Introduction to Algebraic Geometry

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Subsection 1

[Plane Curves](#page-2-0)

Plane Curves

- \circ The ground field k is assumed to be algebraically closed with characteristic not equal to 2 or 3.
- A nonzero homogeneous polynomial $f \in k^d[x_0, x_1, x_2]$ of degree d defines a one-dimensional projective variety

$$
V(f) = \{ (x_0 : x_1 : x_2) : f(x_0, x_1, x_2) = 0 \} \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2_k,
$$

which we call a **plane curve**.

- For $c \in k^*$, the polynomials f and cf define the same curve.
- \bullet We distinguish between curves defined by f and by powers of f.

Irreducible Components

 \circ Suppose that f has a decomposition into irreducible factors

$$
f = f_1^{d_1} \cdots f_r^{d_r}
$$

(unique up to permutation and constant factors).

We write C as a formal sum

$$
C=d_1C_1+\cdots+d_rC_r,
$$

where $C_i := V(f_i)$.

 \bullet The curves C_i are called the **irreducible components** of C.

 \circ If f has no repeated components, then this corresponds to the decomposition of $V(f)$ into irreducible components.

Plane Curves of Degree d

Suppose

$$
C=d_1C_1+\cdots+d_rC_r.
$$

Q We use the notation

$$
C=\{f=0\}
$$

to denote the set of curves C_i counted with multiplicity.

- \bullet We call C a plane curve of degree d.
- We have a bijection

{plane curves of degree d } \longleftrightarrow $\mathbb{P}(k^d[x_0, x_1, x_2])$.

- \circ Thus, the set of plane curves of degree d forms a projective space of dimension $\binom{d+2}{2}$ – 1.
- The space of lines, i.e., the space of projective curves of degree 1, is the dual projective plane $(\mathbb{P}_k^2)^*$.

Smooth and Singular Points

If f has no repeated factors, then a point P is a singular point of C if and only if

$$
f(P) = 0
$$
 and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(P) = 0$, $i = 0, 1, 2$.

The following relation is known as Euler's Formula,

$$
d \cdot f = \sum x_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}.
$$

It implies that, if chark = 0 or chark > d, then P is a singular point if and only if

$$
\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(P)=0, \quad i=0,1,2.
$$

We will also use this as a definition of smooth and singular points when f has repeated factors.

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Example

 \circ In contrast to the previous chapters, C may have no smooth points. Example: Consider

$$
f=x_0^2.
$$

Then we have

$$
C=\{f=0\}.
$$

So C has no smooth points.

Tangent Space

• For $P \in C$, we define the tangent space to C at P by

$$
\mathcal{T}_{P}C:=\left\{\sum_{i=0}^{2}\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}(P)x_{i}=0\right\}\subseteq\mathbb{P}_{k}^{2}.
$$

- This is the projective closure of the affine tangent space.
- A point P on C is a smooth point of C if and only if $T_P C$ is a line.

Projective Equivalence

- \circ A map $A \in Gl(3, k)$ takes lines through the origin to lines through the origin.
- Thus, it induces a projective transformation

$$
\varphi = \varphi_A : \mathbb{P}^2_k \to \mathbb{P}^2_k.
$$

- Let C and C' be two curves, with defining equations f and f' , respectively.
- We say \emph{C} and \emph{C}' are $\emph{projectively equivalent}$ if there is a transformation of coordinates $A \in Gl(3, k)$, such that the corresponding transformation of $\mathbb{P}(k[x_0,x_1,x_2])$ maps f to f'.
- Our goal is to classify plane curves of degree 3 (cubics) up to projective equivalence.

Curves Decomposing Into Three Lines

Lemma

Let C be a plane cubic curve which decomposes into three lines. Then C is projectively equivalent to one of the following curves:

$$
(1) \quad C = \{x_0x_1x_2 = 0\};
$$

(2)
$$
C = {x_0x_1(x_0 + x_1) = 0};
$$

(3)
$$
C = \{x_0^2 x_1 = 0\};
$$

(4)
$$
C = \{x_0^3 = 0\}.
$$

By assumption,

$$
C = \ell_1 \cup \ell_2 \cup \ell_3,
$$

where the lines ℓ_i are considered as points of the dual space $(\mathbb{P}_k^2)^*$. We distinguish various cases.

Curves Decomposing Into Three Lines (Cont'd)

The lines ℓ_i are all different and do not all intersect in a common point.

Equivalently, the points $\ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3 \in (\mathbb{P}^2_k)^*$ do not lie on a line. Now we use the transitivity of the action of GI(3, k) on $(\mathbb{P}^2_k)^*$.

Explicitly, the coordinates of these points define the rows of a matrix in $GI(3, k)$ which maps x_0, x_1, x_2 to ℓ_1, ℓ_2, ℓ_3 .

Curves Decomposing Into Three Lines (Cont'd)

- (2) The three lines are different, and there is a point that lies on all three lines.
	- Thus, there is a line through the distinct points $\ell_i \in (\mathbb{P}_k^2)^*$.

Now note the following:

- GI(3, k) acts transitively on $(\mathbb{P}_k^2)^*$;
- $GI(2, k)$ acts 3-transitively on $(\mathbb{P}^1_k)^*$. That is, any two triples of distinct points are equivalent under the action of $GI(2, k)$.

So all such sets of points are equivalent under the action of $(\mathbb{P}^2_k)^*$.

(3)
$$
\ell_1 = \ell_2 \neq \ell_3
$$
: A similar argument gives Case (3).

(4) $\ell_1 = \ell_2 = \ell_3$: This gives Case (4).

Subsection 2

Intersection Multiplicity

Consider two plane curves.

- \circ C defined by a polynomial f .
- C' defined by a polynomial g .

Assume, first, that C and C' have no common component.

Definition (Intersection Multiplicity)

The intersection multiplicity $I_P(C, C')$ of C and C' at a point $P \in \mathbb{P}^2_k$ is defined by

$$
I_P(C,C') := \dim_k \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^2_k,P}/(f,g).
$$

Property of Intersection Multiplicity

Lemma

Let C and C' be two plane curves. Then

$$
I_P(C,C')\geq 1 \quad \text{iff} \quad P\in C\cap C'.
$$

Assume, first, that $P \not\in C \cap C'$. Then $P \not\in C$ or $P \not\in C'$. In the first case, f is a unit in $\mathscr{O}_{\mathbb{P}^2_k, \mathsf{P}}$. In the second, g is a unit in $\mathscr{O}_{\mathbb{P}^2_\nu, P}.$ Thus, $(f,g) = \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^2_k, P}$. I.e., $\dim_k \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^2_k, P} / (f,g) = 0$. Conversely, suppose $P \in C \cap C'$. Then $f, g \in mp$. So $(f, g) \subseteq mp$. Thus,

$$
I_P(C, C') = \dim_k \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}_k^2, P}/(f, g) \ge \dim_k \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}_k^2, P}/m_P = 1.
$$

Line and Point on a Plane Curve

Claim: For a line $L \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2_k$ through a point P on C, we have $I_P(C,L) = \text{mult}_P(f \mid_L).$

To see this, first make a linear transformation so that:

- $P = (0:0:1);$
- L is given by $x_1 = 0$.

Consider the affine coordinates

$$
x = \frac{x_0}{x_2}, \quad y = \frac{x_1}{x_2}
$$

for the affine subspace \mathbb{A}^2_k of \mathbb{P}^2_{k} , where $x_2 \neq 0$. In terms of x, y, the line $L \cap \mathbb{A}_k^2$ is given by $y = 0$. We have

$$
I_P(C, L) = \dim_k \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}_k^2, P}/(f, x_1)
$$

=
$$
\dim_k \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{A}_k^2, 0}/(f(x, y, 1), y)
$$

=
$$
\operatorname{mult}_P(f|_L).
$$

Transverse Intersection

- \bullet Let C be a plane curve defined by f.
- Let $L \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2_k$ be a line through a point P on C .

We showed

$$
I_P(C,L) = \mathrm{mult}_P(f|_L).
$$

o It follows that

$$
I_P(C,L) \geq 2 \quad \text{iff} \quad L \subseteq T_P C.
$$

Definition (Transverse Intersection)

The curves C and C' intersect transversely at a point $P \in C \cap C'$ if C and C' are both smooth at P and the tangent lines at P are distinct, i.e.,

 $T_P C \cap T_P C' = \{P\}.$

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Another Version of Nakayama's Lemma

Lemma

Let V be a quasi-projective variety and let $P \in V$. If the elements $f_1, \ldots, f_r \in m_P$ generate the *k*-vector space m_P/m_P^2 , then they also generate the ideal m_P .

Note that this is a local statement.

Further, any quasi-projective variety is covered by affine sets. So we may assume that V is an affine variety in \mathbb{A}_k^n . Set

$$
B := \mathcal{O}_{V,P}/(f_1,\ldots,f_r) \quad \text{and} \quad A := \mathcal{M}_P/(f_1,\ldots,f_r).
$$

Suppose $P = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$.

Another Version of Nakayama's Lemma (Cont'd)

Then the residue classes of

$$
x_1-a_1,\ldots,x_n-a_n
$$

generate the module A over B . Thus, A is a finite B-algebra. So, by Nakayama's Lemma, either $A = 0$ or $m_P A \neq A$. However,

$$
m_P A = ((f_1, ..., f_r) + m_P^2)/(f_1, ..., f_r) = m_P/(f_1, ..., f_r) = A.
$$

So we must have $A = 0$. I.e., $m_P = (f_1, \ldots, f_r)$.

Criterion for Transverse Intersection

Lemma

Two curves C, C' intersect transversally at P if and only if $I_P(C, C') = 1$.

• We assume that $P = (0:0:1)$ and work with affine coordinates x, y. Since $P \in C \cap C'$, we have $(f,g) \subseteq mp$. So $I_P(C, C') = 1$ is equivalent to the statement $(f, g) = m_P$.

Suppose, first,
$$
I_P(C, C') = 1
$$
.

Then the linear parts of f and g must span the two-dimensional vector space m_P/m_P^2 .

In particular they are linearly independent.

So the tangent lines of C and C^{\prime} at P are distinct.

Criterion for Transverse Intersection (Cont'd)

Assume, conversely, that \emph{C} and \emph{C}' intersect transversally at $\emph{P}.$ Perform a suitable transformation of coordinates so that the linear parts of f and g are given, respectively, by

$$
f_P^{(\ell)} = x
$$
 and $g_P^{(\ell)} = y$.

Then, either by the lemma or using an elementary argument, we may show that f and g generate the ideal m_P .

Intersection Multiplicity in General

- If we omit the condition that C and C^{\prime} have no common component, we can still define the l<mark>ocal intersection multiplicity</mark> $I_P(C,C').$
- If P lies on a common component of C and $C^{\prime},$ we set

 $I_P(C, C') := \infty.$

Example

 \circ Consider the semicubical parabola C , given in projective coordinates by

$$
z_0^2 z_2 - z_1^3 = 0.
$$

In local coordinates, in a neighborhood of $P = (0:0:1)$, it is given by

$$
x^2-y^3=0.
$$

Let L_1 and L_2 be the lines given by $z_0 = 0$ and $z_1 = 0$, respectively. Then

$$
I_P(C, L_1) = \dim_k \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^2_k, P}/(x^2 - y^3, x) = \dim_k \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^2_k, P}/(x, y^3) = 3;
$$

\n
$$
I_P(C, L_2) = \dim_k \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^2_k, P}/(x^2 - y^3, y) = \dim_k \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^2_k, P}/(x^2, y) = 2.
$$

Bézout's Theorem

Theorem (Bézout)

Let $\,C$ and $\,C'$ be two plane curves of degree d and d' , respectively, which have no common components. Then $\mathsf C$ and $\mathsf C'$ intersect in $\mathsf d\mathsf d'$ points, i.e.,

$$
C.C':=\sum_{P}I_{P}(C,C')=dd'.
$$

We will give a proof of Bézout's Theorem later, in the case that one of the curves is smooth.

- We only need the following special case of Bézout's Theorem.
- It is essentially a reinterpretation of the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra.

Proposition

Let $C \in \mathbb{P}^2_k$ be a curve of degree d. Let L be a line not contained in C. Then C and L intersect in d points (counted with multiplicity), i.e.,

$$
\sum_{P} I_{P}(C, L) = d.
$$

Proof of the Special Case

o Suppose

$$
C=\{f=0\},\,
$$

where $f = f(x_0, x_1, x_2)$ is a homogeneous polynomial of degree d. Let $L = \{x_2 = 0\}$.

Then

$$
f|_{L} = f(x_0, x_1, 0) = a_0 x_0^d + a_1 x_0^{d-1} x_1 + \dots + a_d x_1^d
$$

is a homogeneous polynomial of degree d in two variables.

We may assume that the coordinates have been chosen so that $(1:0) \in L$ is not a zero of $f|_L$.

Then the number of points where C and L intersect is obtained by counting, with multiplicity, the zeros of the polynomial

$$
f(x) = a_0x^d + a_1x^{d-1} + \cdots + a_d.
$$

By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, there are exactly d zeros.

Projective Classification of Conics

Every homogeneous quadratic equation can be written in the form

$$
q(x_0, x_1, x_2) = q_A(x_0, x_1, x_2) = xA^t x,
$$

with $x = (x_0 : x_1 : x_2)$ and $A = {}^t A \in Mat(3x3, k)$.

- \circ Since we are assuming throughout that k is algebraically closed, the only invariant under a change of coordinates is the rank of the matrix.
- Up to equivalence we have the following cases:

(1)
$$
q(x_0, x_1, x_2) = x_0^2 + x_1^2 + x_2^2
$$
 (smooth conic);

(2)
$$
q(x_0, x_1, x_2) = x_0^2 + x_1^2
$$
 (pair of lines);

(3)
$$
q(x_0, x_1, x_2) = x_0^2
$$
 (double line).

Note that the conic $x_0^2 + x_1^2 + x_2^2$ is projectively equivalent to $x_0x_2 - x_1^2 = 0.$

Decomposable Plane Cubic

Proposition

Let C be a plane cubic which decomposes into an irreducible conic (a curve of degree 2) and a line. Then C is projectively equivalent to one of the following two curves:

$$
(1) \quad C_1 = \{ (x_0x_2 - x_1^2)x_1 = 0 \};
$$

(2)
$$
C_2 = \{(x_0x_2 - x_1^2)x_0 = 0\}.
$$

By assumption

$$
C=C_0+L,
$$

where:

- \circ C_0 is an irreducible conic;
- \overline{a} *L* is a line.

Decomposable Plane Cubic

 \circ The conic C_0 is given by an irreducible quadric

 ${q(x_0, x_1, x_2) = 0}.$

By the Principal Axes Theorem, given by the above classification of conics, C_0 is projectively equivalent to the conic

$$
\{x_0x_2-x_1^2=0\}.
$$

By the proposition, the line L intersects the conic in two points. Since C_0 is smooth, we have the following possibilities:

- L intersects C_0 transversally in two points;
- (2) L is tangent to C_0 at a point P_0 .

Decomposable Plane Cubic (Cont'd)

 \circ C₀ is the image of

$$
\varphi: \mathbb{P}^1_k \to C_0 \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2_k; (t_0:t_1) \mapsto (t_0^2 : t_0t_1 : t_1^2).
$$

A transformation $t_0 \rightarrow at_0 +bt_1$, $t_1 \rightarrow ct_0 +dt_1$, induces a map

$$
t_0^2 \rightarrow a^2 t_0^2 + 2ab t_0 t_1 + b^2 t_1^2,
$$

\n
$$
t_0 t_1 \rightarrow act_0^2 + (ad + bc) t_0 t_1 + bdt_1^2,
$$

\n
$$
t_1^2 \rightarrow c^2 t_0^2 + 2c dt_0 t_1 + d^2 t_1^2.
$$

Thus, the matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccc}a^2 & 2ab & b^2\\ac & (ad+bc) & bd\\c^2 & 2cd & d^2\end{array}\right)
$$

defines a transformation of \mathbb{P}^2_k which maps the conic \mathcal{C}_0 to itself.

Decomposable Plane Cubic (Cont'd)

We use a suitable matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}a&b\\c&d\end{array}\right).
$$

- \circ In Case (1) , we can map the points of intersection to the points $(1:0:0)$ and $(0:0:1)$.
- In Case (2), we can map P_0 to the point $(0:0:1)$.

The line through $(1:0:0)$ and $(0:0:1)$ is

 $\{x_1 = 0\}.$

The tangent to the conic C_0 at $(0:0:1)$ is

 $\{x_0 = 0\}.$

This completes the proof.

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• The curve
$$
C_1 = \{(x_0x_2 - x_1^2)x_1 = 0\}
$$
.

The curve $C_1 = \{ (x_0x_2 - x_1^2)x_0 = 0 \}.$

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Irreducible Singular Cubics

Proposition

Let C be an irreducible singular cubic. Then C has exactly one singularity and is projectively equivalent to one of the following curves:

(a)
$$
C = \{x_1^2 x_2 - x_0^3 - x_0^2 x_2 = 0\};
$$

\n(b) $C = \{x_2 x_1^2 - x_0^3 = 0\}.$

• Suppose C has at least two singularities. Consider the line through the two singularities. It would intersect the curve C in at least 4 points, with multiplicity. This is a contradiction.

Irreducible Singular Cubics (Cont'd)

• We may assume that the singularity of C is at $P = (0:0:1)$. f does not factor into three linear forms. This means that the equation f for C has the form

$$
f = x_2 q(x_0, x_1) + bx_0^3 + cx_0^2 x_1 + dx_0 x_1^2 + ex_1^3,
$$

where

$$
q(x_0,x_1)\not\equiv 0.
$$

The quadratic q factors into linear forms

$$
q(x_0,x_1)=\ell_0(x_0,x_1)\ell_1(x_0,x_1).
$$

Accordingly, there are two cases to consider.

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Irreducible Singular Cubics: Case $\ell_0(x_0, x_1) \neq c\ell_1(x_0, x_1)$

(a) The case $\ell_0(x_0, x_1) \neq c\ell_1(x_0, x_1)$. By applying a transformation of coordinates we may assume that $\ell_0(x_0, x_1) = x_0$ and $\ell_1(x_0, x_1) = x_1$. Then f has the form

$$
f = x_2 x_0 x_1 + b' x_0^3 + c' x_0^2 x_1 + d' x_0 x_1^2 + e' x_1^3.
$$

Since *f* is irreducible, $b'e' \neq 0$. Let $\beta^3 = b'$ and $\gamma^3 = e'$. Then set

$$
x_2 = \beta \gamma (x'_2 - 6x'_0) + \frac{c'}{\beta} (x'_0 + x'_1) + \frac{d'}{\gamma} (x'_0 - x'_1),
$$

\n
$$
x_0 = -\frac{1}{\beta} (x'_0 + x'_1),
$$

\n
$$
x_1 = -\frac{1}{\gamma} (x'_0 - x'_1),
$$

Then we obtain

$$
f = x_2' (x_0'^2 - x_1'^2) - 8x_0'^3.
$$

This is projectively equivalent to $x_1^2x_2 - x_0^2x_2 - x_0^3$.

Irreducible Singular Cubics: Case $\ell_0(x_0, x_1) = c \ell_1(x_0, x_1)$

(b) The case
$$
\ell_0(x_0, x_1) = c\ell_1(x_0, x_1)
$$
.
We may assume that $\ell_0(x_0, x_1) = \ell_1(x_0, x_1) = x_1$.
Then,

$$
f = x_2 x_1^2 + b' x_0^3 + c' x_0^2 x_1 + d' x_0 x_1^2 + e' x_1^3.
$$

We have $b' \neq 0$, since otherwise x_1 divides f . Change variables $x_0 = x'_0 - \frac{c'}{3b'}x_1$, to get

$$
f = x_2 x_1^2 + b' x_0'^3 + d'' x_0' x_1^2 + e'' x_1^3, \quad b' \neq 0.
$$

The change variables $x_2 = -b'x'_2 - d''x'_0 - e''x_1$, to get

$$
f = -b'(x_2'x_1^2 - x_0'^3).
$$

This is projectively equivalent to $x_2x_1^2 - x_0^3$.

Subsection 3

[Classification of Smooth Cubics](#page-37-0)

Flex Points

Definition (Flex Point)

Let C be a plane curve of arbitrary degree. A smooth point $P \in C$ is called a point of inflection, or a flex point, of C if $I_P(C, T_P C) \geq 3$. The tangent $T_P\mathcal{C}$ to \mathcal{C} at a flex point P is called an inflectional tangent line, or an inflectional tangent, of C.

We will show that the inflection points of C are determined by the intersection of C with its Hessian.

The Hessian

Definition (Hessian)

For a plane curve $C = \{f = 0\}$, the **Hessian** of C is given by

$$
H_f := \det \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \right)_{0 \le i, j \le 2}.
$$

- \circ Suppose H_f does not vanish identically.
- Then H_f is a homogeneous polynomial of degree 3(*d* −2).

o Let

$$
H=\{H_f=0\}\subseteq \mathbb{P}_k^2.
$$

- If $d = 2$ then H may be empty.
- Otherwise, either $H = \mathbb{P}_k^2$ or H is a plane curve of degree 3(d-2), called the Hessian curve of C.

Characterization of Flex Points

Proposition

Let C be a smooth plane curve of degree $d \geq 3$ with Hessian curve H. Assume that $(char(k), d-1) = 1$. Then $H \cap C$ is equal to the set of inflection points of C.

We show the statement is invariant under change of coordinates. Consider the transformation $A:\mathcal{L}$ t x_0 x_1 x_2 $\Bigg\rightarrow A$ ŧ x_0 x_1 x_2 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{L}}$ $\Big\}, A \in \mathrm{Gl}(3, k).$ Given a polynomial $f \in k[x_0, x_1, x_2]$, denote by f^* the transform $f \circ A$. Using the chain rule, one can show that $H_{f^*} = (\text{det}A)^2 (H_f)^*$. Thus, the statement is invariant under change of coordinates. So we may assume that $P = (0:0:1)$ and that $T_pC = \{x_1 = 0\}$.

Characterization of Flex Points (Cont'd)

Consider the affine coordinates $x = \frac{x_0}{x_2}$ $\frac{x_0}{x_2}$ and $y = \frac{x_1}{x_2}$ $\frac{x_1}{x_2}$. We have, for some $a, b, c, e \in k$, $a \ne 0$,

$$
f(x,y) = y(a + bx + cy + g(x,y)) + ex^2 + h(x),
$$

where :

- All terms of $g(x, y)$ have order ≥ 2 ;
- All terms of h have order ≥ 3 .

In homogeneous coordinates we have

$$
f(x_0, x_1, x_2) = ax_2^{d-1}x_1 + bx_2^{d-2}x_0x_1 + cx_2^{d-2}x_1^2 + ex_2^{d-2}x_0^2 + \text{terms of order } \ge 3 \text{ in } x_0, x_1.
$$

To evaluate $H_f(0:0:1)$ note that the derivatives of all "terms of order \geq 3 in x_0, x_1 " evaluated at $(0:0:1)$ vanish.

Thus, we have

$$
H_f(0:0:1) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 2e & b & 0 \\ b & 2c & (d-1)a \\ 0 & (d-1)a & 0 \end{pmatrix} = -2ea^2(d-1)^2.
$$

By hypothesis, $(char(k), d-1) = 1$ and $a \ne 0$. So we get

$$
H_f(0:0:1) = 0
$$
 iff $e = 0$.

Now we have

$$
\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^2_k, P}/(f, x_1) = \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{A}^2_k, 0}/(ex^2 + h(x), y).
$$

Hence,

$$
I_P(C, T_P C) \ge 3 \quad \text{iff} \quad e = 0
$$

iff
$$
P \in H.
$$

The Veronese Map

 \circ Let d be a positive integer.

Define \bullet

$$
\Lambda_d := \{ (i_0, i_1, i_2) \in \mathbb{N}_0^3 : i_0 + i_1 + i_2 = d \}.
$$

A combinatorial argument shows that

$$
|\Lambda_d| = \binom{d+2}{2}.
$$

• For $I := (i_0, i_1, i_2) \in \Lambda_d$, define

$$
x_1 = x_{(i_0,i_1,i_2)} := x_0^{i_0} x_1^{i_1} x_2^{i_2}.
$$

The **Veronese map** $v_d : \mathbb{P}_k^2 \to \mathbb{P}_k^N$, with $N = \binom{d+2}{2} - 1$, is given by

$$
v_d(x_0:x_1:x_2)=(x_0^d:x_0^{d-1}x_1:\ldots:x_2^d)=(\ldots:x_1:\ldots)_{l\in\Lambda_d}.
$$

Lemma

The complement $\mathbb{P}_k^2 \setminus C$ of a plane curve C is affine.

Consider the Veronese map

$$
v_d: \mathbb{P}_k^2 \to \mathbb{P}_k^N, \quad N = \binom{d+2}{2} - 1.
$$

We denote the coordinates of \mathbb{P}^N_k by

 $z_1, \quad l \in \Lambda_d.$

As for the Segre map, it can be checked that v_d is an embedding. Its image is given by the equations

$$
z_1 z_1 = z_K z_L, \quad 0 \le |I|, |J|, |K|, |L| \le d,
$$

such that $|I| + |J| = |K| + |L|$.

 \bullet Let f be an equation for C of degree d. We can write this in the form:

$$
f=\sum_{l\in\Lambda_d}a_lx_l.
$$

Consider, in \mathbb{P}_k^N , the hyperplane

$$
H=\left\{\sum a_IZ_I=0\right\}.
$$

Then we have

$$
v_d(C) = v_d(\mathbb{P}_k^2) \cap H.
$$

This argument shows that $\mathbb{P}_k^2 \backslash C$ is affine.

Inflection Points on a Smooth Curve of Degree ≥ 3

- We show that there is at least one inflection point on a smooth curve of degree $d \geq 3$.
- **Equivalently, the intersection of a smooth curve of degree** $d \ge 3$ **with** its Hessian is nonempty.
- This is trivial if the Hessian is all of \mathbb{P}_k^2 .
- If not, we resort to a Weak Form of Bezout's Theorem.

A Weak Form of Bézout's Theorem

Lemma

The intersection of two plane curves \boldsymbol{C} and \boldsymbol{C}' is nonempty.

• Let C be a curve of degree d. By the lemma, $\mathbb{P}_k^2 \setminus C$ is affine. Assume, to the contrary, that $C \cap C' = \emptyset$. Then we have $C' \subseteq \mathbb{P}_{k}^{2} \setminus C \subseteq \mathbb{A}_{k}^{N}$. But C ′ does not consist of a point. So there is a coordinate function w on \mathbb{A}_k^N . By restriction, w gives a nonconstant function on $C'.$ This contradicts a result, proven previously, to the effect that, if V is an irreducible projective variety, defined over an algebraically close field k , then every regular function on V is constant.

Inflection Points on a Smooth Curve (Cont'd)

Corollary

Every smooth curve C of degree $d \geq 3$, with $d-1$ coprime to char(k), has at least one point of inflection.

- From the lemma and the proposition.
- The statement of the corollary holds in general, for every smooth curve of degree $d \geq 3$ over an algebraically closed field k.
- o In the following we will only use this corollary for cubics.
- \circ Since we take char(k) \neq 2,3, the hypothesis of the corollary is then always satisfied.
- By using Bézout's Theorem in the proof of the corollary, we obtain the more precise result that, provided $H \neq \mathbb{P}^2_k$,

1 ≤ number of points of inflection \leq 3d(d-2).

Weierstraß Form of a Cubic

The Weierstraß form of a cubic is given in affine coordinates by

$$
y^2 = 4x^3 - g_2x - g_3.
$$

• The corresponding projective curve is

$$
C_{g_2,g_3}: \quad x_0x_2^2 - 4x_1^3 + g_2x_1x_0^2 + g_3x_0^3 = 0.
$$

The Discriminant

Definition (The Discriminant)

Consider a polynomial

$$
f = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0 = a_n \prod_{i=1}^n (x - \alpha_i), \quad a_n \neq 0.
$$

The discriminant $Disc(f)$ of f is defined by

$$
\text{Disc}(f) := a_n^{2n-2} \prod_{i \neq j} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j).
$$

It can be expressed as a polynomial in the coefficients of f .

The Discriminant of the Weierstraß Cubic

Definition (Discriminant of the Weierstraß Cubic)

We define the **discriminant of** $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{g}_2,\mathcal{g}_3}$ to be the discriminant of

$$
4x^3-g_2x-g_3
$$

divided by 16. A calculation shows that this is given by

$$
\Delta := g_2^3 - 27g_3^2.
$$

A way to show this is to:

- Write $4x^3 g_2x g_3 = 4(x \alpha_1)(x \alpha_2)(x \alpha_3);$
- Calculate

$$
\frac{1}{16}[-4^4(\alpha_1-\alpha_2)^2(\alpha_1-\alpha_3)^2(\alpha_2-\alpha_3)^2];
$$

Calculate $g_2^3 - 27g_3^2$.

Proposition

 C_{g_2,g_3} is smooth if and only if $\Delta \neq 0$.

o Consider

$$
f(x_0, x_1, x_2) = x_0 x_2^2 - 4x_1^3 + g_2 x_1 x_0^2 + g_3 x_0^3.
$$

Compute the partial derivatives:

$$
\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_0} = x_2^2 + 2g_2x_1x_0 + 3g_3x_0^2;
$$

\n
$$
\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} = -12x_1^2 + g_2x_0^2;
$$

\n
$$
\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} = 2x_0x_2.
$$

We may now verify Euler's identity,

$$
\Sigma_{i=0}^{2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}} x_{i} = x_{0}(x_{2}^{2} + 2g_{2}x_{1}x_{0} + 3g_{3}x_{0}^{2}) + x_{1}(-12x_{1}^{2} + g_{2}x_{0}^{2}) + x_{2}2x_{0}x_{2}
$$

= 3x_{0}x_{2}^{2} - 12x_{1}^{3} + 3g_{2}x_{1}x_{0}^{2} + 3g_{3}x_{0}^{3}
= 3f.

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It follows that a point P is a singularity of $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{B}_2,\mathcal{B}_3}$ if and only if the three equations all evaluate to 0 at P.

From the last equation, we get $x_0 = 0$ or $x_2 = 0$.

Suppose $x_0 = 0$.

Then the second equation implies that $x_1 = 0$.

Hence, $P = (0:0:1)$.

But this is not a singular point, since $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_0}(P) = 1 \neq 0$. We conclude $x_2 = 0$.

Then the first two equations give

$$
2g_2x_1x_0 + 3g_3x_0^2 = 0, \quad -12x_1^2 + g_2x_0^2 = 0.
$$

• Suppose
$$
g_2 = g_3 = 0
$$
.

Then $P = (1:0:0)$ is a singular point.

 \circ Suppose $g_3 = 0, g_2 \neq 0$.

We have already shown that $x_0 \neq 0$.

From $2g_2x_1x_0 + 3g_3x_0^2 = 0$, we deduce that $x_1 = 0$.

But, by $-12x_1^2 + g_2x_0^2 = 0$, the point $P = (1:0:0)$ is a smooth point.

• Suppose $g_2 = 0$, $g_3 \neq 0$.

Then, since $2g_2x_1x_0 + 3g_3x_0^2 = 0$, $x_0 = 0$. We have already dealt with this case.

 \circ Finally suppose $g_2g_3 \neq 0$. We have seen that $x_0 \neq 0$. By $-12x_1^2 + g_2x_0^2 = 0$, we also have $x_1 \neq 0$. From $2g_2x_1x_0+3g_3x_0^2=0$, we have

$$
x_0 = -\frac{2}{3} \frac{g_2}{g_3} x_1.
$$

Substituting in $-12x_1^2 + g_2x_0^2 = 0$, we obtain

$$
-12x_1^2 + \frac{4}{9}\frac{g_2^3}{g_3^2}x_1^2 = 0.
$$

This equation has nontrivial solutions if and only if

$$
-12 + \frac{4}{9} \frac{g_2^3}{g_3^2} = 0.
$$

Equivalently, if and only if $\Delta = 0$.

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Characterization of Smooth Cubics

Proposition

Let C be a smooth cubic. Then C is projectively equivalent to some curve \mathcal{C}_{g_2,g_3} .

 \circ By the corollary C has a point of inflection P .

We may assume that $P = (0:0:1)$, and that the inflectional line to P is given by $\{x_0 = 0\}$.

This means that the equation f for C restricted to $\{x_0 = 0\}$ has a zero of order three at $(0:0:1)$.

So after possible multiplication by a scalar,

$$
f = -x_1^3 + x_0\left(ax_0^2 + bx_1^2 + cx_2^2 + dx_0x_1 + ex_0x_2 + gx_1x_2\right).
$$

Since $(0:0:1)$ is a smooth point of C, $c \neq 0$.

Characterization of Smooth Cubics (Cont'd)

We have $f = -x_1^3 + x_0(ax_0^2 + bx_1^2 + cx_2^2 + dx_0x_1 + ex_0x_2 + gx_1x_2)$, c≠0. Set $x'_2 = (\sqrt{c}x_2 + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{c}})$ $\frac{1}{2\sqrt{c}}(ex_0+gx_1)).$ This transforms f to

$$
f' = x_0 x_2'^2 - (x_1^3 + b'x_1^2 x_0 + d'x_1 x_0^2 + a'x_0^3),
$$

with $b' = \frac{g^2}{4c} - b$, $d' = \frac{eg}{2c} - d$, $a' = \frac{e^2}{4c} - a$.
Set $x_1' = x_1 + \frac{1}{3}b'x_0$.
We get

$$
f'' = x_0 x_2'^2 - (x_1'^3 + d''x_1'x_0^2 + a''x_0^3),
$$

with $a'' = a' - \frac{1}{27}b'^3 - \frac{1}{3}b'd'', d'' = d' - b'^2$.
Set $x_1'' = \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{4}}x_1'$.
We get

$$
f''' = x_0 x_2'^2 - (4x_1''^3 + d'''x_1''x_0^2 + a'''x_0^3),
$$

with $a''' = a''$, $d''' = \sqrt[3]{4}d''$.

Characterization of Rational Irreducible Cubics

Proposition

An irreducible cubic is rational if and only if it is singular.

We classified irreducible singular cubics. We showed they re projectively equivalent to one of the curves defined by

$$
x_1^2x_2 - x_0^3 - x_0^2x_2 = 0
$$
 or $x_2x_1^2 - x_0^3 = 0$.

We have seen that both possible cases are rational curves. Suppose C is a smooth irreducible cubic.

Then we can first bring C to Weierstraß normal form

$$
y^2 = 4x^3 - g_2x - g_3 = 4(x - \lambda_1)(x - \lambda_2)(x - \lambda_3).
$$

Characterization of Rational Irreducible Cubics (Cont'd)

By its definition, the discriminant $\Delta = g_2^3 - 27g_3^2$ of the cubic equation $4x^3 - g_2x - g_3 = 0$ is zero if and only if the roots $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$ are pairwise distinct.

After a transformation of the line $y = 0$, we can assume that $\lambda_1 = 0$ and $\lambda_2 = 1$.

Thus C is projectively equivalent to the curve

$$
y^2 = x(x-1)(x-\lambda), \quad \lambda \neq 0, 1.
$$

The result then follows from a preceding result to the effect that, for $\lambda \neq 0,1$, there is no rational parametrization of

$$
C_{\lambda}: y^2 = x(x-1)(x-\lambda).
$$

Affine Transformations of Weierstraß Curves

- Let C and C' be two smooth cubics.
- Let *ϕ* be a projective transformation mapping C to C ′ , such that *ϕ* maps a point of inflection P on C to a point of inflection P' on $C'.$
- By the proposition, we may assume that \emph{C} and \emph{C}' are curves in Weierstraß form with $P = P' = (0:0:1)$.
- \circ Then φ must also map the inflectional line { $x_0 = 0$ } to itself.
- So in considering transformations between cubics in Weierstraß normal form we can restrict attention to affine transformations.

Form of Affine Transformations of Weierstraß Curves

Lemma

An affine transformation *ϕ* which maps a Weierstraß curve

$$
y^2 = 4x^3 - g_2x - g_3
$$

to another Weierstraß curve has the form

$$
x \mapsto u^2 x, \quad y \mapsto u^3 y, \quad \text{for some } u \in k^*.
$$

A general transformation *ϕ* has the form

$$
x \mapsto \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2 y + \alpha_3, \quad y \mapsto \beta_1 x + \beta_2 y + \beta_3.
$$

No cubic terms occur on the left side of the Weierstraß equation. It follows that $\alpha_2 = 0$.

Affine Transformations of Weierstraß Curves (Cont'd)

- The transformation is invertible.
	- It follows that $\alpha_1 \beta_2 \neq 0$.

The term xy does not occur in the Weierstraß equation.

We conclude that $\beta_1 = 0$.

No further linear terms in y occur.

It follows that $\beta_3 = 0$.

Similarly, no quadratic terms appear in x .

Hence, $\alpha_3 = 0$.

Thus, *ϕ* has the form

$$
x \mapsto \alpha_1 x, \quad y \mapsto \beta_2 y.
$$

We must have $\alpha_1^3 = \beta_2^2$. This means that $\alpha_1 = u^2$, $\beta_2 = u^3$, for some $u \in k^*$.

Admissibility and the J-Invariant

Definition (Admissible Transformation)

An admissible transformation is a projective transformation *ϕ* which:

Maps a Weierstraß cubic \mathcal{C}_{g_2,g_3} to another Weierstraß cubic $\mathcal{C}_{g_2',g_3'};$ • Satisfies $φ(0:0:1) = (0:0:1)$.

Definition (J-Invariant)

The J-invariant of a smooth Weierstraß cubic is defined by

$$
J(g_2,g_3):=\frac{g_2^3}{\Delta}=\frac{g_2^3}{g_2^3-27g_3^2}.
$$

Admissible Equivalence and the J-Invariant

Proposition

Two smooth Weierstraß cubic curves \mathcal{C}_{g_2,g_3} and $\mathcal{C}_{g'_2,g'_3}$ are equivalent under an admissible transformation if and only if

$$
J(g_2,g_3)=J(g'_2,g'_3).
$$

Let φ : $C_{g_2,g_3} \to C_{g_2',g_3'}$ be an admissible transformation. Then, since $x \mapsto u^2x$, and $y \mapsto u^3y$,

$$
g'_2 = \frac{g_2}{u^4}
$$
, $g'_3 = \frac{g_3}{u^6}$.

Thus,

$$
J(g_2,g_3)=\frac{g_2'^3}{g_2'^3-27g_3'^2}=\frac{\frac{g_2^3}{u^{12}}}{\frac{g_2^3}{u^{12}}-27\frac{g_3^2}{u^{12}}}=\frac{g_2^3}{g_2^3-27g_3^2}=J(g_2',g_3').
$$

Admissible Equivalence and the J-Invariant (Cont'd)

Suppose $J(g_2, g_3) = J(g'_2, g'_3)$. We consider three cases: (1) $J(g_2, g_3) = 0$: In this case $g_2 = 0 \neq g_3$. Take u, such that $g'_3 = \frac{g_3}{u^6}$. Then the admissible transformation

$$
x \mapsto u^2 x, \quad y \mapsto u^3 y
$$

takes $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{B}_2,\mathcal{B}_3}$ to $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{B}_2',\mathcal{B}_3'}$. (2) $J(g_2, g_3) = 1$: This is equivalent to $g_3 = 0 \neq g_2$. In this case we choose u, such that $g'_2 = \frac{g_2}{u^4}$ $rac{82}{u^4}$. (3) $J(g_2, g_3) \neq 0, 1$: Then $g_2, g_3 \neq 0$. The condition $J(g_2, g_3) = J(g'_2, g'_3)$ is equivalent to $\frac{g_2^3}{g_3^2} =$ $rac{g_2^{\prime 3}}{g_3^{\prime 2}}$. If $g_2 = \alpha g'_2$, $g_3 = \beta g'_3$, then $\alpha^3 = \beta^2$. That is, $\alpha = v^2$, $\beta = v^3$, for $v = \frac{\beta}{\alpha}$ *α* . We now choose u, with $u^2 = v$. So $g'_2 = \frac{g_2}{u^4}$ $\frac{g_2}{\mu^4}$, $g_3' = \frac{g_3}{\mu^6}$ $\frac{g_3}{\mu^6}$. Then, the transformation $x \mapsto u^2 x, y \mapsto u^3 y$ is as required.

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