Machine learning BPS spectra and the gap conjecture

Sergei Gukov^{1,2,*} and Rak-Kyeong Seong^{3,4,†}

¹Dublin Institute for Advanced Studies, 10 Burlington Road, Dublin, Ireland ²Richard N. Merkin Center for Pure and Applied Mathematics, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California 91125, USA ³Department of Mathematical Sciences, Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology, 50 UNIST-gil, Ulsan 44919, South Korea ⁴Department of Physics, Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology, 50 UNIST-gil, Ulsan 44919, South Korea

(Received 17 May 2024; accepted 18 July 2024; published 16 August 2024)

We explore statistical properties of Bogomol'nyi-Prasad-Sommerfield q-series for $3d \mathcal{N} = 2$ strongly coupled supersymmetric theories that correspond to a particular family of three-manifolds Y. We discover that gaps between exponents in the q-series are statistically more significant at the beginning of the q-series compared to gaps that appear in higher powers of q. Our observations are obtained by calculating saliencies of q-series features used as input data for principal component analysis, which is a standard example of an explainable machine learning technique that allows for a direct calculation and a better analysis of feature saliencies.

DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevD.110.046016

I. INTRODUCTION

The study of quantum systems and their spectra of quantum states is not only fundamental, but also reveals the underlying quantum structure of space-time and matter. One of the fundamental principles in studying these quantum systems is the relationship between the spectra and the geometry/topology of the space-time in which these quantum systems are defined. This relationship is particularly pronounced in the study of black hole physics and other gravitational systems, where guiding principles such as the distance conjecture [1,2] and the works on black hole microstate counting [3] provide profound insights into the quantum architecture of the Universe.

The distance conjecture, a pivotal tool in understanding the properties of the string landscape, suggests that infinite distances in moduli spaces of effective quantum field theories are associated to infinite towers of light states. This property provides an argument for a spectral signature of candidate effective field theories in the string landscape that break down over infinite distances in the moduli space of these theories. The idea that certain quantum states in the

^{*}Contact author: gukov@math.caltech.edu [†]Contact author: seong@unist.ac.kr spectrum of a theory become critical and cannot be ignored is in line with the importance of counting black hole microstates in consistent theories of quantum gravity. The work by Strominger and Vafa [3], which connects the counting of black hole microstates to degeneracies in string theory, provides a microscopic explanation of the Beckenstein-Hawking entropy formula. By doing so this seminal work not only illustrates how the spectrum of black hole microstates can be used to explain macroscopic phenomena like black hole entropy, but also underlines the importance of quantum states and why they become critical.

These ideas have their analogs in nongravitational quantum systems, such as strongly coupled quantum field theories (QFTs). Their spectra often can be conveniently encoded in a *q*-series of the form

$$\sum_{n} q^{E_n} = q^{\Delta}(c_0 + c_1 q + c_2 q^2 + \cdots), \qquad (1.1)$$

where E_n plays the role of energy and Δ is the "ground state energy." For example, the spectrum of a familiar harmonic oscillator would have the *q*-series $q^{1/2}(1 + q + q^2 + \cdots)$, whereas a free chiral boson in 1 + 1 dimensions would correspond to $\frac{1}{\eta(q)}$. The latter can be also understood as the elliptic genus of 2*d* supersymmetric QFTs, and higherdimensional analogs of the elliptic genus—supersymmetric indices of various kinds—similarly encode useful information about the spectra [Bogomol'nyi-Prasad-Sommerfield (BPS) states] in supersymmetric QFTs of dimension d > 2.

Published by the American Physical Society under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license. Further distribution of this work must maintain attribution to the author(s) and the published article's title, journal citation, and DOI. Funded by SCOAP³.

In this paper we focus on a 3d variant of the elliptic genus, introduced in [4], which associates a q-series of the form (1.1) to a 3d $\mathcal{N} = 2$ supersymmetric QFT with 2d (0, 2) boundary condition. A large class of strongly coupled 3d $\mathcal{N} = 2$ supersymmetric QFTs—whose Lagrangian description is not known at present—comes from compactifying 6d (2, 0) theories on three-manifolds Y. In particular, the complete description of the BPS spectrum is not known for generic Y. Yet, for a particular class of 2d boundary conditions labeled by Spin^c structures on Y, the 2d-3d analog of the elliptic genus can be computed for a generic Y. The resulting q-series, sometimes called Gukov-Pei-Putrov-Vafa invariants [5,6], are denoted by $\hat{Z}_b(q; Y)$, where b labels the choice of a Spin^c structure on Y.

In this work, we study BPS state counting captured by the q-series $\hat{Z}_b(q; Y)$ of a particular class of threemanifolds Y, which can be defined in terms of a framed graph known as the plumbing graph Γ of Y. Our aim is to study the underlying structure of the BPS invariants and, among other things, to understand how the BPS spectrum depends on the structure of the framing coefficients, for a fixed plumbing graph Γ . In our analysis we use explainable machine learning techniques that detect the underlying structure of the q-series invariants. By doing so, we discover a fascinating property of the BPS q-series that we conjecture to be valid for any collection of plumbed three-manifolds Y: gaps between consecutive q-series exponents at the beginning of the series are statistically more significant than exponent gaps that follow.

This observation is somewhat surprising in view of a recent duality, expected to hold for general Γ , which relates BPS spectra (*Q* cohomology) of combined 2*d*-3*d* systems described above and chiral logarithmic conformal field theories (CFTs) in two dimensions [7,8]. Indeed, according to Cardy [9], the coefficients c_n in (1.1) should grow as

$$a_n \sim \exp 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{1}{6}c_{\text{eff}}n}$$
 (1.2)

for some constant c_{eff} , called the effective central charge. Furthermore, since the effective central charge is the basic characteristic of a 2*d* CFT, one might expect the large-*n* behavior of the terms in the *q*-series (1.1) to play a more dominant role in characterizing the theory. Curiously, our finding is essentially the opposite: it is the lower-*n* terms in the *q*-series/BPS spectrum that capture most information about the quantum system at hand.

By representing the "gaps" between consecutive q-series exponents as components of a finite dimensional vector, we interpret a collection of q-series for different threemanifolds Y as a collection of such vectors. With this data representation, we then employ dimensional reduction on these vectors via the principal component analysis (PCA) and take a closer look at the resulting covariance matrix and its eigenvalues and eigenvectors, which shed light on the statistical significance of each gap in the *q*-series exponents. This application of a standard explainable machine learning technique allows us to identify statistically more significant exponent gaps in BPS *q*-series associated to a collection of three-manifolds *Y*. As part of the wider study of quantum systems and their spectra of quantum states, our work shows which exponent gaps in the BPS *q*-series are statistically more significant than others in the BPS spectra of $3d \mathcal{N} = 2$ theories.

Our work also illustrates effectively how techniques from explainable machine learning can be used in order to uncover hidden structures in the spectra of states in quantum systems. Their correspondence to enumerative invariants of the geometry and topology of the spaces in which these quantum systems are defined makes the application of explainable machine learning techniques extremely fruitful, as shown by our work. We emphasize that our application of machine learning techniques in uncovering hidden structures in the BPS spectra of $3d \mathcal{N} = 2$ supersymmetric theories associated to plumbed three-manifolds Y is one of many applications in the quest for hidden structures in quantum systems [10–25].

II. BACKGROUND

We consider in this work plumbed three-manifolds Y characterized by a finite decorated graph with no loops. The vertices v of the tree are labeled by integers a_v , which are the *framing* numbers of the graph. We call such a finite framed graph associated to Y the *plumbing graph* Γ .

The three-manifold Y given by Γ is the boundary of a four-manifold X, which is also determined by Γ . The vertices $V(\Gamma)$ of Γ correspond to disk bundles over S^2 and the edges $E(\Gamma)$ connecting the vertices indicate which disk bundles are glued together to form the four-manifold X. Accordingly, the adjacency information of the plumbing tree Γ is an essential ingredient for determining the boundary three-manifold Y and its associated four-manifold X. In addition to the adjacency information, the framing on vertices determines how the common boundary on the disk bundles, in this case $\partial D^2 \simeq S^1$, is glued together. Given that the gluing depends on a relative rotation specified by a winding number, we take the framings on vertices of the plumbing graph connected by an edge as the relative winding number of the corresponding common boundary between two associated glued disk bundles over S^2 .

Following [5,6], we define the *plumbing matrix* M_{vw} that describes the adjacency of vertices in Γ along with framing data,

$$M_{vw} = \begin{cases} a_v & \text{if } v = w \\ 1 & \text{if } (v, w) \in E(\Gamma) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$
(2.1)

where $E(\Gamma)$ denotes the set of edges in Γ . We note that plumbing graphs that are related to each other by *Kirby-Neumann moves* [26,27] correspond to the same boundary three-manifold Y. These moves are illustrated in Fig. 1.

By fixing a plumbing tree Γ with |V| vertices and an assigned framing on the vertices given by $\mathbf{m} \in \mathbb{Z}^{|V|}$, we can calculate a generating function of invariants on the three-manifold *Y* known as the *q*-series $\hat{Z}_b(q)$ [5,6]. These invariants are precisely the BPS indices (or, rather, half-indices) associated to the 3*d* $\mathcal{N} = 2$ theory obtained from compactifying a 6*d* (2, 0) theory on the three-manifold *Y*.

The *q*-series is given by

$$\hat{Z}_{b}(q) = (-1)^{\pi(M)} q^{\frac{-3\sigma(M) - \text{Tr}(M)}{4}} \\ \cdot \text{v.p.} \oint_{|z_{v}|=1} \prod_{v \in V(\Gamma)} \frac{dz_{v}}{2\pi i z_{v}} \left(z_{v} - \frac{1}{z_{v}}\right)^{2 - \deg(v)} \\ \cdot \Theta_{b}^{-M}(q, \vec{z}),$$
(2.2)

where

$$\Theta_b^{-M}(q,\vec{z}) = \sum_{\vec{l} \in 2M\mathbb{Z}^{|\mathcal{V}|} + b} q^{-\frac{(\vec{l},M^{-1}\vec{l})}{4}} \prod_{v \in V(\Gamma)} z_v^{l_v}.$$
 (2.3)

Above, v.p. refers to the principal value of the integral in (2.2), which is given by taking the average over the contributions from the integrals over the circles $|z_v| = 1 + \epsilon$ and $|z_v| = 1 - \epsilon$ for small $\epsilon > 0$. We also have the number of positive eigenvalues for plumbing matrix *M* denoted by $\pi(M)$ as well as the signature of *M* given by $\sigma(M)$.

For every plumbed three-manifold Y, a choice of a Spin^c structure can be described by a characteristic vector b,

$$b \in (2\mathbb{Z}^{|V|} + \mathbf{m})/2M\mathbb{Z}^{|V|} \simeq \operatorname{Spin}^{c}(Y),$$
 (2.4)

where *M* is the plumbing matrix and $\mathbf{m} \in \mathbb{Z}^s$ is the framing vector on Γ . In the expression for the *q*-series in (2.2), *b* is precisely the choice of a Spin^{*c*} structure on *Y*.

In general, the q-series for a three-manifold Y characterized by a framed plumbing graph Γ takes the form

$$\hat{Z}_b(q) = q^{\Delta_b} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n q^n, \qquad (2.5)$$

where $\Delta_b \in \mathbb{Q}$ plays the role of the "ground state energy" or, in connection with 2*d* logarithmic CFTs (vertex algebras), it can also be thought of as the *conformal weight*.

In this work, we focus on the q-series as an invariant of the three-manifold Y equipped with a Spin^c structure b. For simplicity, we restrict our study to a subset of threemanifolds which have the following additional constraints imposed on them. (QFTs associated to more general



FIG. 1. Plumbing graphs related by Neumann moves. These plumbing graphs related by these moves result in homeomorphic three-manifolds.

three-manifolds and the structure of their BPS spectra will appear in a future work.)

A. A set of three-manifolds Y

We restrict the plumbing graph to be the graph shown in Fig. 2 with two vertices of degree 3. The total number of vertices is |V| = 6. Given that the number N_b of distinct choices for the Spin^c structure is given by

$$N_b = |\det M|, \tag{2.6}$$

for simplicity we study integral homology spheres, i.e., threemanifolds whose plumbing presentation has det M = 1, so that there is only one Spin^c structure:

$$b = [0, \dots, 0] \in \mathbb{Z}^{|V|}.$$
(2.7)

We further restrict the set of possible three-manifolds Y and their corresponding q-series by imposing the condition that the eigenvalues of the plumbing matrix M are all negative.

Considering these constraints, we can compute the possible framings **m** on the plumbing graph Γ in Fig. 2 such that Γ remains irreducible under Kirby-Neumann moves. In other words, each such Γ cannot be reduced to a simpler graph, with only one trivalent vertex. Table I summarizes a classification of distinct framings **m** on Γ up to the maximum value m_v^{max} for m_v for any vertex $v \in V(\Gamma)$. Curiously, before we mod out by the symmetries—relabeling of the vertices—the number of possibilities that meet our constraints is huge: 7,529,536 for $m_v^{\text{max}} = 15$ and



FIG. 2. "H-shaped" plumbing graph with framing $\mathbf{m} = (a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5, a_6)$.

TABLE I. Framings $\mathbf{m} = [a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5, a_6]$ for the "H-shaped" plumbing graph with a unique Spin^c structure b = [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]. The table lists only framings that lead to irreducible framed plumbing graphs Γ and a plumbing matrix M with only negative eigenvalues. In the classification, the framing m_v on a given vertex $v \in V(\Gamma)$ is limited by $m_v \leq m_v^{\text{max}}$, and the number of framings satisfying the constraints is given by $N_{\mathbf{m}}(m_v^{\text{max}})$ for a bound m_v^{max} .

m_v^{\max}	$N_{\mathbf{m}}(m_v^{\max})$	New $\mathbf{m} = (a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5, a_6)$
1	0	
2	0	
3	0	
4	1	(1, 3, 3, 4, 3, 4)
5	2	(1, 3, 3, 5, 2, 3)
6	2	
7	5	(1, 2, 5, 7, 3, 7), (1, 4, 2, 5, 2, 7),
		(1, 7, 2, 3, 2, 3)
8	5	
9	5	
10	6	(1, 2, 4, 9, 3, 10)
11	8	(1, 3, 2, 9, 3, 11), (1, 3, 3, 4, 2, 11)
12	8	
13	8	
14	8	
15	8	
16	11	(1, 2, 3, 8, 11, 16), (1, 2, 3, 11, 5, 16),
		(1, 2, 5, 16, 2, 7)
17	12	(1, 2, 12, 17, 2, 3)
18	13	(1, 3, 2, 7, 7, 18)
19	15	(1, 2, 4, 17, 2, 19), (1, 3, 2, 11, 2, 19)
20	15	
21	16	(1, 2, 5, 9, 2, 21)
22	16	
23	17	(1, 2, 4, 23, 3, 4)
24	17	
25	18	(1, 2, 4, 25, 2, 11)
26	19	(1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 26)
27	20	(1, 3, 2, 27, 2, 3)
28	20	
29	20	
30	20	

47,045,881 for $m_v^{\text{max}} = 20$. However, as Table I shows, this number is considerably reduced when one mods out by the symmetries.

III. MACHINE LEARNING BPS q-SERIES

A. The *q*-series and vector spaces

The q-series in the general form shown in (2.5) can be fully expanded to take the following form:

$$\hat{Z}_b(q) = h_0 q^{\Delta_b + s_0} + h_1 q^{\Delta_b + s_1} + h_2 q^{\Delta_b + s_2} + \cdots, \qquad (3.1)$$

where $h_i \neq 0$ are the nonzero coefficients of the expansions and $s_i \ge 0$ are the integer exponent shifts with $s_0 = 0$ and $s_i < s_{i+1}$ for all *i*. When we truncate the expansion up to a maximum order $q^{\Delta_b + s_D}$, the coefficients h_i can be used to define a *vector of invariants* of the following form:

$$\mathbf{h} = [h_0, h_1, \dots, h_D] \in \mathbb{Q}^{D+1}.$$
 (3.2)

We can also define a *q*-exponent vector as

$$\mathbf{e} = [\Delta_b, \Delta_b + s_1, \dots, \Delta_b + s_D] \in \mathbb{Q}^{D+1}.$$
 (3.3)

Here, we can relabel the components of the *q*-exponent vector as $e_i = \Delta_b + s_i \in \mathbb{Q}$.

We note that the first component of the (D + 1)dimensional *q*-exponent vector is always the conformal weight $\Delta_b \in \mathbb{Q}$. Having this in mind, we introduce a *normalized q-exponent vector* for a *q*-series expanded to order $q^{\Delta_b+m_D}$ as follows:

$$\mathbf{e}' = \frac{1}{\Delta_b} \mathbf{e} = \left[1, 1 + \frac{s_1}{\Delta_b}, \dots, 1 + \frac{s_D}{\Delta_b}\right].$$
(3.4)

We can also introduce a vector whose components measure the gap between consecutive exponents of the q-series. We measure the gap as the ratio between consecutive exponents of the q-series, and define the following q-exponent gap vector,

$$\mathbf{r} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{e_1}{e_0}, \frac{e_2}{e_1}, \dots, \frac{e_D}{e_{D-1}} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{s_1}{\Delta_b}, \frac{\Delta_b + s_2}{\Delta_b + s_1}, \dots, \frac{\Delta_b + s_D}{\Delta_b + s_{D-1}} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{Q}^D, \quad (3.5)$$

where each component is given by $r_i = \frac{e_i}{e_{i-1}}$. This data representation is designed to capture the rate of change of the *q*-series exponents (hence the name " r_i "). We note here that there are other ways to represent the gaps in the *q*-series, which we plan to explore in future work. We can normalize the *q*-exponent gap vector by dividing every vector component by the first component $\frac{e_1}{e_0} = 1 + \frac{s_1}{\Delta_b}$. This ensures that all *normalized q-exponent gap vectors* have 1 as their first component,

$$\mathbf{r}' = \frac{e_0}{e_1}\mathbf{r} = \left[1, \frac{e_0e_2}{e_1^2}, \frac{e_0e_3}{e_1e_2}, \dots, \frac{e_0e_D}{e_1e_{D-1}}\right]$$
(3.6)

and allows us to compare sparse spectra with dense spectra. Put differently, the normalization indicated with a prime normalized all BPS spectra to the same "scale" allowing us to compare many different QFTs focusing on the *relative* features of BPS spectra. This will be useful in what follows, allowing us to explore which data representation shows a stronger PCA signal.

In this work, we propose the use of principal component analysis (PCA) to explore whether these vector representations of the *q*-series $\hat{Z}_b(q)$ capture any hidden structure of the BPS invariants. In particular, we want to answer the following questions with the proposed use of PCA:

- (i) Which vector representation encapsulates the most information about the *q*-series $\hat{Z}_b(q)$?
- (ii) Which components of the vector representation statistically contribute most to the principal components?
- (iii) What do the principal components tell us about relationships between different *q*-series $\hat{Z}_b(q)$ and the corresponding three-manifolds *Y*?

In order to answer these questions, let us first quickly review principal component analysis (PCA) in the context of vector representations for the *q*-series $\hat{Z}_b(q)$.

B. Principal component analysis (PCA)

The aim of this work is to study the underlying structure of invariants encapsulated in the *q*-series of plumbed threemanifolds. As discussed above, each *q*-series $\hat{Z}_b(q)$ can be associated with a vector representation $\mathbf{x}(\Gamma, \mathbf{m}, b) \in \mathbb{R}^d$. For the framings identified in Table I, we have in total N = 20 such *q*-series vectors $\mathbf{x}(\Gamma, \mathbf{m}, b)$ living in a *d*-dimensional vector space. In order to study the hidden topological and geometric structures encapsulated by these vectors $\mathbf{x}(\Gamma, \mathbf{m}, b)$, we make use of an unsupervised machine learning technique known as the *principal component analysis (PCA)* [28,29]. Let us give here a brief overview of our proposed use of PCA for $\mathbf{x}(\Gamma, \mathbf{m}, b) \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

Given the set of *N q*-series vectors $\{\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_N\}$, we can project the space \mathbb{R}^d to a lower dimensional space $U = \mathbb{R}^k \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ with k < d. The projected vectors are then of the form

$$\mathbf{z}_a = P_{\pi} \mathbf{x}_a = (z_{a1}, \dots z_{ak}) \in U, \tag{3.7}$$

where a = 1, ..., N. The projection matrix from \mathbb{R}^d to U takes the form $P_{\pi} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^{\top}$, where $\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{b}_1, ..., \mathbf{b}_k) \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$ is the matrix of orthonormal basis vectors \mathbf{b}_i for U with i = 1, ..., k.

Under PCA, we want to find not just any subspace U but an optimal subspace $\hat{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ where statistically the maximum variance is achieved for the projected vectors \mathbf{z}_a . In other words, this means that we need to find the optimal subspace \hat{U} with basis vectors $\mathbf{b}_1, ..., \mathbf{b}_k$ such that when the original *q*-series vectors $\mathbf{x}_a \in \mathbb{R}^d$ are projected to \hat{U} , they have a maximized variance along $\mathbf{b}_1, ..., \mathbf{b}_k$. Here we note that the variance is a measure of the amount of vector component information that is preserved under the projection from \mathbb{R}^d to U.

Let us assume that the *q*-series vector $\mathbf{x}_a \in \mathbb{R}^d$ has already been optimally projected along the first r-1 < kbasis vectors $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_{r-1}$ of \hat{U} . Given that the basis of \hat{U} is orthonormal, the *r*th coordinate z_{ar} along \mathbf{b}_r can be expressed as

$$z_{ar} = \mathbf{b}_r^\top \mathbf{x}_a. \tag{3.8}$$

We can calculate the variance of z_{ar} along \mathbf{b}_r over all a as follows:

$$V(z_r) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{a=1}^{N} z_{ar}^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{a=1}^{N} (\mathbf{b}_r^{\top} \mathbf{x}_a)^2 = \mathbf{b}_r^{\top} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{b}_r, \quad (3.9)$$

where **S** is the *q*-series covariance matrix over the original set of *q*-series vectors $\{\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_N\}$ in \mathbb{R}^d . Here, we assume that the mean of z_{ar} is removed during the standardization process of the input data. The *q*-series covariance matrix in *d* dimensions is defined as

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{a=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_a \mathbf{x}_a^{\top} = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^{\top}, \qquad (3.10)$$

where $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_N)$ is a $d \times N$ matrix and \mathbf{S} is a $d \times d$ matrix.

Using the q-series covariance matrix, the optimization problem of finding \hat{U} along \mathbf{b}_r can be summarized by the Lagrangian function,

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{b}_r, \lambda) = \mathbf{b}_r^\top \mathbf{S} \mathbf{b}_r + \lambda_r (1 - \mathbf{b}_r^\top \mathbf{b}_r), \qquad (3.11)$$

where λ is the Lagrange multiplier for the constraint that the basis vectors of \hat{U} are orthonormal, $\mathbf{b}_r^{\top} \mathbf{b}_r = 1$. Solving this constrained optimization problem leads to the following eigenvalue equation:

$$\mathbf{S}\mathbf{b}_r = \lambda_r \mathbf{b}_r, \qquad (3.12)$$

where λ_r is now the eigenvalue of the *q*-series covariance matrix **S** with the corresponding eigenvector **b**_r. The variance $V(z_r)$ of vector components along **b**_r in \hat{U} is then given by the eigenvalue λ_r .

Overall, this implies that in order to obtain the optimal *k*-dimensional feature subspace \hat{U} from the collection of *N q*-series vectors $\{\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_N\}$ in \mathbb{R}^d , we have to calculate the *k* largest eigenvalues λ_i and the corresponding eigenvectors \mathbf{b}_i of the *q*-series covariance matrix \mathbf{S} in order to obtain \hat{U} . We note here that if N < d, meaning the number of *q*-series vectors is smaller than the vector dimension itself, then the *q*-series covariance matrix \mathbf{S} will not be full rank. This means the number of nonzero eigenvalues λ_i is at most N - 1.

In [19], the two-dimensional subspace \hat{U} obtained from coamoeba vectors \mathbf{x}_a associated to choices of complex structure moduli in the Calabi-Yau mirror description of the cone over the zeroth Hirzebruch surface F_0 was interpreted as a *phase space* of the corresponding four-dimensional supersymmetric gauge theories related by Seiberg duality. In our study here, we interpret \hat{U} obtained by PCA as a *latent space* of the set of all possible *q*-series and the associated three-manifolds constructed from a specific plumbing graph Γ with a collection of associated framing numbers. We argue in this work that this latent space exhibits interesting features of the three-manifolds corresponding to the H-shaped plumbing graph in Fig. 2 and Spin^c structure b = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0), reminiscent of a QFT phase diagram. In particular, we argue that certain exponent gaps of the BPS *q*-series are statistically more significant than other throughout the three-manifolds studied in this work.

Beyond the latent space itself, we make observations regarding the eigenvectors \mathbf{b}_i corresponding to the largest eigenvalues λ_i in the *q*-series covariance matrix \mathbf{S} and the *q*-series $Z_b(q)$ of the three-manifold itself. Let us summarize the role played by the eigenvectors \mathbf{b}_i in relation to the input vectors $\{\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_N\}$ in the PCA.

C. Meaning of the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of the *q*-series covariance matrix

The eigenvectors \mathbf{b}_i of the *q*-series covariance matrix **S** have *d* components of the form b_{il} , where i = 1, ..., r labels the principal components and l = 1, ..., d labels the eigenvector components. Since we assume that the eigenvectors \mathbf{b}_i are orthonormal, the components have to satisfy

$$\sum_{l=1}^{d} (b_{il})^2 = 1.$$
 (3.13)

Given that the squares of the components sum up to 1, we can interpret them as relative percentage measures,

$$p(b_{il}) = (b_{il})^2 \times 100\%. \tag{3.14}$$

This measures the proportional component contribution of the *l*th component b_{il} of the *q*-series vector towards the *i*th principal component \mathbf{b}_i . The higher the value for $p(b_{il})$, the more relevant becomes the corresponding component in the *q*-series vector for the principal component analysis, storing more information relative to other components of the *q*-series vector about the *q*-series under dimensional reduction.

In addition to the percentage component contribution in (3.14), we can also define the *proportional variance* related to the *i*th principal component as follows:

$$p(\lambda_i) = \frac{\lambda_i}{\sum_{j=1}^d \lambda_j} \times 100\%.$$
(3.15)

Here, the proportional variance $p(\lambda_i)$ measures the proportional importance of the corresponding principal component and the amount of information captured by the

principal component from the set of *q*-series vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_N$.

In the following section, we make use of principal component analysis in order to measure the significance of certain terms in the *q*-series expansion, when they are represented as vectors. By obtaining the proportional variance $p(\lambda_i)$, we can accurately measure whether the *q*-series for the same plumbing graph but different framings exhibit any similarities. These similarities are parametrized by principal components \mathbf{b}_i , where the proportional component contribution $p(b_{il})$ tells us how much each exponent in the *q*-series contributes to a certain principal component \mathbf{b}_i .

IV. RESULTS

For the H-shaped plumbing graph in Fig. 2, we make use of the classification of inequivalent framing numbers in Table I in order to calculate the corresponding *q*-series $\hat{Z}_b(q)$ with Spin^c structure b = [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]. We note here that the same H-shaped plumbing graph was studied extensively in [30]. Tables II and III show the *q*-series expansions with their corresponding framing numbers **m**. Up to a very large permutation symmetry of graph labels, we have N = 20 distinct *q*-series. We expand the *q*-series such that in total the corresponding *q*-exponent vectors **e** from (3.3) are all (D + 1)-dimensional, with D = 28. As a result, the corresponding *q*-exponent gap vectors **r** defined in (3.5) are all 28-dimensional.

Given the vector representations of the q-series in terms of the q-exponent vectors \mathbf{e} , normalized q-exponent vectors \mathbf{e}' , the q-exponent gap vector \mathbf{r} , and the normalized q-exponent gap vector \mathbf{r}' , the resulting principal component analysis of these four vector spaces gives several interesting results.

First of all, for any vector representation, the first principal component covers the vast majority of the variance of the datasets. For the four vector spaces, we obtain

$$p(\lambda_1; \mathbf{e}) = 97.111\%, \qquad p(\lambda_1; \mathbf{e}') = 99.815\%,$$

$$p(\lambda_1; \mathbf{r}) = 71.426\%, \qquad p(\lambda_1; \mathbf{r}') = 92.584\%, \qquad (4.1)$$

as illustrated in Figs. 3(a), 3(d), 3(g), and 3(j), respectively. This shows that the vector spaces formed by the vector representations of the *q*-series are effectively all onedimensional. Only for the *q*-exponent gap vectors \mathbf{r} , we see that more principal components cover the variance of the dataset,

$$p(\lambda_2; \mathbf{r}) = 10.385\%, \qquad p(\lambda_3; \mathbf{r}) = 7.132\%, \quad (4.2)$$

as illustrated in Fig. 3(g). In total, we have N - 1 = 19 nontrivial principal components \mathbf{b}_i with nonzero eigenvalues λ_i since N < D + 1 for the exponent vectors and N < D for the rate of exponent change vectors.

TABLE II. Part 1: the list of the BPS q-series for H-shaped plumbing graphs with a unique Spin^c structure b = [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0], and with framing coefficients **m** up to $a_v^{\text{max}} = 29$. (For part 2 see Table III).

m	$\hat{Z}_b(q)$
(1, 3, 3, 4, 3, 4)	$\begin{array}{c} q^{1/2}(1+q-q^2-q^4-2q^5+q^6-q^7-q^8+q^{10}+q^{11}-q^{12}+q^{13}+2q^{15}+q^{16}-q^{19}+2q^{20}+q^{21}-q^{23}-q^{25}-q^{27}+q^{28}+q^{29}-2q^{30}-q^{32}-q^{33}-q^{34}+q^{35}-q^{39}-2q^{40}+q^{42}+q^{44}+\cdots)\end{array}$
(1, 3, 3, 5, 2, 3)	$\frac{1/2q^{1/2}(3+3q-q^2+2q^3+q^4-2q^6-4q^7+2q^8-2q^9-2q^{10}-3q^{11}+2q^{12}+2q^{13}-6q^{14}-q^{15}-2q^{17}-q^{18}+4q^{21}-2q^{22}-q^{23}-2q^{25}+2q^{26}+4q^{28}-2q^{29}-2q^{31}+2q^{32}+4q^{33}+2q^{34}+\cdots)}{2q^{17}-q^{18}+4q^{21}-2q^{22}-q^{23}-2q^{25}+2q^{26}+4q^{28}-2q^{29}-2q^{31}+2q^{32}+4q^{33}+2q^{34}+\cdots)}$
(1, 2, 5, 7, 3, 7)	$\frac{1}{2q^{5/2}(1+q^2+q^3+2q^4+2q^5-q^6-q^7+2q^9+q^{13}+q^{15}-q^{16}+q^{17}+q^{18}-q^{19}+q^{20}-q^{21}-2q^{22}+q^{24}-q^{25}-q^{26}-2q^{27}-q^{29}-q^{30}-q^{31}+q^{32}-q^{35}+q^{36}-q^{38}-2q^{39}-q^{40}+\cdots)}$
(1, 4, 2, 5, 2, 7)	$\frac{1/2q^{3/2}(1+2q-2q^2+q^3-3q^4+2q^5+q^6-3q^7-q^9+q^{10}-2q^{11}+q^{13}+q^{14}+q^{15}+q^{18}+q^{19}-q^{20}-q^{22}+q^{25}+q^{28}-q^{30}-q^{31}+q^{32}-q^{37}+q^{41}+q^{42}+q^{44}-2q^{45}-q^{47}-q^{56}+\cdots)}{q^{10}+$
(1, 7, 2, 3, 2, 3)	$q^{1/2}(1 - 2q + 2q^3 + q^4 + q^5 - 2q^6 - q^7 - 2q^8 - 2q^9 + q^{10} + q^{12} + 2q^{13} + 3q^{14} - q^{15} + 2q^{16} - 2q^{19} - 2q^{20} - q^{22} - 2q^{23} - q^{24} + q^{26} + 2q^{27} - 2q^{28} + 2q^{29} + q^{30} + 2q^{31} + 2q^{33} - 2q^{34} - q^{35} + \cdots)$
(1, 2, 4, 9, 3, 10)	$\frac{1}{2q^{9/2}(1-q+2q^3-q^6+q^7+q^8-q^{12}+q^{13}-q^{15}-q^{16}+q^{23}-2q^{31}-2q^{32}+q^{45}+2q^{49}-q^{51}+q^{56}-q^{57}+q^{69}+q^{71}+q^{73}-q^{83}-q^{85}-q^{86}-q^{90}-q^{99}-q^{100}+q^{104}+q^{105}-q^{122}+\cdots)}{q^{12}+q^{$
(1, 3, 2, 9, 3, 11)	$\frac{1/2q^{9/2}(1+q+2q^2-q^3+q^4-q^5-2q^6+2q^7-q^8-2q^9-q^{12}-q^{13}-q^{19}-q^{20}+2q^{23}+q^{24}+q^{25}-q^{26}+q^{27}+q^{28}-3q^{30}+q^{31}-q^{34}+q^{35}-q^{36}-2q^{37}-q^{38}-q^{39}-q^{40}+2q^{42}+\cdots)}{q^{10}+q^$
(1, 3, 3, 4, 2, 11)	$-1/2q^{5/2}(1-2q+q^2-q^6-2q^7+q^8+4q^9-q^{10}+q^{12}+q^{13}-2q^{14}-q^{15}-q^{16}+q^{17}+2q^{19}-q^{20}+q^{23}-2q^{24}-q^{25}-q^{27}-2q^{29}+q^{31}-q^{33}+3q^{34}+2q^{35}-q^{36}+q^{40}-q^{41}-q^{42}+\cdots)$
(1, 2, 3, 8, 11, 16)	$\frac{1/2q^{13/2}(2+q^3+q^{10}-q^{12}-2q^{13}-q^{14}-q^{16}-q^{19}-q^{22}-q^{29}+q^{37}-2q^{39}+q^{45}+q^{47}+2q^{52}+q^{54}+q^{57}-q^{60}+q^{64}+q^{65}+q^{67}-q^{68}+q^{69}+q^{71}-q^{72}+q^{75}+q^{79}+q^{81}-q^{83}+\cdots)}{q^{57}-q^{60}+q^{64}+q^{65}+q^{67}-q^{68}+q^{69}+q^{71}-q^{72}+q^{75}+q^{79}+q^{81}-q^{83}+\cdots)}$
(1, 2, 3, 11, 5, 16)	$\frac{1/2q^{13/2}(1+q^3-q^4+2q^6-2q^{11}+q^{20}-q^{21}+q^{23}-2q^{25}-q^{26}-q^{27}-q^{28}+2q^{31}-q^{32}-q^{34}-q^{40}+q^{42}+q^{45}+q^{50}-q^{52}+q^{53}+q^{55}+q^{57}+q^{59}-q^{61}+q^{62}-q^{74}-q^{77}-2q^{78}+\cdots)}{q^{42}+q^{45}+q^{50}-q^{52}+q^{53}+q^{55}+q^{57}+q^{59}-q^{61}+q^{62}-q^{74}-q^{77}-2q^{78}+\cdots)}$

TABLE III. Part 2: the list of the BPS q-series for H-shaped plumbing graphs with a unique Spin^c structure b = [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0], and with framing coefficients **m** up to $a_v^{\text{max}} = 29$. (For part 1 see Table II).

m	$\hat{Z}_b(q)$
(1, 2, 5, 16, 2, 7)	$\frac{-1/2q^{11/2}(1-q+q^2+q^3-q^4+2q^6+2q^7-q^{12}-q^{13}+q^{15}-2q^{16}-2q^{18}-q^{24}-2q^{25}-2q^{27}+2q^{33}+q^{36}+q^{36}-q^{37}-q^{38}+2q^{40}-q^{43}-q^{45}+q^{46}-q^{48}-q^{49}-q^{55}+2q^{56}+q^{61}-2q^{63}-q^{64}+\cdots)}{q^{16}-q^{$
(1, 2, 12, 17, 2, 3)	$-\frac{1}{2q^{37}-3q^{42}-q^{44}-q^{46}-q^{47}+3q^{49}-2q^{21}+q^{24}+q^{26}-q^{27}+q^{29}-2q^{32}+q^{34}+2q^{35}+q^{36}-2q^{37}-3q^{42}-q^{44}-q^{46}-q^{47}+3q^{49}-q^{54}-3q^{56}+q^{59}+q^{61}-q^{65}+q^{66}-2q^{67}+q^{68}+\cdots)$
(1, 3, 2, 7, 7, 18)	$\frac{1/2q^{13/2}(2-2q^5-q^7-q^9+q^{10}+q^{13}-2q^{15}+q^{16}+q^{18}-q^{19}-q^{22}+2q^{25}+q^{36}+q^{38}+q^{40}-q^{41}+q^{43}-q^{44}-q^{45}-q^{46}-q^{52}-q^{54}+q^{55}+q^{56}-q^{59}+q^{60}+2q^{63}+q^{65}-q^{67}-q^{69}+\cdots)}{q^{69}+q^{69}$
(1, 2, 4, 17, 2, 19)	$-1/2q^{25/2}(1-q^5+q^6-q^8-q^{11}+q^{12}-2q^{14}+q^{18}+q^{21}-q^{22}-q^{26}-q^{27}+3q^{29}-q^{36}+2q^{39}-q^{40}+q^{44}+q^{47}+q^{49}+q^{50}-q^{51}+q^{53}+q^{54}+q^{56}-2q^{57}-q^{60}-q^{62}-q^{63}-2q^{69}+q^{74}+\cdots)$
(1, 3, 2, 11, 2, 19)	$-1/2q^{11/2}(1-q^2-q^5+2q^{11}-q^{12}+q^{13}-q^{16}-q^{18}+q^{21}-q^{23}+3q^{26}-q^{27}+q^{28}-q^{29}+q^{30}-q^{35}-q^{39}-q^{39}-q^{41}-q^{43}+q^{44}-q^{46}+q^{51}-q^{53}-q^{56}+q^{57}-q^{60}+2q^{62}+q^{63}-q^{66}+q^{67}+q^{68}+\cdots)$
(1, 2, 5, 9, 2, 21)	$\frac{1}{2q^{13/2}(1+q^3-q^4-2q^5-q^{10}+q^{16}+q^{17}-q^{18}+q^{19}+q^{20}-q^{24}+q^{25}+q^{26}-q^{27}+q^{28}+q^{29}+q^{32}-q^{35}-q^{36}+q^{37}-q^{39}-2q^{41}-q^{43}-q^{44}-q^{46}-q^{48}-q^{58}+q^{63}+q^{65}+3q^{66}+\cdots)}{q^{10}}$
(1, 2, 4, 23, 3, 4)	$-1/2q^{11/2}(1-2q-q^3-q^6+q^8+2q^{11}+q^{12}+q^{14}+q^{15}-2q^{16}+q^{17}-q^{18}+q^{19}-q^{20}+2q^{25}-q^{29}+q^{31}-q^{34}-q^{38}-q^{41}-2q^{42}-q^{48}+q^{49}+q^{61}+2q^{66}+q^{67}+q^{69}+q^{71}-q^{74}+\cdots)$
(1, 2, 4, 25, 2, 11)	$\frac{1/2q^{23/2}(1+2q^4+q^6-q^7+2q^{12}-2q^{13}-q^{16}-q^{18}-2q^{19}-q^{21}-q^{22}-2q^{30}+q^{39}-q^{40}+q^{43}+q^{48}-q^{54}+2q^{55}-q^{57}+3q^{61}+2q^{63}+q^{64}+q^{67}+q^{72}-q^{79}-q^{82}+q^{84}+q^{85}+q^{88}+\cdots)}{q^{54}+2q^{55}-q^{57}+3q^{61}+2q^{63}+q^{64}+q^{67}+q^{72}-q^{79}-q^{82}+q^{84}+q^{85}+q^{88}+\cdots)}$
(1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 26)	$\frac{1/2q^{25/2}(2+q^6-q^9-4q^{11}-q^{12}-q^{14}+q^{15}+q^{17}-q^{20}+2q^{22}+q^{29}+q^{31}-q^{32}+q^{33}-q^{35}+q^{38}-q^{45}-q^{45}-q^{47}+q^{48}-q^{50}-q^{54}+q^{57}-q^{58}+q^{65}-q^{66}+q^{69}+q^{72}+q^{76}+q^{83}+\cdots)}{q^{16}+q^{16$
(1, 3, 2, 27, 2, 3)	$-1/2q^{11/2}(1-q-q^2+q^5+q^7-q^{11}+q^{13}-q^{15}-2q^{16}+q^{17}-q^{21}+q^{22}+2q^{26}+q^{28}+q^{31}-q^{33}-q^{35}-q^{37}-q^{38}-q^{40}-q^{42}+q^{46}+q^{49}-q^{50}+q^{54}+2q^{56}+q^{57}+q^{59}-q^{60}-2q^{61}-q^{62}+\cdots)$

Without loss of generality, let us focus on the first principal component \mathbf{b}_1 for all four sets of vector representations. By looking at the components b_{il} of the principal components, we can calculate the proportional component contribution of the *l*th component of the vector for the *i*th principal component \mathbf{b}_i , as summarized in (3.14).

We note that for q-exponent vectors \mathbf{e} and $\mathbf{e'}$, the components of the vectors contribute more with higher component index l. This is because for both the original and normalized q-exponent vectors, the components exhibit larger variance for increasing values of the q-series exponents. As a result, larger component values in \mathbf{e} and $\mathbf{e'}$ lead to increased contribution towards the dominating first principal component as shown in Figs. 3(b) and 3(e).

In comparison, when we consider the *q*-exponent gap vector \mathbf{r} , we make an interesting observation that the first couple of components contribute significantly more towards \mathbf{b}_1 , than all the other remaining components.

The first four components have the following proportional component contributions:

$$p(b_{11}; \mathbf{r}) = 85.153\%, \qquad p(b_{12}; \mathbf{r}) = 12.747\%,$$

$$p(b_{13}; \mathbf{r}) = 1.125\%, \qquad p(b_{14}; \mathbf{r}) = 0.181\%, \qquad (4.3)$$

which shows that over 97% of the contribution towards the first principal component \mathbf{b}_1 comes from the first two components of \mathbf{r} given by

$$r_1 = \frac{e_1}{e_0} = \frac{\Delta_b + s_1}{\Delta_b}, \qquad r_2 = \frac{e_2}{e_1} = \frac{\Delta_b + s_2}{\Delta_b + s_1}.$$
 (4.4)

This is illustrated in Fig. 3(h). We note here that this is a result expected for close to evenly distributed ordered sequences, which appears to be the case for the exponents of the collection of q-series studied in our work. A characteristic feature here for the q-series investigated in our work is the observation that the first two gaps measured by ratios r_1 and r_2 are significantly more relevant than any



FIG. 3. Summary of the exponent relevance analysis using PCA. We note that the first principal component \mathbf{b}_1 covers the vast majority of the proportional variance of the *q*-series vectors as shown in (a), (d), (g), and (j). This implies that for all vector representations, the vector spaces dimensionally reduce effectively to a one-dimensional subspace. A closer look reveals that the components of *q*-exponent vector \mathbf{e} and the corresponding normalized vector \mathbf{e}' do contribute to the first principal component when the exponent values becomes larger, as expected and shown in (b) and (e). For the *q*-exponent gap vector \mathbf{r} , we see however that only the first two components significantly contribute to the first principal exponent as shown in (h). When normalized, this contribution is evenly distributed to all the components of the normalized *q*-exponent gap vector \mathbf{r}' as shown in (k). Similar observations can be made in (c), (f), (i), and (l) for the second principal components, whose contribution is significantly less.



FIG. 4. The change in proportional variance $p(\lambda_i)$ for the first two principal components \mathbf{b}_1 and \mathbf{b}_2 when one takes only the first D components $r_1, ..., r_D$ of the q-exponent gap vectors \mathbf{r} is shown in (a). Focusing on the first principal component \mathbf{b}_1 , the relative contributions to \mathbf{b}_1 of the vector components r_1 and r_2 under changing the number of components of \mathbf{r} are shown in (b) and (c), respectively.

other ratios that follow. We hope to investigate these properties further with a larger collection of q-series in future work.

When we consider the normalized *q*-exponent gap vector \mathbf{r}' , every component in \mathbf{r} is divided by its first component. Given that the first component r_1 in \mathbf{r} is also the most significantly contributing component with $p(b_{11}; \mathbf{r}) = 85.153\%$, dividing every component by it evenly distributes the contribution on every component of the normalized vector \mathbf{r}' . As a result, the components \mathbf{r}' have all proportional component contributions in the range

$$2\% < p(b_{1i}; \mathbf{r}') < 6\%, \tag{4.5}$$

as illustrated in Fig. 3(k).

We can measure how the proportional component contributions of r_1 and r_2 towards the first principal component \mathbf{b}_1 change when one varies the overall number of components of \mathbf{r} . When one varies the overall number of components of \mathbf{r} , we effectively vary the number of terms in the *q*-series expansion that contribute towards the principal component analysis. From the results in Figs. 4(b) and 4(c), we see that $p(b_{11};\mathbf{r})$ and $p(b_{12};\mathbf{r})$ converge towards a lower bound when one increases the dimensionality of the vectors \mathbf{r} . This implies that including more terms in the *q*-series expansion does not change our observation that the first two components in (4.4) of the *q*-exponent gap vector \mathbf{r} contribute vastly more than any other components of \mathbf{r} , even if more terms in the *q*-series expansion are included in the analysis.

We can also track how the proportional variance $p(\lambda_1)$ of the first principal component \mathbf{b}_1 varies when one includes more components to the vector \mathbf{r} . As shown in Fig. 4(a), we see that the proportional variance $p(\lambda_1)$ reaches asymptotically a lower bound above 70%, implying that the space of *q*-series vector representations is effectively onedimensional independent on how many terms in the *q*-series expansion are included in the principal component analysis.

V. DISCUSSIONS

In this work, we have studied the q-series $\hat{Z}_{b}(q;Y)$ for a family of three-manifolds Y associated to the same H-shaped plumbing graph in Fig. 2 with different framings **m** as summarized in Table I. By identifying the gap between q-series exponents as the ratio between two consecutive exponents in the q-series, we have represented the q-series for particular three-manifolds Y as finitedimensional vectors whose components are made of the first few gaps of the corresponding q-series. By employing machine learning methods for dimensional reduction of the input data-specifically, the principal component analysis (PCA)—we are able to compute the statistical significance of each gap in the spectrum of BPS states captured by the q-series. The statistical significance is given by the saliency measure of the features of the input data, which is computable for any explainable machine learning model. In our case, these measures are given by the components of the eigenvectors of the covariance matrix obtained from PCA which correspond to gaps in the collection of input q-series vectors.

Our work shows that for the family of *q*-series $\hat{Z}_b(q; Y)$ corresponding to three-manifolds *Y* associated to the same H-shaped plumbing graph with framing numbers given in Table I, the first two gaps in the *q*-series are statistically more significant than all other gaps that follow them in the *q*-series. This indicates that certain BPS states of the corresponding $3d \ \mathcal{N} = 2$ supersymmetric theories are associated to statistically more significant exponent gaps in the corresponding *q*-series than others. We expect this

somewhat surprising result to be more general and hold true for other families of q-series associated with plumbing graphs of other shapes. Our work here sets the stage for further more comprehensive studies in the near future with the aim of confirming our observations in this work.

Our work also illustrates the potential of explainable machine learning techniques that enable the measure of saliency scores for features in input datasets. These measures in turn allow us, as illustrated in this work, to discover new structures in the spectra of states in quantum systems and in the counting of enumerative invariants characterizing geometries and topologies associated with these quantum systems. As part of the wider study of quantum systems and their spectra of quantum states, our work illustrates that for BPS spectra of $3d \mathcal{N} = 2$ supersymmetric theories, BPS states counted by the first few terms of the q-series are statistically more significant compared to the later terms in the q-series. We expect to report more findings in this direction in the near future.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Miranda Cheng, Hee-Joong Chung, Shimal Harichurn, Arnav S. Kabra, Davide Passaro, Fabian Ruehle, and Josef Svoboda for discussions and comments. The work of S. G. is supported in part by a Simons Collaboration Grant on New Structures in Low-Dimensional Topology, by the NSF Grant No. DMS-2245099, and by the U.S. Department of Energy, Office of Science, Office of High Energy Physics, under Award No. DE-SC0011632. R.-K.S. is supported by a Basic Research Grant of the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF-2022R1F1A1073128). He is also supported by a Start-up Research Grant for new faculty at UNIST (1.210139.01) and a UNIST AI Incubator Grant (1.240022.01). He is also partly supported by the BK21 Program ("Next Generation Education Program for Mathematical Sciences," 4299990414089) funded by the Ministry of Education in Korea and the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF).

- [1] C. Vafa, The string landscape and the swampland, arXiv: hep-th/0509212.
- [2] H. Ooguri and C. Vafa, On the geometry of the string landscape and the swampland, Nucl. Phys. B766, 21 (2007).
- [3] A. Strominger and C. Vafa, Microscopic origin of the Bekenstein-Hawking entropy, Phys. Lett. B 379, 99 (1996).
- [4] A. Gadde, S. Gukov, and P. Putrov, Walls, lines, and spectral dualities in 3d gauge theories, J. High Energy Phys. 05 (2014) 047.
- [5] S. Gukov, P. Putrov, and C. Vafa, Fivebranes and 3-manifold homology, J. High Energy Phys. 07 (2017) 071.
- [6] S. Gukov, D. Pei, P. Putrov, and C. Vafa, BPS spectra and 3-manifold invariants, J. Knot Theor. Ramifications 29, 2040003 (2020).
- [7] M. C. N. Cheng, S. Chun, F. Ferrari, S. Gukov, and S. M. Harrison, 3d modularity, J. High Energy Phys. 10 (2019) 010.
- [8] M. C. N. Cheng, S. Chun, B. Feigin, F. Ferrari, S. Gukov, S. M. Harrison, and D. Passaro, 3-manifolds and VOA characters, Commun. Math. Phys. 405, 44 (2024).
- [9] J. L. Cardy, Operator content of two-dimensional conformally invariant theories, Nucl. Phys. B270, 186 (1986).
- [10] Y.-H. He, Deep-learning the landscape, arXiv:1706.02714.
- [11] D. Krefl and R.-K. Seong, Machine learning of Calabi-Yau volumes, Phys. Rev. D 96, 066014 (2017).
- [12] F. Ruehle, Evolving neural networks with genetic algorithms to study the string landscape, J. High Energy Phys. 08 (2017) 038.
- [13] J. Carifio, J. Halverson, D. Krioukov, and B. D. Nelson, Machine learning in the string landscape, J. High Energy Phys. 09 (2017) 157.

- [14] K. Hashimoto, S. Sugishita, A. Tanaka, and A. Tomiya, Deep learning and the AdS/CFT correspondence, Phys. Rev. D 98, 046019 (2018).
- [15] V. Jejjala, A. Kar, and O. Parrikar, Deep learning the hyperbolic volume of a knot, Phys. Lett. B 799, 135033 (2019).
- [16] C. R. Brodie, A. Constantin, R. Deen, and A. Lukas, Machine learning line bundle cohomology, Fortschr. Phys. 68, 1900087 (2020).
- [17] F. Ruehle, Data science applications to string theory, Phys. Rep. 839, 1 (2020).
- [18] S. Gukov, J. Halverson, F. Ruehle, and P. Sułkowski, Learning to unknot, Mach. Learn. Sci. Tech. 2, 025035 (2021).
- [19] R.-K. Seong, Unsupervised machine learning techniques for exploring tropical coamoeba, brane tilings and Seiberg duality, Phys. Rev. D 108, 106009 (2023).
- [20] E. Choi and R.-K. Seong, Machine learning regularization for the minimum volume formula of toric Calabi-Yau 3-folds, Phys. Rev. D 109, 046015 (2024).
- [21] A. Dubey, S. Krippendorf, and A. Schachner, JAXVacua— A framework for sampling string vacua, J. High Energy Phys. 12 (2023) 146.
- [22] S. J. Ri and P. Putrov, Graph neural networks and 3-dimensional topology, Mach. Learn. Sci. Tech. 4, 035026 (2023).
- [23] S. Gukov, J. Halverson, and F. Ruehle, Rigor with machine learning from field theory to the Poincaré conjecture, Nat. Rev. Phys. 6, 310 (2024).
- [24] J. Bao, Y.-H. He, E. Hirst, J. Hofscheier, A. Kasprzyk, and S. Majumder, Hilbert series, machine learning, and applications to physics, Phys. Lett. B 827, 136966 (2022).

- [25] T. Coates, A. M. Kasprzyk, and S. Veneziale, Machine learning the dimension of a Fano variety, Nat. Commun. 14, 5526 (2023).
- [26] R. Kirby, A calculus for framed links in s3, Inventiones Math. 45, 35 (1978).
- [27] W. D. Neumann, A calculus for plumbing applied to the topology of complex surface singularities and degenerating complex curves, Trans. Am. Math. Soc. 268, 299 (1981).
- [28] K. Pearson, LIII. On lines and planes of closest fit to systems of points in space, Philos. Mag. 2, 559 (1901).
- [29] I. T. Jolliffe, *Principal Component Analysis for Special Types of Data* (Springer, New York, 2002).
- [30] K. Bringmann, K. Mahlburg, and A. Milas, Higher depth quantum modular forms and plumbed 3-manifolds, Lett. Math. Phys. 110, 2675 (2020).