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$$\sigma((\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_r), (\beta_1, ..., \beta_s)) = (\alpha_1\beta_1, ..., \alpha_1\beta_s, \alpha_2\beta_1, ..., \alpha_2\beta_s, ..., \alpha_r\beta_s)$$

is a projective morphism establishing an isomorphism between $\mathbf{P}_{r-1} \times \mathbf{P}_{s-1}$ and the image $\mathcal{S} = \sigma(\mathbf{P}_{r-1} \times \mathbf{P}_{s-1})$. [4, Ex I.2.14] Once I label the coordinates of \mathbf{P}_{rs-1} as $(z_{11}, ..., z_{1s}, z_{21}, ..., z_{2s}, ..., z_{rs})$, \mathcal{S} can be identified with the algebraic subset of \mathbf{P}_{rs-1} cut out by the polynomials

$${z_{ij} z_{pq} - z_{iq} z_{pj} | 1 \leq i, p \leq r \text{ and } 1 \leq j, q \leq s}.$$

 \mathcal{S} is an algebraic subvariety of \mathbf{P}_{rs-1} , of dimension r+s-2.

In \mathbf{P}_{rs-1} we can also consider the algebraic subvariety \mathcal{F} cut out by the polynomials $\{\sum_{ij} z_{ij} \lambda_k^{ij} \mid 1 \leq k \leq t\}$. Since \mathcal{F} is cut out by $t \leq r+s-2$ equations and dim $\mathcal{S}=r+s-2$, \mathcal{S} and \mathcal{F} have a nonempty intersection, all of whose components have dimension at least (r+s-2)-t, which is ≥ 0 . [4, p. 48] However, any intersection point of \mathcal{S} and \mathcal{F} corresponds to a pair of points $(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_r) \in \mathbf{P}_{r-1}$, $(\beta_1, ..., \beta_s) \in \mathbf{P}_{s-1}$ satisfying (*). The corresponding points $a = \sum_{i} \alpha_i a_i \in A$, $b = \sum_{i} \beta_i b_i \in B$ are nonzero, yet $\varphi(a, b) = 0$. Since this contradicts the bi-injectivity of φ , I have shown that

$$\dim C \geqslant r + s - 1.$$

The assumption that K is algebraically closed was only needed to guarantee that $\mathcal{S} \cap \mathcal{T}$, which by dimension theory corresponds locally to a proper ideal, was nonempty. Hilbert's Nullstellensaltz shows that any proper ideal in a polynomial ring over an algebraically closed field cuts out at least one point.

2. A BRIEF RESUME OF DIVISORS ON CURVES

In this section, I will establish notation for divisors, and state the Riemann-Roch theorem. Let C be a nonsingular projective algebraic curve defined over an algebraically closed field K. C is contained in some projective space \mathbf{P}_N over K, and a (closed) point of C is any closed point $(p_0, ..., p_N)$ of \mathbf{P}_N at which all the polynomials cutting out C vanish. The group of divisors on C is the free abelian group generated by the points of C. Any divisor can be written in the form

$$N = \sum n_P \cdot P$$

where the n_P are integers, almost all zero. The degree of N is the integer deg $N = \sum n_P$. The divisor N is effective if all the n_P are ≥ 0 ; this is written as N > 0. I write D > E to mean D - E > 0.

To any function f on C one can associate a divisor $(f) = \sum \operatorname{ord}_{P}(f) \cdot P$, where $\operatorname{ord}_{P}(f)$ is the order of zero or pole of f at P. For any function f, the divisor (f) has degree 0. The divisors D, E are linearly equivalent, denoted by $D \sim E$, if for some function f, D - E = (f). To a divisor D on C one can associate a set of functions on C,

$$L(D) = \{ \text{functions } f \text{ on } C \mid (f) + D > 0 \} \setminus \{0\}.$$

Then L(D) is a K-vector space of dimension l(D); the set $|D| = \{\text{divisors } E \sim D \mid E > 0\}$ of the divisors (f) + D corresponding to functions f in L(D) is the linear system associated to D. If $\{f_0, ..., f_n\}$ is a basis of L(D), then |D| can be identified with P_n by associating the divisor

$$(a_0 f_0 + ... + a_n f_n) + D$$

to the triple $(a_0, ..., a_n)$; one writes dim |D| for the dimension of this projective space. To define dim |D| intrinsically, notice that dim $|D| \ge r$ if and only if, for all points $P_1, ..., P_r$ in C, there is a divisor E in |D| of the form $E = P_1 + ... + P_r + Q$, with Q effective. Any such divisor E is necessarily effective and linearly equivalent to D, and has support containing each P_i . (In fact, since dim $|D| \ge r$ there is a linearly independent set $\{f_0, ..., f_r\}$ of functions in L(D). One can choose E of the form $E = D + (\alpha_0 f_0 + ... + \alpha_r f_r)$ for some $\alpha_0, ..., \alpha_r \in K$.)

If $D \sim E$, then |D| = |E|, so dim $|D| = \dim |E|$, and L(D) is isomorphic to L(E). Since for any function f on $C \deg (f) = 0$, also $\deg D = \deg E$. In particular, if $\deg D < 0$ then |D| is empty, and L(D) = (0).

Definition. The curve C admits a g_n^r if there exists a divisor D on C of degree n, and with dim |D| = r. We call |D| the g_n^r defined by D.

Notice that if D defines a g_n^r and $E \sim D$, then E defines the same g_n^r . Yet a curve may admit several distinct g_n^r 's if it contains non-linearly equivalent divisors all defining g_n^r 's. To explain the notation, assume that L(D) has basis $(f_0, ..., f_r)$. Then the map

$$P \rightarrow (f_0(P), ..., f_r(P))$$

is a rational map from C into $\mathbf{P_r}$, defined except at the common zeros of all the f_i (the "fixed points" of |D|); via this map, the pullback of every hyperplane in $\mathbf{P_r}$ is a divisor on C of degree n. [4, II: 7.7 and 7.8.1]

The Riemann-Roch Theorem defines for each curve two invariants—a nonnegative integer g, the genus, and a divisor \mathcal{K} , the canonical divisor (détermined only up to linear equivalence). [For a modern proof, cf. 4, Ch. IV.1; an elementary proof is given in 2].

THEOREM (Riemann-Roch). Let C be a projective nonsingular algebraic curve. The genus of C is a nonnegative integer g. For all divisors D on C,

$$\dim |D| \geqslant \deg D - g.$$

If the strict inequality holds, D is special. For all special divisors D, $\dim |D| = \deg D + 1 - g + \dim |\mathcal{K} - D|$.

COROLLARY. $\deg \mathcal{K} = 2g - 2$; $\dim |\mathcal{K}| = g - 1$; and all divisors D of degree > 2g - 2 are nonspecial.

3. Clifford's Theorem — The elementary proof

Clifford's Theorem complements Riemann-Roch by providing information about special divisors, which of necessity are of small degree. The theorem also gives a sufficient condition that the curve C is hyperelliptic. (The theorem owes its name to the appearance of its first part in [1].) The proof I give here is elementary; more typical modern proofs [e.g. 4, Ch. IV, section 5 and 3, Ch. 2, section 3] involve considering whether the canonical morphism $C \to \mathbf{P}_{g-1}$ defined by the canonical divisor \mathcal{K} is an embedding.

Definition. C is a hyperelliptic curve if its genus g is at least 2, and if C admits a $g_{\frac{1}{2}}$.

Remarks.

- 1. C is hyperelliptic if and only if there is a rational map $C \to \mathbf{P}_1$ of degree 2.
- 2. This happens if and only if C has an (affine) equation of the form $y^2 = f(x)$.
- 3. Part (3) of Clifford's Theorem shows that a hyperelliptic curve has a unique $g_{\frac{1}{2}}$. Contrast this to the case of an elliptic curve, where g=1. Here any divisor of degree 2 defines a $g_{\frac{1}{2}}$. Yet choosing distinct points P, Q one sees easily that the divisors 2P and P+Q are not linearly equivalent, and so define distinct $g_{\frac{1}{2}}$'s.

Theorem (Chifford). Let C be a curve of genus g, and let D be an effective special divisor on C. Then