#### Abstract

These notes are based on Ron Donagi's lectures for the course "Complex Algebraic Geometry" at UPenn along with Daniel Huybrechts's *Complex Geometry*. Any mistake in what follows is my own.

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## 1 A cursory overview of algebraic geometry

#### 1.1 Lectures 1-4

These lectures consisted of informal surveys of certain fundamental concepts of algebraic geometry. They were meant as previews of various topics that we will cover rigorously.

## 2 Complex analysis

## 2.1 Lecture 5

First, let's review some basic concepts about functions of a single complex variable.

**Definition 2.1.1.** Let  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ . A function  $f = u + iv : U \subset \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$  is holomorphic or analytic if at least one of the following equivalent conditions holds.

• Both u and v are  $C^1$ , and f satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann equations, i.e.,

$$u_x = v_y$$
$$u_y = -v_x.$$

- $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} = 0$ , where  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} := \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)$ .
- The Cauchy integral formula holds, i.e.,

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(w)}{\eta - w} d\eta$$

for any closed circular path  $\gamma$  centered at w in U.

• f has a power series representation on U.

**Definition 2.1.2.** A bijective function  $f:U\subset\mathbb{C}\to V\subset\mathbb{C}$  is *biholomorphic* if it is holomorphic and its inverse is holomorphic. In this case, we say that U is *biholomorphic to* V, written as  $U\approx V$ .

#### Fact 2.1.3.

- (a) (The maximum modulus principle) If  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  is a domain,  $f: U \to \mathbb{C}$  is holomorphic, and |f| has a local maximum, then f is constant.
- (b) (Liouville's theorem) Any bounded entire function is constant.
- (c) (The Riemann extension theorem) If  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $f : B_{\epsilon}(z) \setminus \{z\} \subset \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$  is bounded and holomorphic, then f can be extended to a holomorphic function on  $B_{\epsilon}(z)$ .
- (d) (The Riemann mapping theorem) If  $U \subsetneq \mathbb{C}$  is simply connected and open, then  $U \approx B_1(0)$ .
- (e) (The residue theorem) If  $f: B_{\epsilon}(0) \setminus \{0\}$  is holomorphic, then f can be expanded in a Laurent series  $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  such that  $a_{-1} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint f(z) dz$ .

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Next, let's look at some basic concepts about functions of several complex variables.

**Definition 2.1.4.** A function  $f = u + iv : U \subset \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}$  is *holomorphic* if at least one of the following equivalent conditions holds.

- f is holomorphic in each variable individually.
- Both u and v are  $C^1$ , and f satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann equations,

$$u_{x_i} = v_{y_i}$$
$$u_{y_i} = -v_{x_i}$$

for each  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ .

- $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}_i} = 0.$
- f has a power series representation on U,

$$\sum_{k_1=0}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{k_n=0}^{\infty} a_{k_1,\dots,k_n} z_1^{k_1} \cdots z_n^{k_n}.$$

**Note 2.1.5.** Statements (a), (b), and (c) from Fact 2.1.3 generalize to functions of several variables, as does the Cauchy integral formula:

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{(2\pi i)^n} \int_{|\eta_i - z_i| = \epsilon_i} \frac{f(\eta_1, \dots, \eta_n)}{(\eta_1 - z_1) \cdots (\eta_n - z_n)} d\eta_1 \cdots d\eta_n$$

where  $\eta_i > 0$  for each  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ .

**Theorem 2.1.6 (Hartog).** If n > 1, then any holomorphic function  $f : B_{\epsilon}(0) \setminus \{0\} \subset \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}$  extends to a holomorphic function on  $B_{\epsilon}(0)$ .

**Definition 2.1.7.** Let X be a (topological) space. A sheaf F on X is a presheaf on X such that for any open  $U \subset X$  and any open cover  $\{U_i\}_{i\in J}$  of U, there is an exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow F(U) \longrightarrow F(U_i) \longrightarrow F(U_{ij})$$

where  $U_{ij} := U_i \cap U_j$ .

**Definition 2.1.8.** A ringed space is a pair  $(X, \mathcal{J})$  where X is a space and  $\mathcal{J}$  is a sheaf of rings on X.

Remark 2.1.9. Given any standard object  $(X, \mathcal{J})$ , we can define a geometric object as a ringed space locally isomorphic to  $(X, \mathcal{J})$ .

**Definition 2.1.10 (Vector bundle).** Let X and V be complex manifolds. Let  $\pi: V \to X$  be holomorphic. We say that  $\pi$  is a *(holomorphic) vector bundle of rank* n if for any  $x \in X$ , there exist an open set  $U \ni x$  in X and an isomorphism  $\pi^{-1}(U) \xrightarrow{\cong} U \times \mathbb{C}^n$  such that the *transition maps*  $U_{ij} \times \mathbb{C}^n \to U_{ij} \times \mathbb{C}^n$  are holomorphic and fiber linear.

Any vector bundle  $\pi: V \to X$  induces a sheaf on X given by

$$F(U) = \Gamma\left(U, \pi^{-1}(U)\right).$$

#### Example 2.1.11.

- 1. The sheaf induced by the trivial bundle  $\mathbf{1} := X \times \mathbb{C}$  is denoted by  $\mathcal{O}_X$ .
- 2. The tangent bundle TX of a smooth manifold X induces the sheaf of vector fields on X.
- 3. The cotangent bundle  $T^*X$  induces the sheaf  $\Omega^1(X)$  of one-forms on X.
- 4. The alternating bundle  $\bigwedge^p X$  of rank p induces the sheaf  $\Omega^p(X)$  of p-forms on X.

## 3 Line bundles

#### 3.1 Lecture 6

**Definition 3.1.1.** A line bundle is a vector bundle of rank 1.

**Definition 3.1.2.** Let X be a complex manifold. A sheaf F of  $\mathcal{O}_X$ -modules is a sheaf on X such that for any open set U in X,

- F(U) is a module over  $\mathcal{O}_X(U)$  and
- if  $U \subset V \subset X$ , then  $(f \cdot a) \upharpoonright_U = f \upharpoonright_U \cdot a \upharpoonright_U$ .

**Example 3.1.3 (Sheaf of sections).** Let X be a complex manifold and J be a vector bundle over X. For any open  $U \subset X$ , let

$$\mathcal{L}_J(U) = \Gamma(U, L)$$
.

This inherits a vector space structure from the family of fibers of V. Also, any relation of the form  $U_1 \subset U_2 \subset U$  induces a linear map  $\Gamma(U_2, L) \to \Gamma(U_1, L)$  given by  $\sigma \mapsto \sigma \upharpoonright_{U_1}$ . Thus,  $\mathcal{L}_J(-)$  is a sheaf of vector spaces. Moreover, it is easily seen to be a sheaf of  $\mathcal{O}_X$ -modules.

Since any vector bundle is locally trivial, we see that  $\mathcal{L}_J$  is locally free, i.e., for any  $x \in X$ , there exist an (open) neighborhood U of x in X and an isomorphism  $\varphi : \mathcal{L}_J(U) \to \bigoplus_{i=1}^{\operatorname{rank}(J)} \mathcal{O}_X(U)$  such that for any open set  $V \subset U$ , the square

$$\mathcal{L}_{J}(U) \xrightarrow{\cong} \bigoplus_{i=1}^{\operatorname{rank}(J)} \mathcal{O}_{X}(U)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{J}(V) \xrightarrow{\cong} \bigoplus_{i=1}^{\operatorname{rank}(J)} \mathcal{O}_{X}(V)$$

commutes. In other words,  $\mathcal{L}_J$  is locally isomorphic to  $(\mathcal{O}_X)^{\oplus \mathrm{rank}(J)}$ .

**Definition 3.1.4.** A sheaf F on a complex manifold X is *invertible* if there exist an open cover  $\{U_i\}$  of X and a family of holomorphic isomorphisms  $\varphi_i: \mathcal{O}_{U_i} \to \mathcal{L}_J \upharpoonright_{U_i}$ .

**Example 3.1.5.** If J is a line bundle, then  $\mathcal{L}_J$  is invertible.

Consider the composite

$$\mathcal{O}_{U_i \cap U_j} \xrightarrow{\varphi_i} \mathcal{L}_J \upharpoonright_{U_i \cap U_j} \xrightarrow{\varphi_j^{-1}} \mathcal{O}_{U_i \cap U_j}, \qquad 1 \longmapsto g_{ij}.$$

From this, we can construct a line bundle L over X by defining the total space as

$$\coprod_{i} (U_{i} \times \mathbb{C})_{/\sim}$$

where  $(x, \lambda)_i \sim (y, \mu)$  if x = y and  $\mu = g_{ij}\lambda$ .

**Definition 3.1.6 (Divisor).** A divisor on a complex manifold X is a locally finite  $\mathbb{Z}$ -combination of irreducible holomorphic hypersurfaces of X. Equivalently, it is a subset of X locally defined by the vanishing of a holomorphic function.

**Example 3.1.7.** If  $X = A^1$ , then any divisor D on X is of the form

$$D = \sum m_i p_i, \quad p_i \in \mathcal{A}^1, \ m_i \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Terminology. Each  $m_i$  is known as the multiplicity of  $p_i$ .

Any divisor D defines a line bundle  $\mathcal{O}_X(D)$  on X and a holomorphic map  $X \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}(V^{\vee})$  where  $V \equiv \Gamma(X, \mathcal{O}_X(D))$ . It is also true that any line bundle defines a divisor. It follows that

$$(\text{line bundles}) \xleftarrow{\sim} (\text{invertible sheaves}) \xleftarrow{\sim} (\text{divisors module linear equiv.}) \ . \tag{\dagger}$$

Consider the case where  $D = \mathsf{pt}$ . Let  $f \in \Gamma(U, \mathcal{O}_U)$  and let  $U_i = X \setminus D$ , which is a tubular neighborhood of D. Note that  $U_i = f^{-1}(\mathbb{C} \setminus \mathsf{hyperplane})$ . Define  $\mathcal{O}_X(D)$  as the line bundle with transition functions of the form  $f \upharpoonright_{U_i \cap U_j}$ .

Alternatively, let

$$\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}\left(D\right)\right)\left(U\right)=\{g:U\to\mathbb{C}\mid g\text{ is meromorphic, }\overbrace{fg}^{\text{product}}\text{ is holomorphic}\}.$$

For example, let  $X = \mathbb{P}^1$  and D be a point p. Let  $(x_0, x_1)$  denote local coordinates on X near p. Let g be meromorphic in these coordinates and let  $f(x_0, x_1) = \frac{x_1}{x_0}$ . Then fg is holomorphic, i.e., g has a pole of order at most one at p.

Question.

- 1. What is  $\Gamma(\mathbb{P}^1, \mathcal{O}_X)$ ?
- 2. What is  $\Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^1, \mathcal{O}_X\left(D\right)\right)$ ?

In fact, it can be shown that

$$\Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^{1}, \mathcal{O}_{X}\left(m, p\right)\right) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{C}\langle 1, x, \dots, x^{m} \rangle & m \geq 0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In general, D is defined locally, and thus so is  $\mathcal{O}_U(D)$ . Specifically,  $\Gamma(U, \mathcal{O}_U(D))$  consists of all holomorphic functions  $f: U \setminus \text{supp}(D) \to \mathbb{C}$  such that if  $D = \sum m_i Y_i$  and  $Y_i \cap U = \{f_i = 0\}$ , then  $g \prod_i f_i^{m_i}$  is holomorphic in U.

**Example 3.1.8 (Veronese embedding).** Let  $X = \mathbb{P}^1$  and p be as before.

1. Let  $D = \mathcal{O}(2p)$ . Consider the space  $V := \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^1, \mathcal{O}\left(2p\right)\right) = \mathbb{C}\langle 1, x, x^2 \rangle$ . Define the map  $\varphi_{\mathcal{O}(2p)} : \mathbb{P}^1 \to \mathbb{P}^2$  by

$$\varphi_{\mathcal{O}(2p)}(x) = \underbrace{\left(1, x, x^2\right)}_{(x, y, z)}.$$

This is an embedding. Its image is precisely the smooth curve given by  $y^2 = xz$ .

2. Let  $D = \mathcal{O}(3p)$ . Then the image of the map  $\varphi_{\mathcal{O}(3p)} : \mathbb{P}^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^3$  given by  $x \mapsto (1, x, x^2, x^3)$  is a so-called twisted cubic.

The line bundle L on X determines the map  $X \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}\left(\Gamma(X,L)^{\vee}\right)$  directly, as follows.

$$x \mapsto \ker \left(\Gamma\left(X, L\right) \stackrel{\operatorname{eval}_x}{\longrightarrow} L_p\right)$$

**Definition 3.1.9.** The base locus of L is  $\mathcal{BL}(L) \equiv \{x \in X \mid s(x) = 0 \text{ for each } s \in \Gamma(X, L)\}.$ 

Note that we get a map  $X \setminus \mathcal{BL}(L) \to \mathbb{P}(\Gamma(X,L)^{\vee})$ .

Now, let's consider a slight generalization of our preceding discussion. Let  $V \subset \Gamma(X, L)$ . This induces a map

$$X \xrightarrow{X} \mathbb{P}(V^{\vee})$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad X \setminus \mathcal{BL}(V)$$

Let  $X = \mathbb{P}^1$  and  $p = \{x = 0\}$ . Then  $V \subset \Gamma(\mathbb{P}^1, \mathcal{O}(2)) = \mathbb{C}\langle 1, x, x^2 \rangle$ , and

$$\mathbb{P}^1 \xrightarrow{\varphi_{\mathcal{O}(2)}} \mathbb{P}^2 \\
\downarrow^{\rho} \\
\downarrow^{\rho} \\
\mathbb{P}^1$$

commutes where  $\rho$  denotes the linear projection. Note that  $\varphi_V$  is a morphism so long as the center of  $\rho$  is not in the image of  $\varphi_{\mathcal{O}(2)}$ . In this case, we have that

$$\varphi_{\mathcal{O}(2)}(x) = \frac{a + by + cx^2}{d + ex + fx^2}$$
$$\rho(x) = \frac{a + bx}{c + dx}.$$

#### 3.2 Lecture 7

Let  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  be line bundles over X with transition functions  $\{g_1^{kl}: U_{kl} \to \mathbb{C}^*\}$  and  $\{g_2^{ij}: U_{ij} \to \mathbb{C}^*\}$ , respectively. We can take a refinement  $\{U_i \cap U_k\}$  where both  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are trivial. Define  $L^1 \otimes L^2$  as the line bundle with transition functions  $\{g_1^{kl}g_2^{ij}: U_{ij} \cap U_{kl} \to \mathbb{C}^*\}$ . Further, define  $(L^1)^{-1}$  as the line bundle with transition functions  $\{(g_1^{kl})^{-1}: U_{kl} \to \mathbb{C}^*\}$ . Note that, locally,  $L^1 \otimes (L^1)^{-1} \cong \mathcal{O}_X$ .

**Definition 3.2.1.** We say that a divisor  $D = \sum_i m_i Y_i$  is effective if  $m_i \geq 0$  for each i.

Let  $V = \Gamma(X, \mathcal{O}_X(D))$  and let D be effective. Note that  $\mathbb{C}\langle D \rangle \subset V$ . We have that  $\operatorname{supp}(D) = \varphi^{-1}$  (hyperplane) where  $(\mathbb{C}\langle 0 \rangle)^{\perp}$  is precisely the hyperplane in  $\mathbb{P}(V^{\vee})$ .

Example 3.2.2. Let  $X = \mathbb{P}^1$ .

1. Let  $x = \frac{x_1}{x_0}$  and  $D = p := \{x = 0\}$ . Then  $V = \mathbb{C}\langle 1, x \rangle$ , and the map  $\varphi_V : \mathbb{P}^1 \to \mathbb{P}(V^{\vee})$  is given by  $c \mapsto y := \frac{x}{1}$ .

2. Let  $D = m(\infty)$  with m > 0. Then  $V = \mathbb{C}\langle x_1, \dots, x_m^m \rangle$ , and the map  $\varphi_{m\infty} : \mathbb{P}^1 \to \mathbb{P}^m$  is given by

$$(x_0, x_1) \mapsto (x_0^m, x_0^{m-1} x_1, \dots, x_0 x_1^{m-1}, x_1^m)$$
  
 $x \mapsto (1, x, \dots, x^m).$ 

3. Let  $D=p_1+\cdots+p_m$  where  $p_i=[1:t_i]$ . Let  $x=\frac{x_1}{x_0}$ , so that  $\infty$  is given by  $x_0=0$ . Then  $V=\mathbb{C}\langle \underbrace{1,\frac{1}{x-t_1},\ldots,\frac{1}{x-t_m}}_{a_0,\frac{a_1}{x-t_1},\ldots,\frac{a_m}{x-t_m}}\rangle$ . This can be viewed as the space of all regular meromorphic functions

on open subsets of  $\mathbb{P}^1$  having poles of order at most m. The image of  $\varphi : \mathbb{P}^1 \to \mathbb{P}^m$  is precisely the hyperplane  $\{a_0 = 0\}$ .

**Example 3.2.3.** Let X be an elliptic curve, i.e., a space of the form  $\mathbb{C}/\Lambda$ . Let p be the image of 0 and let D = mp.

1. Let m = 1. Then  $V = \Gamma(X, \mathcal{O}_X(D))$ , which consists of all maps  $f : X \to \mathbb{P}^1$  such that  $f^{-1}(\infty) = \{0\}$ . These are precisely the constant maps, so that  $V \cong \mathbb{C}\langle s \rangle$  where s is a holomorphic section of  $\mathcal{O}_X(D)$  vanishing at p and is meromorphic on  $\mathcal{O}_X$ .



It follows that  $\mathcal{BL}(\mathcal{O}_X(D)) = p$ .

2. Let m=2. Then  $V=\mathbb{C}\langle 1,p\rangle$ , and  $\varphi_{2p}:X\to\mathbb{P}^1$  is precisely the D-th Weierstrass function. Moreover, we have an exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_X(p) \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_X(2p) \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_p \longrightarrow \cdots.$$

3. Let m=3. Then  $V=\langle 1,p,p'\rangle$ , and the image of  $\varphi_{3p}:X\to\mathbb{P}^2$  is given by  $y^2=x^3+ax+b$ .

**Example 3.2.4.** Let 
$$X = \mathbb{P}^2$$
. Let  $D = m\underbrace{(\text{line at } \infty)}_{\{z=0\}}$ .

- 1. Let m=0. Then  $V=\mathbb{C}\langle 1\rangle$ , and  $\mathcal{BL}=\emptyset$ .
- 2. Let m=1. Then  $C=\mathbb{C}\langle \frac{x}{z}, \frac{y}{z}, \frac{z}{z}\rangle \cong \mathbb{C}\langle 1, X, Y\rangle$ , and  $\mathcal{BL}=\emptyset$ . The map  $\varphi_D: \mathbb{P}^2 \to \mathbb{P}^2$  is precisely the identity.
- 3. Let m=2. Then  $V=\langle \frac{x^2}{z^2},\frac{x^4}{z^2},\frac{y^2}{z^2},\frac{z}{z},\frac{y}{z},\frac{z}{z}\rangle$ , and the map  $\varphi_D:\mathbb{P}^2\to\mathbb{P}^5$  is an embedding given by  $(x,y,z)\mapsto \langle x^2,xy,y^2,xz,yz,z^2\rangle$ .

In general, if  $H \subset \mathbb{P}^n$  is a hyperplane, then  $\varphi_{\mathcal{O}(dH)} : \mathbb{P}^n \to \mathbb{P}^{\binom{d+n}{n}-1}$  is given by

$$(x_0, \ldots, x_n) \mapsto (d$$
-th order homogenous polynomials),

known as the d-th order Veronese embedding on  $\mathbb{P}^n$ .

**Example 3.2.5.** Let  $X = \mathbb{P}^2$  with coordinates (x, y, z). Let H denote the hyperplane given by z = 0 and let D = 2H. Then  $V = \{s \in \Gamma(\mathcal{O}(2H)) \mid s(0, 0, 1) = 0\}$ , and

$$\begin{array}{c} V & \longleftarrow & \Gamma\left(\mathcal{O}\left(2H\right)\right) \\ \cong & & \uparrow & \qquad \uparrow \cong \\ \mathbb{C}\langle x^2, xy, y^2, xz, yz \rangle & \longleftarrow & \mathbb{C}\langle x^2, xy, y^2, xz, yz, z^2 \rangle \end{array}$$

commutes. Further,  $\mathcal{BL}(V) = \{0\} = [0,0,1]$ , and  $\varphi_V$  is a map  $\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus \{0\} \to \mathbb{P}^4$  but does not extend to  $\mathbb{P}^2$ . Indeed, we have that

$$\lim_{\substack{(0,y,1)\\y\to 0}} \varphi_V = \lim_{y\to 0} \left(0,0,y^2,0,y\right) = (0,0,0,0,1)$$

$$\parallel$$

$$\lim_{\substack{(x,0,1)\\x\to 0}} \varphi_V = \lim_{x\to 0} \left(x^2,0,0,x,0\right) = (0,0,0,1,0).$$

Note that for any  $p \in X$ , there exist  $\widetilde{X}$  and  $\pi : \widetilde{X} \to X$  such that  $\pi$  restricted to  $\pi^{-1}(X \setminus p)$  is an isomorphism and  $\pi^{-1}(p)$  is a divisor on  $\widetilde{X}$  that is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{P}^1$ .

**Proposition 3.2.6.** Let  $Y \subset X$  be a submanifold of codimension  $k \geq 2$ . Let  $\varphi : X \setminus Y \to Z$ . Then there exist  $\widetilde{X}$  and  $\pi : \widetilde{X} \to X$  such that  $\pi$  restricted to  $\pi^{-1}(X \setminus Y)$  is an isomorphism and restricted to  $\underbrace{\pi^{-1}(Y)}_{\text{divisor on } X}$  is a bundle with each fiber isomorphic to  $\mathbb{P}^{k-1}$ .

*Notation.* In this case, the space  $\widetilde{X}$  is denoted by  $\mathrm{Bl}_Y(X)$ .

#### 3.3 Lecture 8

Recall our correspondence (†). We can add to it the class of all maps

$$X \setminus \mathcal{BL}(L) \to \mathbb{P}\left(\Gamma\left(X, L\right)^{\vee}\right).$$

Let's turn now to some higher-dimensional examples.

**Example 3.3.1.** Let  $X = \mathbb{P}^2$ ,  $L = \mathcal{O}(2)$ , and  $V = \{s \in \Gamma(X, \mathcal{O}(2)) \mid \text{ linearity condition}\}$ . Then  $\varphi_V : \mathbb{P}^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^5$ . Consider any homogenous polynomial  $\sum a_{ijk}x^iy^jz^k$ . Then our linearity condition may take any of the following forms.

•  $\sum a_{ijk}x^iy^jz^k=0$  where  $a_{ijk}$  ranges over

$${a_{000}, a_{120}, a_{020}, a_{101}, a_{011}, a_{002}}.$$

- $a_{002} = 0$
- $\bullet \ a_{002} + a_{001} = 0.$

In the case of either of these last two, we get a map

$$\mathbb{P}^2 \xrightarrow{\varphi_V} \mathbb{P}^5 \xrightarrow{-\psi} \mathbb{P}^4$$

for any  $p \in \mathbb{P}^5$ . There are two scenarios to consider.

- (a) Suppose that  $p \notin \operatorname{im} \varphi_V$ . Then  $\psi \circ \varphi_V$  is a morphism.
- (b) Suppose that  $p = \varphi_V$  (001). Then  $\psi$  blows up at p. Consider the map  $\varphi_V : \mathbb{P}^2 \setminus p \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^4$  given by  $(x, y, z) \mapsto \underbrace{(x^2, xy, y^2, xz, y^2)}_{(x, y, z, u, v)}$ . The image of this map is precisely im  $\varphi_V \coprod \mathbb{P}^1 \subset \mathbb{P}^4$ .

Terminology. In this setting,  $\mathbb{P}^1$  is called an exceptional divisor.

Note that the equations

$$xz = y^2$$

$$zu = yv$$

$$xv = yu$$

together generate the relevant ideal.

Remark 3.3.2. If we took L to be  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  with  $n \neq 2$ , then our generators would still be quadratic.

Now, fix a and b and let  $x = \epsilon a$ ,  $y = \epsilon b$ , and z = 1 where  $\epsilon \to 0$ . Then

$$\varphi_V(x, y, z) = (\epsilon^2 a^2, \epsilon^2 ab, \epsilon^2 b^2, \epsilon a, \epsilon b)$$

$$\sim (\epsilon a^2, \epsilon ab, \epsilon b^2, a, b)$$

$$\rightarrow (0, 0, 0, a, b).$$

Question. Is im  $\varphi_V$  a manifold at  $00010 = \varphi_V(1, b, a)$ ?

We have that

$$zu - yv \to \frac{z}{u} = \frac{y}{u} \frac{v}{u}$$
$$xv = yu \to \frac{x}{u} \frac{v}{u} = \frac{y}{u}.$$

More generally, let X be a complex n-manifold and let  $p \in X$ . Then  $\mathrm{Bl}_p X = (X \setminus p) \coprod_{\mathbb{P}(T_p X)} \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ . There at least two ways of extending the map

$$X \setminus p \xrightarrow{\varphi_V} \mathbb{P}^n \xrightarrow{--\psi} \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$$

so that its image is a manifold at every point.

- (a) Provided that  $\psi \circ \varphi_V$  is an embedding, then we can take  $\mathrm{Bl}_p(X)$  to be the closure of  $X \setminus p$  in  $\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ .
- (b) Let U is any polydisk containing the origin. We can replace  $(X \setminus p) \cup U$  with  $(X \setminus p) \cup \widetilde{U}$  where  $\widetilde{U}$  denotes the blow-up of U at 0.

More generally still, let  $Y^m \subset X^n$  be a closed submanifold. Then  $\widetilde{X} := \operatorname{Bl}_Y(X) = (X \setminus Y) \coprod \mathbb{P}(N_Y X)$ .

$$\mathbb{P}^{n-m-1} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}\left(N_Y X\right)$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$V$$

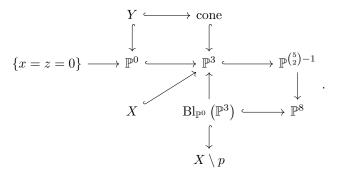
We wish to find a line bundle L over Y and a subspace  $V \subset \Gamma(X, L)$  such that  $\mathcal{BL}_V = Y$ . In this case, the closure of the image of  $\varphi_V : X \setminus Y \to \mathbb{P}(V^{\vee})$  determines  $(X \setminus Y) \cup \widetilde{U}$  on U where U denotes any tubular neighborhood of Y in X.

Alternatively, if we are given an embedding

$$Y \longleftrightarrow X \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \\ \mathbb{P}^{n-c} \longleftrightarrow \mathbb{P}^n$$

where c denotes the codimension of Y, then we can take  $Bl_Y(X)$  to be the closure of  $Bl_{\mathbb{P}^{n-c}}(\mathbb{P}^n \cap (X \setminus Y))$ .

**Example 3.3.3.** Consider  $\mathbb{P}^3$  with coordinates (x, y, z, w). We wish to resolve the cone  $\{x^2 = y^2\} \subset \mathbb{P}^3$ . Let  $p = \{x = z = 0\}$ . We have a commutative diagram



Then the exceptional divisor in  $\mathrm{Bl}_p\left(\mathbb{P}^2\right)$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{P}^2\cong\mathbb{P}\left(T_p\mathbb{P}^2\right)$ , and the exceptional divisor in  $\mathrm{Bl}_p(X)$  is isomorphic to the cone.

**Example 3.3.4.** Consider the quadratic map  $\varphi: \mathbb{P}^2 \to \mathbb{P}^2$  given by  $(x, y, z) \mapsto \left(\frac{1}{x}, \frac{1}{y}, \frac{1}{z}\right) = \underbrace{(yz, xz, xy)}_{(u, v, w)}$ . Let

$$V = \{s \in \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}^2, \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^2}(2)\right) \mid s(001) = 0, \ s(010) = 0, \ s(100) = 0\},$$

which is isomorphic to  $\Gamma(\underbrace{\mathcal{J}_{3 \text{ points}}}_{\text{ideal sheaf on 3 points}} \otimes \mathcal{O}(2))$ . The fact that  $\varphi^{-1} = \varphi$  yields the following properties.

- The line z = 0 collapses to the point u = v = 0.
- The line y = 0 collapses to the point u = v = 0.
- The point y = z = 0 blows up to the line u = 0.

$$y = 0$$

$$z = 0$$

$$v = 0$$

$$u = 0$$

$$v = 0$$

This hexagon is called the *del Pazzo surface of degree three*, denoted by  $dP_3$ . Each of its lines is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{P}^1$ .

**Note 3.3.5.** Suppose that C is a smooth curve and that  $\dim X < 2$ . Then  $\varphi : C \setminus \mathsf{pt} \to X$  automatically extends. But if C were singular or  $\dim X \ge 2$ , then this would be false.

#### 3.4 Lecture 9

**Definition 3.4.1 (Picard group).** Let X be a complex manifold. The *Picard group* Pic(X) of X is the group of all isomorphism classes of line bundles over X under  $\otimes$ .

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and consider the family of line bundles  $\{\mathcal{O}(k) \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  over  $\mathbb{P}^n$ .

**Proposition 3.4.2.** Pic  $(\mathbb{P}^n) \cong \mathbb{Z}$  with generator  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .

Let  $\mathbb{P}^n = \mathbb{P}(V)$ . We have an exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow L \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n} \otimes_{\mathbb{C}} V \longrightarrow \cdots$$

We have that

1. 
$$\Gamma(\mathbb{P}^n, \mathcal{O}(1)) = \mathbb{C}\langle z_0, \dots, z_n \rangle = V^{\vee},$$

2. 
$$\Gamma(\mathbb{P}^n, \mathcal{O}(-1)) = 0$$
, and

3. 
$$\Gamma(\mathbb{P}^n, \mathcal{O}(k)) = \begin{cases} \operatorname{Sym}^k(V^{\vee}) & k \ge 0\\ 0 & k < 0 \end{cases}$$

Let  $U_i = \{z \in \mathbb{P}^n \mid z_i \neq 0\}$  for each  $i \in \{0, 1, ..., n\}$ , so that  $\mathbb{P}^n = \bigcup_{i=0}^n$ . Let  $Z_{ij} = \frac{z_j}{z_i}$ , thereby endowing each  $U_i$  with local coordinates. Let s be a section of  $\mathcal{O}$ , so that

$$s = (s_i \in \Gamma(U_i, \mathcal{O}))_{i=0}^n.$$

Note that  $Z_i$  defines a section on  $U_j$  with  $s_j = \frac{z_i}{z_j} = Z_{ji}$  for each  $j = 0, \ldots, n$ .

$$s_{j} = Z_{jk} \cdot s_{k}$$

$$\parallel \qquad \qquad \parallel$$

$$\frac{z_{i}}{z_{j}} = Z_{jk} \cdot \frac{z_{i}}{z_{k}}$$

We can establish the following properties.

1. If 
$$\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}(1)$$
, then  $s_i = Z_{ij}s_j$ .

2. If 
$$\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}(-1)$$
, then  $s_i = Z_{ii}s_i$ .

3. If 
$$\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}(k)$$
, then  $s_i = (Z_{ij})^k s_j$ .

In summary,

	$\mathcal{O}$ (trivial)	$\mathcal{O}(-1)$	$\mathcal{O}(1)$	$\mathcal{O}(k)$
LB	$\mathbb{P}^n \times \mathbb{C}$	tautological	dual	
Sheaf	1	$Z_{ji}$	$Z_{ij}$	$(Z_{ij})^k$
Divisor	0	$-H_{\text{h.p.}}$	+H	kH
Мар	pt	undefined	id	$\begin{cases} \text{Veronese} & k > 0 \\ \\ \text{undefined} & k < 0 \\ \\ \text{pt} & k = 0 \end{cases}$

Let X be a complex n-manifold. Then  $T_X$  consists of all local sections on an open set U with coordinates, say,  $z_1, \ldots, z_n$ . The set  $\{\frac{\partial}{\partial z_i}\}$  is a basis for this, with each section of the form  $\sum_{i=1}^n f_i \frac{\partial}{\partial z_i}$  where each  $f_i$  belongs to  $\Gamma(U, \mathcal{O})$ . For any other basis  $\{\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i}\}$ , we have that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} = \sum \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial w_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial z_j}.$$

Note that  $T_V \cong \mathcal{O}_V \otimes_{\mathbb{C}} V$ . In general,  $\Omega^i_V \cong \mathcal{O}_V \otimes \bigwedge^i V^{\vee}$ .

Question. What is  $T_{\mathbb{P}(V)}$ ?

### Note 3.4.3 (Bundle associated to an *n*-manifold).

- 1.  $T_X^{\vee} = \Omega \equiv \Omega^1$ , whose transition functions are precisely the inverses of the transposes of those for  $T_X$ .
- 2. Let  $\Omega^i = \bigwedge^i \Omega^1$ . If i = n, then we call this space the canonical sheaf  $K_X$  or the dualized sheaf  $\omega_X$ .
- 3. Recall the map  $\bigwedge^i : GL(n) \to GL\binom{n}{i}$ . If i = n, then this is precisely the determinant map.

Consider the exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{O} \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}(1)^{\oplus n+1} \longrightarrow T_{\mathbb{P}^n} \longrightarrow 0$$

$$1 \longmapsto (z_i) \qquad .$$

$$(a_i) \longmapsto \sum a_i \frac{\partial}{\partial z_i}$$

Terminology. The vector field given by  $\sum z_i \frac{\partial}{\partial z_i}$  is known as the Euler vector field.

Moreover, we have a commutative diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow \underbrace{\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}(V)}}_{\mathbb{C}} \longrightarrow \underbrace{\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}(V)}(1)}_{V^{\vee}} \otimes V \longrightarrow T_{\mathbb{P}(V)} \longrightarrow ,$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\mathcal{O}_{V}(1) \otimes V \stackrel{\cong}{\longrightarrow} T_{V} \longrightarrow 0$$

Terminology. The top row of this diagram is known as the Euler sequence.

Therefore, the weight of V equals -1, whereas the weight of  $V^{\vee}$  equals +1.

Informally, any holomorphic function f on V is the same as a direct sum of homogenous functions of degree k, i.e., has the form

$$\bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} \Gamma\left(\mathbb{P}(V), \mathcal{O}(k)\right),\,$$

called the Taylor expansion of f.

Note 3.4.4. In general, we have an exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}(n) \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}^{(n+1)} \longrightarrow T_{\mathbb{P}}(-1) \longrightarrow 0 ,$$

which becomes the Euler sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{O} \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}(1) \oplus \mathcal{O}(1) \longrightarrow T_{\mathbb{P}^1} \longrightarrow 0$$

in the case where n=1. It follows that

$$K_{\mathbb{P}^n} = \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n} \left( -n - 1 \right).$$

**Lemma 3.4.5.** If  $0 \to A \to B \to C \to 0$  is an exact sequence of vector spaces, then

$$det(B) = det(A) \otimes det(C)$$
.

Corollary 3.4.6.  $\mathcal{O}(2) \cong \det (\mathcal{O}(1) \oplus \mathcal{O}(1)) = \det(\mathcal{O}) \otimes \det(T) = \det(T)$ .

Remark 3.4.7. Similarly, we can show that  $\det (T_{\mathbb{P}^n}) = \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^n}(n+1)$ .

Suppose that  $X \subset Y$  is a submanifold of codimension 1. Then we have a short exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow T_X \longrightarrow (T_Y)|_X \longrightarrow N_{X/Y} \longrightarrow 0$$
.

Lemma 3.4.8.  $N_{X/Y} \cong \mathcal{O}_Y(X)|_X$ .

In other words, if  $L \in \text{Pic}(Y)$ ,  $s \in \Gamma(Y, L)$ , and  $X = \{s = 0\}$ , then  $N_{X/Y} \cong L|_{X}$ .

Theorem 3.4.9 (Adjunction formula).  $K_X \cong (K_Y \otimes_{\mathcal{O}_Y} \mathcal{O}_Y(X))|_X$ 

*Proof.* Note that  $(K_Y^{-1})|_X = K_X^{-1} \otimes N_{X/Y}$ . Thus,

$$K_X \cong K_Y \big|_X \otimes N_{X/Y}$$

$$\cong K_Y \big|_X \otimes \mathcal{O}_Y(X) \big|_X$$

$$\cong (K_Y \otimes \mathcal{O}_Y(X)) \big|_X.$$

#### 3.5 Lecture 10

Proof of Lemma 3.4.8. Let  $s \in \Gamma(Y, L)$ . We can write  $s = fs_0$ , so that  $ds = s_0 df + f ds_0$ . Consider the short exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow T_X \longrightarrow T_Y \big|_X \stackrel{ds}{\longrightarrow} L \longrightarrow 0 .$$

Thus, ds transforms just as  $s_0$  does.

#### Example 3.5.1.

1. Let  $Y = \mathbb{P}^3$ . Suppose that  $\widetilde{X}$  is a smooth curve of degree d. Then  $K_Y = \mathcal{O}(-3)$ , and  $K_X = \mathcal{O}(d-3)|_X$ . Further, if g denotes the genus of a surface, then Bézout's theorem implies that

$$2g - 2 = \deg(K_X) = d(d - 3)$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow$$

$$g = 1 + \frac{d(d - 3)}{2} = \frac{(d - 1)(d - 2)}{2}.$$

In particular,

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} d & g \\ \hline 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 3 \\ 5 & 6 \\ \end{array}$$

2. Let  $Y = \mathbb{P}^n$  and let  $X \subset Y$  be of dimension d. Note that  $K_X = \mathcal{O}_X$  precisely when d = n + 1. In particular,

$$\begin{array}{c|c} n & X \\ \hline 2 & \text{cubic / elliptic curve} \\ 3 & \text{quartic } (a \ K_3 \ surface) \\ 4 & \text{quintic} \\ \end{array}$$

Let  $p_1, \ldots, p_n \in \mathbb{P}^N$ , let  $m_1, \ldots, m_n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ , and let  $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ . We wish to describe

$$\Gamma\left(\mathcal{J}_{\Sigma_{m_ip_i}}\left(d\right)\right) \coloneqq \left(\mathcal{J}_{\Sigma_{m_ip_i}} \otimes \mathcal{O}(d)\right).$$

For simplicity, let N=2.

**Definition 3.5.2.** If n = 1, then imposition is  $\mathsf{Imp}_m \equiv \operatorname{codim} (\Gamma(\mathcal{J}_{mp}(d), \Gamma(\mathcal{O}(d))))$ .

**Proposition 3.5.3.**  $\mathsf{Imp}_m = \binom{m+1}{2}$ .

**Definition 3.5.4.** Consider the space  $\Gamma$ .

1. The actual dimension of  $\Gamma$  is the dimension of  $\Gamma$  as a vector space.

- 2. The virtual dimension vd  $(\Gamma)$  of  $\Gamma$  is the quantity  $\binom{d+2}{2} 1 \sum_{i} \binom{m_i+1}{2}$ .
- 3. The expected dimension of  $\Gamma$  is the quantity max (vd  $(\Gamma)$ , 0).

Conjecture 3.5.5. The actual dimension always equals the expected dimension.

Answer. This is false. For example, let N=2, d=1,  $m_i=1$ , and n=3. Then  $\Gamma=0$ , so that  $\mathbb{P}(\Gamma)=\emptyset$ . Hence the expected dimension is zero, but the actual dimension is positive whenever the  $p_i$  are co-linear.  $\square$ 

This leads us to the following modification of Conjecture 3.5.5.

**Conjecture 3.5.6.** If the  $p_i$  are in general position, then the actual dimension equals the expected dimension.

Answer. This is **false**. To see this, let d=2 and  $N=n=m_i=2$ . Consider a conic C through five points. Here, our conjecture holds. But if instead N=2, d=4, n=5, and  $m_i=2$ , then the virtual dimension is precisely  $\binom{4+2}{2}-5\cdot 3=0$ . Since the square of C exists, it follows that our conjecture fails.

We can improve Conjecture 3.5.6 as follows.

Conjecture 3.5.7. If the actual dimension is different from the expected dimension, then  $\Gamma\left(\mathcal{J}_{\sum_{m_i p_i}}(d)\right)$  has a base curve.

Answer. This is unknown. See the article "Linear Systems of Plane Curves" by Rick Miranda.

Consider the map  $|\mathcal{O}(d)|: \mathbb{P}^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{\binom{d+2}{2}-1}$ . We also have a map

$$\mathbb{P}^{2} \xrightarrow{|\mathcal{J}_{\sum_{p_{i}}(d)}|} \mathbb{P}^{\dim -1}$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow$$

$$\mathbb{P}^{2} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{2}$$

$$\mathbb{P}^{2} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{2}$$

**Proposition 3.5.8.** Consider the blow-up  $\pi: \underbrace{\widetilde{\mathbb{P}^2}}_{X} \to \mathbb{P}^2$ . We have that

$$\operatorname{Pic}(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}\langle \pi^* (\mathcal{O}(1)), E_1, \dots, E_n \rangle$$

where  $E_i$  denotes the divisor collapsing to  $p_i$ .

Remark 3.5.9.

Good:  $\pi^* \mathcal{O}(d) - \sum m_i E_i \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{J}_{\sum m_i p_i}(d)$ .

Better:  $\Gamma(X, ") = \Gamma(\mathbb{P}^2, ")$ 

Best:  $\pi_*$  ('') = ''.

Conjecture 3.5.10. Any line bundle  $L := (\pi^* \mathcal{O}(d) - \sum m_i E_i)$  has the expected dimension of the space of sections unless  $\mathcal{BL}(L)$  contains a (-1)-curve, i.e., a smooth curve C of genus zero such that  $C^2 = -1$ .

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**Example 3.5.11** ((-1)-curve). Let d = 1, n = 2, and  $m_1 = m_2 = 1$ . If  $C \in \mathcal{O}(1)(-p - q)$ , then  $C^2 = 1^2 - 1 - 1 = -1$ . In general,

$$\mathcal{O}(d)\left(\left(-\sum m_I E_i\right)\left(\mathcal{O}(d)-\sum m_i p_i\right)\right) = dd' - \sum m_i m_i'.$$

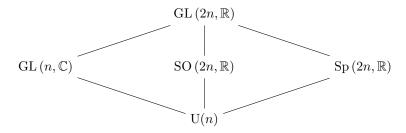
In  $\mathbb{P}^2$ , this means the number of intersections other than the  $p_i$ .

Space	$C^2$
$\mathcal{O}(1)$	1
$\mathcal{O}(1)(-p)$	0
$\mathcal{O}(1)(-p-q)$	-1
:	
$\mathcal{O}(2)$	4
$\mathcal{O}(2)\left(-p_1\right)$	3
$\mathcal{O}(2)\left(-p_1-p_2\right)$	2
<u>:</u>	
$\mathcal{O}(2)\left(-p_1-\cdots-p_4\right)$	0
$\mathcal{O}(2)\left(-\sum_{i=1}^{5} p_i\right)$	-1

## 4 Kähler manifolds

#### 4.1 Lecture 11

Consider the following Hasse diagram of subgroups:



where Sp  $(2n, \mathbb{R})$  denotes the group of real  $2n \times 2n$  symplectic matrices, i.e., matrices M satisfying

$$M^{t} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I_{n} \\ -I_{n} & 0 \end{bmatrix} M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I_{n} \\ -I_{n} & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Similarly, we can view various areas of geometry as refinements of certain others. Specifically,



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Before investigating Kähler geometry, we establish some basic geometric concepts.

**Definition 4.1.1.** Let X be a real manifold. An almost complex structure on X is a bundle map  $I: TX \to TX$  such that  $I^2 = -1$ .

Note that the eigenvalues of I are precisely i and -i.

Notation.

- 1. Let  $T^{1,0}$  denote the eigenspace of i.
- 2. Let  $T^{0,1}$  denote the eigenspace of -i.

Any complex manifold X has a natural almost complex structure. Indeed, given local coordinates  $x_i, y_i$  on X, define I by  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \mapsto \frac{\partial}{\partial y_i}$  and  $\frac{\partial}{\partial y_i} \mapsto -\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}$ . It follows that any manifold with an almost complex structure has even dimension.

Now, consider the complexification of our tangent bundle,  $T^{\mathbb{C}}X \equiv TX \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{C}$ .

#### Proposition 4.1.2.

- 1.  $T^{\mathbb{C}}X \cong T^{1,0} \oplus T^{0,1}$
- 2.  $T^{*\mathbb{C}}X \cong T^{*1,0} \oplus T^{*0,1}$

Define, formally, the complex coordinates  $z_j = x_j + iy_j$ . Note that  $T^{\mathbb{C}}X$  has as basis  $\{\frac{\partial}{\partial z_j}, \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}_j}\}$  and that  $T^{*\mathbb{C}}X$  has as basis  $\{dz_j, d\bar{z}_j\}$  where  $dz_j \equiv dx_j + idy_j$ .

Notation.

- 1.  $\bigwedge^k X := \bigwedge^k T^*X$ .
- 2.  $\bigwedge^{p,q} X := \bigwedge^p T^{*1,0} X \otimes_{\mathbb{C}} \bigwedge^q T^{*0,1} X$ .

Note 4.1.3. Let X be an n-dimensional complex manifold.

- 1.  $\left(\bigwedge^k T^*X\right) \otimes \mathbb{C} = \bigwedge_{\mathbb{C}}^k (T^*X \otimes \mathbb{C}).$
- 2.  $\left(\bigwedge^k X\right) \otimes \mathbb{C} = \bigoplus_{p+q=k} \bigwedge^{p,q} X$ .

Therefore,  $\left(\bigwedge^k X\right) \otimes \mathbb{C}$  can be decomposed according to the counting equation  $\binom{2n}{k} = \sum \binom{n}{p} \binom{n}{q}$ .

Let U and V be open in  $\mathbb{C}^n$ . Let  $f:U\to V$  be holomorphic. Then the map  $df:TU\to TV$  extends to a map  $df^{\mathbb{C}}:\mathcal{T}^{\mathbb{C}}U\to T^{\mathbb{C}}V$  that preserves both  $T^{1,0}$  and  $T^{0,1}$ .

Let  $\mathcal{A}^{p,q} = \Gamma(\bigwedge^{p,q})$ , i.e.,  $\mathcal{A}^{p,q}(U) = \Gamma(U, \bigwedge^{p,q})$ . Consider the exterior derivative  $d: \mathcal{A}^k \to \mathcal{A}^{k+1}$ . With  $\pi$  denoting the projection map, define the operators

$$\partial = \pi^{p+1,q} \circ d$$

$$\bar{\partial} = \pi^{p,q+1} \circ d$$

on  $A^{p,q}$ . Locally, we have that

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} dx_i + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_i} dy_i = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z_i} dz_i + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}_i} d\bar{z}_i$$

for any  $f \in \mathcal{A}^{0,0}$ . By the Cauchy-Riemann equations, it follows that f is holomorphic if and only if  $\bar{\partial} f = 0$ .

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Remark 4.1.4. Any (p,q)-form locally looks like  $f_{IJ}dz_I \wedge \bar{z}_J$ .

## Proposition 4.1.5.

- 1.  $d = \partial + \bar{\partial}$ .
- 2.  $\partial^2 = 0 = \bar{\partial}^2$ .
- $\partial \bar{\partial} = -\bar{\partial} \partial \bar{\partial}$
- 4.  $\partial (\alpha \wedge \beta) = \partial \alpha \wedge \beta + (-1)^{p+q} \alpha \wedge \partial \beta$  for any  $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}^{p,q}$  and  $\beta \in \mathcal{A}^{r,s}$ .

**Lemma 4.1.6 (Single-variable Poincaré).** Consider the disk  $B_{\epsilon} \subset \overline{B_{\epsilon}} \subset U \subset \mathbb{C}$  where U is open. Let  $\alpha = f d\overline{z} \in \mathcal{A}^{0,1}(U)$  and

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\overline{\mathbb{R}}} \frac{f(w)}{w - z} dw \wedge d\overline{w}.$$

Then  $\bar{\partial}g = \alpha$ .

**Lemma 4.1.7 (Multi-variable Poincaré).** Consider the polydisk  $B_{\epsilon} \subset \overline{B_{\epsilon}} \subset U \subset \mathbb{C}^n$  where U is open. Let  $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}^{p,q}$  with q > 0 and  $\bar{\partial}\alpha = 0$ . Then there is some  $\beta \in \mathcal{A}^{p,q-1}(B_{\epsilon})$  such that  $\bar{\partial}\beta = \alpha$ .

Remark 4.1.8. If U is contractible, then any differential form on U is closed if and only if it is exact.

Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}^n$  be open and let I denote the natural almost complex structure on U. Let g be a Riemannian metric on U.

#### Definition 4.1.9 (Hermitian metric).

- 1. We say that g is compatible with I or (almost) Hermitian if g(u, v) = g(Iu, Iv).
- 2. If g is Hermitian, then the real (1,1)-form  $\omega \in \mathcal{A}^{1,1}(U) \cap \mathcal{A}^2(U)$  defined by

$$\omega\left(u,v\right) = g\left(Iu,v\right)$$

is called the fundamental form of g.

Notation.  $h := g - i\omega$ .

**Definition 4.1.10.** A Hermitian matrix M is positive-definite if  $z^*Mz > 0$  for every nonzero complex column vector z.

Note that h is a positive-definite form in the sense that, locally, its component functions define a positive-definite matrix at any given point.

**Example 4.1.11.** Let 
$$g = \underbrace{dx^2}_{dx \otimes dx} + dy^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n dx_i^2 + dy_i^2 \in T^* \otimes T^* \subset (T^* \otimes T^*) \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{C}$$
. Since

$$dz \wedge d\bar{z} = (dx + idy) \wedge (dx - idy) = -2idx \wedge dy,$$

it follows that

$$\omega = dx \otimes dy - dy \otimes dx = \frac{i}{2}dz \wedge d\bar{z}.$$

Moreover, we see that

$$h = z - i\omega$$

$$= dx^2 - idxdy + idydx + dy^2$$

$$= dx (dx - idy) + idy (d_x + -idy)$$

$$= (dx + idy) (dx - idy)$$

$$= dz \otimes d\bar{z}.$$

For each  $z \in \mathbb{C}^n$ , define the matrix  $(h_{ij})(z)$  by

$$h_{ij}(z_1,\ldots,z_n) = h\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i},\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}\right).$$

**Proposition 4.1.12.** Let I be an almost complex structure on  $U \subset X$  and let g be compatible with I. Then  $d\omega = 0$  if and only if for each  $x \in X$ , there exist a neighborhood U' of x and a holomorphic map  $f: U' \to U$  such that  $f^*g$  oscillates the standard metric to the second order, i.e.,  $(h_{ij}) = \operatorname{id} + O(|z|^2)$ .

*Notation.* In this case, we write  $h \approx id$ .

**Definition 4.1.13 (Kähler manifold).** Consider the four-tuple  $(X, I, g, \omega)$ . We say that X is a Kähler manifold if  $d\omega = 0$ . In this case, we call g a Kähler metric on X and  $\omega$  a Kähler form.

**Definition 4.1.14.** Let  $(X, I, g, \omega)$  be a Kähler structure with dim X = n.

- 1. The Lefschetz operator  $L: \bigwedge^k X \to \bigwedge^{k+2} X$  is defined by  $\alpha \mapsto \alpha \wedge \omega$ .
- 2. The Hodge \*-operator \*:  $\bigwedge^k X \to \bigwedge^{2n-k} X$  is defined by the property

$$\alpha \wedge *\beta = \hat{g}(\alpha, \beta) \omega^n$$

where  $\hat{g}$  is induced by g and  $\omega^n$  denotes the (positively oriented) volume form on X.

3. The dual Lefschetz operator  $\Lambda: \bigwedge^k X \to \bigwedge^{k-2} X$  is defined as the composite  $*^{-1} \circ L \circ *$ .

#### Note 4.1.15.

- 1. In coordinates in which  $h \approx id$ , we have that  $*dx^I = dx^\partial$  where  $\partial := I^{\mathbb{C}}$ ??.
- 2.  $\Lambda$  is  $\mathcal{O}$ -linear.

## 4.2 Lecture 12

**Proposition 4.2.1.** Let X be a complex manifold. Let  $\omega$  be a closed real positive-definite form of type (1,1), i.e., locally,  $\omega = \frac{i}{2} \sum h_{ij} d_{z_i} \wedge d\bar{z}_j$  such that the matrix  $(h_{ij}(p))$  is positive-definite for each p. Then there exists a Kähler metric g on X such that  $\omega$  equals the fundamental form of g.

Since every Kähler form is positive-definite, it follows that the set  $\mathbb{K}_X$  of all Kähler forms on X is precisely the set of all closed real positive-definite forms of type (1,1).

**Definition 4.2.2.** Let V be a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$ . A subset  $C \subset V$  is a *convex cone* if  $av_1 + bv_2 \in C$  for any  $v_1, v_2 \in C$  and any  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ .

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**Corollary 4.2.3.** Suppose that X is compact. Then  $\mathbb{K}_X$  is an open convex cone in the infinite-dimensional real vector space  $S := \{ \omega \in \mathcal{A}^{(1,1)}(X) \cap \mathcal{A}^2(X) \mid d\omega = 0 \}.$ 

Idea. The fact that  $\mathbb{K}_X$  is a convex cone follows from the fact that the set of all positive-definite matrices is a convex cone. It remains to show that  $\mathbb{K}_X$  is open. Since X is compact, it has a finite open cover  $\{U_i\}$ . The set  $P_{U_i} \subset S$  of all forms that are positive-definite on  $U_i$  is open. Thus,  $\bigcap_i P_{U_i} = \mathbb{K}_X$  is also open.  $\square$ 

Remark 4.2.4. It turns out that  $S \cong H^2(X, \mathbb{R})$ .

#### Example 4.2.5.

- 1. The form  $\omega \equiv \frac{i}{2}dz \wedge d\bar{z}$  is Kähler on  $\mathbb{C}$  and is exact.
- 2. The same form descends to a Kähler form on the torus  $\mathbb{C}/\Lambda$ , which is not exact.
- 3. Consider the inclusion  $i: X \to Y$  of a closed submanifold. If  $\omega$  is Kähler on Y, then  $i^*\omega$  is Kähler on X.

Note 4.2.6. Let  $f: X \to Y$  be holomorphic and let  $\omega$  be a Kähler form on Y. It is *not* necessarily true that  $f^*\omega$  is Kähler on X. For example, if  $f(x) = \mathsf{pt}$  for all  $x \in X$ , then  $f^*\omega$  is the zero form and thus not positive. In general, f must be injective. For example, if  $f: C \to \mathbb{C}$  is a double cover where C is a Riemann surface, then C inherits a Kähler form only outside the *ramification of* f, i.e., the set

 $\{c \in C \mid \text{there is no neighborhood } U \text{ of } c \text{ such that } f \upharpoonright_U \text{ is injective}\}.$ 

This is precisely the set of points at which df is nonzero.

#### Example 4.2.7.

1. Consider the open cover  $\{U_i\}_{1\leq i\leq n}$  of  $\mathbb{P}^n$  where  $U_i\equiv\{z\in\mathbb{P}^n\mid z_i\neq 0\}$ . Define  $\varphi_i:U_i\stackrel{\cong}{\longrightarrow}\mathbb{C}^n$  by

$$(z_0,\ldots,z_n)\mapsto \underbrace{\left(\frac{z_0}{z_i},\ldots,\frac{z_{i-1}}{z_i},\frac{z_{i+1}}{z_i},\ldots,\frac{z_n}{z_i}\right)}_{(w_1,\ldots,w_n)}.$$

Then  $\{(U_i, \varphi_i)\}$  is a holomorphic atlas on  $\mathbb{P}^n$ . For each i, let

$$\omega_i = \frac{i}{2\pi} \partial \bar{\partial} \log \left( \sum_{l=0}^n \left| \frac{z_l}{z_i} \right|^2 \right).$$

By way of  $\varphi_i$ , this becomes

$$\frac{i}{2\pi}\partial\bar{\partial}\log\left(1+\sum_{k=1}^n|w_k|^2\right).$$

**Exercise 4.2.8.** Show that  $\omega_i \upharpoonright_{U_i \cap U_j} = \omega_j \upharpoonright_{U_i \cap U_j}$ .

Therefore, the  $\omega_i$  patch together to form a metric  $\omega$  on  $\mathbb{P}^n$ , known as the Fubini-Study metric.

**Exercise 4.2.9.** Show that  $\omega$  is closed, real, positive, and of type (1,1).

It follows that  $\omega$  is a Kähler metric.

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2. Any branched cover of  $\mathbb{P}^n$  admits a Kähler metric (which must be different from the pullback of a Kähler metric on  $\mathbb{P}^n$ ). For example, consider an elliptic curve  $E \to \mathbb{P}^1$ , which fits into a commutative square

$$E \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^1$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow \qquad \vdots$$

$$E \longleftarrow \mathbb{P}^2$$

**Definition 4.2.10.** A complex manifold is *projective* if it is isomorphic to a closed submanifold of projective space.

Proposition 4.2.11. Any projective complex manifold is Kähler.

*Proof.* This follows from Example 4.2.5(3) together with Example 4.2.7(1).

**Definition 4.2.12.** Let X be a complex manifold. Let D be a first-order operator on  $\mathcal{A}^*(X)$ .

1. The adjoint of D is

$$D^* \equiv -* \circ D \circ *$$

2. The Laplacian associated to D is

$$\Delta_D \equiv DD^* + D^*D.$$

**Definition 4.2.13.** The Laplace operator is  $\Delta \equiv dd^* + d^*d$ .

Example 4.2.14.

1. Let 
$$D = \partial$$
. Then  $\partial^* (f_{IJ} dz^I \wedge dz^J) = \sum_{i \in I} f_{IJ} dz^{I-i} \wedge d\bar{z}^J$ .

2. Let D = d. Let  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  be local coordinates on X. Then

$$d(fdx^{I}) = \sum_{i \notin I} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}} dx^{n} \wedge dx^{I}$$
$$d^{*}(fdx^{I}) = \sum_{i \in I} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}} dx^{I-i}.$$

Therefore,

$$d \circ d^* \left( f dx^I \right) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} dx^{I - i \cup j}$$
$$= \sum_{\substack{i \in I \\ j \notin I}} \dots + \sum_{\substack{i = j \in I}} \dots .$$
$$d^* \circ d \left( f dx^I \right) = 0 + \sum_{\substack{i = j \notin I}} \dots ,$$

so that 
$$\Delta_D = \sum \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i^2}$$
.

**Theorem 4.2.15 (Kähler identities).** Let  $(X, I, g, \omega)$  be a Kähler manifold.

1. 
$$\left[\bar{\partial}, L\right] = 0 = \left[\partial, L\right].$$

2. 
$$[\partial^*, \Lambda] = 0 = [\bar{\partial}^*, \Lambda].$$

3. 
$$[\bar{\partial}^*, L] = i\partial$$
 and  $[\partial^*, L] = -i\bar{\partial}$ .

4. 
$$\Delta_{\partial} = \Delta_{\bar{\partial}} = \frac{1}{2}\Delta$$
, and  $\Delta$  commutes with  $*$ ,  $\partial$ ,  $\bar{\partial}$ ,  $\partial^*$ ,  $\bar{\partial}^*$ ,  $L$ , and  $\Lambda$ .

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## 5 Lie algebras

Let G be any Lie group. For any  $g \in G$ ,  $\ell_g : G \to G$  is an isomorphism of  $\mathbb{C}$ -manifolds. Thus, if V is a vector field on G, then so is  $(\ell_g)_* V$ .

**Definition 5.0.1.** We say that V is *left-invariant* if  $(\ell_q)_*V = V$  for every  $g \in G$ .

**Definition 5.0.2 (Lie algebra).** The *Lie algebra*  $\mathfrak{G}_G$  of G is the space of left-invariant vector fields on G under the Lie bracket.

Consider the commutative diagram

$$\mathfrak{G}_{G} \xrightarrow{\alpha} (\mathscr{X}(G), [-, -])$$

$$\downarrow^{\text{eval}_{1}} .$$

$$T_{1}(G)$$

**Proposition 5.0.3.**  $\alpha$  is an isomorphism of vector spaces.

**Example 5.0.4.** Let  $G = \mathrm{GL}(n,\mathbb{C})$ , which is a complex Lie group. We have that  $\mathrm{GL}(n,\mathbb{C})$  is an open submanifold of the vector space  $M_n(\mathbb{C})$ . Hence  $\mathfrak{G}_G$  is isomorphic to  $M_n(\mathbb{C})$  under the *commutator bracket*, which is given by [A, B] = AB - BA.

**Definition 5.0.5 (Matrix exponential).** Define the map  $e^{(\cdot)}: M_n(\mathbb{C}) \to \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{C})$  by

$$e^A = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^n}{n!}.$$

This is well-defined. Indeed, letting  $\|\cdot\|$  denote the operator norm, we see that  $\frac{\|A^n\|}{n!} \leq \frac{\|A\|^n}{n!}$  on any bounded subset  $S \subset \mathbb{C}^n$ . But  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\|A\|^n}{n!} = e^{\|A\|}$  on S, and thus  $e^A$  converges uniformly on S. Moreover, one can show that its limit must be invertible.

**Exercise 5.0.6.** Let  $G = \mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{C})$ , which is complex Lie group. Show that

$$\mathfrak{G}_{G} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2}\left(\mathbb{C}\right) \mid a+d=0 \right\}.$$

Proof. Any element X of  $\mathfrak{G}_G$  generates a local flow  $\theta:D\subset\mathbb{R}\times G\to G$ . Since X is left-invariant, it is complete. In particular, the maximal integral curve  $\theta^1$  is defined on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Left-invariance also implies that for any  $s\in\mathbb{R}$ ,  $L_{\theta^1(s)}\circ\theta^1$  is an integral curve starting at  $\theta^1(s)$ . But the curve given by  $t\mapsto\theta^1(s+t)$  is also an integral curve starting at  $\theta^1(s)$ . Hence  $\theta^1(s+t)=\theta^1(s)\theta^1(s)$ . By the uniqueness of maximal integral curves, this proves that  $\theta^1(s)$  is a smooth group homomorphism  $\mathbb{R}\to G$ , known as a one-parameter subgroup of G. Moreover, any one-parameter subgroup  $\gamma$  of G has the form  $\gamma(t)=e^{tA}$  where  $A=\gamma'(0)\in T_1(G)\subset T_1(GL_2(\mathbb{C}))\cong M_2(\mathbb{C})$ . It follows that

$$X \in T_1(G) \iff \forall t \in \mathbb{R}, \ e^{tX} \in G$$

$$\iff \forall t \in \mathbb{R}, \ \det\left(e^{tX}\right) = 1$$

$$\iff \forall t \in \mathbb{R}, \ e^{t\operatorname{tr}(X)} = 1$$

$$\iff \forall t \in \mathbb{R}, \ t\operatorname{tr}(X) = 0$$

$$\iff \operatorname{tr}(X) = 0.$$

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Intuitively, Theorem 4.2.15 means that the space  $\mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X)$  has a symmetry encoded in the  $\mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{C})$ -action.

## **5.1** Lecture 13

**Definition 5.1.1.** Let V be a vector space endowed with a non-degenerate symmetric bilinear form  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ . The *orthogonal group*  $O(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$  is the group of all linear maps  $f: V \to V$  such that  $\langle fx, fy \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$  for any  $x, y \in V$ .

**Example 5.1.2.** Consider the Lie group  $G := O(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . Define the smooth map  $\varphi : GL_n(\mathbb{R}) \to GL_n(\mathbb{R})$  by  $A \mapsto AA^t$ , which as constant rank. Then  $G = \varphi^{-1}(I_n)$ , so that  $T_{I_n}G = \ker d\varphi_{I_n}$ . Since  $d\varphi_{I_n}(A) = A^t + A$  for any  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ , it follows that  $\mathfrak{G}_G$  consists of all  $n \times n$  skew-symmetric matrices.

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