

HYPERKÄHLER MANIFOLDS

NOTES TAKEN BY MAXIM JEAN-LOUIS BRAIS

WITH THE COLLABORATION OF TUDOR SARPE

ABSTRACT. These are personal notes for the course on hyperkähler manifolds taught by Alessio Bottini at Universität Bonn in the Winter 2025-2026 semester. Please email me at s37mbrai@uni-bonn.de if you notice any typo.

We first review some complex geometry.

Definition 1.0.1. A **complex manifold** is a locally ringed space (X, \mathcal{O}_X) such that

- X is Hausdorff and second countable (this part is to ensure we actually have a topological manifold);
- (X, \mathcal{O}_X) is locally isomorphic to $(\Delta, \mathcal{O}_\Delta)$, where $\Delta \subset \mathbb{C}^n$ is the polydisc.

Example 1.0.2. Let $f_1, \dots, f_d \in \mathbb{C}[z_1, \dots, z_n]$ be complex polynomials such that the Jacobian of

$$f = (f_1, \dots, f_d) : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^d$$

has everywhere full rank on the vanishing set $V = V(f) \subset \mathbb{C}^n$. By the holomorphic implicit function theorem (regular value theorem), V is a complex manifold.

Example 1.0.3. If X is a smooth algebraic variety over \mathbb{C} , we may cover it by affines V_i which are of the same form as in [Example 1.0.2](#). We may consider the analytic topology X^{an} obtained by gluing the different charts V_i . Similarly, we may define the sheaf \mathcal{O}_X^{an} on X^{an} by considering the sheaf of holomorphic functions on each V_i (the transitions $V_i \rightarrow V_j$ are regular algebraic, hence holomorphic, so that this gluing makes sense). Then, $(X^{an}, \mathcal{O}_X^{an})$ is a complex manifold.

Note that in [Example 1.0.3](#), we obtain a natural map of ringed spaces

$$\alpha : (X^{an}, \mathcal{O}_X^{an}) \rightarrow (X, \mathcal{O}_X)$$

since the analytic topology is finer than the Zariski topology, and regular functions are holomorphic. In particular, we obtain a functor between abelian categories:

$$\alpha^* : \mathcal{O}_X\text{-mod} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X^{an}\text{-mod}$$

restricting to

$$\alpha^* : \text{Coh}(X) \rightarrow \text{Coh}(X^{an}).$$

Theorem 1.0.4 (Géométrie algébrique géométrie analytique; [Ser56]). *If X is smooth¹ and proper functor $\alpha^* : \text{Coh}(X) \rightarrow \text{Coh}(X^{an})$ is an equivalence, which moreover induces an isomorphism of sheaf cohomology.*

1.1. Almost complex structures. A complex manifold (X, \mathcal{O}_X) has an underlying smooth manifold (X, C_X^∞) , where C_X^∞ denotes the sheaf of smooth functions on X ; indeed, if X has complex charts $U_i \subset \mathbb{C}^n$, the transitions are holomorphic, hence C^∞ .

Notation 1.1.1. Since the indices i will be ubiquitous, ι shall denote the root of -1 for these notes (this spares the cumbersome $\sqrt{-1}$ alternative).

On each chart U_i , we have multiplication by ι , but this does not globalise, as ι does not commute with holomorphic functions: in the Taylor expansion, we have terms which are of degree m where $m \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. However, the differential of ι may be globalised, as we get rid of the higher order terms. In a local chart $U_i \subset \mathbb{C}^n$, the (real) tangent bundle has a local frame

$$T_{\mathbb{R}}U_i = \langle \partial_{x_j}, \partial_{y_j} : 1 \leq j \leq n \rangle,$$

on which $I := d\iota$ acts by

$$\begin{cases} \partial_{x_j} \mapsto \partial_{y_j} \\ \partial_{y_j} \mapsto -\partial_{x_j}. \end{cases}$$

Definition 1.1.2. An **almost complex structure** on a smooth manifold X is an endomorphism $I \in \text{End}(T_{\mathbb{R}}X)$ such that $I^2 = -1$. We say that I is integrable if X is a complex manifold and I is obtained by locally differentiating ι .

Question 1.1.3. Given I an almost complex structure, when is it integrable?

Let us first set up some tools in order to address this question appropriately. Assume only for now that X is a smooth manifold and I is an almost complex structure. We can consider the complexified tangent bundle

$$T_{\mathbb{C}}X := T_{\mathbb{R}}X \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{C},$$

¹This can be dropped by considering complex analytic spaces (rather than manifolds).

to which we can extend the action of I . Since $I^2 = -1$, the minimal polynomial of I is $x^2 + 1$, which is separable over \mathbb{C} , meaning that I is diagonalisable, with eigenvalues $\pm i$. The eigenspaces must have the same dimension as I acts on the *real* tangent space. We thus obtain a decomposition

$$T_{\mathbb{C}}X = T^{1,0}X \oplus T^{0,1}X = T^{1,0}X \oplus \overline{T^{1,0}X}.$$

Note that we have

$$T^{1,0}X = \{(v - iIv) : v \in T_{\mathbb{C}}X\} \quad T^{0,1}X = \{(v + iIv) : v \in T_{\mathbb{C}}X\}.$$

Notation 1.1.4. We will use the following notation

- $\mathcal{A}^0(X) := C_X^\infty$;
- $\mathcal{A}^k(X)$ denotes the sheaf of (smooth) degree k real forms;
- $\mathcal{A}^k(X, \mathbb{C}) = \bigoplus_{p+q=k} \mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X)$ denotes the sheaf of sections of $\bigwedge^k T_{\mathbb{C}}^*X$ (i.e. smooth complex degree k forms) and $\mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X)$ denotes the sheaf of sections of $\bigwedge^p T^{1,0}X \otimes \bigwedge^q T^{0,1}X$;
- $d : \mathcal{A}^k(X, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{k+1}(X, \mathbb{C})$ denotes the complexification of the usual exterior derivative, and can be decomposed by types as $d = \partial + \bar{\partial}$, where ∂ denotes the part corresponding to the differentiation in holomorphic coordinates, and similarly $\bar{\partial}$ for anti-holomorphic coordinates.
- $A^k(X)$, $A^k(X, \mathbb{C})$, and $A^{p,q}(X)$ denotes the global sections of $\mathcal{A}^k(X)$, $\mathcal{A}^k(X, \mathbb{C})$, and $\mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X)$ respectively.
- \mathcal{T}_X denotes the sheaf of homolorphic vector fields, i.e. $\mathcal{T}_X := \text{Der}(\mathcal{O}_X, \mathcal{O}_X)$;
- $\Omega_X := \mathcal{T}_X^*$ denotes the cotangent sheaf.

The following theorem answers [Question 1.1.3](#).

Theorem 1.1.5 (Newlander-Niremberg). *I is integrable if and only if $\bar{\partial}^2 = 0$.*

Note that this is equivalent to $T^{1,0}X$ being closed under the (complex) Lie bracket (this is much related to the Frobenius theorem of differential geometry), and also equivalent of the vanishing of a certain tensor N_I called the *Nijenhuis* tensor.

1.2. Metrics. Let E be a real vector bundle on (X, C_X^∞) . A **Riemannian metric** g on E is a section of $\text{Sym}^2 E^\vee$ such that for all $p \in X$, g_p is positive definite. If E is a complex bundle, a **Hermitian metric** h is a map of sheaves $E \otimes \bar{E} \rightarrow C^\infty(X, \mathbb{C})$ such that each h_p is Hermitian, i.e. $h_p(e, f) = \overline{h_p(f, e)}$ and $h_p(e, e) > 0$ for all $e, f \in E_p$. When $E = T_{\mathbb{R}}X$, we say that g (resp. h) is a **Riemannian** (resp. **Hermitian**) **metric** on X (here, the almost complex structure I is used to put a \mathbb{C} -structure on $T_{\mathbb{R}}X$).

If X is a complex manifold and h is a Hermitian metric, then we can write

$$h = g - i\omega$$

where $g = \Re(h)$ and $\omega = -\Im(h)$. We obtain that g is a Riemannian metric, and ω is skew-symmetric since

$$\omega(X, Y) = \frac{i}{2}(h(X, Y) - \bar{h}(X, Y))$$

and h is conjugate skew-symmetric. Thus, $\omega \in A^2(X)$.

Definition 1.2.1. (X, h) is **Kähler** if $d\omega = 0$.

That h is linear in the first variable and anti-linear in the second ensures that $h(I-, I-) = h(-, -)$, implying that $g(I-, I-) = g(-, -)$, a property that is sometimes called **compatibility** of the metric with I . We have

$$\omega(-, -) = \frac{i}{2}(h(-, -) - \bar{h}(-, -)) = \frac{1}{2}(h(I-, -) + \bar{h}(I-, -)) = g(I-, -),$$

which also implies

$$\omega(-, I-) = g(-, -).$$

Definition 1.2.2. A form $\omega \in A^2(X)$ is called **positive** if $\omega(u, Iu) > 0$ for all $u \in T_{\mathbb{R}}X$. We see that a de Rham cohomology class in $H^2(X, \mathbb{C})$ is **positive** if it can be represented by a positive form. If moreover ω is I -invariant (or equivalently, of type $(1, 1)$ after embedding $A^2(X) \subset A(X, \mathbb{C})$), we say ω is **Kähler**.

If ω is Kähler, we may define the hermitian metric $h_\omega = \omega(-, I-) - i\omega$, and we have that ω is Kähler if and only if (X, h_ω) is Kähler.

Example 1.2.3. Let $X = \mathbb{P}^n$, with projective coordinates Z_0, \dots, Z_n . Let U_i be the $Z_i \neq 0$ chart, and define $z_j = \frac{Z_j}{Z_i}$. We may define on U_i the metric

$$\omega_{FS} = \omega = i\partial\bar{\partial} \log \left(1 + \sum_j z_j \bar{z}_j \right),$$

and one checks that these glue to a global form, which we call the **Fubini-Study metric**. Written as a Kähler potential this way shows that it is a Kähler metric.

Note that if (X, ω) is Kähler, restricting the metric to a complex submanifold Y preserves all properties of [Definition 1.2.2](#), and so (Y, ω_Y) is Kähler. Thus, any projective manifold is Kähler.

1.3. Connections. Let E be a complex (the real case is identical) vector bundle on (X, C_X^∞) . A **complex connection** in E is a \mathbb{C} -linear map

$$\nabla : \mathcal{A}^0(E, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^1(E, \mathbb{C}),$$

(here $\mathcal{A}^i(E, \mathbb{C}) = \mathcal{A}^i(X, \mathbb{C}) \otimes \Gamma(E)$) such that

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

for all section s of E and $f \in C_X^\infty$.

If E is a holomorphic bundle on a complex manifold, we can define the operator

$$\bar{\partial} : \mathcal{A}^0(E) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{0,1}(E)$$

as follows: if σ_i is a local frame, and $s = s^i \sigma_i$ a section, we let

$$(1.1) \quad \bar{\partial}(s^i \sigma_i) := (\bar{\partial} s^i) \otimes \sigma_i.$$

Indeed, given another frame τ_j related by $\sigma_i = g_{ij} \tau_j$, we have

$$\bar{\partial}(s^i) \otimes \sigma_i = \bar{\partial}(s^i) \otimes g_{ij} \tau_j = \bar{\partial}(g_{ij} s^i) \otimes \tau_j$$

since the transitions g_{ij} are holomorphic by assumption.

A (complex) connection being valued in $\mathcal{A}^1(E, \mathbb{C}) = \mathcal{A}^{1,0}(E) \oplus \mathcal{A}^{0,1}(E)$, we may split $\nabla = \nabla^{1,0} + \nabla^{0,1}$.

Definition 1.3.1. The complex connection ∇ in E is said to be **compatible** with the holomorphic structure if $\nabla^{0,1} = \bar{\partial}$. Suppose E has a hermitian metric h . We say ∇ is **compatible** with h if for any sections e, f , we have equality of forms

$$d(h(e, f)) = h(\nabla e, f) + h(e, \nabla f).$$

More geometrically, this says that h is parallel to the connection, i.e. constant along parallel transport, i.e. the connection has $U(n)$ -holonomy. We say ∇ is a **Chern connection** if it is both compatible with the holomorphic structure and the hermitian metric.

Theorem 1.3.2 (Chern). *There exists a unique Chern connection.*

When $E = T_{\mathbb{R}}X$, the Chern connection ought to be regarded as the complex geometric analogue of the Levi-Civita connection from Riemannian geometry. In fact this is more than an analogy. If h is a hermitian metric, the Levi-Civita connection of $g = \Re(h)$ can be complexified to a complex connection. It is a theorem that the Levi-Civita connection is the Chern connection if and only if (X, h) is Kähler.

We can extend the connection $\nabla : \mathcal{A}^0(E, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^1(E, \mathbb{C})$ to a connection

$$\nabla : \mathcal{A}^p(E, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{p+1}(E, \mathbb{C})$$

for all positive p via

$$\nabla(\omega \otimes s) = d\omega \otimes s + (-1)^p \omega \wedge \nabla s,$$

where ω is a p -form and s is a section of E .

Remark 1.3.3. Note that this is different from the usual extension of a connection to tensors since we are dealing with skew-symmetric forms. In particular, this satisfies a different Leibniz rule:

$$\nabla(fs) = df \wedge s \otimes d\nabla s.$$

Definition 1.3.4. We define the **curvature** of ∇ to be the composition $\nabla^2 = \nabla \circ \nabla = F_\nabla$.

Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla(\nabla f s) &= \nabla(df \otimes s + f \nabla s) = ddf - df \wedge \nabla s + \nabla(f \nabla s) \\ &= -df \wedge \nabla s + df \wedge \nabla s + f \nabla^2 s = f \nabla^2 s\end{aligned}$$

so that F_∇ is C_X^∞ -linear, that is a section of $\mathcal{A}^2(\text{End}(E), \mathbb{C})$.

We may also define

$$F_\nabla^k := \underbrace{F_\nabla \circ \dots \circ F_\nabla}_k \in \mathcal{A}^{2k}(\text{End}(E), \mathbb{C}).$$

We define the **k th Chern character** of ∇ to be

$$\text{ch}_k(E, \nabla) := \text{Tr} \left(\frac{1}{k!} \left(\frac{\iota}{2\pi} F_\nabla^k \right) \right) \in A^{2k}(X, \mathbb{C}).$$

Theorem 1.3.5 (Chern-Weil). *The following is true about the Chern character.*

- (1) $ch_k(E, \nabla)$ is closed;
- (2) The cohomology class $ch_k(E) := [ch_k(E, \nabla)] \in H_{dR}^{2k}(X, \mathbb{C})$ is independent of ∇ ;
- (3) $ch_k(E)$ is real, i.e. in $H_{dR}^{2k}(X, \mathbb{R})$ (in fact, it is integral);
- (4) The total Chern character $\sum_k ch_k(E)$ is equal to the cohomology class of $\text{Tr}(\exp(\frac{\iota}{2\pi} F_\nabla))$ (this one directly follows from developing the exponential).

2. SECOND LECTURE: CHARACTERISTIC CLASSES

2.1. Chern classes. Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{C} of dimension r . Let $P \in \mathbb{C}[End(V)]$ be a homogeneous polynomial of degree k . Assume moreover P is $GL(V)$ invariant, that is $P(A^{-1}BA) = P(B)$ for any $A \in GL(V)$.

Let now E be a complex vector bundle and ∇ a connection. By $GL(V)$ invariance, $P(\frac{i}{2\pi}F_\nabla)$ is well-defined, and lives in $A^{2k}(X, \mathbb{C})$.

Fact 2.1.1 (Chern-Weil). $P(\frac{i}{2\pi}F_\nabla)$ is closed, and the class $[P(\frac{i}{2\pi}F_\nabla)] \in H^{2k}(X, \mathbb{C})$ is independent of ∇ .

Consider now the $GL(V)$ -invariant homogeneous polynomials P_k returning the coefficients of the characteristic polynomials (i.e. P_k k th elementary symmetric polynomial on the eigenvalues). We can explicitly define P_k by the formula:

$$\det(I + tB) = \sum_k P_k(B)t^k.$$

We define the **k th Chern class** of E to be the cohomology class of $P_k(\frac{i}{2\pi}F_\nabla)$, and the **total Chern class** of E to be $c(E) := \sum_{i=0}^k c_i(E)$.

The Chern classes and characters satisfy certain properties:

- $c_0(E) = 1$ and $ch_0 = r$;
- $c_d = 0$ if $d > r$. In particular, if L is a line bundle, $c(L) = 1 + c_1(L)$;
- $ch(L) = \exp(c_1(L)) := 1 + c_1(L) + \frac{c_1(L)^2}{2!} + \dots \in H^{2\bullet}(X, \mathbb{C})$.

To derive further elementary properties of the Chern characters and classes, let us first observe how we can assemble connections into new connections

Let E_1 and E_2 be vector bundles with respective (complex) connections ∇_1 and ∇_2 . Then,

- $\nabla_{E_1 \oplus E_2} := \nabla_1 \oplus \nabla_2$ is a connection on $E_1 \oplus E_2$, and $F_{\nabla_1 \oplus \nabla_2} = F_{\nabla_1} \oplus F_{\nabla_2}$, where this is seen as a block matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_{\nabla_1} & \\ & F_{\nabla_2} \end{pmatrix};$$

- $\nabla_{E_1 \otimes E_2} := \nabla_1 \otimes \text{id}_{E_2} + \text{id}_{E_1} \otimes \nabla_2$ is a connection on $E_1 \otimes E_2$;
- the assignment

$$(\nabla^\vee \phi)(s) := d(\phi(s)) - \phi(\nabla(s))$$

where $s \in E$ and $\phi \in E^\vee$ defines a connection on E^\vee (note that this is the usual way to extend connections on tensors). In other words, if $\langle -, - \rangle$ denotes the natural pairing on $E \otimes E^\vee$, the dual connection is defined by

$$d\langle s, \phi \rangle = \langle \nabla s, \phi \rangle + \langle s, \nabla^\vee \phi \rangle.$$

Let us try to compare the two curvatures. Given s_i and t_j frames of E , we consider the connection form $A = (A_i^j)$ satisfying $\nabla s_i = A_i^j \otimes t_j$. Let s^i and t^j be the dual frames. We obtain

$$\begin{aligned} d\langle s_i, t^j \rangle &= 0 = \langle \nabla s_i, t^j \rangle + \langle s_i, \nabla^\vee t^j \rangle \\ &= \langle A_i^k \otimes t_k, t^j \rangle + \langle s_i, B_k^j \otimes s^k \rangle \\ &= A_i^j + B_i^j, \end{aligned}$$

where $B = (B_i^j)$ is the connection form of ∇^\vee . And so we have $B = -A^t$ as sections of $\mathcal{A}^2(End(E), \mathbb{C}) = \mathcal{A}^2(End(E^\vee), \mathbb{C})$. Using Cartan's formula for the curvature of a connection, we conclude

$$F_{\nabla^\vee} = d(-A^t) + (-A^t) \wedge (-A^t) = -(dA + A \wedge A)^t = -F_\nabla^t.$$

- connections pull back, that is if $f : Y \rightarrow X$ is a smooth map and E is a bundle on X with connection ∇_E , we may define the connection ∇_{f^*E} by *locally* demanding

$$\nabla_{f^*E}(f^*s) = f^*\nabla s.$$

Corollary 2.1.2. *Let E_1, E_2 be complex vector bundles on X . The following hold:*

- (1) $ch(E_1 \oplus E_2) = ch(E_1) + ch(E_2)$ and $c(E_1 \oplus E_2) = c(E_1) \cup c(E_2)$;
- (2) $ch(E_1 \otimes E_2) = ch(E_1) \cup ch(E_2)$;
- (3) $c_k(E^\vee) = (-1)^k c_k(E)$
- (4) $ch_k(f^*E) = f^*(ch_k(E))$ and $c_k(f^*E) = f^*(c_k(E))$.

Note that $c_k(E) \in H^{2k}(X, \mathbb{C})$ is in fact real: indeed, conjugation acts via $\overline{F_\nabla} = F_{\overline{\nabla}}$, and up to choosing a hermitian metric, we have $E^\vee \simeq \overline{E}$ and $F_{\overline{\nabla}} = -F_\nabla^t$, and in a Chern splitting, the eigenvalues $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_r$ are purely imaginary. We obtain

$$c_k(E) = P_k\left(\frac{\iota}{2\pi} F_\nabla\right) = \left[\frac{\iota^k}{(2\pi)^k} P_k(F_\nabla) \right] = \left[\frac{\iota^k}{(2\pi)^k} \sigma_k(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_r) \right]$$

while

$$\overline{c_k(E)} = \left[\frac{(-1)^k \iota^k}{(2\pi)^k} \sigma_k(-\omega_1, \dots, -\omega_r) \right] = \left[\frac{(-1)^{2k} \iota^k}{2\pi} \sigma_k(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_r) \right] = c_k(E)$$

where σ_k denotes the k th standard symmetric polynomial, so that $c_k(E) \in H^{2k}(X, \mathbb{R})$. The k th Chern class is also $(1, 1)$. Indeed, consider the Chern connection $\nabla = \nabla^{1,0} + \nabla^{0,1} = \nabla^{1,0} + \bar{\partial}$. From this decomposition, we see that the $(0, 2)$ -part of the curvature is $\bar{\partial}^2 = 0$. Similarly, one can use the fact that the hermitian metric is parallel to show that the $(2, 0)$ part vanishes so that all ω_i are of type $(1, 1)$, from which one obtains that $c_k(E)$ is of type (k, k) .

Let $D \subset X$ be a divisor. It is a fact that the fundamental class of D is the Chern class of $\mathcal{O}(D)$, i.e.

$$[D] = c_1(\mathcal{O}(D)) \in H^2(X, \mathbb{C}),$$

showing that the first — and therefore any — Chern class is integral.

An important theorem relating to chern classes is Kodaira's embedding theorem.

Theorem 2.1.3 ([Kod54]). *A (holomorphic) line bundle L on a complex manifold X is ample (i.e. induces an embedding in projective space) if and only if it admits a metric h such that $\frac{\iota}{2\pi} F_{D_h}$ is a positive form.*

In particular, let h_0 be any hermitian metric on L , and let $\omega_0 = \frac{\iota}{2\pi} F_{D_{h_0}}$. Assuming X is Kähler, if $c_1(L) = [\omega_0]$ is positive, i.e. if it has a positive form ω as representative of the cohomology class, then we can write $\omega = \omega_0 + \frac{\iota}{2\pi} \partial \bar{\partial} \phi$ for some function ϕ by the $\partial \bar{\partial}$ -lemma. Then, one may compute that the metric $h := e^{-\phi} \cdot h_0$ satisfies $\frac{\iota}{2\pi} F_{D_h} = \omega$; indeed the $(1, 0)$ -part of the Chern of the connection is

$$h^{-1} \partial h = \partial \log h = \partial \log(e^{-\phi} h_0) = \partial \log h_0 + \partial(-\phi)$$

so that the curvature is given by

$$F_{D_{h_0}} + \bar{\partial} \partial(-\phi) = F_{D_{h_0}} + \partial \bar{\partial} \phi.$$

In particular, a line bundle L is ample if and only if $c_1(L)$ is positive, i.e. is represented by a Kähler form. Now, on a compact manifold, slightly perturbing a Kähler form inside $H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{R})$ still yields a Kähler form, since it preserves the positivity criterion. Thus, Kähler forms form an open positive cone \mathcal{K}_X inside of $H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{R})$ (scaling by a positive real preserves Kählerness). Moreover, by the Lefschetz theorem on $(1, 1)$ classes, the Chern map $\text{Pic}(X) \rightarrow H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{Z})$ is surjective. Thus, we conclude that a compact complex manifold is projective if and only if \mathcal{K}_X intersects with $H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{Z})$ (or equivalently $H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{Q})$) inside of $H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{R})$.

2.2. Hirzebruch-Riemann-Roch.

Definition 2.2.1. Let X be a compact complex manifold. Let ∇ be a connection in the tangent bundle. We define the **Todd class** of X to be

$$td(X) := \left[\det \left(\frac{\frac{\iota}{2\pi} F_\nabla}{1 - \exp(\frac{-\iota}{2\pi} F_\nabla)} \right) \right] \in H^{2\bullet}(X, \mathbb{C})$$

In terms of Chern roots $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_r$, we have that

$$td(X) = \prod_{i=1}^r \frac{\omega_i}{1 - e^{-\omega_i}}$$

It can be computed that we have

$$td_0(X) = 1; \quad td_1(X) = \frac{c_1}{2}; \quad td_2(X) = \frac{1}{12}(c_1^2 + c_2); \quad td_3(X) = \frac{c_1 c_2}{24} \quad td_4(X); = \frac{-c_1^4 + 4c_2 + c_1 c_3 + 3c_2^2 - c_4}{720}; \quad \dots$$

where $td_k(X)$ denotes the k th homogeneous component of $td(X)$ and $c_i = c_i(X) := c_i(\mathcal{T}_X)$.

Theorem 2.2.2 (Hirzebruch-Riemann-Roch). *Let E be a holomorphic vector bundle on a compact complex manifold X . Then, we have equality*

$$(2.1) \quad \chi(X, E) := \sum_k (-1)^k h^k(X, E) = \int_X ch(E) \cup td(X).$$

Note that since we are integrating over X , we only need to consider the top degree parts.

Example 2.2.3. Let $X = C$ be a compact Riemann surface and L be a line bundle on X . we have $ch(E) = 1 + c_1(L)$ and $td(1) = 1 + \frac{c_1(X)}{2}$. thus, we have

$$\chi(X, L) = \int_X 1 + c_1(L) + \frac{c_1(X)}{2} = \int_X c_1(L) + \frac{c_1(X)}{2} = \deg(L) + \frac{\deg(\mathcal{T}_C)}{2}.$$

What is remarkable about this theorem is that the left-hand side of (2.1) is purely holomorphic (or algebraic) whilst the right-hand side is purely topological. Another similar theorem is the algebro-geometric Gauss-Bonnet theorem.

Theorem 2.2.4. *Let X be a compact complex dimension of dimension n . Then,*

$$\chi_{top}(X) := \sum_i (-1)^i b_i(X) = \int_X c_n(X).$$

Recall the classical relation between the Euler characteristic χ_{top} and the genus g of a topological surface: $\chi_{top} = 2 - 2g$. In particular, this implies for a compact Riemann surface C as above, that

$$\int_X c_1(X) = \deg(\mathcal{T}_C) = 2 - 2g.$$

In particular, in light of what we found in [Example 2.2.3](#), we recover the classical Riemann-Roch theorem:

$$\chi(X, L) = \deg(L) - g + 1.$$

2.3. Kähler-Einstein manifolds.

Question 2.3.1. When does a smooth projective variety over \mathbb{C} admit a “canonical” metric?

Definition 2.3.2. Let (X, ω) be a compact Kähler manifold, and let D_ω be the corresponding Chern connection. We define the **Ricci form** $\text{Ric}(\omega)$ of ω to be

$$\text{Ric}(\omega) = i\text{Tr}(F_{D_\omega}) \in A^2(X, \mathbb{C}).$$

We say that (X, ω) is **Kähler-Einstein** if $\text{Ric}(\omega) = \lambda\omega$ for some constant $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$.

Remark 2.3.3. We make the following comments.

- (1) Recall that we argued earlier that all the Chern roots of F_{D_ω} were pure imaginary of type $(1, 1)$ so that $\text{Ric}(\omega)$ is real of type $(1, 1)$.
- (2) Note also that D_ω is invariant under rescaling ω by some $\lambda > 0$ (indeed, parallelness of h is unaffected so we get the same connection). Thus, we may always assume that $\lambda = -1, 0, 1$.
- (3) since $c_1(X) = [\frac{i}{2\pi} \text{Tr} F_{D_\omega}]$ by definition, we have $[\text{Ric}(\omega)] = 2\pi c_1(X) \in H^2(X, \mathbb{R})$.
- (4) λ is proportional to the scalar curvature, and so (X, ω) being Kähler-Einstein implies that the scalar curvature with respect to $g_\omega = \omega(I-, -)$ is constant.
- (5) If X is Kähler-Einstein, then we have

$$c_1(X) = \begin{cases} 0 \\ \pm \text{positive form.} \end{cases}$$

Definition 2.3.4. We say that a complex manifold X is **Calabi-Yau** if $c_1(X) = 0$, **Fano** if $c_1(X)$ is positive, of **general type** (or **canonically polarised**) if $-c_1(X)$ is positive.

Note that by Kodaira’s embedding theorem, Fano and general type manifolds are projective.

Caution 2.3.5. It is not because a manifold fits in this trichotomy that it admits a Kähler-Einstein metric. In fact, there exist Fano varieties with no Kähler-Einstein metric. Whether a Fano variety admits such metric is equivalent to K -stability, a purely algebro-geometric notion. Nonetheless, Yau (cf. [Yau78]) proved that any Calabi-Yau manifold admits a Kähler-Einstein metric, and Aubin–Yau (cf. [Aub76; Yau78]) proved the same for general type manifolds.

Note also that not all manifolds fit in this trichotomy.

Example 2.3.6 (Curves). Let us see how these categories apply to curves.

- $g = 0$ gives only \mathbb{P}^1 . Since it is diffeomorphic to a sphere, we have positive scalar curvature. And indeed, the Fubini-Study metric is Kähler-Einstein with $\lambda = 1$. Note also that \mathbb{P}^1 is Fano.
- The $g = 1$ case corresponds to elliptic curves. These are Ricci-flat and Calabi-Yau.
- The case $g > 1$ are of general type, and there exists a Kähler-Einstein metric with negative scalar curvature.

For Fano manifolds, here is a summary of the known classifications:

- (1) In dimension 1 there is only the projective line.
- (2) In dimension 2, they are called *del Pezzo* surfaces. There are 10 different deformation families. First, \mathbb{P}^2 and $\mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1$ which are isolates. The other 8 families are obtained by blowing up \mathbb{P}^2 at d points in general position, where $1 \leq d \leq 8$.
- (3) In dimension 3, Mukai proved there are 105 families.
- (4) In dimension 4, we know there are finitely many families but it remains open to know how many.

For Calabi-Yau manifolds, there is the following structural theorem.

Theorem 2.3.7 (Beauville–Bogomolov; Bog74 and Bea83). *Let X be Kähler and Calabi-Yau. Then, there exists an étale cover $\tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ such that*

$$\tilde{X} = T \times \prod_j X_j \times \prod_i V_i$$

where T is a torus, X_j is **hyperkähler** for all j , and V_i are **strict Calabi-Yau** for all i .

We now define the terms.

Definition 2.3.8. A compact Kähler manifold V is called **strict Calabi-Yau** if

- $K_V \simeq \mathcal{O}_V$ is trivial, where K_V denotes the canonical bundle;
- V is simply connected;
- $H^i(V, \mathcal{O}_V) = 0$ for all $0 < i < \dim V$.

A complex manifold X is **hyperkähler** if

- it is simply connected;
- $H^0(X, \Omega_X^2) \simeq \mathbb{C}\sigma$ where σ is holomorphic symplectic (in particular, it induces an isomorphism $\mathcal{T}_X \simeq \Omega_X$).

Remark 2.3.9. If V is a strict Calabi-Yau of dimension greater than two, then $h^{2,0} = h^{0,2} = 0$. In particular, $H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{C}) = H^2(X, \mathbb{C})$, and so $H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{R}) = H^2(X, \mathbb{R}) = H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{Z}) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{R}$. Since the Kähler cone is not empty by assumption, we conclude that it intersects $H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{Z})$, so that V is projective by our discussion on Kodaira’s embedding theorem. In dimension 2, non-projective K3 surfaces yield an example of non-projective strict Calabi-Yau manifolds.

Remark 2.3.10. Theorem 2.3.7 has an important corollary. Namely, if X is a Kähler, we have a degree n étale map $f : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ with the canonical bundle $K_{\tilde{X}}$ of \tilde{X} trivial. Since f is étale, $f^*K_X = K_{\tilde{X}}$, which implies that $nK_X = 0$ (this follows from existence of a norm map $\mathcal{O}_{\tilde{X}} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X$ mapping $f^*g \mapsto g^n$; see [Stacks, Tag 0BD3 and Tag 0BCY] for the algebraic case). Thus, for Kähler manifolds, being Calabi-Yau and that $nK_X = 0$ for some $n \geq 0$ are equivalent conditions.

3. THIRD LECTURE: HODGE THEORY

In this lecture, we recollect Hodge theory.

3.1. Linear algebra. Let us first explore the constructions of Hodge theory in the setting of linear algebra, our toy model.

Let V be a real vector space of dimension n and $\langle -, - \rangle$ be an inner product on V . The scalar product induces a scalar product on $\bigwedge^k V$ via declaring

$$\langle v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v_k, u_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge u_k \rangle := \det(\langle u_i, v_j \rangle)_{ij}.$$

Moreover, if e_1, \dots, e_n is an *ordered* orthonormal basis of V , the vectors $e_{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge e_{i_k}$ for $i_1 < \cdots < i_k$ form an orthonormal basis of $\bigwedge^k V$.

Definition 3.1.1. The **volume form** of V (with respect to the chosen ordered basis) is

$$\text{vol}_V = \text{vol} := e_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge e_n.$$

For any $k \leq n$, we define the **Hodge operator** to be the map

$$\begin{aligned} * : \bigwedge^k V &\rightarrow \bigwedge^{n-k} V \\ e_{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge e_{i_k} &\mapsto \varepsilon e_{j_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge e_{j_{n-k}}, \end{aligned}$$

where $\{e_{j_1}, \dots, e_{n-k}\}$ is the complement of $\{e_{i_1}, \dots, e_{i_k}\}$ in the full basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ and this map is well-defined because of the permutation index $\varepsilon = \text{sgn}(i_1, \dots, i_k, j_1, \dots, j_{n-k})$. _____

Let $\alpha = e_{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge e_{i_k}$ and $\beta = e_{j_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge e_{j_k}$ be elements of the basis of $\bigwedge^k V$. We have that

$$\alpha \wedge * \beta = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \{i_1, \dots, i_k\} \neq \{j_1, \dots, j_k\} \\ \text{vol} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

In any case, we have that

$$(3.1) \quad \alpha \wedge * \beta = \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \cdot \text{vol},$$

and by bilinearity of the left and right hand side, we see that (3.1) holds for any $\alpha, \beta \in \bigwedge^k V$.

Let I be a complex structure on V , i.e. $I^2 = -\text{id}_V$. Recall that it forces the dimension of V to be even. Suppose furthermore that the inner product is compatible with I , i.e. $\langle I-, I- \rangle = \langle -, - \rangle$. Let $\langle -, - \rangle$ also denote the \mathbb{C} -sesquilinear extension of the inner product to a hermitian product on the complexified space $V_{\mathbb{C}}$.

The decomposition $V = V^{1,0} \oplus V^{0,1}$ into $\pm \iota$ eigenspaces is orthodonal for $\langle -, - \rangle$, indeed, for $v \in V^{1,0}$ and $u \in V^{0,1}$, we have

$$\langle v, u \rangle = \langle Iv, Iu \rangle = \langle \iota v, \iota u \rangle = -\langle v, u \rangle.$$

By extension, this shows that the decomposition

$$(3.2) \quad \bigwedge^k V_{\mathbb{C}} = \bigoplus_{p+q=k} \bigwedge^{p,q} V \quad \text{where } \bigwedge^{p,q} V := \bigwedge^p V^{1,0} \otimes \bigwedge^q V^{0,1}$$

is orthogonal. We may extend the hodge star operator \mathbb{C} -linearly to

$$* : \bigwedge^k V_{\mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \bigwedge^{n-k} V_{\mathbb{C}},$$

and by looking at an orthonormal basis for (3.2), we see that the operator restricts to

$$* : \bigwedge^{p,q} V \rightarrow \bigwedge^{n-q, n-p} V.$$

Note that the equality (3.1) now becomes

$$\alpha \wedge * \bar{\beta} = \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \text{vol}_{V_{\mathbb{C}}},$$

where $\text{vol}_{V_{\mathbb{C}}} := (e_1 + \iota e_1) \wedge (e_1 - \iota e_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge (e_n + \iota e_n) \wedge (e_n - \iota e_n)$.

3.2. Harmonic forms. From now on, (X, h) is a Kähler manifold and $g = \Re(h)$ is the compatible Riemannian metric associated to h . We will write $\langle -, - \rangle$ for the hermitian metric induced by h on $T_{\mathbb{R}}^*X$. We have the real volume form

$$\text{vol} \in A^{2n}(X).$$

The decomposition

$$\mathcal{A}^k(X, \mathbb{C}) = \bigoplus_{p+q=k} \mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X)$$

is orthogonal with respect to $\langle -, - \rangle$. As before, we have the hodge operator

$$* : \mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{n-q, n-p}.$$

Recall also our three different exterior derivatives:

$$\begin{aligned} d : \mathcal{A}^k(X) &\rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{k+1}(X) \\ \partial : \mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X) &\rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{p+1,q}(X) \\ \bar{\partial} : \mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X) &\rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{p,q+1}(X). \end{aligned}$$

We use the hodge operator to define other operators:

$$\begin{aligned} d^* &:= (-1)^k *^{-1} \circ d \circ * : \mathcal{A}^k(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{k-1}(X) \\ \partial^* &:= - * \circ \bar{\partial} \circ * : \mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{p-1,q}(X) \\ \bar{\partial}^* &:= - * \circ \partial \circ * : \mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{p,q-1}(X). \end{aligned}$$

The mismatch in the sign is a convention, and we note that $*^2 = (-1)^{k(n-k)}$. Extending d^* \mathbb{C} -linearly, these operators satisfy

$$d^* = \partial^* + \bar{\partial}^*$$

We use these operators to define three different Laplacians:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_d &:= dd^* + d^*d : \mathcal{A}^k(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^k(X) \\ \Delta_{\partial} &:= \partial\partial^* + \partial^*\partial : \mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X) \\ \Delta_{\bar{\partial}} &:= \bar{\partial}\bar{\partial}^* + \bar{\partial}^*\bar{\partial} : \mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X). \end{aligned}$$

A k -form α is **d -harmonic** if $\Delta_d\alpha = 0$, and a (p, q) -form β is **$\bar{\partial}$ -harmonic** if $\Delta_{\bar{\partial}}\beta = 0$. We will write $\mathcal{H}^k(X) := \ker \Delta_d$ for the space of d -harmonic k -forms (note, we can do this either over \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} and do not specify), and $\mathcal{H}^{p,q}(X) := \ker \Delta_{\bar{\partial}}$ for the space of $\bar{\partial}$ -harmonic (p, q) -forms.

We have an L^2 inner product

$$\begin{aligned} A^k(X) \otimes A^k(X) &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ (\alpha, \beta) &\mapsto \int_X \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \text{vol} = \int_X \alpha \wedge * \beta. \end{aligned}$$

From the right hand side, we compute that for $\alpha \in A^k(X)$ and $\beta \in A^{k+1}(X)$,

$$(d\alpha, \beta) = \int_X d\alpha \wedge * \beta = \int_X \alpha \wedge (-1)^{k+1} d(*\beta) = \int_X \alpha \wedge * (-1)^{k+1} *^{-1} d(*\beta) = \int_X \alpha \wedge * d^* \beta = (\alpha, d^* \beta),$$

so that d and d^* are formal adjoints with respect to $(-, -)$. From this, we see that

$$(\alpha, \Delta_d \alpha) = (\alpha, dd^* \alpha + d^* d \alpha) = (d^* \alpha, d^* \alpha) + (d\alpha, d\alpha),$$

and so by positive definiteness, $\Delta_d \alpha = 0$ if and only if $d\alpha = d^* \alpha = 0$. This yields a map

$$\mathcal{H}^k(X, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow H^k(X, \mathbb{R}).$$

Theorem 3.2.1 (Hod41). *This map is an isomorphism.*

Remark 3.2.2. Note that this works equally well over \mathbb{C} with the hermitian product

$$(\alpha, \beta) \mapsto \int_X \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \text{vol} = \int_X \alpha \wedge * \bar{\beta}$$

3.3. The Dolbeault side. We can get a similar theorem by taking into account the (p, q) type of forms. First note that for any p , we have a complex

$$0 \rightarrow \Omega_X^p \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{p,0}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{p,1}(X) \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{p,n}(X) \rightarrow 0.$$

The $\bar{\partial}$ -Poincaré lemma (also called the Dolbeault–Grothendieck lemma) says that this complex is exact, i.e. that analytically locally, a $\bar{\partial}$ -closed form is $\bar{\partial}$ -exact. Moreover, since each $\mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X)$ admits partitions of unity (these are smooth sections), this is an acyclic resolution. As corollary, we obtain an isomorphism

$$(3.3) \quad H^q(X, \Omega_X^p) = \mathbb{H}^q(\mathcal{A}^{p,0}(X) \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{p,n}(X) \rightarrow 0) = \frac{\ker(\bar{\partial} : \mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{p,q+1}(X))}{\operatorname{im}(\bar{\partial} : \mathcal{A}^{p-1,q}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{p,q}(X))} =: H^{p,q}(X),$$

and we call the right-hand side the (p, q) Dolbeault cohomology of X .

As before, we have an inner product on (p, q) -forms:

$$(\alpha, \beta) := \int_X \alpha \wedge * \bar{\beta},$$

and the same computation shows that ∂^* and $\bar{\partial}^*$ are formal adjoints. Therefore, $\Delta_{\bar{\partial}}\alpha = 0$ if and only if $\bar{\partial}\alpha = \bar{\partial}^*\alpha = 0$. This yields a map

$$\mathcal{H}^{p,q}(X) \rightarrow H^{p,q}(X).$$

Theorem 3.3.1. *This map is an isomorphism.*

It is worth noting that [Theorem 3.3.1](#) does not require X to be Kähler.

Proposition 3.3.2. *If X is compact Kähler, then*

$$\Delta_d = 2\Delta_{\bar{\partial}} = 2\Delta_{\partial}.$$

Corollary 3.3.3 (Hodge decomposition). *Let X be a compact Kähler manifold. We have a decomposition*

$$H^k(X, \mathbb{C}) = \bigoplus_{p+q=k} H^{p,q}(X)$$

such that $H^{p,q}(X) = \overline{H^{q,p}(X)}$ and $H^{p,q}(X) \simeq H^q(X, \Omega_X^p)$.

Proof. Note that $\Delta_{\bar{\partial}}$ preserves the (p, q) -type, and thus so does Δ_d by [Proposition 3.3.2](#). Therefore, we have

$$(3.4) \quad \bigoplus_{p+q=k} H^{p,q}(X) \simeq \bigoplus_{p+q=k} \mathcal{H}^{p,q}(X) = \mathcal{H}^k(X, \mathbb{C}) \xrightarrow{\sim} H^k(X, \mathbb{C}).$$

It remains to show that $H^{p,q}(X) = \overline{H^{q,p}(X)}$, and this follows from the fact that $\Delta_d(\bar{\alpha}) = \overline{\Delta_d(\alpha)}$, as Δ_d is a real operator. \square

Remark 3.3.4. It is worthwhile to observe that along the isomorphism (3.4), $H^{p,q}(X)$ is identified with the subset $\{[\alpha] : d\alpha = 0 \text{ and } \alpha \in A^{p,q}\} \subset H^k(X, \mathbb{C})$. Note moreover that the Hodge decomposition is compatible with the wedge product (that is, wedging (p, q) $\bar{\partial}$ -closed forms yields the same algebra structure as that on $H^\bullet(X, \mathbb{C})$ along (3.4)). However, there is no clear algebra structure on

$$\bigoplus_{p,q \geq 0} \mathcal{H}^{p,q}(X),$$

as wedging two harmonic forms need not yield a harmonic form (this comes from the fact that d^* does not satisfy a Leibniz rule). \square

Corollary 3.3.5. *Let X be a compact Kähler manifold. If k is odd, then the k th Betti number $b_k(X)$ is even.*

Remark 3.3.6. For any Kähler form ω ,

$$\int_X \omega^{\dim X} = n! \cdot \operatorname{vol}(X) > 0,$$

implying that ω is not d -exact (assuming X compact), i.e. that $b_k > 0$ for k odd. \square

Remark 3.3.7 (Hodge diamond). We can make the Hodge numbers fit in what is called the Hodge diamond:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & & & h^{0,0} & & & \\
 & & h^{1,0} & & h^{0,1} & & \\
 & h^{2,0} & & h^{1,1} & & h^{0,2} & \\
 \ddots & & \ddots & & \ddots & & \ddots \\
 h^{n,0} & \dots & & \textcircled{\curvearrowright} & & \dots & h^{0,n} \\
 \ddots & & \ddots & & \ddots & & \ddots \\
 & h^{n,n-2} & & h^{n-1,n-1} & & h^{n-2,n} & \\
 & h^{n,n-1} & & h^{n-1,n} & & & \\
 & & h^{n,n} & & & & \\
 & & \longleftrightarrow & & & &
 \end{array}$$

where $n = \dim_{\mathbb{C}} X$, and these are the only non-zero Hodge numbers. Moreover, there are some symmetries. We already saw Hodge symmetry, which implies $h^{p,q} = h^{q,p}$, which is represented by the arrow in the bottom.

Recall that some version of Poincaré duality says that there is a non-degenerate pairing

$$\begin{aligned}
 (3.5) \quad & H^k(X, \mathbb{C}) \times H^{2n-k}(X, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \\
 & (\alpha, \beta) \mapsto \int_X \alpha \wedge \beta,
 \end{aligned}$$

yielding an isomorphism $H^k(X, \mathbb{C})^\vee = H_k(X, \mathbb{C}) \simeq H^{2n-k}(X, \mathbb{C})$. This pairing restricts to a non-degenerate pairing

$$H^{p,q}(X) \times H^{n-p,n-q}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{C};$$

indeed, if a d -closed form of type (p, q) is non-zero, we know by (3.5) that we may pair it with a form β with $\alpha \wedge \beta \neq 0$, but this forces the type of β to be $(n-p, n-q)$. Therefore, we get an isomorphism

$$(3.6) \quad H^{p,q}(X) = H^{n-p,n-q}(X)^\vee.$$

In particular, our diamond has the symmetry $h^{p,q} = h^{n-p,n-q}$, which is represented by the central circling arrow in the Hodge diamond. Note that (3.6) can also be seen using Serre duality:

$$H^{p,q}(X) = H^q(X, \Omega_X^p) = H^{n-q}(X, (\Omega_X^p)^\vee \otimes K_X)^\vee = H^{n-q}(X, \Omega_X^{n-p})^\vee = H^{n-p,n-q}(X)^\vee,$$

where the isomorphism $(\Omega_X^p)^\vee \otimes K_X = \bigwedge^p \mathcal{T}_X \otimes K_X \simeq \Omega^{n-p}$ comes from contraction of vector fields:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \bigwedge^p \mathcal{T}_X \otimes K_X \xrightarrow{\sim} \Omega^{n-p} \\
 & X_1 \wedge \dots \wedge X_p \otimes \alpha \mapsto \alpha(X_1, \dots, X_p, -, \dots, -).
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that there is also a way to see this duality with the Hodge star operator.

The Hodge diamond also satisfies a unimodal condition. Namely, in each row (hence each column by Poincaré/Serre-duality), the Hodge numbers increase before reaching half, then decrease (the latter follows from the former by Hodge symmetry).

3.4. Lefschetz theorems. Let X be compact Kähler manifold with Kähler form ω . As ω is a $(1, 1)$ real form, we obtain an operator

$$\begin{aligned}
 L_\omega : A^k(X) &\rightarrow A^{k+2}(X) \\
 \alpha &\mapsto \omega \wedge \alpha.
 \end{aligned}$$

In the complexification, this restrict to

$$L_\omega : A^{p,q}(X) \rightarrow A^{p+1,q+1}(X),$$

and these operators descend to cohomology by definition. We define the operator

$$\Lambda_\omega := *^{-1} \circ L_\omega \circ *,$$

and the degree operator

$$h : H^*(X) \rightarrow H^*(X)$$

where $h|_{H^k(X)} = (k - n)\text{id}|_{H^k(X)}$. Here, we do not specify the coefficients, as we want to work over either \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} .

Theorem 3.4.1. *On cohomology, we have $[L_\omega, \Lambda_\omega] = h$, $[h, L_\omega] = 2L_\omega$ and $[2, \Lambda_\omega] = -2\Lambda_\omega$, that is, L_ω, Λ_ω and h form an \mathfrak{sl}_2 -triple. Moreover, we have $[L_\omega, \Delta_d] = 0 = [\Lambda_\omega, \Delta_d]$.*

From this \mathfrak{sl}_2 -representation, one can deduce the following.

Theorem 3.4.2 (Hard Lefschetz). *Let $k \leq n$.*

(1) *the map*

$$L_\omega^{n-k} : H^k(X) \rightarrow H^{2n-k}(X)$$

is an isomorphism.

(2) *Let $H^k(X)_{\text{prim}} \subset H^k(X)$ be the kernel of L_ω^{n-k+1} . We have a **Lefschetz decomposition***

$$H^k(X) = \bigoplus_{2r \leq k} L_\omega^r H^{k-2r}(X)_{\text{prim}}.$$

Moreover, over \mathbb{C} , this decomposition is compatible with the Hodge decomposition; i.e, if we define

$$H^{p,q}(X)_{\text{prim}} := \ker (L_\omega^{2n-p-q+1} : H^{p,q}(X) \rightarrow H^{n-p+1, n-q+1}(X)),$$

we have

$$H^{p,q}(X) = \bigoplus_{2r \leq p+q} L_\omega^r H^{p-r, q-r}(X)_{\text{prim}},$$

and

$$H^k(X, \mathbb{C})_{\text{prim}} = \bigoplus_{p+q=k} H^{p,q}(X)_{\text{prim}}.$$

Remark 3.4.3. Note that when X is projective, we may choose ω to be integral and the Lefschetz decomposition also holds over \mathbb{Q} .

Example 3.4.4. Let us study the consequences of these theorems on the cohomology of a surface X with Kähler form ω . We have the diagram

$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \curvearrowright \\ \curvearrowright \\ \curvearrowright \\ \curvearrowright \end{array} \begin{array}{l} H^0(X) \\ H^1(X) \\ H^2(X) \\ H^3(X) \\ H^4(X), \end{array} \begin{array}{l} = \\ = \\ = \\ \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{l} H^0(X)_{\text{prim}} \\ H^1(X)_{\text{prim}} \\ H^2(X)_{\text{prim}} \oplus LH^0(X) \\ \\ \end{array} \end{array}$$

$L_\omega^2 \quad L_\omega$

where $H^0(X)_{\text{prim}} = H^0(X)$ and $H^1(X)_{\text{prim}} = H^1(X)$ since the primitive parts are defined as the kernel of maps to a cohomology groups that vanish for dimension reasons. Since $H^0(X)$ is generated by the identity element in the cohomology ring, we obtain (over say \mathbb{R} coefficients) $H^2(X, \mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R}[\omega] \oplus H^2(X, \mathbb{R})_{\text{prim}}$. As we soon shall see, this decomposition is orthogonal with respect to a certain intersection pairing, so that we may write $H^2(X, \mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R}[\omega] \oplus [\omega]^\perp$.

3.5. Hodge index theorem. Let X be compact and ω be a Kähler form. Consider the complex Poincaré pairing

$$\begin{aligned} H^k(X, \mathbb{C}) \times H^{2n-k}(X, \mathbb{C}) &\rightarrow \mathbb{C} \\ (\alpha, \beta) &\mapsto \int_X \alpha \wedge \beta. \end{aligned}$$

This pairing is skew symmetric for k odd and symmetric for k even. We use the polarisation ω to turn this into a pairing on $H^k(X, \mathbb{C})$ for $k \leq n$:

$$\begin{aligned} Q_k : H^k(X, \mathbb{C}) \times H^k(X, \mathbb{C}) &\rightarrow \mathbb{C} \\ (\alpha, \beta) &\mapsto \int_X \alpha \wedge L_\omega^{n-k}(\beta). \end{aligned}$$

We now define the hermitian pairing $H_k(\alpha, \beta) := {}^t Q_k(\alpha, \bar{\beta})$ called the **Hodge–Riemann bilinear form**.

Theorem 3.5.1 (Hodge–Riemann bilinear relations). *The following hold true*

- (1) The Hodge decomposition is orthogonal with respect to H_k ;
(2) The Lefschetz decomposition is orthogonal with respect to H_k , and for $\alpha, \beta \in H^{k-2r}(X, \mathbb{C})_{\text{prim}}$, we have

$$H_k(L^r(\alpha), L^r(\beta)) = (-1)^{k+r} H_{k-2r}(\alpha, \beta);$$

- (3) The form

$$(-1)^{\frac{k(k-1)}{2}} \iota^{p-q-k} H_k$$

is positive definite on $H^{p,q}(X)_{\text{prim}}$.

Proof. (1) Let $\alpha \in H^{p,q}(X)$ and $\beta \in H^{p',q'}(X)$ with $p+q = p'+q'$. By definition, we have

$$H_k(\alpha, \beta) = \iota^k \int_X \alpha \wedge \omega^{n-k} \wedge \bar{\beta},$$

but the form $\alpha \omega^{n-k} \wedge \bar{\beta}$ is of degree $2n$ but not of type (n, n) . Hence it vanishes, implying that the integral vanishes.

(2) Let $\alpha' = L_\omega^r(\alpha)$ for $\alpha \in H^{k-2r}(X)_{\text{prim}}$ and $\beta' = L_\omega^s(\beta)$ for $\beta \in H^{k-2s}(X)_{\text{prim}}$. Without loss of generality, assume $r > s$. We have that

$$H_k(\alpha', \beta') = \iota^k \int_X \alpha' \wedge L_\omega^{n-k+s}(\bar{\beta}') = \iota^k \int_X \omega^r \alpha \wedge \omega^{n-k+s} \wedge \bar{\beta} = (-1)^k \iota^k \int_X \alpha \wedge L_\omega^{n-k+r+s}(\bar{\beta}) = 0$$

since $n - k + r + s > n - k + 2s$, so that primitiveness of β ensures it is in the kernel of $L_\omega^{n-k+r+s}$.

Now if α', β' are chosen as above but $r = s$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} H_k(\alpha', \beta') &= \iota^k \int_X \alpha \wedge L^{n-k+r}(\bar{\beta}') = \iota^k \int_X \omega^r \wedge \alpha \wedge \omega^{n-k+r} \wedge \bar{\beta} \\ &= (-1)^k \iota^{2r} \iota^{k-2r} \int_X \alpha \wedge \omega^{n-k+2r} \wedge \bar{\beta} = (-1)^{k+r} H_{k-2r}(\alpha, \beta). \end{aligned}$$

- (3) For $\alpha \in H^{p,q}(X)_{\text{prim}}$. For such form, on Kähler manifolds, we have

$$*\alpha = \iota^{p-q} (-1)^{\frac{k(k-1)}{2}} \frac{\omega^{n-k}}{(n-k)!} \wedge \alpha;$$

see [Voi98, Proposition 6.29]. Therefore, we obtain that

$$\begin{aligned} H_k(\alpha, \alpha) &= \iota^k \int_X \alpha \wedge \omega^{n-k} \wedge \bar{\alpha} = (n-k)! (-1)^{\frac{k(k-1)}{2}} \iota^{k-p+q} \int_X \alpha \wedge *\bar{\alpha} \\ &= (n-k)! (-1)^{\frac{k(k-1)}{2}} \iota^{k-p+q} \int_X \langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle \text{vol}_{\mathbb{C}} \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$(-1)^{\frac{k(k-1)}{2}} \iota^{p-q+k} H_k$$

is positive-definite. □

Corollary 3.5.2 (Hodge index theorem). *Let X be a compact Kähler surface. Then, the signature of the Poincaré intersection pairing Q_2 on $H^2(X, \mathbb{R})$ is*

$$(2h^{2,0} + 1, h^{1,1} - 1).$$

Proof. Let $\alpha \in H^2(X, \mathbb{R})$. We may decompose into types: $\alpha = \alpha^{2,0} + \alpha^{1,1} + \alpha^{0,2}$. The fact that $\alpha = \bar{\alpha}$ forces $\alpha^{1,1} \in H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{R})$, and $\alpha^{2,0} = \overline{\alpha^{0,2}}$. We thus have the decomposition

$$H^2(X, \mathbb{R}) = ((H^{2,0}(X) \oplus H^{0,2}(X)) \cap H^2(X, \mathbb{R})) \oplus H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{R}),$$

which we know to be orthogonal with respect to the Poincaré pairing. Any $\alpha \in (H^{2,0}(X) \oplus H^{0,2}(X)) \cap H^2(X, \mathbb{R})$ is primitive for degree reasons: taking the cup product with ω yields types $(3, 1)$ or $(1, 3)$. Thus, we have

$$Q_2(\alpha, \alpha) = \int_X \alpha \wedge \alpha = \int_X \alpha^{2,0} \wedge \overline{\alpha^{2,0}},$$

which is positive by Theorem 3.5.1(3). Now, we have the Lefschetz decomposition

$$H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{R}) = H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{R})_{\text{prim}} \oplus L_\omega H^0(X, \mathbb{R}) = H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{R})_{\text{prim}} \oplus \mathbb{R}[\omega].$$

This decomposition is orthogonal: if $\alpha \in H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{R})_{\text{prim}}$, then

$$Q_2(\omega, \alpha) = \int_X \omega \wedge \alpha = 0$$

as $\omega \wedge \alpha = 0$ by definition of primitive cohomology. We have

$$Q_2(\omega, \omega) = \int_X \omega^2 = 2 \cdot \text{vol}(X) > 0.$$

There remains to compute Q_2 on real $(1, 1)$ primitive classes. But by [Theorem 3.5.1](#),

$$\int_X \alpha^2 < 0,$$

and so we obtain the right count for the index of the pairing. □

3.6. (1,1) classes. Consider now the exponential exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X \xrightarrow{\exp(2\pi i -)} \mathcal{O}_X^* \rightarrow 0.$$

It is a fact that the induced connecting homomorphism δ in the long exact cohomological sequence

$$\cdots \rightarrow H^1(X, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X) \rightarrow \text{Pic}(X) \xrightarrow{\delta} H^2(X, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^2(X, \mathcal{O}_X) \rightarrow \cdots$$

is the opposite of the first chern map: $\delta = -c_1$.

Theorem 3.6.1 (Lefschetz theorem on $(1, 1)$ classes). *If X is compact Kähler, then the first chern map c_1 is surjective onto $H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{Z})$.*

Proof. Note that the first chern map is indeed valued in $H^{1,1}(X, \mathbb{Z})$ by definition of the Chern class (indeed, the $(2, 0)$ and $(0, 2)$ part of the curvature of the Chern connection vanish). The map $H^2(X, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^2(X, \mathcal{O}_X)$ factors as

$$H^2(X, \mathbb{Z}) \hookrightarrow H^2(X, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow H^{2,0}(X, \mathbb{C}) \simeq H^2(X, \mathcal{O}_X),$$

and thus vanishes on $(1, 1)$ classes, so that $(1, 1)$ classes are in the kernel of this map, and equivalently in the image of $c_1 = -\delta$. □

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