SOME IMPLICATIONS OF THE EULER-POINCARÉ CHARACTERISTIC FOR COMPLETE INTERSECTION MANIFOLDS

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ABSTRACT. Studies on relations between Euler-Poincaré characteristic and codimension of a complete intersection manifold in a complex projective space.

1. **Introduction.** Let $P_{n+p}(C)$ be an (n+p)-dimensional complex projective space. An *n*-dimensional algebraic manifold M imbedded in $P_{n+p}(C)$ is called a *complete intersection manifold* if M is given as an intersection of p nonsingular hypersurfaces M_1, \dots, M_p in general position in

$$P_{n+n}(C): M = M_1 \cap \cdots \cap M_n$$

It is known that the Chern classes of a complete intersection manifold M are completely determined by the degrees of M_1, \dots, M_p . In particular, the Euler-Poincaré characteristic of a complete intersection manifold is completely determined by the degrees of M_1, \dots, M_p .

In §2 we prove a formula for the Euler-Poincaré characteristic of a complete intersection manifold in terms of the degrees.

It is sometimes very important to know the smallest codimension for a complete intersection manifold: the smallest p for which M can be imbedded as a complete intersection manifold in $P_{n+p}(C)$. In §3 we prove several results in this direction.

2. The Euler-Poincaré characteristic of complete intersection manifolds. Let $P_{n+p}(C)$ be an (n+p)-dimensional complex projective space and let M be an n-dimensional complete intersection manifold imbedded in $P_{n+p}(C): M = M_1 \cap \cdots \cap M_p$, where the M_{α} 's are nonsingular hypersurfaces in $P_{n+p}(C)$. The following theorem gives a concrete formula for the Euler-Poincaré characteristic of a complete intersection manifold.

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THEOREM 2.1.3 Let $M = M_1 \cap \cdots \cap M_p$ be an n-dimensional complete intersection manifold imbedded in $P_{n+p}(C)$. If $\deg M_{\alpha} = a_{\alpha}$, then the Euler-Poincaré characteristic $\chi(M)$ of M is given by

$$\chi(M) = \left[\sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} \binom{n+p+1}{n-k} \sigma_{k}\right] \left(\prod_{\alpha=1}^{p} a_{\alpha}\right),$$

where $\sigma_k = \sum_{\alpha_1 \leq \cdots \leq \alpha_k} a_{\alpha_1} a_{\alpha_2} \cdots a_{\alpha_k}$ (the sum of all homogeneous monomials of degree k in a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_p) and $\binom{n+p+1}{n-k}$ is the binomial coefficient.

PROOF. Let \tilde{h} be the generator of $H^2(P_{n+p}(C), Z)$ corresponding to the divisor class of a hyperplane $P_{n+p-1}(C)$. Then the total Chern class $c(P_{n+p}(C))$ of $P_{n+p}(C)$ is given by

$$c(P_{n+p}(C)) = (1 + \tilde{h})^{n+p+1}$$

Let $j: M \to P_{n+p}(C)$ be the imbedding and ν be the normal bundle of j(M) in $P_{n+p}(C)$. Then the total Chern class $c(\nu)$ of ν is given by

$$c(v) = (1 + a_1h) \cdot \cdot \cdot (1 + a_nh),$$

where h is the image of \tilde{h} under the homomorphism $j^*: H^2(P_{n+p}(C), Z) \to H^2(M, Z)$. Since $j^*T(P_{n+p}(C)) = T(M) \oplus \nu$ (Whitney sum), we have

$$j^*c(P_{n+p}(C)) = c(M) \cdot c(\nu),$$

where c(M) is the total Chern class of M. Let $c_i(M)$ be the ith Chern class of M. Then we have

$$(1+h)^{n+p+1} = [1+c_1(M)+\cdots+c_n(M)]\cdot(1+a_1h)\cdot\cdots(1+a_ph)$$

which implies that

$$c_n(M) = \left[\sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n+p+1}{n-k} \sigma_k\right] h^n.$$

Taking the values of both sides on the fundamental cycle of M, we have

$$\chi(M) = \left[\sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} \binom{n+p+1}{n-k} \sigma_{k}\right] \left(\prod_{\alpha=1}^{p} a_{\alpha}\right).$$

REMARK. Let $b_i(M)$ be the *i*th Betti number of M. It is known that if M is an n-dimensional complete intersection manifold, then

$$b_{2k}(M) = 1$$
 $(2k \neq n),$
 $b_{2k+1}(M) = 0$ $(2k + 1 \neq n).$

³ Although Theorem 2.1 can be obtained from Theorem 22.1.1 of [1], we give here a direct proof for the sake of completeness.

Therefore $\chi(M) = \sum_{i=0}^{2n} (-1)^i b_i(M) \ge n+1$ (resp. $\le n+1$) provided that n is even (resp. odd).

3. Some implications of the Euler-Poincaré characteristic. First we prove the following:

THEOREM 3.1. Let M be an n-dimensional complete intersection manifold. If $\chi(M) = v_1 \cdots v_p$ for some prime numbers $v_1, \cdots, v_p \ (\neq \pm 1)$, then M can be imbedded as a complete intersection manifold in $P_{n+p}(C)$.

PROOF. We can assume without loss of generality that M is a complete intersection manifold imbedded in $P_{n+q}(C)$ for some $q \ge p$. In fact, if M is a complete intersection manifold imbedded in $P_{n+r}(C)$ for some r < p, then, by imbedding $P_{n+r}(C)$ into $P_{n+q}(C)$ as a linear subspace for some $q \ge p$, M can be considered as a complete intersection manifold imbedded in $P_{n+r}(C)$.

Theorem 2.1 implies that $\chi(M)$ is given as a product of q+1 integers: $\chi(M) = [\cdots]a_1 \cdots a_q$. On the other hand, since $\chi(M) = v_1 \cdots v_p$, at least q-p a_α 's must be equal to 1. This implies that M can be imbedded as a complete intersection manifold in some (n+p)-dimensional linear subspace $P_{n+p}(C)$ in $P_{n+q}(C)$. Q.E.D.

It is sometimes very important to know the smallest codimension for which M can be imbedded as a complete intersection manifold. From this point of view, Theorem 3.1 may not be the best possible in general. We shall prove several partial improvements of Theorem 3.1 in the following:

First we prove the following:

LEMMA 3.2. Let M be an n-dimensional complete intersection manifold imbedded in $P_{n+p}(C)$. Assume that $\chi(M)=v_1\cdots v_p$ for some prime numbers v_1,\cdots,v_p ($\neq\pm 1$). If the Diophantine equation $\sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n+p+1}{n-k} \sigma_k = \pm 1$ has no solution satisfying $a_1 \geq 2, \cdots, a_p \geq 2$, then M can be imbedded as a complete intersection manifold in $P_{n+p-1}(C)$.

PROOF. Theorem 2.1 implies that $\chi(M)$ is given as a product of p+1 integers: $\chi(M) = [\cdots]a_1 \cdots a_p$. On the other hand, since $\chi(M) = \nu_1 \cdots \nu_p$, at least one among $[\cdots]$, a_1, \cdots, a_p must be equal to ± 1 . If the Diophantine equation $[\cdots] = \pm 1$ has no solution satisfying $a_1 > 1, \cdots, a_p > 1$, then at least one a_n must be equal to 1. Q.E.D.

THEOREM 3.3. Let M be a complete intersection manifold. If $\chi(M)$ is a prime number, then M is one of the following:

- (1) a linear subspace
- (2) a quadric in $P_2(C)$,
- (3) a curve of degree 4 in $P_2(C)$.

PROOF. In consideration of Theorem 3.1, we may assume that M is a nonsingular hypersurface of $P_{n+1}(C)$. Putting $a=a_1$, from Theorem 2.1 we have

$$\chi(M) = \left[\sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^k \binom{n+2}{n-k} a^k\right] a = \frac{(1-a)^{n+2} - 1 + (n+2)a}{a^2} \cdot a.$$

Since $\chi(M)$ is a prime number, either a=1 or

$$\frac{(1-a)^{n+2}-1+(n+2)a}{a^2}=\pm 1.$$

If a=1, then M is a linear subspace. Therefore we consider the latter case. It suffices to prove the following:

LEMMA. The only positive integral solutions for the Diophantine equation $(1-a)^{n+2}-1+(n+2)a=\pm a^2$ are (n,a)=(1,2) and (n,a)=(1,4).

PROOF OF LEMMA. Since a=1 cannot be a solution for the equation $(1-a)^{n+2}-1+(n+2)a=\pm a^2$, we consider this equation for $a \ge 2$. Let

$$f_n(a) = \frac{(1-a)^{n+2} - 1 + (n+2)a}{a^2}$$
 for $a \ge 2$.

- (i) If *n* is even: It is easy to show that $f_n(a)$ is monotonically increasing and $f_n(2) = (n+2)/2 > 1$. Therefore the equation $(1-a)^{n+2} 1 + (n+2)a = +a^2$ has no solution of the form (n, a) = (even, *).
- (ii) If n is odd: $f_n(a)$ is monotonically decreasing and $f_n(2) = (n+1)/2$. It is also easy to show that $f_n(5) \le -2$. Therefore the only candidates for the solutions for the equation $(1-a)^{n+2}-1+(n+2)a=\pm a^2$ are of the form (n,a)=(*,2), (n,a)=(*,3) or (n,a)=(*,4). We can easily prove that the only solutions are (n,a)=(1,2) and (n,a)=(1,4). Q.E.D.

COROLLARY 3.4. Let M be a complete intersection manifold. If $\dim M > 1$ and if $\chi(M)$ is a prime number, then M is a linear subspace.

THEOREM 3.5. Let M be a complete intersection manifold. If dim M>1 and if $\chi(M)=\nu_1\nu_2$ for some prime numbers $\nu_1, \nu_2 \ (\neq \pm 1)$, then M can be imbedded as a hypersurface.

PROOF. In consideration of Theorem 3.1, we may assume that M is imbedded as a complete intersection in $P_{n+2}(C)$, where $n=\dim M$. From Theorem 2.1, we have

$$\chi(M) = \left[\sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^k \binom{n+3}{n-k} \sigma_k\right] a_1 a_2.$$

We consider the Diophantine equation

(3.1)
$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} \binom{n+3}{n-k} \sigma_{k} = \pm 1.$$

Multiplying both sides of (3.1) by a_1-a_2 , we obtain

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} \binom{n+3}{n-k} (a_1^{k+1} - a_2^{k+1}) = \pm (a_1 - a_2),$$

which can be written as

$$-\left[\sum_{k=0}^{n+1}(-1)^k\binom{n+3}{n+1-k}a_1^k\right] + \left[\sum_{k=0}^{n+1}(-1)^k\binom{n+3}{n+1-k}a_2^k\right] = \pm(a_1-a_2).$$

Hence we have

$$-\frac{(1-a_1)^{n+3}-1+(n+3)a_1}{a_1^2} + \frac{(1-a_2)^{n+3}-1+(n+3)a_2}{a_2^2} = \pm (a_1-a_2)$$

or

(3.2)
$$\frac{(1-a_1)^{n+3}-1+(n+3)a_1}{a_1^2} \pm a_1 = \frac{(1-a_2)^{n+3}-1+(n+3)a_2}{a_2^2} \pm a_2.$$

Let

$$f_n(a) = \frac{(1-a)^{n+3}-1+(n+3)a}{a^2} \pm a.$$

Then it is not difficult to prove that

(3.3)
$$f'_n(a) > 0 \quad \text{for } a \ge 3 \quad \text{if } n \text{ is odd,}$$

$$f'_n(a) < 0 \quad \text{for } a \ge 2 \quad \text{if } n \text{ is even.}$$

This implies that $f_n(a)$ is monotonically increasing (resp. decreasing) for $a \ge 3$ (resp. $a \ge 2$) if n is odd (resp. even). Therefore from (3.2) we deduce that either $a_1 = a_2$ or $f_n(2) = f_n(*)$, the latter case arising only when n is odd. It is easy to show that the only solution for the latter case is $f_1(2) = f_1(3)$. But this is excluded by the assumption that n > 1. Hence we have $a_1 = a_2$.

Putting $a=a_1=a_2$, from (3.1) we have

(3.4)
$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} (k+1) \binom{n+3}{n-k} a^{k} = \pm 1.$$

Let

$$g_n(a) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^k (k+1) \binom{n+3}{n-k} a^k \mp 1.$$

Then we have $f'_n(a) = -g_n(a)$, which, together with (3.3), implies that

$$g_n(a) < 0$$
 for $a \ge 3$ if n is odd,
 $g_n(a) > 0$ for $a \ge 2$ if n is even.

Therefore the only candidate for the solution for (3.4) is (n, a) = (odd, 2). But, since $g_n(2) = -f'_n(2) = \mp 1$ if n is odd, (3.4) has no solution of this form.

Thus we have proved that the Diophantine equation (3.1) has no solution satisfying n>1, $a_1\geq 2$ and $a_2\geq 2$. This, combined with Lemma 3.2, implies that M can be imbedded as a hypersurface. Q.E.D.

We have excluded the 1-dimensional case in Theorem 3.4. The following result gives a solution for this case.

THEOREM 3.6. Let M be a complex curve which is a complete intersection manifold. If $\chi(M)=v_1\cdots v_p$ for some prime numbers v_1,\cdots,v_p $(\neq\pm 1)$, then M can be imbedded as a complete intersection manifold in $P_n(C)$ except when

$$P_3(C) \supset M = M_1 \cap M_2 \pmod{M_1 = 2, \deg M_2 = 3},$$

 $P_4(C) \supset M = M_1 \cap M_2 \cap M_3 \pmod{M_{\alpha} = 2}.$

PROOF. In consideration of Theorem 3.1, we may assume that M is imbedded as a complete intersection manifold in $P_{1+p}(C)$. From Theorem 2.1 we have

$$\chi(M) = \left[p + 2 - \sum a_{\alpha}\right] a_{1} \cdots a_{p}$$

so that $\chi(M)$ is a product of p+1 integers. Therefore at least one of them must be equal to ± 1 . It is easy to prove that the equation $p+2-\sum a_{\alpha}=\pm 1$ has solutions satisfying $a_1\geq 2, \cdots, a_p\geq 2$ only when p=2 or p=3, and the solutions are, respectively, $\{a_1, a_2\} = \{2, 3\}$ or $\{a_1, a_2, a_3\} = \{2, 2, 2\}$. Q.E.D.

For complex surfaces we have the following:

Theorem 3.7. Let M be a complex surface which is a complete intersection manifold. If $\chi(M) = v_1 \cdots v_p$ for some prime numbers v_1, \cdots, v_p

 $(\neq 1)$, then M can be imbedded as a complete intersection manifold in $P_{1+n}(C)$.

PROOF. In consideration of Theorem 3.1, we may assume that M is imbedded as a complete intersection manifold in $P_{2+p}(C)$. From Theorem 2.1 we have

$$\chi(M) = \left[\binom{p+3}{2} - \binom{p+3}{1} \sum a_{\alpha} + \sum_{\alpha_1 \leq \alpha_2} a_{\alpha_1} a_{\alpha_2} \right] a_1 \cdots a_p.$$

Let

$$f(a_1, \dots, a_p) = \binom{p+3}{2} - \binom{p+3}{1} \sum a_{\alpha} + \sum_{\alpha, \leq \alpha_n} a_{\alpha_1} a_{\alpha_2}.$$

Then it is easy to prove that $f(a_1, \dots, a_p) \ge (p+3)/(p+1) > 1$. Therefore at least one of a_α must be equal to 1. Q.E.D.

THEOREM 3.8. Let M be a 4-dimensional complete intersection manifold. If $\chi(M) = v_1 \cdots v_p$ for some prime numbers $v_1, \cdots, v_p \ (\neq 1)$, then M can be imbedded as a complete intersection manifold in $P_{3+p}(C)$.

PROOF. In consideration of Theorem 3.1, we may assume that M is imbedded as a complete intersection manifold in $P_{4+p}(C)$. From Theorem 2.1, we have

$$\chi(M) = \left[\sum_{k=0}^{4} (-1)^k \binom{p+5}{4-k} \sigma_k\right] a_1 \cdots a_p.$$

We consider the Diophantine equation

(3.5)
$$\sum_{k=0}^{4} (-1)^k \binom{p+5}{4-k} \sigma_k = 1.$$

Let

$$f(a_1, \dots, a_p) = \sum_{k=0}^{4} (-1)^k {p+5 \choose 4-k} \sigma_k - 1.$$

Then we have

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial f}{\partial a_{\alpha}} &= -\binom{p+5}{3} + \binom{p+5}{2} (a_{\alpha} + \sigma_1) \\ &- \binom{p+5}{1} (a_{\alpha}^2 + a_{\alpha}\sigma_1 + \sigma_2) + a_{\alpha}^3 + a_{\alpha}^2 \sigma_1 + a_{\alpha}\sigma_2 + \sigma_3. \end{split}$$

It is easy to show that f has no critical point in $\{(a_1, \dots, a_p) \in R^p | a_1 \ge 2, \dots, a_p \ge 2\}$. We can also prove, by an induction, that f > 0 on the boundary of $\{(a_1, \dots, a_p) \in R^p | a_1 \ge 2, \dots, a_p \ge 2\}$. These facts imply that f > 0 on $\{(a_1, \dots, a_p) \in R^p | a_1 \ge 2, \dots, a_p \ge 2\}$. Therefore Theorem 3.8 follows from Lemma 3.2.

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