

# PMATH 965: Mirror Symmetry for GIT Quotients

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## 1 Motivation

Mirror symmetry is an enormous area of research. Here we provide motivation from just one perspective, which is Fano classification. Let  $X$  be a smooth  $n$ -dimensional algebraic variety over  $\mathbb{C}$ . Suppose we also have a line bundle  $L \rightarrow X$ , with some global sections  $s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m \in \Gamma(X, L)$ . Then we can try and write down a map

$$\begin{aligned}\iota : X &\rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{m-1} \\ x &\rightarrow [s_1(x) : s_2(x) : \dots : s_m(x)].\end{aligned}$$

This is well defined as long as there is no  $x \in X$  where all the sections vanish;  $s_i(x) = 0$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, m$ .

**Definition 1.1.** A line bundle  $L$  over an algebraic variety  $X$  is called *very ample* if there exist some global sections  $s_1, \dots, s_m$  of  $L$  for which the map  $\iota$  defined above is an embedding of  $X$  into  $\mathbb{P}^{m-1}$ .

If there exists a natural number  $k$  such that  $L^{\otimes k}$  is very ample, then we say  $L$  is *ample*.

For example, the line bundles  $\mathcal{O}(n) \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{m-1}$  (not to be confused with orthogonal groups!) are very ample for all  $n \geq 1$ .

**Definition 1.2.** The variety  $X$  is *Fano* if  $-K_X := \bigwedge^n TX$  is *ample*.

If  $X$  is Fano, then it is projective, since  $\bigwedge^n TX$  is very ample, meaning it has some sections which define an embedding  $\iota$  of  $X$  into projective space. Some examples of Fano varieties include  $\mathbb{P}^n$ , any degree  $d$  projective curve in  $\mathbb{P}^n$  with  $d < n + 1$ , and Grassmannians. Naturally then we can ask *Why study Fano varieties?*

- Fano varieties are often the ambient spaces in algebraic geometry. For example, Calabi-Yaus can be cut-out from Fano varieties.
- Fano varieties are special in that there are only finitely many of them in any given dimension.

**Theorem 1.3** (Kollár-Miyaoka-Mori). *Up to deformation, there are finitely many Fano varieties in each dimension.*

Here  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are considered equivalent up to deformation if there exists a flat family  $\mathcal{X} \rightarrow B$  over an irreducible base  $B$  such that  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are fibers over some points  $b_1, b_2 \in B$ .

This raises the big question: Can we classify the Fano varieties? The current progress is:

- In dimension 1, there is just one Fano;  $\mathbb{P}^1$ .
- In dimension 2, there are 10, called the del Pezzo surfaces.
- In dimension 3, there are 105, which were classified throughout the 70s and 90s.
- All higher dimensions are yet to be classified.

In this course, we are also concerned with *mirror symmetries* for Fano varieties. A conjectured mirror symmetry is between  $n$ -dimensional Fano varieties and Laurent polynomials in  $n$ -dimensions up to an equivalence called *mutation*. Loosely, we can say

**Definition 1.4.** A variety  $X$  is *mirror* to a polynomial  $f$ , if you can determine *enumerative info* about  $X$  from  $f$ .

By enumerative info for  $X$ , we mean things like Gromov-Witten invariants, quantum cohomology and quantum periods. The mirror symmetry conjecture is that these can be computed in terms of corresponding quantities of  $f$ . For example:

**Definition 1.5.** Let  $f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1^{\pm 1}, \dots, x_n^{\pm 1}]$  be a Laurent polynomial. The *classical period* of  $f$  is the quantity

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_f(t) &= \int_{(S^1)^n} \frac{1}{1 - tf} \frac{dx_1}{x_1} \cdots \frac{dx_n}{x_n} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_1(f^k)}{k!} t^k.\end{aligned}$$

where  $c_1(f^k)$  means the coefficient of the constant term of  $f^k$ .

The idea therefore, is that mirror symmetry can help us compute hard things in geometry by using easier polynomial data. Then what is the status of this conjecture?

- Established in dimensions 1 and 2 by checking all cases.
- In dimension 3, all Fanos  $X$  have a mirror polynomial  $f$ , but the classification of other maximally mutable polynomials  $f$  is unknown.
- In all dimensions, the symmetry is established for *toric varieties*.

Toric varieties are Fano varieties which have the form  $V // T$  where  $V$  is a (complex) vector space and  $T = (\mathbb{C}^*)^k$ , which is called the *algebraic torus*. The double slash  $//$  indicates a *geometric invariant theory* quotient, which will be discussed in the first part of the course. Recently, there is a lot of work on extending mirror symmetry to GIT quotients  $V // G$  more generally, for  $G$  a reductive algebraic group.

As we will see, toric varieties are very nice to work with. This is because they are extremely computable. Essentially, there is a dictionary between the geometry of a toric variety  $X$  and the combinatorics of a polytope  $P$  corresponding to  $X$ . The basic question then, is can a similar correspondence be generalised to other Fano varieties? What should play the role of the polytope? Mirror symmetry answers this question:  $X$  corresponds to  $f$ , which has a *Newton polytope* with some additional coefficient data.

*Exercise 1.6.* 1. Show that a degree  $d$  hypersurface in  $\mathbb{P}^n$  is Fano for  $d < n + 1$ .

2. Find a closed formula for the classical period of  $f(x, y) = x + y + \frac{1}{xy}$ , and find a differential equation that it satisfies.

## 2 Quotients in Algebraic Geometry

**Definition 2.1.** An *algebraic* group is a group which is also an algebraic variety. An *action* of an algebraic group  $G$  on a variety  $X$  is a morphism

$$\begin{aligned} G \times X &\rightarrow X \\ (g, x) &\rightarrow g \cdot x \end{aligned}$$

such that for all  $g, g' \in G$  and  $x \in X$ , we have  $(gg') \cdot x = g \cdot (g' \cdot x)$  and  $e \cdot x = x$ .

For example:  $\mathbb{C}^*$ ,  $GL(n)$  and  $SL(n)$ .

**Definition 2.2.** Given an action of  $G$  on  $X$  and some  $x \in X$ , the *orbit* of  $x$  is

$$G \cdot x = \{g \cdot x, \mid g \in G\}. \quad (1)$$

The *stabiliser* of  $x$  is

$$G_x = \{g \in G \text{ s.t. } g \cdot x = x\}. \quad (2)$$

Note that  $G_x$  is a closed subgroup of  $G$ .

Example: Let  $T = \mathbb{C}^*$  and  $V = \mathbb{C}^2$ . Define an action of  $T$  on  $V$  by  $\lambda \cdot (z_1, z_2) = (\lambda z_1, \lambda z_2)$  for all  $\lambda \in T$ ,  $(z_1, z_2) \in V$ . Then the orbit of  $(z_1, z_2) \neq (0, 0)$  is the line through  $(z_1, z_2)$ , except the origin. The stabilizer is  $\{1\}$ . If  $(z_1, z_2) = (0, 0)$  then the orbit is  $\{(0, 0)\}$  and the stabilizer is all of  $T$ . Notice that  $(0, 0)$  is in the closure of  $G \cdot z$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}^2$ .

**Proposition 2.3.** For any  $G$ ,  $X$  and  $x \in X$ ,

- The orbit  $G \cdot x$  is locally closed and a smooth subvariety of  $X$ .
- Each of its irreducible components has dimension  $\dim(G) - \dim(G_x)$ .
- The closure of  $G \cdot x$  is a union of  $G \cdot x$  and orbits of strictly smaller dimension.

The last point implies that minimal dimension orbits must be closed, and  $\overline{G \cdot x}$  always contains a closed orbit.

**Definition 2.4.** The action of a group  $G$  is called *closed* if every orbit of  $G$  is closed.

**Definition 2.5.** A *linear algebraic group* is a closed subgroup of  $GL(n)$ .

Goal: If we have an action  $G \curvearrowright X$ , we want to build some quotient  $X/G$  in an algebraic-geometric way. As a naive attempt we can just take the quotient as topological spaces. Consider the action of  $\mathbb{C}^*$  on  $\mathbb{C}^2$  from before. If we endow the set  $\mathbb{C}^2/\mathbb{C}^*$  with the quotient topology, then since  $[(0, 0)]$  is in every open neighbourhood of every other point (as we can always take a sequence of  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{C}^*$  approaching zero), this quotient is not even Hausdorff.

To solve this, we essentially want to delete the origin, and obtain  $(\mathbb{C}^2 - \{(0, 0)\})/\mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{P}^1$ . The putative quotient  $Y$  we want to define could have the following desirable properties.

1. There exists a surjection  $p : X \rightarrow Y$  which is  $G$ -invariant.
2.  $Y$  is separated.
3.  $Y$  satisfies the following universal property: if  $f : X \rightarrow Z$  is  $G$  invariant, then it factors uniquely through  $p$ . That is:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{p} & Y \\ & \searrow f & \downarrow \\ & & Z \end{array}$$

4. For all  $U$  open,  $\mathcal{O}_Y(U) \cong \mathcal{O}_X(p^{-1}(U))^G$ , where the superscript denotes  $G$ -invariant functions.
5. If  $Z \subset X$  is closed and  $G$ -invariant, then  $p(Z)$  is closed. If  $Z_1, Z_2$  are disjoint and closed then  $p(Z_1)$  and  $p(Z_2)$  are disjoint.

**Definition 2.6.** If a map  $p$  exists as in property 1, and it satisfies property 3, we say it is a *categorical quotient*. If  $p$  satisfies properties 4 and 5, then we say it is a *good quotient*.

We can also consider a geometric quotient, which is a good quotient whose points are orbits of  $G \curvearrowright X$ .

*Remark 2.7.* The properties of being good or geometric are local on the base, meaning that  $p : X \rightarrow Y$  is good or geometric if and only if there exists an open cover of  $Y$  with the restrictions of  $p$  being good or geometric.

**Lemma 2.8.** *If  $p : X \rightarrow Y$  is good, then it is categorical.*

*Proof.* Suppose  $g : X \rightarrow Z$  is another  $H$  invariant morphism and  $p : X \rightarrow Y$  is good. Then we want to define  $h : Y \rightarrow Z$  such that  $p \circ h = g$ . Consider  $g(p^{-1}(y))$  for some  $y \in Y$ , which we claim is a singleton set. Suppose for contradiction that there are  $z_1 \neq z_2 \in g(p^{-1}(y))$ . Then  $g^{-1}(z_1) \cap g^{-1}(z_2) = \emptyset$ , and these are closed,  $G$ -invariant sets because  $g$  is continuous and  $G$ -invariant. Hence, by the hypothesis that  $p$  is good we have:

$$p(g^{-1}(z_1)) \cap p(g^{-1}(z_2)) = \emptyset. \quad (3)$$

However, we must also have that  $y \in p(g^{-1}(z_i)), i = 1, 2$  because  $z_i \in g(p^{-1}(y))$ ; hence we have a contradiction and must have that  $g(p^{-1}(y))$  is a singleton.

Therefore, we can define a map  $h : Y \rightarrow Z$  by  $y \rightarrow g(p^{-1}(y))$  and it is well-defined and clearly  $p \circ h = g$ . It remains to show that this is a morphism of schemes (namely we need it to be locally induced by ring morphisms  $\mathcal{O}_X \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_Y$ ). Let  $\{U_i\}$  be a finite open affine cover of  $Z$ . Let  $W_i = X - g^{-1}(U_i) = g(U_i)^c$ . Then  $U_i$  being open implies that  $g^{-1}(U_i)$  is open and hence  $W_i$  is closed. Similarly,  $g$  being  $G$ -invariant implies  $W_i$  is also. Finally, since  $U_i$  is a cover,  $\bigcap W_i = \emptyset$ . Thus by goodness of  $p$  we have that  $p(W_i)$  are all closed and

$$\bigcap p(W_i) = \emptyset. \quad (4)$$

Define  $V_i = Y - p(W_i) = p(W_i)^c$ . Then the  $V_i$  are an open cover of  $Y$  by equation 4. Note further that  $p^{-1}(V_i) \subset g^{-1}(U_i)$ . Thus we have a sequence of maps

$$\mathcal{O}_Z(U_i) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{O}}_X (g^{-1}(U_i))^G \xrightarrow{\text{res}|_{p^{-1}(V_i)}} \mathcal{O}_X(p^{-1}(V_i))^G \cong_{p \text{ good}} \mathcal{O}_Y(V_i). \quad (5)$$

The  $G$ -invariance on the second ring comes from the invariance of  $g$ . The last isomorphism is one of the hypothesis conditions of  $p$  being good. Thus since  $U_i$  and  $V_i$  are affine, this defines a local morphism  $h_i : V_i \rightarrow U_i$ , and it suffices to verify that  $h|_{V_i} = h$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.9.** *Let  $p : X \rightarrow Y$  be a good quotient. Then*

1.  $\overline{G \cdot x_1} \cap \overline{G \cdot x_2} \neq \emptyset \iff p(x_1) = p(x_2)$ .
2. For all  $y \in Y$ , there exists a unique closed orbit in  $p^{-1}(y)$ .

*Proof.* 1) Suppose  $\overline{G \cdot x_1} \cap \overline{G \cdot x_2} \neq \emptyset$ . Since  $p$  is continuous and constant on orbits, it is constant on orbit closures and hence  $p(\overline{G \cdot x_1}) = p(\overline{G \cdot x_2})$  and in particular  $p(x_1) = p(x_2)$ . On the other hand if  $\overline{G \cdot x_1} \cap \overline{G \cdot x_2} = \emptyset$ , then since  $p$  is good, the image of each orbit is disjoint.

2) Suppose there exist two closed orbits in  $p^{-1}(y)$ . If they are not equal, then again since  $p$  is continuous and constant on orbits they must be disjoint and hence their image is disjoint by goodness. However they must each contain  $y$  so this is a contradiction. (Existence was not given in class, maybe it is obvious?)  $\square$

Now, let us construct good quotients for affine varieties.

## 2.1 Affine GIT Quotient

Suppose we have the action of a group  $G$  on an affine variety  $X$ . Then  $X = \text{Spec}(\mathcal{O}_X)$  by definition, and we want our quotient to be good; so we want it to have functions  $\mathcal{O}_X^G$ . Thus the idea is to let our quotient be  $\text{Spec}(\mathcal{O}_X^G)$ . However  $\mathcal{O}_X^G$  is not finitely generated in general, so we will restrict ourselves to *reductive* groups.

**Definition 2.10.** Let  $G$  be a linear algebraic group.

- We say  $G$  is *reductive* if every smooth connected unipotent normal subgroup of  $G$  is trivial.
- We say  $G$  is *linearly reductive* if, for every representation  $G \rightarrow GL(V)$  and every non-zero fixed point  $v \in V$ , there exists a homogeneous  $G$ -invariant degree-1 polynomial  $f$  on  $V$  such that  $f(v) \neq 0$ .
- We say  $G$  is *geometrically reductive* if, for every representation  $G \rightarrow GL(V)$  and every non-zero fixed point  $v \in V$ , there exists a homogeneous  $G$ -invariant polynomial  $f$  on  $V$  such that  $f(v) \neq 0$ .

**Theorem 2.11.** The three properties above are equivalent over  $\mathbb{C}$ .

For example,  $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ ,  $SL(n, \mathbb{C})$  and  $PGL(n, \mathbb{C})$  are reductive.

**Theorem 2.12** (Nagata's Theorem). Let  $G$  be geometrically reductive acting on a finitely generated  $\mathbb{C}$ -algebra  $R$ . Then  $R^G$  is finitely generated.

**Lemma 2.13.** Let  $G$  be a geometrically reductive group acting on an affine variety  $X$ . Let  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$  be two closed,  $G$ -invariant disjoint subsets of  $X$ . Then there exists a  $G$ -invariant function  $\psi \in \mathcal{O}_X^G$  such that  $\psi(Z_1) = 1$  and  $\psi(Z_2) = 0$ .

*Proof.* Firstly

$$\langle 1 \rangle = I(\emptyset) = I(Z_1 \cap Z_2) = I(Z_1) + I(Z_2), \quad (6)$$

therefore  $1 = f_1 + f_2$  for some  $f_1, f_2$  with  $f_i(Z_j) = \delta_{ij}$ . Claim: (c.f. Hoskins) The subspace spanned by  $\{g \cdot f, \mid g \in G\} \subset \mathcal{O}_X$  is  $G$ -invariant and finite dimensional. Therefore we can pick a basis  $h_1, \dots, h_n$ , and because  $G$  acts on all of the  $h_i$ , we get an induced action of  $G$  on  $\mathbb{C}^n$  such that the map

$$\begin{aligned} \phi : X &\rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n \\ x &\rightarrow (h_i(x)) \end{aligned}$$

is  $G$ -equivariant, meaning  $\phi(g \cdot x) = g\phi(x)$ . Note then that  $\phi(Z_1) = 0$  and  $\phi(Z_2) \neq 0$ , and define  $v = \phi(Z_2) \in \mathbb{C}^n$ .

Since  $\phi$  is  $G$ -equivariant,  $v$  is fixed by the action of  $G$ . Then by the hypothesis of geometric reductivity, there exists some  $G$ -invariant homogenous  $f_0$  such that  $f_0(v) \neq 0$  and  $f_0(0) = 0$ . Finally, let

$$\psi = \frac{1}{f_0(v)} f_0 \circ \phi. \quad (7)$$

□

**Definition 2.14.** The *affine GIT quotient* of an affine variety  $X$  under reductive group  $G$ , denoted  $X // G$  is  $\text{Spec}(\mathcal{O}_X^G)$ .

**Theorem 2.15.** Let  $X$  be an affine variety and  $G$  a reductive group acting on  $X$ . Then  $p : X \rightarrow Y = \text{Spec}(\mathcal{O}_X^G)$  is a good quotient.

*Proof.* First we show  $p$  is  $G$ -invariant. Suppose for contradiction there exist  $x \in X$ ,  $g \in G$  such that  $p(x) \neq p(g \cdot x)$ . Since  $Y$  is affine, there exists an  $x \in \mathcal{O}_Y$  such that  $f(x) \neq f(g \cdot x)$ . However  $\mathcal{O}_Y = \mathcal{O}_X^G$  by definition, so  $f$  must be  $G$  invariant, giving a contradiction.

Next we show  $p$  is surjective. Let  $y \in Y$  and let  $\langle f_1, \dots, f_n \rangle$  be the ideal defining  $y$ . Let  $\mathfrak{m}$  be the maximal ideal containing  $\langle f_1, \dots, f_n \rangle$ . The point corresponding to  $\mathfrak{m}$  in  $X$  maps to  $y$  under  $p$ .

Now let  $U \subset Y$  be open. We want to show  $\mathcal{O}_Y(U) \cong \mathcal{O}_X(p^{-1}(U))^G$ ; it suffices to show this for  $U = D_f^Y$  for any  $f \in \mathcal{O}_Y$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{O}_Y(D_f^Y) &= (\mathcal{O}_Y)_f \\ &= [\mathcal{O}_X(X)^G]_f \\ &= [\mathcal{O}_X(X)_f]^G \\ &= [\mathcal{O}_X(D_f^X)]^G \\ &= \mathcal{O}_X(p^{-1}(D_f^Y))^G\end{aligned}$$

Let  $Z_1, Z_2$  be  $G$ -invariant closed disjoint subsets. By the lemma, there exists  $\psi \in \mathcal{O}_X^G$  with  $\psi(Z_1) = 0$  and  $\psi(Z_2) = 1$ . Then  $p(Z_1) \cap p(Z_2) = \emptyset$ , because there is a  $G$ -invariant function which separates them. This turns out to be equivalent to the topological condition for goodness, that  $p(Z_1) \cap p(Z_2) = \emptyset$ . To prove this, it suffices to prove that if  $Z$  is closed and  $G$ -invariant then  $p(Z)$  is closed.

Suppose  $Z$  is closed and  $G$ -invariant. For contradiction, suppose there exists  $g \in \overline{p(Z)} - p(Z)$ . Then  $Z$  and  $p^{-1}(y)$  are both closed and  $G$ -invariant, so

$$\overline{p(Z)} \cap \overline{p^{-1}(y)} = \emptyset. \quad (8)$$

however  $y$  must be in this intersection, giving a contradiction.  $\square$

**Proposition 2.16.** *If the action of  $G$  is closed then  $X // G$  is a geometric quotient.*

This GIT construction separates orbits as much as possible while still being good.

Example: Consider  $\mathbb{C}^* \curvearrowright \mathbb{C}^2$  by  $t(x, y) = (tx, t^{-1}y)$ . Then the affine GIT quotient is given by  $\mathbb{C}^2 // \mathbb{C}^* = \text{Spec}(\mathbb{C}[x, y]^G)$ , and  $\mathbb{C}[x, y]^G = \mathbb{C}[xy] \cong \mathbb{C}[z]$ . Therefore  $\mathbb{C}^2 // \mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C}$ . The quotient map is  $(x, y) \rightarrow xy$  and the orbits come in three types:

1. The orbit of the origin is  $G \cdot (0, 0) = (0, 0)$ .
2. The orbits of  $(x, 0)$  and  $(0, y)$ , for  $x, y \neq 0$  are the  $x$  and  $y$  axes in  $\mathbb{C}^2$ .
3. The remaining orbits have the form  $G \cdot (x, y) = \{(z_1, z_2) \mid z_1 z_2 = \lambda\}$  for some  $\lambda$ , which are conics.

The GIT quotient sends the type 1 and 2 orbits to the same point,  $0 \in \mathbb{C}$ , so this is not a geometric quotient.

Example: Consider the additive complex group  $G_a = (\mathbb{C}, +)$ . Let it act on  $\mathbb{C}^4$  by embedding it into  $GL(4, \mathbb{C})$  by the map

$$s \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & s & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & s \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (9)$$

$G_a$  is not reductive, but in this case the ring of invariants is still finitely generated. Note however that in our proof that the GIT quotient is surjective, we again used that  $G$  is reductive. In this case, we will not have a good quotient. If  $f$  is invariant, it must send

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 &\rightarrow x_2 & x_2 &\rightarrow sx_1 + x_2 \\ x_3 &\rightarrow x_3 & x_4 &\rightarrow sx_3 + x_4\end{aligned}$$

So  $x_1, x_3$  are invariant, and  $x_1x_4 - x_2x_3$  is invariant. It turns out these three generate all the invariants, and so  $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{C}^4}^{G_a} = \mathbb{C}[x_1, x_3, x_1x_4 - x_2x_3]$ . Furthermore,  $\text{Spec}(\mathbb{C}[x_1, x_3, x_1x_4 - x_2x_3]) = \mathbb{C}^3$ . The quotient map is

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \rightarrow (x_1, x_3, x_1x_4 - x_2x_3), \quad (10)$$

which is not surjective as  $(0, 0, \lambda)$  is not in its image for  $\lambda \neq 0$ .

## 2.2 Projective GIT Quotient

Recall the example of  $\mathbb{C}^* \curvearrowright \mathbb{C}^2$  by scaling. We saw that  $(0,0)$  is in the closure of every orbit. Hence  $\mathbb{C}^2/\mathbb{C}^*$  is just one point. This is the same as saying that all the  $\mathbb{C}^*$  invariants in  $\mathbb{C}[x_1, x_2]$  are just the constants. Projective GIT will allow us to loosen the definition of  $G$ -invariance and get that  $\mathbb{C}^2 // \mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{P}^1$ . Recall, if  $f$  is homogeneous of degree  $k$  then  $f(\lambda x, \lambda y) = \lambda^k f(x, y)$ , so  $f$  is projectively invariant.

Consider  $G \curvearrowright X$ , with  $X$  a projective variety. We can think of  $X$  being projective in two ways, either there is an embedding  $X \subset \mathbb{P}^k$ , or  $X$  is equipped with an ample line bundle  $L \rightarrow X$ . We will swap between these two pictures as convenient. The idea of projective GIT is to replace Spec with Proj. If  $R$  is the graded ring with  $X = \text{Proj}(R)$ , then we want to define  $X // G$  to be  $\text{Proj}(R^G)$ . To make sense of this in the  $(X, L)$  perspective, we need a  $G$ -action on the sections of the bundle  $L$ .

**Definition 2.17.** Let  $X$  be an algebraic variety and  $\pi : L \rightarrow X$  a line bundle. Suppose  $G \curvearrowright X$  via  $\sigma : G \times X \rightarrow X$ . Then a  $G$ -linearisation of  $L$  is a lift of  $\sigma$  to  $\bar{\sigma} : G \times L \rightarrow L$  which commutes with  $\sigma$  under the projection  $\pi$ ;  $\sigma(g, \pi(s)) = \pi(\bar{\sigma}(g, s))$  for all  $s \in \Gamma(X, L)$ , and such that the 0 section is invariant.

*Remark 2.18.* A linearisation defines a linear map between fibres of  $L$ ,  $\bar{\sigma} : L_x \rightarrow L_{g \cdot x}$ .

Example: Let  $X = \mathbb{C}^n$  and  $L = \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C}^n$  be the trivial bundle. Then a linearisation of  $L$  is a character in  $\chi(G)$ . If we fix  $\theta \in \chi(G)$ , then the linearisation of  $L$  is

$$g \cdot (a, v) = (\theta(g)a, g \cdot v). \quad (11)$$

This defines an action on the sections of  $L$ ; for  $U \subset X$  open and  $s \in \Gamma(U, L)$ , let  $(g \cdot s)(x) = \theta(g)s(g^{-1}x)$ .

In the other perspective, when  $X \subset \mathbb{P}^k$  explicitly, then a linearisation is a way to think of  $G \curvearrowright X$  via an embedding  $G \hookrightarrow GL(k+1, \mathbb{C}) \curvearrowright \mathbb{P}^k$ . In particular, if  $L$  is very ample, then  $X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}(\Gamma(X, L)^\vee) = \mathbb{P}^k$ . Then these two notions of linearisation agree. If  $X = \text{Proj}(R)$ , then a linearisation is an action  $G \curvearrowright R$  which preserves the grading.

In any case, we can now define projective GIT.

**Definition 2.19.** The *projective GIT quotient* of  $(X, L)$  by  $G$ , with respect to a given linearisation, is

$$X // G = \text{Proj} \left( \bigoplus_{r \geq 0} \Gamma(X, L^r)^G \right) \quad (12)$$

with the quotient map induced by the injection  $R^G \hookrightarrow R$ .

Example: We construct  $\mathbb{P}^n$  as a GIT quotient of  $X = \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$  by  $\mathbb{C}^*$  under scaling. A linearisation is given by a character of  $\mathbb{C}^*$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \chi(\mathbb{C}^*) &\cong \mathbb{Z} \\ (\lambda \rightarrow \lambda^a) &\leftrightarrow a \end{aligned}$$

Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  be a character, then  $\mathbb{C}^*$  acts on the trivial line bundle  $L$  over  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$  by  $\lambda \cdot s(x) = \lambda^a s(x)$ . We have that  $\Gamma(\mathbb{C}^{n+1}, L^k) = \mathbb{C}[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ . If we want an element  $f$  to be  $\mathbb{C}^*$  invariant, we need

$$t \cdot f(x_0, \dots, x_n) = t^a f(t^{-1}x_0, \dots, t^{-1}x_n) = f(x_0, \dots, x_n). \quad (13)$$

If  $a = 1$  then equation 13 exactly means that  $f$  is a degree- $k$  homogenous polynomial. Then

$$X // G = \text{Proj} \left( \bigoplus_{k \geq 0} \text{degree } k \text{ homogenous polynomials} \right) = \mathbb{P}^n.$$

If  $a = 0$ , then equation 13 is only solved by constants. In this case,  $X // G$  has only one point and we recover the affine GIT quotient.

If  $a < 0$  then equation 13 has no solutions and the quotient is the empty set. Finally, the case with  $a > 1 \in \mathbb{N}$  is left as an exercise.

We can also think of  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$  as  $\text{Proj}(\mathbb{C}[x_0, \dots, x_n, y])$ , with the grading that lets  $x_i$  have degree 0 and  $y$  have degree 1. Then  $\mathbb{C}^* \curvearrowright \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$  by  $\lambda \cdot (x_0, \dots, x_n, y) = (\lambda x_0, \dots, \lambda x_n, \lambda^{-a} y)$  for  $a \in \chi(\mathbb{C}^*)$ . The quotient in each case works out exactly the same as above.

Let us try to get an intuitive sense for  $X // G$ . Suppose that  $L$  is very ample. Suppose further that some sections  $s_0, \dots, s_n$  generate the  $G$ -invariant sections in all degrees. Then the Proj construction is essentially doing

$$\begin{aligned} X &\rightarrow \mathbb{P}^n \\ x &\rightarrow [s_0(x) : \dots : s_n(x)]. \end{aligned}$$

This is defined where not all of the  $s_i(x)$  vanish; the image is  $X // G$ , which contains all the points  $x$  that have some non-vanishing  $G$ -invariant section.

**Definition 2.20.** A point  $x \in X$  is  *$L$ -semistable* for  $(X, L)$  if  $\{y \in X \mid s(y) \neq 0\}$  is affine and there exists a  $G$ -invariant section  $s$  of  $L^r$ , for some  $r$  such that  $s(x) \neq 0$ .

A point which is not semistable is called unstable. The set of semistable points is denoted  $X^{ss}(L)$ , it is Zariski open and  $G$ -invariant.

If  $L$  is ample then  $\{y \in X \mid s(y) \neq 0\}$  is always affine.

**Definition 2.21.** A semistable point  $x \in X^{ss}$  is *stable* if there exists some  $s \in \Gamma(X, L^k)^G$  such that  $s(x) \neq 0$  and the action  $G$  on  $Y = \{y \in X \mid s(y) \neq 0\}$  is closed,  $Y$  is affine and the stabiliser of  $x$  is finite. If the stabiliser is not finite,  $x$  is called *polystable*.

The set of polystable points is a disjoint union of open sets, each of which consists of polystable orbits of a fixed dimension.

*Exercise 2.22.* Suppose  $L$  is very ample and we have an embedding  $X \subset \mathbb{P}^k$  for some  $k$ . Show that the following notions of semistable and stable agree with the definitions above.

- $x \in X$  is semi-stable if there exists a  $G$ -invariant homogeneous polynomial  $f$  with  $f(x) \neq 0$ .
- $x \in X$  is stable if  $G \cdot x$  is finite and there exists a  $G$ -invariant homogeneous polynomial and the  $G$ -action on  $D_f$  is closed.

**Theorem 2.23.** *There is a  $G$ -invariant morphism*

$$p : X^{ss}(L) \rightarrow X // G$$

*such that  $p$  is a good quotient and  $X // G$  is quasi-projective. If  $L$  is ample,  $X // G$  is projective.*

*Proof.* We prove for  $L$  very ample. Write  $X = V(I) \subset \mathbb{P}^K$ , where  $I \subset$  some homogeneous ideal. Then let  $R = \mathbb{C}[x_0 : \dots : x_n]/I$  such that  $X // G = \text{Proj}(R^G)$ . The inclusion  $R^G \hookrightarrow R$  induces a rational map  $\text{Proj}(R) \rightarrow \text{Proj}(R^G)$ , well-defined where points in  $\text{Proj}(R)$  don't get mapped into points containing the irrelevant ideal. That is to say, well defined away from the *null cone*

$$N_{RG}(X) := \{x \in X \mid f(x) = 0, \forall f \in R^G\}. \quad (14)$$

Thus the map is well defined on

$$X^{ss} = X - N_{RG}(X) \rightarrow \text{Proj}(R^G).$$

Let  $f \in R^G$ , let  $Y_f$  be the affine open of  $f$  in  $Y := X // G$ . Then  $X_f$  is the affine open set in  $X^{ss}$  equal to  $\text{Spec}((R_f)_0)$ , and  $Y_f$  is the affine open equal to  $\text{Spec}([(R^G)_f]_0)$  and the ring map

$$[(R^G)_f]_0 = [(R_f)_0]^G \hookrightarrow (R_f)_0$$

induces a map  $X_f \rightarrow Y_f$ . This map is exactly the affine GIT quotient which we proved has the required properties. Since being a good quotient is local on the base, being local on the distinguished affines implies that the quotient must be good everywhere.  $\square$

The next question is to understand when  $X // G$  will be a geometric quotient.

**Definition 2.24.** Let  $G \cdot x_1$  and  $G \cdot x_2$  be semistable orbits. Then we say that  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are GIT equivalent if either of the following equivalent things happen:

- $\overline{G \cdot x_1} \cap \overline{G \cdot x_2} \cap X^{ss} = \emptyset$ .
- $x_1$  and  $x_2$  map to the same point in  $X // G$ .

**Proposition 2.25** (c.f. Hoskins).  *$x$  is stable if and only if  $G \cdot x$  is closed in  $X^{ss}$  and  $G_x$  is finite.*



**Theorem 2.26.** *The restriction of  $p : X^{ss}(L) \rightarrow X // G$  to  $p : X^s(L) \rightarrow X^s(L) // G$  is a geometric quotient.*

## 2.3 Stability Criteria

We've constructed good and geometric quotients of  $X^{ss}$  and  $X^s$ , but in general finding the semi-stable and stable points can be difficult. Therefore we will prove some criteria which help us compute these loci. We say  $f$  is HGI to mean  $f : \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a homogeneous,  $G$ -invariant polynomial.

Assume  $G$  is reductive,  $X \subset \mathbb{P}^n$  is a projective variety, and  $G$  acts linearly on  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ .

**Proposition 2.27** (Topological criterion for stability). *Let  $\hat{x}$  be a lift of  $x \in X$  to  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ . Then*

1.  $x$  is semistable  $\iff 0 \notin G \cdot \hat{x}$ .
2.  $x$  is stable  $\iff \dim G_{\hat{x}} = 0$  and  $G \cdot \hat{x}$  is closed in  $\hat{X}$ .

*Proof.* 1) If  $x$  is semistable, then there exists  $f$  HGI such that  $f(x) \neq 0$ . Then  $f(\hat{x}) \neq 0$ , and by  $G$ -invariance  $f(G \cdot \hat{x}) = f(\hat{x})$  is non-zero constant. Furthermore, by continuity this means  $f(\overline{G \cdot \hat{x}}) \neq 0$ . Thus  $\overline{G \cdot \hat{x}} \cap \{0\} = \emptyset$  by the topological property of good quotients.

Conversely, these sets being disjoint means there exists an  $f \in \mathbb{C}[x_0, \dots, x_n]^G$  such that  $f(\overline{G \cdot \hat{x}}) = 1$  and  $f(0) = 0$  by an earlier lemma. We can write  $f = \sum h_i$  with the  $h_i$  all HIG, and since  $f$  does not vanish on  $\overline{G \cdot \hat{x}}$  at least one  $h_i$  must not vanish there.

2) Suppose  $\dim G_x = 0$  and there is a HIG  $f$  such that  $x \in D_f$  and  $G \cdot \hat{x}$  is closed in  $D_f$ . Note that  $G_{\hat{x}} \subset G_x$  which implies  $G_{\hat{x}}$  is finite. Let  $\pi : \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^n$  be the quotient and define

$$Z = \{z \in \hat{X} \mid f(z) = f(\hat{x})\}. \quad (15)$$

$Z$  is closed. Consider the map  $\pi : Z \rightarrow D_f$ , which is surjective and finite because things in  $\pi^{-1}(a)$  must be in the stabiliser  $G_a$  which is finite. Then  $\pi^{-1}(G \cdot x)$  is closed since  $G \cdot \hat{x}$  is closed in  $D_f$ , and  $\pi$  is continuous.  $\pi^{-1}(G \cdot x)$  is  $G$ -invariant, and so it is the union of a finite number of  $G$  orbits, all of dimension  $\dim G_x$ , hence they are closed, and so is  $G \cdot \hat{x} \subset \pi^{-1}(G \cdot x)$ .

Conversely, suppose  $G \cdot \hat{x}$  is closed in  $\hat{X}$ . Then  $0 \notin \overline{G \cdot \hat{x}}$  again and by 1),  $x$  is semi-stable. Hence there exists  $f$  HIG s.t.  $f(x) \neq 0$ .

Let  $Z, \pi$  be the same as before. Since  $\pi(G \cdot \hat{x}) = G \cdot x$ , then  $x$  has a finite stabiliser and  $G \cdot x$  is closed in  $D_f$ . This argument works for every HGI  $f$  with  $f(x) \neq 0$ , hence  $G \cdot x$  is closed in  $X^{ss}$ , and  $x$  is stable.  $\square$

Now, we will work towards a numerical criterion, first by considering  $G = \mathbb{C}^*$ . Let  $\mathbb{C}^* \curvearrowright X \subset \mathbb{P}^k$  linearly. Up to change of basis, we can assume  $\mathbb{C}^*$  acts diagonally on  $\mathbb{C}^{k+1}$ . To be precise, for  $t \in \mathbb{C}^*$  we have

$$t \cdot (x_0, \dots, x_k) = (t^{w_0} x_0, \dots, t^{w_k} x_k), \quad w_i \in \mathbb{Z}. \quad (16)$$

For  $x = [x_0 : \dots : x_n] \in X$ , let  $\hat{x} = (x_0, \dots, x_n)$ , and let  $\mu(x) = \max\{-w_i \mid i \text{ such that } x_i \neq 0\}$ . Consider

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} t^s(t \cdot \hat{x}) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} (t^{s+w_0} x_0, \dots, t^{s+w_k} x_k). \quad (17)$$

If  $s > \mu(x)$ , then the limit goes to 0. If  $s < \mu(x)$  then the limit doesn't exist. Thus,  $\mu(x)$  is the unique  $s \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that this limit exists but is non-zero. Similarly, let  $\mu^-(x) = \max\{w_i \mid i \text{ such that } x_i \neq 0\}$ . Then

1.  $\mu^-(x) < 0 \iff \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t \cdot \hat{x}$  does not exist.
2.  $\mu^-(x) = 0 \iff \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t \cdot \hat{x}$  exists and is non-zero.

Using  $\mu$  and  $\mu^-$  we can find the following stability criterion.

**Proposition 2.28.**  *$x$  is (semi)-stable if and only if  $\mu(x) > (\geq) 0$  and  $\mu^-(x) > (\geq) 0$ .*

*Proof.* The closure of  $G \cdot \hat{x}$  is obtained by adding in the limits as  $t \rightarrow 0$  and  $t \rightarrow \infty$ ;

$$\overline{G \cdot \hat{x}} = G \cdot \hat{x} \cup \{\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} t \cdot \hat{x}, \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t \cdot \hat{x}\}. \quad (18)$$

From the topological criterion, we know semistability means  $0 \notin \overline{G \cdot \hat{x}}$ . This happens exactly when neither limit is zero, which happens if and only if  $\mu(x) \geq 0$  and  $\mu^-(x) \geq 0$ , as discussed above.

Furthermore stability occurs  $G \cdot \hat{x}$  is closed, namely  $\overline{G \cdot \hat{x}} = G \cdot \hat{x}$ . This happens when both limits do not exist, which is if and only if  $\mu(x) > 0$  and  $\mu^-(x) > 0$ .  $\square$

Now we will use this to build a criterion for general reductive  $G$ , called the *Hilbert-Mumford Numerical Criterion*. Let  $G$  be reductive acting on  $X$  projective via  $\rho : G \hookrightarrow GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ .

**Definition 2.29.** A *one-parameter subgroup* (1PS) of  $G$  is a non-trivial group homomorphism  $\lambda : \mathbb{C}^* \rightarrow G$ .

Let  $\lambda$  be a 1PS of  $G$ ,  $x \in X$  and  $\hat{x}$  a lift of  $x$  as before. Then there is an action  $\mathbb{C}^* \curvearrowright X$  by  $\mathbb{C}^* \xrightarrow{\lambda} G \xrightarrow{\rho} GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ . If we write  $x = \sum x_i e_i$  in a diagonal basis  $\{e_i\}_{i=0}^k$  for this action, then as before  $t \in \mathbb{C}^*$  acts by

$$t \cdot (x_0, \dots, x_k) = (t^{w_0} x_0, \dots, t^{w_k} x_k), \quad w_i \in \mathbb{Z}. \quad (19)$$

Define  $\mu(x, \lambda) = -\min\{w_i \mid i \text{ such that } w_i \neq 0\}$ .

*Exercise 2.30.* Prove that

1.  $\mu(x, \lambda^n) = n\mu(x, \lambda)$ ,
2.  $\mu(g \cdot x, g\lambda g^{-1}) = \mu(x, \lambda)$ ,
3.  $\mu(x, \lambda) = \mu(x_0, \lambda)$ ,  $x_0 := \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \lambda(t) \cdot x$ .

Note that we do not need a  $\mu^-$  because  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \lambda(t) \cdot \hat{x} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \lambda^{-1}(t) \cdot x$ .

**Lemma 2.31.**  $x$  is (semi)-stable with respect to  $\lambda(\mathbb{C}^*)$  if and only if  $\mu(x, \lambda) > (\geq) 0$  and  $\mu(x, \lambda^{-1}) > (\geq) 0$ .

*Proof.* Exactly as in the  $\mathbb{C}^*$  case. □

**Theorem 2.32** (Hilbert-Mumford Numerical Criterion). *Let  $G$  be a reductive group, acting linearly on  $X \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ . Then  $x$  is (semi)-stable if and only if  $\mu(x, \lambda) > (\geq) 0$  for all 1PS  $\lambda$  of  $G$ .*

We won't prove this, but the work we've done so far shows that this theorem is equivalent to:

**Theorem 2.33** (Fundamental Theorem of GIT). *Let  $G$  be a reductive group acting linearly on  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ , and let  $x \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ . If  $y \in G \cdot x$  then there is a 1PS  $\lambda$  of  $G$  such that  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \lambda(t)x = y$ .*

*Exercise 2.34.* Let  $G = \mathbb{C}^*$ ,  $X = \mathbb{P}^n$ . Consider the action given by weights  $(-1, \dots, -1, 1, \dots, 1)$ ,  $k$  and then  $n - k$  times. Determine, using the Hilbert-Mumford criterion, the GIT quotient  $\mathbb{P}^n // \mathbb{C}^*$ .

Next we will rephrase this criterion for GIT quotients defined in terms of an ample line bundle  $L \rightarrow X$ . Suppose  $L$  has a  $G$  linearisation and let  $\lambda$  be a 1PS of  $G$ . Then since  $X$  is projective,

$$x_0 := \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \lambda(t)x \in X \quad (20)$$

is a fixed point for  $\lambda$ . Then  $\lambda$  acts on the fibre  $L_{x_0}$  by some character  $t \rightarrow t^r$  and we define  $\mu^L(x, \lambda) = r$ . To compare this definition with the previous one, choose a basis such that  $\lambda$  acts diagonally with weights  $w_0, \dots, w_k$ , and write  $\hat{x} = [a_0 : \dots : a_k]$ . Then

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \lambda(t) = [b_0 : \dots : b_n], \quad b_i = \begin{cases} a_i & \text{if } w_i = -\mu(x, \lambda), \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases} \quad (21)$$

On the fibres, the action of  $\lambda$  has weight  $-\mu(x, \lambda)$ . These fibres lift to  $\mathcal{O}(-1)$  so the weight of  $\lambda$  on  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  is  $\mu(x, \lambda)$ . Using the Hilbert-Mumford criterion, we obtain

**Theorem 2.35.** *Let  $G$  be reductive,  $G \curvearrowright X$  projective, and  $L \rightarrow X$  ample and with a linearisation. Then  $x$  is (semi)-stable if and only if  $\mu^L(x, \lambda) > (\geq) 0$  for all 1PS  $\lambda$  of  $G$ .*

*Proof.*  $L^n$  is very ample, and  $\mu^{L^n}(x, \lambda) = \mu^L(x, \lambda)$ . Since we are only checking for  $\mu$  non-zero, we can assume  $L$  is very ample without loss of generality, embed  $X$  into  $\mathbb{P}^n$  and then reduce to the Hilbert-Mumford criterion. □

There is one other important case. If  $X = \mathbb{C}^n$  then the criterion does not apply as written as  $\mathbb{C}^n$  is not projective. However, projectivity was only used to look at the limit  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \lambda(t) \cdot x$ . Now for  $\mathbb{C}^n$  this limit may not exist, but if it does not exist then it cannot add anything to the closure of  $G \cdot x$ , and that is exactly what we want for stability. Thus we have

**Theorem 2.36.** *A point  $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$  is (semi)-stable if and only if  $\mu(x, \lambda) > (\geq) 0$  for all 1PS  $\lambda$  of  $G$  for which  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \lambda(t) \cdot x$  exists.*

Example - Grassmannian: Let  $0 < r < n \in \mathbb{N}$  and let  $GL(r) \curvearrowright M_{r \times n}$  by left multiplication. Let  $L = M_{r \times n} \times \mathbb{C}$  be the trivial line bundle and let it be linearized by  $g \rightarrow \det(g)$ . First we claim that :

$$A \in M_{r \times n} \text{ is stable} \iff A \text{ is stable} \iff \text{rk}(A) = r.$$

Suppose that  $\text{rk}(A) < r$ . Since stability is  $G$ -invariant, we can replace  $A$  with  $gA$  and thus row reduce to  $A$  in row-reduced echelon form; in particular since the rank is not full, it will have a bottom row of zeros. Let  $\lambda$  be the 1PS defined by

$$\lambda(t) = \text{diag}(t, t, \dots, t, t^{-r}),$$

so that the limit  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \lambda(t)A$  exists, and  $\langle \theta, \lambda \rangle = r - 1 - r = -1 < 0$ , implying  $A$  is unstable.

Now suppose that  $\text{rk}(A) = r$ . Since  $\mu_L(gx, g\lambda g^{-1}) = \mu_L(x, \lambda)$ , we can assume that any  $\lambda$  is diagonal. Let  $\lambda(t)$  be the 1PS given by weights  $w_1, \dots, w_r$ . Since every row of  $A$  is non-zero,  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \lambda(t)A$  exists and hence  $w_i \geq 0$  unless  $\langle \theta, \lambda \rangle = \sum w_i > 0$ . Hence  $A$  is stable.

Using this claim, we have that the GIT quotient  $M_{r \times n} // GL(r)$  is classes of full-rank matrices up to change of basis, which is the Grassmannian  $\text{Gr}(n, r)$ .

### 3 Symplectic Reduction

In this section, our goal is to connect GIT quotients to another form of geometric quotient called symplectic reduction.

**Definition 3.1.** A *symplectic manifold* is a pair  $(X, \omega)$  where  $X$  is a real manifold, and  $\omega$  is a closed, non-degenerate smooth 2-form on  $X$ , called the symplectic form.

In detail,  $\omega$  is a skew-symmetric bilinear form  $\omega_x : T_x X \times T_x X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

- (Smooth)  $\omega_x$  varies smoothly in  $x$ .
- (Non-degenerate) For all  $x \in X$ ,  $\omega_x$  is an isomorphism of  $T_x X$  with  $T_x^* X$  via

$$\xi \rightarrow \omega_x(\xi, -)$$

- (Closed)  $d\omega = 0$ .

Example: Let  $X = \mathbb{C}^n$  with co-ordinates  $z_k = x_k + iy_k$ . Then

$$\omega = \sum_{k=1}^n dy_k \wedge dx_k = \frac{1}{2i} \sum dz_k \wedge d\bar{z}_k$$

is a symplectic form.

Example: Let  $X = \mathbb{P}^n$ , which is given by the quotient  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}/\mathbb{C}^*$ . The symplectic form on  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$  is not invariant under  $\mathbb{C}^*$ , so it does not pass to the quotient. However, if we think of  $\mathbb{P}^n = S^{2n+1}/S^1$ , and restrict the form on  $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$  to  $S^{2n+1}$ , we get a short exact sequence:

$$T_p(S^1 \cdot p) \hookrightarrow T_p S^{2n+1} \twoheadrightarrow T_{[p]} \mathbb{P}^n. \quad (22)$$

From this we define the *Fubini-Study* form  $\omega_{FS}$ , by  $\pi^* \omega_{FS} = \omega_{S^{2n+1}}$ , where  $\pi : S^{2n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^n$  is the projection. For this to be well defined, one must check that it vanishes on  $T_p(S^1 \cdot p)$ .

For the remainder of this section, fix  $(X, \omega)$  to be a symplectic manifold.

**Definition 3.2.** Let  $H : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be smooth. Then  $dH \in \Omega^1(X)$ . The *Hamiltonian vector field* corresponding to  $H$  is the unique vector field  $\xi$  such that

$$\iota_\xi \omega = dH. \quad (23)$$

We say a vector field  $\xi$  is *Hamiltonian* if  $\iota_\xi \omega$  is exact.

**Definition 3.3.** A vector field  $\xi$  is *symplectic* if  $\iota_\xi \omega$  is closed

Note then that being Hamiltonian implies being symplectic.

**Definition 3.4.** Let  $K$  be a compact, connected Lie group acting on  $(X, \omega)$ . If  $(g \cdot -) = l_g : X \rightarrow X$  is a symplectomorphism for all  $g \in K$ , then we say  $K$  *acts symplectically*.

Suppose  $K \curvearrowright (X, \omega)$  symplectically. Let  $\text{Lie}(K) = \mathfrak{k}$ . There exists the exponential map

$$\exp(-, A) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow X, \quad t \rightarrow \exp(tA) \cdot x. \quad (24)$$

We can take the derivative and evaluate at zero to get

$$\frac{d}{dt} e^{tA} \cdot x|_{t=0} \in T_x X, \quad (25)$$

and letting  $x$  vary, this defines a vector field denoted  $X_A$ .