Graduate Texts in Mathematics

Serge Lang

Introduction to Algebraic and Abelian Functions

Second Edition

代数函数与Abelian函数 第2版

光界用ませ版公司 www.wpcbj.com.cn

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Springer-Verlag

New York Berlin Heidelberg London Paris
Tokyo Hong Kong Barcelona Budapest

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

代数函数与 Abelian 函数导论: 英文/(美) 莱恩 (Lang, S.) 著.—2版.—北京: 世界图书出版公司 北京公司, 2009.8

书名原文: Introduction to Algebraic and Abelian Functions ISBN 978-7-5100-0487-2

I. 代··· II. 莱··· III. 函数—研究生—教材—英文 IV. 0174

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字 (2009) 第 107714 号

书 名: Introduction to Algebraic and Abelian Functions 2nd Edition

作 者: Serge Lang

中译名: 代数函数与 Abelian 函数导论 第2版

责任编辑: 高蓉

出版者: 世界图书出版公司北京公司

印刷者: 三河国英印务有限公司

发 行: 世界图书出版公司北京公司(北京朝内大街 137 号 100010)

联系电话: 010-64021602, 010-64015659

电子信箱: kjb@ wpebj. com. cn

开 本: 24 开

印 张: 7.5

版 次: 2009年08月

版权登记: 图字: 01-2009-1088

书 号: 978-7-5100-0487-2/0・702 定 价: 25.00元

世界图书出版公司北京公司已获得 Springer 授权在中国大陆独家重印发行

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AMS Classifications: 14HOJ, 14K25

With 9 illustrations.

Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data Lang, Serge, 1927-

Introduction to algebraic and abelian functions.

(Graduate texts in mathematics; 89) Bibliography: p. 165 Includes index.

- 1. Functions, Algebraic. 2. Functions, Abelian.
- I. Title. II. Series. QA341.L32 1982 515.9'83 82-5733 AACR2

The first edition of *Introduction to Algebraic and Abelian Functions* was published in 1972 by Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc.

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9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 (Second corrected printing, 1995)

ISBN 0-387-90710-6 Springer-Verlag New York Berlin Heidelberg ISBN 3-540-90710-6 Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg New York

Graduate Texts in Mathematics 89

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Introduction

This short book gives an introduction to algebraic and abelian functions, with emphasis on the complex analytic point of view. It could be used for a course or seminar addressed to second year graduate students.

The goal is the same as that of the first edition, although I have made a number of additions. I have used the Weil proof of the Riemann-Roch theorem since it is efficient and acquaints the reader with adeles, which are a very useful tool pervading number theory.

The proof of the Abel-Jacobi theorem is that given by Artin in a seminar in 1948. As far as I know, the very simple proof for the Jacobi inversion theorem is due to him. The Riemann-Roch theorem and the Abel-Jacobi theorem could form a one semester course.

The Riemann relations which come at the end of the treatment of Jacobi's theorem form a bridge with the second part which deals with abelian functions and theta functions. In May 1949, Weil gave a boost to the basic theory of theta functions in a famous Bourbaki seminar talk. I have followed his exposition of a proof of Poincaré that to each divisor on a complex torus there corresponds a theta function on the universal covering space. However, the correspondence between divisors and theta functions is not needed for the linear theory of theta functions and the projective embedding of the torus when there exists a positive non-degenerate Riemann form. Therefore I have given the proof of existence of a theta function corresponding to a divisor only in the last chapter, so that it does not interfere with the self-contained treatment of the linear theory.

The linear theory gives a good introduction to abelian varieties, in an analytic setting. Algebraic treatments become more accessible to the reader who has gone through the easier proofs over the complex numbers. This includes the duality theory with the Picard, or dual, abelian manifold.

Vi Introduction

I have included enough material to give all the basic analytic facts necessary in the theory of complex multiplication in Shimura-Taniyama, or my more recent book on the subject, and have thus tried to make this topic accessible at a more elementary level, provided the reader is willing to assume some algebraic results.

I have also given the example of the Fermat curve, drawing on some recent results of Rohrlich. This curve is both of intrinsic interest, and gives a typical setting for the general theorems proved in the book. This example illustrates both the theory of periods and the theory of divisor classes. Again this example should make it easier for the reader to read more advanced books and papers listed in the bibliography.

New Haven, Connecticut

SERGE LANG

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CHAPTER I

The Riemann-Roch Theorem

§1. Lemmas on Valuations

We recall that a discrete valuation ring o is a principal ideal ring (and therefore a unique factorization ring) having only one prime. If t is a generator of this prime, we call t a local parameter. Every element $x \neq 0$ of such a ring can be expressed as a product

$$x = t^r y$$
,

where r is an integer ≥ 0 , and y is a unit. An element of the quotient field K has therefore a similar expression, where r may be an arbitrary integer, which is called the **order** or **value** of the element. If r > 0, we say that x has a **zero** at the valuation, and if r < 0, we say that x has a **pole**. We write

$$r = v_0(x)$$
, or $v(x)$, or $\operatorname{ord}_0(x)$.

Let $\mathfrak p$ be the maximal ideal of $\mathfrak o$. The map of K which is the canonical map $\mathfrak o \to \mathfrak o/\mathfrak p$ on $\mathfrak o$, and sends an element $x \notin \mathfrak o$ to ∞ , is called the **place** of the valuation.

We shall take for granted a few basic facts concerning valuations, all of which can be found in my Algebra. Especially, if E is a finite extension of K and o is a discrete valuation ring in K with maximal ideal p, then there exists a discrete valuation ring O in E, with prime \mathfrak{P} , such that

$$\mathfrak{o} = \mathfrak{O} \cap K$$
 and $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{P} \cap K$.

If u is a prime element of \mathbb{O} , then $t\mathbb{O} = u^e \mathbb{O}$, and e is called the ramifica-

tion index of $\mathfrak D$ over $\mathfrak O$ (or of $\mathfrak B$ over $\mathfrak P$). If $\Gamma_{\mathfrak D}$ and $\Gamma_{\mathfrak o}$ are the value groups of these valuation rings, then $(\Gamma_{\mathfrak D}:\Gamma_{\mathfrak o})=e$.

We say that the pair $(\mathfrak{O}, \mathfrak{P})$ lies above $(\mathfrak{o}, \mathfrak{p})$, or more briefly that \mathfrak{P} lies above \mathfrak{p} . We say that $(\mathfrak{O}, \mathfrak{P})$ is unramified above $(\mathfrak{o}, \mathfrak{p})$, or that \mathfrak{P} is unramified above \mathfrak{p} , if the ramification index is equal to 1, that is e = 1.

Example. Let k be a field and t transcendental over k. Let $a \in k$. Let 0 be the set of rational functions

$$f(t)/g(t)$$
, with $f(t)$, $g(t) \in k[t]$ such that $g(a) \neq 0$.

Then $\mathfrak o$ is a discrete valuation ring, whose maximal ideal consists of all such quotients such that f(a) = 0. This is a typical situation. In fact, let k be algebraically closed (for simplicity), and consider the extension k(x) obtained with one transcendental element x over k. Let $\mathfrak o$ be a discrete valuation ring in k(x) containing k. Changing x to 1/x if necessary, we may assume that $x \in \mathfrak o$. Then $\mathfrak p \cap k[x] \neq 0$, and $\mathfrak p \cap k[x]$ is therefore generated by an irreducible polynomial p(x), which must be of degree 1 since we assumed k algebraically closed. Thus p(x) = x - a for some $a \in k$. Then it is clear that the canonical map

$$o \rightarrow o/p$$

induces the map

$$f(x) \mapsto f(a)$$

on polynomials, and it is then immediate that o consists of all quotients f(x)/g(x) such that $g(a) \neq 0$; in other words, we are back in the situation described at the beginning of the example.

Similarly, let o = k[t] be the ring of formal power series in one variable. Then o is a discrete valuation ring, and its maximal ideal is generated by t. Every element of the quotient field has a formal series expansion

$$x = a_{-m}t^{-m} + \cdots + a_{-1}t^{-1} + a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2 + \cdots,$$

with coefficients $a_i \in k$. The place maps x on the value a_0 if x does not have a pole.

In the applications, we shall study a field K which is a finite extension of a transcendental extension k(x), where k is algebraically closed, and x is transcendental over k. Such a field is called a **function field in one variable**. If that is the case, then the residue class field of any discrete valuation ring 0 containing k is equal to k itself, since we assumed k algebraically closed.

Proposition 1.1. Let E be a finite extension of K. Let $(\mathfrak{O}, \mathfrak{P})$ be a discrete

valuation ring in E above (0,p) in K. Suppose that E = K(y) where y is the root of a polynomial f(Y) = 0 having coefficients in 0, leading coefficient 1, such that

$$f(y) = 0$$
 but $f'(y) \not\equiv 0 \mod \mathfrak{P}$.

Then \mathfrak{P} is unramified over \mathfrak{p} .

Proof. There exists a constant $y_0 \in k$ such that $y \equiv y_0 \mod \mathfrak{P}$. By hypothesis, $f'(y_0) \not\equiv 0 \mod \mathfrak{P}$. Let $\{y_n\}$ be the sequence defined recursively by

$$y_{n+1} = y_n - f'(y_n)^{-1} f(y_n).$$

Then we leave to the reader the verification that this sequence converges in the completion $K_{\mathfrak{p}}$ of K, and it is also easy to verify that it converges to the root y since $y \equiv y_0 \mod \mathfrak{P}$ but y is not congruent to any other root of f and \mathfrak{P} . Hence y lies in this completion, so that the completion $E_{\mathfrak{P}}$ is embedded in $K_{\mathfrak{p}}$, and therefore \mathfrak{P} is unramified.

We also recall some elementary approximation theorems.

Chinese Remainder Theorem. Let R be a ring, and let $\mathfrak{p}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_n$ be distinct maximal ideals in that ring. Given positive integers r_1, \ldots, r_n and elements $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in R$, there exists $x \in R$ satisfying the congruences

$$x \equiv a_i \mod \mathfrak{p}_i^{r_i}$$
 for all i.

For the proof, cf. Algebra, Chapter II, §2. This theorem is applied to the integral closure of k[x] in a finite extension.

We shall also deal with similar approximations in a slightly different context, namely a field K and a finite set of discrete valuation rings o_1, \ldots, o_n of K, as follows.

Proposition 1.2. If o_1 and o_2 are two discrete valuation rings with quotient field K, such that $o_1 \subset o_2$, then $o_1 = o_2$.

Proof. We shall first prove that if \mathfrak{p}_1 and \mathfrak{p}_2 are their maximal ideals, then $\mathfrak{p}_2 \subset \mathfrak{p}_1$. Let $y \in \mathfrak{p}_2$. If $y \notin \mathfrak{p}_1$, then $1/y \in \mathfrak{o}_1$, whence $1/y \in \mathfrak{p}_2$, a contradiction. Hence $\mathfrak{p}_2 \subset \mathfrak{p}_1$. Every unit of \mathfrak{o}_1 is a fortiori a unit of \mathfrak{o}_2 . An element y of \mathfrak{p}_2 can be written $y = \pi_1^{\nu_1} u$ where u is a unit of \mathfrak{o}_1 and π_1 is an element of order 1 in \mathfrak{p}_1 . If π_1 is not in \mathfrak{p}_2 , it is a unit in \mathfrak{o}_2 , a contradiction. Hence π_1 is in \mathfrak{p}_2 , and hence so is $\mathfrak{p}_1 = \mathfrak{o}_1 \pi_1$. This proves $\mathfrak{p}_2 = \mathfrak{p}_1$. Finally,

if u is a unit in o_2 , and is not in o_1 , then 1/u is p_1 , and thus cannot be a unit in o_2 . This proves our proposition.

From now on, we assume that our valuation rings o_i (i = 1, ..., n) are distinct, and hence have no inclusion relations.

Proposition 1.3. There exists an element y of K having a zero at o_1 and a pole at o_i (j = 2, ..., n).

Proof. This will be proved by induction. Suppose n=2. Since there is no inclusion relation between o_1 and o_2 , we can find $y \in o_2$ and $y \notin o_1$. Similarly, we can find $z \in o_1$ and $z \notin o_2$. Then z/y has a zero at o_1 and a pole at o_2 as desired.

Now suppose we have found an element y of K having a zero at o_1 and a pole at o_2 , ..., o_{n-1} . Let z be such that z has a zero at o_1 and a pole at o_n . Then for sufficiently large r, y + z' satisfies our requirements, because we have schematically zero plus zero = zero, zero plus pole = pole, and the sum of two elements of K having poles of different order again has a pole.

A high power of the element y of Proposition 1.3 has a high zero at o_1 and a high pole at o_j (j = 2, ..., n). Adding 1 to this high power, and considering 1/(1 + y') we get

Corollary. There exists an element z of K such that z - 1 has a high zero at o_1 , and such that z has a high zero at o_i (j = 2, ..., n).

Denote by ord_i the order of an element of K under the discrete valuation associated with o_i . We then have the following approximation theorem.

Theorem 1.4. Given elements a_1, \ldots, a_n of K, and an integer N, there exists an element $y \in K$ such that $\operatorname{ord}_i(y - a_i) > N$.

Proof. For each i, use the corollary to get z_i close to 1 at o_i and close to 0 at o_j $(j \neq i)$, or rather at the valuations associated with these valuation rings. Then $z_1 a_1 + \cdots + z_n a_n$ has the required property.

In particular, we can find an element y having given orders at the valuations arising from the o_i . This is used to prove the following inequality.

Corollary. Let E be a finite algebraic extension of K. Let Γ be the value group of a discrete valuation of K, and Γ_i the value groups of a finite number of inequivalent discrete valuations of E extending that of K. Let e_i be the index of Γ in Γ_i . Then

Proof. Select elements

$$y_{1i}, \ldots, y_{1e_1}, \ldots, y_{ri}, \ldots, y_{re_r}$$

of E such that $y_{i\nu}$ ($\nu=1,\ldots,e_i$) represent distinct cosets of Γ in Γ_i , and have zeroes of high order at the other valuations v_j ($j \neq i$). We contend that the above elements are linearly independent over K. Suppose we have a relation of linear dependence

$$\sum_{i,\nu} c_{i\nu} y_{i\nu} = 0.$$

Say c_{11} has maximal value in Γ , that is, $v(c_{11}) \ge v(c_{i\nu})$ all i, v. Divide the equation by c_{11} . Then we may assume that $c_{11} = 1$, and that $v(c_{i\nu}) \le 1$. Consider the value of our sum taken at v_1 . All terms $y_{11}, c_{12}y_{12}, \ldots, c_{1e_1}y_{1e_1}$ have distinct values because the y's represent distinct cosets. Hence

$$v_1(y_{11} + \cdots + c_{1e_1}y_{1e_1}) \ge v_1(y_{11}).$$

On the other hand, the other terms in our sum have a very small value at v_1 by hypothesis. Hence again by that property, we have a contradiction, which proves the corollary.

§2. The Riemann-Roch Theorem

Let k be an algebraically closed field, and let K be a function field in one variable over k (briefly a function field). By this we mean that K is a finite extension of a purely transcendental extension k(x) of k, of transcendence degree 1. We call k the constant field. Elements of K are sometimes called functions.

By a prime, or point, of K over k, we shall mean a discrete valuation ring of K containing k (or over k). As we saw in the example of §1, the residue class field of this ring is then k itself. The set of all such discrete valuation rings (i.e., the set of all points of K) will be called a **curve**, whose function field is K. We use the letters P, Q for points of the curve, to suggest geometric terminology.

By a divisor (on the curve, or of K over k) we mean an element of the free abelian group generated by the points. Thus a divisor is a formal sum.

$$\alpha = \sum n_i P_i = \sum n_P P$$

where P_i are points, and n_i are integers, all but a finite number of which are 0. We call

$$\sum n_i = \sum_P n_P$$

the degree of α , and we call n_i the order of α at P_i .

If $x \in K$ and $x \neq 0$, then there is only a finite number of points P such that ord_P $x \neq 0$. Indeed, if x is constant, then ord_P(x) = 0 for all P. If x is not constant, then there is one point of k(x) at which x has a zero, and one point at which x has a pole. Each of these points extends to only a finite number of points of K, which is a finite extension of k(x). Hence we can associate a divisor with x, namely

$$(x) = \sum n_P P$$

where $n_P = \operatorname{ord}_P(x)$. Divisors α and b are said to be linearly equivalent if $\alpha - b$ is the divisor of a function. If $\alpha = \sum n_P P$ and $b = \sum m_P P$ are divisors, we write

$$a \ge b$$
 if and only if $n_P \ge m_P$ for all P .

This clearly defines a (partial) ordering among divisors. We call α positive if $\alpha \ge 0$.

If α is a divisor, we denote by $L(\alpha)$ the set of all elements $x \in K$ such that $(x) \ge -\alpha$. If α is a positive divisor, then $L(\alpha)$ consists of all the functions in K which have poles only in α , with multiplicities at most those of α . It is clear that $L(\alpha)$ is a vector space over the constant field k for any divisor α . We let $l(\alpha)$ be its dimension.

Our main purpose is to investigate more deeply the dimension $l(\alpha)$ of the vector space $L(\alpha)$ associated with a divisor α of the curve (we could say of the function field).

Let P be a point of V, and o its local ring in K. Let p be its maximal ideal. Since k is algebraically closed, o/p is canonically isomorphic to k. We know that o is a valuation ring, belonging to a discrete valuation. Let t be a generator of the maximal ideal. Let x be an element of o. Then for some constant a_0 in k, we can write $x \equiv a_0 \mod p$. The function $x - a_0$ is in p, and has a zero at o. We can therefore write $x - a_0 = ty_0$, where y_0 is in o. Again by a similar argument we get $y_0 = a_1 + ty_1$ with $y_1 \in o$, and

$$x = a_0 + a_1 t + y_1 t^2.$$

Continuing this procedure, we obtain an expansion of x into a power series,

$$x = a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2 + \cdot \cdot \cdot.$$

It is trivial that if each coefficient a_i is equal to 0, then x = 0.

The quotient field K of o can be embedded in the power series field k(t)