

Algebraic Curves and Riemann–Roch Theorem

Presented by:

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Overview

In this presentation we expose the ideas behind the **algebraic** definition of the concept of **genus** for an algebraic curve over $\mathbb{K}$. In particular

- if C is smooth and projective over $\mathbb{C}$, we want that the latter coincides with the topological genus of $C(\mathbb{C})$.
- We see that it will emerge algebraically by treating the group of **Divisors** of the curve.
- Finally we will concentrate on Riemann–Roch Theorem.



Plane Curves and Singularities

Algebraic plane curves correspond to the zero set of a nonconstant $C \in \mathbb{K}[x, y]$.

- If C is irreducible, $V(C)$ is an irreducible variety in $\mathbb{A}_{\mathbb{K}}^2$ so we restrict to this case.
- A point $P = (a, b) \in C$ **smooth** or **simple** if $\partial_x C(P) \neq 0$ or $\partial_y C(P) \neq 0$, in this case its tangent line is

$$\partial_y C(P)(x - a) + \partial_x C(P)(y - b) = 0.$$

- Otherwise P is called a **singular** point, in particular: it is an **ordinary singularity** if its tangent cone is composed of distinct lines.
- The **multiplicity** $m_P(C)$ of an ordinary singularity P is the number of lines in its tangent cone.

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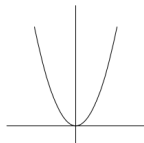
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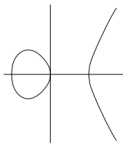
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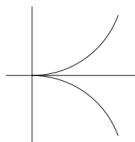




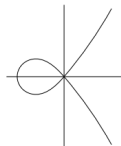
$$A = Y - X^2$$



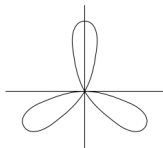
$$B = Y^2 - X^3 + X$$



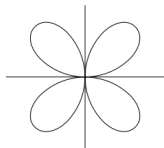
$$C = Y^2 - X^3$$



$$D = Y^2 - X^3 - X^2$$



$$E = (X^2 + Y^2)^2 + 3X^2Y - Y^3$$



$$F = (X^2 + Y^2)^3 - 4X^2Y^2$$

- Notice that if $P = (0, 0)$ the multiplicity of the curve in P is the degree of its the lowest homogeneous component.
- After a change of coordinate one can use the same criterion to find the multiplicity of the other singular points.



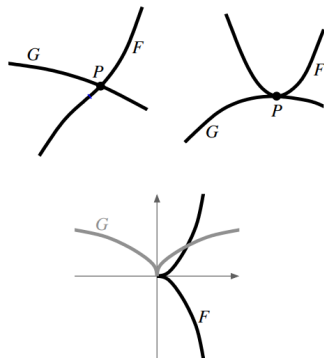
Intersection numbers

For all plane curves F and G and all points $P \in \mathbb{A}_{\mathbb{K}}^2$ there is a unique nonnegative integer

$$I_P(F, G) := \dim_{\mathbb{K}} \mathcal{O}_P(\mathbb{A}^2)/(F, G)$$

such that

- if F and G do not intersect $I_P(F, G) = 0$,
- if F and G do not intersect properly $I_P(F, G) = \infty$,
- $I_P(F, G) \geq m_P(F)m_P(G)$,
- $I_P(F, G) = I_P(F, G + AF)$ for any $A \in \mathbb{K}[x, y]$.



More generally, algebraic curves are 1–dimensional varieties, so its field of rational function has transcendence degree one.

Theorem

Any algebraic curve is birational to a plane projective curve with only ordinary singularities.

Since any algebraic curve has a smooth model, in other words:

Theorem

Any algebraic curve is birational to a unique (up to isomorphism) smooth projective curve.

we concentrate on smooth projective curves.



Affine curves

We consider a smooth, irreducible, affine curve C over an algebraically closed field $\mathbb{K}$, and denote

- $A(C) := \mathbb{K}[x, y]/(C)$ its **affine coordinate ring**.
- $\mathbb{K}(C) := \{f/g : f, g \in A(C) \text{ and } g \neq 0\}$ its field of **rational functions**.
- $\mathcal{O}_P(C)$ the **local ring of P** on $V(C)$, with the (unique) maximal ideal

$$\mathfrak{m}_P(C) = \{f/g : f, g \in A(C), \text{ with } f(P) = 0, g(P) \neq 0\}.$$



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Discrete valuation rings $\mathcal{O}_P$

Recall that, since every point of C is regular, any $\mathcal{O}_P$ is a discrete valuation ring:

- a) $\mathfrak{m}_P(C) = (t)$ is principal, with $t \in \mathcal{O}_P$ a **local coordinate** for C in P .
- b) Every $\varphi \in \mathbb{K}(C)$ can be written $\varphi = ct^n$, with c a unit, i.e. $c \in \mathcal{O}_P - \mathfrak{m}_P$, and $n = \text{ord}_P(\varphi)$.
- c) If $\varphi = f/g$ we have $\text{ord}_P(\varphi) = I_P(f, C) - I_P(g, C)$.
- d) In particular, $\text{ord}_P : \mathbb{K}(C)^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is a discrete valuation, and $A(C)$ and $\mathfrak{m}_P$ are respectively the pullbacks of $[0, \infty)$ and $(0, \infty)$.
- e) Intuitively, $\text{ord}_P(\varphi)$ is greater (resp. is less) than zero if and only if φ has a zero (resp. a pole) in P .



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Projective curves

Similarly we introduce above definitions in case of projective curves, considering $S(C)$ the **homogeneous coordinate ring** of C as a graded ring, i.e.

$$S(C) = \bigoplus_{d \geq 0} S_d(C).$$

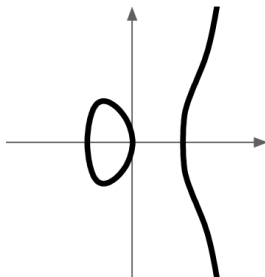
The definition of multiplicity of rational functions on C is easily extended since it is a local property.



Example

Consider the rational function $\varphi = \frac{y}{x}$ over the projective curve $C : Y^2Z - X^3 + XZ^2$, and $P = (0 : 0 : 1) \in C$. Then

$$\text{ord}_P(\varphi) = \text{ord}_P(y) - \text{ord}_P(x) = 1 - 2 = -1.$$



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



Theorem (Bézout)

Let F and G be two projective curves without common component over a ground field $\mathbb{K}$, then the number of their intersections counted with multiplicity is

$$\sum_{P \in F \cap G} I_P(F, G) \leq \deg F \cdot \deg G.$$

Moreover, equality holds if $\mathbb{K}$ is algebraically closed.



Theorem (Noether)

Let F be a smooth projective curve over $\mathbb{K}$ an algebraically closed field. Let G and H be two smooth projective curves that do not have a common component with F . Then

- if $I_P(F, G) \leq I_P(F, H)$ for all $P \in \mathbb{P}_2$ there are homogeneous polynomials A and B (of degrees $\deg H - \deg F$ and $\deg H - \deg G$) such that
 - a) $H = AF + BG$;
 - b) $I_P(F, H) = I_P(F, G) + I_P(F, B)$ for all $P \in \mathbb{P}_2$.



Topology of complex Curves

If we consider a smooth projective curve over $\mathbb{C}$, its points $V(C)$ form a 1–dimensional complex manifold, moreover

- $V(C)$ is *compact*,
- $V(C)$ is *oriented*,
- $V(C)$ is *connected*.

Therefore, it is homeomorphic to a sphere with a finite amount of "handles", i.e. the **topological genus** of $V(C)$.

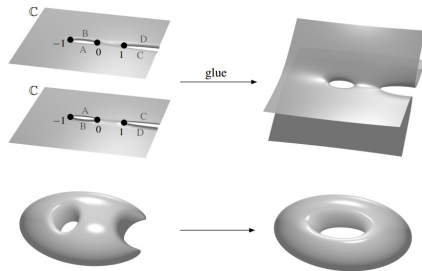


Figure: $C : ZY^2 + Z^2X - X^3 = 0$.



Topological genus of complex Curves

Cell decomposition

Definition

Let $\mathcal{M}$ be a compact 2-dimensional (real) manifold, a **cell decomposition** of $\mathcal{M}$, is a finite disjoint union of *points*, (*open*) *lines*, and (*open*) *discs*.

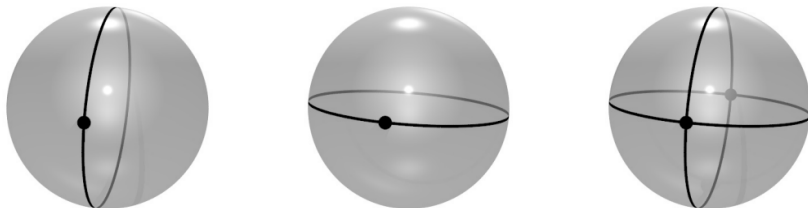


Figure: Three valid disjoint decompositions of $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C})$.

Topological genus of complex Curves

Euler characteristic

Lemma

Let $\mathcal{M}$ be a compact 2–dimensional (real) manifold. Consider a cell decomposition of $\mathcal{M}$ consisting of σ_0 points, σ_1 lines, and σ_2 discs. The number

$$\chi := \sigma_0 - \sigma_1 + \sigma_2$$

only depends on $\mathcal{M}$ and is called **Euler characteristic** of $\mathcal{M}$.



Euler characteristic

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- From any two cell decomposition we can find a common refinement.
- Such a refinement is obtained through operations of two types:
 - 1) adding another point on a line,
 - 2) adding another line to a disc,

which do not modify χ .



Relation between g and χ

Given $\mathcal{M}$ a connected and compact oriented 2–dimensional (real) manifold, we can build a valid cell decomposition using 4 lines and 2 points for each hole which lead to a total of

- $\sigma_0 = 2g + 2$ points,
- $\sigma_1 = 4g + 4$ lines,
- $\sigma_2 = 4$ discs.



Therefore

$$\chi = \sigma_0 - \sigma_1 + \sigma_2 = 2 - 2g \iff g = 1 - \chi/2.$$



Theorem (Topological degree–genus formula)

A smooth curve of degree d in $\mathbb{P}_2(\mathbb{C})$ has topological genus $\binom{d-1}{2} = \frac{(d-1)(d-2)}{2}$.

Proof sketch:

- Wlog $(0 : 1 : 0) \notin C$ and the projection $\pi : V(C) \rightarrow \mathbb{P}_1(\mathbb{C})$ is well defined.
- The inverse images of the points $(x : z) \in \mathbb{P}_1(\mathbb{C})$ contains d points unless C has a multiple zero, i.e. C and $\partial_y C$ are both null there.
- Their corresponding inverse image has $d - 1$ points.
- Since at a ramification point we have $I_P(C, \partial_y C) = 1$ we have a total of $\deg C \cdot \deg \partial_y C = d(d - 1)$ ramification points of π .
- Taking a fine cell decomposition of $\mathbb{P}_1(\mathbb{C})$ containing their π -images and s.t. $\sigma_0 - \sigma_1 + \sigma_2 = 2$ and lifting it leads

$$\chi = d\sigma_0 - d(d - 1) - d\sigma_1 + d\sigma_2 = 3d - d^2.$$



Topological genus of complex Curves

Summarizing

- We have seen that to every curve in $\mathbb{P}_2(\mathbb{C})$ can be assigned such a topological invariant, its genus.
- Remarkably, the topological genus of a smooth complex projective curve depends only on its algebraic degree.
- A natural question arises: "is it possible to define an **algebraic genus** for smooth projective curves which coincides with the topological one in case $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{C}$?"



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Divisors on Curves

Let C be a smooth projective curve

- A **divisor** on C is a formal sum $D := \sum_{P \in C} a_P P$, where $a_P \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a_P = 0$ for all but a finite amount of P .
- A divisor $D \in \text{Div } C$ is called **effective** if $a_P \geq 0$ for all $P \in C$.
- For $D_1, D_2 \in \text{Div } C$ we write

$$D_1 \geq D_2 \iff D_1 - D_2 \text{ is effective.}$$

- The **degree** of a divisor $D := \sum_{P \in C} a_P P$ is $\deg D := \sum_{P \in C} a_P$ and we denote

$$\deg : \text{Div } C \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad \text{Div}^0 C := \ker(\deg).$$



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Rational functions and divisors

Having defined the multiplicities of polynomials and rational functions on curves allows to introduce a particular class of divisors.

- For a non-zero polynomial $f \in S(C) - \{0\}$, the **divisor of f** is

$$\operatorname{div} f := \sum_{P \in C} \operatorname{ord}_P(f) \cdot P \quad \geq 0$$

- Similarly for a non-zero rational function $\varphi \in \mathbb{K}(C)^*$, the **divisor of φ** is

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Rational functions and divisors

Since ord_P is a valuation we have that

$$\text{div}(fg) = \sum_{P \in C} \text{ord}_P(fg) \cdot P = \sum_{P \in C} (\text{ord}_P(f) + \text{ord}_P(g)) \cdot P = \text{div } f + \text{div } g,$$

and similarly

$$\text{div}(\varphi\psi) = \text{div}(\varphi) + \text{div}(\psi).$$

In particular

$$\text{div} : \mathbb{K}^*(C) \rightarrow \text{Div } C$$

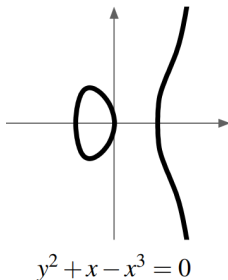
is a group homomorphism.



Example

Consider the rational function $\varphi = \frac{y}{x}$ over the projective curve $C : Y^2Z - X^3 + XZ^2$, then

$$\begin{aligned}\operatorname{div} \varphi &= (0 : 0 : 1) + (-1 : 0 : 1) + (1 : 0 : 1) - 2(0 : 0 : 1) - (0 : 1 : 0) \\ &= -(0 : 0 : 1) + (-1 : 0 : 1) + (1 : 0 : 1) - (0 : 1 : 0)\end{aligned}$$



Bézout and Nother theorems for divisors

Notice that for f and φ respectively a non-zero polynomial and rational function we have

$$\deg(\operatorname{div} f) = \sum_{P \in C} \operatorname{ord}_P(f) = \sum_{P \in C} I_P(C, f) = \deg C \cdot \deg f,$$

while writing $\varphi = h/g$, with $h, g \in S_d(C)$ and $g \neq 0$ we get

$$\deg(\operatorname{div} \varphi) = \deg(\operatorname{div} h) - \deg(\operatorname{div} g) = \deg C \cdot (d - d) = 0.$$

In particular

$$\operatorname{div} : \mathbb{K}^*(C) \rightarrow \operatorname{Div}^0 C \subset \operatorname{Div} C.$$



Bézout and Nother theorems for divisors

Proposition (Noether's Theorem for divisors)

If C is a projective curve and $g, h \in S(C)$ non-zero homogeneous polynomials with $\operatorname{div} g \leq \operatorname{div} h$. Then, there exists a homogeneous $b \in S(F)$ of degree $\deg h - \deg g$ such that

$$h = bg \text{ in } S(F), \quad \text{and} \quad \operatorname{div} h = \operatorname{div} b + \operatorname{div} g.$$

Corollary

The only rational functions everywhere regular on a projective curve C are constants, i.e.

$$\bigcap_{P \in C} \mathcal{O}_P = \mathbb{K}$$

Divisor classes and Picard group

- A divisor on C is called **principal** if it is the divisor of a certain $\varphi \in \mathbb{K}(F)^*$, i.e.

$$\text{Prin } C := \{\text{div } \varphi : \varphi \in \mathbb{K}(F)^*\} \subset \text{Div}^0 C \subset \text{Div } C.$$

- The quotient group

$$\text{Pic } C := \text{Div } C / \text{Prin } C$$

is called the **Picard group** or the group of **divisor classes** of C .

- Two divisors D_1 and D_2 are said **linearly equivalent** if they define the same class, i.e

$$D_1 \sim D_2 \iff D_1 - D_2 = \text{div } \varphi.$$



Divisor classes and Picard group

Example

If C is a projective line or a conic, then all divisors of $\text{Div}^0 C$ are linearly equivalent, i.e. $\text{Pic}^0 C := \text{Div}^0 C / \text{Prin } C$ is trivial.

For curves of higher degree, this is never the case. In fact

Proposition

If $\deg C \geq 3$ then $P \not\sim Q$ for any distinct points $P, Q \in C$. In particular $\text{Pic}^0 C$ is not trivial.



Vector spaces $L(D)$

- Determining "how many" functions there are on a projective curve is an interesting task since one expects that this feature reflects some intrinsic properties of the curve.
- With this aim, we are interested in studying rational function which are regular everywhere but is a finite set of points where we allow poles (or zeros) of a certain order.



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Vector spaces $L(D)$

If $D = \sum_{P \in C} a_P \cdot P$, we define

$$\begin{aligned} L(D) &:= \{\varphi \in \mathbb{K}(C)^* : \operatorname{div} \varphi + D \geq 0\} \cup \{0\} \\ &= \{\varphi \in \mathbb{K}(C)^* : \operatorname{ord}_P(\varphi) \geq -a_P \text{ for all } P \in C\} \end{aligned}$$

the space of rational functions such that

- 1) φ **may** have a pole of order at most a_P for all P such that $a_P > 0$,
- 2) φ **must** have a zero of order at least $-a_P$ for all P such that $a_P < 0$.

Remark

Our aim is to determine $\ell(D) := \dim_{\mathbb{K}} L(D) \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$, which is called **dimension** of the divisor D .

Remark

- a) If $D = 0$ the space

$$L(D) = L(0) = \{\varphi \in \mathbb{K}(C)^* : \operatorname{div} \varphi \geq 0\} \cup \{0\} = \mathbb{K}$$

and so $\ell(0) = 1$.

- b) If $\deg D < 0$, we have $L(D) = \{0\}$ and $\ell(D) = 0$.
- c) If $D \leq D'$ then $L(D) \subseteq L(D')$ and $\ell(D) \leq \ell(D')$.
- d) If $D \sim D'$ are two linearly equivalent divisors on C , then $\ell(D) = \ell(D')$.



Lemma

Let D be a divisor on a projective curve C . Then

- (i) for any point $P \in C$ we have $\ell(D + P) = \ell(D)$ or $\ell(D + P) = \ell(D) + 1$.
- (ii) For any divisor $D' \geq D$ we have $\ell(D) \leq \ell(D') \leq \ell(D) + \deg(D' - D)$.
- (iii) If $\deg D \geq 0$ then $\ell(D) \leq \deg D + 1 < +\infty$.



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Proof.

Let $D = \sum_{P \in C} a_P \cdot P$ and consider $\Phi : L(D + P) \ni \varphi \mapsto (t^{a_P+1}\varphi)(P) \in \mathbb{K}$.

Observing

$$\Phi(\varphi) = 0 \iff \text{ord}_P(t^{a_P+1}\varphi) > 0 \iff \text{ord}_P(\varphi) + a_P \geq 0$$

we deduce that $\ker \Phi = L(D)$, and $L(D + P)/L(D) \cong \text{Im } \Phi \subseteq \mathbb{K}$.



Proposition

If $\deg D \geq 0$ on a projective curve of degree 1 or 2 then $\ell(D) = \deg D + 1$.

Indeed, recall that $\text{Pic } C \cong \mathbb{Z}/\text{Pic}^0 C$ and that in this case $\text{Pic}^0 C = \{0\}$.

If P and Q are distinct

$$P \sim Q \iff \text{div } \varphi = Q - P \iff \text{div } \varphi^k = kQ - kP$$

and therefore

$$\begin{cases} \varphi^k + kP = kQ \geq 0 \\ \varphi^k + (k-1)P = kQ - P \not\geq 0 \end{cases} \implies \varphi^k \in L(kP) - L((k-1)P).$$

We conclude $\mathbb{K} = L(0) \subset L(P) \subset \cdots \subset L(nP)$, and so $\ell(nP) = n + 1$. Since every divisor D of degree n is $D \sim nP$ we conclude.



Proposition

If $\deg C \geq 3$ then

- a) for every point $\ell(P) = 1$.
 - b) if $P \neq Q$, we have $\ell(P - Q) = 0$.
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- If $\varphi \in L(P)$, it must have a pole of order 1 in P and be regular elsewhere, and so $\operatorname{div} \varphi = Q - P$. By above proposition $Q = P$ and so $L(P) = \mathbb{K}$.
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- a) for every point $\ell(P) = 1$.
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Remark

If $\deg C \geq 3$, for any two distinct points $P, Q \in C$ we have

$$\ell(0) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \ell(P - Q) = 0,$$

so in general $\ell(D)$ does not only depend on $\deg D$.



Lemma

If C is a projective curve of degree d (wlog $C \neq Z$). Then for all $n \geq d$ for the divisor $D := n \cdot \text{div } Z$ we have:

a) There is an exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{K}[X, Y, Z]_{n-d} \xrightarrow{\cdot C} \mathbb{K}[X, Y, Z]_n \xrightarrow{\div Z^n} L(D) \longrightarrow 0.$$

b) $\ell(D) = \deg D + 1 - \binom{d-1}{2}$.



Riemann's Theorem and degree–genus formula

Theorem (Riemann)

Let C be a smooth, irreducible projective curve of degree d .

- There is a unique smallest integer g , depending only on C , such that

$$\ell(D) \geq \deg D + 1 - g, \quad (1)$$

for any divisor $D \in \operatorname{Div} C$. Such g is called **(algebraic) genus** of C (or of its function field).

Theorem

If C is a smooth projective plane curve of degree d , its algebraic genus is

$$g = \frac{(d-1)(d-2)}{2}. \quad (2)$$

Proof.

We show that $g := \binom{d-1}{2}$ satisfies $\ell(D) \geq \deg D + 1 - g$ for all D . Notice

- If (1) holds for D it holds for any linearly equivalent $D' \sim D$;
- If (1) holds for D it holds for any $D' \leq D$, in fact

$$\ell(D') \leq \ell(D) - \deg(D - D') \leq \deg D + 1 - g - \deg(D - D') = \deg D' + 1 - g.$$

We can write a divisor on C as $D = P_1 + \cdots + P_n - E$, where E is an effective divisor and $P_i \in C$. Choosing n lines l_i through P_i (not equal to C) we define

$$D' := D + \operatorname{div} \frac{Z^n}{l_1 \cdots l_n} \sim D$$

which satisfies

$$D' = P_1 + \cdots + P_n - E + \operatorname{div} Z^n - \sum_{i=1}^n \operatorname{div} l_i \leq \operatorname{div} Z^n.$$

A few remarks

- If $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{C}$ the algebraic genus of a smooth projective plane curve coincides with its topological one.
- We can define the genus of a curve as the genus of the smooth projective curve that is birational to it.
- The genus of a curve is (tautologically) a birational invariant.
- In case C is a projective plane curve of degree d with only ordinary singularities, the "degree–genus formula" must be modified as

$$g = \frac{(d-1)(d-2)}{2} - \sum_{P \in S} \frac{m_P(m_P-1)}{2},$$

where S is the set of singular points and m_P the multiplicity of C at P .



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Canonical Divisor

We have proved the following bounds for the dimension of an effective divisor $D \in \text{Div } C$

$$\deg D + 1 - g \leq \ell(D) \leq \deg D + 1.$$

- Notice that we can not expect a formula only depending on $\deg D$.
- It turns out that the difference between $\ell(D)$ and $\deg D + 1 - g$ can be seen as the dimension of another divisor $D' \in \text{Div } C$ related to D .



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Canonical Divisor

Definition

Let C be a projective curve of degree d . For any line l (not equal to C) we define

$$K_C := (d - 3) \operatorname{div} l \in \operatorname{Pic} F$$

the **canonical divisor (class)** of C .

Notice that this definition does not depend on the chosen line since every two lines are linearly equivalent.



Lemma

For any projective curve C of genus g we have $\deg K_C = 2g - 2$.

Proof.

$$\deg K_C = (d - 3) = \deg(\operatorname{div} l) = (d - 3)d = 2 \binom{d - 1}{2} - 2 = 2g - 2.$$



Lemma

For any point P on a projective curve C we have $\ell(K_C + P) = \ell(K_C)$.

Remark

If $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{C}$ the latter is a direct consequence of the Residue Theorem for differential forms. Indeed, a form ω can not have exactly one non-zero residue and so for any $\varphi \in \mathbb{K}(C)$

$$\operatorname{div}(\varphi\omega) + P \geq 0 \implies \operatorname{div}(\varphi\omega) \geq 0.$$

In other words $L(\operatorname{div} \omega + P) = L(\operatorname{div} \omega)$.



Riemann–Roch theorem

Theorem (Riemann–Roch)

Let C be a smooth projective curve of genus g . Then

$$\ell(D) - \ell(K_C - D) = \deg D + 1 - g$$

for all divisors D on C .



Proof.

- We prove $\ell(D) - \ell(K_C - D) \geq \deg D + 1 - g$ descending induction, using the fact that if $\deg D > 2g - 2$ the thesis follows by Riemann's theorem.
- Induction step: assume the statement holds for D and prove it for $D - P$ for any $P \in C$.

$$\begin{aligned} \ell(D - P) - \ell(K_C - D + P) &\geq \ell(D) - 1 - (\ell(K_C - D) + 1) \geq \\ &\geq \deg D + 1 - g - 2 = \deg(D - P) - g. \end{aligned}$$

- If by contradiction the first inequality is not strict, we can find

$$\varphi \in L(D) - L(D - P) \quad \text{and} \quad \psi \in L(K_C - D + P) - L(K_C - D).$$

But then we have the absurd:

$$\operatorname{div}(\varphi\psi) + K_C + P \geq 0 \text{ with equality at } P.$$

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Remarks

- For the divisor $D = 0$ we have seen $\ell(0) = 1$, and thus

$$1 - \ell(K_C) = 0 + 1 - g \implies g = \ell(K_C).$$

Sometimes the latter is taken as the definition of the genus.

- If $\deg D > 2g - 2$, then $\deg(K_C - D) < 0$ and so $\ell(K_C - D) = 0$.

Therefore, in this case we have

$$\ell(D) = \deg D + 1 - g.$$

In other words, if the divisor is large enough we can compute its dimension just in terms of its degree and the genus of the curve.



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