# Introduction to Galois Point

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transcendental extension of field

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- examples and theorems.

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it is well-known that

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can be expressed by elementary function  $(= sin^{-1}x)$ , but

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#### The difference is

the former is given by  $y = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ , i.e.,  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  and the latter is given by  $y = \sqrt{1 - x^3}$ , i.e.,  $x^3 + y^2 = 1$ . The former curve can be parametrized by rational functions

$$x = \frac{1 - t^2}{1 + t^2}, \quad y = \frac{2t}{1 + t^2}$$

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Let us examine this in more detail.

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Consider the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  and the lines y = t(x + 1)passing through (-1, 0)Q R Ρ  $P(-1,0), Q(\frac{1-t^2}{1+t^2},\frac{2t}{1+t^2}), R(0,t)$ 

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### There is a mapping $\pi_P : C \setminus \{P\} \longrightarrow L$ , where *L* is the y-axis

and  $\pi_P(Q) = R$ . This mapping is one of a projection.

This is a 1:1 correspondence and induces an isomorphism between *C* and projective line.

So the circle can be parametrized by a line.

The function field of circle is the quotient field of the domain  $k[x, y]/(x^2 + y^2 - 1)$ .

It is rational, i.e., it is isomorphic to k(t), i.e., purely transcendental extension over a ground field.

Indeed,  $k(\frac{1-t^2}{1+t^2}, \frac{2t}{1+t^2}) = k(t)$ , so the circle is a rational curve. By the similar way we can parametrize quadratic curves by rational functions.

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# The curve $x^3 + y^2 = 1$ can not be parametrized by any rational function.

(Prove this as an exercise!)

Note that rational or not is not determined by the degree. It's determined by genus of the curve

For example, the curve  $y^2 = x^2(x + 1)$  is a rational curve, Indeed, take the projection center at (0, 0).

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Namely consider the line y = tx passing through (0, 0).

Then we have  $x = t^2 - 1$ ,  $y = t(t^2 - 1)$ .

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I had an interest in field theory.

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However, if is is transcendental, then there are few suitable ones.

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#### Let *n* be the transcendental degree.

In this case, we pay attention to a maximal rational subfield  $K_m$ , which has the following properties:

If  $K_m$  is an intermediate field between K and k,

Q and purely trans. ext. of k with the trans. degree n,

 $\bigcirc$  there is no field between K and  $K_m$ 

Then, we consider the algebraic extension  $K/K_m$ However, there is an inconvenient point.

mact, even if n = 1 and K = K(x), there are many maximal rational subfields:

 $k(x^{2}), k(x^{3}), \dots, k(x^{p}), \dots$  (p is a prime number)

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- $K_m$  is an intermediate field between K and k,
- and purely trans. ext. of k with the trans. degree n,
- there is no field between K and K<sub>m</sub>.
   Then, we consider the algebraic extension K/K<sub>m</sub>
   However, there is an inconvenient point.

In fact, even if n = 1 and K = k(x), there are many maximal rational subfields:  $k(x^2), k(x^3), \ldots, k(x^p), \ldots$  (*p* is a prime number)

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# So, we use the notion: the degree of irrationality, which is defined as follows:

min {  $[K : K_m]$  :  $K_m$  is a maximal rational subfield. } We denote this number by irr(K/k) or irr(K).

The field K is rational if and only if irr(K) = 1.

Maximal rational subfield F with [K : F] = irr(K) is called g-maximal rational subfield.

For example, for the elliptic function field

 $k(x, y), y^2 = x^3 + ax + b, 4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$ 

irr(k(x, y)) = 2 and k(x) is a g-maximal rational subfield, k(y) is a maximal rational field but not a g-maximal one.

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On an algebraic variety there exist natural functions.

If R is a coordinates ring of an affine part, then an element of the quotient field of R is the natural function.

The field is an algebraic function field.

The transcendence degree coincides with the dimension of the variety.

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#### If the extension is algebraic, then the morphism is a covering.

Moreover, if the extension is Galois, then the covering is Galois. So, we can "see" the field extension by the mapping between varieties.

For example, for the elliptic function field k(x, y), the extension k(x, y)/k(x) corresponds to

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#### I explain the motive of this research.

Roughly speaking, algebraic variety is a realization of algebra. Commutative ring *R* corresponds the scheme Spec(R). So, we can study variety by algebra, and vice versa. Let's take up again the elliptic curve  $y^2 = x^3 + 1$ . It is not simple to prove that the curve is parametrized by rational function.

However it is simple by using geometry.

We have only to check the existence of regular form.

In fact, the form  $\frac{dx}{2y} = \frac{dy}{3x^2}$  is a regular 1-form.

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# Before proceeding to the definition of Galois point, I use a simile here.

Very rough consideration before the definition:

Suppose there is a cube in a space. Look at it from several positions by one eye.

In general we cannot find any symmetry in the figure.

However, at some special points it looks like a regular hexagon or a square.

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# Hereafter we discuss on the ground field k, which is assumed to be an algebraically closed field of characteristic zero.

Let C be an irreducible projective plane curve of degree d and k(C) the function field.

#### Let P be a point in the plane $\mathbb{P}^2$

and consider the projection  $\pi_P : \mathbb{P}^2 \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^1$  with the center *P*. Restricting  $\pi_P$  to *C*, we get a dominant rational map  $\bar{\pi}_P : C \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^1$ ,

which induces a finite extension of fields  $\bar{\pi}_P^* : k(\mathbb{P}^1) \hookrightarrow k(C)$  of degree d - m,

where *m* is the multiplicity of *C* at *P* (if  $P \notin C$ , then we regard *m* to be 0.)

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#### We assume $d - m \ge 3$ .

If the extension is Galois, we call *P* a Galois point for *C*.

If, moreover,  $P \in C$  [resp.  $P \notin C$ ], then we call P an inner [resp. outer] Galois point.

We denote by  $\delta(C)$  and  $\delta'(C)$  the number of inner and outer Galois point, respectively.

Let 
$$G = G_P$$
 be the Galois group.

By definition an element of *G* induces a birational

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#### In case the extension $k(C)/k(\mathbb{P}^1)$ is not Galois,

we take the Galois closure  $K_P$ and consider the Galois group  $G_P = Gal(K_P/k(\mathbb{P}^1))$ We call  $G_P$  the Galois group at P (even if P is not a Galois point).

Let C be the smooth model of  $K_P$ , we call it the Galois closure curve.

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We denote by g(P) the genus of the curve C.



# In case the extension $k(C)/k(\mathbb{P}^1)$ is not Galois, we take the Galois closure $K_P$

and consider the Galois group  $G_P = Gal(K_P/k(\mathbb{P}^1))$ We call  $G_P$  the Galois group at P (even if P is not a Galois point).

Let C be the smooth model of  $K_P$ , we call it the Galois closure curve.

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If Q is a flex, we have

$$W(C) = \sum_{Q \in C} \{i(C, T_Q; Q) - 2\} = 3d(d - 2)$$

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where  $T_Q$  is the tangent line to C at Q, and  $i(C, T_Q; Q)$  is the intersection number of C and  $T_Q$  at Q. By this we have the upper bound of the number of Galois point.

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#### We present a special example.

For the curve  $YZ^3 + X^4 + Y^4 = 0$ , find all Galois points. The Hessian is  $2^23^3X^2Z(8Y^3 - Z^3)$ .

We infer from this there are 20 flexes.

Since W(C) = 24, there exist at most four Galois points on X = 0.

For example, at P = (0 : 0 : 1), putting x = X/Z, y = Y/Z, each line passing P is y = tx.

The defining equation is  $y + x^4 + y^4 = 0$ , so that

 $(1 + t^4)x^3 + t \in k(t)[x].$ 

This gives a Galois extension over k(t), and the Galois group is the cyclic group of order three.

Galois automorphism is extended to the action

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Lissajous's Curve ( $x = \cos 3\theta$ ,  $y = \sin 4\theta$ )



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#### Let us examine classically familiar curves.

Let m, n be coprime positive integers. Put  $d = 2\max\{m, n\}$ Let S(m, n) and CS(m, n) be the complexified curves defined by

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x = \sin m\theta, y = \sin n\theta and x = \cos m\theta, y = \sin n\theta, respectively.
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They are called Lissajous's curves.

Miura found the following:

(1) S(m, n) has a  $D_d$ -point if m + n is odd,

A point *P* is called a  $D_d$ -point if it is a Galois point with Galois group isomorphic to the dihedral group of order *d*.

The Galois point is given by the projection  $(x, y) \rightarrow x$  $(x, y) \rightarrow y$ .

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Let m, n be coprime positive integers. Put  $d = 2\max\{m, n\}$ Let S(m, n) and CS(m, n) be the complexified curves defined by

$$x = \sin m\theta$$
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$$\begin{split} \xi &= \cos 3\theta = \frac{1}{2} \left( t^3 + \frac{1}{t^3} \right) \text{ and } \\ \eta &= \sin 4\theta = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{-1}} \left( t^4 - \frac{1}{t^4} \right) . \\ \text{Putting } \xi &= Z/X, \ \eta &= Y/X \text{ and } t = \exp \sqrt{-1}\theta, \text{ we get} \\ -16X^6Z^2 + 80X^4Z^4 - 128X^2Z^6 + 64Z^8 + 9X^6Y^2 - 24X^4Y^4 + \\ 16X^2Y^6 &= 0 \end{split}$$

This curve is a rational curve with only double points as the singularities and (0:0:1) is an outer Galois point, whose Galois group  $G \cong D_8$ .

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$$\begin{array}{rcl} H_1 & : & T_0 + 4T_2 + 6T_4 + 4T_6 + T_8 & = & 0 \\ H_2 & : & T_1 - 7T_3 + 7T_5 - T_7 & = & 0 \\ H_3 & : & T_0 - 14T_2 + 14T_6 - T_8 & = & 0. \end{array}$$

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- In case  $P \in C$ , we have
  - If P is a flex, then G<sub>P</sub> ≅ S<sub>3</sub> and g(P) = 9. Note that there are 12 flexes.
  - ② If P is not a flex, then  $G_P \cong S_3$  and g(P) = 10. .

So we see  $\delta(C) = 0$ 

- ② In case  $P \notin C$ , we have
  - There are three Galois points
    - $(1:0:0), (0:1:0), (0:0:1) \in \mathbb{P}^2 \setminus C$ . Hence  $\delta'(C) = 3$ .
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  - If *P* is a flex, then  $G_P \cong S_3$  and g(P) = 9. Note that there are 12 flexes.
  - 2 If P is not a flex, then  $G_P \cong S_3$  and g(P) = 10.

So we see  $\delta(C) = 0$ 

- 2 In case  $P \notin C$ , we have
  - There are three Galois points (1 : 0 : 0), (0 : 1 : 0), (0 : 0 : 1) ∈ P<sup>2</sup> \ C. Hence δ'(C) = 3.
  - 2 There are 12 points satisfying  $G_P \cong D_4$ .
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#### Theorem

For a general point P, the Galois group  $G_P$  is the full symmetric group  $S_{d-1}$  and  $S_d$ , corresponding to  $P \in C$  and  $P \notin C$  respectively.

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- Find Galois points.
- Ind the distribution of the inner and outer Galois points.
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#### Theorem

# If d = 4, then the number of inner Galois points $\delta(C) = 0$ , 1 or 4.

The curve with  $\delta(C) = 4$  is unique, i.e.,

*it is* ( *projectively equivalent to the curve* )  $y + x^4 + y^4 = 0$ . On the contrary, if  $d \ge 5$ , then we have that  $\delta(C) = 0$  or 1. For the Galois point P, the group  $G_P$  is the cyclic group of order d - 1

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If  $d \ge 4$ , then the number of outer Galois points  $\delta'(C) = 0, 1$  or 3. For the Galois point P, the group  $G_P$  is the cyclic group of order d. The curve with  $\delta'(C) = 3$  is unique, i.e., the Fermat curve  $x^d + y^d = 1$ .

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### The reason that the group is cyclic is as follows:

Suppose  $P \in C$  is an inner Galois point.

Then,  $\sigma \in G_P$  induces an automorphism of C, since C is smooth.

Moreover,  $\sigma$  is a restriction of a projective transformation, because  $d \ge 4$ .

Thus we have an injective representation  $G_P \hookrightarrow PGL(k,3)$ . We denote it by the same notation  $\sigma$ .

If  $\ell$  is a line passing through P, then  $\sigma(C \cap \ell) = C \cap \ell$ . Taking a suitable coordinates, we can assume that P = (0:0:1).

Let  $a_{ij}$  be the (i, j) component of  $\sigma$ , where  $1 \le i, j \le 3$ , then  $a_{13} = a_{23} = 0$ , since  $\sigma(P) = P$ .

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# Moreover we have $\sigma(C \cap \ell) = \sigma \cap \ell$ for any line $\ell$ passing through *P*.

We infer from this that  $\sigma$  is a diagonal matrix with eigenvalues a, a and b,

where  $(a/b)^n = 1$  for some positive integer *n*.

Thus  $G_P$  has an injective representation  $\varphi$  in the multiplicative group of k, i.e.,  $\varphi : G_P \hookrightarrow k^*$ .

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#### The above research has been generalized as follows:

- We can consider the Galois point for positive characteristic case.
  - In this case we have many different results.
  - For some curves there exist an infinitely many Galois points.
  - The Galois group is not necessarily cyclic even if *C* is smooth.
- The consideration above is applicable to hypersurface, i.e., S is a hypersurface in  $\mathbb{P}^n$
- Similarly we can consider the Galois line for space curve.
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Let us examine the embedding of elliptic curve *E* associated with the complete linear system |D|:

(i) deg *D* = 3 case:

The embedding has a Galois point iff j(E) = 0.

 $G \cong Z_3$ , there exists three Galois points.

In other words, let *C* be a smooth plane cubic.

Assume  $P \in \mathbb{P}^2 \setminus C$  and consider the projection  $\pi$  with the center P to  $\mathbb{P}^1$ .

Then,  $\pi$  induces a Galois extension  $k(C)/k(\pi^*(\mathbb{P}^1))$ , or Galois covering

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Let us examine the embedding of elliptic curve *E* associated with the complete linear system |D|:

(i) deg D = 3 case:

The embedding has a Galois point iff j(E) = 0.

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There are three outer Galois points: (1 : 0 : 0), (0 : 1 : 0) and (0 : 0 : 1).

If we use Weierstrass normal form, C is given by

$$Y^2 Z = 4X^3 + Z^3$$
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#### Galois lines for a space elliptic curve ( $j(E) \neq 12^3$ ).



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the projective three space  $\mathbb{P}^3$ . Then *C* has 6 Galois lines  $\ell_i$  (i = 1, ..., 6) i.e., the projection with the center  $\ell_i$  to  $\mathbb{P}^1$ induces a Galois covering  $C \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^1$ with the Galois group *G*. (iii) If deg D = 5, *E* has no Galois embeddings. (iv) For any deg *D*, we can find the possibility of *G*, however it is difficult to determine the arrangement of Galois subspaces.

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the projective three space  $\mathbb{P}^3$ .

Then *C* has 6 Galois lines  $\ell_i$  ( $i = 1, \ldots, 6$ )

i.e., the projection with the center  $\ell_i$  to  $\mathbb{P}^1$ 

induces a Galois covering  $\mathcal{C} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^1$ 

with the Galois group G.

(iii) If deg D = 5, E has no Galois embeddings.

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