Classifying Algebraic Varieties I

Christopher Hacon

University of Utah

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Christopher Hacon Classifying Algebraic Varieties I

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Outline of the talk



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Outline of the talk

1 Introduction

2 equations in 2 variables

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Outline of the talk

1 Introduction

- 2 2 equations in 2 variables
- 3 1 equation in 2 variables

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Outline of the talk

1 Introduction

- 2 2 equations in 2 variables
- 3 1 equation in 2 variables
- Irreducible subsets

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- 2 equations in 2 variables
- 3 1 equation in 2 variables
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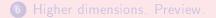
Introduction

2 equations in 2 variables 1 equation in 2 variables Irreducible subsets Curves Higher dimensions. Preview.

Outline of the talk



- 2 equations in 2 variables
- 3 1 equation in 2 variables
- Irreducible subsets
- 5 Curves



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Polynomial equations

Algebraic Geometry is concerned with the study of solutions of polynomial equations say n-equations in m-variables

$$\begin{cases} P_1(x_1,...,x_m) = 0 \\ ... \\ ... \\ P_n(x_1,...,x_m) = 0. \end{cases}$$

1 equation in 1 variable

For example, 1 equation in 1 variable
 P(x) = a_dx^d + a_{d-1}x^{d-1} + ... + a₁x + a₀ a_d ≠ 0
 (a polynomial of degree d in x).

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For example, 1 equation in 1 variable

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \ldots + a_1 x + a_0 \qquad a_d \neq 0$$

(a polynomial of degree d in x).

If a_i ∈ C, then by the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, we may find c_i ∈ C such that P(x) factors as

$$P(x) = a_d(x-c_1)(x-c_2)\cdots(x-c_d).$$

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• Therefore a polynomial of degree *d* always has exactly *d* solutions or roots (when counted with multiplicity).

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- Therefore a polynomial of degree *d* always has exactly *d* solutions or roots (when counted with multiplicity).
- If one is interested in solutions that belong to ℝ (or Q, or Z etc.), then the problem is much more complicated, but at least we know that there are at most d solutions.

Complex solutions

Throughout this talk I will always look for complex solutions $(z_1, \ldots, z_m) \in \mathbb{C}^m$ to polynomial equations

$$P_1(x_1,\ldots,x_m)=0$$
 \ldots $P_n(x_1,\ldots,x_m)=0$

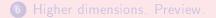
where $P_i \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \ldots, x_m]$.

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Lines in the plane

Consider now 2 equations in 2 variables. For example 2 lines in the plane i.e.

$$P_1(x,y) = a_1x + b_1y + c_1$$
 and $P_2(x,y) = a_2x + b_2y + c_2$.

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- If the lines are distinct but parallel then there are no solutions.

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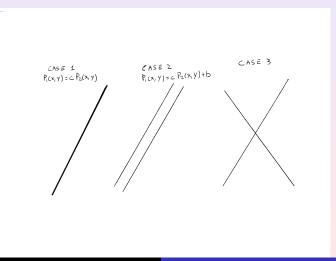
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There are 3 cases

- If the lines coincide (i.e. if P₁(x, y) = cP₂(x, y) for some 0 ≠ c ∈ C), then there are infinitely many solutions.
- If the lines are distinct but parallel then there are no solutions.
- If the lines are not parallel, there is a unique solution.

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Lines in the plane



Lines in the plane

So, in most cases two lines intersect at a unique point.

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Lines in the plane

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Question

Is it possible to also think of distinct parallel lines as intersecting at one point?

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The answer is yes if one chooses an appropriate compactification

$$\mathbb{C}^2 \subset \mathbb{P}^2_{\mathbb{C}} = \mathbb{C}^2 \cup \{ \text{line at infinity} \}.$$

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The "line at infinity" is given by $\mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$. It corresponds to all possible slopes of a line.

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Lines in the plane

We may thus think of two distinct parallel lines as meeting in exactly one point at infinity and we have

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Lines in the plane

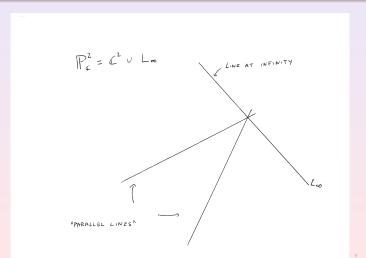
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Theorem

Let L_1 and L_2 be two distinct lines in $\mathbb{P}^2_{\mathbb{C}}$. Then L_1 and L_2 meet in exactly one point.

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Lines in the projective plane



The projective plane

• To make things precise, one defines

 $\mathbb{P}^2_{\mathbb{C}} := (\mathbb{C}^3 - \{(0,0,0)\})/(\mathbb{C} - \{0\}).$

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• So that given $(b_1, b_2, b_3) \in \mathbb{C}^3$ and $(c_1, c_2, c_3) \in \mathbb{C}^3$, we have that (b_1, b_2, b_3) is equivalent to (c_1, c_2, c_3) if $(b_1, b_2, b_3) = \lambda(c_1, c_2, c_3)$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C} - \{0\}$.

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- We denote by $[b_1 : b_2 : b_3]$ the equivalence class of (b_1, b_2, b_3) . We have

$$\mathbb{C}^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^2_{\mathbb{C}} \quad \text{ defined by } \quad (b_1, b_2) \to [b_1 : b_2 : 1].$$

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- We denote by $[b_1 : b_2 : b_3]$ the equivalence class of (b_1, b_2, b_3) . We have

 $\mathbb{C}^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^2_{\mathbb{C}}$ defined by $(b_1, b_2) \to [b_1 : b_2 : 1].$

• The points of $\mathbb{P}^2_{\mathbb{C}} - \mathbb{C}^2$ (the line at infinity) are of the form $[b_1 : b_2 : 0]$.

Lines in the projective plane

• Given the line 2x + 3y - 5 = 0, we consider the "homogenization" 2x + 3y - 5z = 0.

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Lines in the projective plane

- Given the line 2x + 3y 5 = 0, we consider the "homogenization" 2x + 3y 5z = 0.
- The zero set of 2x + 3y 5z (or any homogeneous polynomial Q(x, y, z)) makes sense on $\mathbb{P}^2_{\mathbb{C}}$ as

 $2b_1+3b_2-5b_3=0$ iff $2\lambda b_1+3\lambda b_2-5\lambda b_3=0$ $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}-\{0\}$

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• Note that if we set z = 1, we recover the original equation on \mathbb{C}^2 .

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 [-3:2:0] = [-3/2:1:0].
- For any line parallel to 2x + 3y 5 = 0 we will obtain the same point at infinity.
- More generally one can show the following.

Bezout's Theorem

Theorem (Bezout's Theorem)

Let P(x, y, z) and Q(x, y, z) be homogeneous polynomials of degrees d and d'. If the intersection of the curves

$$\{P(x,y,z)=0\}\cap\{Q(x,y,z)=0\}\subset\mathbb{P}^2_{\mathbb{C}}$$

is finite, then it consist of exactly $d \cdot d'$ points (counted with multiplicity).

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In fact, Bezout's Theorem works in any number of variables.

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Bezout's Theorem II

Theorem (Bezout's Theorem)

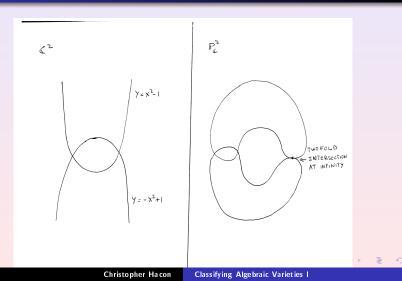
Let $P_1(x_0, \ldots, x_n), \ldots, P_n(x_0, \ldots, x_n)$ be n homogeneous polynomials of degrees d_1, \ldots, d_n . If the set

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^n \{P_i(x_0,\ldots,x_n)=0\} \subset \mathbb{P}^n_{\mathbb{C}}$$

is finite, then it consist of exactly $d_1 \cdots d_n$ points (counted with multiplicity).

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Bezout's Theorem III



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5 Curves

6 Higher dimensions. Preview.

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Infinite number of solutions

So the next interesting question is:

Question

What happens when a set of polynomials has infinitely many solutions?

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Consider the case of 1 equation in 2 variables P(x, y) = 0. For example

$$y^2 = x(x-1)(x-2)\cdots(x-d+1).$$

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Infinite number of solutions

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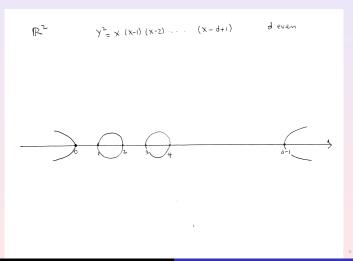
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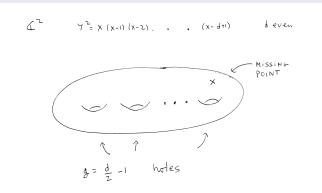
The solutions in \mathbb{R}^2 and in \mathbb{C}^2 look like this.

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Hyperelliptic curve I



Hyperelliptic curve II



Hyperelliptic curve III

The missing point is mysterious at first,

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Hyperelliptic curve III

The missing point is mysterious at first, but if we consider solutions of the homogenized polynomial

$$\{y^2 z^{d-2} - x(x-z)(x-2z)\cdots(x-(d-1)z) = 0\} \subset \mathbb{P}^2_{\mathbb{C}}$$

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Hyperelliptic curve III

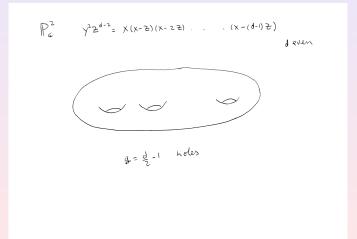
The missing point is mysterious at first, but if we consider solutions of the homogenized polynomial

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then the missing point is just the point at infinity [0:1:0]. The picture is now much more natural. It corresponds to a Riemann Surface.

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Hyperelliptic curve IV



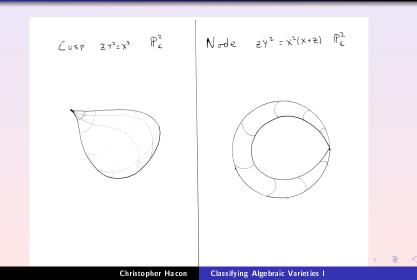
Singular curves

In special cases, it is possible for the set of solutions to be singular. For example $y^2 - x^3 = 0$ and $y^2 - x^2(x+1) = 0$.

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Singular curves II



Singular curves III

Singular curves are rare!

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Singular curves III

Singular curves are rare!

• If we slightly perturb the equations of a singular curve eg.

$$y^2 - x^3 + \epsilon = 0,$$

we obtain smooth Riemann Surfaces.

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Singular curves III

Singular curves are rare!

• If we slightly perturb the equations of a singular curve eg.

$$y^2 - x^3 + \epsilon = 0,$$

we obtain smooth Riemann Surfaces.

• Moreover, there is a (natural) way to resolve (=remove) singularities.

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ullet In general a **Zariski closed subset** of $\mathbb{P}^m_{\mathbb{C}}$ is a set of the form

$$X = \bigcap_{i=1}^n \{P_i(x_1,\ldots,x_m) = 0\} \subset \mathbb{P}^m_{\mathbb{C}}.$$

(Where $P_1, \ldots, P_n \in \mathbb{C}[x_0, \ldots, x_m]$ are homogeneous polynomials.)

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- A Zariski closed subset of P^m_C is irreducible if it can not be written as the union of 2 proper Zariski closed subsets.
- Any Zariski closed subset is a finite union of irreducible Zariski closed subsets.

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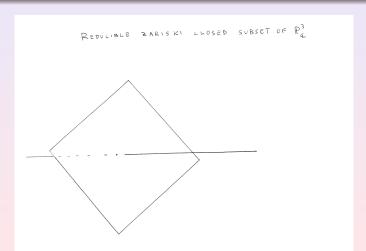
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- A Zariski closed subset of P^m_C is irreducible if it can not be written as the union of 2 proper Zariski closed subsets.
- Any Zariski closed subset is a finite union of irreducible Zariski closed subsets.
- If $P(x,y,z) \in \mathbb{C}[x,y,z]$ is homogeneous of degree r > 0, then

$$X = \{P(x, y, z) = 0\}$$

is irreducible if and only if P(x, y, z) does not factor.

Reducible set



Irreducible subsets II

If X is an infinite irreducible Zariski closed subset, then there is an integer d > 0 such that for most points $x \in X$, one can find an open neighborhood $x \in U_x \subset X$ where U_x is analytically isomorphic to a ball in \mathbb{C}^d .

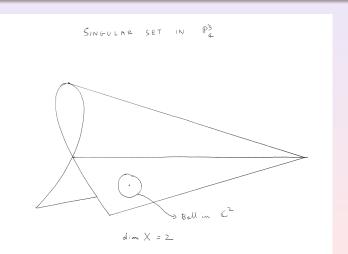
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Irreducible set of dimension 2

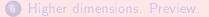


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Curves

• A curve is an irreducible Zariski closed subset of dimension 1.

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Curves

- A curve is an irreducible Zariski closed subset of dimension 1.
- All smooth curves are orientable compact manifolds of real dimension 2 and so they are Riemann Surfaces.

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Curves

- A curve is an irreducible Zariski closed subset of dimension 1.
- All smooth curves are orientable compact manifolds of real dimension 2 and so they are Riemann Surfaces.
- Topologically, a curve X is determined by its genus.
- For any given genus $g \ge 0$, it is natural to ask

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Curves

- A curve is an irreducible Zariski closed subset of dimension 1.
- All smooth curves are orientable compact manifolds of real dimension 2 and so they are Riemann Surfaces.
- Topologically, a curve X is determined by its genus.
- For any given genus $g \ge 0$, it is natural to ask

Question

How many curves of genus g are there?

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• The simplest curves are **rational curves** i.e. curves of genus 0.

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Curves II

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- There is only one such curve $X = \mathbb{P}^1_{\mathbb{C}}$.

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- For example

$$X = \{xz - y^2 = 0\} \cap \{xw - yz = 0\} \cap \{yw - z^2 = 0\} \subset \mathbb{P}^3_{\mathbb{C}}$$

is a curve of genus 0.

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• To see that $X \cong \mathbb{P}^1_{\mathbb{C}}$ notice that X may be "parameterized" by $[s:t] \to [s^3:s^2t:st^2:t^3]$.

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Elliptic curves

• If g > 0 then there are many different curves of genus g.

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• Any other elliptic curve is equivalent to X_t for some t.

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Curves of general type

If X is a curve with genus g ≥ 2 then we say that X is a curve of general type.

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Number Theory. By a theorem of Faltings, they have at most finitely many rational solutions (over \mathbb{Q}), whereas rational curves always have infinitely many solutions. (eg. $x^n + y^n = z^n$!)

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Curves of general type II

Topology. The fundamental group of a rational curve is trivial.

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Topology. The fundamental group of a rational curve is trivial. The fundamental group of an elliptic curve is $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$. The fundamental group of a curve of general type is a free group on generators a_i, b_j with $1 \le i, j \le g$ modulo the relation

$$a_1b_1a_1^{-1}b_1^{-1}a_2b_2a_2^{-1}b_2^{-1}\cdots a_gb_ga_g^{-1}b_g^{-1}=1.$$

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Its abelianization is \mathbb{Z}^{2g} .

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Curves of general type III

Differential geometry. If $g \ge 2$ (respectively g = 1 and g = 0), then X admits a metric with negative (respectively constant and positive) curvature.

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Curves of general type III

Differential geometry. If $g \ge 2$ (respectively g = 1 and g = 0), then X admits a metric with negative (respectively constant and positive) curvature.

Complex analysis. Consider the space of global holomorphic 1-forms $H^0(X, \omega_X)$ (i.e. objects that may locally be written as f(x)dx). Then $H^0(X, \omega_X) \cong \mathbb{C}^g$.

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Curve embeddings

• Note that (as mentioned above) for any curve X there are (infinitely) many different descriptions

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^n \{P_i(x_1,\ldots,x_m)=0\} \subset \mathbb{P}^m_{\mathbb{C}}$$

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- We would like to find a natural (canonical) description for X.
- Since X is compact, the only holomorphic functions on X are constant.
- It is then more interesting to consider meromorphic functions on *X*.

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Rational functions

A divisor D = ∑ d_iP_i is a formal sum of points P_i ∈ X with multiplicities d_i ∈ Z.

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- In other words if $(f) = (f)_0 (f)_\infty = \operatorname{zeroes}(f) \operatorname{poles}(f)$, then $f \in H^0(X, \mathcal{O}_X(D))$ if and only if $(f) + D \ge 0$.

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- The set $H^0(X, \mathcal{O}_X(D))$ is a finite dimensional complex vector space.
- E.g. $H^0(\mathbb{P}^1_{\mathbb{C}}, \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^1_{\mathbb{C}}}(dP_{\infty}))$ corresponds to homogeneous p(x) of degree $\leq d$.

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Rational functions II

• Given a basis s_0, \ldots, s_m of $H^0(X, \mathcal{O}_X(D))$, we obtain a map $X \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^m_{\mathbb{C}}$ given by

$$x \to [s_0(x) : \ldots : s_m(x)]$$

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- Alternatively one can think of $\mathcal{O}_X(D)$ as a line bundle and s_i as sections of this line bundle.
- To find a natural embedding $X \subset \mathbb{P}^m_{\mathbb{C}}$, it suffices to find a "natural" line bundle $\mathcal{O}_X(D)$ such that the sections $s_i \in H^0(X, \mathcal{O}_X(D))$ separate the points and tangent directions of X.

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Holomorphic 1-forms

• There is essentially only one choice for such a line bundle: the canonical line bundle ω_X .

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Theorem

Let X be a curve of genus $g \ge 2$, then for any $k \ge 3$ the sections of $H^0(X, (\omega_X)^{\otimes k})$ define an embedding

$$X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{(2k-1)(g-1)-1}_{\mathbb{C}}$$

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Holomorphic 1-forms II

• There is a more abstract/natural point of view:

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Holomorphic 1-forms II

- There is a more abstract/natural point of view:
- Define the canonical ring

$$R(X) = \bigoplus_{k \ge 0} H^0(X, (\omega_X)^{\otimes k}).$$

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- In coordinates this may be described as follows. If r_0, \dots, r_m are generators of R(X) and

$$K = \ker \left(\mathbb{C}[x_0, \ldots, x_m] \to R(X) \right),$$

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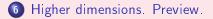
• There are many interesting open problems on the structure of R(X) (even if dim X = 1).

Outline of the talk

Introduction

- 2 equations in 2 variables
- 3 1 equation in 2 variables
- Irreducible subsets

5 Curves



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The Canonical Ring

 In the following two lectures I will explain how one may understand solution sets of dimension ≥ 2.

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- Let X be an irreducible Zariski closed set of dimension d. The sections s ∈ H⁰(X, ω_X^{⊗k}) may be locally written as f(x₁,...,x_d)(dx₁ ∧ ... ∧ dx_d)^{⊗k}.

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- The Canonical Ring of X given by

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Surfaces and 3-folds

• The geometry of complex surfaces (d = 2) was well understood in terms of R(X) by the Italian School of Algebraic Geometry at the beginning of the 20-th century.

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- The geometry of complex 3-folds (d = 3) was understood in the 1980's by work of S. Mori, Y. Kawamata, J. Kollár, V. Shokurov and others.
- In particular, if dim X = 3, then R(X) is finitely generated.

Higher dimensions

Recently there have been some very exciting developments in higher dimensions ($d \ge 4$). In particular we have:

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It follows that there is a natural map $\phi : X \to \operatorname{Proj} R(X) \cong \mathbb{P}^m_{\mathbb{C}}$. In most cases, ϕ carries a lot of information about X and it can be used to study the geometry of X in a coordinate free manner.