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math

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# 1. basic math

## 1.1 tensor product

**Definition** (Tensor product by [Vak25]) If  $V$  and  $W$  are  $R$ -modules and  $R$  is a ring, I think of the *tensor product* as

$$V \otimes W := \left\{ \sum_{\text{finite}} \lambda_i (v \otimes w)_i, v \in V, w \in W \right\} / \begin{array}{l} v \otimes (w_1 + w_2) \sim v \otimes w_1 + v \otimes w_2 \\ (v_1 + v_2) \otimes w \sim (v_1 \otimes w) + (v_2 \otimes w) \\ \lambda(v \otimes w) \sim (\lambda v) \otimes w \sim v \otimes (\lambda w) \end{array}$$

More formally, the free  $R$ -module generated by  $V \times W$  (we say this so that things of the kind  $\lambda(v, w)$  make sense) quotiented by the ideal generated by these guys:

$$\begin{aligned} (v, w_1 + w_2) - (v, w_1) - (v, w_2), \\ (v_1 + v_2, w) - (v_1, w) - (v_2, w), \\ (\lambda v, w) - \lambda(v, w), \\ (v, \lambda w) - \lambda(v, w) \end{aligned}$$

So that we denote the projection of  $(v, w)$  by  $v \otimes w$ . Also never forget that the product was defined when you have a product and Vakil has a product...

**and I have a product...** (Universal property of product) It's actually nice to recall that any two objects satisfying the "every map of such kind factors through a map involving the product"-property, you can construct an isomorphism between them. So the only thing satisfying the product property is the product.

And of course you must understand the construction of tensor product using universal property. Suppose you have a tensor product...

**Remark** Maybe when I think of span of some set of symbols I mean the free  $R$ -module generated by the (as many symbols I need)-th product of the place where the symbols live, quotiented by the obvious linearity relations.

**Remark** The difference between tensor product and cartesian product is that the latter is not bilinear in addition and scalar multiplication, look:

$$\begin{aligned}(v_1, w_1) + (v_2, w_2) &= (v_1 + v_2, w_1 + w_2), \\ \lambda(v, w) &= (\lambda v, \lambda w)\end{aligned}$$

**14.3.6, [Vak25] (Tensor algebra constructions)** Let  $M$  be an  $A$ -module. The *tensor algebra*  $T^\bullet(M)$  is just (the direct sum, probably) of  $T^0(M) := A$ ,  $T^n(M) := \underbrace{M \otimes_A \dots \otimes_A M}_{n \text{ times}}$ .

The *symmetric algebra*  $\text{Sym}^\bullet(M)$  is the quotient of  $T^\bullet(M)$  by the (two-sided) ideal generated by all the elements of the form  $x \otimes y - y \otimes x$ . So,

$$\text{Sym}^n(M) = M \otimes \dots \otimes M / m_1 \otimes \dots \otimes m_n - m'_1 \otimes \dots \otimes m'_n$$

where  $(m'_1, \dots, m'_n)$  is a rearrangement of  $(m_1, \dots, m_n)$ .

Finally the *exterior algebra*  $\Lambda^\bullet(M)$  is defined to be the quotient of  $T^\bullet M$  by the (two-sided) ideal generated by all the elements of the form  $x \otimes x$  for all  $x \in M$ . Which implies that  $a \otimes b = -b \otimes a$  (Pf. do  $(a + b) \otimes (a + b)$ , but only if  $\text{char} \neq 2$  right?) Apparently this gives you that

$$\Lambda^n M = \text{quotient of } n \text{ sé que with a permutation}$$

Anyway I can finally say that if  $\mathcal{F}$  is a locally free rank- $m$  sheaf, I can define  $T^n \mathcal{F}$ ,  $\text{Sym}^n \mathcal{F}$  and  $\Lambda^n \mathcal{F}$ , that will be locally free (exercise, and find their ranks, exercise). And just to conclude for today, the *determinant (line) bundle* is  $\Lambda^{\text{rk} \mathcal{F}} \mathcal{F} := \det \mathcal{F}$ .

So why all this. Because adjunction formula gives you that the canonical bundle of the submanifold is  $K_{\text{ambient mfd}} \otimes_{\mathbb{C}} \det \mathcal{N}$  where  $\mathcal{N}$  is the normal bundle of the submanifold which is the cokernel sheaf/bundle of the inclusion. So that's that.

**Plücker embedding** It's a way to put Grassman inside a projective space:

$$\text{Gr}(V, k) \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P} \Lambda^k V = \text{Gr}(\Lambda^k V, 1)$$

evidently given by

$$\text{basis } e_1, \dots, e_k \text{ of } U \in \text{Gr}(V, k) \longmapsto \text{span}\{e_1 \wedge \dots \wedge e_k\}$$

## 1.2 sheaves

$\mathfrak{m}_x \subset C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$  is the ideal of smooth functions vanishing at  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . In [Har77a] definition of *local ring of  $P$  in  $Y$* , which is the ring of germs of regular functions of the variety  $Y$  at the point  $P$ , that it is a local ring with maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$ , the set of germs of regular functions which vanish at  $P$ . The residue field is  $k$ .

**Exercise** Show that indeed  $\mathfrak{m}_x$ , the ideal of functions vanishing at  $x$ , is maximal.

*Solution.* Suppose that  $\mathfrak{n} \supseteq \mathfrak{m}_x$  is another ideal contained in  $\mathcal{O}_{X,x}$ . If  $[f] \in \mathfrak{n}$  does not vanish at  $x$ , then we can do  $[1/f]$  very near  $x$ , giving  $[f][1/f] \in \mathfrak{n}$ , so that  $\mathfrak{n} = \mathcal{O}_{X,x}$ . And if all  $[f] \in \mathfrak{n}$  vanish at  $x$ , we get  $\mathfrak{n} = \mathfrak{m}_x$ .  $\square$

**Little discussion with GPT** In differential geometry we have the sheaf  $\mathcal{F}$  of smooth functions. That's like the scalars of some other structure that we build over it: the tangent sheaf, which is defined as derivations on  $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{U})$ . Remember that for any sheaf  $\mathcal{F}$ , the elements of  $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{U})$  are called sections. Yes, the sections of the tangent bundle are vector fields.

(The proof that  $\mathcal{T}_M$ , the tangent sheaf, is a locally free  $\mathcal{F}$ -module (and thus a vector bundle) is just showing that  $\partial_i$  are basis of  $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{U})$ .)

The **tangent bundle**  $TM$  of a smooth manifold  $M$  is a vector bundle whose dual, the **cotangent bundle**  $T^*M$ , is locally generated by differentials  $dx^i$ .

In algebraic geometry, we have an analogous structure:

- The **structure sheaf**  $\mathcal{O}_X$  assigns to each open set  $\mathcal{U} \subseteq X$  the ring of regular functions on  $\mathcal{U}$ .
- The **sheaf of Kähler differentials**  $\Omega_X^1$  is the analogue of the cotangent bundle: it is an  $\mathcal{O}_X$ -module generated by formal differentials  $df$ .
- The **tangent sheaf**  $\mathcal{T}_X$  is the dual of  $\Omega_X^1$ , i.e.,

$$\mathcal{T}_X := \mathcal{H}om_{\mathcal{O}_X}(\Omega_X^1, \mathcal{O}_X),$$

and it corresponds to derivations of the structure sheaf:

$$\mathcal{T}_X(\mathcal{U}) = \text{Der}_{\mathbb{K}}(\mathcal{O}_X(\mathcal{U}), \mathcal{O}_X(\mathcal{U})).$$

- These sheaves are **quasicoherent sheaves**, which generalize vector bundles to the algebraic setting.

So, quasicoherent sheaves play the role of vector bundles in algebraic geometry, and in particular,  $\mathcal{T}_X$  is the algebraic analogue of the tangent bundle.



## 2. dg differential geometry

### 2.1 slice charts and what is ag

At some point [GH78] defines *analytic subvariety* of a complex manifold to be  $V \subset M$  such that  $\forall p \in V$  there is a neighbourhood of  $M$  containing  $p$  where  $V$  looks like the zeros of a single holomorphic function. So that reminds us of:

**Theorem (Slice charts for immersion, [Lee12])** Suppose  $F : M \rightarrow N$  is an immersion. Then there are charts  $(\varphi, U), (\psi, V)$  such that

$$(\psi \circ F \circ \varphi^{-1})(\vec{x}) = (x_1, \dots, x_m, 0, \dots, 0)$$

*Proof.* Just to record that the proof is not *just inverse function theorem*. You do this: pick any random charts  $(\bar{\varphi}, \bar{U})$  and  $(\bar{\psi}, \bar{V})$  and consider the Jacobian matrix of  $\hat{F} = \bar{\psi} \circ F \circ \bar{\varphi}^{-1}$ . It must have a nonsingular submatrix of rank  $m$  (or of rank  $r$  if you go full constant rank theorem, but that would need some other manipulations...). Then you do:

1. Reorder the coordinates of the random charts we picked so that the  $\hat{F}$  looks like

$$\hat{F} = (Q, R)$$

so that  $dQ$  is nonsingular in the new chart. So you use inverse function theorem to put  $Q$  as a nice local diffeomorphism i.e. a chart. But you are not done:

2. Figure out how to turn  $Q$  into the identity.
3. Figure out how to turn  $R$  into zero.

And all that is some manipulations that you'd have to do if you had to teach a course on smooth manifolds, or doing such course (but at this point of the adventure most likely I won't be doing this course right?).

□

## 2.2 super technical: how to show vector fields are smooth

Sometimes we need to show something is smooth and we just say well, everything is smooth so the new thing is also smooth. Here's the formal way to show smoothness for vector fields:

**Proposition 8.14 ([Lee12])** A rough vector field  $X : \rightarrow TM$  is smooth iff  $Xf$  is smooth for every  $f \in C^\infty(M)$ .

## 2.3 why I can't understand riemannian geometry

Unrelated to complex geometry but a breakthrough in my long-standing philosophical search to understand why I can't understand riemannian geometry.

**Definition 7.14 ([Tu17])** Let  $E$  and  $F$  be vector bundles over a manifold  $M$ . An  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear map  $T : \Gamma(E) \rightarrow \Gamma(F)$  is a **point operator** if whenever two sections  $s, s' \in \Gamma(E)$  coincide at a point  $p$  in  $M$ ,  $T(s)$  and  $T(s')$  also coincide at  $p$ . So:

$$\forall s \in \Gamma(E) \text{ and } \forall p \in M, \quad s_p = s'_p \implies T(s)_p = T(s')_p$$

and actually (...exercise) that's equivalent to being a  $\mathcal{F}(M)$  linear map, i.e. a **tensor**.

$T$  is called a **local operator** if whenever two sections coincide in an open set  $U$ , so do  $T(s)$  and  $T(s')$  in that open set.

**What** Tensors let you do linear algebra globally, and local operators are derivations. Remember that you can take  $F$  to be trivial rank-1 vector bundle and you get  $\Gamma(F) = \text{functions}$  so here's all the riemannian geometry.

**Exercise** Point operator iff  $\mathcal{F}(M)$ -linear.

*Solution.* ( $\implies$ ) You pick a local trivialization of  $E$ , so that  $s = \sum s^i e_i$ , and then  $T(\sum s^i e_i) = \sum s^i T(e_i)$  but since  $s_p = 0$ , you know that  $s^i = 0$  for all  $i$ . (**Rk.** you have secretly used that point operator  $\implies$  local operator, see [Tu17].)

( $\impliedby$ ) You wish that  $T(fs) - fT(s)$  is the zero section of  $\Gamma(F)$  i.e. that gives the zero vector at all  $p$ . Fix  $p$ . Define  $s' := fs - f(p)s$ . Gives zero at  $p$ . So,  $T(s')_p = 0$ . Then

$$0 = T(s')_p = T(fs - f(p)s)_p = T(fs)_p - f(p)T(s)_p = (T(fs) - fT(s))_p.$$

□

**Superpower** Now you can define tensors pointwise.

**Opinion** we should work with bundles

## 2.4 $dx^i dx^j$ finally explained

The question is why is  $dx^i \otimes dx^j$  not defined as an element of any tensor product of vector spaces. But that's OK because it is: it's an element of  $T_p^*M \otimes T_p^*M$ . But why is not defined like that.

It's defined as the bilinear map  $T_p M \times T_p M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, (v, w) \mapsto dx^i(v) dx^j(w)$ . And what that has to do with  $T_p^*M \otimes T_p^*M$ . That by the universal product of tensor product any bilinear map  $T_p M \times T_p M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  factors uniquely through a map  $T_p M \otimes T_p M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , i.e. an element of  $\text{Hom}(T_p M \otimes T_p M, \mathbb{R})$ . And you probably can prove that  $\text{Hom}(T_p M \otimes T_p M, \mathbb{R}) \cong \text{Hom}(T_p M, \mathbb{R}) \otimes \text{Hom}(T_p M, \mathbb{R}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} T_p^*M \otimes T_p^*M$ .

So: there's a unique guy in the tensor product  $T_p^*M \otimes T_p^*M$  that corresponds to " $dx^i \otimes dx^j$ " defined as a bilinear map  $T_p M \otimes T_p M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, (v, w) \mapsto dx^i(v) dx^j(w)$ .

And to conclude you just *denote* the symmetrization of  $dx^i \otimes dx^j$ , which was previously defined by  $\text{Sym}(dx^i \otimes dx^j) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{2}(dx^i \otimes dx^j + dx^j \otimes dx^i)$ , by the symbol  $dx^i dx^j$ . And to conclude more **you would prove** that those guys are a basis for  $\text{Sym}^2 T_p^*M \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (T_p^*M \otimes T_p^*M) / \langle x \otimes y - y \otimes x \rangle$ . To conclude further bundlize this construction to get  $\text{Sym}^2 T^*M$ , whose positive-definite sections are the metrics of  $M$ .

**Trip** what if that bundle is trivial? You get a global basis for the metric. GPT says:  $\text{Sym}^2 T^*M$  is trivial iff  $TM$  is. So in general you don't get global functions  $g_{ij}$  and you compute them locally every time.

## 2.5 trace

**Proposition 12.10 ([Lee12])** If  $V_1, \dots, V_k$  are finite-dimensional vector spaces, there is a canonical isomorphism

$$V_1^* \otimes \dots \otimes V_k^* \cong \text{Hom}(V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k; \mathbb{R})$$

*Proof.* You define a bilinear map from  $V_1^* \times \dots \times V_k^* \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that corresponds with the map you want by universal property of tensor product.  $\square$

**Corollary 12.12 ([Lee12])** The canonical basis of the tensor product (I wanted this to show that  $dx^i$  are a basis of  $V^* \otimes V^*$ ) is given by the last proposition.

Anyway the point of contractions is understanding trace. **Trace of an endomorphism**  $T \in \text{End}(V)$  is just

$$\sum_i \langle T e_i, e_i \rangle, \quad \{e_i\} \text{ orthonormal frame}$$

when you have an inner product right? So I showed this is independent of the choice of orthonormal frame. But further, GPT claims this is in fact independent of having a metric and it's actually just the sum of the diagonal entries in any base. So you just need finite dimensional  $V$  and no metric.

And probably I'm not the only guy who ended up reading about trace just because he wanted to understand Ricci. *Ricci* tensor is the trace of the endomorphism  $R$  when you fix the last two entries and act on the first one. That's it

## 2.6 raising and lowering indices

$$g(X, Y) = g(X^i E_i, Y^j \partial_j) = g_{ij} \varepsilon^i \varepsilon^j (X^j E_k, Y^\ell E_\ell) = g_{ij} X^i Y^j$$

Define

$$X^\flat := X_i \varepsilon^i$$

who's  $X_i$ ? The point of  $\flat$  is that

$$X^\flat = g_{ij} X^i \varepsilon^j$$

(so that you can still eat a vector on the other entry of the metric). So you see

$$X_i = g_{ji} X^j$$

The inverse of the metric matrix exists and is

$$g^{ij} g_{jk} = \delta_k^i$$

Now define

$$\omega^\sharp := \omega^i E_i$$

so the point is

$$\omega^\sharp = g^{ij} \omega_i E_j$$

(but what that means?  $\omega$  is a form, give you a vector, it's the inverse of the canonical isomorphism). So you see

$$\omega^i = g^{ji} \omega_j$$

## 2.7 never forget how to extend riemannian metric to other bundles

You pick an orthonormal base  $e_i$  of the tangent space and declare that the metric on forms will be the only one that makes the dual base  $\varepsilon_i$  orthonormal. And you check this is well defined. And then you do that for other vector bundles... hmm maybe take one or two more minutes to make sure this is right

## 2.8 the pullback bundle and the pullback connection aka all I know

This is how the pullback connection was born in [\[Flo25\]](#) (and also in [\[DFJ19\]](#) with the caveat that they are using isometric immersions only):

**Proposition (Everything I know about connections)** Let  $\nabla$  be a (linear) connection on a vector bundle  $E$  over  $M$ . Then, for every  $f : M \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$  there exists a unique connection

$$\nabla^f : \mathfrak{X}(\widetilde{M}) \times \Gamma(f^*E) \longrightarrow \Gamma(f^*E)$$

on  $f^*E$  such that

$$\nabla_Y^f(\xi \circ f) = \nabla_{f_*Y}\xi$$

for all  $Y \in \mathfrak{X}(\widetilde{M})$  and  $\xi \in \Gamma(E)$ .

*Proof.* Let me skip the details for now but: suppose it exists. Look how it behaves locally and show uniqueness, meaning that if you had any other connection satisfying the “all I know” property, they are the same. Then you prove (exercise) that it is indeed a connection. Then you recall that connections are local operators. This somehow shows you that this local uniqueness implies that the connection, if it existed, is globally unique. And you conclude by noticing that yes, you can glue the pieces together to produce a global thing, so the connection does exist.  $\square$

Now let’s do [MS74]. Define *connection* on a bundle  $\zeta$  as a  $\mathbb{C}$ -linear map

$$\nabla : \Gamma(\zeta) \longrightarrow \Gamma(\tau_{\mathbb{C}}^* \otimes \zeta)$$

satisfying *Leibniz formula*

$$\nabla(fs) = df \otimes s + f\nabla(s)$$

for every  $s \in \Gamma(\zeta)$  and every  $f \in C^\infty(M, \mathbb{C})$ .

Right so this definition implies that it’s a local operator. In the sense already explained in the section of why I can’t understand riemannian geometry. Namely: a local operator of sections of a bundle to sections of another bundle is called *local* if the output section doesn’t care about what happens far away. yes, if you take a section and an open set and say well what’s the output of this section under the local operator evaluated in this open set and you realise well the output section evaluated at the open set is *completely determined by who is the input section in the open set*.

“if the section  $s$  vanishes throughout an open set  $U \subset M$  then  $\nabla s$  vanishes throughout  $U$  also. For given  $x \in U$  we can choose a smooth function  $f$  which vanishes outside  $U$  and is identically 1 near  $x$ . The identity

$$df \otimes s + f\nabla s = \nabla(fs) = 0$$

evaluated at  $x$ , shows that  $\nabla s$  vanishes at  $x$ .”

“Since a connection  $\nabla$  is a local operator, it makes sense to talk about the restriction of  $\nabla$  to an open subset of  $M$ . If a collection of open sets  $U_\alpha$  covers  $M$ , then a global connection is uniquely determined by its restrictions to the various  $U_\alpha$ ”

Then we notice that for any smooth map  $f : M \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$  we can pull back functions by precomposing them, and also 1-forms by pullback of 1-forms.

## 2.9 the hardest computation of my life so far

Let  $f : M \rightarrow \tilde{M}$  be a map of manifolds and  $p \in \tilde{M}$ . Recall that the differential of  $f$  at  $p$  is a map

$$\begin{aligned} f_{*,p} : T_p M &\longrightarrow T_p M \\ X(p) &\longmapsto f_{*,p} X_p \end{aligned}$$

defined by

$$(f_{*,p} X_p)g := X_p(g \circ f)$$

for all  $g \in \mathcal{F}(\tilde{M})$ .

Then we have a tensor

$$f_* : \mathfrak{X}(M) \longrightarrow \mathfrak{X}_f$$

that maps a vector field of  $M$  to a section of the pullback bundle  $f^*T\tilde{M}$  that at every point of  $M$  gives you the vector of  $\tilde{M}$  just defined as  $f_{*,p} X_p$ .

There is an exercise that says that the vector fields  $\partial_i$  defined as doing  $\partial_i x^j = \delta_i^j$  are a local basis of sections of  $T\tilde{M}$ . But then they are not sections of  $f^*T\tilde{M}$  right so to get sections of pullback bundle you need to put

$$f_* X = X^i (\partial_i \circ f).$$

The question arises:

who is  $X^i$ ?

The answer reads: on one hand,

$$(f_* X)_{f(p)}(x^j) = (X^i \partial_i)_{f(p)}(x^j) = X^i(f(p))(\partial_i)_{f(p)} x^j = X^j(f(p))$$

and on the other hand, by definition of differential

$$(f_* X)_{f(p)}(x^j) = X_p(x^j \circ f) = X_p(f^j)$$

where we denote  $f^j = x^j \circ f$  the coordinate functions of  $f$ . So we conclude, for once and for all, that

$$X_{f(p)}(f^j) = X^j(f(p))$$

So we can write

$$f_* X = X(f^i) \partial_i \circ f.$$

## 2.10 pullback of torsion

**Exercise** Mostre que  $T_{\nabla f} = f^*T$ .

*Solution.*

$$\begin{aligned}
T_{\nabla^f}(X, Y) &= \nabla_X^f f_* Y - \nabla_Y^f f_* X - f_*[X, Y] \\
&= \nabla_X^f Y(f^i)(\partial_i \circ f) - \nabla_Y^f X(f^j)(\partial_j \circ f) - f_*[X, Y] \\
&= X(Yf^i)(\partial_i \circ f) + Y(f^i)\nabla_X^f(\partial_i \circ f) - Y(Xf^j)(\partial_j \circ f) - Xf^j\nabla_Y^f(\partial_j \circ f) - f_*(XY - YX) \\
&= \left(X(Yf^i) - Y(Xf^i)\right)(\partial_i \circ f) + Yf^i\nabla_X^f(\partial_i \circ f) - Xf^j\nabla_Y^f(\partial_j \circ f) - (XY - YX)f^i(\partial_i \circ f) \\
&= Yf^i\nabla_{f_*X}\partial_i - Xf^j\nabla_{f_*Y}\partial_j \\
&= Yf^iXf^k\nabla_{\partial_k}\partial_i - Xf^jYf^l\nabla_{\partial_l}\partial_j \\
&= Yf^iXf^k\nabla_{\partial_k}\partial_i - Xf^kYf^i\nabla_{\partial_i}\partial_k \\
&= Yf^iXf^k(\nabla_{\partial_k}\partial_i - \nabla_{\partial_i}\partial_k) \\
&= Yf^iXf^k(\nabla_{\partial_k}\partial_i - \nabla_{\partial_i}\partial_k - [\partial_k, \partial_i]) \\
&= Yf^iXf^kT(\partial_k, \partial_i) \\
&= T(f_*X, f_*Y) \\
&= (f^*T)(X, Y)
\end{aligned}$$

□

## 2.11 fundamental property of isometric immersions

**Exercício L3.2 (Imersões isométricas)** Seja  $f : M \rightarrow \bar{M}$  uma imersão isométrica. Sejam  $\nabla$  a conexão de Levi-Civita de  $M$  e  $\bar{\nabla}$  a conexão de Levi-Civita de  $\bar{M}$ .

- (a) Let  $f : M^n \rightarrow \bar{M}^m$  be an isometric immersion and let  $\tilde{\nabla}$  denote the connection on  $f^*T\bar{M}$  induced by the Levi-Civita connection of  $\bar{M}$ . Verify that

$$\nabla_X Y = f_*^{-1} \left( \tilde{\nabla}_X f_* Y \right)^T$$

defines a compatible torsion-free connection on  $TM$ , which it therefore coincides with the Levi-Civita connection of  $M$ .

- (b) (Reformulation of (a).) Mostre que

$$f_*(\nabla_X Y) = \left( \bar{\nabla}_X f_* Y \right)_{TM}$$

e que essa igualdade determina  $\nabla$  em função de  $\bar{\nabla}$ . Aqui, para  $W \in T_{f(p)}\bar{M}$ ,  $W_{TM}$  denota a sua projeção ortogonal ao subespaço  $f_*(T_p M) \subset T_{f(p)}\bar{M}$ .

- (c) Seja  $c$  uma curva suave em  $M$ . Mostre que para todo  $Y \in \mathfrak{X}_c$  vale

$$f_* \nabla_{\frac{d}{dt}}^c Y = \left( \nabla_{\frac{d}{dt}}^{f \circ c} f_* Y \right)_{TM}$$

- (d) Seja  $\gamma : I \rightarrow M$  uma curva suave parametrizada pelo comprimento de arco. Mostre que  $\gamma$  é uma geodésica de  $M$  se, e somente se, sua aceleração em  $\bar{M}$  é perpendicular à variedade  $M$ , i.e.,

$$\left. \bar{\nabla}^{f \circ \gamma} \frac{d}{dt} \right|_t (f \circ \gamma)' \perp f_*(T_{\gamma(t)}M)$$

para todo  $t \in I$ .

*Solução.*

- (a) Nos han enseñado que esto se hace así (como dice la version de [DFJ19]): defina

$$D : \mathfrak{X}(M) \times \mathfrak{X}(M) \longrightarrow \mathfrak{X}(M)$$

una conexión random pero satisfaciendo que

$$f_*(D_X Y) = \left( \tilde{\nabla}_X^f f_* Y \right)^\top$$

. Afirmamos que  $D$  es métrica y simétrica, o sea,  $D = \nabla$  y se acabó. (Que básicamente es el “lema de simetría y compatibilidad”.)

- **(Métrica.)** Se me antoja empezar con  $X \langle Y, Z \rangle =$  pero ahí no sé que poner. (Puedo poner  $\nabla$  pero eso no sirve de nada.) Entonces mejor aplico  $f_*$ , después de pensarlo me doy cuenta de que  $f_* Y$  y  $f_* Z$  son secciones de  $f^* \tilde{M}$ , o sea vectores en  $\tilde{M}$  pero como funciones están definidas em  $M$ ! Acaba que lo que único que tiene sentido escribir es:

$$X \langle f_* Y, f_* Z \rangle = \left\langle \tilde{\nabla}_X^f f_* Y, f_* Z \right\rangle + \left\langle f_* Y, \tilde{\nabla}_X^f f_* Z \right\rangle$$

OK pero... eso es cierto? Bueno, lo que sabemos es que:

$$\left\langle \left( \tilde{\nabla}_X^f f_* Y \right)^\top, f_* Z \right\rangle + \left\langle f_* Y, \left( \tilde{\nabla}_X^f f_* Z \right)^\top \right\rangle = \langle f_*(D_X Y), f_* Z \rangle + \langle f_* Y, f_*(D_X Z) \rangle$$

Ah, entonces eso es lo que hay que probar justamente. Me fijo en el lado izquierdo y digo bueno en cada punto, como  $f$  es isometría local,

$$\langle f_{*,p} Y(p), f_{*,p} Z(p) \rangle_{f(p)} = \langle Y(p), Z(p) \rangle_p$$

y como es un tensor escribo nomás

$$\langle f_* Y, f_* Z \rangle = \langle Y, Z \rangle$$

Y eso sí,

$$\langle Y, Z \rangle = \langle \nabla_X Y, Z \rangle + \langle Y, \nabla_X Z \rangle$$



No sé qué hacer con esos campos pero en campos coordenados sí, porque la base de  $T_p \widetilde{M}$  es  $\partial_i$ , pero eso no es una base del fibrado pullback, la que sí es base del fibrado pullback es  $\partial_i \circ f$ . Ah entonces

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \widetilde{\nabla}_X^f \partial_i \circ f, \partial_i \circ f \rangle + \langle \partial_j \circ f, \widetilde{\nabla}_X^f \partial_j \circ f \rangle &= \langle \widetilde{\nabla}_{f_* X} \partial_i, \partial_j \rangle + \langle \partial_i, \widetilde{\nabla}_{f_* X} \partial_j \rangle \\ &= f_* X \langle \partial_i, \partial_j \rangle \\ &= X \langle \partial_i \circ f, \partial_j \circ f \rangle \end{aligned}$$

□

## 2.12 riemannian submersion finally and also riemannian immersion

For any smooth manifold submersion  $\pi : \widetilde{M} \rightarrow M$  there is always a bundle isomorphism I love:

$$\pi^* TM \oplus \kappa \cong \widetilde{TM}$$

where  $\kappa$  is the bundle whose fiber is the kernel of  $\pi_*$ , and is also called the *vertical bundle*, and there's no magic in proving that isomorphism, you can do it all the time.

But we call  $\pi$  a *riemannian submersion* only when  $\pi^* TM$  is isometric to  $TM$ , meaning we had put metrics on  $\widetilde{M}$  and  $M$  a priori. And that's it. It just took me 4328 days to understand that. (Definition given in the homework sheet is very different from that; milnor won't talk about this.)

Now riemannian immersion. That is, isometric immersion. So initially [MS74] defines for any subbundle  $\xi \subset \eta$  over a riemannian manifold the *orthogonal complement bundle*  $\xi^\perp$  using the riemannian metric. Then he says well this is called *normal bundle* when you are a submanifold and then says well actually this works for any immersion  $f : M \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$  and finally concludes in coro. 3.5 that

$$f^* \widetilde{TM} \cong TM \oplus \nu$$

Then you get problem 3-B: for vector bundles  $\xi \subset \eta$  define the *quotient bundle*  $\eta/\xi$  and prove it's locally trivial. If  $\eta$  has a Euclidean (riemannian) metric,  $\xi^\perp \cong \eta/\xi$ . So I guess that the subtlety is that when everything is riemannian you get that these isomorphisms become isometries of bundles. That is to say: I think that an *isometric immersion* is when  $f^* \widetilde{TM}|_M \cong TM$  isometrically which is just that pullback metric is the metric. right

(And also because I was told by V. Ramos that we can define normal bundle equivalently as the quotient bundle  $\widetilde{TM}/TM$  and as the orthogonal complement of  $TM$  wrt any riemannian metric we choose on  $\widetilde{M}$  for means of saying what is the normal bundle. But of course this means that  $\widetilde{TM}/TM$  is *isomorphic* to  $TM^\perp$  and not necessarily *isometric*, as the definition of riemannian submersion says.)

Final resolution: that inclusions put  $M$  inside  $\widetilde{M}$ , but submersions don't put  $M$  inside  $\widetilde{M}$ : the quotient is a weird thing that might not live in the larger manifold. But strangely enough, its tangent bundle does. So I asked GPT: what if we integrate the bundle and we find a copy of  $M$  inside  $\widetilde{M}$ ? And the answer is not always, you need integrability, sometimes yes.

## 2.13 volume form at once

Never forget how to change variables like a pro: if  $F : U \rightarrow F(U)$  is a diffeomorphism,

$$\int_U F^* \omega = \int_{F(U)} \omega.$$

Now you need to know what is the pullback of top forms.

**Pullback of top-forms** A diffeomorphism  $\varphi : M \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ , which is a diffeomorphism, it must be a diffeomorphism for these things to exist. (But eventually you want to integrate the surface, the world-sheet, in the ambient space  $X$  but easy.) So it's a diffeomorphism and you take local charts  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  of  $M$  and  $(y_1, \dots, y_n)$  of  $\widetilde{M}$ .

You get a top-form on the chart  $\widetilde{U}$  of  $\widetilde{M}$  called  $dy_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dy_n$ . If you pull it back, you get a new top-form on  $U$  called  $\varphi^*(dy_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dy_n)$ . Being top-forms, you know there's a function so that the new guy is that function times  $dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$ , which is also a top-form on  $U$ . **Who's the function?** The function is the determinant of the jacobian matrix of your map:

$$\varphi^*(dy_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dy_n) = \det D\varphi dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n.$$

Now you need to know how to deal with those things.

**Fact about top-forms** Top-forms are determinants.

$$\varepsilon_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \varepsilon_n(E_1, \dots, E_n) = \det \varepsilon_i(E_j)$$

where  $\varepsilon_i$  are any 1-forms and  $E_i$  are any vector fields. (Notation is reminiscent of orthonormal frames but this is very general.) Note that for lower-degree forms there is also determinant-like formulas of the kind sum over permutations some products, they are not very nice and hopefully you don't need to use them anytime soon.

Now you need to know what is the pullback of top forms.

Now you want to know what happens in the case of the Volume forms. The volume forms can be exactly the guys from the last Fact if you happen to have orthonormal coordinates. So you get:

$$\varphi^* \text{Vol}_{\widetilde{M}} = \det D\varphi \text{Vol}_M.$$

Which is great. So you can integrate:

$$\int_M \varphi^* \text{Vol}_{\widetilde{M}} = \int_M \det D\varphi \text{Vol}_M$$

And if  $\varphi$  is an isometry the determinant of its differential is... 1. **Why.** Because  $d\varphi$  is given the matrix whose columns are the images of an orthonormal frame, and these form an orthonormal frame because  $f$  preserves the metric, so the determinant of an orthonormal frame is 1. So volumes coincide. Yiipa!

## 2.14 maximum principle!

**Maximum principle (E. Hopf) (Minimal surface course statement.)** For any  $(M, g)$ , harmonic functions satisfy *maximum principle*: any harmonic function  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  for  $U$  connected and open, if  $\exists p \in U$  that is a local maximum or local minimum, then  $f$  is constant on  $U$ .

We shall show Do Carmo's version that  $f$  *subharmonic*, i.e.  $\Delta f \geq 0$ , on  $M$  compact connected  $\implies f$  constant. (This is Exercise 12, Chapter III.)

*Proof.*

**Step 1 (Exercise 7, Chapter III of [dC79].)** Make sure you can pick a *referencial geodésico* about every point of  $M$ . This is an orthonormal frame  $\{E_i\} \subset \mathfrak{X}(U)$ , where  $p \in U$  such that  $\left(\nabla_{E_i} E_j\right)_p = 0$ . This frame can be obtained by taking geodesic coordinates at the point, an orthonormal base  $\{e_i\}$  of  $T_p M$ , and taking parallel transport of the vectors  $e_i$  along radial geodesics emanating from  $p$ . This immediately ensures that  $E_i$  is orthonormal since parallel transport preserves angles.

To check that Christoffel symbols vanish at  $p$  we do as follows. (This is actually a basic fact about geodesic coordinates, see [Lee19] Prop. 5.24.) Take a random vector  $v \in T_p M$  and its geodesic  $\gamma_v(t) = \exp_p(tv)$ . I drop the subindex  $v$  for the next computations for the next computations. Then (this is Florit way of using covariant derivative along a curve; it's the *pullback* or *induced connection*  $\nabla^\gamma$ ):

$$0 = \nabla_{\frac{d}{dt}}^\gamma \gamma' = \nabla_{\frac{d}{dt}}^\gamma v^i (E_i \circ \gamma)$$

where the  $v = (v^1, \dots, v^n)$ . Indeed: this is very silly but, since the coordinate chart of geodesic coordinates is  $\exp_p^{-1}$ , the coordinate representation of  $\gamma$  in this chart is as simple as

$$\hat{\gamma}(t) = (\underbrace{\varphi}_{\text{chart}} \circ \gamma)(t) = \exp_p^{-1} \exp_p(tv) = tv.$$

And the composition  $E_i \circ \gamma$  just means that we take our local frame *along*  $\gamma$ . Continue:

$$\begin{aligned} &= v^i \nabla_{\frac{d}{dt}}^\gamma E_i \circ \gamma = v^i \nabla_{\gamma_{v,*} \frac{d}{dt}} E_i \\ &= v^i \nabla_{v^j E_j} E_i = v^i v^j \nabla_{E_j} E_i \\ &= v^i v^j \Gamma_{ji}^k E_k \end{aligned}$$

along  $\gamma$ . Now choose  $v = e_1$ . You get  $\Gamma_{11}^k = 0$  for all  $k$  along  $\gamma_{e_1}$ . Now choose  $v = e_2$ , then  $\Gamma_{22}^k = 0$  along  $\gamma_{e_2}$ , so at least at  $p$  they both vanish. And now choose  $v = e_1 + e_2$ . You get

$$0 = (v^1)^2 \overset{0}{\Gamma_{11}^k} + v^1 v^2 \Gamma_{12}^k + v^2 v^1 \Gamma_{21}^k + (v^2)^2 \overset{0}{\Gamma_{22}^k}$$

So  $\Gamma_{12}^k = 0$  since Levi-Civita is torsion-free, i.e. symmetric. And so on. So the all Christoffel symbols vanish at the same time at  $p$ .

**Step 2 (Exercise 11, Chapter III of [dC79].)** Prove that

$$\text{di}_X \text{Vol} = \text{div } X \text{Vol}$$

To do this first recall that *divergence* and *trace* are

$$\text{div } X := \text{tr}(v \mapsto \nabla_v X)$$

$$\text{tr}(T) := \sum_i \langle T E_i, E_i \rangle, \quad T \in \text{End}(V), E_i \text{ orthonormal frame}$$

Now pick a Geodesic frame  $E_i$  and its dual coframe  $\varepsilon^i$ , i.e. satisfying  $\varepsilon^i(E_j) = \delta_{ij}$ . Then  $\text{Vol} = \varepsilon^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \varepsilon^n$ . Then for any  $X = X^i E_i \in \mathfrak{X}(U)$ ,

$$\text{i}_X \text{Vol} = \varepsilon^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \varepsilon^n (X^i E_i, \cdot, \dots, \cdot) = X^i \varepsilon^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \varepsilon^n (E_i, \cdot, \dots, \cdot)$$

How to compute that? Recall that for top-forms we have

$$\varepsilon^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \varepsilon^n (Z_1, \dots, Z_n) = \det(\varepsilon^i(Z_j))$$

so for example if  $n = 3$

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon^1 \wedge \varepsilon^2 \wedge \varepsilon^3 (E_1, Z_2, Z_3) &= \begin{vmatrix} \varepsilon^1(E_1) & \varepsilon^1(Z_2) & \varepsilon^1(Z_3) \\ \varepsilon^2(E_1) & \varepsilon^2(Z_2) & \varepsilon^2(Z_3) \\ \varepsilon^3(E_1) & \varepsilon^3(Z_2) & \varepsilon^3(Z_3) \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \varepsilon^1(Z_2) & \varepsilon^1(Z_3) \\ 0 & \varepsilon^2(Z_2) & \varepsilon^2(Z_3) \\ 0 & \varepsilon^3(Z_2) & \varepsilon^3(Z_3) \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \varepsilon^2(Z_2) \varepsilon^3(Z_3) - \varepsilon^2(Z_3) \varepsilon^3(Z_2) = \varepsilon^2 \wedge \varepsilon^3 (Z_2, Z_3), \\ \varepsilon^1 \wedge \varepsilon^2 \wedge \varepsilon^3 (E_2, Z_2, Z_3) &= \begin{vmatrix} 0 & \varepsilon^1(Z_2) & \varepsilon^1(Z_3) \\ 1 & \varepsilon^2(Z_2) & \varepsilon^2(Z_3) \\ 0 & \varepsilon^3(Z_2) & \varepsilon^3(Z_3) \end{vmatrix} = -\varepsilon^1 \wedge \varepsilon^3 (Z_2, Z_3) \end{aligned}$$

and so on. When we sum over all  $i$ , we get

$$X^i \varepsilon^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \varepsilon^n (E_i, \cdot, \dots, \cdot) = \sum_i (-1)^{i+1} X^i \varepsilon^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{\varepsilon^i} \wedge \dots \wedge \varepsilon^n.$$

Now take exterior derivative of that, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \text{di}_X \text{Vol} &= \sum_i (-1)^{i+1} (dX^i) \wedge \varepsilon^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{\varepsilon^i} \wedge \dots \wedge \varepsilon^n \\ &\quad + \sum_i (-1)^{i+1} X^i \wedge d(\varepsilon^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{\varepsilon^i} \wedge \dots \wedge \varepsilon^n) \end{aligned}$$

And then the first term actually is

$$\sum_i (-1)^{i+1} E_j X^i \varepsilon^j \wedge \varepsilon^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{\varepsilon^i} \wedge \dots \wedge \varepsilon^n = E_i X^i \text{Vol}$$

while the second term vanishes because look,

$$\begin{aligned} d\varepsilon^i(E_j, E_k) &= E_j \varepsilon^i(E_k) - E_k \varepsilon^i(E_j) - \varepsilon^i([E_j, E_k]) \\ &= -\varepsilon^i(\nabla_{E_j} E_k - \nabla_{E_k} E_j) \quad \text{torsion!} \end{aligned}$$

which vanishes at  $p$  because we said that this geodesic frame would have vanishing Christoffel symbols at  $p$ . So we conclude:

$$di_X \text{Vol} = E_i X^i \text{Vol}$$

Now you just have to think what is divergence:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{div } X &= \sum_i \langle \nabla_{E_i} X^j E_j, E_i \rangle = \sum_i \langle E_i X^j E_j, E_i \rangle + X^j \langle \nabla_{E_i} E_j, E_i \rangle \\ &= \sum_i \langle E_i X^j E_j, E_i \rangle = \sum_i E_i X^j \langle E_j, E_i \rangle = E_i X^i \end{aligned}$$

again using that we are a geodesic frame with vanishing covariant derivative at  $p$ .

**Step 3 (Exercise 9(b), Chapter III of [dC79].)** You realise that

$$\Delta(fg) = f\Delta g + g\Delta f + 2 \langle \nabla f, \nabla g \rangle.$$

Recall that *Laplacian* is

$$\Delta f := \text{div } \nabla f$$

This is just a computation no problem, I'll say how it starts. For any  $X \in \mathfrak{X}(M)$ ,

$$\langle \nabla(fg), X \rangle = X(fg) = fXg + gXf = f \langle \nabla g, X \rangle + g \langle \nabla f, X \rangle.$$

which says that

$$\nabla(fg) = f\nabla g + g\nabla f$$

So, for an orthonormal frame  $E_i$

$$\Delta(fg) = \text{div } \nabla(fg) = \sum_i \langle \nabla_{E_i} (f\nabla g + g\nabla f), E_i \rangle$$

Then use Leibniz rule and definition of gradient, you get there.

**Step 4 (Exercise 12, Chapter III of [dC79].)** To prove the theorem for subharmonic functions first we show that in fact they are harmonic via step 2 on  $X := \nabla f$  and Stokes:

$$\int_M \Delta f \text{Vol} = \int_M \text{div } X \text{Vol} = \int_M d(i_X \text{Vol}) = \int_{\partial M} i_X \text{Vol} = 0$$

meaning that the non-negative function  $\Delta f$  is in fact 0, i.e.  $f$  is harmonic. Now we do it again for  $X := \nabla(f^2/2)$ :

$$\int_M \Delta(f^2/2) \text{Vol} = \int_M d(i_X \text{Vol}) = \int_{\partial M} i_X \text{Vol} = 0$$

And then apply step 3:

$$0 = \int_M \Delta(f^2/2) \text{Vol} = \int_M f \Delta f \text{Vol} + \int_M \langle \nabla f, \nabla f \rangle \text{Vol}$$

First one vanishes because  $f$  is harmonic, so second one is zero which says  $f$  is constant!

□

## 2.15 exponential map and geodesics locally

Qué es una geodésica localmente?

$$\exp_p(tv) = \gamma(t)$$

Cómo inventas una geodésica que va  $q$  a  $q'$  dentro de la bola  $B_\varepsilon(p) \subset M$ ?

$$\underbrace{\exp_q^{-1} q'}_{\substack{\text{vector que} \\ \text{apunta hacia } q' \\ \text{desde } q}} \in T_q M$$

Y ahora geodegiquizas:

$$\exp_q(t \exp_q^{-1} q') := \gamma_{q,q'}(t)$$

## 2.16 first variation formula

This is actually an exercise:

**Exercício 8 (Curvas minimizantes)** Seja  $\gamma$  uma curva suave por partes parametrizada por comprimento de arco (this is important, velocity is 1) conectando  $p$  a  $q$ . Mostre que se  $d(p, q) = \ell(\gamma)$  então  $\gamma$  é uma geodésica.

We shall use the *first variation formula* which in short (everything smooth, fixing end-points) says

$$S'(0) = - \int_a^b \langle V, \gamma'' \rangle dt$$

Explanation. Consider a *variation* of  $\gamma$ , which is like a homotopy:

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma : (a, b) \times (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) &\longrightarrow M \\ \Gamma(t, s) &= \gamma(t) + sV(\gamma(t))\end{aligned}$$

where  $V \in \mathfrak{X}_\gamma$  is a vector field along  $\gamma$  called the *variation field*, and it has to vanish on the endpoints. Then there's the *length functional*

$$S(s) := \ell(\Gamma(t, s)) = \int_a^b |\nabla_{\frac{d}{dt}} \Gamma(t, s)| dt.$$

Because  $\gamma = \Gamma(t, 0)$  is minimizing, we know that  $S'(0) = 0$ . Then we compute that and hope that it will say  $\gamma'' = 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned}S'(0) &= \int_a^b \left. \frac{d}{ds} \right|_{s=0} \langle \nabla_t \Gamma(t, s), \nabla_t \Gamma(t, s) \rangle^{1/2} dt \\ &= \int_a^b \frac{\langle \nabla_s \nabla_t \Gamma(t, s), \nabla_t \Gamma(t, s) \rangle}{|\nabla_t \Gamma(t, s)|} dt \\ &\stackrel{\text{symmetry lemma}}{=} \int_a^b \left\langle \nabla_t \underbrace{\nabla_s \Gamma(t, s)}_{=V}, \nabla_t \Gamma(t, s) \right\rangle dt \\ &= \int_a^b \left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} \langle V, \nabla_t \Gamma(t, s) \rangle - \int_a^b \left\langle V, \underbrace{\nabla_t \nabla_t \Gamma(t, s)}_{\gamma''} \right\rangle dt\end{aligned}$$

and the first one vanished out fundamental theorem of calculus and the fact that  $V$  is zero on the endpoints.

So we get that if  $\gamma$  minimizes distance, this integral is zero for any variation of  $\gamma$ .

### Remarks

- Symmetry lemma just follows from commutativity of partial derivatives in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Florit used pullback connection and [Lee19] used Christoffel symbols.
- Cauchy-Swarz says:

$$\langle v, w \rangle \leq |v||w|$$

in norm  $L^2$  says

$$\int_0^a fg \leq \left( \int_0^a f^2 \right)^{1/2} \left( \int_0^a g^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

put  $f \equiv 1$  and  $g = |\dot{\gamma}|$ , you get

$$L(\gamma)^2 = \left( \int_0^a |\dot{\gamma}| \right)^2 \leq a \int_0^a |\dot{\gamma}|^2 = aE(\gamma)$$

So energy is almost an upper bound of length.

- The true version of the variation formula admits that  $\Gamma$  is only piecewise smooth. The formula becomes less nice and the proof a little more involved, I won't do it, but something nice comes out of that: the fact that you realise that geodesics can't have corners because:

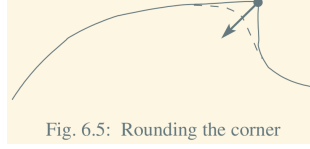


Fig. 6.5: Rounding the corner

so it would be nice to understand that precisely but OK. **Understood:** you take a uniformly normal neighbourhood of the point, then you can take radial geodesics spanning from other points in the neighbourhood, and you construct a shorter path around the corner.

So the *first variation formula* in its full power version from [Lee19] says

$$\left. \frac{d}{ds} \right|_{s=0} S(s) = - \int_a^b \langle V, \ddot{\gamma} \rangle - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \langle V(t_i), \dot{\gamma}(t_{i+1}) - \dot{\gamma}(t_i) \rangle + \langle V(b), \dot{\gamma}(b) \rangle - \langle V(a), \dot{\gamma}(a) \rangle$$

**Explanation.** The first term we already know what it is. The second term is what happens at the singularities of the piecewise-smooth variation defined with singularities at  $t_1, \dots, t_n$ , and the third term is what happens at the first and final point.

So it remains kind of a mystery why Lee does the computations with the length functional and not with the energy functional. Ah! I think it's parametrization matters: for the formula above to work **you need unit speed**. If you don't have unit speed you don't get rid of the square root when differentiating, and that's terrible. So what everyone does is instead use the *energy functional* which is just the integral of square of the norm,

$$E(s) = \int_a^b |\dot{\gamma}|^2$$

And what everyone does is that they show this doesn't mind parametrizations **and** that a geodesic is a geodesic iff it is a critical point of  $E$ . That is,  $E$  still detects what you want it to detect, and it's easier to differentiate. And also has nothing to do with thermodynamics.

## 2.17 second variation formula

Here's [Pet16]. For good variations (smooth, fixing endpoints) of a geodesic  $\gamma$  it turns out that

$$\left. \frac{d^2}{ds^2} E(s) \right|_{s=0} = \int_a^b |\ddot{\gamma}|^2 - \int_a^b \langle R(V, \dot{\gamma}) \dot{\gamma}, V \rangle$$



where  $E$  is the energy functional.

And smooth version from [Pet16] is

$$\left. \frac{d^2}{ds^2} E(s) \right|_{s=0} = \int_a^b |\dot{V}|^2 - \int_a^b \langle R(V, \dot{\gamma}) \dot{\gamma}, V \rangle + \langle \nabla_{\partial_s} V, \dot{\gamma} \rangle \Big|_a^b$$

But the full power version piecewise smooth from Florit lecture is something very similar to:

$$\left. \frac{d}{ds} \right|_{s=0} E(s) = - \int_a^b \langle V, \ddot{V} + R(V, \dot{\gamma}) \dot{\gamma} \rangle - \sum_{i=2}^{n-1} \langle V(t_i), \dot{V}(t_i^+) - \dot{V}(t_i^-) \rangle + \langle V(b), \dot{\gamma}(b) \rangle - \langle V(a), \dot{\gamma}(a) \rangle + \langle \nabla_{\partial_s} V, \dot{\gamma} \rangle \Big|_a^b$$

which is more or less a useless formula since what do you want that for anyways. Meaning—use for application, not for the sake of knowing it or writing correctly or anything.

## index

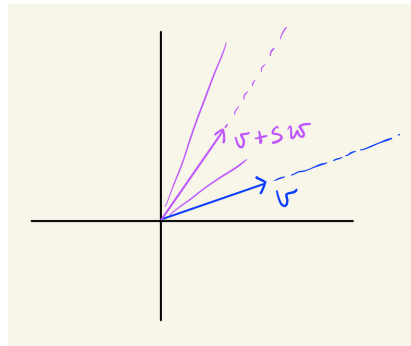
We'll see eventually whether this turns out useful or forgotten. The *index form* is

$$I_a : \mathfrak{X}_\gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$I_a(V, W) = \int_0^a \langle V', W' \rangle - \langle R_{\dot{\gamma}} V, W \rangle$$

## 2.18 jacobi field

Just because I finally understood something about Jacobi field. A geodesic is given by  $\gamma_v(t) = \exp_p(tv)$  where  $p = \gamma(0)$  and  $v = \gamma'(0)$ . Then choose a vector  $w \in T_p M$  and consider these lines:



Then taking exp maps them to some geodesics. Then the *Jacobi field in this case* is given

by differentiating with respect to  $s$  along the curve  $tv$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_s \gamma_{v+sw}(t) &= \nabla_s \exp_p(t(v+sw)) = d_{tv} \exp_p \cdot \frac{d}{ds} (t(v+sw)) \\ &= d_{tv} \exp_p(tw).\end{aligned}$$

And that's it.

## 2.19 riccati equation

Take any point and any tangent vector at that point. Take the geodesic and take the geodesic sphere of radius say  $\varepsilon$  with center in the point. It's a hypersurface. Normal vectors are all multiples of the unit normal vector. But who's that, the unit normal? Ah, it's the speed of the geodesic. So? The normal derivative of any vector field tangent to the sphere w.r.t. the unit normal is...

$$0 = X \langle v, v \rangle = 2 \langle \nabla_X^\perp v, v \rangle$$

that is, normal derivative of  $v$  w.r.t.  $X$  is perpendicular to  $v$ , BUT normal derivative is normal so it's actually a multiple of  $v$ , which makes  $v$  have norm zero or else  $\nabla_X^\perp v = 0$ .

Great! Now you take a variation  $f(s, t)$  which I think is our beloved Jacobi variation

$$d_{tv} \exp_p(sw)$$

and do

$$\nabla = \dots = J$$

that is,

$$A(J) = J'$$

differentiate that or  $\bar{J}$  to obtain

$$A' + A^2 + R_{Y'} = 0$$

## 2.20 curvature

### 2.20.1 curvature basics

O *tensor de Ricci* de  $(M, g)$  é

$$\text{Ric} : TM \times TM \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\text{Ric}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{n-1} \text{tr}(Z \mapsto \langle R(Z, X, Y), Z \rangle)$$

(É simétrico.)

A curvatura de Ricci é

$$\text{Ric} : T_1 M \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\text{Ric}(X) = \text{Ric}(X, X) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} K(X, E_i)$$

onde  $E_i \perp X$ , ou seja  $\{X, E_1, \dots, E_{n-1}\}$  é uma base ortonormal.

**Remark** (conferir!)

$$\text{Ric}(X, X) = \int_{S^{n-1} \subset X^\perp} K(X, V)$$

A curvatura escalar é

$$\text{scal} : M \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\text{scal} = \frac{1}{n} \text{tr Ric}$$

**Exercise**

$$\text{scal} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \text{Ric}(e_i, e_i) = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i+j} K(e_i, e_j) \stackrel{\text{exer}}{=} \frac{1}{\text{Vol } S^{n-1}} \int_{\sigma \subset T_p M} K(\sigma)$$

### 2.20.2 curvature of $\mathbb{CP}^n$ !

**Exercício 1** (Curvatura do espaço projetivo complexo, [dC79] VIII.12) Defina uma métrica Riemanniana em  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$  do seguinte modo. Se  $Z \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$  e  $V, W \in T_Z(\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\})$ ,

$$\langle V, W \rangle_Z = \frac{\text{Re}(V, W)}{(Z, Z)}$$

onde

$$(Z, W) = z_0 \bar{w}_0 + \dots + z_n \bar{w}_n$$

é o produto hermitiano em  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ . Observe que a métrica  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  restrita a  $S^{2n+1} \subset \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$  coincide com a métrica induzida por  $\mathbb{R}^{2n+2}$ .

- (a) Mostre que, para todo  $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$ ,  $e^{i\theta} : S^{2n+1} \rightarrow S^{2n+1}$  é uma isometria, e que, portanto, é possível definir uma métrica Riemanniana em  $\mathbb{P}^n(\mathbb{C})$  de modo que a submersão  $f$  seja Riemanniana.
- (b) Mostre que, nesta métrica, a curvatura seccional de  $\mathbb{P}^n(\mathbb{C})$  é dada por

$$K(\sigma) = 1 + 3 \cos^2 \varphi$$

onde  $\sigma$  é gerado pelo par ortonormal  $X, Y$ ,  $\cos \varphi = \langle \bar{X}, i\bar{Y} \rangle$ , e  $\bar{X}, \bar{Y}$  são os levantamentos horizontais de  $X$  e  $Y$ , respetivamente. Em particular,  $1 \leq K(\sigma) \leq 4$ .

*Solução.* Começo notando que a métrica  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  restrita a  $S^{2n+1}$  coincide com a métrica induzida por  $\mathbb{R}^{2n+2}$ : pegue  $Z \in S^{2n+1}$  e  $V, W \in T_Z(\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\})$ . Então

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle V, W \rangle_Z &= \operatorname{Re}(V, W) \\
 &= \operatorname{Re} \sum v^i \bar{w}^i \\
 &= \operatorname{Re} \sum \left( \operatorname{Re} v^i + \sqrt{-1} \operatorname{Im} v^i \right) \left( \operatorname{Re} w^i - \sqrt{-1} \operatorname{Im} w^i \right) \\
 &= \operatorname{Re} \sum \left( \operatorname{Re} v^i \operatorname{Re} w^i + \sqrt{-1} (\operatorname{Im} v^i \operatorname{Re} w^i - \operatorname{Re} v^i \operatorname{Im} w^i) + \operatorname{Im} v^i \operatorname{Im} w^i \right) \\
 &= \operatorname{Re} \sum \left( \operatorname{Re} v^i \operatorname{Re} w^i + \operatorname{Im} v^i \operatorname{Im} w^i \right) + \operatorname{Re} \left( \sqrt{-1} (\dots) \right) \\
 &= \sum \operatorname{Re} v^i \operatorname{Re} w^i + \operatorname{Im} v^i \operatorname{Im} w^i \\
 &= \langle V, W \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^{2n+2}}
 \end{aligned}$$

- (a) Pela observação anterior, basta mostrar que  $e^{i\theta}$  é uma isometria de  $S^{2n+1}$  com a métrica esférica usual. Sabemos que o grupo de isometrias dessa esfera é  $O(2n+2)$ .

De fato, o mapa  $e^{i\theta} \in O(n+1, \mathbb{C}) \subset O(2n+2)$  onde o primeiro grupo são as isometrias da forma Hermitiana. Para ver por que, defina  $h$  como a forma hermitiana canônica de  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ . Das contas feitas acima fica claro que podemos escrever  $h = g + \sqrt{-1}\omega$ , onde  $g$  é a métrica Riemanniana (produto ponto) canônica de  $\mathbb{R}^{2n+2}$  e  $\omega$  é uma outra forma bilinear.

Primeiro note que  $e^{i\theta}$  é uma isometria de  $h$ . Para todo  $z \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ ,

$$h(e^{i\theta}z, e^{i\theta}z) = e^{i\theta} \overline{e^{i\theta}} h(z, z) = |e^{i\theta}|^2 h(z, z) = h(z, z)$$

separando em parte real e imaginária, segue que  $g(e^{i\theta}z, e^{i\theta}z) = g(z, z)$ . Como  $e^{i\theta}$  é linear, concluímos que é uma isometria de  $g$ .

- (b) Seguindo a sugestão, defina  $N$  como o vetor de posição de  $S^{2n+1}$ . Pensando  $\theta \mapsto e^{i\theta}N$  como uma curva usual em  $\mathbb{C}^{2n+1}$ , sabemos pelas propriedades da exponencial complexa, i.e. derivando entrada a entrada, que  $(\frac{d}{d\theta} e^{i\theta}N)_{\theta=0} = iN$ .

Esse vetor é vertical já que... (intento 1)

$$\langle iN, N \rangle = \operatorname{Re} h(iN, N) = \operatorname{Re} i h(N, N) = \operatorname{Re} i = 0,$$

mas esse argumento mostra que  $iN$  é ortogonal ao vetor posição, que é ortogonal ao espaço tangente da esfera, ou seja, que  $iN \in TS^{2n+1}$ . Para mostrar que é vertical devemos ver que está no kernel da projeção  $\pi$ . Isso está quase feito: como  $iN$  é a derivada de uma curva, basta compor essa curva com  $\pi$  e derivar em  $\theta = 0$ . O lance que no quociente essa curva é constante!

Daí simplesmente escrevemos a fórmula de Manfredo para uma curva  $\alpha : (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \rightarrow S^{2n+1}$  realizando o levantamento  $\bar{X}$  de  $X \in \mathcal{X}(\mathbb{CP}^n)$  em  $N$ , i.e. com  $\alpha(0) = N$  e

$\alpha'(0) = \bar{X}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (\bar{\nabla}_{\bar{X}} iN)_N &= \frac{d}{dt} iN \circ \alpha(t) \Big|_{t=0} \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} i\alpha(t) \Big|_{t=0} \quad \text{já que } N \text{ é o vetor posição} \\ &= i\alpha'(0) = i\bar{X}, \quad \text{derivada complexa usual} \end{aligned}$$

Agora note que

$$\bar{X} \langle \bar{Y}, iN \rangle = \langle \bar{\nabla}_{\bar{X}} \bar{Y}, iN \rangle + \langle \bar{Y}, \bar{\nabla}_{\bar{X}} iN \rangle$$

de modo que

$$\begin{aligned} \langle [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}], iN \rangle &= \langle \bar{\nabla}_{\bar{X}} \bar{Y} - \bar{\nabla}_{\bar{Y}} \bar{X}, iN \rangle \\ &= -\langle i\bar{X}, \bar{Y} \rangle + \langle i\bar{Y}, \bar{X} \rangle \\ &= 2 \cos \varphi \end{aligned} \tag{2.1}$$

por definição de  $\varphi$  como satisfazendo  $\cos \varphi = \langle \bar{X}, i\bar{Y} \rangle$ , e porque

$$\langle i\bar{X}, \bar{Y} \rangle = \operatorname{Re} h(i\bar{X}, \bar{Y}) = \operatorname{Re} h(\bar{X}, i\bar{Y}) = \operatorname{Re} h(\bar{X}, -i\bar{Y}) = -\langle \bar{X}, i\bar{Y} \rangle$$

Finalmente, o **exercício 10(b)** diz que para  $\sigma = \operatorname{span}\{X, Y\}$  e  $\bar{\sigma} = \operatorname{span}\{\bar{X}, \bar{Y}\}$ ,

$$\boxed{K(\sigma) = \bar{K}(\bar{\sigma}) + \frac{3}{4} \left| [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}]^\vee \right|^2}$$

onde  $\bar{K}$  é a curvatura de  $\mathbb{S}^{2n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ , que é constante 1. Portanto, o desafio final acaba sendo mostrar que

$$3 \cos^2 \varphi = \frac{3}{4} \left| [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}]^\vee \right|^2$$

Mas já tá quase: elevando eq. (2.1) ao quadrado,

$$4 \cos^2 \varphi = \langle [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}], iN \rangle^2$$

Ou seja, basta mostrar que

$$\left| [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}]^\vee \right|^2 \stackrel{?}{=} \langle [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}], iN \rangle^2$$

Como  $iN$  é vertical, o lado direito é igual a  $\langle [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}]^\vee, iN \rangle^2$ .

Como  $N$  é um vetor unitário, podemos expressar

$$[\bar{X}, \bar{Y}]^\vee = \left| [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}]^\vee \right| iN$$

Então acaba que

$$\langle [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}]^\vee, iN \rangle^2 = \langle \left| [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}]^\vee \right| iN, iN \rangle^2 = \left| [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}]^\vee \right|^2 \langle iN, iN \rangle = \left| [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}]^\vee \right|^2$$

□

### 2.20.3 curvature under discrete quotients is preserved

#### Exercício 2 (Espaços lenticulares)

- (a) Definição e geodésicas (exer 4. cap. VIII [dC79]). Identifique  $\mathbb{R}^4$  com  $\mathbb{C}^2$  fazendo corresponder  $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$  a  $(x_1 + ix_2, x_3 + ix_4)$ . Seja

$$S^3 = \{(z_1, z_2) \in \mathbb{C}^2; |z_1|^2 + |z_2|^2 = 1\}$$

e seja  $h : S^3 \rightarrow S^3$  dada por

$$h(z_1, z_2) = \left( e^{\frac{2\pi i}{q}} z_1, e^{\frac{2\pi i r}{q}} z_2 \right), \quad (z_1, z_2) \in S^3$$

onde  $q$  e  $r$  são primos entre si,  $q > 2$ .

- (i) Mostre que  $G = \{\text{id}, h, \dots, h^{q-1}\}$  é um grupo de isometrias da esfera  $S^3$ , com a métrica usual, que opera de modo totalmente descontínuo. A variedade  $S^3/G$  é chamada um *espaço lenticular*.
  - (ii) Considere  $S^3/G$  com a métrica induzida pela projeção  $p : S^3 \rightarrow S^3/G$ . Mostre que todas as geodésicas de  $S^3/G$  são fechadas mas podem ter comprimentos diferentes.
- (b) Calcule o volume de um espaço lenticular.
- (c) Exiba uma sequência de variedades Riemannianas completas com curvatura seccional constante igual a 1 de modo que a sequência dos volumes seja uma sequência que converge a zero.

*Proof.*

- (b) Intuitivamente, o volume de um quociente é o volume do domínio fundamental, que é a região  $D \subset M$  mais pequena tal que  $G \cdot D = M$ . Minha primeira ideia é pegar um ponto qualquer  $p \in S^3$  e todas as geodésicas partindo de  $p$ . Para cada geodésica temos um tempo em que ela passa por um ponto que será identificado com  $p$  no quociente. A coleção desses pontos será o bordo do domínio fundamental.

Que complicações! Parece que a ideia é muito mais simples:

$$\text{Vol}(S^3/G)|G| = \text{Vol}(S^3)$$

no nosso caso, onde temos um grupo finito agindo por isometrias. Basta notar que  $|G| = q$ , porque calcular o volume de  $S^3$  não é obvio e seguramente não faz parte do exercício.

- (c) Lembre a pergunta: *exibir uma sequência de variedades Riemannianas completas com curvatura constante igual a 1 de modo que a sequência dos volumes seja uma sequência que converge a zero*. A resposta natural é  $S^3/G_q$  onde  $G_q$  é o grupo que determina o espaço lenticular, podendo mudar o valor de  $r$  livremente desde que para cada  $q$  fique  $r$  primo relativo com  $q$ .

Então só falta mostrar que a curvatura seccional de  $S^3/G$  é constante igual a 1, e que é completa. O último é imediato porque  $S^3$  é completa. Para ver o primeiro usamos de novo o exercício 10(b) que diz que para  $X, Y \in \mathfrak{X}(S^3/G)$ ,  $\sigma = \text{span}\{X, Y\}$  e  $\bar{\sigma} = \text{span}\{\bar{X}, \bar{Y}\}$ ,

$$K(\sigma) = \bar{K}(\bar{\sigma}) + \frac{3}{4} \left| [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}]^\vee \right|^2$$

onde  $\bar{K}$  é a curvatura de  $S^3$ , que 1. Ou seja, queremos ver que

$$[\bar{X}, \bar{Y}]^\vee = 0.$$

Mas isso segue de que a ação é discreta! Temos uma decomposição  $TS^3 \cong \kappa \oplus \pi^*T(S^3/G)$ , onde  $\kappa$  é o kernel de  $\pi$ . Como a dimensão do grupo é zero, a dimensão do espaço lenticular é 3, e o kernel dever ter dimensão zero. Então não tem componentes verticais em geral. Então aprendi que a curvatura seccional é preservada em quocientes sob ações discretas.

□

## 2.20.4 boch equation

## 2.20.5 killing fields

## 2.21 isometric immersions

### 2.21.1 gcr

*Gauss:*

$$\langle \tilde{R}(X, Y)Z, W \rangle = \langle R(X, Y)Z, W \rangle - \langle \alpha(X, Z), \alpha(Y, W) \rangle + \langle \alpha(X, W), \alpha(Y, Z) \rangle$$

mira también puede ser así:

$$K_M(X, Y) = \tilde{K}(X, Y) + \langle AX, Y \rangle \langle AY, Y \rangle - \langle AX, Y \rangle^2$$

**Exercise** use esa fórmula para mostrar que não pode ter  $M \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  com curvatura negativa. Solução: porque Gauss diz que isso aí fica negativo mas do lado direito fica positivo porque os eigenvalores são  $0 > \lambda_x \lambda_y$

*Codazzi:*

*Ricci:*

## 2.22 amazing theorems

**hadamard**  $M$  completa, simplesmente conexa e  $K \leq 0$ . Então, para todo  $p \in M$ ,  $\exp_p$  é um difeomorfismo global. Em particular  $M^n \stackrel{\text{difeo}}{\simeq} \mathbb{R}^n$ .

**amazing theorem 8** Seja  $M$  completa, simplesmente conexa, com curvatura constante. Então  $M$  é globalmente isométrica a  $\mathbb{Q}_c^n$ .

**bonnet-myers**  $M$  completa,  $\text{Ric} \geq \frac{1}{r^2}$ . Então  $\text{diam} \leq \pi r$ . Em particular  $M$  é compacta.

**Weinstein theorem** Seja  $M^n$  orientada, compacta,  $K > 0$  e  $f \in \text{Iso}(M)$ . Suponha que se  $n$  é par,  $f$  preserva orientação e que se  $n$  é ímpar  $f$  reverte orientação. Então  $f$  possui um ponto fixo.

*Proof.* A fórmula da segunda variação é a fonte de inspiração, olhe:

$$E''(0) = \int |\dot{V}|^2 - \int \langle R_{\dot{\gamma}} V, V \rangle + \langle \dot{\gamma}, \nabla_{\partial_s} f_s \rangle|_0^a$$

e pense: o que preciso para tirar algo bacano dessa formulinha?

De alguma maneira nos damos conta de que isso tem a ver com os pontos fixos de uma isometria  $f$ . Suponha que  $f$  não tem pontos fixos e busquemos uma contradição. Defina

$$g : M \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ g(q) = d(q, f(q))$$

então como  $M$  é compacta e essa função é contínua, ela tem um ponto mínimo que chamamos de  $p$ . Temos que:

$$0 < g(p) = \min g \leq g(q) \quad \forall q.$$

Vamos usar a segunda fórmula da variação para achar um ponto que avaliado em  $g$  fica menor do que  $g(p)$ . Seja  $\gamma$  a geodésica minimizante entre  $p$  e  $f(p)$  parametrizada por comprimento de arco (que existe porque  $M$  compacta implica completa).

Agora pegue um vetor  $v \in T_p M$  unitário e ortogonal a  $\dot{\gamma}$  (para que o termo com  $R$  na fórmula da seg. var. fique  $K$ ), transporte ele paralelamente ao longo de  $\gamma$  para obter  $V$ , e pegue a variação por geodésicas

$$h(s, t) = \exp_{\gamma(t)}(sV(t)) = \gamma_{V(t)}(s).$$

Então a 2nda fórmula fica beleza: como o campo é paralelo, o termo  $|\dot{V}|^2$  morre, o termo da curvatura fica  $K$  e o termo com  $\nabla_{\partial_s} f_s$  morre também (porque as curvas verticais são geodésicas).

Então como estamos em  $K > 0$ , acaba que  $E''(0) < 0$ , então existe uma vizinhança de 0 onde as curvas  $f(s, t)$  tem menor energia que  $f(0, t)$  (para toda  $s$  nessa vizinhança). Agora lembre que  $\ell^2 \leq dE$ , e que no caso de geodésicas minimizantes se dá a igualdade. Então fica que

$$\frac{1}{d} \ell^2(c^s) \leq E(s) < E(0) = \frac{1}{d} \ell(\gamma)^2 = \frac{1}{d} d(p, f(p))^2 = \frac{1}{d} (\min g)^2$$

onde  $d = g(p) = d(p, f(p))$ . Para chegar numa contradição precisamos obter  $g$  no lado esquerdo. Defina  $\beta(s)$  como a curva “vertical” no tempo 0, ie.  $\beta(s) = f(s, 0)$ . Queremos



mostrar que

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{d} d(\beta(s), f(\beta(s)))^2 \leq \frac{1}{d} \ell^2(c^s)}$$

Já que por definição, do lado esquerdo temos  $\frac{1}{d} g(\beta(s))^2$ , dando uma contradição com a equação anterior. Para confirmar essa desigualdade e concluir a prova só devemos mostrar que a curva  $c^s$  liga  $\beta(s)$  e  $f(\beta(s))$ , pois a distância entre esses dois pontos é menor do que o comprimento de qualquer curva que liga esses pontos.

Ou seja, queremos que

$$c^s(0) = \beta(s), \quad c^s(d) = f(\beta(s)) \quad \forall s$$

Ou seja, queremos que

$$f \circ \beta = \gamma_{V(d)}$$

Note que  $\beta(s) = \gamma_{V(0)}(s)$ . Então derive em  $s = 0$ :

$$f \circ \beta = f \circ \gamma_{V(0)} = \gamma_{V(d)} \iff f_{*,p} V(0) = V(d) = PV(0)$$

onde  $P$  é o transporte paralelo ao longo de  $\gamma$  de  $p = \gamma(0)$  a  $\gamma(d)$ . Isso implica que queremos que

$$P^{-1} f_{*,p} V(0) = V(0)$$

Com um desenho muito convincente (ver Manfredo p. 225, esse agumentinho tá tranquilo) fica que como  $f$  é uma isometria

$$f_{*,p} \gamma'(0) = \gamma'(d)$$

Decorre daí que  $P^{-1} f_{*,p} \gamma'(0) = P^{-1} \gamma'(d) = \gamma'(0)$ . Então podemos fixar nossa atenção em

$$A := P^{-1} f_{*,p} |_{\gamma'(p)^\perp} \in O(n-1)$$

Nosso objetivo é analisar o que acontece quando  $A$  tem um ponto fixo,  $V(0)$ , pois essa é uma condição que queremos que seja verdade para que  $f \circ \beta = \gamma_{V(d)}$ .

Agora segue o argumento dos eigenvalores que diz assim. Defina  $A := P^{-1} f_{*,p}$ . Suponha que  $A$  tem um ponto fixo. Os autovalores vem dados assim:

$$\text{Spec } A = \underbrace{\{\lambda_1, \bar{\lambda}_1, \lambda_2, \bar{\lambda}_2\}}_{\text{par}}, -1, \dots, -1, 1, \dots, 1$$

Ou seja, os eigenvalores que não são 1 ou  $-1$  não afetam o determinante. Daí concluímos que

- Se  $n-1$  é ímpar,  $f$  preserva orientação. Por que? Deixa os complexos do lado que não importam. Então pensa: se só tenho  $-1$ s, então tenho uma quantidade ímpar de  $-1$ s porque a dimensão é ímpar. Respira. Nesse caso  $f$  inverte orientação. Mas:  $f$  deve ter pelo menos um 1! Então a quantidade de  $-1$ s é par. Então não:  $f$  preserva orientação.
- se  $n-1$  é par,  $f$  reverte orientação.

E essas são as condições que precisamos para que  $A$  tenha um ponto fixo e tudo funcione. Então bota isso aí na hipótese do teorema.  $\square$

**Synge theorem**  $M^n$  compact,  $K > 0$ .

(i) Se  $n$  é par,  $\pi_1(M) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{se } M \text{ é orientável} \\ \mathbb{Z}_2 & \text{se não} \end{cases}$

(ii) Se  $n$  é ímpar,  $M^n$  é orientável.

## 3. ag algebraic geometry

### 3.1 algebraic variety

An *algebraic variety* is a compact topological space equipped with a ring of sheaves which is locally isomorphic to an affine variety with its sheaf of regular functions and Zariski topology.

Amazing! An affine variety? Sure, it's  $Z$ , the solution set of some polynomial equations on  $\mathbb{C}^n$  equipped with the ring of algebraic functions, which are the restrictions of polynomial functions to  $Z$ . Zariski topology? Sure, closed sets are solution sets of polynomial equations.

Compare with [GH78], p. 12: a subset  $V$  of an open set  $U \subset \mathbb{C}^n$  is an *analytic variety* in  $U$  if for any  $p \in U$  there exists a neighbourhood  $U'$  of  $U$  such that  $V \cap U'$  is the common zero locus of a finite collection of *holomorphic* functions on  $U'$ .

And compare with [GH78], p. 128: an *algebraic variety* is defined to be the set of complex zeros of homogeneous polynomials in projective space and may be viewed a priori as an analytic subvariety of  $\mathbb{P}^n$ .

But wait, [GH78], p. 20: an *analytic subvariety*  $V$  of a complex manifold  $M$  is a subset given locally as the zeros of a finite collection of holomorphic functions. A point  $p \in V$  is a *smooth point* of  $V$  if  $V$  is a submanifold of  $M$  near  $p$ , that is, if  $V$  is given in some neighbourhood of  $p$  by holomorphic functions  $f_1, \dots, f_k$  with  $\text{rank } J(f) = k$ .

**Explanation.** Analytic submanifolds are somehow allowed to have singularities. So the fact that an algebraic variety can be viewed as a projective subvariety does not guarantee that it is smooth (thankfully—otherwise we are just smooth).

Back to Misha: but what is the sheaf of regular functions? Pick  $U \subset M$  a Zariski open subset that is a union of open Zariski subsets,  $U = \bigcup U_\alpha$ . A function on  $U$  is *regular* if it is regular on  $U_\alpha$ .

So? What is an algebraic variety? It is a compact topological space with a sheaf that is locally isomorphic to an affine variety **meaning** that

every open set with the sheaf restricted to the open set is isomorphic as a ringed space to an affine variety equipped with the sheaf of regular functions.

## 3.2 ag is dg and dg is ag

This is Misha's construction of smooth manifolds using sheaves. I worked on this construction during norther-hemisphere winter 2024. See [github.com/danimalabares/dt](https://github.com/danimalabares/dt).

**Definition 2.10** A *ringed space*  $(M, \mathcal{F})$  is a topological space equipped with a sheaf of functions. A *morphism*  $(M, \mathcal{F}) \xrightarrow{\Psi} (N, \mathcal{F})$  of ringed spaces is a continuous map  $M \xrightarrow{\Psi} N$  such that, for every open subset  $U \subset N$  and every function  $f \in \mathcal{F}'(U)$ , the function  $f \circ \Psi$  belongs to the ring  $\mathcal{F}(\Psi^{-1}(U))$ . An *isomorphism* of ringed spaces is a homeomorphism  $\Psi$  such that  $\Psi$  and  $\Psi^{-1}$  are morphisms of ringed spaces.

**Remark 2.6** Usually the term “ringed space” stands for a more general concept, where the “sheaf of functions” is an abstract “sheaf of rings”, not necessarily a subsheaf in the sheaf of all functions on  $M$ . The above definition is simpler, but less standard.

**Exercise 2.16** Let  $M, N$  be open subsets in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $\Psi : M \rightarrow N$  be a smooth map. Show that  $\Psi$  defines a morphism of spaces ringed by smooth functions.

*Solution.* Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be the sheaf of smooth functions on  $M$  and  $\mathcal{F}'$  on  $N$ . Choose an open subset  $U \subset M$  and  $f \in \mathcal{F}'(U)$ . Since  $\Psi$  is smooth and composition of smooth functions is smooth,  $f \circ \Psi$  is a smooth map.  $\square$

**Exercise 2.17 (smooth sheaf!!!!)** Let  $M$  be a smooth manifold of some class and let  $\mathcal{F}$  be the space of functions of this class. Show that  $\mathcal{F}$  is a sheaf.

*Solution.* Let  $U$  be an open set of  $M$ . To show  $\mathcal{F}$  is a presheaf notice that the restriction of a function of class  $C^i$  to an open subset is also of class  $C^i$ . To show  $\mathcal{F}$  is a sheaf fix an open set  $U \subset M$ , an open cover  $\{U_j\}$  of  $U$ , and a collection of functions  $f_j \in \mathcal{F}(U_j)$ . As in Exercise 2.14, differentiability class  $C^i$  is a local condition and thus gluing the  $f_j$  produces a  $C^i$  function on  $U$ .  $\square$

**Exercise 2.18** Let  $M$  be a topological manifold, and let  $(U_i, \varphi_i)$  and  $(V_j, \psi_j)$  be smooth structures on  $M$ . Show that these structures are equivalent if and only if the corresponding sheaves of smooth functions coincide.

*Solution.* First let's clarify what is the sheaf of smooth functions associated to a smooth structure. Let  $U \subset M$  be open. The ring  $\mathcal{F}(U)$  associated to the atlas  $(U_i, \varphi_i)$  consists of functions  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f \circ \varphi_i^{-1}$  is smooth for all  $i$ .

Also recall that equivalence of smooth structures means that there is a common refinement of the covers  $\{U_i\}$  and  $\{V_j\}$  such that  $\psi_k \circ \varphi_k^{-1}$  is smooth for all  $k$  indexing the refinement.

( $\implies$ ) Suppose that  $(U_i, \varphi_i)$  and  $(V_j, \psi_j)$  are equivalent. The corresponding sheaves  $\mathcal{F}_1$  and  $\mathcal{F}_2$  coincide because functions are smooth with respect to one atlas iff they are smooth with respect to the other. Indeed: fix  $U \subset M$  open and a function  $f \in \mathcal{F}_1(U)$ . Then  $f \in \mathcal{F}_2(U)$  since

$$f \circ \psi_j^{-1} = f \circ (\varphi_i^{-1} \circ \varphi) \circ \psi_j^{-1} = (f \circ \varphi_i^{-1}) \circ (\varphi \circ \psi_j^{-1}).$$

which is smooth.

( $\impliedby$ ) Suppose that  $\mathcal{F}_1$  and  $\mathcal{F}_2$  coincide. Let  $W_{ij} := U_i \cap V_j$  be a common refinement of  $\{U_i\}$  and  $\{V_j\}$ . Set  $\varphi_{ij} = \varphi_i|_{W_{ij}}$  and  $\psi_{ij} = \psi_j|_{W_{ij}}$ . **We must show that  $\psi_{ij} \circ \varphi_{ij}^{-1}$  is smooth.** Idea: to use the fact that the sheaves coincide we can use the coordinate functions of the charts, which are real-valued functions and thus must be elements of the sheaves.

Notice that  $\psi_{ij}$  consists of  $n := \dim M$  coordinate functions  $\psi_{ij}^\ell : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Each of this functions is smooth with respect to the smooth structure  $(V_j, \psi_j)$  since it is the projection onto the  $\ell$ -th coordinate, that is,

$$\psi_{ij}^\ell \circ \psi_{ij}^{-1}(x_1, \dots, x_\ell, \dots, x_n) = x_\ell.$$

Since the sheaf of smooth functions with respect to the smooth structure  $(U_i, \varphi_i)$  is the same,  $\psi_{ij}^\ell \circ \varphi_{ij}$  must be smooth for all  $\ell$ , making  $\psi_{ij} \circ \varphi_{ij}^{-1}$  smooth.  $\square$

**Remark 2.7** This exercise implies that the following definition is equivalent to the one stated earlier.

**Definition 2.11** Let  $(M, \mathcal{F})$  be a topological manifold equipped with a sheaf of functions. It is said to be a **smooth manifold of class  $C^\infty$**  or  $C^1$  if every point in  $(M, \mathcal{F})$  has an open neighbourhood isomorphic to the ringed space  $(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathcal{F}')$ , where  $\mathcal{F}'$  is a ring of functions on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  of this class.

**Definition 2.12** A **coordinate system** on an open subset  $U$  of a manifold  $(M, \mathcal{F})$  is an isomorphism between  $(U, \mathcal{F})$  and an open subset in  $(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathcal{F}')$ , where  $\mathcal{F}'$  are functions of the same class on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Remark 2.8** In order to avoid complicated notation, from now on we assume that all manifolds are Hausdorff and smooth (of class  $C^\infty$ ). The case of other differentiability classes can be considered in the same manner.

**Exercise 2.19 (!)** Let  $(M, \mathcal{F})$  and  $(N, \mathcal{F}')$  be manifolds and let  $\Psi : M \rightarrow N$  be a continuous map. Show that the following conditions are equivalent.

- (i) In local coordinates  $\Psi$  is given by a smooth map

(ii)  $\Psi$  is a morphism of ringed spaces.

*Solution.* (i)  $\implies$  (ii). Suppose that in local coordinates  $\Psi$  is given by a smooth map. Showing that  $\Psi$  is a morphism of ringed spaces is to show that for any open set  $U \subset N$  and smooth function  $f \in \mathcal{F}'(U)$ , the function  $f \circ \Psi$  is smooth on  $\Psi^{-1}(U)$ . The latter means that for each chart  $(U_i, \varphi_i)$  of  $\Psi^{-1}(U)$ , the composition  $(f \circ \Psi) \circ \varphi_i^{-1}$  is smooth.

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 & & \mathbb{R} & \xleftarrow{f \circ \Psi} & M & \xrightarrow{\Psi} & N & \xrightarrow{f} & \mathbb{R} \\
 & & & & \downarrow \varphi & & \downarrow \psi & & \\
 & & \mathbb{R}^m & \xrightarrow{\psi \circ \Psi \circ \varphi^{-1}} & \mathbb{R}^n & & & & 
 \end{array}$$

The definition of  $f$  being smooth in  $U$  is that  $f \circ \psi_j^{-1}$  is smooth in any chart  $(V_j, \psi_j)$ . Starting from  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , we can go right instead of up to see that

$$(f \circ \Psi) \circ \varphi^{-1} = (f \circ \psi^{-1}) \circ (\psi \circ \Psi \circ \varphi^{-1}),$$

which is smooth.

**Misha:** this is almost trivial, should be easier.

(ii)  $\implies$  (i). Now suppose that the pullback of smooth functions (defined on open sets) by  $\Psi$  is smooth. Choose the coordinate functions  $\psi^\ell$  of a local chart  $\psi$ . Then  $\psi^\ell \circ \Psi \circ \varphi^{-1}$  is smooth for all  $\ell$  and for any local chart  $(U, \varphi)$  of  $M$ , making  $\psi \circ \Psi \circ \varphi^{-1}$  smooth as well.

**Misha:** and this shouldn't be that easy. □

**Remark 2.9** An isomorphism of smooth manifolds is called a *diffeomorphism*. As follows from this exercise, a diffeomorphism is a homeomorphism that maps smooth functions onto smooth ones. *Because the inverse map pulls back smooth functions to smooth ones, so the map itself maps smooth functions to smooth ones.*

### 3.3 basic structure sheaf stuff

What is the structure sheaf?

What is the induced map on structure sheaves?

### 3.4 segre and veronesse

After quite some time trying to understand these embeddings I have it all sorted out finally:

*segre* is about the product:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{segre} : \mathbb{P}U \times \mathbb{P}V &\longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(U \otimes V) \\ ([u], [v]) &\longmapsto [u \otimes v] \end{aligned}$$

And *veronese* is about the homogeneous polynomials:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{veronese} : \mathbb{P}U &\longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(S^2 U) \\ [v] &\longmapsto [v \otimes v] \end{aligned}$$

what about higher degree? At least for veronese it's clear: you just put things into  $\mathbb{P}(S^d U)$  via  $[f] \mapsto [f^{\otimes d}]$ , a homogeneous degree  $d$  polynomial.

But the question remains: how to show these are algebraic varieties i.e. what are their ideals? And the answer is just what you expected: algebra. I mean—you have to do the computations. So do you want to them now? Like—again? Because maybe, you do them now, and then, and again, and every time you realize it's true and then you just cannot reproduce it off the top of your head, because you see computations are like that, and the answer is that... It's not that simple actually but I actually found a solution in [\[Eis04\]](#), so I'd have to redirect the reader (is there any?) to `journal.pdf` for what's happening. Anyway. Now I will put all my adventures that are in backstage of those two definitions above.

### 3.4.1 segre

#### misha's approach

A tensor  $\alpha \in V \otimes W$  is called *decomposable* if  $\alpha = x \otimes y$  for some  $x \in V, y \in W$ . (That is, it is only one summand—elements of tensor product are finite sums of thing of that kind.) **Claim.** A tensor  $\alpha \in V \otimes W$  is decomposable iff the rank of the corresponding map  $V^* \rightarrow W$  is  $\leq 1$ , where rank is dimension of image.

Cool but what's the corresponding map? It's  $V \otimes W = \text{Hom}(V^*, W)$  defined like this: for a tensor  $\alpha^{ij} v_i \otimes w_j$  define  $\varphi \mapsto \alpha^{ij} \varphi(v_i) w_j$ . To see injective: if the image is zero then  $\varphi(v_i) = 0$  for all  $i$ , so  $\varphi \equiv 0$ . To see isomorphism compare dimensions.

**Corollary.** The set of decomposable tensors is an affine variety because having rank 1 is equivalent to  $2 \times 2$  minors vanishing, an algebraic condition. Meaning: the ideal generated by the polynomials that take a matrix (i.e. a vector in  $V \otimes W$ ) and compute any  $2 \times 2$  minor of that given matrix is what you want.

#### ChatGPT

The Segre embedding provides a way to map the product of two projective spaces into a higher-dimensional projective space. Let  $V$  and  $W$  be two vector spaces of dimension  $n + 1$  and  $m + 1$ , respectively. The Segre embedding embeds the product  $\mathbb{P}(V) \times \mathbb{P}(W)$  into  $\mathbb{P}(V \otimes W)$ .

### Rank-1 Condition and Algebraic Geometry

Geometrically, the Segre embedding corresponds to the condition that a tensor formed by  $x_i y_j$  must have rank at most 1. This rank-1 condition translates algebraically into the vanishing of all  $2 \times 2$  minors of the matrix  $(z_{ij})$ .

The algebraic Segre variety thus corresponds to the zero locus of these polynomials in  $\mathbb{P}(V \otimes W)$ .

### The Homomorphism

The Segre map can be defined via a homomorphism of polynomial rings:

$$\varphi : k[z_{ij}] \rightarrow k[x_0, \dots, x_n, y_0, \dots, y_m],$$

where  $z_{ij}$  are coordinates in a polynomial ring corresponding to the homogeneous coordinates of  $\mathbb{P}(V) \times \mathbb{P}(W)$ , and it sends the variables  $z_{ij}$  to products of coordinates as follows:

$$\varphi(z_{ij}) = x_i y_j,$$

for  $0 \leq i \leq n, 0 \leq j \leq m$ .

### The Defining Ideal

The image of the Segre embedding is defined by a vanishing condition given by  $2 \times 2$  minors of the corresponding matrix  $(z_{ij})$ . Specifically, the Segre variety is defined by the vanishing of all  $2 \times 2$  minors of the matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} z_{00} & z_{01} & \dots & z_{0m} \\ z_{10} & z_{11} & \dots & z_{1m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ z_{n0} & z_{n1} & \dots & z_{nm} \end{bmatrix}.$$

These minors represent the algebraic constraints that ensure the image lies in the Segre variety within the projectivization  $\mathbb{P}(V \otimes W)$ .

The vanishing of a specific  $2 \times 2$  minor is given by:

$$M = z_{00}z_{11} - z_{01}z_{10}.$$

Substituting  $z_{ij} = x_i y_j$  into this gives:

$$M = (x_0 y_0)(x_1 y_1) - (x_0 y_1)(x_1 y_0) = x_0 x_1 y_0 y_1 - x_0 x_1 y_0 y_1 = 0.$$

This confirms that  $M$  vanishes under the Segre embedding.

### The Kernel of the Homomorphism

The kernel of the homomorphism  $\varphi$  encodes the Segre variety. That is:

$$\ker(\varphi) = \langle z_{00}z_{11} - z_{01}z_{10} \rangle,$$

where  $\langle z_{00}z_{11} - z_{01}z_{10} \rangle$  denotes the ideal generated by the determinant of any  $2 \times 2$  minors of the matrix formed by  $z_{ij}$ . These correspond precisely to the algebraic constraints defining the Segre embedding.



### dani's first attempt

This somewhere in 2024:

**Exercise 2.14 (The Segre Embedding)** Let  $\psi : \mathbb{P}^r \times \mathbb{P}^s \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^N$  be the map defined by sending the order pair  $(a_0, \dots, a_r) \times (b_0, \dots, b_s)$  to  $(\dots, a_i b_j, \dots)$  in lexicographic order, where  $N = rs + r + s$ . Note that  $\psi$  is well-defined and injective. It is called the *Segre embedding*. Show that the image of  $\psi$  is a subvariety of  $\mathbb{P}^N$ . [Hint: Let the homogeneous coordinates of  $\mathbb{P}^N$  be  $\{z_{ij} : i = 0, \dots, r, j = 0, \dots, s\}$  and let  $\mathfrak{a}$  be the kernel of the homomorphism  $k[[z_{ij}]] \rightarrow k[x_0, \dots, x_r, y_0, \dots, y_s]$  which sends  $z_{ij}$  to  $x_i y_j$ . Then show that  $\text{img } \psi = Z(\mathfrak{a})$ .

*Solution.* First let's make sure the dimension  $N$  is correct. The easy way is found in [wiki](#):  $N = (r+1)(s+1) - 1$  which is the number of possible choices of pairs of things taking one out of  $r+1$ , another out of  $s+1$ , and then remember there is only one zero index so take one away.

To see that  $\psi$  is injective we follow [StackExchange](#): Let  $z = [z_{00} : z_{01} : \dots : z_{ij} : \dots : z_{rs}]$  be an element of the image of  $\psi$  and let  $(a, b) \in \mathbb{P}^r \times \mathbb{P}^s$  be such that  $\psi(a, b) = z$ . WLOG we can assume  $a_0 = b_0 = z_{00} = 1$ . Then  $b_j = z_{0j}$  for all  $0 \leq j \leq s$  and  $a_i = z_{i0}$  so  $a, b$  are uniquely determined and this map is bijective onto the image.

Actually, what we have done is constructed an inverse morphism of the Segre map. According to [StackExchange](#), this makes it into an embedding.

To show that  $\text{img } \psi$  is a subvariety of  $\mathbb{P}^N$  we need to find a set of homogeneous polynomials in  $k[z_{ij}]$ .

Following the hint, as before let  $z \in \text{img } \psi$  and  $f$  any polynomial in the kernel of

$$k[[z_{ij}]] \rightarrow k[x_0, \dots, x_r, y_0, \dots, y_s]$$

. We must show that  $f(z) = 0$ . Well it doesn't make much sense because if  $f = \sum a_{ij} z_{ij}$  is in the kernel of that map, then its image  $\sum a_{ij} x_i y_j$  is the zero polynomial, so obviously  $f(z) = \sum a_{ij} z_{ij} = \sum a_{ij} x_i y_j = 0$ . So this is confusing.

So what are the equations of  $\text{img } \psi$ ? A polynomial  $f(z_{00}, \dots, z_{rs})$  will vanish on  $\text{img } \psi$  if somehow it vanishes  $\square$

### 3.4.2 veronese

dani

Remember Manfredo in the olden days in mexico: is  $f \in U^\vee$  is a linear form, then

$$f \otimes f \in U^\vee \otimes U^\vee$$

ok that's not how manfredo said but upon symmetrization, blending in some ChatGPT notation, becomes

$$f \odot f \in \text{Sym}^2(U^\vee) = S^2 U^\vee = (U^\vee \otimes U^\vee) / \langle \varphi \otimes \psi - \psi \otimes \varphi \rangle$$

is a symmetric bilinear form called the *symmetrization* which, now I remember, this is what Lee said:

$$\text{Sym}(f \odot f) = \frac{1}{2}(f \otimes f + f \otimes f)$$

*almost* by definition because definition is... alternating sum no sé qué, anyways... no a ver:

$$\text{Sym}(f_1 \otimes \dots \otimes f_n) \stackrel{\text{GPT}}{=} \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_d} f_{\sigma(1)} \otimes \dots \otimes f_{\sigma(d)}$$

while, for a so-called-by-riemannian-geometers **k-tensor** which is a k-multilinear form, that is an element of  $(U^\vee)^{\otimes n}$ ,

$$(\text{Sym } F)(v_1, \dots, v_k) \stackrel{\text{Lee}}{=} \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_k} F(v_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, v_{\sigma(k)})$$

which is probably the same please continue.

The point is that

$$\begin{aligned} B &= f \odot f : U \times U \longrightarrow k \\ (u_1, u_2) &\longmapsto f(u_1)f(u_2) \end{aligned}$$

which, (this is what manfredo said), gives you a quadratic polynomial via

$$Q(\vec{x}) := B(\vec{x}, \vec{x})$$

So why is it quadratic? Because what is quadratic...? So for example if  $f(x, y) = 4x + \frac{2}{7}y$  then  $Q(x, y) = f(x, y)f(x, y) = (4x + \frac{2}{7}y)^2$  which is quadratic.

What happens for higher degree? That symmetrization does nothing—namely  $f \otimes \dots \otimes f$  is already symmetric because permuting all the things does nothing, so we end up having that the associated form is just applying  $f^d$ —a homogeneous degree  $d$  polynomial.

**galkin**

The *Veronese map degree 2* in AG is

$$\mathbb{P}(U^\vee) \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(S^2 U^\vee)$$

$$\mathbb{P}(U^\vee) \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(S^2 U^\vee)$$

$$[f] \longmapsto [f \otimes f]$$

$$f \longmapsto f^2$$

$$\ell(x) \longrightarrow (\ell(x))^2$$

I guess for

$$\ell(x) = a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_n x_n$$

$$\ell(x)^2 = a_1^2 x_1^2 + 2a_1 a_2 x_1 x_2 + \dots$$

and

$$[a_1, \dots, a_n] \rightarrow [a_1^2 : a_1 a_2 : \dots]$$

**Remark** As I recall from last lecture, when this happened, the point of  $S^d U$  is that it is in fact the set of degree  $d$  polynomials. That makes sense? GPT: So this embedding really sends linear forms to degree  $d$  polynomials — it makes perfect sense!

### GPT

The *Veronese embedding* is a classical construction in algebraic geometry. It embeds projective space into a higher-dimensional projective space using all monomials of a fixed degree.

Let

$$\nu_d : \mathbb{P}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^N$$

be the Veronese map of degree  $d$ , where

$$N = \binom{n+d}{d} - 1.$$

Then  $\nu_d$  is defined by sending a point  $[x_0 : \dots : x_n]$  to the point in  $\mathbb{P}^N$  whose coordinates are all monomials of degree  $d$  in  $x_0, \dots, x_n$ .

For example, when  $n = 1$  and  $d = 2$ , the map is:

$$[x_0 : x_1] \mapsto [x_0^2 : x_0 x_1 : x_1^2 \dots],$$

which embeds  $\mathbb{P}^1$  as a conic in  $\mathbb{P}^2$ .

The Veronese embedding transforms degree- $d$  hypersurfaces into hyperplanes in the image. It plays an important role in the classification of projective varieties and is used in the study of projective embeddings and Hilbert schemes.

**And some more gpt from another time...** Let  $U$  be a vector space of dimension  $n + 1$ . Then:

- $S^d U^\vee$  is the space of degree  $d$  homogeneous polynomials on  $U$ .
- $S^d U$  is the dual space to  $S^d U^\vee$ , i.e., it consists of linear functionals on the space of degree  $d$  polynomials.
- The Veronese map of degree  $d$  is

$$\nu_d : \mathbb{P}(U^\vee) \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(S^d U^\vee), \quad [f] \mapsto [f^d].$$

- The map sends linear forms to degree  $d$  homogeneous polynomials.

## 3.5 normalization

Normalization step-by-step guide.

1. A variety is **normal** if its stalks  $\mathcal{O}_{X,p}$  are integrally closed on their fraction fields. This means that the roots of any monic polynomial with coefficients on the stalk lie in the stalk.

2. Relax. A normal variety is smooth. Smooth means that there is a local neighbourhood of every point that is a smooth manifold.
3. Back to work.  $X$  is normal if any finite, birational morphism  $Y \rightarrow X$  is an isomorphism. A birational morphism is... a dominant morphism (which is... a morphism  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  (which is... at least for affine varieties, a polynomial map (which is... the restriction of a map  $\varphi : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^m$  that is polynomial in each entry))). So that's ag. Right so a dominant morphism is a morphism  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  such that  $Y$  is a Zarisky closure (intersection of all algebraic subsets (zeroes of polynomials) containing  $Y$ ). A dominant morphism of irreducible (not possible to express as union of not-contained-in-the-other varieties) is called birational if the corresponding homomorphism of the fields of fractions (so  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  induces pullback  $f^* : \mathcal{O}_Y \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X$  which (claim) can be extended to  $k(Y) \rightarrow k(X)$  (where  $k(X)$  is the field of fractions of  $\mathcal{O}_X$  (which is the localization (which is, for a ring  $R$  and  $S \subset R$  a subset closed under multiplication, the ring  $S^{-1}R$  with a some nice operations) by the set of all non-zero elements) is an isomorphism.
4. OK?!?! So a **birational morphism** is a dominant morphism (it's image is a Zarisky closure) such that the corresponding homomorphism of the field of fractions is an isomorphism.
5. OK? So, a birational morphism is worried about the fields of fractions; he induces an isomorphism of the fields of fractions.
6. Next one. A morphism  $X \rightarrow Y$  of affine varieties is **finite** if the ring  $\mathcal{O}_X$  is a finitely generated module over  $\mathcal{O}_Y$ . This makes sense because any morphism  $f : \text{Spec}(B) \rightarrow \text{Spec}(A)$  corresponds to a ring map  $f^\# : A \rightarrow B$ , and we define  $a \cdot b := f^\#(a) \cdot b$  so  $B = \mathcal{O}_X$  is naturally an  $A = \mathcal{O}_Y$ -module.
7. Whoa, ChatGPT, you went a little far on that one! Yes because I'm only doing affine ag up to this point. Where the varieties are all subvarieties, the structure sheaves are just a single ring, namely  $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I := \mathcal{O}_X$  and the induced map  $f^\#$  exactly the induced map of  $\mathcal{O}_Y \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X$ . OK but trip later about intrinsic and extrinsic ag.
8. But how is the induced map defined? If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is a morphism of affine varieties  $X \subset \mathbb{A}^n$ ,  $Y \subset \mathbb{A}^m$  with coordinate rings  $\mathcal{O}_X := k[x_i]/I$  and  $\mathcal{O}_Y := k[x_j]/J$ , then you know  $f$  is given by  $m$  polynomials  $f_j$  in  $n$  variables. So to define the induced map  $f^\#$  take a generator of  $\mathcal{O}_Y$ , it's a polynomial called  $\overline{y_j}$ , and map it to  $\overline{f_j}$ . Done.
9. But also I think in Misha world this might just be the pullback literally. None of that coordinate ring nonsense!
10. Aaaaaaaaaaaaaaand the morphism is **finite** when  $\mathcal{O}_X$  is finitely generated as a module over  $\mathcal{O}_Y$  which again. says. nothing. But breeeeeeeeaaath in and out and theorem: if  $f$  is finite then for any point  $y \in Y$  the preimage  $f^{-1}(y)$  is finite if that makes you feel alright.
11. If not then well
12. But here's something way more cool: take the ring of regular functions of a super-singular variety. Take integral closure (what is that omg no relax it's just the set of

elements of the field of fractions that are roots of monic polynomials with coefficients in  $\mathcal{O}_X$ ). Ok take integral closure. OK take Spec! This gives you an abstract variety! That's it

13. !

14. That's *normalization*!

15. Now you know what it is.

16. Some facts: the integral closure of the ring of regular functions of an affine variety is finitely generated.

17. **Importantly:** the normalization map is finite and birational.  $X$  is normal if for any finite birational  $\varphi : X' \rightarrow X$ , the map  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism.

18. **More importantly:** Normalization is a finite, birational map such that for any other finite, birational map  $\psi : X'' \rightarrow X'$  the map  $\psi$  is an isomorphism.

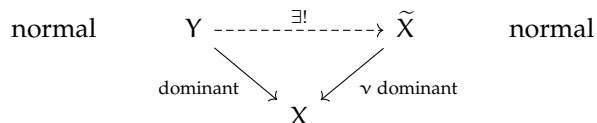
19. **Wow importantly:** (but I don't really get it) is that Noether's normalization lemma v2 says how is the normalization of  $X$  as a variety in  $\mathbb{C}^{k+1}$ . ?

## normalization in the rising sea

From [Vak25] 10.7 "Normalization".

"Normalization is a means of turning a *reduced* scheme into a normal scheme. (Unimportant remark: reducedness is not a necessary hypothesis. [...].) A *normalization* of a reduced scheme  $X$  is a morphism  $v : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$  from a normal scheme, where  $v$  induces a bijection of irreducible components of  $\tilde{X}$  and  $X$  [...]. It will satisfy a universal property, and hence it will be unique up to unique isomorphism."

So basically that's it—another universal construction. Here's the diagram Vakil puts:



**Question** In what cases is this just a blow-up?

**Question** So what is a normal variety anyways? A variety such that the local ring at every point is an integrally closed domain over the field of regular functions. Which means that "the only zeros in  $K(A)$  [=field of fractions of the ring, in this case fraction function field] to any monic polynomial in  $A[x]$  must lie in  $A$  [ $A$  is the local ring in this case of course] itself".

Right but once again that's just some abstract algebra the point is

(before defining normal scheme...) “We can now define property of schemes that says that they are “not too far from smooth”, called *normality* [...] See §13.8.7 and §26.3.5 for the fact that “smoothness” (really “regularity”) implies normality.”

So smooth implies normal but what about the inverse? Probably more algebra lurking behind the answer.

An *integrally closed domain* is an integral domain (commutative ring with unity and no zero divisors)  $A$  such that if  $x$  is an element of the field of fractions that is a root of a monic polynomial with coefficients in  $A$ , then  $x$  is itself an element of  $A$ .

(Such a thing is called an *integral closure (in the field of fractions)*: the set of all elements in the field of fractions that are roots of monic polynomials with coefficients in  $A$  are themselves elements of  $A$ .)

A variety is *normal* if all its stalks are integral domains.

The cuspidal cubic  $x^3 = y^2$  is not normal.

“Since  $X$  is nonsingular, hence normal [...]”

## 3.6 Veronese embedding

[All this is GPT] The *Veronese embedding* is a classical construction in algebraic geometry. It embeds projective space into a higher-dimensional projective space using all monomials of a fixed degree.

Let

$$\nu_d : \mathbb{P}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^N$$

be the Veronese map of degree  $d$ , where

$$N = \binom{n+d}{d} - 1.$$

Then  $\nu_d$  is defined by sending a point  $[x_0 : \dots : x_n]$  to the point in  $\mathbb{P}^N$  whose coordinates are all monomials of degree  $d$  in  $x_0, \dots, x_n$ .

For example, when  $n = 1$  and  $d = 2$ , the map is:

$$[x_0 : x_1] \mapsto [x_0^2 : x_0x_1 : x_1^2 \dots],$$

which embeds  $\mathbb{P}^1$  as a conic in  $\mathbb{P}^2$ .

The Veronese embedding transforms degree- $d$  hypersurfaces into hyperplanes in the image. It plays an important role in the classification of projective varieties and is used in the study of projective embeddings and Hilbert schemes.

**In other words...** [This is Galkin lecture] The *Veronese map degree 2* in AG is

$$\mathbb{P}(U^\vee) \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(S^2 U^\vee)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}(U^\vee) &\longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(S^2 U^\vee) \\
[f] &\longmapsto [f \otimes f] \\
f &\longmapsto f^2 \\
\ell(x) &\longrightarrow (\ell(x))^2
\end{aligned}$$

I guess for

$$\begin{aligned}
\ell(x) &= a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_n x_n \\
\ell(x)^2 &= a_1^2 x_1^2 + 2a_1 a_2 x_1 x_2 + \dots
\end{aligned}$$

and

$$[a_1, \dots, a_n] \rightarrow [a_1^2 : a_1 a_2 : \dots]$$

**Remark** As I recall from last lecture, when this happened, the point of  $S^d U$  is that it is in fact the set of degree  $d$  polynomials. That makes sense? GPT: So this embedding really sends linear forms to degree  $d$  polynomials — it makes perfect sense!

Let  $U$  be a vector space of dimension  $n + 1$ . Then:

- $S^d U^\vee$  is the space of degree  $d$  homogeneous polynomials on  $U$ .
- $S^d U$  is the dual space to  $S^d U^\vee$ , i.e., it consists of linear functionals on the space of degree  $d$  polynomials.
- The Veronese map of degree  $d$  is

$$v_d : \mathbb{P}(U^\vee) \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(S^d U^\vee), \quad [f] \mapsto [f^d].$$

- The map sends linear forms to degree  $d$  homogeneous polynomials.

Remember Manfredo in the olden days in Mexico: is  $f \in U^\vee$  is a linear form, then

$$f \otimes f \in U^\vee \otimes U^\vee$$

which upon symmetrization, blending in some ChatGPT notation, becomes

$$f \odot f \in \text{Sym}^2(U^\vee) = S^2 U^\vee = (U^\vee \otimes U^\vee) / \langle \varphi \otimes \psi - \psi \otimes \varphi \rangle$$

is a symmetric bilinear form called the *symmetrization* which, now I remember, this is what Lee said:

$$\text{Sym}(f \odot f) = \frac{1}{2}(f \otimes f + f \otimes f)$$

*almost* by definition because definition is... alternating sum no sé qué, anyways... no a ver:

$$\text{Sym}(f_1 \otimes \dots \otimes f_n) \stackrel{\text{GPT}}{=} \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_d} f_{\sigma(1)} \otimes \dots \otimes f_{\sigma(d)}$$

while, for a so-called  $k$ -tensor which is a  $k$ -multilinear form, that is an element of  $(U^\vee)^{\otimes n}$ ,

$$(\text{Sym } F)(v_1, \dots, v_k) \stackrel{\text{Lee}}{=} \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_k} F(v_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, v_{\sigma(k)})$$

which is probably the same please continue.

The point is that

$$\begin{aligned} B &= f \odot f : U \times U \longrightarrow k \\ (u_1, u_2) &\longmapsto f(u_1)f(u_2) \end{aligned}$$

which, (this is what manfredo said), gives you a quadratic polynomial via

$$Q(\vec{x}) := B(\vec{x}, \vec{x})$$

So why is it quadratic? Because what is quadratic...? So for example if  $f(x, y) = 4x + \frac{2}{7}y$  then  $Q(x, y) = f(x, y)f(x, y) = (4x + \frac{2}{7}y)^2$  which is quadratic.

What happens for higher degree? That symmetrization does nothing—namely  $f \otimes \dots \otimes f$  is already symmetric because permuting all the things does nothing, so we end up having that the associated form is just applying  $f^d$ —a homogeneous degree  $d$  polynomial.

### 3.7 reduced variety

OK irreducible is one-piece. But what's reduced? Reduced is what you want when you try to define a variety by the polynomial  $x^2$ . It's zero set is the same as  $x$ . So the underlying variety is the same SETWISE. So **reduced** is when you don't have this redundancy. And of course the a side of the story: that the coordinate ring  $R/I$  has no **nilpotents**, which are elements such that  $a^n = 0$  for some  $n$ .

### 3.8 proper varieties

#### intuition

Properness is the algebraic version of compactness.

For example:

- Projective varieties are proper.
- Affine varieties are not proper.
- Any closed subvariety of projective space is proper.

#### definition (not intuitive)

A variety  $X$  over a field  $k$  is **proper** if the structure morphism

$$X \rightarrow \text{Spec}(k)$$

is a **proper morphism**, which means:

1. **Finite type**: locally of the form  $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I$ ,



2. **Separated:** analogous to the Hausdorff condition in topology,
3. **Universally closed:** the image of any closed set remains closed under any base change.

## 4. cg complex geometry

### 4.1 complex and almost complex structures

saying “it’s only linear algebra!” doesn’t help at all.

—the students

(Actually it was Gaby from impa who said that.) Right so here’s the basic things we use all the time.

- A *riemannian metric* on a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$  is a bilinear, symmetric and positive definite form. (Positive definite implies non-degenerate.)
- A *pseudo-riemannian metric* on a real vector space is bilinear, symmetric and non-degenerate. (can have negative values and can be zero in non-zero vectors.)
- A *hermitian metric* on a complex vector space is sesquilinear (takes out conjugate on second factor), conjugate-symmetric (you can swap the entries but put a bar) and positive definite (implies non-degenerate).
- A *complex structure* on a real vector space  $\mathbb{R}$  is an endomorphism  $J : V \rightarrow V$  with  $J^2 = -\text{Id}$ . Why. Because you have  $(a + \sqrt{-1}b)v := a + bJv$  making  $V$  into a  $\mathbb{C}$ -module. **Exercise.** Show that. **Exercise.** There is an isomorphism of that complex vector space and  $V \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{C}$ . (So  $V$  is  $\mathbb{C}^{\dim_{\mathbb{R}} V/2}$ ).
- A *hypercomplex structure* on a real vector space is three complex structures  $I, J, K$  such that  $IJ = -JI = K$ . Why. Really. Because there are only so many god-given real division algebras and the next one in line is  $\mathbb{H}$ . So you define quaternion multiplication by  $(a + ib + jc + kd)v := a + bIv + cJv + dKv$ . **Exercise.** There is an isomorphism of that (*that* is a left  $\mathbb{H}$ -module) and  $V \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{H}$  (so  $V$  is  $\mathbb{H}^{\dim V/4}$ ).
- You tell me

Now bundlize!

- A *riemannian manifold* is a smooth manifold with a section of  $\text{Sym}_+^2(TM)$  which is the bundle of positive-definite symmetric 2-forms.
- An *almost complex-manifold* is a smooth manifold with  $J \in \text{End}(TM)$  such that  $J^2 = -\text{Id}$ .
- A *complex manifold* is a smooth manifold with  $J \in \text{End}(TM)$  such that  $J^2 = -\text{Id}$  and  $N(J) = 0$ .
- A *kähler manifold* is a riemannian manifold that is also a complex manifold and
  1.  $g(Jv, Jw) = g(v, w)$  for every pair of vector fields  $v, w$ . Confusingly, in this case we call  $g$  a *hermitian metric* (terrible). Relationship with hermitian metric definition above? that  $h := g - \sqrt{-1}\omega$  is hermitian in that other sense.
  2. the *fundamental form*  $\omega(v, w) := g(Jv, w)$  is closed. (you are symplectic.)
- A *almost hypercomplex manifold* is a smooth manifold with three complex structures  $I, J, K$  such that  $IJ = -JI = K$ .
- A *hypercomplex manifold* is a hypercomplex manifold such that the three structures are integrable.
- A *hyperkähler manifold* is a hypercomplex manifold with a riemannian metric such that  $(M, g, I)$ ,  $(M, g, J)$  and  $(M, g, K)$  are kähler.

OK there's lots of equivalent definitions but that's a simple enough setting.

**Why vector space with complex structure is even dimensional** Because on the complexification  $V \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{C}$   $J$  also acts, and its eigenvalues are elements of the field  $\mathbb{C}$ , so you can decompose in eigenspaces. These are both 1-dimensional over  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**And hypercomplex?** What's the decomposition for hypercomplex? What's the decomposition of the exterior algebra??

**The  $SU(2)$  action on hypercomplex** It's the analogue of rotating vectors around a circle in a complex manifold. There you have an  $S^1$  action given by  $aJv$  where  $|a| = 1$ . Now you have a whole  $S^3$  to do this. **Why is this so hard to grasp.** Because rotating vectors around a circle on a differentiable manifold is not something you would do. Like why.

**Remark** That  $\Omega^{1,0}(M)$  is the *annihilator* of  $T^{0,1}(M)$ . So this addresses the question OK,  $T^{0,1}(M)$  is the  $-\sqrt{-1}$ -eigenspace but what is  $\Omega^{0,1}(M)$  and  $\Omega^{1,0}(M)$ ?

#### Facts from Sergey class

- A local system of coordinates for a 1-complex-dimensional manifold is given by solution of  $\bar{\partial}f = 0$  for nonconstant  $f$ .
- In dimension 1 there's no almost complex structures that are not complex: all are integrable! Why right? There's several equivalences for being integrable:
  - Nijenhuis tensor vanish

- involutive  $T^{1,0}$
- Holomorphic coordinate, so previous item which is solution to CR eq.
- Given an almost complex structure on a 1 dimensional complex manifold and define the **Laplacian** to be  $\partial\bar{\partial}$ . **Exercise** If  $J$  and  $g$  are compatible then  $\Delta_J = \Delta_g \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{tr}(\nabla f)$ .

So maybe you want to use the following **Claim**: that for  $\lambda \in C^\infty(M, \mathbb{R}^+)$  we have  $\Delta_{\lambda g}(f) = \lambda^{-1} \Delta_g(f)$  because  $\sqrt{\lambda g} = \lambda \sqrt{g}$ , and I think this last one only holds in dimension 1 so all this only works in dimension 1.

- Define  $\bar{V}$  to be the same as the complex vector space  $V$  but with the scalar product  $\alpha \cdot \bar{v} = \overline{\alpha v}$ .

## 4.2 complex coordinates

You must learn to use complex coordinates

$$z^i = x^i + \sqrt{-1}y^i$$

Moral of complex coordinates is that it is the same to split in real and imaginary part as above and as  $z$  and  $\bar{z}$ .  $z$  and  $\bar{z}$  are better.

OK let us just put a whole page or so from [Lee24]:

Let us specialize to the case of  $\mathbb{C}^n$ , with its standard holomorphic coordinates  $z^j = x^j + iy^j$ . Considering  $\mathbb{C}^n$  as a smooth manifold of (real) dimension  $2n$ , we can use  $(x^j, y^j)$  as smooth global coordinates. We have a smooth global coframe  $\{dx^j, dy^j\}$  for  $T^*\mathbb{C}^n$ , which is therefore also a coframe for  $T_{\mathbb{C}}^*\mathbb{C}^n$ . Consider the  $2n$  complex 1-forms  $dz^j = dx^j + idy^j$  and  $d\bar{z}^j = dx^j - idy^j$ . Because we can solve for  $dx^j = \frac{1}{2}(dz^j + d\bar{z}^j)$  and  $dy^j = \frac{1}{2i}(dz^j - d\bar{z}^j)$ , it follows that  $\{dz^j, d\bar{z}^j\}$  is also a smooth coframe for  $T_{\mathbb{C}}^*\mathbb{C}^n$ , and arbitrary complex 1-forms can also be expressed in terms of this coframe. In particular, if  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a smooth function on an open subset  $U \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$ , we can write

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^j} dx^j + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y^j} dy^j = A_j dz^j + B_j d\bar{z}^j$$

for some coefficient functions  $A_j$  and  $B_j$ . (When using the summation convention, the understanding is that an upper index "in the denominator" is to be treated as a lower index.) To see what these coefficients are, just substitute the formulas for  $dx^j$  and  $dy^j$  in terms of  $dz^j, d\bar{z}^j$  and collect terms:

$$\begin{aligned} df &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^j} \left( \frac{dz^j + d\bar{z}^j}{2} \right) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y^j} \left( \frac{dz^j - d\bar{z}^j}{2i} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^j} - i \frac{\partial f}{\partial y^j} \right) dz^j + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^j} + i \frac{\partial f}{\partial y^j} \right) d\bar{z}^j. \end{aligned}$$

Motivated by this calculation, we define  $2n$  smooth complex vector fields  $\partial/\partial z^j$  and  $\partial/\partial \bar{z}^j$  on  $\mathbb{C}^n$  by

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z^j} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} - i \frac{\partial}{\partial y^j} \right), \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}^j} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} + i \frac{\partial}{\partial y^j} \right).$$

(Be sure to notice that the negative sign appears in the formula for  $\partial/\partial z^j$ , not  $\partial/\partial \bar{z}^j$ ; this is not a typo!) A simple computation shows that  $\{\partial/\partial z^j, \partial/\partial \bar{z}^j\}$  is the smooth global frame for  $T_{\mathbb{C}}\mathbb{C}^n$  dual to  $\{dz^j, d\bar{z}^j\}$ . For a smooth complex-valued function  $f$  defined on an open subset  $U \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$ , formula eq. (4.1) can be rewritten in terms of this frame as

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z^j} dz^j + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}^j} d\bar{z}^j.$$

In the special case in which  $f$  is a holomorphic function on an open subset of  $\mathbb{C}^n$ , you will notice that we had already defined the expression  $\partial f/\partial z^j$  by equation (1.2); now we seem to have introduced a different meaning for the same expression. The next proposition ensures that the two definitions are equivalent for holomorphic functions.

**Proposition 1.42** Suppose  $U \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$  is open. Let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be any smooth function, and let  $\partial/\partial z^j$  and  $\partial/\partial \bar{z}^j$  be the complex vector fields on  $U$  defined by (1.8).

- (a)  $f$  is holomorphic if and only if  $\partial f/\partial \bar{z}^j = 0$  for  $j = 1, \dots, n$ .
- (b) If  $f$  is holomorphic, then for each  $j$ , the expression  $\partial f/\partial z^j$  obtained by applying the complex vector field  $\partial/\partial z^j$  to  $f$  is equal to the complex partial derivative defined by (1.2).

### 4.3 complex manifolds are orientable

This is just GPT after discussing with dani: every complex manifold is orientable.

#### Why?

Let  $f : M \rightarrow N$  be a biholomorphism between complex  $n$ -dimensional manifolds. The idea is that the differential of a holomorphic map preserves orientation, and this implies that complex manifolds (which are locally modeled on  $\mathbb{C}^n$ ) are always orientable.

#### The Real Jacobian of a Holomorphic Map

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$  is holomorphic. Then we can write

$$f = (f_1, \dots, f_n), \quad f_j(z_1, \dots, z_n) = u_j(x, y) + i v_j(x, y)$$

with  $z_k = x_k + i y_k$ . The Jacobian matrix of the real map  $f : \mathbb{R}^{2n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2n}$  is:

$$Df = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_n} & \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial y_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial y_n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial x_n} & \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial y_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial y_n} \\ \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial x_n} & \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial y_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial y_n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial v_n}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial v_n}{\partial x_n} & \frac{\partial v_n}{\partial y_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial v_n}{\partial y_n} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2n \times 2n}$$

However, since  $f$  is holomorphic, it satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann equations:

$$\frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_k} = \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial y_k}, \quad \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial y_k} = -\frac{\partial v_j}{\partial x_k}$$

This structure implies that the real Jacobian matrix has the form:

$$Df = \begin{pmatrix} \operatorname{Re}(J^{\mathbb{C}}) & -\operatorname{Im}(J^{\mathbb{C}}) \\ \operatorname{Im}(J^{\mathbb{C}}) & \operatorname{Re}(J^{\mathbb{C}}) \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2n \times 2n}$$

where  $J^{\mathbb{C}} = \left( \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial z_k} \right)$  is the complex Jacobian matrix.

### Determinant Argument

One can verify that:

$$\det_{\mathbb{R}}(Df) = \left| \det_{\mathbb{C}}(J^{\mathbb{C}}) \right|^2 > 0$$

This determinant is always positive, hence any holomorphic change of coordinates has a positively oriented Jacobian. This proves that the transition functions between charts of a complex manifold preserve orientation.

### Question: Is the complex Jacobian just one matrix, and its real version made by duplicating it with conjugation?

Yes! You can think of each complex number  $a + ib$  as being represented by a  $2 \times 2$  real matrix:

$$a + ib \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{pmatrix}$$

In this way, the complex Jacobian matrix becomes a  $2n \times 2n$  real matrix composed of these little  $2 \times 2$  blocks. This is another way of representing the same real linear map.

There are two common conventions:

- Flatten real coordinates as  $(x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_n)$ : gives the block matrix shown above.
- Interleave coordinates as  $(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2, \dots)$ : then each complex entry becomes a  $2 \times 2$  real block.

Both conventions are equivalent up to a change of basis.

## Conclusion

The transition functions of a complex manifold are biholomorphisms. Their real Jacobian matrices always have positive determinant because they are built from the complex Jacobian and its complex conjugate:

$$\det_{\mathbb{R}} = |\det_{\mathbb{C}}|^2$$

This implies that complex manifolds are always orientable.

## 4.4 Volume form

It's

$$\frac{\omega^n}{n!} = \prod dz_i \wedge d\bar{z}_i$$

where  $dz_i = dx_i + \sqrt{-1}dy_i$ . It is the volume form of the hermitian manifold, i.e. the unique nowhere-vanishing section of the determinant bundle that gives 1 to the volume of the real unit cube  $e_1 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n$  obtained from an h-orthonormal complex basis  $\{e_i\}$ .

## 4.5 hessian metric and kahler metric

The Kähler form is the differential of a plurisubharmonic function  $\psi$ . that is  $\omega = dd^c\psi = \sqrt{-1}\partial\bar{\partial}\psi$ .

The point is: *hessian metric* is one that whose local components can be given by the second partial derivatives of some function (I guess local function of course). *kahler metric* is one that is somehow a hessian metric but in the complex case (?) what? so: why is the fundamental closed if the metric can be locally expressed like that?

**Exercise** I'm trying to prove the following claim: a metric is Kähler (i.e., it can be locally defined as the Hessian of a real-valued function) if and only if the associated fundamental form is closed.

*Solution. Plan of proof:* Write  $g$  locally (because all we know is that  $g_{i\bar{j}}$  are the second derivatives of some function), pass to a local expression for  $\omega$ , and differentiate. ChatGPT makes me think the moral of the proof is that  $g_{i\bar{j}} = \partial\bar{\partial}f$ , and when taking  $d = \partial + \bar{\partial}$  it will vanish.

So I would like to write  $g$  locally. According to Alex's document posted above, and also ChatGPT's initial answer, the metric can be locally expressed as:

$$g = \sum_{i,j} g_{i\bar{j}} dz^i \otimes d\bar{z}^j$$

But I wonder:

Why is  $dz^i \otimes d\bar{z}^j$  a basis of  $\text{Sym}^2(U)$  for some open  $U \subset M$ ? On a real manifold,  $dx^i \otimes dx^j$  forms a local basis for symmetric tensors (and also the symmetrizations of those, denoted by  $dx^i dx^j$ ). What happens in complex coordinates? Are tensors like  $dz^i \otimes dz^j$  and  $d\bar{z}^i \otimes d\bar{z}^j$  not symmetric? Could we also use notation  $dz^i d\bar{z}^j$ ?

And then, how do we pass from this expression to something like

$$\omega = \omega_{i\bar{j}} dz^i \wedge d\bar{z}^j$$

that is, already assuming that  $\omega$  will be a  $(1,1)$ -form — i.e., with no terms like  $dz^i \wedge dz^j$  or  $d\bar{z}^i \wedge d\bar{z}^j$ ? Why?

So the task is to express  $\omega_{i\bar{j}}$  in terms of  $g_{i\bar{j}}$ , which is probably just multiplication by  $\sqrt{-1}$ .

**Why the metric has no  $dz^i dz^j$  terms** by ChatGPT:

A general complexified metric looks like:

$$g = A_{ij} dz^i dz^j + B_{i\bar{j}} dz^i d\bar{z}^j + C_{\bar{i}j} d\bar{z}^i dz^j$$

But since  $g$  is real, we must have  $g = \bar{g}$ , which forces:

$$A = \bar{C}, \quad B_{i\bar{j}} = \overline{B_{j\bar{i}}}$$

To keep all components real, we must set  $A = C = 0$ , leaving only:

$$g = g_{i\bar{j}} dz^i d\bar{z}^j, \quad \text{with} \quad g_{i\bar{j}} = \overline{g_{j\bar{i}}}$$

□

## 4.6 core concepts

### 4.6.1 genus

For a smooth complex curve  $C$ , the *genus* is

$$g := \dim H^1(C, \mathcal{O}_C).$$

It measures the number of “holes” in the curve. For singular curves, the *arithmetic genus* is

$$p_a(C) := 1 - \chi(\mathcal{O}_C) = g(\tilde{C}) + \delta,$$

where  $\tilde{C}$  is the normalization and  $\delta$  accounts for singularity contributions.

### genus in huybrechts

**Definition** ([Huy05], p. 234) The *arithmetic genus* of a compact complex manifold  $X$  of dimension  $n$  is

$$p_a(X) := (-1)^n (\chi(\mathcal{O}_X) - 1)$$



**Definition** ([Huy16] chpt. 1, sec. 1, p.18) Consider a *possibly singular curve*  $C \subset X$  in a smooth surface  $X$ . A priori,  $C$  is allowed to be singular, reducible, non-reduced, etc. The *arithmetic genus* of  $C$  is by definition

$$p_a(C) := 1 - \chi(C, \mathcal{O}_C)$$

And then [Huy16] says:

For an arbitrary reduced curve  $C$  the *geometric genus* is by definition the genus of the normalization  $\nu : \tilde{C} \rightarrow C$ . Thus,

$$p_a(C) = g(C) + h^0(\delta)$$

where  $\delta = \nu_*(\mathcal{O}_{\tilde{C}}/\mathcal{O}_C)$  “is concentrated in the singular points of  $C$ ” (what is  $\delta$  right?).

### genus in harshorne

**Definition** ([Har77a], p.180)  $X$  nonsingular projective variety, *geometric genus* of  $X$  is  $p_g := \dim_k \Gamma(X, \omega_X)$ , where  $\omega_X = \Lambda^n(\Omega_{X/k})$  is the canonical sheaf/bundle.

**Definition** (p. 54) The hilbert polynomial  $P_Y$  of a projective variety  $Y$  is the polynomial whose coefficients are the dimensions of every summand in the graded decomposition  $\bigoplus S^i$  of  $\mathcal{O}_X$  (using that  $Y$  is projective).

The *arithmetic genus* of  $Y$  is  $p_a(Y) := (-1)^r (P_Y(0) - 1)$ .

**Remark** In the case of a projective nonsingular *curve*, the arithmetic genus and the geometric genus coincide (by Serre duality). This may not be true in dimension  $\geq 2$ .

**Proposition IV.1.1** If  $X$  is a curve, then

$$p_a(X) = p_g(X) = \dim_k H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X),$$

so we call this number simply the *genus* of  $X$  and denote it by  $g$ .

### 4.6.2 euler characteristic.

The Euler characteristic of a sheaf  $\mathcal{F}$  on  $C$  is

$$\chi(C, \mathcal{F}) := \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-1)^i \dim H^i(C, \mathcal{F}).$$

In particular,

$$\chi(\mathcal{O}_C) = 1 - g.$$

- $\chi$  is additive on direct sums:

$$\chi(\mathcal{F} \oplus \mathcal{G}) = \chi(\mathcal{F}) + \chi(\mathcal{G}).$$

- For a finite morphism  $\varphi : \tilde{C} \rightarrow C$ ,

$$\chi(\varphi_* \mathcal{O}_{\tilde{C}}) = \chi(\mathcal{O}_{\tilde{C}}).$$

- For any curve  $C$ ,

$$p_a(C) := 1 - \chi(\mathcal{O}_C).$$

### 4.6.3 degree

For a line bundle  $L$  on a curve  $C$ , the *degree* is defined as

$$\deg L := \int_C c_1(L).$$

For the canonical bundle  $K_C$ ,

$$\deg K_C = 2g - 2.$$

### 4.6.4 intersection number

On a smooth surface  $M$ , the intersection number of two divisors  $D, E \subset M$  is

$$D \cdot E := \int_M c_1(\mathcal{O}(D)) \wedge c_1(\mathcal{O}(E)).$$

For a curve  $C \subset M$ , the *self-intersection* is  $C \cdot C = \deg N_{C/M}$ , and the *adjunction formula* reads

$$2p_a(C) - 2 = C \cdot (C + K_M).$$

Also see [?] defs. I.2, I.3.

Here's some [Lee24]. Recall (?) that the *fundamental class* of a manifold is the homology class of a triangulation of the manifold (triangulation exists), which is a top-dimensional simplicial chain. No really, for compact oriented manifolds the top homology group is a cyclic group and the fundamental class is an element that generates  $H_n(M|\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{R}) \cong \mathbb{R}$  for all  $\mathbb{Z}$  (thm. 3.26 [Hat00] as indicated in [Lee24], p. 165).

Then for any line bundle on  $M$  you can think of its Chern class, which is a 2-cochain and, if you are a Riemann surface, a real-2-dimension manifold, your fundamental class is a 2-chain and you can do

$$\langle c(L), [M] \rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} c(L)([M]) := \deg L.$$

(Which is probably just the integral of the first Chern class of  $L$ !)

### 4.6.5 riemann-roch for curves

$$h^0(L) - h^0(K - L) = \deg L - g + 1$$

where:

- $h^0(L) = \dim H^0(X, L)$  = dimension of the vector space of sections of the line bundle which is finite-dimensional because we are complex and in smooth world it is not finite-dimensional.
- $\deg L = \int_M c_1(L)$  so de Rham pairing of cohomology class and homology class (the “fundamental class” of  $M$  if you wish).
- $p_a - 1 = \chi(M) =$  alternating sum of the dimensions of the cohomology **of the structure sheaf**  $\mathcal{O}_M$ .

So that’s why this is just so hard to grasp. Of course this is the first setting in which dani came to understand this, the I don’t use the word divisor but hey, isn’t it all just so cusionously the same.

Right so a comment from [wiki](#). Sometimes we see the easier formula

$$h^0(L) - h^0(K - L) = \deg L - g + 1$$

As as it happens, “as long as  $L$  has degree at least  $2g - 1$ , the correction term is zero, so that” you get this other formula.

### degree of canonical bundle is $2g-2$

This is repeated in proof of adjunction formula v411 but anyway...

That’s why  $\deg K = 2g - 2$ :

$$h^0(K) - h^0(K - K) = h^0(K) - h^0(\mathcal{O}_X) = \deg K - g + 1$$

so  $h^0(\mathcal{O}_X) = 1$  what’s  $h^0(K)$ ? By serre duality,

$$h^1(\mathcal{O}_X) = h^0(K_X)$$

wait why? Yes because serre duality says hey consider  $H^q(X, \mathcal{E})$  and  $H^{n-q}(X, \mathcal{E}^* \otimes K)$  and put dual on any of these, you get an isomorphism. So you choose  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{O}_X$  and since you are a curve you get that  $H^1(\mathcal{O}_X) \cong H^0(K)$ .

Right so you get that  $h^0(K_X) = g$ .

#### 4.6.6 riemann-roch for surfaces

#### 4.6.7 riemann-roch-hirzebruch

#### 4.6.8 riemann-roch-grothendieck

### 4.7 adjunction formula

#### 4.7.1 adjunction formula v0

Adjunction formula v0 is just

$$\omega_C \cong \omega_X|_C \otimes N^*$$

which is valid for any smooth hypersurface on a smooth complex manifold and can be derived easily from the holomorphic tangent bundle sequence explained with more detail in the next subsubsection.

That formula may be equivalently written as

$$K_C = K_X + C$$

or even

$$K_C = (K_X + C)|_C$$

The detailed explanation of what are these things is also in the next subsubsection.

#### 4.7.2 adjunction formula for smooth curves on surfaces

I have finally figured out two other statements that go by the name Adjunction formula.

This one is Hartshorne proposition 1.5, chapter V:

If  $C$  is a nonsingular curve of genus  $g$  on the surface  $X$ , and if  $K$  is the canonical divisor on  $X$ , then

$$2g - 2 = C \cdot (C + K)$$

##### **Proof:**

Today I won't use all of Hartshorne's construction because it involves some algebraic objects (namely ideal sheaf) that unfortunately I still don't grasp. But there's a way around this using smooth ideas. We can use (like in the above explanation above of other Adjunction formulas) the exact sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow T'_C \rightarrow T'_X|_C \rightarrow T'_X/T'_C \rightarrow 0$$

where the prime (') means holomorphic tangent bundle. The one on the right is called the normal bundle. So we take the dual of this sequence and then take determinant. This gives:

$$\omega_C \otimes \det N \cong \omega_X|_C$$

(we get canonical bundles because we took holomorphic tangent bundles). That's equivalent to:

$$\omega_C \cong \omega_X|_C \otimes N^*$$

because  $N$  is a line bundle, so  $\det$  does nothing.

Now to prove Hartshorne's Adjunction formula I want to take degrees. On the LHS I use Riemann–Roch for curves, and on the RHS I use the definition of degree as the integral of the Chern class.

(LHS.) Riemann–Roch for the curve  $C$  reads:

$$h^0(K) - h^0(K - C) = \deg(K) - g + 1$$

First notice that:

$$h^0(K - C) = h^0(\mathcal{O}_C) = 1$$

because holomorphic functions on a projective curve are constant.

And what's  $h^0(K)$ ? We use Serre duality. Serre duality says: consider  $H^q(\mathcal{E})$  and  $H^{n-q}(X, \mathcal{E}^* \otimes K)$ , put dual in either of the two, they are isomorphic. So choose  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{O}_X$  and  $q = 1$ . We get:

$$H^1(\mathcal{O}_X) \cong H^0(K_C)^*$$

OK, but what's  $H^1(\mathcal{O}_X)$ ? It's the genus... by definition. So we conclude:

$$\deg(K_C) = 2g - 2$$

(RHS.) As I said above, I want to compute the degree of  $\omega_X \otimes N^*$  thinking this: it's a line bundle, determined by its first Chern class, and its degree over  $C$  is the integral of this Chern class over  $C$ . But hey, that's just the definition of the intersection pairing:

$$C \cdot (C + K)$$

With the caveat that: why is the conormal bundle the associated line bundle to the curve  $C$ ?

This statement is actually called Adjunction Formula I in Griffiths–Harris, p. 145–146.

The argument is as follows: by definition above, the conormal bundle  $N^*$  consists of 1-forms that vanish on the holomorphic tangent bundle of  $C$ .

Also by definition, the line bundle associated to  $C$  is given by the transition functions that are quotients of locally defining functions of  $C$ ; the latter are functions  $f_\alpha$  that vanish on  $C \cap U_\alpha$ , and the transition functions are  $g_{\alpha\beta} = f_\alpha/f_\beta$ .

So GH notice that:

$$df_\alpha = d(g_{\alpha\beta} f_\beta) = f_\beta dg_{\alpha\beta} + g_{\alpha\beta} df_\beta = g_{\alpha\beta} df_\beta$$

which tells me that the transition functions of  $N^*$  coincide with those of  $\mathcal{O}(C)$ , the associated line bundle to  $C$ .

(Remark: GH interpret this last equation as showing that the bundle  $N^* \otimes \mathcal{O}(C)$  is trivial.)

### addendum: a Gauss–Bonnet echo

The equality

$$\deg K_C = 2g - 2 = -\chi(\mathcal{O}_C)$$

reminds me of the Gauss–Bonnet theorem.

Indeed, degree is the integral of the first Chern class of the canonical bundle of the complex curve (i.e., real surface):

$$\deg K_C = \int_C c_1(K_C)$$

So:

$$c_1(K_C) = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \text{Gaussian curvature} \cdot \text{area form}$$

### 4.7.3 adjunction formula for singular curves on surfaces also holds

Looks like in [Huy16] p. 18, the adjunction formula for **nonsingular** curves in surfaces discussed above holds for any curve  $C$  on a surface  $X$ . The secret is that there's an exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}(-C) \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_X \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_C \longrightarrow 0$$

where  $\mathcal{O}(-C)$  is the *ideal sheaf*, which is at the same time (1) the sheaf of regular functions in  $\mathcal{O}_X$  that vanish on  $C$  (which is why have the first arrow, it's an inclusion); and (2) the dual sheaf of the associated line bundle to  $C$ . Also notice that the structure sheaf  $\mathcal{O}_C$  turns out to be the cokernel sheaf of the inclusion  $\mathcal{O}(-C) \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O}_X$ .

Save these two claims, the argument by Huybrechts works as follows:

**Step 1** Recall that  $p_a(C) := 1 - \chi(\mathcal{O}_C)$ .

**Step 2** The exact sequence above gives

$$\chi(\mathcal{O}_X) = \chi(\mathcal{O}(-C)) + \chi(\mathcal{O}_C)$$

that is,

$$-\chi(\mathcal{O}_C) = \chi(\mathcal{O}(-C)) - \chi(\mathcal{O}_X)$$

which is to say

$$p_a(C) = 1 + \chi(\mathcal{O}(-C)) - \chi(\mathcal{O}_X)$$

**Step 3** Riemann-Roch for line bundles on surfaces reads

$$\chi(L) = \chi(\mathcal{O}_X) + \frac{(L \cdot L \otimes \omega_X^*)}{2}$$

substitute for  $L = \mathcal{O}(-C)$ :

$$\chi(\mathcal{O}(-C)) = \chi(\mathcal{O}_X) + \frac{(\mathcal{O}(-C) \cdot \mathcal{O}(-C) \otimes \omega_X^*)}{2}$$

**Step 4** Put it all together:

$$p_a(C) = 1 + \chi(\mathcal{O}_X) + \frac{(\mathcal{O}(-C) \cdot \mathcal{O}(-C) \otimes \omega_X^*)}{2} - \chi(\mathcal{O}_X)$$

**Step 5** To finish just check that

$$(\mathcal{O}(-C) \cdot \mathcal{O}(-C) \otimes \omega) = (C \cdot K + C)$$

but hey, intersection form is linear with respect to taking dual, i.e. multiplying by -1, right? And isn't it true that

- (a)  $\mathcal{O}(-C) = -\mathcal{O}(C)$ .
- (b)  $-(\mathcal{O}(-C) \otimes \omega^*) = \mathcal{O}(C) \otimes \omega$

**Claim 1** The ideal sheaf of  $C$  defined as the regular functions that vanish on  $C$  is the line bundle  $L(-C)$ .

*Proof.* If  $C$  is given by the data  $\{(U_i, f_i)\}$ , it's immediate that  $L(-C)$  is given by the data  $\{(U_i, f_i^{-1})\}$  **because the operation of the group of Weil divisors Div amounts to product of the defining functions of Cartier divisors**. Now if you require  $C$  to be effective, then this is a subsheaf of  $\mathcal{O}_X$ , so **that's why you flip it**: since  $C$  is effective, you get that the defining functions are in  $\mathcal{O}_X$ . So, you have an invertible sheaf  $\mathcal{I}$  which gives the ideal generated by  $f_i$  at every  $U_i$ .

I want to create a variety as the vanishing locus of the  $f_i$ . Who could that be? Now you think let  $Y$  be the support of the **quotient sheaf**  $\mathcal{O}_X/\mathcal{I}$ . That's the place where the all the polynomials that are not  $f_i$  don't vanish. Which sounds terribly similar to the place where the polynomials that are in  $f_i$  vanish. Which is...  $C$  provided that Cartier divisors given by data  $\{(U_i, f_i)\}$  is the same as saying that  $f_i$  vanish on  $U_i \cap C$ .

And it turns out YES, IF  $C$  is a Cartier divisor and we do have a Cartier divisor because we are a Curve.  $\square$

#### 4.7.4 sergey

Today evening (17h) we discussed the *adjunction formula*, written sometimes as

$$K_D = K_X + D \quad \text{or} \quad K_Y = (K_X + Y)|_Y.$$

The formulation and proof are relatively straightforward for smooth hypersurfaces in smooth total spaces (manifold case). Some objects featured in the discussion include: tangent or cotangent bundles, conormal sheaf or normal bundle, and determinants of vector bundles.

We also discussed how to define determinants for complexes of vector bundles, and how to define determinants of coherent sheaves on smooth projective varieties by taking their resolution. More generally, the determinant is well-defined for objects of the bounded derived category of vector bundles, and behaves well in triangles.

This all follows from the formula for determinants of finite-dimensional vector spaces in a short exact sequence:

$$0 \longrightarrow U \longrightarrow V \longrightarrow W \longrightarrow 0$$

In this case, we have a canonical isomorphism:

$$\det(V) \cong \det(U) \otimes \det(W),$$

and there is a quite explicit canonical isomorphism. Thanks to its canonicity, it globalizes to trivial vector bundles, and locally trivial vector bundles (so to all vector bundles), and then by standard homological algebra and K-theory to complexes of vector bundles.

In fact, the same standard K-theory argument shows that the isomorphism class of  $\det(C)$  in  $\text{Pic}(X)$  depends only on the class  $[C]$  of the complex in the K-group  $K(X)$ .

One thing we have not (yet) discussed is how to prove that  $N \cong \mathcal{O}(D)$ .

More generally, we looked at the relation between the (co)normal sheaf  $\mathcal{N}_{X/Y}$  and the ideal sheaf  $\mathcal{I}_Y$ .

**Hint:** the conormal sheaf is isomorphic to

$$\mathcal{I}_Y / \mathcal{I}_Y^2.$$

From this relation, the formula  $N = \mathcal{O}_X(D)$  follows easily.

**Exercise** (dani puts this on April 8 2025) Show that canonical isomorphism of determinant bundles given an exact sequence. **Solution at MSE:** [here](#).

### 4.7.5 huybrechts complex geometry

Just for completeness here's huybrecht's approach:

**Proposition 2.2.17, [Huy05] (Adjunction formula)** Let  $Y$  be a submanifold of a complex manifold  $X$ . Then the canonical bundle  $K_Y$  of  $Y$  is naturally isomorphic to the line bundle  $K_X|_Y \otimes \det(\mathcal{N}_{Y/X})$ .

**Proposition 2.4.7 ([Huy05])** Let  $X$  be a smooth hypersurface of a complex manifold  $Y$  defined by a section  $s \in H^0(Y, L)$  of some holomorphic line bundle  $L$  on  $Y$ . Then  $\mathcal{N}_{X/Y} \cong L_X$  and thus



## 4.8 line bundles and all other things that are the same

### 4.8.1 preamble: vector bundles

This is just a massive copy paste of [GH78] chapter 0, sec. 5. It just says what are vector bundles.

First you would recall the local trivialization definition of vector bundles (they will do complex). A **smooth vector bundle** on  $M$  consists of a family  $\{E_x\}_{x \in M}$  of (complex) vector spaces parametrized by  $M$ , together with a  $C^\infty$  manifold structure on  $E := \bigcup_{x \in M} E_x$  such that

1. The projection map  $\pi : E \rightarrow M$  taking  $E_x$  to  $x$  is  $C^\infty$  and
2. For every  $x_0 \in M$  there exists an open set  $U$  in  $M$  containing  $x_0$  and a diffeomorphism

$$\phi_U : \pi^{-1}(U) \longrightarrow U \times \mathbb{C}^k$$

taking the vector space  $E_x$  isomorphically onto  $\{x\} \times \mathbb{C}^k$  for each  $x \in U$ ;  $\phi_U$  is called a **trivialization** of  $E$  over  $U$ .

The dimension of the **fibers**  $E_x$  is called the **rank** of  $E$ ; in particular, a vector bundle of rank 1 is called a **line bundle**.

But for the equivalences between line bundles and all the other things that are so different yet the same, we shall note that for any pair of trivializations  $\phi_U$  and  $\phi_V$  the map

$$g_{UV} : U \cap V \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(k)$$

given by

$$g_{UV}(x) = (\phi_U \circ \phi_V^{-1})|_{\{x\} \times \mathbb{C}^k}$$

is smooth; the maps  $g_{UV}$  are called **transition functions** for  $E$  relative to the trivializations  $\phi_U, \phi_V$ . The transition functions of  $E$  necessarily satisfy the identities

$$g_{UV}(x) \cdot g_{VU}(x) = I \quad \text{for all } x \in U \cap V$$

$$g_{UV}(x) \cdot g_{VW}(x) \cdot g_{WU}(x) = I \quad \text{for all } x \in U \cap V \cap W.$$

Conversely, given an open cover  $\underline{U} = \{U_\alpha\}$  of  $M$  and  $C^\infty$  maps  $g_{\alpha\beta} : U_\alpha \cap U_\beta \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(k)$  satisfying these identities, *there is a unique complex vector bundle*  $E \rightarrow M$  with transition functions  $\{g_{\alpha\beta}\}$ : it is not hard to check that  $E$  as a point set must be the union

$$\bigcup_{\alpha} U_\alpha \times \mathbb{C}^k$$

with points  $(x, v) \in U_\beta \times \mathbb{C}^k$  and  $x g_{\alpha\beta}(x) \cdot v \in U_\alpha \times \mathbb{C}^k$  identified, and with the manifold structure induced by the inclusions  $U_\alpha \times \mathbb{C}^k \hookrightarrow E$ .

As a general rule, operations on vector spaces induce operations on vector bundles...

This leads to the basic examples of dual, direct sum, tensor product, exterior power and determinant bundle given in terms of the transition functions. The latter is the

determinant of the transition functions (they are linear maps), so not exactly the exterior power (this matters because if you want to take determinant of a sequence of vector bundles of different ranks then you can't just take the top-exterior power).

Anyway. There's also subbundle, quotient bundle, pullback bundle, map of bundles, kernel bundle, image bundle, isomorphic bundles, trivial bundle.

There's also sections, frames, and the fact that locally every section can be expressed as a linear combination of functions on the open set using a trivialization. I will write that part out:

Note that given a trivialization  $\varphi_U$  of  $E$  over  $U$ , we can represent every section  $\sigma$  of  $E$  over  $U$  uniquely as a  $C^\infty$  vector-valued function  $f = (f_1, \dots, f_k)$  by writing

$$\sigma(x) = \sum f_i(x) \cdot \varphi_U^{-1}(x, e_i);$$

if  $\varphi_V$  is a trivialization of  $E$  over  $V$  and  $f' = (f'_1, \dots, f'_k)$  the corresponding representation of  $\sigma|_{V \cap U}$ , then

$$\sum f_i(x) \cdot \varphi_U^{-1}(x, e_i) = \sum f'_i(x) \cdot \varphi_V^{-1}(x, e_i)$$

so, apply  $\varphi$ ,

$$\sum f_i(x) \cdot e_i = \sum f'_i(x) \cdot \varphi_U \varphi_V^{-1}(x, e_i)$$

i.e.

$$f = g_{UV} f'.$$

Thus, in terms of trivializations  $\{\varphi_\alpha : E_{U_\alpha} \rightarrow U_\alpha \times \mathbb{C}^k\}$ , sections of  $E$  over  $\cup U_\alpha$  correspond exactly to *collections*  $\{f_\alpha = (f_{\alpha_1}, \dots, f_{\alpha_k})\}$  of vector-valued smooth functions such that

$$f_\alpha = g_{\alpha\beta} \cdot f_\beta$$

for all  $\alpha, \beta$ , where the  $g_{\alpha\beta}$  are transition functions of  $E$  relative to  $\{\varphi_\alpha\}$ .

### 4.8.2 divisors

Excited to actually start chapter 1 of [GH78].

**Fact 1** If  $V \subset M$  is an analytic subvariety, i.e. at any point  $p \in V$ ,  $V$  can be given in a neighbourhood of  $p$  as **the zeros of a single holomorphic function**  $f$ . (This is exactly why the dg section of this document starts with submanifold charts claiming that that's what ag is.) Anyway **Fact 1** is that

any holomorphic function  $g$  defined at  $p$  and vanishing on  $V$  is divisible by  $f$  in a neighbourhood of  $p$ .  $f$  is called **local defining function** for  $V$  near  $p$  and is unique up to multiplication by a function nonzero at  $p$ .

And what if  $V$  is singular? You look at  $V^* := V_{\text{reg}} := V - V_{\text{sing}}$ , which makes  $\overline{V^*}$  an analytic subvariety (why?). No wait a minute! Confusion! GH take it that an analytic subvariety can be singular, no problem with that. Here they are just discussing that we can express the subvariety as a union of irreducible analytic subvarieties.

A **divisor**  $D$  on  $M$  is a locally finite formal linear combination

$$D = \sum a_i V_i$$

of *irreducible* analytic hypersurfaces of  $M$ . Locally finite means that at every point there is a neighbourhood meeting only finitely many of the  $V_i$  and if  $M$  is compact just means it is a finite sum. A divisor is **effective** if  $a_i > 0$ .

By Fact 1, for every holomorphic function  $g$  defined near  $p$ , we can define its **order**  $\text{ord}_{V,p}(g)$  to be the *largest* integer  $a$  such that in the local ring  $\mathcal{O}_{M,p}$ ,

$$g = f^a h.$$

So:  $f$  divides  $g$ , then there is a highest power of  $f$  that divides  $g$ . That's it.

### 4.8.3 weil divisors

It looks like [Har77b] definition of Weil divisor matches [GH78] definition of divisor.

There's a bunch of great things I can't deal with in one minute but here's the summary:

- Harshorne will use valuation instead of order to define associated divisor to rational functions.
- He will define degree of a projective divisor as the sum of the products of the coefficients in the sum *times* the degree of the hypersurface which is likely to be the degree if the defining polynomial!?!?. (Thank you.) I guess GH don't have this degree because analytic...

### 4.8.4 meromorphic functions

... then there's a rather untrackable definition of the divisor associated to a meromorphic function

- First, in the section of sheaves, [GH78] p. 36, we see that if  $M$  is a complex manifold, a **meromorphic function**  $f$  on an open set  $U \subset M$  is given locally as the quotient of two holomorphic functions.
- That is, for some covering  $\{U_i\}$  of  $U$ ,  $f|_{U_i} = \frac{g_i}{h_i}$ , where  $g_i$  and  $h_i$  are relatively prime in  $\mathcal{O}(U_i)$  and  $g_i h_j = g_j h_i$  in  $\mathcal{O}(U_i \cap U_j)$ .
- This definition makes implicit use of the proposition on p. 10. (?)
- A meromorphic function is not a function.
- The sheaf of meromorphic functions is denoted  $\mathcal{M}$ ; the multiplicative sheaf of meromorphic functions not identically zero is denoted  $\mathcal{M}^*$ .

- OK?!

Then take a meromorphic function  $f$  which is given locally as  $f = \frac{g}{h}$  for  $g, h$  holomorphic and relatively prime. Then for  $V$  an irreducible hypersurface, define  $\text{ord}_V(f) := \text{ord}_V(g) - \text{ord}_V(h)$ , and then define the *divisor associated to  $f$*  by

$$(f) := \sum_V \text{ord}_V(f) V$$

#### 4.8.5 global sections of the sheaf $\mathcal{M}^*/\mathcal{O}^*$

What's a global section of  $\mathcal{M}^*/\mathcal{O}^*$ ? Well a meromorphic function on an open set is given by a cover of the open set and some quotients of functions assigned to every open set of the cover. So if the open set is  $M$ , because we are a global section, then we get a cover of  $M$  and some holomorphic functions defined on the open sets of the cover.

Then I say well a global section of the quotient sheaf  $\mathcal{M}^*/\mathcal{O}^*$  will consist of a global section of  $\mathcal{M}^*$  and nonzero holomorphic functions will have been identified with the identity element, so it's just a section of purely meromorphic functions. Right so I'm confused. But this is not something I should be working so much on today. The point is: GH manage to create a divisor out every section of that sheaf,

$$D := \sum_V \text{ord}_V(f_\alpha) V$$

where the section is given by  $f_\alpha/f_\beta \in \mathcal{O}^*(U_\alpha \cap U_\beta)$ .

And conversely, for every divisor

$$D = \sum_{V_i} a_i V_i$$

we can find an open cover  $U_\alpha$  of  $M$  such that in every  $U_\alpha$ , every  $V_i$  has a local defining function  $g_{i\alpha} \in \mathcal{O}(U_\alpha)$ . Then we set

$$f_\alpha = \prod_i g_{i\alpha}^{a_i} \in \mathcal{M}^*(U_\alpha)$$

and apparently this way we obtain a global section of  $\mathcal{M}^*/\mathcal{O}^*$ . Right so the  $f_\alpha$  are called *locally defining functions* for  $D$  and we get that mystery homomorphism

$$H^0(M, \mathcal{M}^*/\mathcal{O}^*) = \text{Div}(M)$$

#### 4.8.6 cartier divisor

And it looks like [Har77b] definition of Cartier divisor matches [GH78] definition of global section of  $\mathcal{M}^*/\mathcal{O}^*$ .

**Definition** ([Har77b], p. 141) A *Cartier divisor* on a scheme  $X$  is a global section of the sheaf  $\mathcal{K}^*/\mathcal{O}^*$ . Thinking of the properties of quotient sheaves, we see that a Cartier

divisor on  $X$  can be described by giving an open cover  $\{U_i\}$  of  $X$ , and for each  $i$  an element  $f_i \in \Gamma(U_i, \mathcal{K}^*)$ , such that for each  $i, j$ ,  $\frac{f_i}{f_j} \in \Gamma(U_i \cap U_j, \mathcal{O}^*)$ .

A Cartier divisor is **principal** if it is in the image of the natural map  $\Gamma(X, \mathcal{K}^*) \rightarrow \Gamma(X, \mathcal{K}^*/\mathcal{O}^*)$ .

Two Cartier divisors are linearly equivalent if their difference is principal.

**Proposition 6.11 ([Har77b])** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be an integral, separated noetherian scheme, all of whose local rings are unique factorization domains (in which case we say  $X$  is **locally factorial**). Then

the group  $\text{Div } X$  of Weil divisors on  $X$  is isomorphic to the group of Cartier divisors  $\Gamma(X, \mathcal{K}^*/\mathcal{O}^*)$ , and the principal Weil divisors correspond to the principal Cartier divisors under this isomorphism.

SO. What. is. the point of all this? I think Hartshorne has some technical problems defining Weil divisors, he needs to put some untrackable conditions on the varieties to define the divisors, and that's why Cartier divisors section starts with

“Now we want to extend the notion of divisor to an arbitrary scheme. It turns out that using the irreducible subvarieties of codimension one doesn't work very well. So instead, we take as our point of departure the idea that a divisor should be something which locally looks like the divisor of a rational function.”

OK some enlightening algebra before lunch: what is  $\mathcal{K}$ ?

Which also answers the questions: what is a meromorphic function and what is the function field and what's going on.

It appears that I think Hartshorne actually explained this nicely. For a ring  $A$  you realise that the set of nonzero divisors (like  $a$  if  $ab = 0 \implies b = 0 \forall b$  is a multiplicatively closed subset and you can localize. (Warning: not all multiplicatively closed subsets have anything to do with nonzero divisors. So this is a special kind of localization.) This localization is called the **total quotient ring** of  $A$ .

**Explanation.** The total quotient ring is the field of fractions, but field of fractions is defined only for integral domain, that is, rings with no nonzero divisors. And well: it may not be a field in general. So that's why it's called the total quotient ring.

Now you go schemewise. Pick a scheme  $X$ . Relax. For every affine subset  $U = \text{Spec } A$  you take the total quotient ring of  $A$  and call it  $K(U)$ .

Now you go sectionwise. You pick the *elements of  $\Gamma(U, \mathcal{O}_X)$  which are not zero divisors in each local ring  $\mathcal{O}_x$  for  $x \in U$* . That's confusing. Some other day I will digest that. Then you can localize by that, giving  $S(U)^{-1}\Gamma(U, \mathcal{O}_X)$ , which is a presheaf, whose associated sheaf of rings  $\mathcal{K}$  is called the **sheaf of total quotient rings** of  $\mathcal{O}$ .

$\mathcal{K}$  replaces the concept of function field of an integral scheme. We denote  $\mathcal{K}^*$  the sheaf of multiplicative groups of invertible elements in the sheaf of rings  $\mathcal{K}$ . Similarly  $\mathcal{O}^*$  is the sheaf of invertible elements in  $\mathcal{O}$ .

So now you know

A *Cartier divisor* is a global section of  $\mathcal{K}^*/\mathcal{O}^*$ .

But nobody thinks that way. Everyone thinks this way:

Thinking about the properties of quotient sheaves, we see that a Cartier divisor on  $X$  can be described by giving an open cover  $\{U_i\}$  of  $X$ , and for each  $i$  an element  $f_i \in \Gamma(U_i, \mathcal{K}^*)$  (I think that's a function in this fraction-field-like thingy), such that for each  $i, j$   $f_i/f_j \in \Gamma(U_i \cap U_j, \mathcal{O}^*)$  **meaning** that the quotient is not zero.

Let's try again. Everyone thinks this way:

a cartier divisor is a cover of the variety and a rational function for every set in the cover such that the quotients of any two functions (in the intersection of any two open sets) is a nonzero regular function.

Now you are dying for the next section

#### 4.8.7 associated line bundle aka invertible sheaves

Let  $D$  be a Cartier divisor on a scheme  $X$ , represented by  $\{(U_i, f_i)\}$ . We define a subsheaf  $\mathcal{L}(D)$  of  $\mathcal{K}$  by taking  $\mathcal{L}(D)$  to be the sub- $\mathcal{O}_X$ -module of  $\mathcal{K}$  **generated by**  $f_i^{-1}$  on  $U_i$ .

**Proposition 6.13** ([Har77b]) Let  $X$  be a scheme. Then

- (a) for any Cartier divisor  $D$ ,  $\mathcal{L}(D)$  is an invertible sheaf on  $X$ . The map  $D \mapsto \mathcal{L}(D)$  gives a 1-1 correspondence between Cartier divisors on  $X$  and invertible subsheaves of  $\mathcal{K}$ ;
- (b)  $\mathcal{L}(D_1 - D_2) \cong \mathcal{L}(D_1) \otimes \mathcal{L}(D_2)^{-1}$ ;
- (c)  $D_1 \sim D_2$  iff  $\mathcal{L}(D_1) \cong \mathcal{L}(D_2)$  as abstract invertible sheaves (ie. disregarding the embedding in  $\mathcal{K}$ ).

#### 4.8.8 effective cartier divisors

A cartier divisor is *effective* if it can be represented by  $\{(U_i, f_i)\}$  where **all the**  $f_i \in \Gamma(U_i, \mathcal{O}_{U_i})$ , i.e. the functions are not rational but actually regular.

In that case we define the *associated subscheme of codimension 1*,  $Y$ , to be the closed subscheme defined by the sheaf of ideals  $\mathcal{I}$  which is locally generated by  $f_i$ .

Wait, what?

We are not responsible for the effects of reading these definitions. Ideal sheaf is just the sheaf of functions that vanish on the subvariety.

- **(p. 65)** Given a continuous map  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  of topological spaces and a sheaf  $\mathcal{F}$  on  $X$ , the *direct image sheaf*  $f_*\mathcal{F}$  on  $Y$  is defined by  $f_*\mathcal{F}(V) := \mathcal{F}(f^{-1}(V))$  for any open set  $V \subseteq Y$ .
- **(p. 63)** The *kernel* of a map of sheaves  $\varphi : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$  is given by  $U \mapsto \ker(\varphi(U))$ .
- **(p. 115)** Let  $Y$  be a closed subscheme of a scheme  $X$ , and let  $i : Y \rightarrow X$  be the inclusion morphism. The *ideal sheaf* of  $Y$  is the kernel of the morphism  $i^\sharp : \mathcal{O}_X \rightarrow i_*\mathcal{O}_Y$ .

**Proposition 5.9 ([Har77b])** Let  $X$  be a scheme. For any closed subscheme  $Y$  of  $X$ , the corresponding ideal sheaf  $\mathcal{I}_Y$  is a quasi-coherent sheaf of ideals (like, literally a sheaf that gives an ideal at every open set) on  $X$ . If  $X$  is noetherian, it is coherent. Conversely, any quasi-coherent sheaf of ideals on  $X$  is the ideal sheaf of a uniquely determined closed subscheme of  $X$ .

OK so we have:

$$\text{effective cartier divisor} \longleftrightarrow \text{ideal sheaf} \longleftrightarrow \text{Spec } \mathcal{O}_X/\mathcal{I}$$

then

$$\mathcal{I}_Y \cong \mathcal{L}(-D)$$

**Question** Is my singular curve an effective Cartier divisor?

#### 4.8.9 line bundles

OK so here they go all the way up to bertini theorem.

#### 4.8.10 first chern classes

### 4.9 Exponential exact sequence

It's a short exact sequence of sheaves:

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}(X) \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_X^* \longrightarrow 0$$

where  $X$  is a complex manifold,  $\mathcal{O}(X)$  the sheaf of holomorphic functions and  $\mathcal{O}^*(X)$  the sheaf of nowhere-vanishing holomorphic functions. Neither of these two sheaves have cohomologies that match either of  $H^\bullet(X, \mathbb{C})$  nor  $H^\bullet(X, \mathbb{R})$ ; however the constant sheaf  $\mathbb{Z}$  does give the same cohomology as singular integer cohomology.

As exact sequences often do, this one gives a cohomology long exact sequence

$$\begin{aligned} H^0(X, \mathbb{Z}) &\longrightarrow H^0(X, \mathcal{O}_X) \longrightarrow H^0(X, \mathcal{O}_X^*) \longrightarrow H^1(X, \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow \\ &\longrightarrow H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X) \longrightarrow H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X^*) \xrightarrow{c_1} H^2(X, \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow H^2(X, \mathcal{O}_X) \longrightarrow \dots \end{aligned}$$

To see it probably you'd have to delve back into Čech, but  $H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X^*)$  is the same as  $\text{Pic}(X)$  (see [GH78], p. 133, you take transition functions of the line bundle, this is where the *cocycle condition* comes in with twofold meaning). So in the end a line bundle gets assigned the cohomology class of its curvature w.r.t the Chern connection, or what

And not only that but actually the intersection form is cup product of Chern classes

## 4.10 ampleness

### 4.10.1 ampleness

“In  $\mathbb{C}^n$  many complex hypersurfaces can be written as regular level sets of globally defined holomorphic functions. But in a compact complex manifold, this is never possible, because all global holomorphic functions are constants. Instead, we can use sections of line bundles.”

Story goes, the space of global sections of a holomorphic vector bundle on a compact complex manifold is finite dimensional. (The corresponding thing in smooth world is very infinite-dimensional.) This is essentially due to complex analysis. Montel's theorem is used to prove this in Lee. For a down-to-earth-illustrative point of view consider the line bundle of  $\mathcal{O}_X$  of holomorphic functions on the manifold (which is a bundle since it is a free rank-1  $\mathcal{O}_X$  module—the trivial bundle), which, if we remember, it's only constant functions because  $M$  is compact, so it's actually  $\mathbb{C}$ , which is finite-dimensional over  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Anyway you can choose a basis  $(s_0, \dots, s_m)$  of  $\mathcal{O}(L)$ . And then you construct a map to  $\mathbb{P}^m$ . As follows: choose a point  $x \in M$ , and take a local trivializing open set of the bundle, where you have a local frame consisting of one local section (because it's a line bundle) called  $s : U \rightarrow E(U)$ . Then each of the global sections  $s_i$  is represented locally as  $f_i s = s_i$ . So you get this  $\mathbb{C}$ -valued functions, right? And then you get the map  $p \mapsto (f_0(p), \dots, f_n(p))$ . But that would depend on the trivializing open set. But if you think projectively you can show that it does not depend on the choice of frame.

**Exercise** You have 13 minutes to prove that.

*Solution.* (Several hours after that...) Now I'm at home and I prove it like this. Just notice that  $s_i = f_i s : W \rightarrow \pi^{-1}(W)$  (where of course  $W = U \cap V$  is the intersection of two different trivializing charts and  $f_i$  is the function corresponding to the basis  $s$  of the chart  $U$ ). Right so there is a transition function mapping  $\pi^{-1}(W) \rightarrow \pi^{-1}(W)$  that is the identity on the base and a linear map on the fibers. Now, as I said above, since  $s_i$  is a function from  $W$  to the bundle, the transition function maps the vector part of the fiber w.r.t  $U$  to the vector part w.r.t  $V$  by a linear transformation. Which is a number **what?**. So the equation we all want is

$$s = \xi s'$$

which gives

$$s_i = f_i s, \quad s_i = g_i s' = g_i \xi s' \implies f_i = \xi g_i$$



and then the coordinates of this map we are defining become

$$[f_0, \dots, f_n] = [\xi g_0, \dots, \xi g_n] = [g_0, \dots, g_n]$$

so that the thing when defined projectively does not depend on the charts.  $\square$

Nice! So we see, that whenever  $H^0(X, L)$  is not empty, we can construct a map from  $X$  to projective space. And the next question is whether this map is an embedding. And the answer is ampleness.  $L$  is *very ample* when it is an embedding.

But hey, what's *base point free*. Ah, when at every point there's at least one global section that won't vanish. Well that better be true if you want that map to be well defined right!?

Anyway, we have

**Theorem 3.43** ([Lee24]) Basically that a line bundle over a compact complex manifold  $M$  is very ample iff  $\mathcal{O}(M; L)$  separates points and  $\mathcal{O}(M; L)$  separates directions. (I think those are the sections.)

## the hyperplane bundle

where should I put this?

**Upshot (About the hyperplane bundle)** Because the dual bundle is, of course, the bundle whose fiber at each point is the dual vector space of the original one. So hyperplane is because every *linear* functional of the dual space (an element of the fiber of the dual) is just a hyperplane.

And if you take a lot of tensor powers? You'll end up with the homogeneous degree  $d$  functions (which you should *not* think as hyperplanes, that's only for  $d = 1$ ). (But most likely they are irreducible varieties... so is  $\mathcal{O}(d)$  the "degree- $d$ -variety bundle"?)

And that's why [Lee24] Example 3.37 works: a homogeneous polynomial  $f : \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  gives me **a section** of  $\mathcal{O}(d)$ : at each point  $\xi \in \mathbb{CP}^n$  I have the homogeneous degree  $d$  function that  $f$  is when restricted to  $\xi$ . (This is also very tautological.) (I would call this the *tautological section*.)

Notice that the tautological section is a section. That is, first you construct the hyperplane bundle saying that at every point you have the functionals on the line that the point is (so, at every point you put all the hyperplanes on the line that the point is). But also there's the tautological section that is itself a hyperplane. But only one hyperplane, you see? Because the section, which actually gives at every point a hyperplane, oh, just so many hyperplanes, can be tautologically and confusingly thought as a single hyperplane only, oh, just a single one, as this hyperplane isn't but a linear function  $f : \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  which, when restricted to any line passing through the origin, oh, and lines are points, would give me the hyperplane that the section would give at the point. So yes, **sections** of the hyperplane bundle are degree 1-polynomials. And degree 1 polynomials are in fact hyperplanes of  $\mathbb{CP}^n$ : it's a hyperplane of  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ , and then projectivizing you get a hyperplane of  $\mathbb{CP}^n$ . So a section of the hyperplane bundle is (also) just a hyperplane.

And a section of  $\mathcal{O}(d)$  is just a degree  $d$  variety (=homogeneous degree  $d$  polynomial) I'm pretty sure by now.

Here's what I wrote when I first understood the hyperplane bundle:

In lem. 3.30 [Lee24] we see that the  $d$ -th tensor power of the dual bundle of a line bundle  $L$ , a thing denoted by  $(L^*)^d$ , is naturally isomorphic to the bundle whose fiber at a point  $p \in M$  is the space of functions  $\varphi : L_p \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  that are *homogeneous of degree  $d$* , meaning that  $\varphi(\lambda v) = \lambda^d \varphi(v)$  for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $v \in L_p$ .

which basically makes me understand that  $\mathcal{O}(1) = \mathcal{O}(-1)^* =$  dual of the tautological bundle, is naturally isomorphic to the bundle whose fiber is the space of homogeneous functionals of degree 1. Which are hyperplanes. So that's why  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  is called the *hyperplane bundle*.

### Line bundle associated with a hypersurface=?normal bundle

**Theorem 3.39, [Lee24]** (Line bundle associated with a hypersurface) Save techincalities, we have that if  $S \subseteq M$  is a closed complex hypersurface, there exists a line bundle  $L_S \rightarrow M$  and a section  $\sigma \in \mathcal{O}(M; L_S)$  that vanishes (simply) on  $S$  and nowhere else.

**Nice example** So the associated line bundle of a hypersurface determined by a homogeneous degree  $d$  polynomial is... the tautological section of this polynomial! (and the bundle is  $\mathcal{O}(d)$ ).

### ampleness in Hartshorne

Here's the **upshot** about ampleness:

From II.7, subsection *Ample Invertible Sheaves*, p. 153:

Now that we have seen that a morphism of a scheme  $X$  to a projective space can be characterized by giving an invertible sheaf on  $X$  and a suitable set of its global sections, [...]

Recall that in §5 we defined a sheaf  $\mathcal{L}$  on  $X$  to be *very ample relative to*  $Y$  if there is an immersion  $i : X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}_Y^n$  for some  $n$  such that  $\mathcal{L} \cong i^* \mathcal{O}(1)$ . In case  $Y = \text{Spec } A$ , this is the same thing as saying that  $\mathcal{L}$  admits a set of global sections  $s_0, \dots, s_n$  such that the corresponding morphism  $X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}_A^n$  is an immersion.

We have also seen (5.17) that if  $\mathcal{L}$  is a very ample invertible sheaf on a projective scheme  $X$  over a noetherian ring  $A$ , then for any coherent sheaf  $\mathcal{F}$  on  $X$ , there is an integer  $n_0 > 0$  such that for all  $n \geq n_0$ ,  $\mathcal{F} \otimes \mathcal{L}^n$  is generated by global sections. [...]

**Definition** An invertible sheaf  $\mathcal{L}$  on a noetherian scheme  $X$  is said to be *ample* if for every coherent sheaf  $\mathcal{F}$  on  $X$  there is an integer  $n_0 > 0$  (depending on  $\mathcal{F}$ ) such that for every  $n \geq n_0$  the sheaf  $\mathcal{F} \otimes \mathcal{L}^n$  is generated by its global sections. (Here  $\mathcal{L}^n := \mathcal{L}^{\otimes n}$ .)

[...]

**Remark II.7.4.3** [...] we will see below (7.6) that if  $\mathcal{L}$  is ample, then some tensor power  $\mathcal{L}^m$  of  $\mathcal{L}$  is very ample.

So, being very ample is just a term to hide the possibility of embedding the variety in a projective space and pulling back the hyperplane bundle to that line bundle. But it turns out that this is equivalent to being generated by global sections in some sense (maybe taking tensor product).

**Example II.6.4** We will see later (IV, 3.3) that if  $D$  is a divisor on a complete nonsingular curve  $X$ , then  $\mathcal{L}(D)$  is ample iff  $\deg D > 0$ . This is a consequence of the Riemann-Roch theorem.

**Question** What's up with the base-points?

To answer we move along to subsection *Linear systems* in Hartshorne.

[...] global sections of an invertible sheaf correspond to effective divisors on a variety. Thus giving an invertible sheaf and a set of its global sections (which is related to finding the embedding of the variety into projective space pulling back the hyperplane bundle!) is the same as giving a certain set of effective divisors, all linearly equivalent to each other.

**Idea (dani)** That we can associate divisors to sections. Then we consider all linearly equivalent divisors to a given one (a linear system), which corresponds to a set of sections  $V \subseteq \Gamma(X, \mathcal{L})$ .

**And then**

**Lemma II.7.8** [...] In particular, [a linear system]  $\mathfrak{d}$  is base-point-free iff  $\mathcal{L}$  is generated by the global sections in  $V$ .

#### 4.10.2 line systems

- A **line system** is the set of effective divisors associated to sections of a line bundle. How? Every section defines an effective divisor given by its zero-locus.
- **Definition:** An *effective divisor* is a finite formal sum of points (or subvarieties of codimension 1) with nonnegative integer coefficients:

$$D = \sum n_i p_i, \quad n_i \geq 0$$

- **Claim:** The zero-locus of a section is an *effective* divisor.
- **Claim:** The zero-locus of a section is a codimension-1 subvariety.
- **Claim:** Two proportional sections give the same effective divisor. (So that's why the linear system is the projectivization of the space of sections — for every section we consider all its proportional sections.)

- **Claim:** The associated line bundle to any element of a linear system (associated to a given line bundle  $L$ ) is  $L$ .

**Conclusion:** The line system is the projectivization of the space of sections.

**Epiphany:** The canonical map associated to a very ample line bundle is an embedding of  $X$  into... its linear system?

### 4.10.3 bertini theorem

**bertini theorem** ([GH78], p.137) The generic element of a linear system is smooth away from the base locus of the system.

and that finally. makes. sense. Because a linear system is the projectivized space of smooth sections, which says nothing, nothing at all, but now I know: a section has a zero locus, and proportional sections give the same zero locus (that's why the linear system is defined as a projectivization) and that zero locus is what we want to define as a smooth submanifold in complex world because there is no regular value theorem because all functions are constant so BERTINI IS REGULAR VALUE THEOREM VERSION FOR COMPLEX GEOMETRY.

*Proof.*

□

Here's Telegram messages:

One of the weakest forms that I needed in order to make some sense of Lefschetz hyperplane theorem is the following:

Let  $X$  in  $\mathbb{P}^N$  be a smooth variety.

Then for generic hyperplane  $H$  the hyperplane section

$$X_H = X \cap H$$

is smooth.

I also formulated another version of Bertini's Theorem, often used by algebraic geometers, which involves a few more definitions (from the section on divisors and line bundles).

Let  $X$  be an algebraic variety (not necessarily projective or compact).

On  $X$ , we consider a *linear system* (of divisors). We define the *fixed components* of a linear system to be a divisor that is the minimum (in the sense of divisors) over all representatives in the system. A linear system is called *movable* if it has no fixed components. Any linear system can be decomposed into a sum of a fixed component and a movable linear system, known as the *movable part*.

The *base locus* of a linear system is defined as the base locus of its movable part. For a movable linear system of divisors, the base locus is the intersection of all divisors in the

system. In other words, it is the indeterminacy locus of the rational map to projective space defined by the given linear system. We denote the base locus by  $Bs(L)$  or  $Bs(|H|)$ , etc.

**Theorem (Bertini)** Let  $X$  be an algebraic variety over a field of characteristic 0, and let  $|H|$  be a movable linear system on  $X$ . Then, for a generic divisor  $H \in |H|$ , its singularities are contained in the union of  $Sing(X)$  and  $Bs(|H|)$ .

**Exercise** Can you derive this version of Bertini's Theorem from the special case of the theorem for pencils?

#### 4.10.4 kodaira ampleness criterion

In K3 lecture 9 we have

**Theorem (Kodaira)** A bundle  $L$  is very ample iff  $c_1(L)$  is a Kähler class.

**Recall** that a line bundle is *prequantizable* if its curvature is symplectic and integral.

#### 4.11 serre duality

**serre duality (II.5.32[Voi02])** The pairing

$$H^q(X, \mathcal{E}) \otimes H^{n-q}(X, \mathcal{E}^* \otimes K_X) \rightarrow H^n(X, K_X) \cong \mathbb{C}$$

(probably given by some integral) between

$$H^q(X, \mathcal{E}) \quad \text{and} \quad H^{n-q}(X, \mathcal{E}^* \otimes K_X)$$

is perfect.

So when you put the dual  $\vee$  on one of these you get isomorphism.

**Serre duality (dani notes Complex geometry course 2024.1)**

$$H^k(X, \mathcal{L})^\vee = H^{n-k}(X, \omega_X \otimes \mathcal{L}^*)$$

#### 4.12 kodaira vanishing

... "based on the following special case of the Kodaira-Akizuki-Nakano vanishing theorem":

**kodaira vanishing (thm. 7.13 [Voi02])** Let  $L$  be a positive holomorphic line bundle over a compact complex manifold. Then for every  $q > 0$ , we have

$$H^q(X, K_X \otimes \mathcal{L}) = 0$$

From Telegram:

“S, [19 Jun 2024 13:31:41]: Useful formulation, maybe a most used one

$$H^q(K + \text{ample}) = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad q > 0$$

in particular

$$H^1(X, K + D) = 0$$

if  $D$  is ample (or positive, which is the same, but in the proof we only used positiveness).

trick: if you want to prove some vanishing of some line bundle, rewrite your line bundle as  $K + \text{something}$ , then check if you can make this something ample.”

### 4.13 Noether's formula

From [Bea96], I.14.

Noether's formula

### 4.14 Positive $(1, 1)$ -forms

Any positive  $(1, 1)$  form looks like this:  $\sum \alpha_i x_i \wedge \bar{x}_i$  for some positive functions  $\alpha_i \geq 0$ .

### 4.15 Hodge Index Theorem

**Theorem V.1.9** (Hodge Index Theorem) Let

### 4.16 Picard group, Neron-Severi group

**Definition** (dani) *Picard group* is the group of line bundles with tensor product.

**Remark** See [Har77a] p. 151 for the quick comment “We have seen (6.17) that  $\text{Pic } \mathbb{P}_k^n \cong \mathbb{Z}$  and is generated by  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ ”.

**Definition** ([Huy16], p.5) *Néron-Severi group* of an algebraic surface  $X$  is the quotient

$$\text{NS}(X) := \text{Pic}(X) / \text{Pic}_0(X)$$

by the connected component of the Picard variety  $\text{Pic}(X)$ , i.e. by the subgroup of line bundles that are *algebraically* equivalent to zero (?).

**Definition** ([Huy16], p.5)

$$\text{Num}(X) := \text{Pic}(X) / \text{Pic}^\tau(X)$$

where  $\text{Pic}^\tau(X)$  is the subgroup of *numerically trivial* line bundles, i.e. line bundles  $L$  such that  $(L, L') = 0$  for all line bundles  $L'$ . (E.g. any  $L \in \text{Pic}^0$  is numerically trivial.)

## 4.17 K3 surfaces

**Definition (dani)** A *K3 surface* is a complex surface with trivial canonical bundle and vanishing first (co)homology. (It's dimension 2 so 1st cohomology is first homology by Poincaré.)

**Definition (K3 course)** A *K3 surface* is a complex surface  $M$  with  $b_1 = 0$  (Betti number is dimension of homology) and  $c_1(M, \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ . Recall that the Chern class coming from the exponential sequence is  $\text{Pic}(M) \xrightarrow{c_1} H^2(M, \mathbb{Z})$ , so in particular it means that the first Chern class of the canonical bundle  $K_X \in \text{Pic}(M)$  is trivial, which in turn makes it trivial via Hodge theory.

**Remark** [Huy16] shows that K3 surfaces have trivial (algebraic) fundamental group (what is that?) in remark 2.3.

**Definition ([Huy16])** A *K3 surface* over  $k$  is a complete non-singular variety  $X$  of dimension two such that

$$\Omega_{X/k}^2 \cong \mathcal{O}_X \quad \text{and} \quad H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X) = 0$$

**Proposition 1.2.1 ([Huy16])**  $\text{NS}(X)$  and its quotient  $\text{Num}(X)$  are finitely generated.

The rank of  $\text{NS}(X)$  is called the *Picard number*  $\rho(X) := \text{rk } \text{NS}(X)$ .

**Proposition 1.2.4 ([Huy16])** For a K3 surface  $X$  the natural surjections are isomorphisms (**warning:** the second isomorphism might not hold for general complex K3 surfaces):

$$\text{Pic}(X) \xrightarrow{\sim} \text{NS}(X) \xrightarrow{\sim} \text{Num}(X)$$

and the intersection pairing on  $\text{Pic}(X)$  is even, non-degenerate, and of signature  $(1, \rho(X) - 1)$ .

**Remark** ( $\chi(K3, \mathcal{O}_X) = 2$ ) From [Huy16] I.2.3, p.6:

“For a K3 surface  $X$  one has by definition  $h^0(X, \mathcal{O}_X) = 1$  and  $h^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X) = 0$ . Moreover, by Serre duality  $H^2(X, \mathcal{O}_X) \cong H^0(X, \omega_X)^*$  and hence  $h^2(X, \mathcal{O}_X) = 1$ . Therefore,

$$\chi(X, \mathcal{O}_X) = 2.”$$

So here's that computation using Serre duality:

$$H^0(X, \mathcal{O}_X) \stackrel{\text{Serre duality}}{=} H^2(X, \mathcal{O}_X^* \otimes K_X)^* \stackrel{\substack{\text{dual} \\ \text{of trivial} \\ \text{is the} \\ \text{trivial}}}{=} H^2(X, \mathcal{O}_X \otimes K_X)^* \stackrel{\substack{\text{you are} \\ \text{a K3}}}{=} H^2(X, \mathcal{O}_X)^* = \mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C}$$

because the dual.

**don't get confused** Here's three things that are not the same:

1.  $\chi(X, \mathcal{O}_X)$ , the Euler characteristic of the structure sheaf  $\mathcal{O}_X$ .
2.  $\chi(X)$ , the Euler characteristic of a manifold. Probably  $\sum (-1)^i \dim H_i(X, \mathbb{Z})$ .
3.  $\chi(X, K_X)$ , the Euler characteristic of the line bundle  $K_X$ , because bundles have Euler characteristic too.

#### 4.17.1 Kummer

Take a complex 2-torus  $A$  and consider the involution  $\tau : [z_1, z_2] \mapsto -[z_1, z_2]$ . It has 16 fixed points, so the quotient  $A/\tau$  has singularities. Smooth it to obtain  $\hat{A}$  and consider the involution  $\hat{\tau}$ . Then  $\hat{A}/\hat{\tau}$  is a K3.

### 4.18 Fubini-Study

It's a metric, it's a symplectic form. *Fubini-Study (symplectic) form* is a closed 2-form defined on  $\mathbb{CP}^n$  as the exterior differential of the logarithm of the length functions  $\ell = \sum |z_i|^2$ , i.e.  $\omega = dd^c \log \ell$ .

This also has a local expression in coordinates  $(z_1, \dots, z_n)$  that might be interesting.

The *Fubini-Study metric* is  $g(\cdot, \cdot) = \omega(\cdot, I\cdot)$ .

### 4.19 hypercomplex manifolds

**Definition** A manifold  $M$  is *hypercomplex* if it has three integrable almost complex structures  $I, J, K$  satisfying the quaternionic relations  $I^2 = J^2 = K^2 = -\text{Id}$  and  $IJ = -JI = K$ .

#### 4.19.1 Obata connection

**Remark (Obata Connection, GPT)** Given a hypercomplex manifold  $(M, I, J, K)$ , there exists a unique torsion-free connection  $\nabla^{\text{ob}}$  such that

$$\nabla^{\text{ob}} I = \nabla^{\text{ob}} J = \nabla^{\text{ob}} K = 0.$$

This is called the *Obata connection*. Unlike the Levi-Civita connection, it is not necessarily compatible with a metric. Instead, it preserves the entire hypercomplex structure and serves as the natural connection in hypercomplex geometry.

#### 4.19.2 $SU(n)$

**How to think of  $SU(2)$**  Take a real vector space  $V$  equipped with a hypercomplex structure and think of  $SU(2)$  as

$$SU(2) = \{a + bI + cJ + dK : a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2 = 1, \quad a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}\}$$



Just because that's the way to go. (But at some point of terrenal mathematics you should prove that indeed,  $SU(2) \cong \text{unit quaternions} \cong S^3$ .)

But what's the lance?

“We are using these three complex structures (quaternionic is the term right? (it's not: this is called a **hypercomplex structure**) for their nice relations  $IJ=JI=K$ ) to *model* the division algebra  $H$  that is god-given. Then this thing which is a group *acts* on the space of endomorphisms of the quaternionic vector space by conjugation”

Yes—you're getting it beautifully now.

## 4.20 Holomorphically symplectic forms and C-symplectic forms

A *C-symplectic form*  $\Omega$  on a smooth  $4n$ -dimensional manifold is a closed complex-valued form such that  $\Omega^{n+1} = 0$  and  $\Omega^n \wedge \overline{\Omega}^n$  is a non-degenerate volume form. So perhaps  $dz^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dz^n$  is an example? Ask GPT or make sure.

The point is that... the kernel of a C-symplectic form gives a decomposition of the complexification of the tangent bundle of the manifold, and if it is closed...

## 4.21 Fano

**Exercise** By Kodaira vanishing theorem, you can show that the cohomology  $H^i(X, L)$  of a Fano variety  $X$  vanishes. You just have to put  $L = \mathcal{O}(k)$  with  $k \geq -r$  for the **Fano index**

$$r(X) = \min\{r : \frac{c_1(X)}{r} \in H^2(X, \mathbb{Z})\}.$$

Anyway the point is that  $\text{Pic}(X) \cong H^2(X, \mathbb{Z})$  for Fano.

## 5. lie groups and lie algebras

Some notes made quite some time ago from [Lee12].

### 5.1 classical lie groups

**Definition** A *Lie group* is a smooth manifold  $G$  without boundary that is also a group in the algebraic sense, with the property that the multiplication map and the inversion map are both smooth.

**Example**

1. The *general linear group*  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  is the set of invertible  $n \times n$  matrices with real entries.
2.  $GL^+(n, \mathbb{R})$ , the subset of  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  consisting of matrices with positive determinant.
3. If  $G$  is any Lie group and  $H \subset G$  is an open subgroup,  $H$  is a Lie group (because restrictions of the operations are smooth).
4. The *complex general linear group*  $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ .
5. If  $V$  is any real or complex vector space,  $GL(V)$  denotes the set of invertible linear maps from  $V$  to itself. If  $V$  is finite dimensional, there is an isomorphism with either of  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  or  $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ .
6.  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .
7. The set  $\mathbb{R}^*$  of nonzero real numbers. In fact, it is  $GL(1, \mathbb{R})$ . Also  $\mathbb{C}^*$ .
8. The circle  $\mathbb{S}^1$ .
9. Direct product of Lie groups.
10. The  $n$ -torus  $\mathbb{T}^n$ .
11. Any discrete group.

12. The set  $SL(n, \mathbb{R})$  of  $n \times n$  real matrices with determinant equal to 1 is called the **special linear group of degree  $n$** . It is the kernel of the group homomorphism  $\det : GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^*$ . Because the determinant function is surjective, it is a smooth submersion by the global rank theorem so  $SL(n, \mathbb{R})$  has dimension  $n^2 - 1$ .
13. Let  $n$  be a positive integer and define the map  $\beta : GL(n, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow GL(2n, \mathbb{R})$  by replacing each complex matrix entry by a  $2 \times 2$  block matrix. Thus  $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$  is isomorphic to a Lie subgroup of  $GL(2n, \mathbb{R})$ .
14. The subgroup  $SL(n, \mathbb{C}) \subseteq GL(n, \mathbb{C})$  consisting of complex matrices of determinant 1 is called the **complex special linear group of degree  $n$** . By similar arguments the real case, it is of codimension  $\dim \mathbb{C}^* = 2$  and therefore of dimension  $2n^2 - 2$ .
15. A real  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is said to be **orthogonal** if as a linear map it preserves the Euclidean dot product. The set  $O(n)$  of orthogonal  $n \times n$  matrices is a subgroup of  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  called the **orthogonal group of degree  $n$** . A matrix  $A$  is orthogonal if and only if it takes the standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to an orthonormal basis, which is equivalent to the columns of  $A$  being orthonormal. Since the  $(i, j)$ -entry of the matrix  $A^T A$  is the dot product of the  $i$ th and  $j$ th columns of  $A$ , this condition is also equivalent to the requirement that  $A^T A = I_n$ . Also,  $O(n)$  is the level set  $\Phi^{-1}(I_n)$  of the map  $\Phi : GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow M(n, \mathbb{R})$  given by  $A \mapsto A^T A$ , so it is a closed set and an embedded Lie subgroup. It is also bounded because every  $A \in O(n)$  has columns of norm 1, and therefore satisfies that  $|A| = \sqrt{n}$ . It has dimension  $n(n - 1)/2$ .
16. The **special orthogonal group of degree  $n$**  is defined as  $SO(n) = O(n) \cap SL(n, \mathbb{R}) \subseteq GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ . Notice that every matrix  $A \in O(n)$  satisfies

$$1 = \det I_n = \det(A^T A) = \det A \det A^T = (\det A)^2,$$

it follows that  $\det A = \pm 1$ . Therefore  $SO(n)$  is the open subgroup of  $O(n)$  consisting of matrices with positive determinant, and is therefore also an embedded Lie subgroup of dimension  $n(n - 1)/2$  in  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ . It is a compact group because it is a closed subset of  $O(n)$ .

17. For any complex matrix  $A$ , the **adjoint of  $A$**  is the matrix  $A^*$  formed by conjugating the entries of  $A$  and taking the transpose:  $A^* = \overline{A}^T$ . For any positive integer  $n$ , the **unitary group of degree  $n$**  is the subgroup  $U(n) \subseteq GL(n, \mathbb{C})$  consisting of complex  $n \times n$  matrices whose columns form an orthogonal basis for  $\mathbb{C}^n$  with respect to the Hermitian dot product  $z \cdot w = \sum_i z_i \overline{w_i}$ . It is straightforward to check that  $U(n)$  consists of those matrices  $A$  such that  $A^* A = I_n$ . It is a properly embedded Lie subgroup of  $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$  of dimension  $n^2$ .
18. The group  $SU(n) = U(n) \cap SL(n, \mathbb{C})$  is called the **complex special unitary group of degree  $n$** . It is a properly embedded Lie subgroup of  $U(n)$  of dimension  $n^2 - 1$ . It is also embedded in  $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$  because composition of embeddings is an embedding.
19. The **real symplectic group** is the subgroup  $Sp(2n, \mathbb{R}) \subseteq GL(2n, \mathbb{R})$  consisting of all  $2n \times 2n$  matrices that leave the standard symplectic tensor  $\omega = \sum_{i=1}^n dx^i \wedge$

$dy^i$  invariant, that is, the set of invertible linear maps  $Z : \mathbb{R}^{2n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2n}$  such that  $\omega(Zx, Zy) = \omega(x, y)$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$ .

**Definition (Extra)** If  $G$  is any Lie group, a *(finite-dimensional) representation of  $G$*  is a Lie group homomorphism from  $G$  to  $GL(V)$  for some  $V$ . If a representation is injective, it is said to be *faithful*.

## 5.2 the lie algebra of a lie group

Suppose  $G$  is a Lie group. Recall that  $G$  acts smoothly and transitively on itself by left translation  $L_g(h) = gh$ . A vector field  $X$  on  $G$  is said to be *left-invariant* if it is invariant under all left translations:

$$d(L_g)_{g'}(X_{g'}) = X_{gg'} \quad \text{for all } g, g' \in G.$$

Since  $L_g$  is a diffeomorphism, the pushforward of a vector field is well defined and we may write our condition as  $(L_g)_*X = X$  for every  $g \in G$ .

Because  $(L_g)_*(aX + bY) = a(L_g)_*X + b(L_g)_*Y$ , the set of left-invariant vector fields on  $G$  is a linear subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}(G)$ . But there's more

**Proposition** Let  $G$  be a Lie group and suppose that  $X$  and  $Y$  are left-invariant vector fields on  $G$ . Then  $[X, Y]$  is also left-invariant.

**Definition** A *Lie algebra* (over  $\mathbb{R}$ ) is a real vector space  $\mathfrak{g}$  endowed with a map called the *bracket* from  $\mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g}$  to  $\mathfrak{g}$  usually denoted by  $(X, Y) \mapsto [X, Y]$  that satisfies the following properties for all  $X, Y, Z \in \mathfrak{g}$ :

1. BILINEARITY: For  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$[aX + bY, Z] = a[X, Z] + b[Y, Z],$$

$$[Z, aX + bY] = a[Z, X] + b[Z, Y].$$

2. ANTISYMMETRY:

$$[X, Y] = -[Y, X].$$

3. JACOBI IDENTITY:

$$[X, [Y, Z]] + [Y, [Z, X]] + [Z, [X, Y]] = 0.$$

Notice that the Jacobi identity is a substitute for associativity, which does not hold in general for brackets in a Lie algebra. We may also define Lie algebras over  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition**

- If  $\mathfrak{g}$  is a Lie algebra, a linear subspace  $\mathfrak{h} \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$  is called a *Lie subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{g}$*  if it is closed under brackets.

- If  $\mathfrak{g}$  and  $\mathfrak{h}$  are Lie algebras, a linear map  $A : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$  is called a **Lie algebra homomorphism** if it preserves brackets:  $A[X, Y] = [AX, AY]$ . An invertible Lie algebra homomorphism is called a **Lie algebra isomorphism**.

### Example

1. The space  $\mathfrak{X}(M)$  of all smooth vector fields on a smooth manifold  $M$  is a Lie algebra under the Lie bracket.
2. If  $G$  is a Lie group, the set of all left-invariant vector fields on  $G$  is a Lie subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{X}(G)$ . This is called the **Lie algebra of  $G$**  and it is denoted by  $\text{Lie}(G)$ .
3. The vector space  $\text{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R})$  of  $n \times n$  real matrices is an  $n^2$ -dimensional Lie algebra under the **commutator bracket**

$$[A, B] = AB - BA.$$

When regarding  $\text{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R})$  as a Lie algebra with this bracket, we denote it by  $\mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})$ .

4. Similarly,  $\mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{C})$  is the  $2n^2$ -dimensional (real) Lie algebra obtained by endowing  $\text{Mat}(n, \mathbb{C})$  with the commutator bracket.
5. If  $V$  is a vector space, the vector space of all linear maps from  $V$  to itself becomes a Lie algebra which we denote  $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$  with the commutator bracket:

$$[A, B] = A \circ B - B \circ A.$$

Under the usual identification of  $n \times n$  matrices with linear maps from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to itself,  $\mathfrak{gl}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  is the same as  $\mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})$ .

6. Any vector space  $V$  becomes a lie algebra if we define all brackets to be zero. Such a Lie algebra is said to be **abelian**.

**Theorem** Let  $G$  be a Lie group. The evaluation map  $\varepsilon : \text{Lie}(G) \rightarrow T_e G$  given by  $\varepsilon(X) = X_e$  is a vector space isomorphism. Thus  $\text{Lie}(G)$  is finite-dimensional with dimension equal to  $\dim G$ .

**Corollary** Every left-invariant rough vector field on a Lie group is smooth.

**Corollary** Every Lie group admits a left-invariant smooth global frame, and therefore every Lie group is parallelizable.

### Example

1.  $\text{Lie}(\mathbb{R}^n) \cong \mathbb{R}^n$ .
2.  $\text{Lie}(\mathbb{S}^1) \cong \mathbb{R}$ .
3.  $\text{Lie}(\mathbb{T}^n) \cong \mathbb{R}^n$ .
4.  $\text{Lie}(\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})) \cong \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})$ . (long proof)
5. If  $V$  is any finite-dimensional real vector space,  $\text{Lie}(\text{GL}(V)) \cong \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ .

6.  $\text{Lie}(\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})) \cong \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{C})$ .
7.  $\mathfrak{o}(n) = \{\text{skew-symmetric } n \times n \text{ matrices}\} \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})$  is  $\text{Lie}(\text{O}(n))$ .
8.  $\text{Lie}(\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})) \cong \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{C})$ . (long proof)

**Theorem (Ado's Theorem)** Every finite-dimensional real Lie algebra admits a faithful finite-dimensional representation.

**Corollary** Every finite-dimensional real Lie algebra is isomorphic to a Lie subalgebra of some matrix algebra  $\mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})$  with the commutator bracket.

### 5.3 the exponential map

**Definition** Suppose  $G$  is a Lie group. A *one-parameter subgroup of  $G$*  is defined to be a Lie group homomorphism  $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$  with  $\mathbb{R}$  considered as a Lie group under addition. Notice that by this definition, a one-parameter subgroup is not a Lie subgroup of  $G$  but rather a homomorphism into  $G$ .

**Theorem** The one-parameter subgroups of  $G$  are precisely the maximal integral curves of left-invariant vector fields starting at the identity.

**Definition** Given  $X \in \text{Lie}(G)$ , the one-parameter subgroup determined by  $X$  in this way is called the *one-parameter subgroup generated by  $X$* .

Because left-invariant vector fields are uniquely determined by their values at the identity, it follows that each one-parameter subgroup is uniquely determined by its initial velocity in  $T_e G$ , and thus there are one-to-one correspondences

$$\{\text{one-parameter subgroups of } G\} \leftrightarrow \text{Lie}(G) \leftrightarrow T_e G.$$

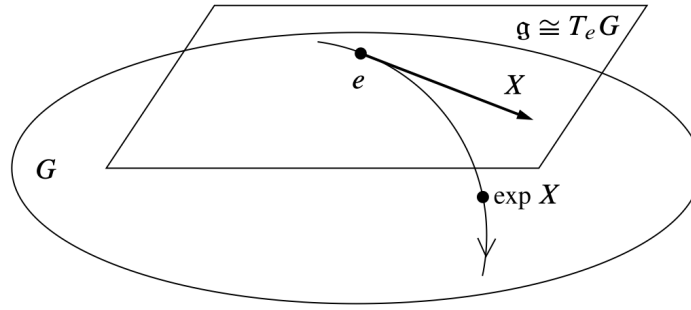
**Proposition** For any  $A \in \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})$ , let

$$e^A = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} A^k = I_n + A + \frac{1}{2} A^2 + \dots$$

This series converges to an invertible matrix  $e^A \in \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$  and the one-parameter subgroup of  $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$  generated by  $A \in \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})$  is  $\gamma(t) = e^{tA}$ .

**Proposition** Suppose  $G$  is a Lie group and  $H \subseteq G$  is a Lie subgroup. The one-parameter subgroups of  $H$  are precisely those one-parameter subgroups of  $G$  whose initial velocities lie in  $T_e H$ .

**Example** If  $H$  is a Lie subgroup of  $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ , the preceding proposition shows that the one-parameter subgroups of  $H$  are precisely the maps of the form  $\gamma(t) = e^{tA}$  for  $A \in \mathfrak{h}$ , where  $\mathfrak{h} \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})$  is the subalgebra corresponding to  $\text{Lie}(H)$ . For example, taking



$H = O(n)$  this shows that the one-parameter subgroups of  $O(n)$  are the maps of the form  $\gamma(t) = e^{tA}$  for an arbitrary skew-symmetric  $A$ . In particular, this shows that the exponential of any skew-symmetric matrix is orthogonal.

**Definition** Given a Lie group  $G$  with Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$ , we define the map  $\exp : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow G$  called the *exponential map of  $G$*  as follows: for any  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ , we set

$$\exp X = \gamma(1),$$

where  $\gamma$  is the one-parameter subgroup generated by  $X$ , or equivalently the integral curve of  $X$  starting at the identity.

**Proposition** Let  $G$  be a Lie group. For any  $X \in \text{Lie}(G)$ ,  $\gamma(s) = \exp sX$  is the one-parameter subgroup of  $G$  generated by  $X$ .

### Example

1.  $\exp A = e^A$ .
2. If  $V$  is any finite-dimensional real vector space, a choice of basis for  $V$  yields isomorphisms  $GL(V) \cong GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  and  $\mathfrak{gl}(V) \cong \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})$ . The analysis of the  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  case then shows that the exponential map of  $GL(V)$  can be written in the form

$$\exp A = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} A^k$$

when we consider  $A \in \mathfrak{gl}(V)$  as a linear map from  $V$  to itself and  $A^k = A \circ \dots \circ A$ .

**Proposition** Let  $G$  be a Lie group and  $\mathfrak{g}$  be its Lie algebra.

1. The exponential map is a smooth map from  $\mathfrak{g}$  to  $G$ .
2. For any  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$  and  $s, t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\exp(s + t)X = \exp sX \exp tX$ .
3. For any  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ ,  $(\exp X)^{-1} = \exp(-X)$ .
4. For any  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $(\exp X)^n = \exp(nX)$ .

5. The differential  $(d\exp)_0 : T_0\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow T_eG$  is the identity map, under the canonical identifications of both  $T_0\mathfrak{g}$  and  $T_eG$  with  $\mathfrak{g}$  itself.
6. The exponential map restricts to a diffeomorphism from some neighborhood of 0 in  $\mathfrak{g}$  to a neighborhood of  $e$  in  $G$ .

Notice that  $\exp(X + Y) = \exp X \exp Y$  for arbitrary  $X, Y$  in the Lie algebra. In fact, for connected groups, this is only true when the group is abelian.

**Theorem (The Lie correspondence)** There is a one-to-one correspondence between isomorphism classes of finite-dimensional Lie algebras and isomorphism classes of simply connected Lie groups given by associating each simply connected Lie group with its Lie algebra.

## 5.4 $U(n)$ is intersection of any two...

**Problem 6:** Consider the standard compatible triple  $(\Omega_0, J_0, g_0)$  on  $\mathbb{R}^{2n}$ . Let  $O(2n)$  be the linear orthogonal group of  $\mathbb{R}^{2n}$  (i.e., linear transformations preserving the canonical inner product  $g_0$ ), and let  $Sp(2n)$  be the symplectic linear group. Through the identification  $\mathbb{R}^{2n} \cong \mathbb{C}^n$  (as complex vector spaces), we may see  $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$  (the group of linear automorphisms of  $\mathbb{C}^n$ ) as a subgroup of  $GL(2n, \mathbb{R})$ : a complex matrix  $A + iB$  is identified with the real  $2n \times 2n$  matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & -B \\ B & A \end{pmatrix}$$

Let now  $U(n) \subset GL(n, \mathbb{C})$  be the group of linear transformation preserving the natural hermitian inner product of  $\mathbb{C}^n$ . Show that the intersection of any two of the groups

$$Sp(2n), O(2n), GL(n, \mathbb{C}) \subset GL(2n, \mathbb{R})$$

is  $U(n)$ .

## 5.5 a fact about lie groups and flows

Not sure where to put this so maybe here for now...

**Adjoint representation** The *adjoint representation* of a Lie group  $G$  is a map  $\text{Ad} : G \rightarrow GL(\mathfrak{g})$  that represents  $G$  as a group of linear automorphisms of its Lie algebra. It is given by  $G \ni a \mapsto (dC_a)_e$ , the differential of the conjugation map  $C_a$ .

### flow of left-invariant is right multiplication

Now I know what is a flow: the flow is

$$\varphi^t(p)$$

For every point of the manifold I get the integral curve of a vector field (of course a priori a flow is just a flow but let me just think it's the flow of a vector field). At every point you get a curve.



Now. The thing with the Lie bracket is that when you differentiate the flow you get to the Lie bracket via a formula that is hard to write. So the easy way to write it is:

$$[V, W] = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \varphi_{*, \varphi^t(p)}^{-t} W_{\varphi^t(p)}$$

and that's it.

Now I will prove in Portuguese that **the flow of a left-invariant vector field is right-translation**. First I need a claim.

**Claim** O fluxo  $\varphi$  de um campo invariante à esquerda  $w$  comuta com a traslação à esquerda, i.e.,

$$\varphi_t(e) \circ L_h = L_h \circ \varphi_t(e) \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R} \forall h \in G.$$

*Prova da afirmação.* Derivamos de ambos lados. Por um lado,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \varphi_t(e) \circ L_h = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \varphi_t(h) = v_h$$

Por outro lado,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} L_h \circ \varphi_t(e) = (L_h)_{*, \varphi_t(e)} \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \varphi_t(e) = (L_h)_{*, e} v_e = v_h.$$

Por unicidade das soluções de EDOs, acabou.  $\square$

Então repare:

$$\varphi_t(h) = (\varphi_t \circ L_h)(e) = (L_h \circ \varphi_t)(e) = h \varphi_t(e) = R_{\varphi_t(e)} h,$$

ou seja, qualquer curva integral de  $w$  é simplesmente a curva integral que passa por  $e$  trasladada. **That's what I wanted to show but there's more:**

Agora lembre que o colchete de Lie pode ser expressado como

$$[w, v]_e = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \left( \varphi_{-t} \right)_{*, \varphi_t(e)} v_{\varphi_t(e)}.$$

(Onde fixamos o parâmetro  $-t$  e deixamos livre o outro para ver  $\varphi_{-t}$  como um difeomorfismo de  $G$ .)

Juntando com a discussão anterior obtemos

$$[w, v]_e = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \left( R_{\varphi_{-t}(e)} \right)_{*, \varphi_t(e)} v_{\varphi_t(e)}.$$

# 6. complex analysis

## 6.1 cauchy-riemann

$f : U \subset \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is *holomorphic* at  $z_0 \in U$  if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0}$$

exists. And also, don't get confused,  $h \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0)}{h}$$

**Cauchy-Riemann** The idea is to use the second definition along the  $x$  axis, call  $f = u + iv$  and  $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$ . To take derivative along the  $x$  axis you take  $h$  and don't get confused, this time  $h$  is just a real number

$$\begin{aligned} f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0) &= (u(x_0 + h, y_0) + iv(x_0 + h, y_0)) - (u(x_0, y_0) + iv(x_0, y_0)) \\ &= (u(x_0 + h, y_0) - u(x_0, y_0)) + i(v(x_0 + h, y_0) - v(x_0, y_0)) \end{aligned}$$

which will give you upon limiting:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

Do the other one, probably you'll get

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} - i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

But do do it. The trick is that again, don't get confused,  $h$  is real but you put  $i$ :

$$\begin{aligned} f(z_0 + ih) - f(z_0) &= (u(x_0, y_0 + ih) + iv(x_0, y_0 + ih)) - (u(x_0, y_0) + iv(x_0, y_0)) \\ &= (u(x_0, y_0 + ih) - u(x_0, y_0)) + i(v(x_0, y_0 + ih) - v(x_0, y_0)) \dots \end{aligned}$$

And looks the same but actually you quotient by...  $ih$ :

$$\frac{f(z + ih) - f(z)}{ih} = \frac{1}{i} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} - i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

Aha! Right so real with real and imaginary-imaginary,

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

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