# 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  $L \to X$ , with some global sections  $s_1, s_2, ..., s_m \in \Gamma(X, L)$ . Then we can try and write down a map

$$\iota: X \to \mathbb{P}^{m-1}$$
  
 $x \to [s_1(x): s_2(x): \dots : s_m(x)].$ 

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, ..., m.

**Definition 1.1.** A line bundle L over an algebraic variety X is called *very ample* if there exist some global sections  $s_1, ..., s_m$  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  $\mathcal{O}(n) \to \mathbb{P}^{m-1}$  (not to be confused with orthogonal groups!) are very ample for all  $n \ge 1$ .

**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  $\mathcal{X} \to B$  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;  $\mathbb{P}^1$ .
- $\bullet\,$  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  $f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1^{\pm 1},...,x_n^{\pm 1}]$  be a Laurent polynomial. The classical period of f is the quantity

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

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 combintorics 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

$$G \times X \to X$$
  
 $(g, x) \to g \cdot x$ 

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

$$G \cdot x = \{g \cdot x, \mid g \in G\}. \tag{1}$$

The stabiliser of x is

$$G_x = \{ g \in Gs.t.g \cdot x = x \}. \tag{2}$$

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  $G \odot X$ , we want to build some quotient X/G in an algebraio-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  $p:X\to Y$  which is G-invariant.
- 2. Y is separated.
- 3. Y satisfies the following universal property: if  $f: X \to Z$  is G invariant, then it factors uniquely through p. That is:



- 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  $G \circlearrowright X$ .

Remark 2.7. The properties of being good or geometric are local on the base, meaning that  $p: X \to Y$  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  $p: X \to Y$  is good, then it is categorical.

*Proof.* Suppose  $g: X \to Z$  is another H invariant morphism and  $p: X \to Y$  is good. Then we want to define  $h: Y \to Z$  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:

$$p(g^{-1}(z_1)) \cap p(g^{-1}(z_2)) = \emptyset.$$
 (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  $h: Y \to Z$  by  $y \to g(p^{-1}(y))$  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  $\mathcal{O}_X \to \mathcal{O}_Y$ ). 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

$$\bigcap p(W_i) = \emptyset. \tag{4}$$

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

$$\mathcal{O}_Z(U_i) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{O}}_X (g^{-1}(U_i))^G \xrightarrow{\operatorname{res}|_{p^{-1}(V_i)}} \mathcal{O}_X(p^{-1}(V_i))^G \cong_{p \text{ good }} \mathcal{O}_Y(V_i).$$
 (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  $h_i: V_i \to U_i$ , and it suffices to verify that  $h|_{V_i} = h$ .

**Proposition 2.9.** Let  $p: X \to Y$  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?)

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  $X = \operatorname{Spec}(\mathcal{O}_X)$  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  $\operatorname{Spec}(\mathcal{O}_X^G)$ . 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.

- $\bullet$  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  $G \to GL(V)$  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  $G \to GL(V)$  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

$$\langle 1 \rangle = I(\emptyset) = I(Z_1 \cap Z_2) = I(Z_1) + I(Z_2),$$
 (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  $h_1, ..., h_n$ , 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

$$\phi: X \to \mathbb{C}^n$$
$$x \to (h_i(x))$$

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

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

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

**Theorem 2.15.** Let X be an affine variety and G a reductive group acting on X. Then  $p: X \to Y = Spec(\mathcal{O}_X^G)$  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  $\langle f_1, ..., f_n \rangle$  be the ideal defining y. Let  $\mathfrak{m}$  be the maximal ideal containing  $\langle f_1, ..., f_n \rangle$ . 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  $f \in \mathcal{O}_Y$ .

$$\mathcal{O}_Y(D_f^Y) = (\mathcal{O}_Y)_f$$

$$= [\mathcal{O}_X(X)^G]_F$$

$$= [\mathcal{O}_X(X)_f]^G$$

$$= [\mathcal{O}_X(D_f^X)]^G$$

$$= \mathcal{O}_X(p^{-1}(D_f^Y))^G$$

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  $\overline{p(Z_1)} \cap \overline{p(Z_2)} = \emptyset$ , 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

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

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

**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  $\mathbb{C}^* \circlearrowleft \mathbb{C}^2$  by  $t(x,y) = (tx,t^{-1}y)$ . Then the affine GIT quotient is given by  $\mathbb{C}^2 /\!/ \mathbb{C}^* = \operatorname{Spec}(\mathbb{C}[x,y]^G)$ , 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  $(x,y) \to xy$  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

$$s \to \begin{pmatrix} 1 & s & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & s \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{9}$$

 $G_a$  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

$$x_1 \rightarrow x_2$$
  $x_2 \rightarrow sx_1 + x_2$   $x_3 \rightarrow x_3$   $x_4 \rightarrow sx_3 + x_4$ 

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,  $\operatorname{Spec}(\mathbb{C}[x_1, x_3, x_1x_4 - x_2x_3]) = \mathbb{C}^3$ . The quotient map is

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \to (x_1, x_3, x_1x_4 - x_2x_3),$$
 (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  $\mathbb{C}^* \circlearrowleft \mathbb{C}^2$  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  $G \odot X$ , 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  $L \to X$ . 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  $X = \operatorname{Proj}(R)$ , then we want to define  $X /\!\!/ G$  to be  $\operatorname{Proj}(R^G)$ . 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  $\pi: L \to X$  a line bundle. Suppose  $G \circlearrowleft X$  via  $\sigma: G \times X \to X$ . Then a G-linearisation of L is a lift of  $\sigma$  to  $\overline{\sigma}: G \times L \to L$  which commutes with  $\sigma$  under the projection  $\pi$ ;  $\sigma(g,\pi(s)) = \pi(\overline{\sigma}(g,s))$  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  $L, \overline{\sigma}: L_x \to L_{q \cdot x}$ .

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

$$g \cdot (a, v) = (\theta(g)a, g \cdot v). \tag{11}$$

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  $G \circlearrowleft X$  via an embedding  $G \hookrightarrow GL(k+1,\mathbb{C}) \circlearrowleft \mathbb{P}^k$ . 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  $X = \operatorname{Proj}(R)$ , then a linearisation is an action  $G \circlearrowleft R$  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

$$X /\!\!/ G = \operatorname{Proj}\left(\bigoplus_{r \ge 0} \Gamma(X, L^r)^G\right)$$
 (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  $\mathbb{C}^*$ .

$$\chi(\mathbb{C}^*) \cong \mathbb{Z}$$
$$(\lambda \to \lambda^a) \leftrightarrow a$$

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  $\Gamma(\mathbb{C}^{n+1}, L^k) = \mathbb{C}[x_0, ..., x_n]$ . If we want an element f to be  $\mathbb{C}^*$  invariant, we need

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

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

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

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  $\operatorname{Proj}(\mathbb{C}[x_0,...,x_n,y])$ , with the grading that lets  $x_i$  have degree 0 and y have degree 1. Then  $\mathbb{C}^* \subset \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$  by  $\lambda \cdot (x_0,...,x_n,y) = (\lambda x_0,...,\lambda x_n,\lambda^{-a}y)$  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  $s_0, ..., s_n$  generate the G-invariant sections in all degrees. Then the Proj construction is essentially doing

$$X \to \mathbb{P}^n$$
  
 $x \to [s_0(x) : \dots : s_n(x)].$ 

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

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

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

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

Thus the map is well defined on

$$X^{ss} = X - N_{R^G}(X) \to \operatorname{Proj}(R^G).$$

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  $\operatorname{Spec}((R_f)_0)$ , and  $Y_f$  is the affine open equal to  $\operatorname{Spec}([(R^G)_f]_0)$  and the ring map

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

induces a map  $X_f \to Y_f$ . 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.

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:

- $\bullet \ \overline{G \cdot x_1} \cap \overline{G \cdot x_2} \cap X^{ss} = \emptyset.$
- $x_1$  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.

#### 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  $f: \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \to \mathbb{C}$  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  $\iff$   $0 \notin G \cdot \tilde{x}$ .
- 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  $f \in \mathbb{C}[x_0, ..., ; x_n]^G$  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  $G_x0$  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  $\pi : \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \to \mathbb{P}^n$  be the quotient and define

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

Z is closed. Consider the map  $\pi: Z \to D_f$ , 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 cclosed since  $G\dot{x}$  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  $\mathbb{C}^* \circlearrowleft X \subset \mathbb{P}^k$  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

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

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

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

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.  $\mu^-(x) < 0 \iff \lim_{t \to \infty} t \cdot \hat{x}$  does not exist.
- 2.  $\mu^{-}(x) = 0 \iff \lim_{t \to \infty} t \cdot \hat{x}$  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  $t \to 0$  and  $t \to \infty$ ;

$$\overline{G \cdot \hat{x}} = G \cdot \hat{x} \cup \{\lim_{t \to 0} t \cdot \hat{x}, \lim_{t \to \infty} t \cdot \hat{x}\}.$$
(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  $\mu(x) \ge 0$  and  $\mu^-(x) \ge 0$ , 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  $\mu^{-}(x) > 0$ .

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  $\lambda: \mathbb{C}^* \to G$ .

Let  $\lambda$  be a 1PS of G,  $x \in X$  and  $\hat{x}$  a lift of x as before. Then there is an action  $\mathbb{C}^* \circlearrowleft X$  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

$$t \cdot (x_0, ..., x_k) = (t^{w_0} x_0, ..., t^{w_k} x_k), \quad w_i \in \mathbb{Z}.$$
(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.  $\mu(x,\lambda) = \mu(x_0,\lambda), \quad x_0 := \lim_{t\to 0} \lambda(t) \cdot x.$

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

**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  $y \in \overline{G \cdot x}$  then there is a 1PS  $\lambda$  of G such that  $\lim_{t\to 0} \lambda(t)x = y$ .

Exercise 2.34. Let  $G = \mathbb{C}^*$ ,  $X = \mathbb{P}^n$ . Consider the action given by weights (-1, ..., -1, 1, ..., 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  $L \to X$ . Suppose L has a G linearisation and let  $\lambda$  be a 1PS of G. Then since X is projective,

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

is a fixed point for  $\lambda$ . Then  $\lambda$  acts on the fibre  $L_{x_0}$  by some character  $t \to t^r$  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  $w_0, ..., w_k$ , and write  $\hat{x} = [a_0 : ... : a_k]$ . Then

$$\lim_{t \to 0} \lambda(t) = [b_0 : \dots : b_n], \quad b_i = \begin{cases} a_i & \text{if } w_i = -\mu(x, \lambda), \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$
 (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,  $G \circlearrowright X$  projective, and  $L \to X$  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.  $\square$ 

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  $\lim_{t\to 0} \lambda(t) \cdot x$ . 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  $\lim_{t\to 0} \lambda(t) \cdot x$  exists.

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

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

Suppose that  $\operatorname{rk}(A) < r$ . 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

$$\lambda(t) = \operatorname{diag}(t, t, ..., t, t^{-r}),$$

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

Now suppose that  $\mathrm{rk}(A) = r$ . 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  $w_1, ..., w_r$ . Since every row of A is non-zero,  $\lim_{t\to 0} \lambda(t)A$  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 chance of basis, which is the Grassmannian Gr(n,r).

#### 2.4 Symplectic Reduction

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

**Definition 2.37.** 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  $\omega_x: T_xX \times T_xX \to \mathbb{R}$  such that

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

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

• (Closed)  $d\omega = 0$ .

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

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

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:

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

From this we define the *Fubini-Study* form  $\omega_{FS}$ , by  $\pi^*\omega_{FS} = \omega_{S^{2n+1}}$ , where  $\pi: S^{2n+1} \to \mathbb{P}^n$  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 2.38.** Let  $H: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be smooth. Then  $dH \in \Omega^1(X)$ . The Hamiltonian vector field corresponding to H is the unique vector field  $\xi$  such that

$$\iota_{\xi}\omega = dH. \tag{23}$$

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

**Definition 2.39.** A vector field  $\xi$  is *symplectic* if  $\iota_{\xi}\omega$  is closed

Note then that being Hamiltonian implies being symplectic.

**Definition 2.40.** Let K be a compact, connected Lie group acting on  $(X, \omega)$ . If  $(g \cdot -) = l_g : X \to X$  is a symplectomorphism for all  $g \in K$ , then we say K acts symplectically.

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

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

We can take the derivative and evaluate at zero to get

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

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

Exercise 2.41. Since K acts symplectically, its image is closed. When is  $X_A$  Hamiltonian? Can we pick a map  $\mathfrak{t} \to C^{\infty}(X)$  which is a Lie algebra homomorphism?

**Definition 2.42.** A moment map for a Hamiltonian action is a map  $\mu: X \to \mathfrak{k}^*$  such that

- 1.  $\mu$  is  $\mathfrak{k}$ -equivariant
- 2.  $d(\langle \mu(\xi), A \rangle) = \omega(X_A, \xi)$  for all  $A \in \mathfrak{k}$

Example: Let U(n) act on  $\mathbb{C}^n$  in the natural way. Then  $\mathfrak{u}(n)$  is the skew-Hermitian matrices and

$$\omega(z,v) = \frac{1}{2i} \left( H(z,v) - \overline{H(z,v)} \right), \tag{26}$$

where  $H(z,v) = zv^{\dagger}$ , defines a symplectic form. We identify  $\mathfrak{u}(n) \cong \mathfrak{u}(n)^*$  by the map  $A \to (B \to \text{Tr}(AB))$ , which lets us define

$$\mu: X \to \mathfrak{u}(n)$$
 
$$z \to -\frac{i}{2}zz^\dagger$$

or equivalently,

$$\mu: X \to \mathfrak{u}(n)^*$$
 
$$z \to -\frac{i}{2} \mathrm{Tr}(z^\dagger A z).$$

We show this is equivariant and leave condition 2 as an exercise. Let  $K \in U(n)$ . Then

$$\mu(K \cdot z)A = -\frac{i}{2} \operatorname{Tr} \left( (Kz)^{\dagger} A(Kz) \right)$$
$$= -\frac{i}{2} \operatorname{Tr} (z^{\dagger} K^{\dagger} A Kz)$$
$$= \mu(z) (K \cdot A).$$

This example allows us to compute the moment map for any unitary linear action on  $\mathbb{C}^n$ . If  $\rho: K \to U(n)$ , then  $\mu_K = \rho^* \mu_{U(n)}$ .

Example: If  $K = (S^1)^n$  acting on  $\mathbb{C}^n$  with weights  $(r_1, ..., r_n)$ , then  $\mu : \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is given by

$$\mu(z_1, ..., z_n) = \left(\frac{r_i|z_i|^2}{2}\right)_{i=1}^n.$$

Exercise 2.43. Show that the moment map for  $U(r) \circlearrowleft M_{r \times n}$  is given by  $A \to i(A^{\dagger}A - \mathbb{I})$ .

Now we have all the pieces to define symplectic reduction. Suppose we have  $K \circlearrowleft (X, \omega)$  and we want to build a quotient which is also symplectic. Even if X/K is a smooth manifold, it might not have even dimension and so it certainly might not be symplectic. Suppose there is a moment map  $\mu$  for the K action.

**Lemma 2.44.** If  $\eta$  is a regular value of  $\mu$ , then  $\mu^{-1}(\eta)$  is a closed submanifold of X with codimension dim K.

Moreover,  $T_x \mu^{-1}(\eta)$  and  $T_x(K \cdot x)$  are orthogonal with respect to the  $\omega$  for all  $x \in \mu^{-1}(\eta)$ .

Suppose  $\eta$  is a regular value of  $\mu$  which is fixed by the coadjoint orbit action. Since  $\mu$  is K-equivariant,  $\mu^{-1}(\eta)$  is K-invariant. Thus we can define the *symplectic reduction* to be

$$X_{\eta}^{red} = \mu^{-1}(\eta)/K. \tag{27}$$

**Theorem 2.45** (Marsden-Weinstein-Meyer). Fix a Hamiltonian action of a compact connected Lie group K on a symplectic manifold  $(X,\omega)$  with moment map  $\mu$ , and a regular, co-adjoint fixed value  $\eta \in \mathfrak{k}^*$ . If the action of K on  $\mu^{-1}(\mathfrak{k})$  is free then

- 1.  $X_{\eta}^{red}$  is a smooth manifold of dimension dim  $X-2\dim K$ .
- 2. There is a unique symplectic form  $\omega^{red}$  on  $X_n^{red}$  such that

$$\pi^*(\omega^{red}) = \iota^*\omega$$

where  $\iota: \mu^{-1}(\eta) \to X$  and  $\pi: \mu^{-1}(\eta) \to X_n^{red}$  are the inclusion and quotient maps.

Reductive groups are the complexification of real compact Lie groups: Fix any reductive group G. There is a compact Lie group K < G such that  $\mathfrak{k} \subset \mathfrak{g}$  and  $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{k} + i\mathfrak{k}$ . Examples:  $S^1 < \mathbb{C}^*$ ,  $SU(n) < SL(n, \mathbb{C})$ .

Now suppose we have G reductive, K < G compact, and G acts on a smooth projective variety  $X \subset \mathbb{P}^n$  linearly. Then this induces an action of K on X which is symplectic on  $\mathbb{P}^n$ . The moment-map corresponding to the Fubini-Study form on  $\mathbb{P}^n$  gives a moment map for the K action.

**Theorem 2.46** (Kempf-Ness). Let  $K, G, X, \mu$  be as above. Then

1. 
$$G \cdot \mu^{-1}(0) = X^{polystable}$$
.

2. If  $x \in X$  is polystable, then  $G \cdot x \cap \mu^{-1}(0) = K \cdot y$  for some  $y \in X$ .

3. 
$$x \in X^{ss} \iff \overline{G \cdot x} \cap \mu^{-1}(0) \neq \emptyset$$
.

Proof: Hoskins

As a corollary we have

**Proposition 2.47.** The inclusion  $\mu^{-1}(0) \subset X^{ss}$  induces a homeomorphism  $\mu^{-1}(0)/K \to X /\!\!/ G$ 

*Proof.*  $X /\!\!/ G$  is a good quotient, the set  $X^{ss}/\sim$ , where  $\sim$  denotes GIT equivalence. Then for  $x \in X^{ss}$ ,  $\overline{Gx}$  contains a unique closed orbit, which is polystable. Hence as a set

$$X /\!\!/ G = \{ polystable orbits \}$$

Then point 2 of Kempf-Ness tells us the sets are the same and we have a continuous bijetion between a compact space and a Hausdorff space; hence a homeomorphism.  $\Box$