

## Chapter 2

# Hodge theory

### 2.1 Cauchy-Riemann operator

Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  be an open set. Let  $C^\infty(U)$  (resp.  $C_{\mathbb{R}}^\infty(U)$ ) denote the space of complex (resp. real) valued functions. Similarly, we work with complex valued differential forms, where  $\mathcal{E}^1(U)$  (resp.  $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbb{R}}^1(U)$ ) denotes the space of complex (resp. real) valued 1-forms. Note that  $\mathcal{E}^1(U)$  is a module over  $C^\infty(U)$ . If

$$z = x + iy$$

as usual, and introduce complex valued differential forms

$$dz = dx + idy, \quad d\bar{z} = dx - idy$$

Therefore

$$dx = \frac{1}{2}(dz + d\bar{z})$$

$$dy = \frac{1}{2i}(dz - d\bar{z})$$

Given a  $C^\infty$  function  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , the total differential

$$df = f_x dx + f_y dy = \frac{1}{2}(f_x - if_y)dz + \frac{1}{2}(f_x + if_y)d\bar{z}$$

This suggests that we should introduce the operators

$$\partial f = \frac{1}{2}(f_x - if_y)dz$$

$$\bar{\partial} f = \frac{1}{2}(f_x + if_y)d\bar{z}$$

so that

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

If we set  $u = \operatorname{Re} f, v = \operatorname{Im} f$ , then

$$\bar{\partial}f = \frac{1}{2}[(u_x - v_y) + i(u_y + v_x)]d\bar{z}$$

This makes it clear that the condition  $\bar{\partial}f = 0$  is equivalent to the Cauchy-Riemann equations. Therefore

**Lemma 2.1.1.**  $f \in C^\infty(U)$  is holomorphic if and only if  $\bar{\partial}f = 0$ .

We let  $\mathcal{E}^{10}(U) \subset \mathcal{E}^1(U)$  (resp.  $\mathcal{E}^{01}(U) \subset \mathcal{E}^1(U)$ ) be the submodule spanned by  $dz$  (resp.  $d\bar{z}$ ). We call these forms of type  $(1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$ . We have

$$\mathcal{E}^1(U) = \mathcal{E}^{10}(U) \oplus \mathcal{E}^{01}(U)$$

and  $\partial$  (resp.  $\bar{\partial}$ ) is just  $d$  followed by projection to these submodules.

We now want to show that of this make sense on a Riemann surface  $X$ . Given two overlapping coordinate disks  $U$  and  $V$  with local coordinates  $z$  and  $\zeta$ , we see that  $\zeta$  is a holomorphic function of  $z$  and visa versa. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} d\zeta &= \partial\zeta = \frac{\partial\zeta}{\partial z}dz \\ dz &= \partial z = \frac{\partial z}{\partial\zeta}d\zeta \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\mathcal{E}^{10}(U \cap V) = C^\infty(U \cap V)dz = C^\infty(U \cap V)d\zeta$$

We can now define  $\mathcal{E}^{10}(X) \subset \mathcal{E}^1(X)$  to be the space of 1-forms whose restriction to any coordinate disk  $U_i$  lies  $\mathcal{E}^{10}(U_i)$ . The previous equality shows that this is well defined. We define  $\mathcal{E}^{01}(X)$  to be the space of complex conjugates of  $(1, 0)$ -forms. We can see that any form in  $\mathcal{E}^1(X)$  has a unique decomposition into a sum of  $(1, 0)$ -form and  $(0, 1)$ -form. Therefore

$$\mathcal{E}^1(X) = \mathcal{E}^{10}(X) \oplus \mathcal{E}^{01}(X)$$

We define  $\partial f$  (resp.  $\bar{\partial}f$ ) to be the projection of  $df$  to the first (resp. second) factor. A  $(1, 0)$ -form is called *holomorphic* if its restriction to any coordinate disk with coordinate  $z$  is  $f(z)dz$  with  $f$  holomorphic. We let  $\Omega^1(X)$  denote the space of holomorphic 1-forms.

## 2.2 Harmonic forms

Fix a compact (connected) Riemann surface  $X$ . Let us suppose that the genus is  $g$ . As before  $C^\infty(X)$  and  $\mathcal{E}^p(X)$  will now denote the spaces of complex valued  $C^\infty$  functions and complex valued forms. We these conventions, we can define complex valued de Rham cohomology as before

$$H_{dR}^1(X, \mathbb{C}) = \frac{\{\alpha \in \mathcal{E}^1(X) \mid d\alpha = 0\}}{\{df \mid f \in C^\infty(X)\}}$$

This is isomorphic to  $H_{dR}^1(X, \mathbb{R}) \otimes \mathbb{C} = \mathbb{C}^{2g}$ . Note the formula and similar ones appear more uniform, if we set

$$\mathcal{E}_X^0 = \mathcal{E}_X^{00} = \mathbb{C}_X$$

We note that Riemann surfaces have a canonical orientation: if  $x, y$  are real and imaginary parts of a complex coordinate  $z$ , then  $dx \wedge dy$  is positively oriented. The orientation allows us to integrate two forms on  $X$ . Given  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{E}^1(X)$ , define

$$(\alpha, \beta) = \int_X \alpha \wedge \beta$$

Stokes' theorem and properties of the wedge product shows that this gives a well defined skew symmetric pairing

$$(\cdot, \cdot) : H_{dR}^1(X, \mathbb{C}) \times H_{dR}^1(X, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

For people familiar with it, this is dual to the (complexified) intersection pairing on  $H_1(X, \mathbb{Z})$

An element of de Rham cohomology is really an equivalence class. *Does such a class have a distinguished representative?* The answer will turn out to be yes. To describe it, let us introduce a  $C^\infty(X)$ -linear operation called the Hodge star given locally by  $*dx = dy$ ,  $*dy = -dx$ . This amounts to multiplication by  $i$  in the cotangent planes, so it is globally well defined operation. We have the following basic properties

**Lemma 2.2.1.**  $\mathcal{E}^1(X)$  has an inner product given by

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

*Proof.* One can see that

$$(f dx + g dy) \wedge *\overline{(h dx + k dy)} = (f\bar{h} + g\bar{k}) dx \wedge dy$$

$$(f dx + g dy) \wedge *\overline{(f dx + g dy)} = (|f|^2 + |g|^2) dx \wedge dy$$

This implies the basic properties including positive definiteness.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.2.2** (Poincaré duality). *The bilinear form  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  is nondegenerate.*

**Remark 2.2.3.** *The topological form of Poincaré duality gives the stronger result that the intersection pairing on  $H_1(X, \mathbb{Z})$  is unimodular. This means that  $H_1$  has a basis, called a symplectic basis, such that the pairing is represented by*

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & I \\ -I & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

*We will use this later on.*

**Definition 2.2.4.** We define a 1-form  $\alpha$  to be co-closed if  $d(*\alpha) = 0$ . It is harmonic if it is both closed and co-closed, i.e.  $d\alpha = d(*\alpha) = 0$ . A form is called co-exact if it equals  $*df$ .

The reason for the name will be explained later on. The basic properties are given by:

**Proposition 2.2.5.**

- (a) A harmonic 1-form is a sum of a  $(1,0)$  harmonic form and  $(0,1)$  harmonic form.
- (b) A  $(1,0)$ -form is holomorphic if and only if it is closed if and only if it is harmonic.
- (c) A  $(0,1)$ -form is harmonic if and only if it is antiholomorphic i.e. its complex conjugate is holomorphic.
- (d) A 1-form is co-closed (resp. closed) if and only if it is orthogonal to the space of exact (resp. co-exact) forms. Therefore a 1-form is harmonic if and only if it is orthogonal to the direct spaces of

*Proof.* If  $\alpha$  is a harmonic 1-form, then  $\alpha = \alpha' + \alpha''$ , where  $\alpha' = \frac{1}{2}(\alpha + i * \alpha)$  is a harmonic  $(1,0)$ -form and  $\alpha'' = \frac{1}{2}(\alpha - i * \alpha)$  is a harmonic  $(0,1)$ -form.

If  $\alpha$  is  $(1,0)$ , then  $d\alpha = \bar{\partial}\alpha$ . This implies the first half (b). For the second half, use the identity

$$*dz = *(dx + idy) = dy - idx = -idz$$

Finally, note that the harmonicity condition is invariant under conjugation, so the (c) follows from (b).

For (d), we first observe that integration by parts (essentially Stokes' theorem) implies

$$\langle df, \alpha \rangle = \int_X df \wedge * \bar{\alpha} = \int d(f * \bar{\alpha}) - \int_X f d * \bar{\alpha} = - \int_X f d * \bar{\alpha}$$

If  $\alpha$  is co-closed, then it follows that  $\langle df, \alpha \rangle = 0$ . Conversely, suppose that  $\langle df, \alpha \rangle = 0$  for all  $f \in C^\infty(X)$ . Let  $d * \alpha = g(x, y)dx \wedge dy$  in a coordinate disk  $D$ . If  $g(p) \neq 0$ , we can choose  $f$  with support in  $D$  such that  $f(x, y)g(x, y) \geq 0$  everywhere and strictly positive at  $p$ . Therefore  $\int_X f d * \alpha > 0$ , so we can conclude that  $d * \alpha = 0$ . A similar argument using

$$\langle \alpha, *df \rangle = \int_X \alpha \wedge * * df = - \int_X d(\bar{f}\alpha) + \int_X \bar{f}d\alpha = \int_X \bar{f}d\alpha \quad (2.1)$$

shows that  $d\alpha = 0$  if and only if  $\alpha$  is orthogonal to co-closed forms. □

Here is the key fact. We will say more about this in later on.

**Theorem 2.2.6** (Hodge theorem ). *Every de Rham cohomology class has a unique harmonic representative.*

**Remark 2.2.7.** *This statement is actually due Weyl, which Hodge generalized to higher dimensions.*

**Corollary 2.2.8** (Hodge decomposition). *We have*

$$H_{dR}^1(X, \mathbb{C}) \cong \Omega^1(X) \oplus \overline{\Omega^1(X)}$$

*Therefore*  $\dim \Omega^1(X) = g$ .

*Proof.* By proposition 2.2.5, a harmonic 1 can be uniquely decomposed as a sum of holomorphic 1-form and the complex conjugate of a holomorphic 1-form.  $\square$

For reasons that will be explained later, one normally denotes  $\Omega^1(X)$  by  $H^0(X, \Omega_X^1)$  and this notation will be used below.

## 2.3 Proof of the Hodge theorem

First we explain the connection between harmonic forms and harmonic functions. Recall that  $C^\infty$  function  $f$  on an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is harmonic if it satisfies the Laplace equation

$$\Delta f := \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) f = 0$$

**Lemma 2.3.1.** *A 1-form on a disk is harmonic if and only if it is given by  $df$ , where  $f$  is a harmonic function.*

*Proof.* Since a disk  $D$  is contractible, a 1-form on  $D$  is closed if and only if equals  $df$  for some  $f$ . The form is also co-closed when

$$d * df = \Delta f dx \wedge dy = 0$$

$\square$

Recall that Green's identity from calculus implies that if  $f$  and  $\eta$  are both  $C^\infty$  and  $\eta$  vanishes near the boundary  $\partial D$ , then

$$\int_D f \Delta \eta dx dy = \int_D (\Delta f) \eta dx dy$$

Therefore if  $f$  is harmonic, then the first integral vanishes. Weyl's lemma is a converse statement.

**Theorem 2.3.2** ("Weyl's lemma"). *Let  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$  be an open disk. Let  $f \in L^2(D)$  be such that*

$$\int_D f \Delta \eta dx dy = 0$$

*for every compactly supported  $C^\infty$  function  $\eta$ , then  $f$  is a  $C^\infty$  harmonic function.*

*Proof.* The proof is not difficult but it takes a few pages, so we refer to [Farkas-Kra, Riemann surfaces].  $\square$

The proof of the Hodge theorem we give uses the method of orthogonal projection. The idea is to use a generalization of a fact from basic linear algebra that if  $S \subset V$  is a subspace of a finite dimensional inner product space, then

$$V = S \oplus S^\perp$$

When  $V$  is infinite dimensional, this is no longer true unless  $V$  is a Hilbert space and  $S$  is closed. Thus we first need to complete everything to a Hilbert space in order to apply this. Let us denote by  $L^2\mathcal{E}^1(X)$  the Hilbert space completion of this space. Let  $\mathcal{E}_{ex}^1(X), \mathcal{E}_{cl}^1(X), \mathcal{E}_{co}^1(X) \subset \mathcal{E}^1(X)$  denote the space of exact, closed and co-exact 1-forms i.e. the forms  $*df$ . Since these spaces are orthogonal, we get that the closure

$$\overline{\mathcal{E}_{ex}^1(X) + \mathcal{E}_{co}^1(X)} = \overline{\mathcal{E}_{ex}^1(X)} \oplus \overline{\mathcal{E}_{co}^1(X)}$$

in  $L^2\mathcal{E}^1(X)$ . Let  $H$  denote the orthogonal complement of the above space. Then we have an orthogonal decomposition

$$L^2\mathcal{E}^1(X) = H \oplus \overline{\mathcal{E}_{ex}^1(X)} \oplus \overline{\mathcal{E}_{co}^1(X)} \quad (2.2)$$

**Lemma 2.3.3.**  *$H$  consists of the space of harmonic  $C^\infty$  1-forms.*

*Proof.* Given a  $C^\infty$  form  $\alpha$  the orthogonality conditions defining  $H$  imply that  $H$  is harmonic. Given an element of  $\alpha \in H$ , its restriction to a coordinate disk  $D$  can be viewed as a differential form  $\alpha|_D = p dx + q dy$  with  $L^2$  coefficients. Let  $\eta$  be a  $C^\infty$  function with compact support on  $D$ . The orthogonality conditions imply that

$$\langle p dx + q dy, d\eta_x - *d\eta_y \rangle = 0$$

Expanding the left side yields

$$\int_D p \Delta \eta \, dx dy = 0$$

This implies that  $p$  is harmonic by Weyl's lemma. Similarly  $q$  is harmonic. Therefore  $\alpha$  is  $C^\infty$ , and consequently harmonic.  $\square$

**Lemma 2.3.4.**  $\mathcal{E}_{cl}^1(X) \cap \overline{\mathcal{E}_{ex}^1(X)} = \mathcal{E}_{ex}^1(X)$

*Proof.* If  $\alpha \in \mathcal{E}_{ex}^1(X)$ , and  $\beta \in \mathcal{E}_{cl}^1(X)$ , then Stokes' theorem implies that  $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = \langle \alpha, *\bar{\beta} \rangle = 0$ . By continuity, this continues to hold for  $\alpha \in \overline{\mathcal{E}_{ex}^1(X)}$ . Now suppose that  $\alpha \in \mathcal{E}_{cl}^1(X) \cap \overline{\mathcal{E}_{ex}^1(X)}$ . We just showed that the cohomology class of  $\alpha$  satisfies  $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = 0$  for any class  $\beta \in H_{dR}^1(X, \mathbb{C})$ . Therefore by Poincaré duality  $[\alpha] = 0$ . This implies that  $\alpha$  is exact.  $\square$

*Proof of the Hodge theorem.* Let  $\alpha \in \mathcal{E}_{cl}^1(X)$ . Then using (2.2), we may decompose  $\alpha = \beta + \gamma + \delta$ , with  $\alpha \in H$  etc. We claim that  $\|\delta\|^2 = 0$ . By continuity, it is enough to assume that  $\delta = *df$ . Then the orthogonality conditions plus (essentially) (2.1) shows that

$$\|\delta\|^2 = \langle \alpha, *df \rangle = \pm \int_X d(f\alpha) = 0$$

Therefore  $\alpha = \beta + \gamma$ . By lemma 2.3.3,  $\beta$  is harmonic. Therefore  $\gamma = \alpha - \beta$  is in  $\mathcal{E}_{cl}^1(X)$ . By lemma 2.3.4,  $\gamma$  is exact.  $\square$

We won't give a proof, but it is possible to get a stronger result that the space of 1-forms decomposes as below.

**Theorem 2.3.5** (Hodge theorem II). *We have a decomposition*

$$\mathcal{E}^1(X) = H \oplus \mathcal{E}_{ex}^1(X) \oplus \mathcal{E}_{co}^1(X)$$

where  $H$ ,  $\mathcal{E}_{ex}^1(X)$  and  $\mathcal{E}_{co}^1(X)$  is the space of harmonic, exact and co-exact 1-forms respectively.

## 2.4 Background on sheaf cohomology

We want to give a somewhat different interpretation of the Hodge decomposition, which will rely on the machinery of sheaf cohomology. We will mostly treat this machinery as a black box, or perhaps a dark grey box. More thorough treatments can be found in the books on algebraic geometry by Griffiths-Harris, Hartshorne, Voisin, and myself. Let us start with some definitions. Given a topological space  $X$ , a presheaf of abelian groups is a contravariant functor from the category  $Open(X)$  of open sets of  $X$ , where morphisms are inclusions, to the category of abelian groups  $Ab$ . More concretely a presheaf is a collection of abelian groups  $\mathcal{F}(U)$ ,  $U \in Open(X)$ , with restrictions  $\rho_{UV} : \mathcal{F}(U) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(V)$ , when  $V \subseteq U$ , subject to appropriate compatibility conditions. Such a presheaf  $\mathcal{F}$  is called a sheaf of abelian groups (henceforth just a sheaf) if for any open  $U$  with open cover  $\{U_i\}$ , any collection  $f_i \in \mathcal{F}(U_i)$  such that  $f_i|_{U_i \cap U_j} = f_j|_{U_i \cap U_j}$  is the restriction of a unique section  $f \in \mathcal{F}(U)$ . Let  $Ab(X)$  denote the category of sheaves on  $X$  where a morphism is an additive natural transformation. This is an abelian category, so it comes with a natural notion of exact sequence. To spell it out, a sequence of sheaves

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{C} \rightarrow 0$$

is *exact* if for any  $x \in X$ , we can find an open nbhd  $U$  such that

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{A}(U) \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(U) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(U)$$

is exact in  $Ab$ , and for every  $\gamma \in \mathcal{C}(U)$ , after shrinking  $U$ ,  $\gamma$  lies in the image of  $\mathcal{B}(U)$ . For the last part, it would suffice to assume that  $\mathcal{B}(U) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(U)$  is surjective, although the condition is a bit weaker.

**Example 2.4.1.** Let  $X$  be a Riemann surface. Let  $\mathbb{Z}_X$  denote the sheaf of locally constant  $\mathbb{Z}$  functions on  $X$ ,  $\mathcal{O}_X$  the sheaf of holomorphic functions, and  $\mathcal{O}_X^*$  the sheaf of nowhere zero holomorphic functions viewed as a multiplicative group. We have an sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_X \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X \xrightarrow{e} \mathcal{O}_X^* \rightarrow 1$$

where the first map is the obvious one, and second sends  $f \rightarrow \exp(2\pi i f)$ . If  $U$  is a coordinate disk, then

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}(U) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X(U) \xrightarrow{e} \mathcal{O}_X^*(U) \rightarrow 1$$

is exact. Therefore the above sequence of sheaves is exact. This called the exponential sequence.

**Example 2.4.2.** Let  $X$  be a Riemann surface once again. Let  $\mathbb{Z}_X$  denote the sheaf of locally constant  $\mathbb{Z}$  functions on  $X$ ,. Then the sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}_X \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X \xrightarrow{d} \Omega_X^1 \rightarrow 0$$

is exact. This follows from the exactness of

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}_X(U) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X(U) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega_X^1(U) \rightarrow 0$$

for a coordinate disk  $U$ .

**Example 2.4.3.** Again let  $X$  be a Riemann surface. Then we have a sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X \rightarrow C_X^\infty \xrightarrow{\bar{\partial}} \mathcal{E}_X^{01} \rightarrow 0$$

which we claim is exact. It suffices to check the exactness of

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X(U) \rightarrow C_X^\infty(U) \xrightarrow{\bar{\partial}} \mathcal{E}_X^{01}(U) \rightarrow 0$$

when  $U$  is a coordinate disk. The surjectivity of the last map follows from the  $\bar{\partial}$ -Poincaré lemma [Griffiths-Harris, p 5]. The injectivity of the first map is clear, and the exactness in the middle from the Cauchy-Riemann equations.

There is an obvious extension of exactness for a sequence of more than 3 sheaves.

**Example 2.4.4.** Again  $X$  is a Riemann surface. Then

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}_X \rightarrow \mathcal{E}_X^0 \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{E}_X^1 \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{E}_X^2 \rightarrow 0$$

is exact. This can be checked on the disk, where it follows from the usual Poincaré lemma [e.g. Spivak, Calculus on manifolds]. There are couple of variants worth mentioning. We can use real valued functions and forms and everything still works.  $X$  can be replace by an  $n$ -dimensional  $C^\infty$ -manifold. We still get an exact sequence as above, except that it has length  $n$ .



Let us define a functor  $\Gamma : Ab(X) \rightarrow Ab$  by  $\Gamma(\mathcal{F}) = \mathcal{F}(X)$ .

**Lemma 2.4.5.** *The functor  $\Gamma$  is left exact, i.e. given an exact sequence*

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{C} \rightarrow 0$$

*we have an exact sequence*

$$0 \rightarrow \Gamma(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \Gamma(\mathcal{B}) \rightarrow \Gamma(\mathcal{C})$$

It is generally not true that the last map above is surjective, and this not just a mere technicality:

**Example 2.4.6.** *Let  $X = \mathbb{C}^*$ , then the map*

$$e : \Gamma(\mathcal{O}_X) \rightarrow \Gamma(\mathcal{O}_X^*)$$

*is not surjective because as is well known there is no way to define a holomorphic logarithm on  $\mathbb{C}^*$*

Following the usual pattern in homological algebra, we have

**Theorem 2.4.7.** *There exists a sequence of functors  $H^i(X, -) : Ab(X) \rightarrow Ab$  such that*

$$H^0(X, \mathcal{F}) \cong \Gamma(\mathcal{F})$$

*An exact sequence of sheaves*

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{C} \rightarrow 0$$

*gives rise to a long exact sequence*

$$0 \rightarrow H^0(X, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow H^0(X, \mathcal{B}) \rightarrow H^0(X, \mathcal{C}) \rightarrow H^1(X, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \dots$$

We need one more fact to make this useful. The following is special case of vanishing theorem for fine sheaves. We refer to the previous references for further information.

**Theorem 2.4.8.** *Let  $X$  be a  $C^\infty$ -manifold, and let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a sheaf of  $C_X^\infty$ -modules (which means that each  $\mathcal{F}(U)$  is a  $C^\infty(U)$ -module, restrictions respect the module structure), then  $H^i(X, \mathcal{F}) = 0$  for  $i > 0$ .*

## 2.5 Hodge theorem in terms of sheaf cohomology

With the previous results in hand, we can do some calculations.

**Proposition 2.5.1** (Dolbeault). *If  $X$  is a Riemann surface, then*

$$H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X) \cong \frac{\mathcal{E}^{01}(X)}{\bar{\partial}C^\infty(X)}$$

$$H^i(X, \mathcal{O}_X) = 0, \text{ if } i \geq 2$$

*Proof.* This follows the exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X \rightarrow C_X^\infty \xrightarrow{\bar{\partial}} \mathcal{E}_X^{01} \rightarrow 0$$

and theorems 2.4.7 and 2.4.8.  $\square$

**Proposition 2.5.2** (de Rham). *If  $X$  is a  $C^\infty$ -manifold*

$$H^i(X, \mathbb{C}_X) \cong H_{dR}^i(X, \mathbb{C})$$

*Proof.* We just give the proof for  $i = 1$  when  $X$  is a Riemann surface. The same method works in general. Break

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}_X \rightarrow \mathcal{E}_X^0 \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{E}_X^1 \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{E}_X^2 \rightarrow 0$$

into exact sequences

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}_X \rightarrow \mathcal{E}_X^0 \rightarrow \mathcal{E}_{X,cl}^1 \rightarrow 0$$

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{E}_{X,cl}^1 \rightarrow \mathcal{E}_X^1 \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{E}_X^2 \rightarrow 0$$

Then by the above theorems

$$\begin{aligned} H^1(X, \mathbb{C}_X) &= \operatorname{coker}[H^0(X, \mathcal{E}_X^0) \rightarrow H^0(X, \mathcal{E}_{X,cl}^1)] \\ &= \frac{\ker H^0(X, \mathcal{E}_X^1) \xrightarrow{d} H^0(X, \mathcal{E}_X^1)}{dH^0(X, \mathcal{E}_X^0)} = H_{dR}^1(X, \mathbb{C}) \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

**Theorem 2.5.3** (Hodge theorem for  $\bar{\partial}$ ). *If  $X$  is compact of genus  $g$ , then every element of*

$$\frac{\mathcal{E}^{01}(X)}{\bar{\partial}C^\infty(X)}$$

*has a unique harmonic representative. Therefore*

$$\dim H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X) \cong \overline{H^0(X, \Omega_X^1)}$$

*Proof.* Observe that  $\bar{\partial}$  is the  $(0, 1)$  part of  $d$  as well as  $-i*d$  because

$$-i*d f = -i(*\partial f + *\bar{\partial} f) = -\partial f + \bar{\partial} f$$

Theorem 2.3.5 shows that

$$\mathcal{E}^1(X) = H \oplus dC^\infty(X) \oplus *dC^\infty(X)$$

where  $H$  is the space of harmonic 1-forms. Therefore the  $(0, 1)$ -part of this decomposition yields

$$\mathcal{E}^{01}(X) = H^{01} \oplus \bar{\partial}C^\infty(X)$$

where  $H^{01}$  is the space of harmonic  $(0, 1)$ -forms. This implies the theorem.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.5.4.** *In the long exact sequence associated to*

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}_X \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X \rightarrow \Omega_X^1 \rightarrow 0$$

*we get an exact sequence*

$$0 \rightarrow H^0(X, \Omega_X^1) \rightarrow H^1(X, \mathbb{C}_X) \rightarrow H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X) \rightarrow 0$$

*Proof.* Since  $\dim H^0(X, \Omega_X^1) = \dim H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X) = g$  and  $\dim H^1(X, \mathbb{C}_X) = 2g$ , the map  $\iota$  below is injective, and  $p$  is surjective

$$H^0(X, \Omega_X^1) \xrightarrow{\iota} H^1(X, \mathbb{C}_X) \xrightarrow{p} H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X)$$

□

**Remark 2.5.5.** *The isomorphism*

$$\dim H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X) \cong \overline{H^0(X, \Omega_X^1)}$$

*gives a natural splitting to above projection*

$$H^1(X, \mathbb{C}_X) \rightarrow H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X)$$

**Corollary 2.5.6** (Serre duality). *The pairing*

$$(\alpha, \beta) = \int_X \alpha \wedge \beta$$

*on  $H^1(X, \mathbb{C})$  induces an isomorphism*

$$H^0(X, \Omega_X^1)^* \cong H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X)$$

*Furthermore,*

$$H^1(X, \Omega_X^1) \cong \mathbb{C}$$

*Proof.* We showed earlier that that  $(, )$  is nondegenerate. This means that given a nonzero  $\alpha \in H^1(X, \mathbb{C})$ , we can find  $\beta \in H^1(X, \mathbb{C})$  such  $(\alpha, \beta) \neq 0$ . Suppose that  $\alpha \in H^0(X, \Omega_X^1)$ , then  $(\alpha, \beta) = 0$  because  $\alpha \wedge \beta = 0$ . Therefore we must be able to choose  $\beta \in H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X)$  (under the decomposition explained above). Therefore the pairing induces an injection

$$H^0(X, \Omega_X^1)^* \hookrightarrow H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X)$$

This must be an isomorphism, because the spaces have the same dimension.

By the previous corollary and proposition 2.5.1, the long exact sequence associated to

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}_X \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X \rightarrow \Omega_X^1 \rightarrow 0$$

*gives an isomorphism*

$$H^1(X, \Omega_X^1) \cong H^2(X, \mathbb{C}) \cong \mathbb{C}$$

□

## 2.6 Riemann's inequality

Let  $X$  be a compact Riemann surface of genus  $g$ . A function on  $X - S$ , where  $S \subset X$  is a finite set, is called meromorphic if it is holomorphic and if the Laurent expansion with respect to any coordinate has a finite number of negative terms (i.e. it has no essential singularities). Let  $\mathbb{C}(X)$  denote the field of meromorphic functions on  $X$ . A basic fact, that we prove in this section, is that  $X$  always carries a nonconstant meromorphic function.

Given a finite set of distinct points  $S = \{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$ , set  $D = \sum p_i$  to be the formal sum, and  $\deg D = n$ . If  $S = \emptyset$ ,  $D = 0$ . We define a sheaf  $\Omega_X^1(\log D)$  whose sections over  $U$  consist of holomorphic 1-forms on  $U$  with at worst simple poles at points of  $U \cap S$ .

**Theorem 2.6.1** (Riemann's inequality).

$$\dim H^0(X, \Omega_X^1(\log D)) \geq \deg D + g - 1$$

*Proof.* We define the *skyscraper* sheaf  $\mathbb{C}_{p_i}$  to consist of

$$\mathbb{C}_{p_i} = \begin{cases} \mathbb{C} & \text{if } p_i \in U \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then we have an exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \Omega_X^1 \rightarrow \Omega_X^1(\log D) \xrightarrow{\text{res}} \bigoplus_{p_i \in S} \mathbb{C}_{p_i} \rightarrow 0$$

where the first map is the obvious inclusion, and the second sends to form  $\omega$  to the sum of its residues (defined in the usual way) at points of  $S$ . This gives rise to an exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow H^0(X, \Omega_X^1) \rightarrow H^0(X, \Omega_X^1(\log D)) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{\deg D} \rightarrow H^1(X, \Omega_X^1)$$

Since we proved that the last space is one dimensional, the theorem follows immediately.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.6.2.**  $X$  has a nontrivial meromorphic function.

*Proof.* By the theorem we can find 2 elements  $\omega_i \in H^0(X, \Omega_X^1(\log D))$  as soon as  $\deg D + g - 1 \geq 2$ . Locally  $\omega = f_i(z)dz$ , and the ratio  $\omega_1/\omega_2 = f_1/f_2$  can be seen to be a globally well defined meromorphic function.  $\square$

Note that Riemann's inequality can be improved to a much sharper statement called the *Riemann-Roch* theorem. We will not give it, since we plan to go in a different direction.