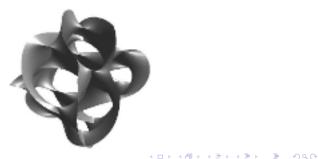
Mirror Symmetry Through Polytopes Physical and Mathematical Dualities

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Harvey Mudd College

October 2010





String Theory and Mirror Symmetry

Some Complex Geometry

Reflexive Polytopes

From Polytopes to Spaces

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Where's the Theory of Everything?

 We understand gravity on a large spatial scale (planets, stars, galaxies).

 We understand quantum physics on a small spatial scale (electrons, photons, quarks).

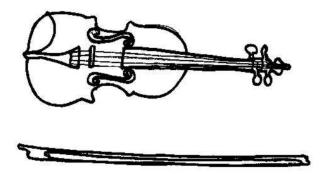


Figure: S. Bush et al.



Are Strings the Answer?

 "Fundamental" particles are strings vibrating at different frequencies.



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Strings wrap other dimensions!

T-Duality

Pairs of Universes

An extra dimension shaped like a circle of radius R and an extra dimension shaped like a circle of radius α'/R yield indistinguishable physics! (The slope parameter α' has units of length squared.)



Figure: Large radius, few windings



Figure: Small radius, many windings

Locally, space-time should look like

 $M_{3,1} \times V.$

- ► *M*_{3,1} is four-dimensional space-time
- V is a d-dimensional complex manifold
- Physicists require d = 3 (6 real dimensions)
- V is a Calabi-Yau manifold

Mirror Symmetry

Physicists say . . .

- ► Calabi-Yau manifolds appear in pairs (V, V°).
- ► The universes described by M_{3,1} × V and M_{3,1} × V° have the same observable physics.

Mathematicians say . . .

- Calabi-Yau manifolds appear in paired families $(V_{\alpha}, V_{\alpha}^{\circ})$.
- The families V_{α} and V_{α}° have dual geometric properties.

Realizing Mirror Symmetry Geometrically

We need:

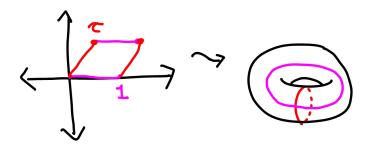
- Complex manifolds
- which are Calabi-Yau
- and arise in paired or "mirror" families
- with dual geometric properties.

Varying complex structure in one family should correspond to varying Kähler structure in the other family.

Complex Structure

An *n*-dimensional complex manifold is a geometric space which looks locally like \mathbb{C}^n .

Example: Elliptic Curves



We can think of varying the parameter τ as either changing the complex manifold, or changing the complex structure on an underlying topological 2-torus.

Standard Product

We can pair vectors v and w with their tails at a point z in \mathbb{C} using the product for complex numbers:

$$\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \mathbf{v} \overline{\mathbf{w}}$$

Note that $\langle v, v \rangle = ||v||^2$. More generally, if $\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}$ and $\vec{w} = \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{pmatrix}$ are vectors with their tails at a point $\mathbf{z} = (z_1, \dots, z_n)$ in \mathbb{C}^n , their standard Hermitian product is given by

$$\langle \vec{v}, \vec{w}
angle = \sum_{\vec{v}^{\mathrm{T}} \overline{\vec{w}}} v_i \overline{w_i}$$

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Hermitian metrics

A Hermitian metric H tells us how to pair tangent vectors at any point of a complex manifold and obtain a complex number.

 $H(\vec{v},\vec{w})=\overline{H(\vec{w},\vec{v})}$

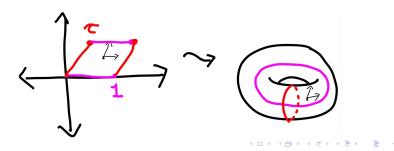
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$$H(\vec{v},\vec{w})=\overline{H(\vec{w},\vec{v})}$$

Elliptic Curve Example

We can use the standard Hermitian product on $\mathbb C$ to describe a Hermitian metric for tangent vectors to an elliptic curve.



A Kähler metric is a special type of Hermitian metric which can be written in local coordinates as follows. If \vec{v} and \vec{w} are vectors with their tails at a point \mathbf{z}_0 in \mathbb{C}^n ,

$$\kappa(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = \vec{v}^{\mathrm{T}} (\mathrm{I} + \mathrm{G}(\mathbf{z})) \overline{\vec{w}}.$$

Here I is the identity matrix and

$$G(\mathbf{z}) = \begin{pmatrix} g_{11}(\mathbf{z}) & \dots & g_{1n}(\mathbf{z}) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ g_{n1}(\mathbf{z}) & \dots & g_{nn}(\mathbf{z}) \end{pmatrix}$$

vanishes up to order 2 at \mathbf{z}_0 .

The Geometric Ingredients of Mirror Symmetry

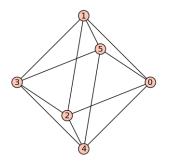
We need:

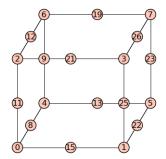
- Complex manifolds V
- which are Calabi-Yau
- and arise in paired or "mirror" families
- with dual geometric properties.

Varying complex structure in one family should correspond to varying Kähler structure in the other family.

Batyrev's Insight

We can describe mirror families of Calabi-Yau manifolds using combinatorial objects called reflexive polytopes.

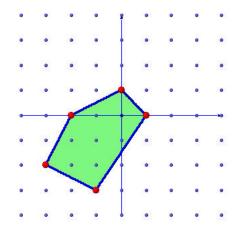




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Lattice Polygons

The points in the plane with integer coordinates form a lattice N. A lattice polygon is a polygon in the plane which has vertices in the lattice.



Reflexive Polygons

We say a lattice polygon is reflexive if it has only one lattice point, the origin, in its interior.

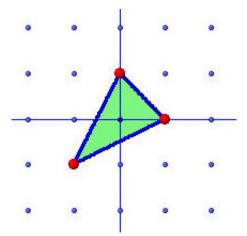
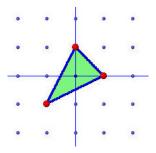
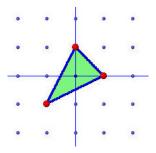


Figure: A reflexive triangle



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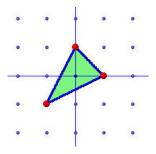
List the vertices



List the vertices

 $\{(0,1),(1,0),(-1,-1)\}$

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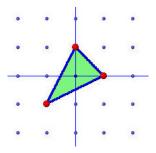


List the vertices

$$\{(0,1),(1,0),(-1,-1)\}$$

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List the equations of the edges



List the vertices

$$\{(0,1),(1,0),(-1,-1)\}$$

List the equations of the edges

$$-x - y = -1$$

$$2x - y = -1$$

$$-x + 2y = -1$$

Let M be another copy of the points in the plane with integer coordinates.

The dot product lets us pair points in N with points in M:

$$(n_1, n_2) \cdot (m_1, m_2) = n_1 m_1 + n_2 m_2$$

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Polar Polygons

Edge equations define new polygons

Let Δ be a lattice polygon in N which contains (0,0). The polar polygon Δ° is the polygon in M given by:

 $\{(m_1, m_2) : (n_1, n_2) \cdot (m_1, m_2) \ge -1 \text{ for all } (n_1, n_2) \in \Delta\}$

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$$(x, y) \cdot (-1, -1) = -1$$

(x, y) \cdot (2, -1) = -1
(x, y) \cdot (-1, 2) = -1

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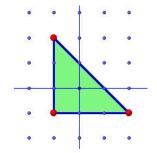


Figure: Our triangle's polar polygon

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Mirror Pairs

If Δ is a reflexive polygon, then:

Δ° is also a reflexive polygon

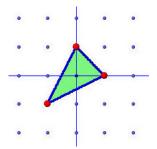
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$$\blacktriangleright \ (\Delta^{\circ})^{\circ} = \Delta.$$

 Δ and Δ° are a mirror pair.

A Polygon Duality

Mirror pair of triangles



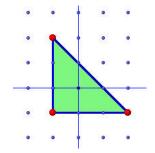




Figure: 9 boundary lattice points

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$$3 + 9 = 12$$

Mirror Pairs of Polygons

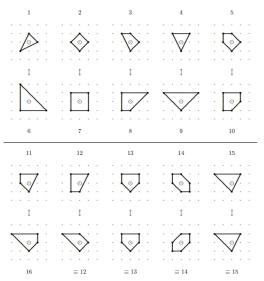


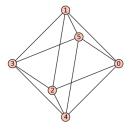
Figure: F. Rohsiepe, "Elliptic Toric K3 Surfaces and Gauge Algebras"

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Other Dimensions

Definition

Let $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_q\}$ be a set of points in \mathbb{R}^k . The polytope with vertices $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_q\}$ is the convex hull of these points.



Polar Polytopes

Let *N* be the lattice of points with integer coordinates in \mathbb{R}^k . A lattice polytope has vertices in *N*.

As before, we have a dual lattice M and a dot product

$$(n_1,\ldots,n_k)\cdot(m_1,\ldots,m_k)=n_1m_1+\cdots+n_km_k$$

Definition

Let Δ be a lattice polygon in N which contains (0,0). The polar polytope Δ° is the polytope in M given by:

 $\{(m_1,\ldots,m_k):(n_1,\ldots,n_k)\cdot(m_1,\ldots,m_k)\geq -1 \text{ for all } (n_1,n_2)\in \Delta\}$

Reflexive Polytopes

Definition

A lattice polytope Δ is reflexive if Δ° is also a lattice polytope.

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- If Δ is reflexive, $(\Delta^{\circ})^{\circ} = \Delta$.
- Δ and Δ° are a mirror pair.

Reflexive Polytopes

Definition

A lattice polytope Δ is reflexive if Δ° is also a lattice polytope.

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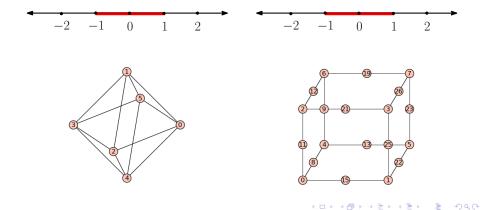
Reflexive Polytopes

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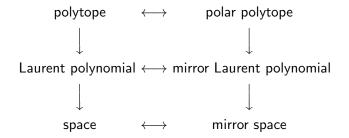
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$$\Delta$$
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Mirror Polytopes Yield Mirror Spaces



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From Polytopes to Polynomials

• Standard basis vectors in $N \leftrightarrow$ variables z_i

 $(1, 0, \dots, 0) \leftrightarrow z_1$ $(0, 1, \dots, 0) \leftrightarrow z_2$ \dots $(0, 0, \dots, 1) \leftrightarrow z_n$

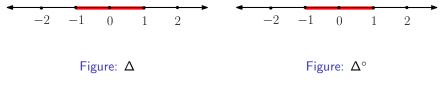
• Lattice points in $\Delta^{\circ} \leftrightarrow$ monomials defined on $(\mathbb{C}^*)^n$

$$(m_1,\ldots,m_k) \leftrightarrow z_1^{(1,0,\ldots,0)\cdot(m_1,\ldots,m_k)} z_2^{(0,1,\ldots,0)\cdot(m_1,\ldots,m_k)} \cdots z_k^{(0,0,\ldots,1)\cdot(m_1,\ldots,m_k)}$$

• $\Delta^{\circ} \leftrightarrow$ Laurent polynomials p_{α} defined on $(\mathbb{C}^*)^n$

Example

The One-Dimensional Reflexive Polytope



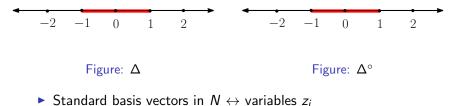
Standard basis vectors in N ↔ variables z_i

 $(1) \leftrightarrow z_1$

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Example

The One-Dimensional Reflexive Polytope



 $(1) \leftrightarrow z_1$

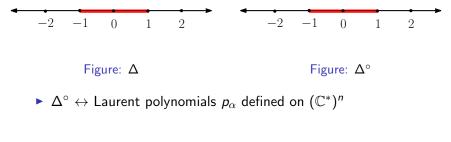
• Lattice points in $\Delta^{\circ} \leftrightarrow$ monomials defined on $(\mathbb{C}^*)^n$

$$(-1) \leftrightarrow z_1^{(1)\cdot(-1)} = z_1^{-1}$$

 $(0) \leftrightarrow z_1^{(1)\cdot(0)} = 1$
 $(1) \leftrightarrow z_1^{(1)\cdot(1)} = z_1$

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Example Continued



$$\Delta^{\circ} \leftrightarrow p_{\alpha} = \alpha_{(-1)} z_1^{-1} + \alpha_{(0)} + \alpha_{(1)} z_1^{1}$$

Each choice of parameters $(\alpha_{(-1)}, \alpha_{(0)}, \alpha_{(1)})$ defines a Laurent polynomial.

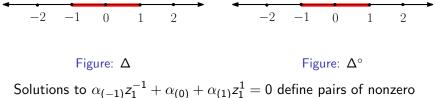
From Polynomials to Spaces

The solutions to the Laurent polynomials p_{α} describe geometric spaces.

From Polynomials to Spaces

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Example: One Dimensional Polytope



Solutions to $\alpha_{(-1)}z_1^{-1} + \alpha_{(0)} + \alpha_{(1)}z_1^1 = 0$ define pairs of nonzero points in the complex plane.

•
$$-z_1^{-1} + z_1 = 0$$

 $z_1 = \pm 1$
• $z_1^{-1} + z_1 = 0$
 $z_1 = \pm i$

Example: Two-Dimensional Polytopes



$$\alpha_{(-1,2)}z_1^{-1}z_2^2 + \dots + \alpha_{(2,-1)}z_1^2z_2^{-1} = 0$$

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Example: Two-Dimensional Polytopes

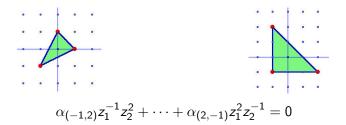


Figure: Real part of a curve

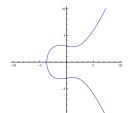
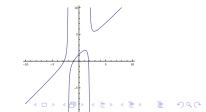


Figure: Another real curve



Example: Four-Dimensional Polytopes

Let Δ be the four-dimensional polytope with vertices (1,0,0,0), (0,1,0,0), (0,0,1,0), (0,0,0,1), and (-1,-1,-1,-1).

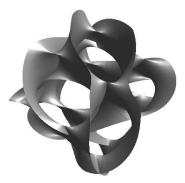


Figure: Slice of a Calabi-Yau threefold

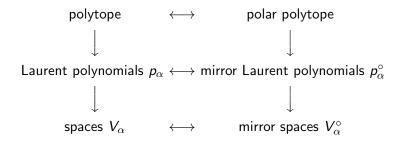
Compactifying

Our Laurent polynomials p_{α} define spaces which are not compact: $||z_i||$ can be infinitely large. We can solve this problem by adding in some "points at infinity" using a standard procedure from algebraic geometry.

The resulting compact spaces V_{α} are Calabi-Yau varieties of dimension d = k - 1.

- When k = 2, for generic choice of α, the V_α are elliptic curves.
- When k = 4, for generic choice of α, the V_α are smooth 3-dimensional Calabi-Yau manifolds.

Mirror Symmetry



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Counting Complex Moduli

The possible deformations of complex structure of V_{α} form a complex vector space of dimension $h^{d-1,1}(V_{\alpha})$. For $k \ge 4$,

$$h^{d-1,1}(V_lpha) = \ell(\Delta^\circ) - k - 1 - \sum_{\mathsf{\Gamma}^\circ} \ell^*(\mathsf{\Gamma}^\circ) + \sum_{\Theta^\circ} \ell^*(\Theta^\circ) \ell^*(\hat{\Theta}^\circ)$$

- $\ell() =$ number of lattice points
- ▶ l^{*}() = number of lattice points in the relative interior of a polytope or face

- The Γ° are codimension 1 faces of Δ°
- The Θ° are codimension 2 faces of Θ°
- $\hat{\Theta}^{\circ}$ is the face of Δ dual to Θ°

Counting Kähler Moduli

For
$$k \ge 4$$
,

$$h^{1,1}(V_{lpha}) = \ell(\Delta) - k - 1 - \sum_{\Gamma} \ell^*(\Gamma) + \sum_{\Theta} \ell^*(\Theta) \ell^*(\hat{\Theta})$$

▶ l^{*}() = number of lattice points in the relative interior of a polytope or face

- The Γ are codimension 1 faces of Δ
- The Θ are codimension 2 faces of Θ
- $\hat{\Theta}$ is the face of Δ dual to Θ

Comparing V and V°

For $k \geq 4$,

$$h^{1,1}(V_{lpha}) = \ell(\Delta) - k - 1 - \sum_{\Gamma} \ell^*(\Gamma) + \sum_{\Theta} \ell^*(\Theta) \ell^*(\hat{\Theta})$$

 $h^{d-1,1}(V_{lpha}) = \ell(\Delta^\circ) - k - 1 - \sum_{\Gamma^\circ} \ell^*(\Gamma^\circ) + \sum_{\Theta^\circ} \ell^*(\Theta^\circ) \ell^*(\hat{\Theta}^\circ)$

Comparing V and V°

For $k \geq 4$,

$$h^{1,1}(V_{\alpha}) = \ell(\Delta) - k - 1 - \sum_{\Gamma} \ell^{*}(\Gamma) + \sum_{\Theta} \ell^{*}(\Theta)\ell^{*}(\hat{\Theta})$$
$$h^{d-1,1}(V_{\alpha}) = \ell(\Delta^{\circ}) - k - 1 - \sum_{\Gamma^{\circ}} \ell^{*}(\Gamma^{\circ}) + \sum_{\Theta^{\circ}} \ell^{*}(\Theta^{\circ})\ell^{*}(\hat{\Theta}^{\circ})$$

$$h^{1,1}(V_{\alpha}^{\circ}) = \ell(\Delta^{\circ}) - k - 1 - \sum_{\Gamma^{\circ}} \ell^{*}(\Gamma^{\circ}) + \sum_{\Theta^{\circ}} \ell^{*}(\Theta^{\circ})\ell^{*}(\hat{\Theta}^{\circ})$$
$$h^{d-1,1}(V_{\alpha}^{\circ}) = \ell(\Delta) - k - 1 - \sum_{\Gamma} \ell^{*}(\Gamma) + \sum_{\Theta} \ell^{*}(\Theta)\ell^{*}(\hat{\Theta})$$

Mirror Symmetry from Mirror Polytopes

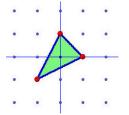
We have mirror families of Calabi-Yau varieties V_{α} and V_{α}° of dimension d = k - 1.

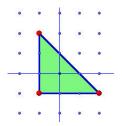
$$h^{1,1}(V_{lpha}) = h^{d-1,1}(V_{lpha}^{\circ})$$

 $h^{d-1,1}(V_{lpha}) = h^{1,1}(V_{lpha}^{\circ})$

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An Example

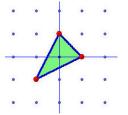


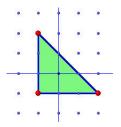


Four-dimensional analogue:

- ► Δ has vertices (1,0,0,0), (0,1,0,0), (0,0,1,0), (0,0,0,1), and (-1,-1,-1,-1).
- ► Δ° has vertices (-1, -1, -1, -1), (4, -1, -1, -1), (-1, 4, -1, -1), (-1, -1, 4, -1), and (-1, -1, -1, 4).

An Example





Four-dimensional analogue:

- ► Δ has vertices (1,0,0,0), (0,1,0,0), (0,0,1,0), (0,0,0,1), and (-1,-1,-1,-1).
- Δ° has vertices (-1, -1, -1, -1), (4, -1, -1, -1), (-1, 4, -1, -1), (-1, -1, 4, -1), and (-1, -1, -1, 4).

$$\begin{split} h^{1,1}(V_{\alpha}) &= \ell(\Delta) - n - 1 - \sum_{\Gamma} \ell^*(\Gamma) + \sum_{\Theta} \ell^*(\Theta) \ell^*(\hat{\Theta}) \\ &= 6 - 4 - 1 - 0 - 0 = 1. \end{split}$$

Example (Continued)

• Δ has vertices (1,0,0,0), (0,1,0,0), (0,0,1,0), (0,0,0,1), and (-1,-1,-1,-1).

•
$$\Delta^{\circ}$$
 has vertices $(-1, -1, -1, -1)$, $(4, -1, -1, -1)$, $(-1, 4, -1, -1)$, $(-1, -1, 4, -1)$, and $(-1, -1, -1, 4)$.

$$h^{1,1}(V_\alpha)=1$$

$$\begin{split} h^{3-1,1}(V_{\alpha}) &= \ell(\Delta^{\circ}) - n - 1 - \sum_{\Gamma^{\circ}} \ell^{*}(\Gamma^{\circ}) + \sum_{\Theta^{\circ}} \ell^{*}(\Theta^{\circ})\ell^{*}(\hat{\Theta}^{\circ}) \\ &= 126 - 4 - 1 - 20 - 0 = 101. \end{split}$$

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The Hodge Diamond

Calabi-Yau Threefolds

The Hodge Diamond

Calabi-Yau Threefolds

