

MUTATIONS AND SERRE FUNCTORS

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CONTENTS

1. Serre functors	1
2. Mutations	2
3. Mutations of exceptional collections	3
3.1. On Beilinson SOD	4
3.2. The two SOD	4
4. Applications on families	5
References	6

1. SERRE FUNCTORS

Let us start by recalling the following notion, which was already introduced a couple of weeks ago.

Definition 1 ([Huy06, 1.28]). Let \mathcal{D} be a k -linear triangulated category. A *Serre functor* is a k -linear equivalence $S: \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ together with natural isomorphisms

$$\mathrm{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \mathrm{Hom}(B, S(A))^\vee.$$

This notion was originally introduced by Bondal and Kapranov in [BK89]. The name is motivated by the following prototypical example: if X is a smooth, proper variety of dimension n , then $S(A) = A \otimes \omega_X[n]$ is a Serre functor on the derived category $D^b(X)$. We will see more examples later on. In the meantime, there are a couple of basic properties worth knowing about.

Lemma 2 ([Huy06, 1.30–1]). (1) *The Serre functor is unique up to unique isomorphism, provided that it exists.*

(2) *Assume that $F: \mathcal{D}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{D}_2$ is a triangulated functor, and that $\mathcal{D}_1, \mathcal{D}_2$ have Serre functors S_1, S_2 . Then F has a left adjoint if and only if it has a right adjoint. Moreover*

$$G \dashv F \Leftrightarrow F \dashv S_1 \circ G \circ S_2^{-1}.$$

(3) *Assume that $i: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is a (one-sided) triangulated subcategory of \mathcal{D} . If \mathcal{D} has a Serre functor, then \mathcal{A} has one; thus, it is admissible.*

Proof. (1) This is direct from Yoneda: the image of the Serre functor $S(A)$ is characterized by the contravariant functor $\mathrm{Hom}(-, S(A)) \cong \mathrm{Hom}(A, -)^\vee$.

- (2) The trick here is that Serre duality allows us to swap the two factors in the Hom functor. In fact, assume that F has a left adjoint G . We have:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{Hom}_{D_2}(F(A), B) &= \mathrm{Hom}_{D_2}(B, S_2 \circ F(A))^\vee = \mathrm{Hom}_{D_2}(S_2^{-1}(B), F(A))^\vee \\ &= \mathrm{Hom}_{D_1}(G \circ S_2^{-1}(B), A)^\vee = \mathrm{Hom}_{D_1}(G \circ S_2^{-1}(B), S_1 \circ S_1^{-1}(A))^\vee \\ &= \mathrm{Hom}_{D_1}(S_1^{-1}(A), G \circ S_2^{-1}(B)) = \mathrm{Hom}_{D_1}(A, S_1 \circ G \circ S_2^{-1}(B)). \end{aligned}$$

- (3) Say that $i: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ has a right adjoint $i^!$. Using the previous ideas, the Serre functor of \mathcal{A} is given by $i^! \circ S \circ i$. Similarly, if $i^* \dashv i$, then the Serre functor is given by the inverse of $i^* \circ S \circ i$. \square

Example 3. Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a morphism between smooth, projective varieties of dimensions m and n , respectively. We know that $Rf_*: D^b(X) \rightarrow D^b(Y)$ admits a left adjoint Lf^* . Thus, by the lemma we get a right adjoint

$$S_X \circ Lf^* \circ S_Y^{-1}(-) = Lf^*(-) \otimes \omega_f[m-n],$$

where $\omega_f = \omega_X \otimes f^*\omega_Y^{-1}$. This adjoint is denoted by $f^!$, the *upper shriek*.

We point out that $f^!$ exists in much more generality, but its definition and basic properties are much more delicate. The basic idea is as follows: if $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a morphism between finite type \mathbb{C} -schemes, we pick a relative compactification $X \hookrightarrow \overline{X} \xrightarrow{\overline{f}} Y$, which exists by a theorem of Nagata. The functor $Rf_*: D_{\mathrm{QCoh}}(X) \rightarrow D_{\mathrm{QCoh}}(Y)$ admits a right adjoint using Brown's criterion, which we denote by $\overline{a}: D_{\mathrm{QCoh}}(Y) \rightarrow D_{\mathrm{QCoh}}(X)$. One declares

$$f^!: D_{\mathrm{QCoh}}^+(Y) \rightarrow D_{\mathrm{QCoh}}^+(X), \quad f^!(K) = \overline{a}(K)|_X.$$

This approach for $f^!$ is relatively clean; however, it does *not* say anything about how to compute $f^!$. This argument is essentially due to Neeman.

Alternatively, one can construct $f^!$ directly if f is an embedding or if it is of the form $\mathbb{P}_A^n \rightarrow A$. One can then construct $f^!$ by working locally and “gluing” these two models. In any case, there is a lot of work to be done. We refer the interested reader to [Stacks, Tag 0DWF] and the references therein.

2. MUTATIONS

Assume that we are given a semi-orthogonal decomposition $\mathcal{D} = \langle \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} \rangle$. In particular, \mathcal{A} is left admissible and the inclusion map $i: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ admits a left adjoint i^* . If \mathcal{D} admits a Serre functor, the previous section shows that i also has a right adjoint $i^!$. This way, we can produce a new semi-orthogonal decomposition $\mathcal{D} = \langle \mathcal{A}^\perp, \mathcal{A} \rangle$. This is what we call a *mutation* of a semi-orthogonal decomposition. Note that \mathcal{A} is preserved, while \mathcal{B} is replaced by the new subcategory \mathcal{A}^\perp .

Lemma 4. *The subcategories \mathcal{A}^\perp and \mathcal{B} are equivalent.*

Proof. Note that the inclusion $j: \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ admits a right adjoint $j^!$. Using this functor, we assemble the composition $\mathcal{A}^\perp \rightarrow \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$. One quickly checks that this is an equivalence. \square

The same idea can be applied with more than two pieces. For example, if $\mathcal{D} = \langle \mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \mathcal{A}_3, \mathcal{A}_4 \rangle$, we can move \mathcal{A}_2 and \mathcal{A}_3 around. Let us introduce some notation.

Definition 5 ([BK89, §4], cf. [Kuz09, §2.3]). Let $\mathcal{D} = \langle \mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_\ell \rangle$ be a semi-orthogonal decomposition. Given $i = 2, \dots, \ell$, the *ith right mutation* is

$$\mathbb{R}_i(\mathcal{A}_\bullet) = \{\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_{i-2}, \mathcal{A}_i, *, \mathcal{A}_{i+1}, \dots, \mathcal{A}_\ell\},$$

where $*$ = ${}^\perp\langle \mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_{i-2}, \mathcal{A}_i \rangle \cap \langle \mathcal{A}_{i+1}, \dots, \mathcal{A}_\ell \rangle^\perp$. Similarly, for $i = 1, \dots, \ell - 1$, the *ith left mutation* is

$$\mathbb{L}_i(\mathcal{A}^\bullet) = \{\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_{i-1}, *, \mathcal{A}_i, \mathcal{A}_{i+2}, \dots, \mathcal{A}_\ell\},$$

where $*$ = ${}^\perp\langle \mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_{i-1} \rangle \cap \langle \mathcal{A}_i, \mathcal{A}_{i+2}, \dots, \mathcal{A}_\ell \rangle^\perp$.

Let us make some comments on the notation. First of all, note that the i is the position of the “mutated” entry, and the left/right is where it is coming from. Second, we think of $\mathbb{R}_i, \mathbb{L}_i$ as acting on the collection of all semi-orthogonal decompositions.

Proposition 6. *The operators $\mathbb{R}_i, \mathbb{L}_i$ satisfy the braid relations: for $i \geq 2$, we have $\mathbb{R}_i \mathbb{R}_{i+1} \mathbb{R}_i = \mathbb{R}_{i+1} \mathbb{R}_i \mathbb{R}_{i+1}$ (resp. with \mathbb{L}).*

Let us point out that the definition of a mutation is pretty messy, as it requires computing two orthogonal complements. However, note that

$$\mathcal{D} = \langle \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} \rangle \implies \mathcal{D} = \langle S_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathcal{B}), \mathcal{A} \rangle.$$

This way, if we want to mutate a block “to the other side” (i.e. apply $\mathbb{L}_1 \dots \mathbb{L}_{\ell-1}$). Something similar applies in the other direction.

3. MUTATIONS OF EXCEPTIONAL COLLECTIONS

Let us recall that an *exceptional collection* of a triangulated category \mathcal{D} is a collection of objects E_1, \dots, E_r with no Homs from right to left, and with $\text{Hom}^\bullet(E_i, E_i) = \mathbb{C}[0]$. Using the same ideas of the previous section, we can mutate these sequences. However, in this case there is an explicit way of performing these mutations.

Proposition 7. *Let $\mathcal{D} = \langle \mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_\ell \rangle$ be a full exceptional collection, with \mathcal{A}_\bullet the corresponding semi-orthogonal decomposition. Let L_i and R_i be given by the triangles*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{A}_i \otimes R\text{Hom}(\mathcal{A}_i, \mathcal{A}_{i+1}) &\xrightarrow{ev} \mathcal{A}_{i+1} \rightarrow L_i \rightarrow *, \\ R_i \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_{i-1} &\xrightarrow{ev^*} \mathcal{A}_i \otimes R\text{Hom}(\mathcal{A}_{i-1}, \mathcal{A}_i)^* \rightarrow *. \end{aligned}$$

where ev and ev^* are the canonical (co)evaluation maps. Then we have full exceptional collections

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D} &= \langle \mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_{i-2}, \mathcal{A}_i, R_i, \mathcal{A}_{i+1}, \dots, \mathcal{A}_\ell \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_{i-1}, L_i, \mathcal{A}_i, \mathcal{A}_{i+2}, \dots, \mathcal{A}_\ell \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, the corresponding semi-orthogonal decompositions correspond to $\mathbb{R}_i(\mathcal{A}_\bullet)$ and $\mathbb{L}_i(\mathcal{A}_\bullet)$ respectively.

Proof. (Idea) Let us focus¹ on the case $\ell = 2$, i.e. $\mathcal{D} = \langle \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} \rangle$. Consider the triangle

$$\mathcal{A} \otimes R\text{Hom}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}) \xrightarrow{ev} \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{C} \rightarrow *.$$

We claim that $\mathcal{D} = \langle \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{A} \rangle$. To show this, start by applying $\text{Hom}(\mathcal{A}, -)$ to the triangle above, which shows that $\text{Hom}^i(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{C}) = 0$ holds for all i . Now, apply

¹The general case is a formal reduction to this one!

$\mathrm{Hom}^i(B, -)$ to get that $\mathrm{Hom}^\bullet(B, C) = \mathbb{C}[0]$. At last, we apply $\mathrm{Hom}(-, C)$ to get that $\mathrm{Hom}^\bullet(C, C) = \mathbb{C}[0]$. In other words, this shows that C is exceptional.

At last, note that the triangle above allows us to recover B from A and C . This shows that C and A span \mathcal{D} . \square

We will use this result to produce various examples.

3.1. On Beilinson SOD. Recall from a couple of lectures ago that $D^b(\mathbb{P}^n)$ admits a full exceptional collection $\langle \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{O}(1), \dots, \mathcal{O}(n) \rangle$, thanks to Beilinson. Let's see what happens if we mutate (over and over)

First, let us focus on $n = 1$, i.e. $D^b(\mathbb{P}^1) = \langle \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{O}(1) \rangle$. To compute \mathbb{L}_1 we need to look at the triangle

$$\mathcal{O} \otimes R\mathrm{Hom}(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{O}(1)) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(1) \rightarrow L_1 \rightarrow *.$$

Here $L_1 = \mathcal{O}(-1)[1]$, hence we get the SOD $D^b(\mathbb{P}^1) = \langle \mathcal{O}(-1), \mathcal{O} \rangle$.

Let us look now at the case $n = 2$, starting with $D^b(\mathbb{P}^2) = \langle \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{O}(1), \mathcal{O}(2) \rangle$. We apply \mathbb{L}_1 to get:

$$\mathcal{O} \otimes R\mathrm{Hom}(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{O}(1)) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(1) \rightarrow C \rightarrow *.$$

Here $C \cong \Omega^1(1)[1]$, by the Euler exact sequence. Thus, we get

$$\mathbb{L}_1: \langle \Omega^1(1), \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{O}(2) \rangle.$$

We now apply $\mathbb{L}_1 \circ \mathbb{L}_2$ simultaneously. We can use our previous discussion to get $S_{\mathbb{P}^2}(\mathcal{O}(2)) = \mathcal{O}(-1)[1]$. This way, we get

$$\langle \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{O}(1), \mathcal{O}(2) \rangle \xrightarrow{\mathbb{L}_1} \langle \Omega^1(1), \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{O}(2) \rangle \xrightarrow{\mathbb{L}_1 \circ \mathbb{L}_2} \langle \mathcal{O}(-1), \Omega^1(1), \mathcal{O} \rangle.$$

In general, one can show that $D^b(\mathbb{P}^n) = \langle \Omega^n(n), \dots, \Omega^1(1), \mathcal{O} \rangle$, and that this is obtained by mutation as above.

3.2. The two SOD. Let us go back to an example discussed a couple of weeks ago. Let $\alpha: S \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^2$ be the blow-up of \mathbb{P}^2 at two points. Here $\mathrm{Pic}(S) = \mathbb{Z}E_1 \oplus \mathbb{Z}E_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}\alpha^*L$, where E_1, E_2 are the two exceptional divisors and L is the class of a line in \mathbb{P}^2 . Using the blow-up semi-orthogonal decomposition we get

$$D^b(S) = \langle \mathcal{O}_{E_1}(-1), \mathcal{O}_{E_2}(-1), \mathcal{O}_S, \mathcal{O}_S(\alpha^*L), \mathcal{O}_S(\alpha^*2L) \rangle.$$

On the other hand, we can blow-down the strict transform of the curve joining both points in \mathbb{P}^2 . This gives us a blow-down $\beta: S \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1$. If M_1, M_2 are the two rulings of $\mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1$, and F is the exceptional divisor, we get an SOD

$$D^b(S) = \langle \mathcal{O}_F(-1), \mathcal{O}_S, \mathcal{O}_S(\beta^*M_1), \mathcal{O}_S(\beta^*M_2), \mathcal{O}_S(\beta^*M_1 + \beta^*M_2) \rangle.$$

Let's see if we can relate these two decompositions via blow-downs. We point out that

$$\beta M_1^* = E_1 + F, \quad \beta M_2^* = E_2 + F, \quad \alpha^*L = E_1 + E_2 + F,$$

which will be useful to compare these two decompositions. We have depicted this situation in Figure 1.

This way, our previous semi-orthogonal decompositions can be written as

- (1) $D^b(S) = \langle \mathcal{O}_{E_1}(-1), \mathcal{O}_{E_2}(-1), \mathcal{O}_S, \mathcal{O}_S(E_1 + E_2 + F), \mathcal{O}_S(2E_1 + 2E_2 + 2F) \rangle,$
- (2) $D^b(S) = \langle \mathcal{O}_F(-1), \mathcal{O}_S, \mathcal{O}_S(E_1 + F), \mathcal{O}_S(E_2 + F), \mathcal{O}_S(E_1 + E_2 + 2F) \rangle.$

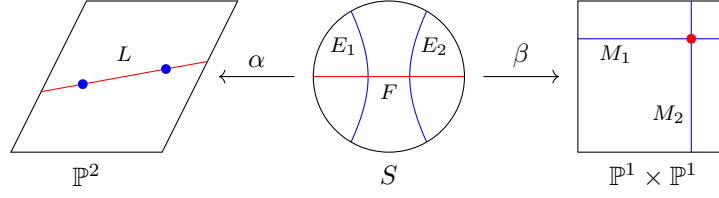


FIGURE 1. The blow-up of \mathbb{P}^2 at two points, and the blow-up of $\mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1$ at a point.

We start by applying \mathbb{R}_3 to (1). Here, note that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{Hom}^\bullet(\mathcal{O}_{E_2}(-1), \mathcal{O}_S) &= \mathrm{Hom}^{2-\bullet}(\mathcal{O}_S, \mathcal{O}_{E_2}(-1) \otimes \omega_S)^\vee \\ &= H^{2-\bullet}(S, \mathcal{O}_E(-2))^\bullet = \mathbb{C}[-1]. \end{aligned}$$

This way, the mutated object A fits into the triangle

$$\mathcal{O}_{E_1}(-1) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_S[1] \rightarrow A \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{E_1}(-1)[1].$$

It follows that $A = \mathcal{O}_S(E_1)$, and we get the SOD

$$D^b(S) = \langle \mathcal{O}_{E_1}(-1), \mathcal{O}_S, \mathcal{O}_S(E_2), \mathcal{O}_S(E_1 + E_2 + F), \mathcal{O}_S(2E_1 + 2E_2 + 2F) \rangle$$

The same argument applies after applying \mathbb{R}_2 , which yields

$$D^b(S) = \langle \mathcal{O}_S, \mathcal{O}_S(E_1), \mathcal{O}_S(E_2), \mathcal{O}_S(E_1 + E_2 + F), \mathcal{O}_S(2E_1 + 2E_2 + 2F) \rangle.$$

Our next step is to apply $\mathbb{L}_1 \circ \mathbb{L}_2 \circ \mathbb{L}_3 \circ \mathbb{L}_4$. In other words, we are mutating the last object all the way to the first position. The effect is the same as tensoring it by the canonical bundle (which is $\mathcal{O}_S(-2E_1 - 2E_2 - 3F)$). We get:

$$D^b(S) = \langle \mathcal{O}_S(-F), \mathcal{O}_S, \mathcal{O}_S(E_1), \mathcal{O}_S(E_2), \mathcal{O}_S(E_1 + E_2 + F) \rangle.$$

At last, apply \mathbb{L}_1 . The same computations we did previously apply (after tensoring by $\mathcal{O}_S(F)$), yielding

$$D^b(S) = \langle \mathcal{O}_F, \mathcal{O}_S(-F), \mathcal{O}_S(E_1), \mathcal{O}_S(E_2), \mathcal{O}_S(E_1 + E_2 + f) \rangle.$$

This gives us (2) up to twisting by $\mathcal{O}_S(F)$.

4. APPLICATIONS ON FAMILIES

We will finish today's talk by giving some justification to the idea of mutations. In fact: why would want to produce more semi-orthogonal decompositions?

One way of justifying this is to find a semi-orthogonal decomposition where the components have some geometric meaning, or some useful form. For example, we showed that the blow-up of \mathbb{P}^2 at two points admit a semi-orthogonal decomposition whose components are all line bundles. More generally, the argument of the previous section shows:

Proposition 8. *Let S be a smooth, projective rational surface. Then S admits a semi-orthogonal decomposition consisting only on line bundles.*

Proof. (Sketch) Pick a sequence of blow-downs $S \rightarrow S_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow S_r$, where S_r is either \mathbb{P}^2 or a Hirzebruch surface. The proof proceeds by induction on r : the case $r = 0$ is clear (recall that Hirzebruch surfaces are \mathbb{P}^1 -bundles!), and the induction

step follows from Orlov's semi-orthogonal decomposition together with the previous computation. \square

For another example, we follow [Kuz21]. A surface S is a *sextic du Val del Pezzo* if S is normal, integral, with at worst du Val singularities and ω_S^{-1} ample with $\omega_S^2 = 6$. The smooth ones are easy to characterize: they are blow-ups $S \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^2$ at three general points. However, if the points are not chosen generally, we will get (-2) -curves which need to be contracted.

So, producing semi-orthogonal decompositions, at least for the smooth ones, is not difficult. If $S \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^2$ has exceptional divisors E_1, E_2, E_3 , Orlov's SOD gives us

$$D^b(S) = \langle \mathcal{O}_{E_1}(-1), \mathcal{O}_{E_2}(-1), \mathcal{O}_{E_3}(-1), \mathcal{O}_S, \mathcal{O}_S(L), \mathcal{O}_S(2L) \rangle,$$

where L is the (pullback of the) class of a line in \mathbb{P}^2 . One can mutate this family to get:

Proposition 9 ([Kuz21, 3.1, 3.13]). *There is a semi-orthogonal decomposition*

$$D^b(S) = \langle \mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \mathcal{A}_3 \rangle,$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{A}_1 &= \langle \mathcal{O}_S \rangle \\ \mathcal{A}_2 &= \langle \mathcal{O}_S(L - E_1), \mathcal{O}_S(L - E_2), \mathcal{O}_S(L - E_3) \rangle \\ \mathcal{A}_3 &= \langle \mathcal{O}_S(L), \mathcal{O}_S(2L - E_1 - E_2 - E_3) \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

From here one can interpret the semi-orthogonal decompositions in an interesting way. Note that ω_S^{-1} embeds S into \mathbb{P}^6 . We let Z_d be the Hilbert scheme with polynomial $dt+1$ with respect to this polarization. It turns out that each component \mathcal{A}_d^\vee can be interpreted as coming from the universal family in Z_d . Moreover, one can use this interpretation to extend the results for du Val del Pezzo surfaces.

Theorem 10 ([Kuz21, 5.2]). *Assume that $\mathcal{X} \rightarrow S$ is a family of du Val del Pezzo surfaces. Then there is an S -linear semi-orthogonal decomposition*

$$D^b(\mathcal{X}) = \langle D^b(S), D^b(\mathcal{X}_2, \beta_2), D^b(\mathcal{X}_3, \beta_3) \rangle,$$

where $\mathcal{X}_2, \mathcal{X}_3 \rightarrow S$ are finite flat of degree 3, 2 respectively, and $\beta_{\mathcal{X}_2}, \beta_{\mathcal{X}_3}$ are Brauer classes of order 2 and 3.

At the end, we get a result where mutations are not mentioned anywhere; however, these are a useful tool to get the correct ending result.

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