# PMATH 965: Mirror Symmetry for Toric Varieties

Content by Elana Kalashnikov Typeset by Kaleb Ruscitti Last updated: September 15, 2023

#### 1 Motivation

Mirror symmetry is an enormous area of research. Here we provide motivation from just one perspective, which is Fano classification. Let X be a smooth n-dimensional algebraic variety over  $\mathbb{C}$ . Suppose we also have a line bundle  $L \to X$ , with some global sections  $s_1, s_2, ..., s_m \in \Gamma(X, L)$ . Then we can try and write down a map

$$\iota: X \to \mathbb{P}^{m-1}$$
  
 $x \to [s_1(x): s_2(x): \dots : s_m(x)].$ 

This is well defined as long as there is no  $x \in X$  where all the sections vanish;  $s_i(x) = 0$  for all i = 1, ..., m.

**Definition 1.** A line bundle L over an algebraic variety X is called *very ample* if there exist some global sections  $s_1, ..., s_m$  of L for which the map  $\iota$  defined above is an embedding of X into  $\mathbb{P}^{m-1}$ .

If there exists a natural number k such that  $L^{\otimes k}$  is very ample, then we say L is ample.

For example, the line bundles  $\mathcal{O}(n) \to \mathbb{P}^{m-1}$  (not to be confused with orthogonal groups!) are very ample for all  $n \geq 1$ .

**Definition 2.** The variety X is Fano if  $-K_X := \bigwedge^n TX$  is ample.

If X is Fano, then it is projective, since  $\bigwedge^n TX$  is very ample, meaning it has some sections which define an embedding  $\iota$  of X into projective space. Some examples of Fano varieties include  $\mathbb{P}^n$ , any degree d projective curve in  $\mathbb{P}^n$  with d < n+1, and Grassmannians. Naturally then we can ask Why study Fano varieties?

- Fano varieties are often the ambient spaces in algebraic geometry. For example, Calabi-Yaus can be cut-out from Fano varieties.
- Fano varieties are special in that there are only finitely many of them in any given dimension.

**Theorem 1** (Kollár-Miyaoka-Mori). Up to deformation, there are finitely many Fano varieties in each dimension.

Here  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are considered equivalent up to deformation if there exists a flat family  $\mathcal{X} \to B$  over an irreducible base B such that  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are fibers over some points  $b_1, b_2 \in B$ .

This raises the big question: Can we classify the Fano varieties? The current progress is:

• In dimension 1, there is just one Fano;  $\mathbb{P}^1$ .

- In dimension 2, there are 10, called the del Pezzo surfaces.
- In dimension 3, there are 105, which were classified throughout the 70s and 90s.
- All higher dimensions are yet to be classified.

In this course, we are also concerned with  $mirror\ symmetries$  for Fano varieties. A conjectured mirror symmetry is between n-dimensional Fano varieties and Laurent polynomials in n-dimensions up to an equivalence called mutation. Loosely, we can say

**Definition 3.** A variety X is *mirror* to a polynomial f, if you can determine *enumerative info* about X from f.

By enumerative info for X, we mean things like Gromov-Witten invariants, quantum cohomology and quantum periods. The mirror symmetry conjecture is that these can be computed in terms of corresponding quantities of f. For example:

**Definition 4.** Let  $f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1^{\pm 1},...,x_n^{\pm 1}]$  be a Laurent polynomial. The classical period of f is the quantity

$$\pi_f(t) = \int_{(S^1)^n} \frac{1}{1 - tf} \frac{dx_1}{x_1} \dots \frac{dx_n}{x_n}$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_1(f^k)}{k!} t^k.$$

where  $c_1(f^k)$  means the coefficient of the constant term of  $f^k$ .

The idea therefore, is that mirror symmetry can help us compute hard things in geometry by using easier polynomial data. Then what is the status of this conjecture?

- Established in dimensions 1 and 2 by checking all cases.
- In dimension 3, all Fanos X have a mirror polynomial f, but the classification of other maximally mutable polynomials f is unknown.
- In all dimensions, the symmetry is established for toric varieties.

Toric varieties are Fano varieties which have the form  $V /\!\!/ T$  where V is a (complex) vector space and  $T = (\mathbb{C}^*)^k$ , which is called the *algebraic torus*. The double slash  $/\!\!/ I$  indicates a *geometric invariant theory* quotient, which will be discussed in the first part of the course. Recently, there is a lot of work on extending mirror symmetry to GIT quotients  $V /\!\!/ G$  more generally, for G a reductive algebraic group.

As we will see, toric varieties are very nice to work with. This is because they are extremely computable. Essentially, there is a dictionary between the geometry of a toric variety X and the combintorics of a polytope P corresponding to X. The basic question then, is can a similar correspondence be generalised to other Fano varieties? What should play the role of the polytope? Mirror symmetry answers this question: X corresponds to f, which has a Newton polytope with some additional coefficient data.

#### Exercises:

- 1. Show that a degree d hypersurface in  $\mathbb{P}^n$  is Fano for d < n + 1.
- 2. Find a closed formula for the classical period of  $f(x,y) = x + y + \frac{1}{xy}$ , and find a differential equation that it satisfies.

# 2 Quotients in Algebraic Geometry

**Definition 5.** An algebraic group is a group which is also an algebraic variety. An action of an algebraic group G on a variety X is a morphism

$$G \times X \to X$$
$$(g, x) \to g \cdot x$$

such that for all  $g, g' \in G$  and  $x \in X$ , we have  $(gg') \cdot x = g \cdot (g' \cdot x)$  and  $e \cdot x = x$ .

For example:  $\mathbb{C}^*$ , GL(n) and SL(n).

**Definition 6.** Given an action of G on X and some  $x \in X$ , the *orbit* of x is

$$G \cdot x = \{ g \cdot x, \mid g \in G \}. \tag{1}$$

The stabiliser of x is

$$G_x = \{ g \in Gs.t.g \cdot x = x \}. \tag{2}$$

Note that  $G_x$  is a closed subgroup of G.

Example: Let  $T = \mathbb{C}^*$  and  $V = \mathbb{C}^2$ . Define an action of T on V by  $\lambda \cdot (z_1, z_2) = (\lambda z_1, \lambda z_2)$  for all  $\lambda \in T$ ,  $(z_1, z_2) \in V$ . Then the orbit of  $(z_1, z_2) \neq (0, 0)$  is the line through  $(z_1, z_2)$ , except the origin. The stabilizer is  $\{1\}$ . If  $(z_1, z_2) = (0, 0)$  then the orbit is  $\{(0, 0)\}$  and the stabilizer is all of T. Notice that (0, 0) is in the closure of  $G \cdot z$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}^2$ .

**Proposition 1.** For any G, X and  $x \in X$ ,

- The orbit  $G \cdot x$  is locally closed and a smooth subvariety of X.
- Each of its irreducible components has dimension  $\dim(G) \dim(G_x)$ .
- The closure of  $G \cdot x$  is a union of  $G \cdot x$  and orbits of strictly smaller dimension.

The last point implies that minimal dimension orbits must be closed, and  $\overline{G \cdot x}$  always contains a closed orbit.

**Definition 7.** The action of a group G is called *closed* if every orbit of G is closed.

**Definition 8.** A linear algebraic group is a closed subgroup of GL(n).

Goal: If we have an action  $G \circlearrowleft X$ , we want to build some quotient X/G in an algebraio-geometric way. As a naive attempt we can just take the quotient as topological spaces. Consider the action of  $\mathbb{C}^*$  on  $\mathbb{C}^2$  from before. If we endow the set  $\mathbb{C}^2/\mathbb{C}^*$  with the quotient topology, then since [(0,0)] is in every open neighbourhood of every other point (as we can always take a sequence of  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{C}^*$  approaching zero), this quotient is not even Hausdorff.

To solve this, we essentially want to delete the origin, and obtain  $(\mathbb{C}^2 - \{(0,0)\})/\mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{P}^1$ . The putative quotient Y we want to define must have the following properties:

- There exists a surjection  $p: X \to Y$  which is G-invariant.
- $\bullet$  Y is separated.

• Y satisfies the following universal property: if  $f: X \to Z$  is G invariant, then it factors uniquely through p. That is:



- For all U open,  $\mathcal{O}_Y(U) \cong \mathcal{O}_X(p^{-1}(U))^G$ , where the superscript denotes G-invariant functions.
- If  $Z \subset X$  is closed and G-invariant, then p(Z) is closed. If  $Z_1, Z_2$  are disjoint and closed then  $p(Z_1)$  and  $p(Z_2)$  are disjoint.

If p satisfies all these properties, we say it is a  $good\ quotient$ . Moving forward, we will talk about affine and projective GIT quotients, symplectic reduction, and comparison between these two methods of constructing good quotients.

We can also consider a geometric quotient, which is a good quotient whose points are orbits of  $G \cap X$ .

Remark: The properties of being good or geometric are local on the base, meaning that  $p: X \to Y$  is good or geometric if and only if there exists an open cover of Y with the restrictions of p being good or geometric.

**Lemma 1.** If  $p: X \to Y$  is good, then it is categorical.

*Proof.* Suppose  $g: X \to Z$  is another H invariant morphism and  $p: X \to Y$  is good. Then we want to define  $h: Y \to Z$  such that  $p \circ h = g$ . Consider  $g(p^{-1}(y))$  for some  $y \in Y$ , which we claim is a singleton set. Suppose for contradiction that there are  $z_1 \neq z_2 \in g(p^{-1}(y))$ . Then  $g^{-1}(z_1) \cap g^{-1}(z_2) = \emptyset$ , and these are closed, G-invariant sets because g is continuous and G-invariant. Hence, by the hypothesis that p is good we have:

$$p(g^{-1}(z_1)) \cap p(g^{-1}(z_2)) = \emptyset.$$
 (3)

However, we must also have that  $y \in p(g^{-1}(z_i)), i = 1, 2$  because  $z_i \in g(p^{-1}(y))$ ; hence we have a contradiction and must have that  $g(p^{-1}(y))$  is a singleton.

Therefore, we can define a map  $h: Y \to Z$  by  $y \to g(p^{-1}(y))$  and it is well-defined and clearly  $p \circ h = g$ . It remains to show that this is a morphism of schemes (namely we need it to be locally induced by ring morphisms  $\mathcal{O}_X \to \mathcal{O}_Y$ ). Let  $\{U_i\}$  be a finite open affine cover of Z. Let  $W_i = X - g^{-1}(U_i) = g(U_i)^c$ . Then  $U_i$  being open implies that  $g^{-1}(U_i)$  is open and hence  $W_i$  is closed. Similarly, g being G-invariant implies  $W_i$  is also. Finally, since  $U_i$  is a cover,  $\bigcap W_i = \emptyset$ . Thus by goodness of p we have that  $p(W_i)$  are all closed and

$$\bigcap p(W_i) = \emptyset. \tag{4}$$

Define  $V_i = Y - p(W_i) = p(W_i)^c$  Then the  $V_i$  are an open cover of Y by equation 4. Note further that  $p^{-1}(V_i) \subset g^{-1}(U_i)$ . Thus we have a sequence of maps

$$\mathcal{O}_Z(U_i) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{O}}_X (g^{-1}(U_i))^G \xrightarrow{\operatorname{res}|_{p^{-1}(V_i)}} \mathcal{O}_X(p^{-1}(V_i))^G \cong_{p \text{ good }} \mathcal{O}_Y(V_i).$$
 (5)

The G-invariance on the second ring comes from the invariance of g. The last isomorphism is one of the hypothesis conditions of p being good. Thus since  $U_i$  and  $V_i$  are affine, this defines a local morphism  $h_i: V_i \to U_i$ , and it suffices to verify that  $h|_{V_i} = h$ .

**Proposition 2.** Let  $p: X \to Y$  be a good quotient. Then

- 1.  $\overline{G \cdot x_1} \cap \overline{G \cdot x_2} \neq \emptyset \iff p(x_1) = p(x_2)$ .
- 2. For all  $y \in Y$ , there exists a unique closed orbit in  $p^{-1}(y)$ .

*Proof.* 1) Suppose  $\overline{G \cdot x_1} \cap \overline{G \cdot x_2} \neq \emptyset$ . Since p is continuous and constant on orbits, it is constant on orbit closures and hence  $p(\overline{G \cdot x_1}) = p(\overline{G \cdot x_2})$  and in particular  $p(x_1) = p(x_2)$ . On the other hand if  $\overline{G \cdot x_1} \cap \overline{G \cdot x_2} = \emptyset$ , then since p is good, the image of each orbit is disjoint.

2) Suppose there exist two closed orbits in  $p^{-1}(y)$ . If they are not equal, then again since p is continuous and constant on orbits they must be disjoint and hence their image is disjoint by goodness. However they must each contain y so this is a contradiction. (Existence was not given in class, maybe it is obvious?)

Now, let us construct good quotients for affine varieties.

### 2.1 Affine GIT Quotient

Suppose we have the action of a group G on an affine variety X. Then  $X = \operatorname{Spec}(\mathcal{O}_X)$  by definition, and we want our quotient to be good; so we want it to have functions  $\mathcal{O}_X^G$ . Thus the idea is to let our quotient be  $\operatorname{Spec}(\mathcal{O}_X^G)$ . However  $\mathcal{O}_X^G$  is not finitely generated in general, so we will restrict ourselves to reductive groups.

**Definition 9.** Let G be a linear algebraic group.

- We say G is reductive if every smooth connected unipotent normal subgroup of G is trivial.
- We say G is linearly reductive if, for every representation  $G \to GL(V)$  and every non-zero fixed point  $v \in V$ , there exists a homogeneous G-invariant degree-1 polynomial f on V such that  $f(V) \neq 0$ .
- We say G is geometrically reductive if, for every representation  $G \to GL(V)$  and every non-zero fixed point  $v \in V$ , there exists a homogeneous G-invariant polynomial f on V such that  $f(V) \neq 0$ .

**Theorem 2.** The three properties above are equivalent over  $\mathbb{C}$ .

For example,  $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$ ,  $SL(n,\mathbb{C})$  and  $PGL(n,\mathbb{C})$  are reductive.

**Theorem 3** (Nagata's Theorem). Let G be geometrically reductive acting on a finitely generated  $\mathbb{C}$ -algebra R. Then  $R^G$  is finitely generated.

**Lemma 2.** Let G be a geometrically reductive group acting on an affine variety X. Let  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$  be two closed, G-invariant disjoint subsets of X. Then there exists a G-invariant function  $\psi \in \mathcal{O}_X^G$  such that  $\psi(Z_1) = 1$  and  $\psi(Z_2) = 0$ .

Proof. Firstly

$$\langle 1 \rangle = I(\emptyset) = I(Z_1 \cap Z_2) = I(Z_1) + I(Z_2),$$
 (6)

therefore  $1 = f_1 + f_2$  for some  $f_1, f_2$  with  $f_i(Z_j) = \delta_{ij}$ . Claim: (c.f. Hoskins) The subspace spanned by  $\{g \cdot f, \mid g \in G\} \subset \mathcal{O}_X$  is G-invariant and finite dimensional. Therefore we can pick a basis  $h_1, ..., h_n$ , and because G acts on all of the  $h_i$ , we get an induced action of G on  $\mathbb{C}^n$  such that the map

$$\phi: X \to \mathbb{C}^n$$
$$x \to (h_i(x))$$

is G-equivariant, meaning  $\phi(g \cdot x) = g\phi(x)$ . Note then that  $\phi(Z_1) = 0$  and  $\Phi(Z_2) \neq 0$ , and define  $v = \Phi(Z_2) \in \mathbb{C}^n$ .

Since  $\phi$  is G-equivariant, v is fixed by the action of G. Then by the hypothesis of geometric reductivity, there exists some G-invariant homogenous  $f_0$  such that  $f_0(v) \neq 0$  and  $f_0(0) = 0$ . Finally, let

$$\psi = \frac{1}{f_0(v)} f_0 \circ \phi. \tag{7}$$

**Definition 10.** The affine GIT quotient of an affine variety X under reductive group G, denoted  $X /\!\!/ G$  is  $\operatorname{Spec}(\mathcal{O}_X^G)$ .

**Theorem 4.** Let X be an affine variety and G a reductive group acting on X. Then  $p: X \to Y = Spec(\mathcal{O}_X^G)$  is a good quotient.

*Proof.* First we show p is G-invariant. Suppose for contradiction there exist  $x \in X$ ,  $g \in G$  such that  $p(x) \neq p(g \cdot x)$ . Since Y is affine, there exists an  $x \in \mathcal{O}_Y$  such that  $f(x) \neq f(g \cdot x)$ . However  $\mathcal{O}_Y = \mathcal{O}_X^G$  by definition, so f must be G invariant, giving a contradiction.

Next we show p is surjective. Let  $y \in Y$  and let  $\langle f_1, ..., f_n \rangle$  be the ideal defining y. Let  $\mathfrak{m}$  be the maximal ideal containing  $\langle f_1, ..., f_n \rangle$ . The point corresponding to  $\mathfrak{m}$  in X maps to y under p.

Now let  $U \subset Y$  be open. We want to show  $\mathcal{O}_Y(U) \cong \mathcal{O}_X(p^{-1}(U))^G$ ; it suffices to show this for  $U = D_f^Y$  for any  $f \in \mathcal{O}_Y$ .

$$\mathcal{O}_Y(D_f^Y) = (\mathcal{O}_Y)_f$$

$$= [\mathcal{O}_X(X)^G]_F$$

$$= [\mathcal{O}_X(X)_f]^G$$

$$= [\mathcal{O}_X(D_f^X)]^G$$

$$= \mathcal{O}_X(p^{-1}(D_f^Y))^G$$

Let  $Z_1, Z_2$  be G-invariant closed disjoint subsets. By the lemma, there exists  $\psi \in \mathcal{O}_X^G$  with  $\psi(Z_1) = 0$  and  $\psi(Z_2) = 1$ . Then  $\overline{p(Z_1)} \cap \overline{p(Z_2)} = \emptyset$ , because there is a G-invariant function which separates them. This turns out to be equivalent to the topological condition for goodness, that  $p(Z_1) \cap p(Z_2) = \emptyset$ . To prove this, it suffices to prove that if Z is closed and G-invariant then p(Z) is closed.

Suppose Z is closed and G-invariant. For contradiction, suppose there exists  $g \in \overline{p(Z)} - p(Z)$ . Then Z and  $p^{-1}(y)$  are both closed and G-invariant, so

$$\overline{p(Z)} \cap \overline{p(p^{-1}(y))} = \emptyset. \tag{8}$$

however y must be in this intersection, giving a contradiction.

**Proposition 3.** If the action of G is closed then  $X \parallel G$  is a geometric quotient.

This GIT construction separates orbits as much as possible while still being good. Example: Consider  $\mathbb{C}^* \subset \mathbb{C}^2$  by  $t(x,y) = (tx,t^{-1}y)$ . Then the affine GIT quotient is given by  $\mathbb{C}^2/\!/\mathbb{C}^* = \operatorname{Spec}(\mathbb{C}[x,y]^G)$ , and  $\mathbb{C}[x,y]^G = \mathbb{C}[xy] \cong \mathbb{C}[z]$ . Therefore  $\mathbb{C}^2/\!/\mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C}$ . The quotient map is  $(x,y) \to xy$  and the orbits come in three types:

- 1. The orbit of the origin is  $G \cdot (0,0) = (0,0)$ .
- 2. The orbits of (x,0) and (0,y), for  $x,y\neq 0$  are the x and y axes in  $\mathbb{C}^2$ .
- 3. The remaining orbits have the form  $G \cdot (x, y) = \{(z_1, z_2) \mid z_1 z_2 = \lambda\}$  for some  $\lambda$ , which are conics.

The GIT quotient sends the type 1 and 2 orbits to the same point,  $0 \in \mathbb{C}$ , so this is not a geometric quotient.

Example: Consider the additive complex group  $G_a = (\mathbb{C}, +)$ . Let it act on  $\mathbb{C}^4$  by embedding it into  $GL(4, \mathbb{C})$  by the map

$$s \to \begin{pmatrix} 1 & s & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & s \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{9}$$

 $G_a$  is not reductive, but in this case the ring of invariants is still finitely generated. Note however that in our proof that the GIT quotient is surjective, we again used that G is reductive. In this case, we will not have a good quotient. If f is invariant, it must send

$$x_1 \rightarrow x_2$$
  $x_2 \rightarrow sx_1 + x_2$   $x_3 \rightarrow x_3$   $x_4 \rightarrow sx_3 + x_4$ 

So  $x_1, x_3$  are invariant, and  $x_1x_4-x_2x_3$  is invariant. It turns out these three generate all the invariants, and so  $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{C}^4}^{Ga} = \mathbb{C}[x_1, x_3, x_1x_4-x_2x_3]$ . Furthermore, Spec( $\mathbb{C}[x_1, x_3, x_1x_4-x_2x_3]$ ) =  $\mathbb{C}^3$ . The quotient map is

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \to (x_1, x_3, x_1 x_4 - x_2 x_3),$$
 (10)

which is not surjective as  $(0,0,\lambda)$  is not in its image for  $\lambda \neq 0$ .

### 2.2 Projective GIT Quotient

Recall the example of  $\mathbb{C}^* \subset \mathbb{C}^2$  by scaling. We saw that (0,0) is in the closure of every orbit. Hence  $\mathbb{C}^2/\mathbb{C}^*$  is just one point. This is the same as saying that all the  $\mathbb{C}^*$  invariants in  $\mathbb{C}[x_1,x_2]$  are just the constants. Projective GIT will allow us to loosen the definition of G-invariance and get that  $\mathbb{C}^2 /\!\!/ \mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{P}^1$ . Recall, if f is homogeneous of degree k then  $f(\lambda x, \lambda y) = \lambda^k f(x, y)$ , so f is projectively invariant.

Consider  $G \circlearrowright X$ , with X a projective variety. We can think of X being projective in two ways, either there is an embedding  $X \subset \mathbb{P}^k$ , or X is equipped with an ample line bundle  $L \to X$ . We will swap between these two pictures as convenient. The idea of projective GIT is to replace Spec with Proj. If R is the graded ring with  $X = \operatorname{Proj}(R)$ , then we want to define  $X \not \mid / G$  to be  $\operatorname{Proj}(R^G)$ . To make sense of this in the (X, L) perspective, we need a G-action on the sections of the bundle L.

**Definition 11.** Let X be an algebraic variety and  $\pi: L \to X$  a line bundle. Suppose  $G \odot X$  via  $\sigma: G \times X \to X$ . Then a G-linearisation of L is a lift of  $\sigma$  to  $\overline{\sigma}: G \times L \to L$  which commutes with  $\sigma$  under the projection  $\pi$ ;  $\sigma(g, \pi(s)) = \pi(\overline{\sigma}(g, s))$  for all  $s \in \Gamma(X, L)$ , and such that the 0 section is invariant.

Remark: A linearisation defines a linear map between fibres of  $L, \overline{\sigma}: L_x \to L_{g \cdot x}$ .

Example: Let  $X = \mathbb{C}^n$  and  $L = \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C}^n$  be the trivial bundle. Then a linearisation of L is a character in  $\chi(G)$ . If we fix  $\theta \in \chi(G)$ , then the linearisation of L is

$$g \cdot (a, v) = (\theta(g)a, g \cdot v). \tag{11}$$

This defines an action on the sections of L; for  $U \subset X$  open and  $s \in \Gamma(U, L)$ , let  $(q \cdot s)(x) = \theta(q)s(q^{-1}x)$ .

In the other perspective, when  $X \subset \mathbb{P}^k$  explicitly, then a linearisation is a way to think of  $G \circlearrowleft X$  via an embedding  $G \hookrightarrow GL(k+1,\mathbb{C}) \circlearrowleft \mathbb{P}^k$ . In particular, if L is very ample, then  $X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}(\Gamma(X,L)^{\vee}) = \mathbb{P}^k$ . Then these two notions of linearisation agree. If  $X = \operatorname{Proj}(R)$ , then a linearisation is an action  $G \circlearrowleft R$  which preserves the grading.

In any case, we can now define projective GIT.

**Definition 12.** The *projective GIT quotient* of (X, L) by G, with respect to a given linearisation, is

$$X /\!\!/ G = \operatorname{Proj}\left(\bigoplus_{r \ge 0} \Gamma(X, L^r)^G\right)$$
 (12)

with the quotient map induced by the injection  $R^G \hookrightarrow R$ .

Example: We construct  $\mathbb{P}^n$  as a GIT quotient of  $X = \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$  by  $\mathbb{C}^*$  under scaling. A linearisation is given by a character of  $\mathbb{C}^*$ .

$$\chi(\mathbb{C}^*) \cong \mathbb{Z}$$
$$(\lambda \to \lambda^a) \leftrightarrow a$$

Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  be a character, then  $\mathbb{C}^*$  acts on the trivial line bundle L over  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$  by  $\lambda \cdot s(x) = \lambda^a s(x)$ . We have that  $\Gamma(\mathbb{C}^{n+1}, L^k) = \mathbb{C}[x_0, ..., x_n]$ . If we want an element f to be  $\mathbb{C}^*$  invariant, we need

$$t \cdot f(x_0, ..., x_n) = t^a f(t^{-1}x_0, ..., t^{-1}x_n) = f(x_0, ..., x_n).$$
(13)

If a=1 then equation 13 exactly means that f is a degree-k homogenous polynomial. Then

$$X /\!\!/ G = \operatorname{Proj}(\bigoplus_{k \geq 0} \operatorname{degree} k \text{ homogenous polynomials}) = \mathbb{P}^n.$$

If a=0, then equation 13 is only solved by constants. In this case,  $X /\!\!/ G$  has only one point and we recover the affine GIT quotient.

If a<0 then equation 13 has no solutions and the quotient is the empty set. Finally, the case with  $a>1\in\mathbb{N}$  is left as an exercise.

We can also think of  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$  as  $\operatorname{Proj}(\mathbb{C}[x_0,...,x_n,y])$ , with the grading that lets  $x_i$  have degree 0 and y have degree 1. Then  $\mathbb{C}^* \circlearrowleft \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$  by  $\lambda \cdot (x_0,...,x_n,y) = (\lambda x_0,...,\lambda x_n,\lambda^{-a}y)$  for  $a \in \chi(\mathbb{C}^*)$ . The quotient in each case works out exactly the same as above.

Let us try to get an intuitive sense for  $X /\!\!/ G$ . Suppose that L is very ample. Suppose further that some sections  $s_0, ..., s_n$  generate the G-invariant sections in all degrees. Then the Proj construction is essentially doing

$$X \to \mathbb{P}^n$$
  
 $x \to [s_0(x) : \dots : s_n(x)].$ 

This is defined where not all of the  $s_i(x)$  vanish; the image is  $X /\!\!/ G$ , which contains all the points x that have some non-vanishing G-invariant section.