Sheaf theory

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## Chapter 1

## The statement of de Rham's theorem

Before doing anything fancy, let's start at the beginning. Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  be an open set. In calculus class, we learn about operations

$$\{\text{functions}\} \xrightarrow{\quad \nabla} \{\text{vector fields}\} \xrightarrow{\quad \nabla \times} \{\text{vector fields}\} \xrightarrow{\quad \nabla \cdot} \{\text{functions}\}$$

such that  $(\nabla \times)(\nabla) = 0$  and  $(\nabla \cdot)(\nabla \times) = 0$ . This is the prototype of a *complex*. An obvious question: does  $\nabla \times v = 0$  imply that v is gradient? Answer: sometimes yes (e.g. if  $U = \mathbb{R}^3$ ) and sometimes no (e.g. if  $U = \mathbb{R}^3$  minus a line). To quantify the failure introduce the first de Rham cohomology

$$H^1_{dR}(U) = \frac{\{v \text{ a vector field on } U \mid \nabla \times v = 0\}}{\{\nabla f\}}$$

Contrary to first appearances, for reasonable U this is finite dimensional and computable. This follows from de Rham's theorem, which we now explain. First, let's generalize this to an open set  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . Once n > 3 vector calculus is useless, but there is a good replacement. A differential form of degree p, or p-form, is an expression

$$\alpha = \sum f_{i_1, \dots i_p}(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_p}$$

such that the  $x_i$  are coordinates, the f's are  $C^{\infty}$  functions,  $dx_i \wedge \ldots$  are symbols where  $\wedge$  is an anticommutative product. Let  $\mathcal{E}^p(U)$  denote the vector space of p-forms. Define the exterior derivative by

$$d\alpha = \sum \sum_{i} \frac{\partial f_{i_1, \dots i_p}}{\partial x_j} dx_j \wedge dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_p}$$

This is a p + 1-form.

**Lemma 1.0.1.**  $d^2 = 0$ 

Proof for p = 0.

$$df = \sum_{i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}} dx_{i}$$
 
$$d(df) = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{i}} dx_{j} \wedge dx_{i}$$

Using anticommutivity, we can rewrite this as

$$\sum_{j < i} \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} - \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \right) dx_j \wedge dx_i = 0$$

A (cochain) complex is a collection of abelian groups  $M^i$  and homomorphisms  $d:M^i\to M^{i+1}$  such that  $d^2=0$ . We define the pth cohomology of this by

$$H^p(M^{\bullet},d) = \frac{\ker d: M^p \to M^{p+1}}{\operatorname{im} d: M^{p-1} \to M^p}$$

So we have an example of a complex  $(\mathcal{E}^{\bullet}(U), d)$  called the de Rham complex of U. It's cohomology is the de Rham cohomology  $H^p_{dR}(U) = H^p(\mathcal{E}^{\bullet}(U), d)$ . Here is a basic computation.

Theorem 1.0.2 (Poincaré's lemma).

$$H_{dR}^{p}(\mathbb{R}^{n}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{R} & if \ p = 0 \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

Proof for  $n \leq 2$ . We first treat the case n=1. Clearly  $H^0_{dR}(\mathbb{R})$  consists of constant functions. If  $\alpha = f(x)dx$ , then  $d(\int_0^x f(x)dx) = \alpha$ . There are no p-forms for p>1.

Next we treat n=2 which is contains all the ideas of the general case. Let x,y be the coordinates. We define some operators

$$\mathcal{E}^{\bullet}(\mathbb{R}^2) \xrightarrow[\pi^*]{s^*} \mathcal{E}^{\bullet}(\mathbb{R})$$

 $\pi^*$  is pullback along the projection  $\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ . It takes a form in x and treats it as a form in x,y. The pullback along the zero section  $s^*$  sets y and dy to zero. Note that  $s^* \circ \pi^*$  is the identity. Although  $\pi^* \circ s^*$  is not the identity, we will show that it induces the identity on cohomology. This will show that  $H^*_{dR}(\mathbb{R}^2) \cong H^*_{dR}(\mathbb{R})$ , which is all we need. This involves a new concept. We

introduce an operator  $H: \mathcal{E}^p(\mathbb{R}^2) \to \mathcal{E}^{p-1}(\mathbb{R}^2)$  of degree -1 called a homotopy. It integrates y as follows:

$$H(f(x,y)) = 0$$

$$H(f(x,y)dx) = 0$$

$$H(f(x,y)dy) = \int_0^y f(x,y)dy$$

$$H(f(x,y)dx \wedge dy) = (\int_0^y f(x,y)dy)dx$$

A computation using nothing more than the fundamental theorem of calculus shows that

$$1 - \pi^* s^* = \pm (Hd - dH)$$

This implies the left side induces 0 on  $H^*_{dR}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ , or equivalently that  $\pi^* \circ s^*$  acts like the identity.

Before describing de Rham's theorem, we have to say what's happening at the other end. The standard n dimensional simplex, or n-simplex,  $\Delta^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  is the convex hull of the unit vectors  $(1,0,\ldots,0),(0,1,\ldots),\ldots$  The convex hull of a subset of these is called a face. This is homeomorphic to a simplex of smaller dimension. Omitting all but the ith vertex is called the ith face of  $\Delta^n$ . We have a standard homeomorphism

$$\delta_i:\Delta^{n-1}\to i$$
th face of  $\Delta^n$ 

A geometric simplicial complex is given by a collection of simplices glued along faces. Historically, the first (co)homology theory was defined for simplical complexes. A bit later singular cohomology was developed, which is a bit more flexible and convenient for our purposes. Here we start with an arbitrary topological space X. A (real, complex) singular p-cochain  $\alpha$  is an integer (real, complex) valued function on the set of all continuous maps  $f: \Delta^p \to X$ . It might help to think of  $\alpha(f)$  as a combinatorial integral  $\int_f \alpha$ . Let  $S^p(X)$  ( $S^p(X, \mathbb{R}), S^p(X, \mathbb{C})$ ) denote the group of these cochains. Define  $\delta: S^p(X) \to S^{p+1}(X)$  by

$$\delta(\alpha)(f) = \sum (-1)^i \alpha(f \circ \delta_i)$$

**Lemma 1.0.3.**  $\delta^2 = 0$ 

Proof for p = 0. Let  $\alpha \in S^0$ . Fix  $f : \Delta^2 \to X$ . Label the restriction of f to the vertices by 0, 1, 2 and faces 01, 02, 12. Then

$$\delta^{2}(f) = \delta\alpha(12) - \delta\alpha(02) + \delta\alpha(01)$$
$$= \alpha(1) - \alpha(2) - \alpha(0) + \alpha(2) + \alpha(0) - \alpha(1) = 0$$

Thus we have a complex. Singular cohomology is defined by  $H^p(X,\mathbb{Z}) = H^p(S^{\bullet}(X),\delta)$ , and similarly for real or complex valued singular cohomology. These groups are highly computable.

**Theorem 1.0.4** (de Rham). If  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is open, or more generally a manifold, then  $H^p_{dR}(X,\mathbb{R}) \cong H^p(X,\mathbb{R})$  for all p.

We will give a proof of this later on as an easy application of sheaf theory. Sheaf methods will help obtain parallel theorems

**Theorem 1.0.5** (Holomorphic de Rham). If  $X \subset \mathbb{C}^n$  is a complex manifold, then  $H^p(X,\mathbb{C})$  can be computed using holomorphic differential forms.

**Theorem 1.0.6** (Algebraic de Rham). If  $X \subset \mathbb{C}^n$  is a nonsingular algebraic variety, then  $H^p(X,\mathbb{C})$  can be computed using algebraic differential forms.

The last theorem is due to Grothendieck. The proof is a lot harder, so we"ll try to give the proof by the end of the semester but there's no guarantee.