1. Here is an extremely simple example of a map between Riemann surfaces (aka "algebraic curves"). Fix an integer $n \geqslant 1$ and define a map $\varphi: \mathbb{P}^{1} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$ by the formula $[X: Y] \longrightarrow\left[X^{n}: Y^{n}\right]$.
(a) Check that $\varphi$ is well-defined, that is (1) $\varphi$ doesn't depend on the choice of representative we use for $[X: Y]$, and (2) no point of $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ is sent to $[0: 0]$ by these instructions.

In order to see that this is a map of Riemann surfaces, let us look in coordinate charts.
(b) Check that $\varphi^{-1}\left(U_{0}\right)=U_{0}$ and that $\varphi^{-1}\left(U_{1}\right)=U_{1}$, i.e, that $\varphi$ maps the standard coordinate charts to the standard coordinate charts.
(c) In each of $U_{0}$ and $U_{1}$ write out (in the coordinates of each chart) what $\varphi$ is doing. Is $\varphi$ an algebraic map?
(d) Find all the ramification points of $\varphi$ and their ramification degrees.

## Solution.

(a) (1) Suppose that $p=[X: Y] \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$. For any $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}^{*},[\lambda X: \lambda Y]$ represents the same point $p$. Since the coordinates of $\varphi\left(\left[(\lambda X)^{n}:(\lambda Y)^{n}\right]\right)=\left[\lambda^{n} X: \lambda^{n} Y\right]$ are a $\lambda^{n}$ times the coordinates of $\varphi([X: Y])=\left[X^{n}: Y^{n}\right]$, they represent the same point in $\mathbb{P}^{1}$. Therefore the instructions for $\varphi$, do not depend on the homogeneous coordinates chosen to represent $p$.
(2) The only way that $\varphi([X: Y])=\left[X^{n}: Y^{n}\right]=[0: 0]$ is if $X^{n}=0$ and $Y^{n}=0$, which implies that $X=0$ and $Y=0$. Since $X=0, Y=0$ is not a point of $\mathbb{P}^{1}$, we conclude that there is no point $[X: Y] \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$ so that $\varphi([X: Y])=[0: 0]$, and so $\varphi$ gives a well defined map of sets from $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ to $\mathbb{P}^{1}$.
(b) The coordinate chart $U_{0}$ is defined by the condition $X \neq 0$, so $[X: Y] \in \varphi^{-1}\left(U_{0}\right)$ exactly when $\varphi([X: Y])=\left[X^{n}: Y^{n}\right]$ satisfies $X^{n} \neq 0$, which is the same condition as $X \neq 0$. In other words, $[X: Y] \in \varphi^{-1}\left(U_{0}\right)$ if and only if $[X: Y] \in U_{0}$, so $\varphi^{-1}\left(U_{0}\right)=U_{0}$.

Similarly, the coordinate chart $U_{1}$ is defined by the condition that $Y \neq 0$. Therefore $[X: Y] \in \varphi^{-1}\left(U_{1}\right)$ if and ony if $\varphi([X: Y])=\left[X^{n}: Y^{n}\right]$ satisfies the condition $Y^{n} \neq 0$, which is the same as asking that $Y \neq 0$. Therefore, $[X: Y] \in \varphi^{-1}\left(U_{1}\right)$ if and only if $[X: Y] \in U_{1}$ and so $\varphi^{-1}\left(U_{1}\right)=U_{1}$.
(c) On $U_{0}$ the coordinate is $z=\frac{Y}{X}$. From the point of $U_{0}$, the map $\varphi$ is the composite

$$
z \leftrightarrow[1: z] \stackrel{\varphi}{\mapsto}\left[1^{n}: z^{n}\right]=\left[1: z^{n}\right] \leftrightarrow z^{n} \in U_{0} .
$$

That is, on $U_{0}, \varphi$ is given by $\varphi(z)=z^{n}$.
Similarly, on $U_{1}$ with coordinate $w=\frac{X}{Y}, \varphi$ is the composite

$$
w \leftrightarrow[w: 1] \stackrel{\varphi}{\mapsto}\left[w^{n}: 1^{n}\right]=\left[w^{n}: 1\right] \leftrightarrow w^{n} \in U_{1},
$$

so that $\varphi(w)=w^{n}$ on $U_{1}$.
From this description, $\varphi$ is certainly an algebraic map!
(d) In chart $U_{0}$, the only ramification point is at 0 (corresponding to the point $p_{0}=$ $[1: 0] \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$ ). From the coordinate description $z \mapsto z^{n}$, the ramification degree at $p_{0}$ is $k_{p_{0}}=n$.

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Note: The map $\varphi$ is a map from $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ to $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ of degree $n$. As a check on our computations of the number and ramification degree of the ramification points of $\varphi$ we should see that the Riemann-Hurwitz formula holds with this data. The computation is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
-2=2(0-1) & =2\left(g\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}\right)-1\right) \xlongequal{\mathrm{R}-\mathrm{H}} n \cdot 2\left(g\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}\right)-1\right)+\sum_{p}\left(k_{p}-1\right) \\
& =n \cdot 2(0-1)+(n-1)+(n-1)=-2 n+(2 n-2)=-2 .
\end{aligned}
$$

So, our computation seems reasonable - the Riemann-Hurwitz formula agrees that having two ramification points of degree $n$ is compatible with a degree $n$ cover from $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ to $\mathbb{P}^{1}$.
2. Use the Riemann-Hurwitz formula to find the genus of $X$, the genus of $Y$, or the number of ramification points, as required.
(a) $\pi: X \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$ is a degree 3 cover, with two ramification points, both with ramification index $k_{p}=3$. Find the genus of $X$.
(b) $\pi: X \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$ is a degree 3 cover, with three ramification points, all with ramification index $k_{p}=3$. Find the genus of $X$.
(c) $\pi: X \longrightarrow Y$ is a map of degree $d, X$ has genus 1 , and there are no ramification points. Find the genus of $Y$.
(d) $X$ is of genus $g, Y$ is of genus 1 , the map $\pi: X \longrightarrow Y$ is of degree $d$, and all ramification points $p$ in $X$ are of index 2. Find the number of ramification points (the answer turns out, in this case, not to depend on the degree $d$ ).

Can you think of a map $X \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$ satisfying the description in part (a)?

## Solution.

(a) By the Riemann-Hurwitz formula,

$$
2\left(g_{X}-1\right)=3 \cdot 2(0-1)+(3-1)+(3-1)=-6+4=-2
$$

so that $g_{X}=0$.
(b) By the Riemann-Hurwitz formula,

$$
2\left(g_{X}-1\right)=3 \cdot 2(0-1)+(3-1)+(3-1)+(3-1)=-6+6=0
$$

so that $g_{X}=1$.
(c) By the Riemann-Hurwitz formula,

$$
0=2(1-1)=d \cdot 2\left(g_{Y}-1\right)+0=2\left(g_{Y}-1\right)
$$

so that $g_{Y}=1$.
(d) Since $g_{X}=g, g_{Y}=1$, and $k_{p}=2$ for all ramification points, the Riemann-Hurwitz formula gives us

$$
2 g-2=2 \cdot\left(g_{X}-1\right)=d \cdot 2(1-1)+\sum_{p}\left(k_{p}-1\right)=0+(\# \text { ramification points }),
$$

so that the number of ramification points is $2 g-2$.

The map in (a) is a map $\pi: \mathbb{P}^{1} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$ of degree 3 , with two ramification points, each of ramification index $k_{p}=3$. An example of such a map is the map considered in question 1 with $n=3$, i.e,. the map $\varphi: \mathbb{P}^{1} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$ given by $\varphi([X: Y])=\left[X^{3}: Y^{3}\right]$.
3. In this question we will complete the proof of the theorem describing the "global" picture of a non-constant map $\varphi: X \longrightarrow Y$ between Riemann surfaces. The key missing step of the theorem was this: to show that there exists a positive integer $d$, such that for any $q \in Y, \sum_{p \in \varphi^{-1}(q)} k_{p}=d$. Here the sum is over all $p$ such that $\varphi(p)=q$, and $k_{p}$ denotes the ramification index of $\varphi$ at $p$.
To reduce notation somewhat, let us define the function $D: Y \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$ by $D(q)=$ $\sum_{p \in \varphi^{-1}(q)} k_{p}$. The goal of this problem is then to show that $D$ is a constant function.
Lemma : For each $q \in Y$ there is a small neighbourhood ( $=$ open set around) $V$ of $q$ such that $D$ is constant on $V$.
First let us see how to prove the result using the lemma.
(a) Use the lemma to show that for each $d \in \mathbb{N}$ the set

$$
D^{-1}(d)=\{q \in Y \mid D(q)=d\}
$$

is open.
(b) Use (a) to show that for each $d \in \mathbb{N}$ the set $D^{-1}(d)$ is closed. (Suggestion: this is the same as showing that the complement is open.)
(c) Use (a) $+(\mathrm{b})$ to show that for each $d \in \mathbb{N}, D^{-1}(d)$ is either $Y$ or the empty set.
(d) Conclude that there is a unique $d \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $D^{-1}(d)=Y$, i.e., conclude that $D$ is constant on $Y$.

We now work on proving the lemma.
Fix $q \in Y$, and suppose that $\varphi^{-1}(q)=\left\{p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{r}\right\}$. From our local picture we know that there is an open set $V$ around $q$, and open sets $U_{1}, \ldots, U_{r}$ around $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{r}$ such that $\varphi\left(U_{i}\right) \subset V$ for each $i=1, \ldots, r$, and that on each $U_{i}$ the map $\varphi$ looks like $z_{i} \mapsto z_{i}^{k_{p_{i}}}$, where $z_{i}$ is a local coordinate on $U_{i}$, and $k_{p_{i}}$ the ramification index at $p_{i}$.
Given these $U_{i}$ and $V$, for $q \in V$ let us split our function $D$ into the sum of two functions. For $q^{\prime} \in V$, by definition $D\left(q^{\prime}\right)$ is the sum over $p^{\prime} \in \varphi^{-1}\left(q^{\prime}\right)$ of the ramification indices $k_{p^{\prime}}$. We will split the sum into pieces according to whether $p^{\prime}$ is in $U_{1} \cup U_{2} \cup \cdots \cup U_{r}$ or outside it. Set $U=U_{1} \cup U_{2} \cup \cdots \cup U_{r}$ and define :

$$
D_{U}\left(q^{\prime}\right)=\sum_{p^{\prime} \in \varphi^{-1}\left(q^{\prime}\right) \cap U} k_{p^{\prime}} \text { and } D_{U}^{c} \sum_{p^{\prime} \in \varphi^{-1}\left(q^{\prime}\right), p \notin U} k_{p^{\prime}},
$$

so that $D\left(q^{\prime}\right)=D_{U}\left(q^{\prime}\right)+D_{U}^{c}\left(q^{\prime}\right)$. (The " $c$ " is for "complement.)
Set $d=D(q)=k_{p_{1}}+k_{p_{2}}+\cdots+k_{p_{r}}$.
(e) Show that for $q^{\prime}$ sufficiently close to $q, D_{U}\left(q^{\prime}\right)=d$.

Claim: For $q^{\prime}$ sufficiently close to $q$, all points of $\varphi^{-1}\left(q^{\prime}\right)$ are in $U$. (This then shows that for those points $D_{U}^{c}\left(q^{\prime}\right)=0$, and hence using $D=D_{U}+D_{U}^{c}$ and (e) that $D\left(q^{\prime}\right)=d$ for all points $q^{\prime}$ sufficiently close to $q$, thus proving the lemma.)
The negation of this claim is that there is a sequence of points $q_{1}^{\prime}, q_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots$, converging to $q$, and for each $q_{i}^{\prime}$ a point $p_{i}^{\prime} \in \varphi^{-1}\left(q_{i}^{\prime}\right)$ which is outside of $U$. Since $X$ is compact, such a sequence would have a limit point $\bar{p} \in X$.
$(f)$ Explain why we would have $\varphi(\bar{p})=q$.
(g) Explain why this means that $\bar{p} \in\left\{p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{r}\right\}$.
(h) Explain why this means that some $p_{i}^{\prime}$ (in fact, infinitely many $p_{i}^{\prime}$ ) would have to be in $U$.
(i) Explain why this is a contradiction, thus establishing the claim, the lemma, and finally the theorem from class.

## Solution.

(a) By definition a set $S$ is open if for each points $q \in S$, there is an open set $V \subseteq S$ which contains $q$.

Fix $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and set $S=D^{-1}(d)$. If $q \in S$ then $D(q)=d$ (by definition of $S$ ). By the lemma, there is an open set $V$ containing $q$ so that $D$ is constant on $V$, i.e., $D\left(q^{\prime}\right)=d$ for all $q^{\prime} \in V$. Thus $V \subseteq S$, and so $S$ is open.
(b) One way to prove that a set $S$ is open is to prove that its complement is closed. Fix $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and set $S=D^{-1}(d)$. Let $S^{c}=Y \backslash S$ be the complement of $S$ in $Y$. From the definition, a point $q \in S^{c}$ if and only if $q \notin S$, i.e., if and only if $D(q) \neq d$. From this we see that

$$
S^{c}=\bigcup_{e \in \mathbb{N}, e \neq d} D^{-1}(e)
$$

By part (a) each of the sets $D^{-1}(e)$ is open, and an arbitrary union of open sets is open, therefore $S^{c}$ is open, and so $S$ is closed.
(c) By (a) and (b), for each $d \in \mathbb{N}$ the set $D^{-1}(d)$ is both open and closed in $Y$. For a connected topological space (like $Y$ ), the only sets which are both open and closed are $\varnothing$ and $Y$. Thus, for each $d \in \mathbb{N}, D^{-1}(d)$ is either empty or all of $Y$.
(d) Let $q$ be any point of $Y$, and $d=D(q)$. Then $q \in D^{-1}(d)$, so $D^{-1}(d) \neq \varnothing$. By part (c) this means that $D^{-1}(d)=Y$, i.e., that for all $q^{\prime} \in Y, D\left(q^{\prime}\right)=d$, so that $D$ is constant on $Y$.
(e) On each $U_{i}$ we know that $\varphi$ looks like the map $z_{i} \mapsto z_{i}^{k_{p_{i}}}$. As long as $q^{\prime}$ is close enough to $q$ so that $q^{\prime} \in \varphi\left(U_{i}\right)$, then $\varphi^{-1}\left(q^{\prime}\right) \cap U_{i}$ is the solutions to $z_{i}^{k_{1}}=w$, where $w$ is the number corresponding to $q^{\prime}$ in the coordinate system on $V$.

Thus, once $q^{\prime}$ is close enough to $q, \varphi^{-1}\left(q^{\prime}\right) \cap U_{i}$ contains $k_{i}$ points, since $z^{k_{i}}=w$ has exactly $k_{i}$ solutions in $\mathbb{C}$ when $w \neq 0$ (i.e, when $q^{\prime} \neq q$ ). Here is the usual picture of the map $z \rightarrow z^{k}$ illustrating this :


Thus, once $q^{\prime}$ is close enough to $q$ to be inside all $\varphi\left(U_{i}\right)$ (i.e, $q^{\prime} \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{r} \varphi\left(U_{i}\right)$ ), and when $q \neq q^{\prime}$, then $\varphi^{-1}\left(q^{\prime}\right)$ have exactly $k_{p_{i}}$ points in $U_{i}$, and so a total of $\sum_{i=1}^{r} k_{p_{i}}=d$ points in $U$.

However, each of those points is unramified, i.e., their ramification index is 1. (We saw this in class by a local description of what the " $k$ " in the ramification index means.) Thus $D_{U}\left(q^{\prime}\right)$, which is the some of the ramification indices of the points of $\varphi^{-1}\left(q^{\prime}\right) \cap U$ is the sum of the number 1 over the $d$ points in $\varphi^{-1}\left(q^{\prime}\right) \cap U$, and so $D_{U}\left(q^{\prime}\right)=d$. (If $q^{\prime}=q$ then we already know that the points $\left\{p_{1}, \ldots, p_{r}\right\}$ of $\varphi^{-1}(q)$ all lie in $U$, and that their ramfication indices sum to $d$ - that is how we defined $d!$ )

Therefore, for all $q^{\prime}$ sufficiently close to $q$ (including $q^{\prime}=q$ ) $D_{U}\left(q^{\prime}\right)=d$.
( $f$ ) To make the notation easier, let us assume that we have already passed to a subsequence of the $p_{i}^{\prime}$ which converges to $\bar{p}$, i.e., that $\lim _{i \rightarrow \infty} p_{i}^{\prime}=\bar{p}$.

We know that the $q_{i}^{\prime}$ converge to $q$, and that $\varphi\left(p_{i}^{\prime}\right)=q_{i}^{\prime}$ for each $i$. Since $\varphi$ is a continuous map we therefore have

$$
\varphi(\bar{p})=\varphi\left(\lim _{i \rightarrow \infty} p_{i}^{\prime}\right)=\lim _{i \rightarrow \infty} \varphi\left(p_{i}^{\prime}\right)=\lim _{i \rightarrow \infty} q_{i}^{\prime}=q
$$

(g) Since $\varphi(\bar{p})=q, \bar{p} \in \varphi^{-1}(q)=\left\{p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{r}\right\}$.
(h) $\mathrm{By}(\mathrm{g}), \bar{p}=p_{j}$ for some $j, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant r$, and by definition $U_{j}$ is an open set around $p_{j}$. Since the sequence $\left\{p_{i}^{\prime}\right\}$ is converging to $\bar{p}=p_{j}$, then there is some $N$ so that for all $i \geqslant N, p_{i}^{\prime} \in U_{j}$.
(i) The $p_{i}^{\prime}$ were chosen so that no $p_{i}^{\prime}$ lies in any $U_{j}$. The conclusion above is therefore a contradiction, and so there is no such sequence $q_{i}^{\prime}$ converging to $q$, establishing the claim. (And therefore the lemma, and then the theorem!)

