

Only issue: why is it a homogeneous ideal?

$$f=f_0+f_1+f_2+\cdots+f_d$$

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We want to show that each $f_i \in \mathbb{I}(S)$.

Let
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We know $f(P) = 0$, and

$$P = [ta_0, ta_1, \ldots, ta_n]$$

for any $0 \neq t \in k$ (which, again, is infinite).

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So we have

$$\begin{cases} \text{varieties in } \mathbb{P}_k^n \} & \rightsquigarrow & \begin{cases} \text{homogeneous ideals} \\ \text{in } k[x_0, \dots, x_n] \end{cases} \\ V & \mapsto & \mathbb{I}(V) \end{cases}$$

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Questions. How are these maps related? Are they inverses of each other? Are there other relations?

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Proof: \supseteq : Let $P \in V$. We want to show that $P \in \mathbb{V}(\mathbb{I}(V))$.

I.e. We want to show that if $f \in \mathbb{I}(V)$ then f(P) = 0. Clear.

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Note for \subseteq it was crucial that *V* was a variety.

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Reversing the roles does not (quite) work:

Example. $I = \langle x_0^2 \rangle$. Then

$$\mathbb{I}(\mathbb{V}(I)) = \langle x_0 \rangle \subsetneq \langle x_0^2 \rangle.$$

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Definition. Given an ideal $I \subset R = k[x_0, ..., x_n]$, the radical of I is

$$\sqrt{I} = \{f \in R \mid f^t \in I \text{ for some } t \geq 1\}.$$

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Proposition. If I is homogeneous then so is \sqrt{I} . (Exercise.)

Theorem. (Hilbert's Projective Strong Nullstellensatz) Let k be algebraically closed. Let I be a homogeneous ideal. If V = V(I) is non-empty then

$$\mathbb{I}(\mathbb{V}(I)) = \sqrt{I}.$$

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Fact. (Largely Hilbert's Projective Strong Nullstellensatz.) Assume k is algebraically closed (e.g. $k = \mathbb{C}$). We have a bijection

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{nonempty} \\ \text{varieties in } \mathbb{P}_{k}^{n} \end{array} \right\} \iff \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{proper, radical} \\ \text{homogeneous ideals} \\ \text{in } k[x_{0}, \dots, x_{n}] \end{array} \right\}$$

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where \mathbb{V} and \mathbb{I} are inverses of each other; in particular

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

Hence $\mathbb V$ and $\mathbb I$ are order-reversing bijections that are inverses of each other.

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Fact. Unions and intersections of projective varieties are again projective varieties:

$$\mathbb{V}(I_1) \cup \mathbb{V}(I_2) = \mathbb{V}(I_1 \cap I_2).$$
$$\mathbb{V}(I_1) \cap \mathbb{V}(I_2) = \mathbb{V}(I_1 + I_2).$$

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In fact, finite unions and arbitrary intersections of projective varieties are again projective varieties.

Projective varieties form the closed sets in the Zariski topology for \mathbb{P}_k^n . (Details omitted.)

We want to talk about what it means for a set of points to impose independent conditions on forms of fixed degree d.

Then we'll talk about how you check if this holds or not for a given set and given degree.

To simplify things, let's do this by a series of examples.

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We want to talk about what it means for a set of points to impose independent conditions on forms of fixed degree d.

Then we'll talk about how you check if this holds or not for a given set and given degree.

To simplify things, let's do this by a series of examples.

Example 1. Let $P = [2, 3, 4] \in \mathbb{P}^2$ and fix the degree to be 3. How do we describe the set of homogeneous polynomials of degree 3 vanishing at P?

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To work in \mathbb{P}^2 we need 3 variables, say x, y, z. A typical homogeneous polynomial of degree 3 has the form

$$a_1x^3 + a_2x^2y + a_3x^2z + a_4xy^2 + a_5xyz + a_6xz^2 +$$

$$a_7y^3 + a_8y^2z + a_9yz^2 + a_{10}z^3$$
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To vanish at the point [2,3,4] means we need

$$a_1(2^3) + a_2(2^2)(3) + a_3(2^2)(4) + a_4(2)(3^2) + a_5(2)(3)(4) +$$

 $a_6(2)(4^2) + a_7(3^3) + a_8(3^2)(4) + a_9(3)(4^2) + a_{10}(4^3) = 0.$
i.e.

$$8a_1 + 12a_2 + 16a_3 + 18a_4 + 24a_5 + 32a_6 + 27a_7 +$$

$$36a_8 + 48a_9 + 64a_{10} = 0.$$

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So the condition on the polynomial

$$a_1x^3 + a_2x^2y + a_3x^2z + a_4xy^2 + a_5xyz + a_6xz^2 + a_7y^3 + a_8y^2z + a_9yz^2 + a_{10}z^3$$

to vanish at the point P = [2, 3, 4] is given by a homogeneous linear equation in the 10 variables a_1, \ldots, a_{10} .

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to vanish at the point P = [2, 3, 4] is given by a homogeneous linear equation in the 10 variables a_1, \ldots, a_{10} .

In the 10-dimensional vector space of forms of degree 3 in x, y, z, the solution space is 10 - 1 = 9 dimensional.

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Example 2. Suppose we have points $P_1, \ldots, P_7 \in \mathbb{P}^2$. How do we describe the homogeneous polynomials of degree 3 vanishing on these 7 points?

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Example 2. Suppose we have points $P_1, \ldots, P_7 \in \mathbb{P}^2$. How do we describe the homogeneous polynomials of degree 3 vanishing on these 7 points?

Each point corresponds to a homogeneous linear equation in a_1, \ldots, a_{10} .

So we get a system of seven homogeneous linear equations!

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Example 2. Suppose we have points $P_1, \ldots, P_7 \in \mathbb{P}^2$. How do we describe the homogeneous polynomials of degree 3 vanishing on these 7 points?

Each point corresponds to a homogeneous linear equation in a_1, \ldots, a_{10} .

So we get a system of seven homogeneous linear equations!

Each new equation "should" knock the dimension down by one.

How do we check if that's the case, i.e. if the points impose independent conditions?

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We want to know if our equations are independent.

That's true if and only if none of the equations is a linear combination of the other six.

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For example, what does it mean for the 7th equation to be a linear combination of the previous six?

It means that any solution of all the first six equations is automatically a solution of the 7th.

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For example, what does it mean for the 7th equation to be a linear combination of the previous six?

It means that any solution of all the first six equations is automatically a solution of the 7th.

Translation: it means that any homogenous polynomial of degree 3 that vanishes at the first six points has to vanish at the 7th point as well.

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Conclusion: The equations are independent if and only if the following statement is true:

Given any of the seven points, say P_i , you can find a homogeneous polynomial of degree 3 vanishing at the other six but not vanishing at P_i .

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Any cubic vanishing at all but P_7 also vanishes at P_7 .

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Conclusion: the points do not impose independent conditions on cubics.

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Exercise: For each of the points, P_i , find a cubic (union of 3 lines) containing the remaining 6 but not containing P_i .

Conclusion: the points do impose independent conditions on cubics.

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Remark. Let Z be a set of d points in \mathbb{P}^n .

Assume that the Hilbert function $h_{R/\mathbb{I}(Z)}(t) = d$ for some *t*. (We know it's true for $t \gg 0$.)

Then Z imposes independent conditions on homogeneous polynomials of degree t.

Why?

$$h_{R/\mathbb{I}(Z)}(t) = \dim R_t - \dim \mathbb{I}(Z)_t$$

SO

 $\dim \mathbf{R}_t - \dim \mathbb{I}(\mathbf{Z})_t = \mathbf{d} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \dim \mathbb{I}(\mathbf{Z})_t = \dim \mathbf{R}_t - \mathbf{d},$

i.e. the *d* points impose independent conditions.

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Hilbert functions and Hilbert polynomials for varieties

Let $V \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n$ be a projective variety. Let $R = k[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n]$.

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Since $\mathbb{I}(V)$ is a homogeneous ideal, the quotient $R/\mathbb{I}(V)$ is a standard graded *k*-algebra.

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 $h_V(t)$ conveys a lot of geometric information about V.

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 $h_V(t)$ conveys a lot of geometric information about V.

What follows are some illustrations, and are not central to this lecture.

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Theorem. (Hilbert-Serre) There is a polynomial $P_V(t) \in \mathbb{Q}[t]$ such that

$$P_V(t) = h_V(t)$$

for all $t \gg 0$.



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Fact.

1. dim $(V) = \deg(P_V(t))$. Call this integer *r*.

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2. deg(V) = (r!) · [leading coefficient of $P_V(t)$].

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2. deg(V) = $(r!) \cdot [$ leading coefficient of $P_V(t)]$.

3. The arithmetic genus of V is $p_a(V) = (-1)^r P_V(0) - 1$.

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Takeaway: the Hilbert polynomial comes from the Hilbert function, and it gives important information about V.

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Examples.

1. If V is a finite set of points then P_V is a constant, equal to the number of points.

deg(V) is equal to the number of points.

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Examples.

1. If V is a finite set of points then P_V is a constant, equal to the number of points.

deg(V) is equal to the number of points.

2. *V* is a curve if and only if $P_V(t)$ is a polynomial of degree 1. Then

$$P_V(t) = (\deg V)t - p_a(V) + 1.$$

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2.1 Let V be the so-called twisted cubic curve in $\mathbb{P}^3_{\mathbb{R}}$,

$$V = \{ [s^3, s^2t, st^2, t^3] \ [s, t] \in \mathbb{P}^1_{\mathbb{R}} \}.$$

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So V has degree 3 and arithmetic genus 0.

2.2 Let V be the complete intersection in \mathbb{P}^3_k of a surface of degree *a* and a surface of degree *b*.

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E.g. a = 2, b = 3 gives a curve of degree 6 and arithmetic genus 4.

- 2. (cont.)
 - 2.3 Let *V* be a curve of degree 6 and arithmetic genus 0 in \mathbb{P}^3_k (e.g. a smooth rational sextic curve).

Then $P_V(t) = 6t + 1$.

In particular for $t \gg 0$ (in fact $t \ge 3$ will do)

 $\dim[R/I(V)]_t = 6t + 1,$

SO

dim
$$[I(V)]_t = {\binom{t+3}{3}} - (6t+1) = \frac{1}{6}(t^3+6t^2-25t).$$

This gives the dimension of the vector space of forms of degree t vanishing on V.

Since the Hilbert function determines the Hilbert polynomial, it is (at least) as important.

In fact, looking at specific (low) degrees of the Hilbert function gives info you'd never spot from the Hilbert polynomial.

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