

Mirror Symmetry
Summer 2016 Seminar Notes

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Chapter 1

Mathematical Preliminaries

The aim of this chapter is to give a brief review of the required mathematical background for mirror symmetry.

1.1 Cohomology Theories

Throughout this section, X is a complex manifold, and H_{dR} is de Rham cohomology. We examine the relationships between some common cohomology theories on X .

1.1.1 Sheaf Cohomology

All of our sheaves take values in abelian groups. Let \mathcal{F} be a presheaf on X .

Definition 1.1.1. Recall the definition of a **presheaf** \mathcal{F} on X :

1. (presheaf) every open set U in X is assigned an abelian group $\mathcal{F}(U)$, such that if $V \subseteq U$ are two open sets, there is a restriction map $-|_{U \rightarrow V} : \mathcal{F}(U) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(V)$ compatible with inclusion, i.e. $(-|_{U \rightarrow V})|_{V \rightarrow W} = -|_{U \rightarrow W}$ for any $W \subseteq V \subseteq U$.

If in addition \mathcal{F} satisfies the following two properties, it is a **sheaf**:

2. (locality) if $\{U_\alpha\}$ is an open cover of X and $f, g \in \mathcal{F}(X)$ such that $f|_{U \rightarrow U_\alpha} = g|_{U \rightarrow U_\alpha}$ for every U_α , then $f = g$;
3. (gluing) if $\{U_\alpha\}$ is an open cover of X and $f_\alpha \in \mathcal{F}(U_\alpha)$ for every U_α are elements agreeing on overlaps, i.e. such that $f_\alpha|_{U_\alpha \rightarrow U_\alpha \cap U_\beta} = f_\beta|_{U_\beta \rightarrow U_\alpha \cap U_\beta}$, then we can glue the f_α together to get $f \in \mathcal{F}(X)$, i.e. $f|_{X \rightarrow U_\alpha} = f_\alpha$ for every U_α .

Definition 1.1.2. Let $\mathcal{U} = \{U_\alpha\}$ be an **ordered open cover** of X , i.e. with a partial order such that if α and β are incomparable then $U_\alpha \cap U_\beta$ is empty. A **p -simplex** σ of \mathcal{U} is a totally ordered collection of open sets $U_{\alpha_0}, \dots, U_{\alpha_p} \in \mathcal{U}$; we call $U_{\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_p} := U_{\alpha_0} \cap \dots \cap U_{\alpha_p}$ its **support**, and often refer to σ by it instead. The **k -th boundary component** of a p -simplex $U_{\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_p}$ is given by $\partial_k U_{\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_p} := U_{\alpha_0, \dots, \hat{\alpha}_k, \dots, \alpha_p}$. Cochains are maps from simplices to sheaf sections, and form a cochain complex:

$$C^p(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{F}) := \prod_{\alpha_0 < \dots < \alpha_p} \mathcal{F}(U_{\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_p}), \quad (\delta^p \omega)(\sigma) := \sum_{k=0}^{p+1} (-1)^k \omega(\partial_k \sigma)|_\sigma : C^p(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow C^{p+1}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{F}).$$

The **Čech cohomology** of \mathcal{U} with coefficients in \mathcal{F} , denoted $\check{H}^\bullet(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{F})$, is the cohomology of this complex.

Example 1.1.3. Let \mathcal{F} be a sheaf. By the gluing condition for a sheaf, a global section $f \in \mathcal{F}(X)$ is defined by its values $f_\alpha := f|_{X \rightarrow U_\alpha} \in \mathcal{F}(U_\alpha)$ on every U_α in an open cover. These f_α form precisely the data for an element of $C^0(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{F})$, and satisfy the gluing condition $f_\alpha = f_\beta$ on $U_\alpha \cap U_\beta$, which is precisely the statement $\delta_0 f = 0$. Hence $\check{H}^0(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{F}) = \mathcal{F}(X)$ for a sheaf \mathcal{F} .

Example 1.1.4. Let \mathcal{O} denote the sheaf of holomorphic functions (and \mathcal{O}^* the nowhere-zero ones) on \mathbb{P}^1 . Recall that on \mathbb{P}^1 we have the charts $U = \mathbb{P}^1 \setminus \{S\}$ and $V = \mathbb{P}^1 \setminus \{N\}$, with coordinates u and v respectively. To look at sections of $\mathcal{O}(U)$ versus $\mathcal{O}(V)$, we use the transition map $v = u^{-1}$ on $U \cap V$. The cochains for this open cover are

$$C^0(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{O}) = \mathcal{O}(U) \times \mathcal{O}(V), \quad C^1(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{O}) = \mathcal{O}(U \cap V), \quad C^k(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{O}) = 0 \quad \forall k \geq 2.$$

We compute the sheaf cohomology.

1. ($\check{H}^0(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{O})$) The boundary map δ_0 maps $(f, g) \in C^0(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{O})$ to $g - f$. But

$$f = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k u^k, \quad g = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} g_k v^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} g_k u^{-k},$$

so $g - f = 0$ iff $f_k = g_k = 0$ for all $k > 0$, and $f_0 = g_0$. Hence $\check{H}^0(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{O}) \cong \mathbb{C}$, consisting of all constant functions.

2. ($\check{H}^1(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{O})$) Given $h \in C^1(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{O})$, rewrite its Laurent expansion:

$$h = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h_k u^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} h_k u^k + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} h_k v^k = -f + g$$

where $f \in \mathcal{O}(U)$ and $g \in \mathcal{O}(V)$. Hence $h \in \text{im } \delta_0$, and $\check{H}^1(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{O}) = 0$.

3. ($\check{H}^k(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{O})$) Trivially, $\check{H}^k(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{O}) = 0$ for $k \geq 2$.

Note that $\check{H}^0(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{O}) \cong \mathbb{C}$ is consistent with what we know so far, since $\check{H}^0(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{O}) = \mathcal{O}(\mathbb{P}^1)$, and Liouville's theorem shows that $\mathcal{O}(\mathbb{P}^1)$ can only contain constant functions.

Example 1.1.5. Recall the tautological line bundle $\mathcal{O}(-1)$ and its dual $\mathcal{O}(1)$ on \mathbb{P}^n ; we have $\mathcal{O}(n) = \mathcal{O}(1)^n$. On the same charts on \mathbb{P}^1 , since $\mathcal{O}(1)$ has transition function $u = v^{-1}$, we know $\mathcal{O}(n)$ has transition function $u^n = v^{-n}$. To construct a global section of $\mathcal{O}(n)$, given a monomial v^k on V , we require $u^n v^k = u^{n-k}$ to be well-defined on U , so $k \leq n$. In homogeneous coordinates $[x_0 : x_1]$, the global sections are therefore $x_0^n, x_0^{n-1}x_1, \dots, x_1^n$, the homogeneous polynomials of degree n . The same story holds on \mathbb{P}^N . Hence $\dim H^0(\mathbb{P}^N, \mathcal{O}(n)) = \binom{N+n-1}{n-1}$. In particular, there are $\binom{9}{5} = 126$ independent global sections of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^4}(5)$.

Definition 1.1.6. The set of all open covers of X form a directed set under refinement. The **Čech cohomology of X** with coefficients in \mathcal{F} is the direct limit $\check{H}^n(X, \mathcal{F}) := \varinjlim_{\mathcal{U}} \check{H}^n(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{F})$.

Definition 1.1.7. An ordered open cover $\{U_\alpha\}$ is **good** if it is countable and every finite intersection $U_{\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_p}$ is either empty or contractible.

Theorem 1.1.8 ([1, Corollary of Theorem 5.4.1]). *The Čech cohomology of a good cover \mathcal{U} is isomorphic to the Čech cohomology of X .*

One can define **sheaf cohomology** $H^n(X, \mathcal{F})$ as the right derived functors of the global sections functor Γ_X (i.e. $\mathcal{F} \mapsto \mathcal{F}(X)$). For us, Čech and sheaf cohomology are indistinguishable as long as we work with sheaves.

Theorem 1.1.9 ([1, Theorem 5.10.1]). *If X is a paracompact topological space, then Čech cohomology $\check{H}^n(X, \mathcal{F})$ and sheaf cohomology $H^n(X, \mathcal{F})$ are isomorphic for any sheaf \mathcal{F} .*

Čech cohomology is also directly related to de Rham cohomology, and, as we shall see, Dolbeault cohomology in the complex case. So we can think of Čech cohomology classes as forms.

Theorem 1.1.10 (Čech–de Rham isomorphism). *Let \mathbb{R} denote the constant sheaf. There is a canonical isomorphism $\check{H}^k(X, \mathbb{R}) \cong H_{\text{dR}}^k(X)$ for each k .*

Proof. By the Poincaré lemma, the **de Rham complex** of sheaves

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{\subseteq} \Omega^0(X) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^1(X) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^2(X) \xrightarrow{d} \dots$$

is exact (by checking exactness on the stalks). Let $Z^n := \ker(d: \Omega^n \rightarrow \Omega^{n+1})$. The de Rham complex splits into a bunch of short exact sequences:

$$0 \rightarrow d\Omega^{k-1} \cong Z^k \xrightarrow{\subseteq} \Omega^k \xrightarrow{d} Z^{k+1} \rightarrow 0.$$

To each such short exact sequence is associated a long exact sequence of (sheaf) cohomology:

$$0 \rightarrow H^0(X, Z^k) \rightarrow H^0(X, \Omega^k) \rightarrow H^0(X, Z^{k+1}) \rightarrow H^1(X, Z^k) \rightarrow H^1(X, \Omega^k) \rightarrow H^1(X, Z^{k+1}) \rightarrow \dots$$

Fact: $H^i(X, \Omega^k) = 0$ for every k and $i > 0$ (since Ω^k is a fine sheaf). Hence we obtain isomorphisms

$$H^{i+1}(X, Z^0) \cong H^i(X, Z^1) \cong \dots \cong H^1(X, Z^i).$$

But $Z^0 \cong \mathbb{R}$ and we more commonly write

$$H^1(X, Z^i) = \text{coker}(H^0(X, \Omega^i) \rightarrow H^0(X, Z^{i+1})) = Z^{i+1}(X)/d\Omega^i(X) = H_{\text{dR}}^{i+1}(X).$$

Hence $\check{H}^{i+1}(X, \mathbb{R}) \cong H_{\text{dR}}^{i+1}(X)$. □

Definition 1.1.11. Let E be a holomorphic vector bundle on X and $\Omega^{0,q}(E) := \Omega^{0,q}(X) \otimes \Gamma(E)$ denote the space of E -valued $(0, q)$ -forms. **Dolbeault cohomology** $H_{\bar{\partial}}^q(E)$ is the cohomology of the complex

$$\dots \xrightarrow{\bar{\partial}} \Omega^{0,q}(E) \xrightarrow{\bar{\partial}} \Omega^{0,q+1}(E) \xrightarrow{\bar{\partial}} \Omega^{0,q+2}(E) \xrightarrow{\bar{\partial}} \dots$$

We write $H_{\bar{\partial}}^{p,q}(X)$ for $E = \Lambda^p T^{1,0}X$. The dimensions $h^{p,q}(X) := \dim_{\mathbb{C}} H_{\bar{\partial}}^{p,q}(X)$ are the **Hodge numbers** of X .

Lemma 1.1.12 ($\bar{\partial}$ -Poincaré lemma). *$\bar{\partial}$ -closed, i.e. holomorphic, implies $\bar{\partial}$ -exact on \mathbb{C}^n .*

Theorem 1.1.13 (Čech–Dolbeault isomorphism). *Let $\Omega^{p,0}$ denote the sheaf of holomorphic p -forms on X . There is a natural isomorphism $\check{H}^q(X, \Omega^{p,0}) \cong H_{\bar{\partial}}^{p,q}(X)$.*

Proof. Analogous to the proof of the Čech–de Rham isomorphism, except now using the $\bar{\partial}$ -Poincaré lemma to establish the exactness of the complex

$$0 \rightarrow \ker(\bar{\partial}: \Omega^{p,0}(X) \rightarrow \Omega^{p,1}(X)) \xrightarrow{\subseteq} \Omega^{p,0}(X) \xrightarrow{\bar{\partial}} \Omega^{p,1}(X) \xrightarrow{\bar{\partial}} \dots$$

□

Definition 1.1.14. Consider the double complex $\Omega^{\bullet,\bullet}$ with differentials ∂ and $\bar{\partial}$. The **Frölicher spectral sequence** is the spectral sequence of a double complex associated to $\Omega^{\bullet,\bullet}$. Since the total complex of $\Omega^{\bullet,\bullet}$ is $\Omega^{\bullet}(X)$, the Frölicher spectral sequence converges to complex de Rham cohomology $H_{\text{dR}}^{\bullet}(X, \mathbb{C})$.

1.1.2 Morse Homology

Throughout this subsection, $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a smooth function, and we equip X , viewed as a real manifold, with a Riemannian metric g . We also assume (f, g) is Morse–Smale, defined below.

Definition 1.1.15. A **critical point** of f is a point $p \in X$ with $df_p = 0$. Define the **Hessian**

$$H(f)_p: T_p X \rightarrow T_p^* X, \quad v \mapsto \nabla_v(df),$$

which is independent of the choice of connection ∇ . (In coordinates, we recover the usual $\partial^2 f / \partial x_i \partial x_j$.) The critical point p is **non-degenerate** if the Hessian does not have zero eigenvalues. A non-degenerate critical point p has **Morse index** $\text{ind}(p)$ the number of negative eigenvalues of the Hessian. The function f is **Morse** if all of its critical points are non-degenerate.

Definition 1.1.16. Recall that the **gradient** of f with respect to a metric g is the vector field $\text{grad } f$ such that $g(\text{grad } f, X) = Xf$. Equivalently, $\text{grad } f = (df)^\sharp$. Let $\psi_t: X \rightarrow X$ be the one-parameter group of diffeomorphisms associated to the flow of $-\text{grad } f$. The **descending manifold** $D(p)$ and **ascending manifold** $A(p)$ at a critical point p are

$$\begin{aligned} D(p) &:= \{x \in X : \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \psi_t(x) = p\} \\ A(p) &:= \{x \in X : \lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \psi_t(x) = p\}. \end{aligned}$$

The pair (f, g) is **Morse–Smale** if f is Morse and $D(p)$ is transverse to $A(q)$ for every pair of critical points p and q (i.e. tangent spaces of $D(p)$ and $A(q)$ generate the tangent space at every intersection point).

Here are two useful and easy-to-prove facts: every flow line asymptotically approaches critical points, and $\dim D(p) = \text{ind}(p)$ (so $\dim A(p) = \dim X - \text{ind } p$ by the Morse–Smale condition).

Definition 1.1.17. Fix critical points p and q . A **flow line** from p to q is an integral curve $\gamma(t)$ of $-\text{grad } f$ with $\lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \gamma(t) = p$ and $\lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \gamma(t) = q$. The **moduli space of flow lines** from p to q is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{M}(p, q) &:= \{\text{flow lines from } p \text{ to } q\} / \sim, \quad \alpha \sim \beta \text{ if } \exists c \in \mathbb{R} : \alpha(t) = \beta(t + c) \\ &= (D(p) \cap A(q)) / \mathbb{R}. \end{aligned}$$

A **broken flow line** consists, piecewise, of flow lines.

The Morse–Smale condition implies $D(p) \cap A(q)$ is a submanifold of X with dimension $\text{ind}(p) - \text{ind}(q)$. Since \sim is a smooth, proper, free \mathbb{R} -action, $\mathcal{M}(p, q)$ is a manifold of dimension $\text{ind}(p) - \text{ind}(q) - 1$ when $p \neq q$ (otherwise the \mathbb{R} -action is trivial). Note that if $\text{ind}(p) = k$ and $\text{ind}(q) = k - 1$ then $\mathcal{M}(p, q)$ is zero-dimensional. In fact, in this case, $\mathcal{M}(p, q)$ is compact as a corollary of the following theorem, and therefore is a finite set of points.

Theorem 1.1.18 ([2, Theorem 2.1]). *Let X be closed and (f, g) Morse–Smale. Then $\mathcal{M}(p, q)$ has a natural compactification to a smooth manifold with corners $\overline{\mathcal{M}(p, q)}$ where*

$$\overline{\mathcal{M}(p, q)} \setminus \mathcal{M}(p, q) = \bigcup_{k \geq 1} \bigcup_{\substack{p, r_1, \dots, r_k, q \\ \text{distinct crit pts}}} \mathcal{M}(p, r_1) \times \mathcal{M}(r_1, r_2) \times \cdots \times \mathcal{M}(r_{k-1}, r_k) \times \mathcal{M}(r_k, q).$$

Corollary 1.1.19. *If $\text{ind}(p) - \text{ind}(q) = 1$, then $\overline{\mathcal{M}(p, q)} = \mathcal{M}(p, q)$ is compact. If $\text{ind}(p) - \text{ind}(q) = 2$, then*

$$\partial \overline{\mathcal{M}(p, q)} = \bigcup_{\text{ind}(r) = \text{ind}(p) - 1} \mathcal{M}(p, r) \times \mathcal{M}(r, q).$$

Proof. Since $\dim \mathcal{M}(r, s) = \text{ind}(r) - \text{ind}(s) - 1$, the space $\mathcal{M}(r, s)$ is non-empty only if $\text{ind}(r) - \text{ind}(s) \geq 1$. Hence $\overline{\mathcal{M}(p, q)} \setminus \mathcal{M}(p, q) = \emptyset$ when $\text{ind}(p) - \text{ind}(q) = 1$. Similar reasoning shows the $\text{ind}(p) - \text{ind}(q) = 2$ case. \square

Definition 1.1.20. Fix orientations for $D(p)$ at every critical point p . There is an isomorphism at $x \in \gamma \in \mathcal{M}(p, q)$ given by

$$\begin{aligned} T_x D(p) &\cong T_x(D(p) \cap A(q)) \oplus (T_x X / T_x A(q)) && \text{transversality from Morse–Smale} \\ &\cong T_\gamma \mathcal{M}(p, q) \oplus T_x \gamma \oplus (T_x X / T_x A(q)) && \text{definition of } \mathcal{M}(p, q) \\ &\cong T_\gamma \mathcal{M}(p, q) \oplus T_x \gamma \oplus T_q D(q) && \text{translating } T_q D(q) \text{ along } \gamma. \end{aligned}$$

The **orientation** on $\mathcal{M}(p, q)$ is such that this isomorphism is orientation-preserving. Let C_k be the free abelian group generated by critical points of index k , and define the **Morse–Smale–Witten boundary map**

$$\partial_k^{\text{Morse}}: C_k \rightarrow C_{k-1}, \quad p \mapsto \sum_{\text{ind } q = k-1} \# \mathcal{M}(p, q) q$$

where $\# \mathcal{M}(p, q) \in \mathbb{Z}$ is counted with sign according to the orientation of $\mathcal{M}(p, q)$, which here is a discrete set of points.

Lemma 1.1.21. $(\partial_k^{\text{Morse}})^2 = 0$, so $(C_\bullet, \partial^{\text{Morse}})$ is a chain complex.

Proof. Let $\text{ind}(p) - \text{ind}(q) = 2$. The coefficient of q in $(\partial^{\text{Morse}})^2 p$ is

$$\sum_{\text{ind}(r) = \text{ind}(p) - 1} \# \mathcal{M}(p, r) \cdot \# \mathcal{M}(r, q) = \# \bigcup_{\text{ind}(r) = \text{ind}(p) - 1} \mathcal{M}(p, r) \times \mathcal{M}(r, q) = \# \overline{\partial \mathcal{M}(p, q)}.$$

Since $\overline{\mathcal{M}(p, q)}$ is an oriented 1-manifold with boundary, this quantity, the number of boundary points, is zero. \square

Definition 1.1.22. **Morse homology** $H_\bullet^{\text{Morse}}(f, g)$ is the homology of the **Morse–Smale–Witten complex** $(C_\bullet, \partial^{\text{Morse}})$.

Example 1.1.23. The (upright) torus T^2 has four critical points with f the height function: p (index 2), q and r (index 1), and s (index 0). This choice of f is Morse, but with the induced metric g from \mathbb{R}^3 , the pair (f, g) is not Morse–Smale: $D(q) \cap A(r)$ is non-empty, but transversality forces it to be. The solution is to tilt the torus a little; equivalently, perturb g . There are two flow lines, of opposite sign, for each relevant pair of critical points. Hence $\partial_k^{\text{Morse}} = 0$ for $k = 1, 2$. It follows that

$$H_2^{\text{Morse}}(f, g) = \mathbb{Z}, \quad H_1^{\text{Morse}}(f, g) = \mathbb{Z}^2, \quad H_0^{\text{Morse}}(f, g) = \mathbb{Z}.$$

Theorem 1.1.24 ([2, Theorem 3.1]). *Let X be a closed smooth manifold, $H_\bullet(X)$ denote singular homology on X , and (f, g) be a Morse–Smale pair on X . Then there is a canonical isomorphism $H_n^{\text{Morse}}(f, g) \cong H_n(X)$.*

Corollary 1.1.25. *The number of critical points of a Morse function is at least the sum $\sum_k \dim H_k(X)$ of the Betti numbers.*

Proof. The number of critical points is the sum of the dimensions of the Morse chain groups, which is at least the sum of the dimensions of the Morse homology groups, which is equal to the sum of the dimensions of the singular homology groups. \square

The infinite-dimensional analogue of Morse homology is known as **Floer homology**. We shall primarily be concerned with Floer homology for mirror symmetry.

1.1.3 Equivariant Cohomology

1.2 Algebraic Topology

We stop distinguishing between isomorphic cohomology theories now. In particular, since X is always at least a smooth manifold, we think of singular cohomology $H^k(X)$ as de Rham cohomology. For a bundle E , $H^k(E)$ refers to sheaf cohomology.

1.2.1 Poincaré and Serre Duality

Unless otherwise stated, X in this section is a compact oriented n -manifold.

Theorem 1.2.1 (Poincaré duality, [3]). *Let X be a compact oriented n -manifold. The map*

$$\int_X : H^k(X) \otimes H^{n-k}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \omega \otimes \eta \mapsto \int_X \omega \wedge \eta$$

is a perfect pairing, and hence $H^k(X) \cong H^{n-k}(X)^$.*

If we relax the assumption that X is compact, then the issue is that \int_X may not be well-defined. We work around this by using de Rham cohomology with compact support.

Definition 1.2.2. Let $\Omega_c^k(X)$ denote the k -forms on X with compact support. The **de Rham cohomology groups with compact support** $H_c^n(X)$ are the cohomology of the chain complex $(\Omega_c^\bullet(X), d)$.

Theorem 1.2.3 (Poincaré duality for non-compact manifolds, [3]). *Let X be an oriented n -manifold without boundary. The map*

$$\int_X : H^k(X) \otimes H_c^{n-k}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \omega \otimes \eta \mapsto \int_X \omega \wedge \eta$$

is a perfect pairing, and hence $H^k(X) \cong H_c^{n-k}(X)^$.*

Definition 1.2.4. Fix $C \subset X$ a closed $(n - k)$ -submanifold. Then Poincaré duality identifies the map $\int_C : H^{n-k}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with a k -form $\eta_C \in H^k(X)$, called the **Poincaré dual class**. Explicitly, $\int_C \omega = \int_X \omega \wedge \eta_C$.

There is a relation between the Poincaré dual class and the Thom class, which we define below. Namely, the Poincaré dual class of C can be constructed as the Thom class of the normal bundle of C in X .

Theorem 1.2.5 ([4, Theorem 10.4]). *Let $\pi : E \rightarrow B$ be an oriented rank n real vector bundle and B is embedded into E as the zero section. Then*

1. *there exists a unique cohomology class $\Phi \in H^n(E, E \setminus B)$ called the **Thom class** such that for every $x \in B$, the restriction of Φ to $H^n(E_x, E_x \setminus \{0\})$ is the preferred generator specified by the orientation of E_x in E ;*
2. *the **Thom isomorphism** $: H^k(E) \rightarrow H^{k+n}(E, E \setminus B)$, given by $\omega \mapsto \omega \wedge \Phi$, is an isomorphism for every k .*

Note that since B is a deformation retract of E , the rings $H^*(E)$ and $H^*(B)$ are isomorphic. Hence $\pi^*\Phi = 1 \in H^*(B)$, which shall be very important in the upcoming proof.

Theorem 1.2.6 (Tubular neighborhood theorem, [4, Theorem 11.1]). *Let $C \subset X$ be a k -submanifold embedded in X . There exists an open neighborhood, called a **tubular neighborhood**, of C in X diffeomorphic to the total space of the normal bundle of C . This diffeomorphism maps points in C to zero vectors.*

Proposition 1.2.7 ([3, Proposition 6.24a]). *Let $C \subset X$ be a closed $(n-k)$ -submanifold. The Poincaré dual class $\eta_C \in H^k(X)$ of C is the Thom class of the normal bundle of C in X .*

Proof. Let NC denote the normal bundle of C in X , which has rank k because C is codimension k . Use the tubular neighborhood theorem to identify NC with an open neighborhood T of C in X , and then extend by zero to get $\Phi \in H^k(X)$ supported on T .

We shall show that $\int_X \omega \wedge \Phi = \int_C \omega$ for any $\omega \in H_c^{n-k}(X)$. The maps $\pi: T \rightarrow C$ and $\iota: C \rightarrow T$ induce isomorphisms of cohomology, so on forms ω and $\pi^* \iota^* \omega$ differ by at most an exact form $d\tau$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_X \omega \wedge \Phi &= \int_T \omega \wedge \Phi = \int_T (\pi^* \iota^* \omega + d\tau) \wedge \Phi \\ &= \int_T \pi^* \iota^* \omega \wedge \Phi = \int_C \iota^* \omega \wedge \pi^* \Phi = \int_C \iota^* \omega. \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

Corollary 1.2.8. *Transverse intersection is Poincaré dual to the wedge product, i.e. for $C, D \subset X$ closed submanifolds intersecting transversally, $\eta_{C \cap D} = \eta_C \wedge \eta_D$.*

Proof. For transversal intersections, codimension is additive: $\text{codim } C \cap D = \text{codim } C + \text{codim } D$. So the normal bundle of the intersection is $N(C \cap D) = NC \oplus ND$. Let $\Phi(E)$ denote the Thom class associated to the vector bundle E . By the characterization of the Thom class, for vector bundles E and F we have $\Phi(E \oplus F) = \Phi(E) \wedge \Phi(F)$; check that $\Phi(E) \oplus \Phi(F)$ restricts on each fiber to the preferred generator. Hence

$$\eta_{C \cap D} = \Phi(N_{C \cap D}) = \Phi(NC \oplus ND) = \Phi(NC) \wedge \Phi(ND) = \eta_C \wedge \eta_D. \quad \square$$

Let X be a complex n -fold now. In the complex setting, we can refine Poincaré duality. The Čech–Dolbeault isomorphism 1.1.13 works for the more general setting in which we defined Dolbeault cohomology: if E is a holomorphic vector bundle over X , then $H^k(X, E) \cong H_{\bar{\partial}}^k(E)$. So we think of Čech cohomology classes $H^k(X, E)$ as E -valued $(0, k)$ -forms.

Definition 1.2.9. The **canonical bundle** K_X of a complex n -fold X is the vector bundle of $(n, 0)$ -forms. (Also commonly denoted $\Omega^n(X)$.)

Hence $H^{n-k}(X, E^* \otimes K_X)$ consists of E^* -valued $(n, n-k)$ -forms. Given such a form ω and another form $\eta \in H^k(X, E)$, the form $\omega \wedge \eta$ is an (n, n) -form with complex coefficients. We can integrate it to get something in \mathbb{C} . At this point it is impossible not to wonder about whether the pairing $H^k(E) \otimes H^{n-k}(X, E^* \otimes K_X) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ given by wedging and then integrating is perfect.

Theorem 1.2.10 (Serre duality, [5, Corollary III.7.13]). *The pairing $H^k(X, E) \otimes H^{n-k}(X, E^* \otimes K_X) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is perfect, so $H^k(X, E) \cong H^{n-k}(X, E^* \otimes K_X)^*$.*

Poincaré duality combined with Hodge decomposition gives

$$\bigoplus_{p+q=k} H^q(X, \Omega^p) = H^k(X, \mathbb{C}) \cong H^{2n-k}(X, \mathbb{C}) = \bigoplus_{p'+q'=2n-k} H^{q'}(X, \Omega^{p'}) = \bigoplus_{p+q=k} H^{n-q}(X, \Omega^{n-p}).$$

Serre duality says that in fact, each of the terms in the sum are isomorphic: $H^q(X, \Omega^p) \cong H^{n-q}(X, \Omega^{n-p})$.

1.2.2 Chern Classes via Chern–Weil Theory

For this subsection, we work over \mathbb{C} , and every vector bundle we consider is smooth and complex. We define Chern classes using the Chern–Weil approach. There are other equivalent approaches in more general settings. But for us, we take $\pi: E \rightarrow X$ to be a rank- n smooth complex vector bundle over a smooth manifold X . A connection $A \in \Omega^1(X, \text{Ad } E)$ on E gives a curvature $F_A := dA + A \wedge A \in \Omega^2(X, \text{Ad } E)$.

Definition 1.2.11. The **total Chern class** of E is

$$\begin{aligned} c(E) &:= \det \left(1 + \frac{i}{2\pi} F \right) = 1 + \frac{i}{2\pi} \operatorname{tr}(F) + \frac{1}{8\pi} (\operatorname{tr}(F^2) - \operatorname{tr}(F)^2) + \cdots \\ &= 1 + c_1(E) + c_2(E) + \cdots \in H^0(X, \mathbb{R}) \oplus H^2(X, \mathbb{R}) \oplus \cdots. \end{aligned}$$

Its terms $c_k(E) \in H^{2k}(X, \mathbb{R})$ are the **Chern classes**. The total Chern class $c(X)$ of X is defined as $c(X) := c(T^{1,0}X)$.

Theorem 1.2.12 (Chern–Weil theorem, [6, Corollary 4.4.5, Lemma 4.4.6]). *The total Chern class $c(E)$ is closed and independent of the choice of connection A on E .*

Example 1.2.13. A magnetic monopole at the origin in $U(1)$ Maxwell theory is given by the trivial line bundle on \mathbb{R}^3 with connection $A = i \frac{1}{2r} \frac{1}{z-r} (x dy - y dx)$, where r is the coordinate on the fibers of the bundle. Then

$$F_A = i \frac{1}{2r^3} (x dy \wedge dz + y dz \wedge dx + z dx \wedge dy) = -\frac{i}{2r^2} (r^2 \sin \theta d\theta \wedge d\phi).$$

We easily check that $\int_{S^2} c_1 = \frac{i}{4\pi} \int_{S^2} F_A = 1$ for any 2-sphere around the origin.

Theorem 1.2.14. *The Chern classes satisfy and are uniquely determined by the following properties:*

1. $c_0(E) = 1$ and $c_k(E) = 0$ if $k > \dim E$;
2. (Naturality) if $f: Y \rightarrow X$ is continuous, then $f^*c(E) = c(f^*E)$;
3. (Whitney product formula) $c(E \oplus F) = c(E) \wedge c(F)$;
4. $c_1(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^1}(-1))$ is minus the preferred generator (given by the orientation) of $H^2(\mathbb{P}^1)$.

Proof. Property 1 is clear from the definition of $c_k(E)$. Property 2 follows from the multiplicative property of the determinant for block diagonal matrices; the curvature on $E \oplus F$ splits as a curvature on E and a curvature on F . Property 3 follows from pulling back a connection A on E to a connection f^*A on f^*E , and then using that pullbacks commute with everything.

Property 4 is more tedious and serves as our second explicit calculation of a Chern class. On \mathbb{P}^1 , take the usual charts (U, u) and (V, v) with $u = v^{-1}$ on $U \cap V$. The local 1-forms

$$A_U = \frac{\bar{u} du}{1 + u\bar{u}}, \quad A_V = \frac{\bar{v} dv}{1 + v\bar{v}}$$

form the globally-defined **Chern connection** on $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^1}(-1)$, the tautological bundle. We cheat a little and work only over U instead of all of \mathbb{P}^1 . The curvature is

$$F_{A_U} = \frac{(1 + u\bar{u}) d\bar{u} \wedge du - \bar{u}(\bar{u} du + u d\bar{u}) \wedge du}{(1 + u\bar{u})^2} = -\frac{du \wedge d\bar{u}}{(1 + u\bar{u})^2}.$$

Hence, in real coordinates, $c_1(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^1}(-1)) = -\frac{dx \wedge dy}{\pi(1+x^2+y^2)^2}$. To compare this with the preferred generator, we simply integrate both and compare the result. (This is valid since $\dim H^2(\mathbb{P}^1) = 1$.) We know the preferred generator integrates to 1, whereas

$$\int_{\mathbb{P}^1} c_1(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^1}(-1)) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx \wedge dy}{(1+x^2+y^2)^2} = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{r d\theta \wedge dr}{(1+r^2)^2} = -1. \quad \square$$

Proposition 1.2.15 (Splitting principle). *If $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence, then $c(B) = c(A) \wedge c(C)$.*

Proof. Short exact sequences of smooth vector bundles always split: pick a metric on B and show that $C \cong A^\perp$. Hence $c(B) = c(A \oplus C)$, and then we use the Whitney product formula. \square

Note: this is **not** the usual “splitting principle”. The usual splitting principle says that to prove an identity on Chern classes, it suffices to pretend that the bundle completely splits into line bundles and prove the identity for that case. For more detail, see [3, Section 21].

Example 1.2.16. We compute the total Chern class of \mathbb{P}^n . We first construct the **Euler sequence** on \mathbb{P}^n , given by

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n}(1)^{n+1} \rightarrow T^{1,0}\mathbb{P}^n \rightarrow 0.$$

Since $X = \mathbb{P}^n$ is $Y = \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ mod a \mathbb{C}^* action, given $n+1$ linear functionals v_i on \mathbb{C}^{n+1} , the vector field $\sum_i v_i \partial_i$ on X is invariant under this \mathbb{C}^* action and descends to a vector field on \mathbb{P}^n . The v_i are sections of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n}(1)$, so this construction is the map $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n}(1)^{n+1} \rightarrow T^{1,0}\mathbb{P}^n$. Its kernel is the line bundle associated to $Z = \sum_i x_i \partial_i$ (here x_i are the coordinates on Y): for homogeneous polynomials f , we have $\frac{1}{d} \sum_i x_i \partial_i f = f$. Another way to see this is to visualize \mathbb{P}^n as a sphere in Y , so when we project, the radial vector field Z and its multiples are precisely the kernel.

Clearly $c(\mathbb{C}) = 1$, so by the splitting principle, $c(\mathbb{P}^n) = c(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n}(1)^{n+1}) = c(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n}(1))^{n+1}$. Let $x = c_1(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n}(1))$. Then $c(\mathbb{P}^n) = (1+x)^{n+1}$.

Using the symbol x to stand for $c_1(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n}(1))$ is fairly common. We shall do so from now on. (The reason is that x generates the cohomology ring $H^*(\mathbb{P}^n)$.)

Example 1.2.17. Let $X = V(p)$ be a smooth projective variety in \mathbb{P}^n with p a degree d homogeneous polynomial, i.e. a section of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n}(d)$. To compute the Chern class of X , we use the **adjunction formula** $NX \cong \mathcal{O}(d)|_X$ (see [6, Proposition 2.2.17] for details), so that

$$0 \rightarrow TX \rightarrow T\mathbb{P}^n|_X \rightarrow NX \cong \mathcal{O}(d)|_X \rightarrow 0$$

is a short exact sequence. Since $\mathcal{O}(d) = \mathcal{O}(1)^{\otimes d}$, we can’t use the Whitney sum property of the Chern class, but we can use the Chern character:

$$\text{ch}(\mathcal{O}(d)) = \text{ch}(\mathcal{O}(1))^d = \exp(x)^d = \exp(dx),$$

so $c(\mathcal{O}(d)) = 1 + dx$. Hence $c(X) = (1+x)^{n+1}/(1+dx)$.

Definition 1.2.18. If we formally factorize the total Chern class as $c(E) = \prod_{k=1}^r (1+a_k)$, then the **Chern character class** is

$$\text{ch}(E) := \sum_{k=1}^r \exp(a_k) = r + c_1(E) + \frac{1}{2}(c_1(E)^2 - 2c_2(E)) + \cdots.$$

Proposition 1.2.19. *In the Chern–Weil setting, $\text{ch}(E) = \text{tr} \exp(iF/2\pi)$.*

Of course, the Chern character class, being a combination of Chern classes, does not contain more information than the Chern class. The reason we work with it instead of the Chern class is the following proposition.

Proposition 1.2.20. *The Chern character satisfies*

$$\text{ch}(E \oplus F) = \text{ch}(E) + \text{ch}(F), \quad \text{ch}(E \otimes F) = \text{ch}(E) \wedge \text{ch}(F).$$

Finally, we need to connect the theory of Chern classes with sheaf cohomology. Consider the short exact sequence of sheaves given by

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathcal{O} \xrightarrow{\exp} \mathcal{O}^* \rightarrow 0.$$

Its associated long exact sequence of cohomology contains

$$\cdots \rightarrow H^1(X, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^1(X, \mathcal{O}) \rightarrow H^1(X, \mathcal{O}^*) \xrightarrow{\delta} H^2(X, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \cdots.$$

Definition 1.2.21. The **Picard group** of X is the group of isomorphism classes of holomorphic line bundles under tensor product.

Theorem 1.2.22 ([6, Corollary 2.2.10]). *Let \mathcal{O}^* be the sheaf of nowhere-zero holomorphic functions. Then $\text{Pic}(X) \cong H^1(X, \mathcal{O}^*)$.*

Theorem 1.2.23 ([6, Proposition 4.4.12]). *Under the identification of elements of $H^1(X, \mathcal{O}^*)$ with isomorphism classes of holomorphic line bundles, the connecting map $\delta: H^1(X, \mathcal{O}^*) \rightarrow H^2(X, \mathbb{Z})$ is the first Chern class c_1 .*

1.2.3 The Euler Class and Euler Characteristic

Recall that the (holomorphic) Euler characteristic of a sheaf \mathcal{F} is $\chi(\mathcal{F}) := \sum_k (-1)^k \dim H^k(X, \mathcal{F})$.

Definition 1.2.24. Let $\pi: E \rightarrow B$ be an oriented rank n vector bundle over a smooth n -fold B . In 1.2.5 we defined its Thom class $\Phi \in H^n(E, E \setminus B)$. The inclusion $(E, \emptyset) \subset (E, E \setminus B)$ gives a homomorphism $H^k(E, E \setminus B) \rightarrow H^k(E)$ which we denote by $\omega \mapsto \omega|_E$. The **Euler class** $e(E)$ of E is the image of the Thom class Φ under the composition

$$H^n(E, E \setminus B) \xrightarrow{-|_E} H^n(E) \xrightarrow{(\pi^*)^{-1}} H^n(B)$$

where the last isomorphism is canonical and comes from B being a deformation retract of E . Again, if X is a manifold, $e(X) := e(TX)$.

Proposition 1.2.25. *Whenever both are defined, $e(E) = c_n(E)$ for E of rank n .*

Proof sketch. Given E a smooth complex vector bundle, $e(E)$ is well-defined because the complex structure on E induces an orientation. We can use the Euler class to construct the Chern classes [4, Section 14]. Then it suffices to verify that the Chern classes we constructed this way satisfy the four axioms 1.2.14 of Chern classes. For example, the Whitney sum formula comes from $\Phi(E \oplus F) = \Phi(E) \wedge \Phi(F)$ being preserved throughout the construction. \square

We like to distinguish between the Euler class and the top Chern class for several reasons. One is that the Euler class is topological, whereas the Chern classes are differential geometric. Another is that it is sometimes easier to prove properties of the Euler class using properties of the Thom class rather than all the Chern classes, especially from the Chern–Weil approach.

Proposition 1.2.26 ([4, Property 9.3, Property 9.7]). *Properties of the Euler class $e(E)$ that do not directly follow from $e(E) = c_n(E)$:*

1. *if the orientation of E is flipped, $e(E)$ changes sign;*
2. *if E has a nowhere zero global section, then $e(E) = 0$.*

Proof. Property 1 is obvious: flipping the orientation of E flips the sign of the Thom class Φ , since $\Phi|_{E_x}$ is the preferred generator. Property 2 comes from $B \xrightarrow{s} E \setminus B \subset E \xrightarrow{\pi} B$ being the identity for a non-zero global section s . Then

$$H^n(B) \xrightarrow{\pi^*} H^n(E) \rightarrow H^n(E \setminus B) \xrightarrow{s^*} H^n(B)$$

is the identity on $H^n(B)$. But $\pi^*e(E) = \Phi|_E$, the restriction of the Thom class, by definition, so we have $s^*((\Phi|_E)|_{E \setminus B}) = e(E)$. Since $\Phi \in H^n(E, E \setminus B)$, the composition of these two restrictions is zero. Hence $e(E) = s^*0 = 0$. \square

Proposition 1.2.27. *Let $E \rightarrow M$ be a smooth oriented real vector bundle of rank r over the smooth compact oriented manifold M of dimension $n \geq r$. Let Z be the zero set of a smooth section $s: M \rightarrow E$ that is transversal to the zero section $\iota: M \rightarrow E$. Then Z is a smooth submanifold of M of codimension r and there is a natural bundle isomorphism $T_Z M \cong E|_M$. Consequently, $e(E)$ is Poincaré dual to Z .*

Proof. A straightforward exercise. Hint: remember that $e(E)$ is the restriction of the Thom class, and then use 1.2.7 and 1.2.8. \square

The main purpose of this subsection is the following generalization of the Gauss–Bonnet theorem. We shall use it extensively when calculating Euler characteristic. To determine the Euler class explicitly, we often use many of the preceding results identifying it with various other objects.

Theorem 1.2.28 (Generalized Gauss–Bonnet). *Let X be a compact complex manifold. Then*

$$\int_X e(X) = \chi(X).$$

Proof. We shall prove this in the next subsection, as a consequence of the Hirzebruch–Riemann–Roch formula. (There are much easier proofs, though.) \square

Example 1.2.29. We can continue 1.2.16 to compute the Euler characteristic of \mathbb{P}^n . Note that every hyperplane $H \cong \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ is Poincaré dual to x . So x^n is Poincaré dual to the intersection of n generic hyperplanes, which is a point. In other words, x^n is the preferred generator given by the orientation, and hence $\int_{\mathbb{P}^n} x^n = 1$. (For a more explicit calculation of this, see [4, Theorem 14.10]. The explicit form for x is the obvious generalization of $-c_1(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^1}(-1))$, which we computed in 1.2.14.)

Since $c(\mathbb{P}^n) = (1+x)^{n+1}$, we have $c_n = (n+1)x^n$. Hence $\int_{\mathbb{P}^n} c_n = n+1$. By the generalized Gauss–Bonnet theorem, $\chi(\mathbb{P}^n) = n+1$.

Example 1.2.30. Recall that the **degree** of a curve in \mathbb{P}^2 is just the degree of the defining homogeneous polynomial. (For a more general definition of the degree of a variety, see [5, Section I.7].) Fact: A degree d curve X in \mathbb{P}^2 has Chern class $1 + (3-d)x$. (Remember we write x for $c_1(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n}(1))$.) Then

$$\chi(X) = \int_X c_1(X) = \int_{\mathbb{P}^2} c_1(X)(xd) = \int_{\mathbb{P}^2} d(3-d)x^2 = d(3-d).$$

But for nonsingular curves X , we have $\chi(X) = 2 - 2g$. Hence $g = (d-1)(d-2)/2 = \binom{d-1}{2}$.

Example 1.2.31. By 1.2.17, a quintic hypersurface Q in \mathbb{P}^4 has total Chern class $c(Q) = (1+x)^5/(1+5x) = 1 + 10x^2 - 40x^3$. (Note that $c_1(Q) = 0$, so Q is Calabi–Yau.) We want to compute its Euler characteristic using HRR, but integrating over Q is hard. Instead, we use 1.2.27: Q is defined as the zero set of a section of $\mathcal{O}(5) \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^4$, so $e(\mathcal{O}(5))$ is Poincaré dual to Q . The Euler class is just the top Chern class (see 1.2.25), so $e(\mathcal{O}(5)) = c_5(\mathcal{O}(5))$,

$$\chi(Q) = \int_Q e(Q) = \int_Q c_3(Q) = \int_{\mathbb{P}^4} c_3(Q) \wedge c_1(\mathcal{O}(5)) = \int_{\mathbb{P}^4} (-40x^3)(5x) = -200 \int_{\mathbb{P}^4} x^4 = -200.$$

1.2.4 The Hirzebruch–Riemann–Roch Formula

Here E is a rank r holomorphic vector bundle over a compact complex n -fold X . The Hirzebruch–Riemann–Roch formula is part of a long sequence of generalizations of Gauss–Bonnet, relating geometric quantities to topological quantities.

Definition 1.2.32. Again, formally factor $c(E) = \prod_{k=1}^r (1 + a_k)$. The **Todd class** is

$$\mathrm{td}(E) := \prod_{i=1}^r \frac{a_i}{1 - \exp(-a_i)} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}c_1(E) + \frac{1}{2}(c_1(E)^2 + c_2(E)) + \cdots.$$

The Todd class $\mathrm{td}(X)$ of X is defined as $\mathrm{td}(X) := \mathrm{td}(TX)$.

Theorem 1.2.33 (Hirzebruch–Riemann–Roch, [5, Theorem A.4.1]). *Let E be a holomorphic vector bundle over a compact complex manifold X . Then*

$$\chi(E) = \int_X \mathrm{ch}(E) \wedge \mathrm{td}(X).$$

where on the right hand side we only integrate the top form, i.e. $\sum_k \mathrm{ch}_k \wedge \mathrm{td}_{n-k}$.

We can often use the Hirzebruch–Riemann–Roch (HRR) formula to compute the dimension of a specific cohomology group, either because some other cohomology groups vanish, or because we know their dimensions. Before we begin calculating anything, we need the following helpful result.

Theorem 1.2.34 (Grothendieck’s vanishing theorem, [5, Theorem 2.7]). *Let X be a Noetherian topological space of dimension n . Then $H^i(X, \mathcal{F}) = 0$ for $i > n$ and any sheaf of abelian groups \mathcal{F} .*

The remainder of this section is examples of the HRR formula. Keep in mind that we are always working with sheaf cohomology, not de Rham cohomology. For example, $H^0(TX)$ is by no means equal to $H^0(X)$, and is not freely generated by connected components of TX . Instead, $H^0(TX) = \Gamma(TX)$, and since global sections generate automorphisms, $H^0(TX)$ consists of holomorphic automorphisms of X .

Example 1.2.35. Let \mathcal{M}_g denote the **moduli space of complex structures** on a genus g closed surface. We shall see later (or recall from Teichmüller theory) that $\dim \mathcal{M}_g = \dim_{\mathbb{C}} H^1(TX)$ where X is a genus g closed Riemann surface. HRR gives

$$\begin{aligned} \dim_{\mathbb{C}} H^0(TX) - \dim_{\mathbb{C}} H^1(TX) &= \chi(TX) = \int_X \mathrm{ch}(TX) \wedge \mathrm{td}(TX) \\ &= \int_X (1 + c_1(TX)) \wedge (1 + (1/2)c_1(TX)) = \frac{3}{2} \int_X c_1(TX) = 3 - 3g. \end{aligned}$$

The last equality comes from c_1 being the top Chern class for X , i.e. the Euler class, so applying generalized Gauss–Bonnet gives $\int_X c_1(TX) = \chi(X) = 2 - 2g$. For $g \geq 2$, the Riemann surface X has no non-trivial automorphisms, so $\dim_{\mathbb{C}} H^0(TX) = 0$. Hence $\dim \mathcal{M}_g = 3g - 3$.

Example 1.2.36. An important object in mirror symmetry is the space of holomorphic maps from a Riemann surface Σ to a Calabi–Yau n -fold M , i.e. a Kähler n -fold M with $c_1(M) = 0$. (We’ll be more careful about the definition of Calabi–Yau later.) An infinitesimal deformation of a holomorphic map, given by a vector field χ^i , must satisfy $\bar{\partial}\chi^i = 0$ if we want the deformed map to still be holomorphic. Hence $\chi \in H_{\bar{\partial}}^0(\phi^*TM)$, the space of such deformations. By HRR,

$$\begin{aligned} \dim_{\mathbb{C}} H^0(\phi^*TM) - \dim_{\mathbb{C}} H^1(\phi^*TM) &= \int_X \mathrm{ch}(\phi^*TM) \wedge \mathrm{td}(\Sigma) \\ &= \int_X (n + \phi^*c_1(TM)) \wedge (1 + (1/2)c_1(\Sigma)) = n(1 - g). \end{aligned}$$

We assume for now that $H^1(\phi^*TM) = 0$, so the space of deformations is $n(1 - g)$ -dimensional. For $n = 3$ and $g = 0$, the dimension is 3, but there is also a 3-dimensional group of automorphisms of the genus-zero Riemann surface \mathbb{P}^1 which does not affect the image curve. Hence the space of genus 0 holomorphic curves inside a Calabi–Yau 3-fold is zero, and we may be able to count them!

Example 1.2.37. Let X be a connected compact curve and L a holomorphic line bundle on X . Fact: the natural isomorphism $H^2(X, \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z}$ is given by integration over X , and under this isomorphism we have $c_1(L) \mapsto \deg(L)$ ([6, Exercise 4.4.1]). By HRR,

$$\chi(L) = \int_X c_1(L) + \frac{1}{2}c_1(X) = \deg(L) + 1 - g.$$

For the case $L = \mathcal{O}(D)$ for a divisor D on X , we know $\dim_{\mathbb{C}} H^0(L) = \ell(D)$, and by Serre duality $\dim_{\mathbb{C}} H^1(L) = \dim_{\mathbb{C}} H^0(\mathcal{O}(K - D)) = \ell(K - D)$ where K is the canonical divisor. Hence we recover the classical **Riemann–Roch formula** $\ell(D) - \ell(K - D) = \deg D + 1 - g$.

To do (1)

To do (2)

1.3 Fixed-Point Theorems

1.4 Calabi–Yau Manifolds

1.5 Toric Geometry

Chapter 2

Physics Preliminaries

2.1 Overview

To do (3)

1. Choose Manifold (M, g) with or without boundary. If with, then specify additional data. g may be Riemannian or Lorentzian.
2. **Objects:** fields. Here are some examples:
 - Gauge fields: connections over a principal bundle over M .
 - Matter fields: sections of a vector bundle over M .

A **quantum gauge theory** has fields which are sections of associated vector bundles.

- Sigma-model fields: $\phi: M \rightarrow X$, for some target manifold X .

A **quantum gravity theory** is obtained by integrating over various choices of metrics on M .

3. The **action** allows us to define the path-integral by weighting the fields with e^{-S} or e^{iS} depending on whether or not M is Riemannian or Lorentzian.
4. Boundaries. If $\partial M = \bigcup_i B_i$ then the set of field configurations on the boundary give rise to Hilbert spaces: \mathcal{H}_i . The path integral can be viewed as a map $\bigotimes_i \mathcal{H}_i \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$.
5. Boundaries (evolution). Suppose $M = N \times [0, t]$ where $\partial N = \emptyset$. This corresponds to a multi-linear map $\mathcal{H}^* \otimes \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ or equivalently a linear map $U(t) : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$. Moreover, by gluing two manifolds together we get the following relation:

$$U(t_1 + t_2) = U(t_1)U(t_2).$$

By a theorem from functional analysis there exists a Hermitian operator H , which we call the Hamiltonian, which is given by $U(t) = e^{-tH}$ or $U(t) = e^{-itH}$ in the Euclidean or Minkowski case, respectively.

6. Dimensionality.
 - (a) Kaluza–Klein reduction is one way to achieve the effective 4-dimensional space-time that we see.
 - (b) Damping non-constant modes with action e^{-S} effective path integral on the larger component.

“Luckily for us, the study of mirror symmetry entails studying QFTs with $d = 2$, so our aim is to study mainly low-dimensional QFTs.”

7. $d = 0$.
 - (a) Old ingredients: fermionic fields, supersymmetry.
 - (b) New ingredients: localization and deformation invariance.
8. $d = 1$, Quantum Mechanics.
 - (a) New ingredients: SUSY σ -models, Landau–Ginzburg (σ -models with extra potential functions on target)
9. $d = 2$
 - (a) Almost free theories: σ -models with a flat torus being the target. We review T-duality here.
 - (b) σ -models on Kähler manifold: Gauge theoretic description, connection to Landau–Ginzburg. (Toric geometry is needed here.)
 - (c) Superspace review and a tickle of Mirror Symmetry.

2.2 QFT with $d = 0$

First, let us discuss the fields. For a real-valued theory with $\dim M = 0$, we may identify functions $X : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with just an element $X \in \mathbb{R}$. To model fermions we shall ask our variables to anti-commute: $\psi_i \psi_j = -\psi_j \psi_i$.

The path-integral, or what Hori et al. calls the **partition function**, is given by the expression

$$Z := \int e^{-S[X, \psi]} dX d\psi.$$

Whether it's for correlation appearing in statistical mechanics or scattering amplitudes, many physical quantities can be expressed in terms of **correlation functions**. Using the path integral approach, a correlation function is an expectation value of an operator weighted by e^{-S} :

$$\langle F(X, \psi) \rangle = \int F(X, \psi) e^{-S} dX d\psi.$$

Let's be clever. For the moment, assume that F is a polynomial in X and ψ . Modifying the argument of the exponential $\exp(-S + J_1 X + J_2 \psi)$ and applying the correct number of derivatives we can write:

$$\langle F \rangle = \frac{\partial}{\partial J_1} \frac{\partial}{\partial J_2} \cdots \bigg|_{J_1=J_2=0} \left(\int e^{-S + J_1 X + J_2 \psi} dX d\psi \right).$$

The integral on the right side may be denoted by $Z[X, \psi; J_1, J_2]$.

To do (4) **To do (5)**

2.2.1 Supersymmetry

Supersymmetry is both mathematically and physically a useful tool. From a mathematical point of view, “the classical field equations have non-trivial odd symmetries: eg. gradient flow lines in Morse theory, holomorphic curves, gauge theory instantons, monopoles, Seiberg–Witten solutions, hyperKähler structures, Calabi–Yau metrics, metrics of G2 and Spin7 holonomy.” From a physical point of view, “[supersymmetric] theories offer a possible way of solving the ‘hierarchy problem,’ the mystery of the enormous ratio of the Planck mass to the 300 GeV energy scale of electroweak symmetry breaking. Supersymmetry also has the

quality of uniqueness that we search for in fundamental physical theories. There is an infinite number of Lie groups that can be used to combine particles of the same spin in ordinary symmetry multiplets, but there are only eight kinds of supersymmetry in four spacetime dimensions, of which only one, the simplest, could be directly relevant to observed particles.” **To do** (6)

Let us consider a simple QFT with one bosonic field X and two fermionic fields ψ_1, ψ_2 with an equally simple action:

$$S = S_0(X) - \psi_1 \psi_2 S_1(X). \quad (2.1)$$

Taylor expanding the path-integral, and using the fermionic path-integral rules (5), we get the following expression for the integral:

$$\int e^{-S_0(X) + \psi_1 \psi_2 S_1(X)} dX d\psi_1 d\psi_2 = \int e^{-S_0} S_1(X).$$

For the rest of the section, we are going to pick a convenient choice for the functions $S_0(X), S_1(X)$ so that we get a feeling for what a supersymmetric theories have to offer. Fix a function $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and let

$$S_0(X) = \frac{1}{2}(\partial h)^2, \quad S_1(X) = \partial^2 h.$$

We use the notation $\partial h = h'(X)$ to refer to the derivative of h . Together with the form of the action (2.1), we get a theory that is invariant under the transformations:

$$\delta X = \epsilon^1 \psi_1 + \epsilon^2 \psi_2, \quad \delta \psi_1 = \epsilon^2 \partial h, \quad \delta \psi_2 = -\epsilon^1 \partial h. \quad (2.2)$$

Let’s check this explicitly. Notice that the variational operator δ can be treated as if it were a derivation: $\delta(AB) = (\delta A)B + A(\delta B)$. **To do** (7) Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \delta(S) &= \delta(S_0) - \delta(\psi_1) \psi_2 S_1 - \psi_1 \delta(\psi_2) S_1 - \psi_1 \psi_2 \delta(S_1) \\ &= (\delta h)(\partial^2 h(\epsilon^1 \psi_1 + \epsilon^2 \psi_2)) - (\epsilon^2 \partial h) \psi_2 \partial^2 h - \psi_1 (-\epsilon^1 \partial h) \partial^2 h - \psi_1 \psi_2 (\partial^3 h(\epsilon^1 \psi_1 + \epsilon^2 \psi_2)) \\ &= \partial h \partial^2 h(\epsilon^1 \psi_1 + \epsilon^2 \psi_2 - \epsilon^2 \psi_2 + \psi_1 \epsilon^1) + \partial^3 h(-\psi_1 \psi_1 \psi_2 \epsilon^1 + \psi_1 \epsilon^2 \psi_2 \psi_2) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

To show that the measure is also invariant, we proceed analogously except we must keep in mind that we *pullback* the measure and do not push it forward:

$$\begin{aligned} f^*(dX \wedge d\psi_1 \wedge d\psi_2) &= df^*(X) \wedge df^*(\psi_1) \wedge df^*(\psi_2) \\ &= dX \wedge d\psi_1 \wedge d\psi_2 - d(\epsilon^1 \psi_1 + \epsilon^2 \psi_2) \wedge d\psi_1 \wedge d\psi_2 \\ &\quad - dX \wedge d(\epsilon^2 \partial h) \wedge d\psi_2 \\ &\quad - dX \wedge d\psi_1 \wedge d(-\epsilon^1 \partial h) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

The last two terms are 0 because $d(\partial h) = (\partial^2 h)dX$ and by wedging with another dX zeros out the entire term.

2.2.2 Localization

The group of supersymmetry transformations is surprisingly large. We continue with the model described in the previous section and in particular show that if ∂h is nowhere zero then the path integral vanishes. The

idea is to use a supersymmetry transformation to make one of the fermionic fields vanish: $S(X, \psi_1, \psi_2) = S(\hat{X}, 0, \hat{\psi}_2)$ which will allow us to simplify the path-integral. Choose,

$$\hat{X} = X - \frac{\psi_1 \psi_2}{\partial h(X)}, \quad \hat{\psi}_1 = \alpha(X) \psi_1, \quad \hat{\psi}_2 = \psi_1 + \psi_2.$$

In particular, taking $\alpha(X) = 0$ this is a susy transformation with $\epsilon^1 = \epsilon^2 = -\frac{\psi_1}{\partial h}$. In the new coordinates, $\hat{\psi}_1 = 0$ just as we were looking for. The path integral can be evaluated:

$$\begin{aligned} \int e^{-S(X, \psi_1, \psi_2)} dX d\psi_1 d\psi_2 &= \int e^{-S(\hat{X}(X), 0, \hat{\psi}_2(\psi_1 + \psi_2))} dX d\psi_1 d\psi_2 \\ &= \int e^{-S(\hat{X}, 0, \hat{\psi}_2)} \left(\alpha - (\partial^2 h)(\partial h)^{-2} \hat{\psi}_1 \hat{\psi}_2 \right) d\hat{X} d\hat{\psi}_1 d\hat{\psi}_2 \end{aligned}$$

The first term in the sum, $\int d\hat{\psi}_1 \left(\int e^{-\hat{S}} \alpha \right) = 0$ because the argument is independent of $\hat{\psi}_1$. The second term vanishes because **To do (8)**

This transformation only is valid away from the critical points of h . Taking the path integral as a sum over critical points and expanding $h(X) = h(X_c) + \frac{\alpha_c}{2}(X - X_c)^2 + \dots$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= \sum \int \frac{dX d\psi_1 d\psi_2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \alpha_c^2 (X - X_c)^2 + \alpha_c \psi_1 \psi_2 \right) \\ &= \sum_{X_c} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int dX \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \alpha_c^2 (X - X_c)^2 \right) \alpha_c \\ &= \sum_{X_c} \alpha_c \sqrt{\frac{1}{\alpha_c^2}} \end{aligned}$$

The factor of $\sqrt{2\pi}$ can be factored out by normalizing the measure appropriately. This normalization corresponds to defining the correlation functions as $\frac{Z[\lambda, 0]}{Z[0, 0]}$, which in our case, $Z[0, 0] = \sqrt{2\pi}$. Therefore the path-integral becomes an integer:

$$Z = \sum_{X: h'(X)=0} \frac{h''(X)}{|h''(X)|}.$$

Remark (Localization). The path integral is localized at loci where the fermionic variation under supersymmetry vanishes.

Remark. The function h in our model is called the **superpotential**, the critical points of which characterize the path-integral.

2.2.3 Deformation Invariance

Proposition 2.2.1. *Suppose ρ is a function such that ρ and $\partial\rho$ vanishes at infinity. Then $h \rightarrow h + \rho$ leaves the action invariant.*

Proof. Take $g = \partial\rho(X)\psi_1$ and consider susy variation $\delta_\epsilon g$, with $\epsilon^1 = \epsilon^2 = \epsilon$. Now consider a deformation of the superpotential: $h \rightarrow h + \rho$. Then the action $S = \frac{1}{2}(\partial h)^2 - \partial^2 h \psi_1 \psi_2$ transforms with $\epsilon \delta_\rho S = \delta_\epsilon g$. Therefore $\langle \delta_\rho S \rangle = \epsilon^{-1} \langle \delta_\epsilon g \rangle = 0$. \square

2.2.4 Landau–Ginzburg

After delving into the details of the previous model it is comforting to note that the complex analogue is what is known as the Landau–Ginzburg theory: $(X, \psi_1, \psi_2) \rightsquigarrow (z, \bar{z}, \psi_1, \psi_2, \bar{\psi}_1, \bar{\psi}_2)$, and action:

$$S = |\partial W|^2 - (\partial^2 W) \psi_1 \psi_2 - \bar{\partial}^2 \bar{W} \bar{\psi}_1 \bar{\psi}_2. \quad (2.3)$$

We call the holomorphic function $W(z)$ the **superpotential** and it will play the role h did in the previous sections. The complex susy transformations then take the form of:

$$\delta z = \epsilon^1 \psi_1 + \epsilon^2 \psi_2, \quad \delta \psi_1 = \epsilon^2 \bar{\partial} W, \quad \delta \psi_2 = -\epsilon^1 \bar{\partial} W, \quad \delta \bar{z} = \delta \bar{\psi}_1 = \delta \bar{\psi}_2 = 0 \quad (2.4)$$

$$\bar{\delta} \bar{z} = \bar{\epsilon}^1 \bar{\psi}_1 + \bar{\epsilon}^2 \bar{\psi}_2, \quad \bar{\delta} \bar{\psi}_1 = \bar{\epsilon}^2 \partial W, \quad \bar{\delta} \bar{\psi}_2 = -\bar{\epsilon}^1 \partial W, \quad \bar{\delta} z = \bar{\delta} \psi_1 = \bar{\delta} \psi_2 = 0 \quad (2.5)$$

Once again, the localization principle applies by choosing $\epsilon^1 = \epsilon^2 = -\frac{\psi_1}{\partial W}$, and writing $W(z) = W(z_c) + \frac{\alpha_c}{2}(z - z_c)^2 + \dots$, then with proper normalization, the path-integral integrates to:

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int e^{-|\alpha(z-z_c)|^2} (\alpha \psi_1^2 + \bar{\alpha} \bar{\psi}_1 \bar{\psi}_2) dz d\bar{z} d\psi_1 d\psi_2 d\bar{\psi}_1 d\bar{\psi}_2 \\ &= \frac{|\alpha|^2}{2\pi} \sum_{z_c} \int e^{-|\alpha(z-z_c)|^2} dz d\bar{z} \\ &= \frac{|\alpha|^2}{2\pi} \sum_{z_c} \int e^{-|\alpha|^2(x^2+y^2)} dx dy = \sum_{z_c} 1 = \# \text{ of critical points of } W \end{aligned}$$

2.2.5 Holomorphicity and Correlation functions

To do (9) Let $f(z)$ be a holomorphic observable. Then by the localization principle,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f(z) \rangle &= \int f(z) e^{-S} \\ &= \int f(z) |\partial^2 W|^2 e^{-\frac{1}{2} |\partial W|^2} \\ &= \sum_{z_c} f(z_c) \end{aligned}$$

The set of all fields that vanish under $\bar{\delta}$ are called **chiral fields**. In particular because $\bar{\delta}$ is a derivation it follows that this set is closed under multiplication. If we take $\epsilon^1 = \epsilon^2$ then $\bar{\delta}^2 = 0$ and so we can consider then cohomology ring $\frac{\ker \bar{\delta}}{\text{im } \bar{\delta}}$ is often called the **chiral ring**.

2.3 QFT with $d = 1$

Let M be a 1-dimensional manifold. We know that there are only two diffeomorphism classes of 1-manifolds without boundary: \mathbb{R} and S^1 . For simplicity, the only manifold with boundary that we will consider is the unit interval $[0, 1]$.

2.3.1 Quantum Mechanics

$$1. S = \int L dt = \int \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{dX}{dt} \right)^2 - V(X) \right] dt$$

2. Hilbert space of states as $L^2(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C})$.
3. $f \mapsto Z_{t_2; t_1} f$ given by $(Z_{t_2; t_1} f)(Y) = \int Z(Y, t_2; X, t_1) f(X) dX$
4. Time evolution operator $Z_t = e^{-itH}$.
5. On the circle: $Z_E(\beta) = \int dX_1 Z_{E, \beta}(X_1, X_1) = \text{tr} \exp(-\beta H)$.
6. Example: Harmonic oscillator
 - (a) To compute partition function in two different way: operator formalism $\text{tr} e^{-\beta H}$ and directly using path-integral requires zeta function regularization.
7. Example: Sigma model with target space: S^1 with radius R .

$$S(X) = \int \frac{1}{2} \dot{X}^2 dt.$$

8. Example: Sigma model with target space: \mathbb{R} .
9. Example: Sigma model with target space: (M, g) .

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \int dt g_{ij}(X) \frac{dX^i}{dt} \frac{dX^j}{dt}, g_{ij} = \delta_{ij} + C_{ijkl} X^k X^l + \dots$$

- (a) Operator formalism
 - (b) Ambiguity of Hamiltonian: related to the measure in the path integral.
 - (c) Supersymmetry imposes constraint: fixes a particular Hamiltonian
10. Complicated actions require approximations to evaluate. The semi-classical approximations take the classical solution: $\delta S / \delta X|_{X=X_{cl}} = 0$ and expand the action around that critical point:

$$S(X) = S(X_{cl}) + \frac{(\delta X)^2}{2} \frac{\delta^2 S}{\delta X^2} \Big|_{X=X_{cl}} + \mathcal{O}((\delta X)^3).$$

Then the partition function becomes

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= \int \mathcal{D}X e^{iS(X)} = e^{iS(X_{cl})} \int \mathcal{D}(\delta X) \exp \left(i \frac{(\delta X)^2}{2} \frac{\delta^2 S}{\delta X^2} \right) \\ &= \frac{\exp(iS(X_{cl}))}{\sqrt{\det \left(\frac{\delta^2 S(X_{cl})}{\delta X^2} \right)}} \end{aligned}$$

2.3.2 Structure of Hilbert Space

Definition 2.3.1. A **supersymmetric quantum mechanical system** is \mathbb{Z}_2 -graded Hilbert space \mathcal{H} with an even operator H and two odd operators Q, Q^\dagger called supercharges satisfying: $Q^2 = (Q^\dagger)^2 = 0$, $\{Q, Q^\dagger\} = 2H$.

A consequence is $[H, Q] = [H, Q^\dagger] = 0$. The operator defining the \mathbb{Z}_2 grading is denoted $(-1)^F$. Moreover, $H = \frac{1}{2} \{Q, Q^\dagger\} \geq 0$ with equality if and only if the state is annihilated by both supercharges. If a state is annihilated by a charge then it is invariant under that symmetry, which means that ground states of a SUSY quantum mechanical system are automatically supersymmetric.

Since $Q, \bar{Q}, (-1)^F$ commute with the Hamiltonian, we first put a grading on the Hilbert space, by energy levels, and then grade the resulting subspaces by the \mathbb{Z}_2 grading: $\mathcal{H} = \bigoplus \mathcal{H}_n^+ \oplus \mathcal{H}_n^-$. If we define $Q_1 = Q + Q^\dagger$ then

$$Q_1^2 = 2H.$$

For $E_n > 0$, $Q_1^2 = 2E_n$ so Q_1 is invertible and defines an isomorphism

$$\mathcal{H}_n^+ \cong \mathcal{H}_n^-.$$

This has an important consequence for adiabatic/continuous deformations. Degenerate energy levels may split but the dimension of positive energy bosonic states is the same as the fermionic states. Some of the degenerate ground states may split off to form positive energy states, but they again must come in pairs. The invariant that we should consider is the difference:

$$\dim \mathcal{H}_0^B - \dim \mathcal{H}_0^F = \text{tr} [(-1)^F e^{-\beta H}]. \quad (2.6)$$

This is called the **supersymmetric index** or the **Witten index** and is often written as $\text{tr}(-1)^F$.

To touch base with mathematics let us consider Q as a coboundary operator of the complex: $\cdots \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^B \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^F \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^B \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^F \rightarrow \cdots$. This complex is naturally graded by the energy levels, and Q preserves this grading. However, the cohomology is trivial: take a Q -closed state $Q|\alpha\rangle = 0$ and apply $|\alpha\rangle = \frac{1}{2E_n} H|\alpha\rangle = \frac{1}{2E_n} \{Q, Q^\dagger\}|\alpha\rangle = Q\left(\frac{1}{2E_n} Q^\dagger|\alpha\rangle\right) \in \text{im } Q$. Therefore the cohomology group on the bosonic and fermionic Hilbert spaces gets a contribution only from the (supersymmetric) ground states:

$$H^B(Q) \cong \mathcal{H}_{(0)}^B, \quad H^F(Q) \cong \mathcal{H}_{(0)}^F. \quad (2.7)$$

Note this is an isomorphism not an equality as $H^\bullet(Q)$ is obtained by a quotient, where as $\mathcal{H}_{(0)}^B$ is an honest subgroup of the Hilbert space.

In this form, the Witten index $\text{tr}(-1)^F$, (2.6), resembles the Euler characteristic for the complex. It is also not surprising that because of the appearance of the trace we may write down path integral expressions for $\text{tr}(e^{\beta H})$ and $\text{tr} [(-1)^F e^{-\beta H}]$. **To do (10)**

2.3.3 Supersymmetric Hilbert space: Example

Example 2.3.2. Let us consider a supersymmetric theory with a single bosonic variable x and a complex superpartner ψ . The Lagrangian is given by:

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2 - \frac{1}{2} h'(x)^2 + \frac{i}{2} (\bar{\psi} \dot{\psi} - \dot{\bar{\psi}} \psi) - h''(x) \bar{\psi} \psi,$$

where $\bar{\psi} = \psi^\dagger$, and the second term plays the role of the potential $-V(x)$. Now the following transformations change the Lagrangian by a total time derivative:

$$\delta x = \epsilon \bar{\psi} - \bar{\epsilon} \psi, \quad \delta \psi = \epsilon(i\dot{x} + h'(x)), \quad \delta \bar{\psi} = \bar{\epsilon}(-i\dot{x} + h'(x)), \quad (2.8)$$

where $\epsilon = \epsilon_1 + i\epsilon_2$ and $\bar{\epsilon} = \epsilon^*$ is the complex conjugate. As long as the boundary variation vanishes (which will be the case on an open manifold) then the action is invariant. Let δ_1, δ_2 be variations as in (2.8) but with $\epsilon_2 = 0$ and $\epsilon_1 = 0$ respectively. Then:

$$[\delta_1, \delta_2]x = 2i(\epsilon_1 \bar{\epsilon}_2 - \epsilon_2 \bar{\epsilon}_1)\dot{x}, \quad [\delta_1, \delta_2]\psi = 2i(\epsilon_1 \bar{\epsilon}_2 - \epsilon_2 \bar{\epsilon}_1)\dot{\psi}.$$

Applying the Noether procedure with $\epsilon = \epsilon(t)$ to get: $\delta L = -i\dot{\epsilon}Q - i\dot{\bar{\epsilon}}\bar{Q}$ where **To do (11)**

$$Q = \bar{\psi}(i\dot{x} + h'(x)), \quad \bar{Q} = \psi(-i\dot{x} + h'(x)).$$

Quantization: Compute conjugate variables, promote to operators, impose commutation relations.

$$H = \frac{1}{2}p^2 + \frac{1}{2}h'(x)^2 + \frac{1}{2}h''(x)(\bar{\psi}\psi - \psi\bar{\psi}).$$

Check:

1. $[H, Q] = [H, \bar{Q}] = 0$, note $Q^\dagger = \bar{Q}$.
2. Let $\mathcal{O}(x, \psi, \bar{\psi})$ be any observable (self-adjoint operator). Show that $\delta\mathcal{O} = [\hat{\delta}, \mathcal{O}]$ where $\hat{\delta} = \epsilon Q + \bar{\epsilon}\bar{Q}$.
3. The Hilbert space decomposes as $L^2(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}) \otimes \mathbb{C}^2$ as a result of the bosonic and fermionic degrees of freedom.

Define the fermionic number operator, $F = \bar{\psi}\psi$ which measures the number of fermions of a state (either 0 or 1). A more convenient operator that (does not annihilate the state without fermions) is given by $(-1)^F$. Check:

1. $[F, Q] = Q, [F, \bar{Q}] = -\bar{Q}$
2. $\{Q, (-1)^F\} = \{\bar{Q}, (-1)^F\} = 0$
3. $\{Q, Q\} = \{\bar{Q}, \bar{Q}\} = 0$.
4. $\{Q, \bar{Q}\} = 2H$

2.3.4 Supersymmetric Ground States: Towards Morse Theory

As discussed before, the ground states of a supersymmetric Hamiltonian are precisely the states which span the intersection of $\ker Q$ and $\ker \bar{Q}$. In the basis $\{|0\rangle, \bar{\psi}|0\rangle\}$, the supercharges are

$$Q = \bar{\psi}(ip + h'(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \frac{d}{dx} + h'(x) & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \bar{Q} = \psi(-ip + h'(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\frac{d}{dx} + h'(x) \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore we look for f_1, f_2 so that $\Psi = f_1(x)|0\rangle + f_2(x)\bar{\psi}|0\rangle$ is annihilated by Q and \bar{Q} . This leads to two differential equations with exact solutions:

$$f_1(x) = c_1 e^{-h(x)}, \quad f_2(x) = c_2 e^{h(x)}.$$

We also want $f_1, f_2 \in L^2$ which means that they are either 0 or exponentially decaying at *both* $x = \pm\infty$. Therefore we have two solutions:

$$e^{-h(x)}|0\rangle, \text{ if } h \rightarrow \infty, \text{ as } x \rightarrow \pm\infty, \quad e^{h(x)}\bar{\psi}|0\rangle, \text{ if } h \rightarrow -\infty, \text{ as } x \rightarrow \pm\infty.$$

In the case of a harmonic oscillator, $h(x) = \frac{\omega}{2}x^2$, with potential $V(x) = \frac{1}{2}(h'(x))^2 = \frac{\omega^2 x^2}{2}$. Therefore the ground states become:

$$\Psi_{\omega>0} = e^{-\frac{1}{2}\omega x^2}|0\rangle, \quad \Psi_{\omega<0} = e^{-\frac{1}{2}|\omega|x^2}\bar{\psi}|0\rangle.$$

2.3.5 Semi-classical analysis

We now switch to the Hamiltonian formulation, and at the same time rescale $h \rightarrow \lambda h$ for a large $\lambda \gg 1$. This goes back to the deformation invariance result that the action is invariant under deformations of this form:

$$H = \frac{1}{2}p^2 + \frac{\lambda^2}{2}(h'(x))^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2}h''(x)[\bar{\psi}, \psi].$$

The ground states will be localized at the minimum of $(h'(x))^2$. Expanding h around a critical point, and at the same time rescale the coordinates $x - x_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}}(\tilde{x} - \tilde{x}_i)$ the expansion becomes

$$h(x) = \frac{1}{2\lambda} h''(x_i)(\tilde{x} - \tilde{x}_i)^2 + \frac{1}{6\lambda^{3/2}} h'''(x_i)(\tilde{x} - \tilde{x}_i)^3 + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^{-2}).$$

The Hamiltonian the becomes:

$$H = \lambda \left(\frac{1}{2} \tilde{p}^2 + \frac{1}{2} h''(x_i)^2 (\tilde{x} - \tilde{x}_i)^2 + \frac{1}{2} h''(x_i) [\bar{\psi}, \psi] \right) + \lambda^{1/2}(\dots) + (\dots) + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^{-1/2}),$$

where $\tilde{p} = -i \frac{d}{d\tilde{x}}$. The $\mathcal{O}(\lambda)$ term is a supersymmetric harmonic oscillator with $\omega = h''(x_i)$. The ground state around x_i are:

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi_i &= e^{-\frac{\lambda}{2} h''(x_i)(x-x_i)^2} |0\rangle + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^{-1/2}), \quad \text{if } h''(x_i) > 0, \\ \Psi_i &= e^{-\frac{\lambda}{2} |h''(x_i)|(x-x_i)^2} |0\rangle + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^{-1/2}), \quad \text{if } h''(x_i) < 0 \end{aligned}$$

This perturbation theory, tells us there is exactly one supersymmetric ground state for every critical point and so the Witten index is given by

$$\text{tr}(-1)^F = \sum_{i=1}^N \text{sign}(h''(x_i)).$$

If the target space is \mathbb{R}^n , with n bosonic and $2n$ fermionic variables then the Hamiltonian becomes a sum $H = \frac{1}{2} \sum_I p_I^2 + \frac{1}{2} (\partial_I h(x))^2 + \frac{1}{2} (\partial_I \partial_J h) [\bar{\psi}^I, \psi^J]$, and supercharges: $Q = \bar{\psi}^I (ip_I + \partial_I h)$, $\bar{Q} = \psi^I (-ip_I + \partial_I h)$. In this case, $h : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Expanding about a critical point of h and choosing the right coordinate system $\xi^I = \xi_{(i)}^I$:

$$h(x) = h(x_i) + \sum c_I (\xi^I)^2 + \dots$$

In particular, this means that the Hamiltonian simplifies and we again pick out the $\mathcal{O}(\lambda)$ term to get the ground state:

$$\Psi_i = \left(\bigotimes_{I : c_I > 0} \exp(-\lambda c_I \xi^I) |0\rangle \right) \otimes \left(\bigotimes_{I : c_I < 0} \exp(-\lambda |c_I| \xi^I) \bar{\psi}^I |0\rangle \right).$$

In particular, if we denote the Morse indices of h by μ_i , the Witten index is given by $\text{tr}(-1)^F = \sum_{i=1}^N (-1)^{\mu_i}$.

2.3.6 Landau–Ginzburg, $n = 2m$

The Landau–Ginzburg model is complex analogue of our discussion above. The target space will now be $\mathbb{C}^m \equiv \mathbb{R}^{2m}$ and we will take the Lagrangian to be:

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^m \left(|\dot{z}_i|^2 + i \bar{\psi}^i \partial_t \psi^{\bar{i}} + i \bar{\psi}^{\bar{i}} \partial_t \psi^i - \frac{1}{4} |\partial_i W|^2 \right) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij} (\partial_i \partial_j W \psi^i \bar{\psi}^j + \partial_{\bar{i}} \partial_{\bar{j}} \bar{W} \bar{\psi}^{\bar{i}} \bar{\psi}^{\bar{j}}).$$

Suppose W has N nondegenerate critical points p_1, \dots, p_N . That is, $\det \partial_i \partial_j W(p_a) \neq 0$. Expanding W around these critical points and rewriting in real coordinates we get:

$$\begin{aligned} W(z) &= \sum_{k=1}^m (z^k)^2 + \mathcal{O}((z^k)^3) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^m [(x^k)^2 - (y^k)^2] + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the Morse indices for *any* critical point are equal to the complex dimension m .

To do (12)

2.3.7 Sigma Models

Let (M, g) be a Riemannian manifold and denote by \mathcal{T} the one dimensional manifold one which our QFT lives. The bosonic and fermionic variables are maps of the form

$$\phi: \mathcal{T} \rightarrow M, \quad \psi, \bar{\psi} \in \Gamma(\mathcal{T}, \phi^* TM \otimes \mathbb{C}) \quad (2.9)$$

The Lagrangian is given by:

$$L = \frac{1}{2} g_{IJ} \dot{\phi}^I \dot{\phi}^J + \frac{i}{2} (\bar{\psi}^I D_t \psi^J - D_t \bar{\psi}^I \psi^J) - \frac{1}{2} R_{IJKL} \psi^I \bar{\psi}^J \psi^K \bar{\psi}^L \quad (2.10)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \langle \dot{\phi}, \dot{\phi} \rangle + \frac{i}{2} (\langle \bar{\psi}, \nabla_t^{LC} \psi \rangle - \langle \nabla_t^{LC} \bar{\psi}, \psi \rangle) - \frac{1}{2} R(\psi, \bar{\psi}, \psi, \bar{\psi}), \quad (2.11)$$

The supersymmetry transformations are given by:

$$\delta \phi^I = \epsilon \bar{\psi}^I - \bar{\epsilon} \psi^I, \quad \delta \psi^I = \epsilon (i \dot{\phi}^I - \Gamma_{JK}^I \bar{\psi}^J \psi^K), \quad \delta \bar{\psi}^I = \bar{\epsilon} (-i \dot{\phi}^I - \Gamma_{JK}^I \bar{\psi}^J \psi^K) s.$$

The corresponding supercharges are given by: **To do (13)**

$$Q = i g_{IJ} \bar{\psi}^I \dot{\phi}^J = i \langle \bar{\psi}, \dot{\phi} \rangle, \quad \bar{Q} = -i g_{IJ} \psi^I \dot{\phi}^J = -i \langle \psi, \dot{\phi} \rangle.$$

There is an extra symmetry of this free Lagrangian: $(\psi, \bar{\psi}) \rightarrow (e^{-i\theta} \psi, e^{i\theta} \bar{\psi})$. The corresponding Noether charge is

$$F = g_{IJ} \bar{\psi}^I \psi^J = \langle \bar{\psi}, \psi \rangle.$$

Quantizing this system, requires the conjugate momenta:

$$p_I = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\phi}^I} = g_{IJ} \dot{\phi}^J, \quad \pi_{\psi^I} = i g_{IJ} \bar{\psi}^J.$$

Finally, imposing commutation relations:

$$[\phi^I, p_J] = i \delta^I_J, \quad \{\psi^I, \bar{\psi}^J\} = g^{IJ},$$

with all other commutators vanishing. The supercharges are conveniently write $Q = i \bar{\psi}^I p_I$, $\bar{Q} = -i \psi^I p_I$. The ambiguity in the choice of Hamiltonian is fixed if we impose $\{Q, \bar{Q}\} = 2H$. Finally, note that $[F, Q] = Q$ and $[F, \bar{Q}] = -\bar{Q}$ from which we get $[H, F] = 0$.

There exists a natural representation of the observables on the space:

$$\mathcal{H} = \Omega(M) \otimes \mathbb{C}, \quad \text{with} \quad \langle \omega_1, \omega_2 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \int_M \bar{\omega}_1 \wedge * \omega_2.$$

The observables can be assigned the following operators:

$$\phi^I = x^I \cdot, \quad p_I = -i \nabla_I, \quad \bar{\psi}^I = dx^I \wedge, \quad \psi^I = g^{IJ} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^J} \lrcorner$$

The ground state, corresponding to the intersection of all $\ker \psi^I$. The F -charge, or fermion number, is the degree of the form and so the natural grading on the Hilbert space

$$\mathcal{H} = \bigoplus \Omega^p(M) \otimes \mathbb{C}$$

corresponds to the fermion number grading. The supercharge Q is the exterior derivative, $Q = i \bar{\psi}^I p_I = dx^I \wedge \frac{\partial}{\partial x^I} = d$, and Hermitian conjugate is $\bar{Q} = Q^\dagger = d^\dagger$. Finally, we compute the Hamiltonian H by the supersymmetry relation

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \{Q, \bar{Q}\} = \frac{1}{2} (d d^\dagger + d^\dagger d) = \frac{1}{2} \Delta,$$

the Laplace–Beltrami operator. The ground states are then just the harmonic forms:

$$\mathcal{H}_{(0)} = \text{Harm}(M, g) = \bigoplus_{p=0}^n \text{Harm}^p(M, g).$$

Now we are starting to see the correspondence between supersymmetric quantum mechanics and differential geometry. In fact, Hodge theory is not too far away! As we showed before, the ground states can be characterized by cohomology (see (2.7)). Since $[F, Q] = Q$ the Q -complex may be graded by the fermion number, or in more mathematical language, the de Rham cohomology is graded by the degree of the forms. In fact, since we know the ground states correspond to the harmonic forms we use the same proof as for (2.7) to show that

$$\mathcal{H}_{(0)} = \text{Harm}(M, g) \cong H^\bullet(Q) = H_{dR}^\bullet(M),$$

and even more that with respect to the fermion number grading,

$$\text{Harm}(M, g) \cong H_{dR}^p(M).$$

The Witten index, $\text{tr}(-1)^F$, counting the parity of the fermion numbers becomes:

$$\text{tr}(-1)^F = \sum_{p=0}^n (-1)^p \dim H_{dR}^p(M) = \chi(M).$$

To do (14)

To do...

- ☐ 1 (p. 14): Huybrecht def 5.1.3 of Hirzebruch χ_y -genus
- ☐ 2 (p. 14): Prove Huybrecht cor 5.1.4 in detail to get generalized Gauss–Bonnet
- ☐ 3 (p. 15): Make a shorter introduction.
- ☐ 4 (p. 16): For completeness: feynman diagrams?
- ☐ 5 (p. 16): Recall: Fermionic path integral rules .
- ☐ 6 (p. 17): Revamp this introduction.
- ☐ 7 (p. 17): Proof that variation is a derivation.
- ☐ 8 (p. 18): Show that the integral vanishes because the argument is a total derivative.
- ☐ 9 (p. 19): Prove that the Localization principle applies to holomorphic observables.
- ☐ 10 (p. 21): Understand the periodic boundary conditions in path integral for fermions.
- ☐ 11 (p. 21): Derive this Noether charge!
- ☐ 12 (p. 23): Show that this Landau–Ginzburg model is $\mathcal{N} = 2$ supersymmetric.
- ☐ 13 (p. 24): Work out the Noether charge for Riemannian manifold sigma model.
- ☐ 14 (p. 25): Prove Gauss Bonnet using the path integral: Compute the Witten index $\text{tr}[(-1)^F e^{-\beta H}]$ in terms of the Riemann curvature tensor and use the localization principle in the limit of $\beta \rightarrow 0$.

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