

A talk based on

The Hodge Conjecture for general Prym varieties

by

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Or,

- Pierre Deligne's longer (but mildly inaccurate) Official Problem Description at http://www.claymath.org/Millennium_Prize_Problems/Hodge_Conjecture/_objects/Official_Problem_Description.pdf

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So what is an *Abelian Variety*?

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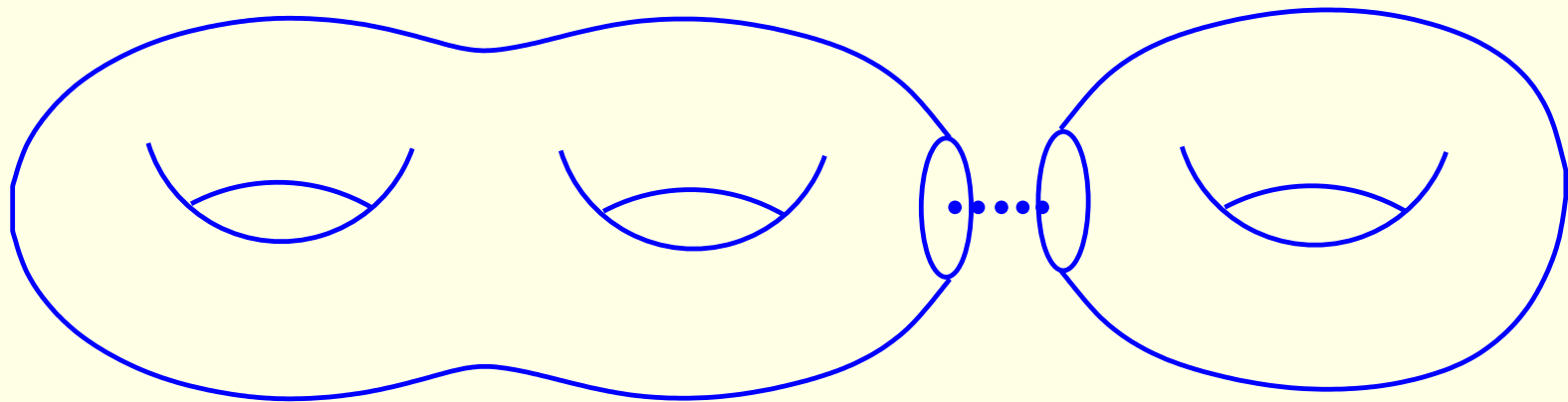
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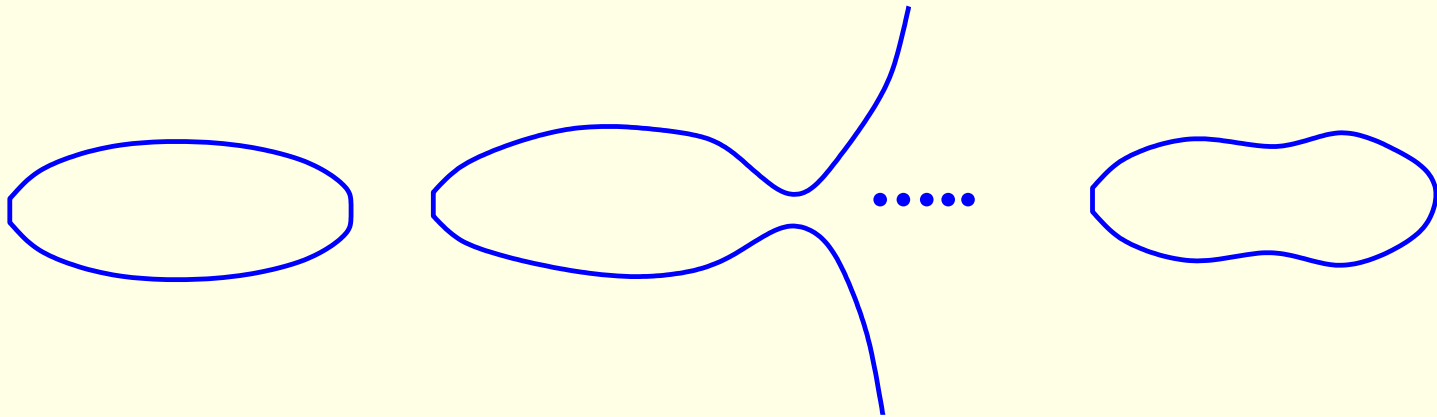
a Riemann surface

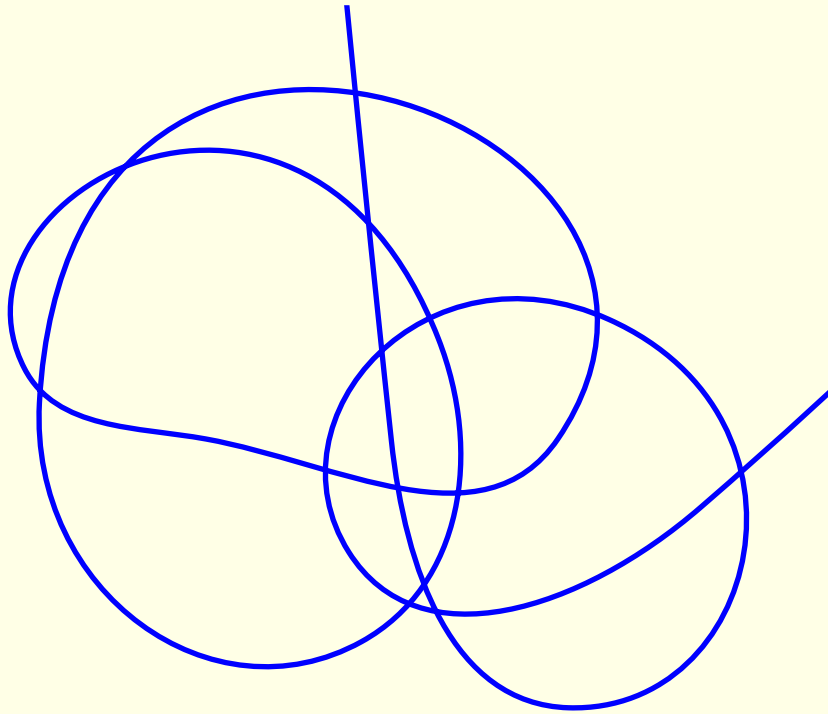


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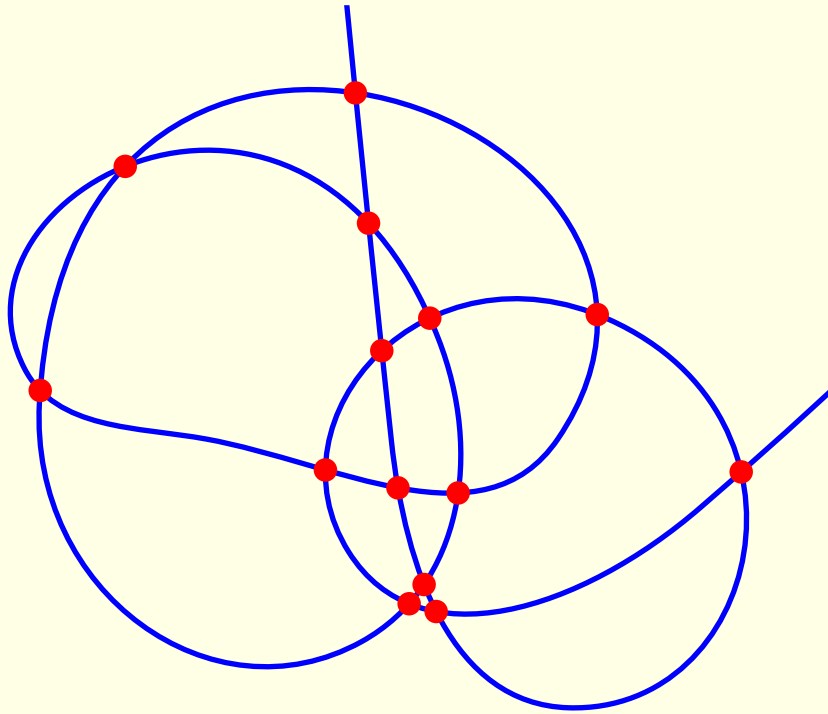
Start with a curve X , by which we mean,

or a projective algebraic curve

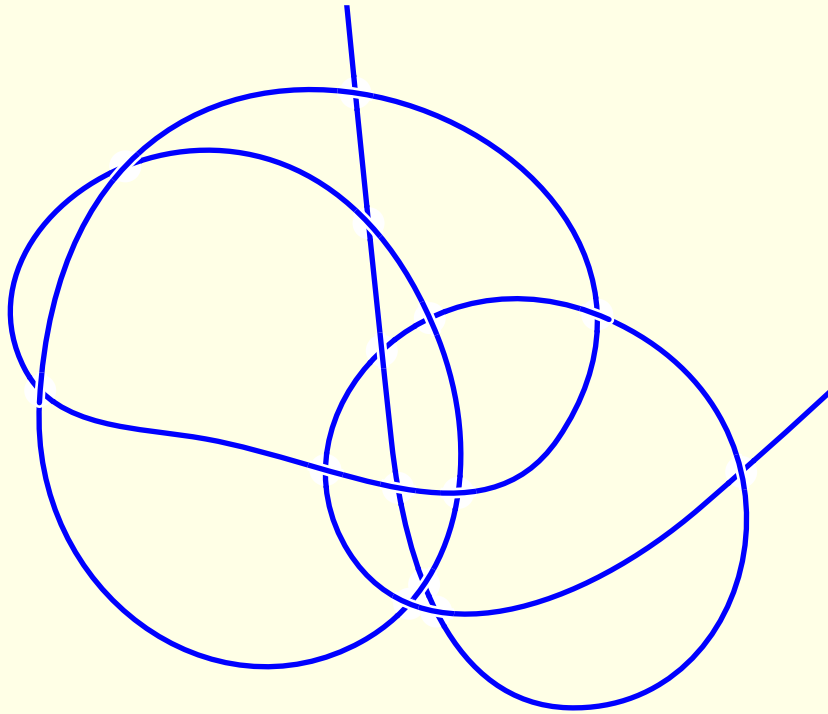




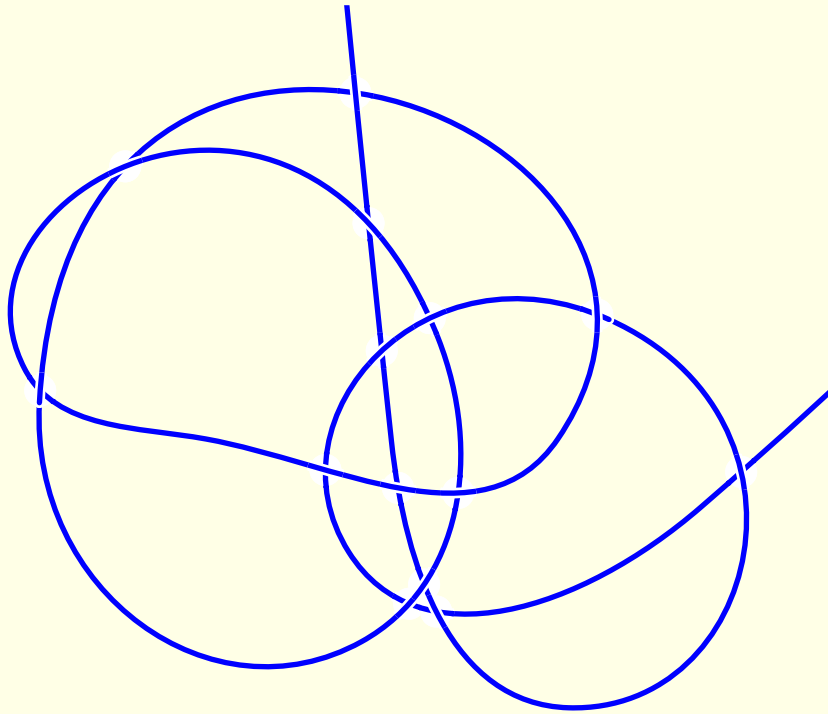
which we can also think of as a plane curve



which we can also think of as a plane curve . . . with singularities



which we can also think of as a plane curve . . . with singularities
. . . after removing singularities of course!



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. . . after removing singularities of course!
Which can be done in many ways.

The r -tuples of points on a curve X form a variety

$$S^r(X) = X \times X \times \cdots \times X / \text{symmetric group action}$$

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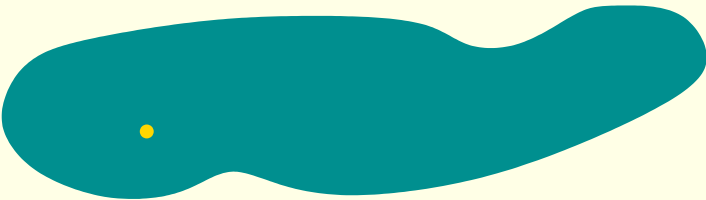
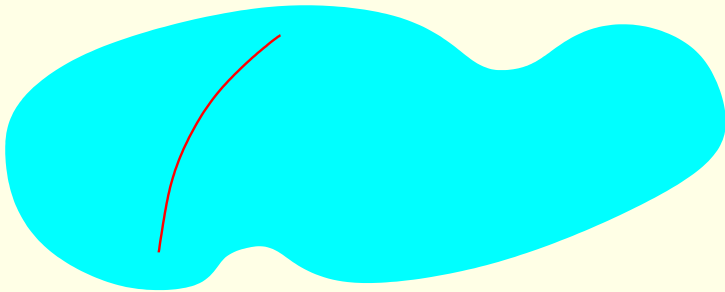
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***Warning:** Curves in algebraic geometry are parametric only when the

Pick some **base point** p on X . Concatenating this with an r -tuple gives us an $r + 1$ -tuple; i. e. a map $S^r(X) \rightarrow S^{r+1}(X)$.

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The Jacobian variety can then be obtained as the quotient

$$J(X) = S^r(X) / \text{equivalence relation}$$

The group structure is obtained by concatenating two r -tuples to get a $2r$ -tuple which is then **reduced** to an r -tuple via equivalence.

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Fact: Every Abelian variety A occurs as a connected subgroup of $J(X)$ for a suitable curve X .

If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a map of curves we get an induced map $f_* : J(X) \rightarrow J(Y)$.

When the map f of curves is 2-to-1 the (connected part of the) kernel of f_* is called a **Prym variety**.

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Moreover, the possible subgroups $G(A)$ are completely known (due to Shimura) and can be used to classify Abelian varieties.

* The symplectic group consists of $2g \times 2g$ matrices M such that

$$M^t \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \dots & 0 & -1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & -1 \\ 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \dots & 0 & -1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & -1 \\ 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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The Hodge Conjecture for Abelian varieties can thus be studied class by class.

Let L be the list of those subgroups $G(A)$ of the symplectic group which are associated with an A for which the Hodge conjecture is known.

There are two ways of proving the Hodge conjecture for a given Abelian variety A :

- **Easy Way**
- **Hard Way**

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- **Easy Way** Show that $G(A)$ is in L .
- **Hard Way** Add to the list L .

... and get a Fields' Medal if you add infinitely many elements.

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As a start we must understand the list L .

Now L contains large groups as well as small ones.

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On the other hand we are proving the result for the general Prym variety.

... sounds confusing!

Let's de(con)fuse the situation.

An Abelian variety is (the locus of zeroes of) a system of algebraic equations in many variables like*

$$\begin{array}{rclclclclclclclcl}
 24/6 & x_0^4 & + & 33 & x_1^5 & + & \sqrt{131} & x_2^5 & + & \zeta(3) & x_3^5 & = & 0 \\
 34/57 & x_0x_1^4 & + & e & x_1x_2^4 & + & 14.1 & x_2x_3^4 & + & 117^{1/7} & x_3x_4^4 & = & 0 \\
 \pi & x_5^2x_0^3 & + & e^{2\pi\sqrt{-1}/5} & x_1^2x_2^3 & + & \gamma & x_2^5x_3 & + & 102 & x_3^2x_4^3 & = & 0
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The coefficients of these equations could be:

- constants i. e. rational or algebraic numbers. Or,
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A more general set of equations

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 x_0^4 + a_2 x_1^5 + a_3 x_2^5 + a_4 x_3^5 &= 0 \\ b_1 x_0 x_1^4 + b_2 x_1 x_2^4 + b_3 x_2 x_3^4 + b_4 x_3 x_4^4 &= 0 \\ c_1 x_5^2 x_0^3 + c_2 x_1^2 x_2^3 + c_3 x_2^5 x_3 + c_4 x_3^2 x_4^3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

is one where the coefficients in the equations above are replaced by new variables; call these new variables parameters.

We then obtain family of varieties depending on a set of parameters (or moduli). Each actual variety is obtained by substituting values for the parameters—this is called specialising.

For example, the equation $y^2 = x^3 - 1$ is a specialisation of the equation $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ obtained by putting $a = 0$ and $b = -1$.

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So we can specialise the equation $y^2 = x^3 + \pi x + e$ by putting any values in place of π and e that we like*.

*We can even be perverse and replace π by $\frac{22}{7}$ —or 3!

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An Abelian variety A is general if the actual coefficients of the equations defining A satisfy no equations other than these.

An Abelian variety A is special otherwise.

We can write down an additional collection of conditions

$$\begin{aligned}g_1(a_1, \dots, c_4) &= 0 \\ &\dots \\ g_q(a_1, \dots, c_4) &= 0\end{aligned}$$

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Hence we have explained the result.