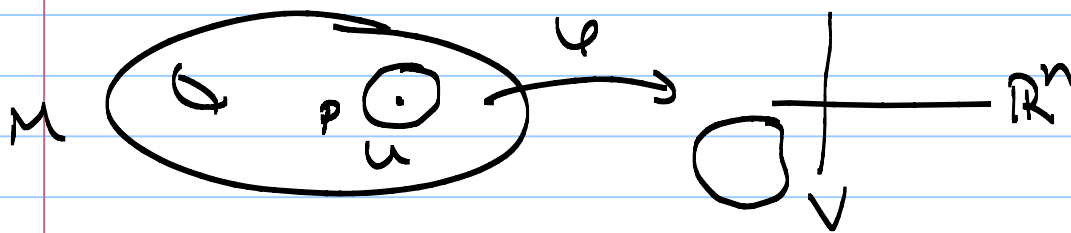
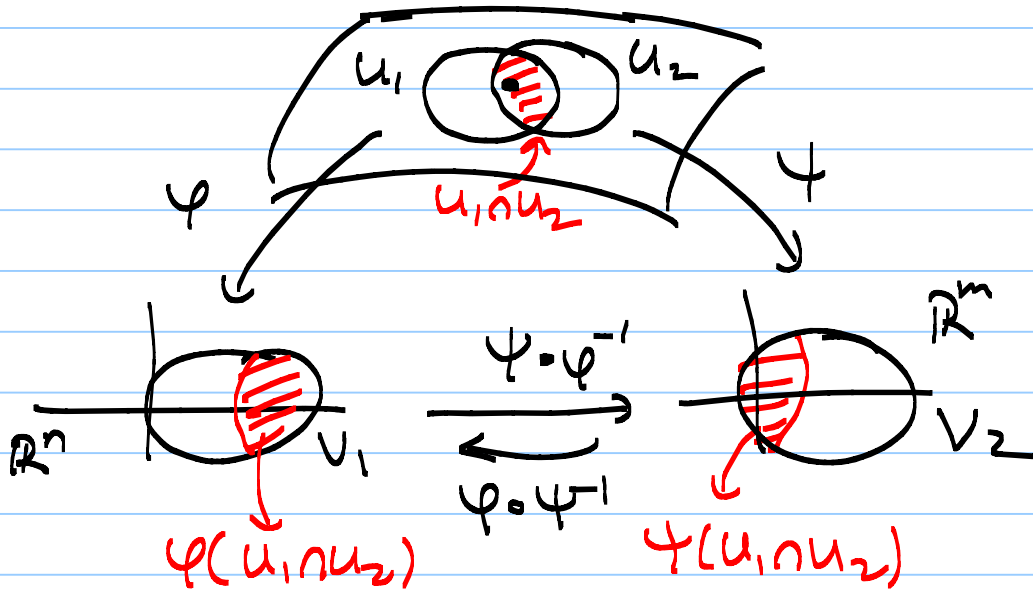


Definition: A topological manifold M is a Hausdorff second countable topological space with the following property: Each point $p \in M$ has a neighborhood $p \in U \subseteq M$ and there is a homeomorphism

$\varphi: U \rightarrow V$, where V is an open subset of some Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n .



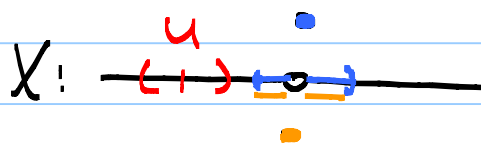
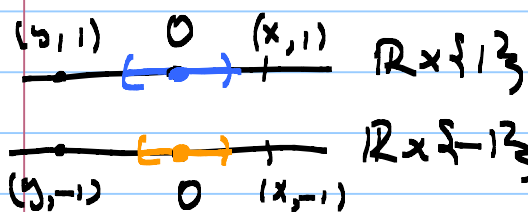
Assume that $p \in U_1 \cap U_2$ and $\varphi: U_1 \rightarrow V_1$ and $\psi: U_2 \rightarrow V_2$, homeomorphisms, where V_1, V_2 are open subsets of \mathbb{R}^n .



Remark: 1) Any subspace of the Euclidean space is both Hausdorff and second countable. Indeed we'll see later any manifold is homeomorphic to a subspace of some Euclidean space.

2) Consider the real line with double origin:

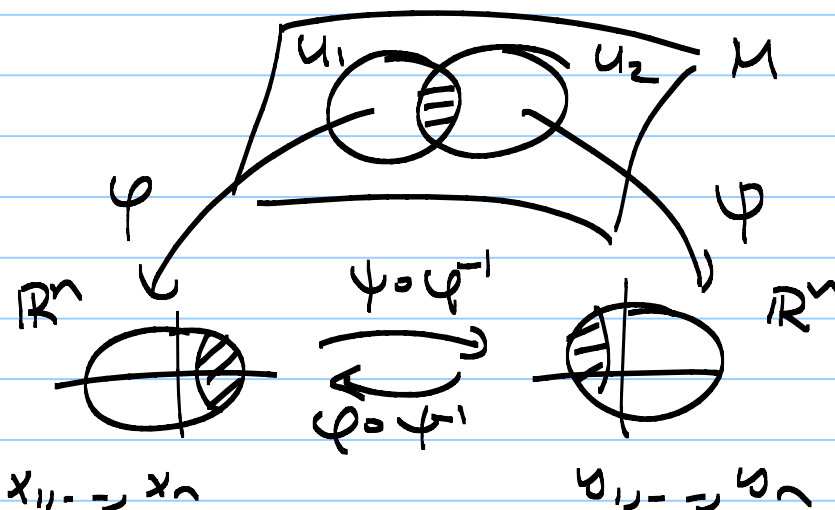
$$X = \mathbb{R} \times \{-1, 1\} / (x, -1) \sim (x, 1), x \neq 0$$



X is not Hausdorff but it is locally Euclidean.

Differentiable manifolds:

Definition: We will say that U_1, φ and U_2, ψ are C^∞ -compatible if U_1, U_2 nonempty implies that the composites $\psi \circ \varphi^{-1}$ and $\varphi \circ \psi^{-1}$ are both smooth functions (i.e., they are infinitely many times differentiable).



$$(\psi \circ \varphi^{-1})(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (h_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, h_n(x_1, \dots, x_n))$$

$$(\varphi \circ \psi^{-1})(y_1, \dots, y_n) = (g_1(y_1, \dots, y_n), \dots, g_n(y_1, \dots, y_n))$$

All h_i 's and g_i 's are C^∞ : $\frac{\partial^k h_i}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2 \dots \partial x_n}$ and $\frac{\partial^k g_i}{\partial y_1 \partial y_2 \dots \partial y_n}$ exist for all k and $(x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_n)$.

Video 2

Definition: A differentiable or C^∞ (or smooth) structure on a topological manifold M is a family $\mathcal{U} = \{U_\alpha, \psi_\alpha\}$ of coordinate neighborhoods such that

- 1) the collection $\{U_\alpha\}$ cover M : $M = \bigcup_\alpha U_\alpha$
- 2) for any α, β the neighborhoods U_α, U_β and U_β, U_α are C^∞ -compatible.
- 3) Any coordinate neighborhood V, ψ compatible with every U_α, U_β of \mathcal{U} is already in \mathcal{U} .

A C^∞ -manifold is a topological manifold together with a C^∞ -differentiable structure.

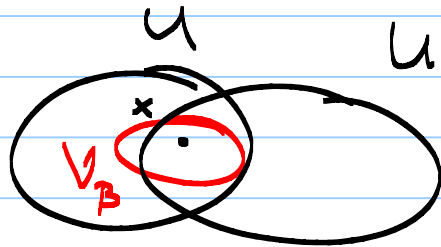
Remarks: 1) Not all topological manifolds admit a C^∞ -structure.

2) A topological manifold may admit "different" C^∞ -structures.

Theorem: Let M be a Hausdorff space with a countable basis of open sets. If $\{V_\alpha, \psi_\alpha\}$ is a covering of M by C^∞ -compatible coordinate neighborhoods, then there is a unique C^∞ -structure on M containing these coordinate neighborhoods.

Proof: Let \mathcal{U} be the collection of all coordinate neighborhoods U, ψ which are C^∞ -compatible with each and every one of those in the given collection $\{V_\alpha, \psi_\alpha\}$. Clearly, \mathcal{U} contains $\{V_\alpha, \psi_\alpha\}$. We need to check that different elements of \mathcal{U} are compatible with each other.

Let U, φ and U', φ' be two elements from the collection \mathcal{U} . We may assume that $U \cap U' \neq \emptyset$. Take any $x \in U \cap U'$. Choose V_β, ψ_β so that $x \in V_\beta$.



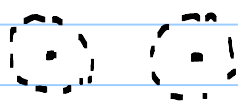
must show: $\varphi' \circ \varphi^{-1}$ is C^∞ at x .

$\varphi' \circ \varphi^{-1} = (\varphi' \circ \psi_\beta^{-1}) \circ (\psi_\beta \circ \varphi^{-1})$ is C^∞ since both $\varphi' \circ \psi_\beta^{-1}$ and $\psi_\beta \circ \varphi^{-1}$ are C^∞ .

Maximality of the family \mathcal{U} follows from its definition.

Some Examples: 1) \mathbb{R}^n is a smooth manifold.

\mathbb{R}^n is clearly Hausdorff and second countable.



$$\{B(p, r) \mid p \in \mathbb{Q}^n, r \in \mathbb{Q}^+\}$$

a countable base for \mathbb{R}^n .

\mathbb{R}^n is clearly (locally) Euclidean.

Consider the family $\{V_i = \mathbb{R}^n, \psi_i = \text{Id}\}$.

$\psi_i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, x \mapsto x$, is clearly a homeomorphism. The family has only one element and thus it is compatible. Finally, the above theorem states that this family extends to a unique C^∞ -structure on \mathbb{R}^n .

2) Open subsets of \mathbb{R}^n .

Assume that $M \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is an open subset. Choose $U = M$ and $\varphi = \text{id}: U \rightarrow U$. Then $\{(U, \varphi)\}$ extends to a smooth structure on M .

Example: $GL(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{A \in M_{n \times n} \mid \det A \neq 0\}$.

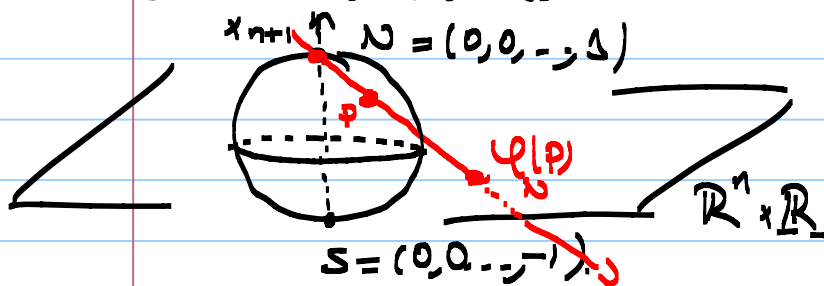
$GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \subseteq M_{n \times n} \cong \mathbb{R}^{n^2}$. Consider the determinant function

$f: M_{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $f(A) = \det(A)$, which is continuous. Moreover,

$GL(n, \mathbb{R}) = f^{-1}(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\})$ and hence $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ is an open subset of $M_{n \times n} = \mathbb{R}^{n^2}$.

3) Spheres: $S^n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid x_1^2 + \dots + x_{n+1}^2 = 1\}$.

Consider S^n with the subspace topology inherited from \mathbb{R}^{n+1} . The S^n is also Hausdorff and second countable.



$$\varphi_N: S^n \setminus \{N\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$p = (x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}) \mapsto \varphi_N(p) = \left(\frac{x_1}{1-x_{n+1}}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{1-x_{n+1}} \right).$$

Similarly, define

$$\varphi_S: S^n \setminus \{S\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$p = (x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}) \mapsto \varphi_S(p) = \left(\frac{x_1}{1+x_{n+1}}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{1+x_{n+1}} \right).$$

φ_N and φ_S are homeomorphisms because they are clearly continuous and their inverses exist and are continuous.

$$\varphi_N^{-1}: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow U_N = S^n \setminus \{N\}$$

$$(y_1, \dots, y_n) \mapsto \left(\frac{2y_1}{1+\|y\|^2}, \dots, \frac{2y_n}{1+\|y\|^2}, \frac{\|y\|^2-1}{1+\|y\|^2} \right)$$

and

$$\varphi_S^{-1}: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow U_S = S^n \setminus \{S\}$$

$$(y_1, \dots, y_n) \mapsto \left(\frac{2y_1}{1+\|y\|^2}, \dots, \frac{2y_n}{1+\|y\|^2}, \frac{1-\|y\|^2}{1+\|y\|^2} \right)$$

Hence, S^n is a topological manifold.

$$\varphi_N \circ \varphi_N^{-1} = \text{id} \quad \longleftarrow \quad \varphi_S \circ \varphi_S^{-1} = \text{id} \quad \longleftarrow$$

$$\varphi_N \circ \varphi_S^{-1}: \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$$

$$(y_1, \dots, y_n) \mapsto \frac{1}{\|y\|^2} (y_1, \dots, y_n), \text{ which is } \bar{c}.$$

Hence, $\{(U_N, \varphi_N), (U_S, \varphi_S)\}$ extends to a (maximal) smooth structure on S^n .

§ 2. Further Examples

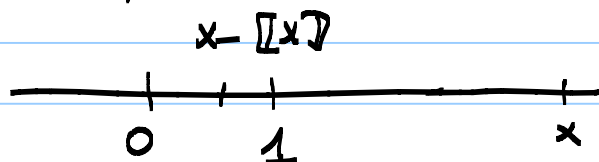
Let X be a topological space and \sim an equivalence relation on X .

$[x] = \{y \in X \mid x \sim y\}$, the equivalence class of x .

$X/\sim = \{[x] \mid x \in X\}$ the set of all equivalence classes, called also as the quotient set of X via the relation \sim .


Let $\pi: X \rightarrow X/\sim$, $x \mapsto \pi(x) = [x]$, be the quotient map. We put so called the quotient topology on X/\sim as follows: A subset U of X/\sim will be said to be open if $\pi^{-1}(U)$ is open in X . This defines a topology on X/\sim so that $\pi: X \rightarrow X/\sim$ is continuous. Note that this is the strongest topology on X/\sim which makes $\pi: X \rightarrow X/\sim$ continuous. This topology is called the quotient topology on X/\sim and X/\sim is called a quotient space of X .

Example: $X = \mathbb{R}$ and define \sim on \mathbb{R} as follows:
 $x, y \in X$, $x \sim y$ if and only if $x - y \in \mathbb{Z}$.
 Clearly, \sim is an equivalence relation.



$\pi: X \rightarrow X/\sim$, $x \mapsto [x]$. The $X/\sim = \pi([0, 1])$

$\Rightarrow X/\sim$ is compact, $X/\sim = [0, 1] / \sim$

 Exercise: Show that X/\sim is homeomorphic to $S^1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$.

Definition: An equivalence relation \sim on a space X is called open if whenever a subset $A \subseteq X$ is open, then $[A] = \{[x] \mid x \in A\}$ is open in X/\sim .

Lemma: An equivalence relation \sim on X is open if and only if π is an open mapping (i.e., $\pi(U)$ is open whenever $U \subseteq X$ is open). When \sim is open and X has a countable basis of open sets, then X/\sim has a countable basis.

Proof: The first statement is almost trivial since $[U] = \pi(U)$. For the second statement assume \sim is open and X has a countable basis $\{U_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{I}}$ of open subsets. If W is open in X/\sim then the open subsets $\pi^{-1}(W)$ in X can be written as

$$\pi^{-1}(W) = \bigcup_{j \in J} U_j, \text{ for some } J \subseteq \mathbb{I}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } W = \pi(\pi^{-1}(W)) &= \pi\left(\bigcup_{j \in J} U_j\right) \\ &= \bigcup_{j \in J} \pi(U_j), \text{ where} \end{aligned}$$

each $\pi(U_j)$ is open in X/\sim , since π is an open map. Hence, $\{\pi(U_i)\}_{i \in \mathbb{I}}$ is a countable basis for X/\sim .

Lemma: Let \sim be an open equivalence relation on a topological space X . Then

$R = \{(x, y) \mid x \sim y\}$ is a closed subset of the space $X \times X$ if and only if the quotient space X/\sim is Hausdorff.

Proof: Suppose X/\sim is Hausdorff. must show: R is closed.

Take any $(x, y) \notin R$. Then $x \neq y$ so that $[x] \neq [y]$.
 Since X/\sim is Hausdorff there are disjoint
 neighborhood U of $\pi(x)$ and V of $\pi(y)$. Then
 for any $\tilde{x} \in \tilde{U} = \pi^{-1}(U)$ and $\tilde{y} \in \tilde{V} = \pi^{-1}(V)$ we
 have $\tilde{x} \neq \tilde{y}$, because otherwise,
 $\pi(\tilde{x}) = \pi(\tilde{y}) \in U \cap V = \emptyset$, a contradiction.

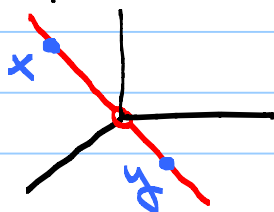
Hence $(\tilde{U} \times \tilde{V}) \cap R = \emptyset$. Since $(x, y) \in \tilde{U} \times \tilde{V}$
 and $(x, y) \notin R$ we arbitrary, we see that R
 is closed in $X \times X$.

Conversely, if R is closed, then for any given
 distinct points $\pi(x) = [x]$, $\pi(y) = [y]$ of X/\sim ,
 $x \neq y$ there is an open set W with
 $(x, y) \in W$ and $W \cap R = \emptyset$. So there is an
 open set of the form $\tilde{U} \times \tilde{V}$ so that
 $(x, y) \in \tilde{U} \times \tilde{V} \subseteq W \subseteq X \times X \setminus R$. So
 $\pi(\tilde{U}) \in \pi(\tilde{U})$, $\pi(\tilde{V}) \in \pi(\tilde{V})$ and $\pi(\tilde{U}) \cap \pi(\tilde{V}) = \emptyset$.
 Moreover, $\pi(\tilde{U})$ and $\pi(\tilde{V})$ are open since π is
 an open map. Hence, X/\sim is Hausdorff. \blacktriangleright

Example: The real projective space $\mathbb{R}P^n(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^n$.

Let $X = \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$. Define an equivalence relation
 on X as follows:

$x = (x_1, \dots, x_{n+1})$, $y = (y_1, \dots, y_{n+1})$, $x \sim y$ if and
 only if $x = ty$ for some $t \in \mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$.



So $[x]$ is the line joining
 x to the origin.

The real projective space $\mathbb{R}P^n$ is defined to be
 the quotient space X/\sim .

Video 4

$\mathbb{R}P^n = \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\} / \sim$ is the space of lines through the origin in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} .

We'll show that $\mathbb{R}P^n$ is an n -dimensional differentiable manifold.

Step 1 Show that $\pi: \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}P^n = \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\} / \sim$ is an open map.

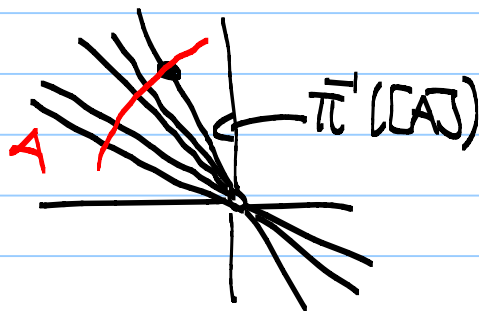
It is enough to show that \sim is an open relation. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ be open.

$[A] = \{[x] \mid x \in A\}$ must be open:

By the definition quotient topology we need to show that $\pi^{-1}([A])$ is open in $X = \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$.

$$\pi^{-1}([A]) = \bigcup_{t \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}} \psi_t(A), \quad \psi_t: X \rightarrow X, x \mapsto tx.$$

$A \subseteq X$ open. ψ_t is clearly continuous with continuous inverse ψ_t^{-1} . Hence ψ_t is a homeomorphism. Since $A \subseteq X = \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ is open each $\psi_t(A)$ is open in X . It follows that $\pi^{-1}([A])$ is open.



Since $X = \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ is second countable and π is an open mapping, its image $\mathbb{R}P^n = \pi(X)$ is also a second countable space.

Step 2: $\mathbb{R}P^n$ is Hausdorff.

We must show that $R = \{(x, y) \mid x, y \in X, x \sim y\}$ is closed in $X \times X = (\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}) \times (\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\})$.

Note that $x \sim y$ if and only if $x = ty$ for some $t \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$.

$$\begin{aligned} x &= (x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}) \\ y &= (y_1, \dots, y_{n+1}) \end{aligned} \quad \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_1 & x_{n+1} & \dots & x_{n+1} \\ y_1 & y_2 & \dots & y_1 & y_{n+1} & \dots & y_{n+1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$F: X \times X \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}, F(x, y) = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n+1} \left(\det \begin{pmatrix} x_i & x_j \\ y_i & y_j \end{pmatrix} \right)^2$$

Now $x \sim y$ if and only if $F(x, y) = 0$.

Now $R = \{(x, y) \mid x \sim y\} = F^{-1}(0)$ is closed in $X \times X$ because F is clearly continuous on $X \times X$.

Hence, $\mathbb{R}P^n$ is Hausdorff.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Step 3: } \mathbb{R}P^n &= \{[x] \mid x \in X\} \quad x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n+1}) \\ &\quad x_i \neq 0 \text{ for some } i. \\ &= U_1 \cup U_2 \cup \dots \cup U_{n+1}, \text{ where} \end{aligned}$$

$U_i = \{[x] \mid x_i \neq 0\}$. Note that each U_i is open since $\pi^{-1}(U_i) = \{(x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\} \mid x_i \neq 0\}$ is open in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} and hence in X .

Now define

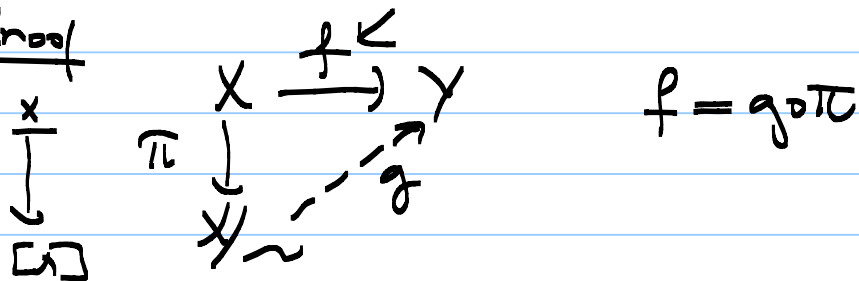
$$\phi_i: U_i \longrightarrow V_i = \mathbb{R}^n \text{ by } \phi_i([x]) = \left(\frac{x_1}{x_i}, \frac{x_2}{x_i}, \dots, \frac{x_{i-1}}{x_i}, \dots, \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_i} \right)$$

ϕ_i is clearly 1-1 and onto.

To show that ϕ_i is continuous we may use a general fact:

lemma: let $\pi: X \rightarrow X/\sim$ be a quotient space and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous map. Then there is a map $g: X/\sim \rightarrow Y$ with $f = g \circ \pi$ iff f is constant on each equivalence class. Moreover, g is continuous if and only if f is continuous.

Proof

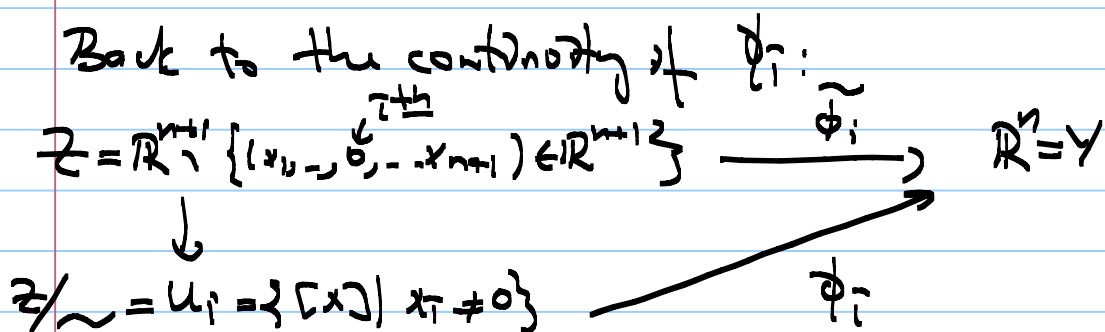


Note that the condition $f(x) = f(y)$ for all x, y with $x \sim y$ implies that g exists if and only if $f(x) = f(y)$ for all x, y with $x \sim y$.

For the second part assume g exists. If g is continuous then $f = g \circ \pi$ is clearly continuous because π is continuous. If f is continuous then for any open set U in Y we have

$\pi^{-1}(g^{-1}(U)) = (g \circ \pi)^{-1}(U) = f^{-1}(U)$ is open in X and hence $g^{-1}(U)$ is open in X/\sim . Hence, g is continuous.

Back to the continuity of ϕ_i :



Defn: $\tilde{\phi}_i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n = Y, (x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) \mapsto (\frac{x_1}{x_i}, \dots, \frac{x_{i-1}}{x_i}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_i})$

Clearly, $\tilde{\phi}_i$ is continuous and $\tilde{\phi}_i = \phi_i \circ \pi$.

Exercise: $\phi_i^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow U_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^n$ is also continuous.

$$\mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow[\sigma]{\text{inclusion}} X \xrightarrow{\pi} U_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^n$$

$$(y_1, \dots, y_n) \mapsto (y_1, \dots, y_{i-1}, 1, y_i, \dots, y_n) \mapsto [(y_1, \dots, 1, y_n)]$$

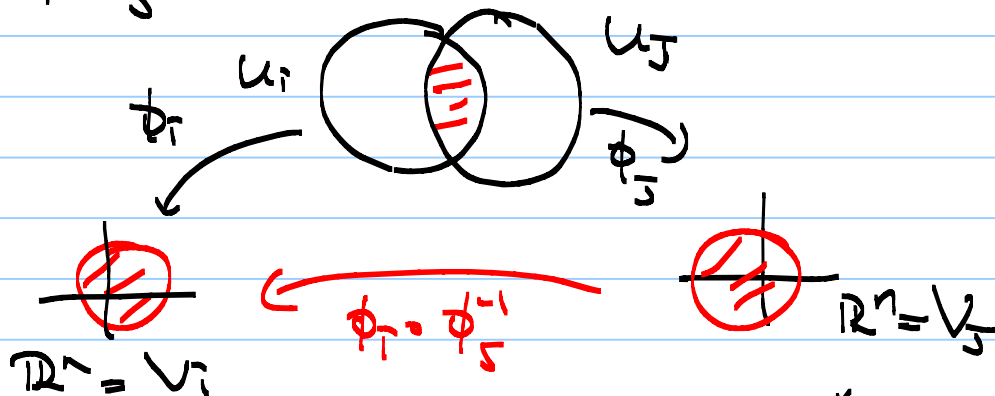
Check that ϕ_i and ϕ_i^{-1} are inverses of each other. Note that $\phi_i^{-1} = \pi \circ \tilde{\phi}_i^{-1}$ is continuous.

Hence, $\mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^n$ is a topological manifold.

$$\mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^n = U_1 \cup U_2 \cup \dots \cup U_i \cup \dots \cup U_n$$

$$\phi_i : U_i \rightarrow V_i = \mathbb{R}^n$$

To show that the coordinate functions ϕ_i define a C^∞ -structure we must check that each $\phi_i \circ \phi_j^{-1}$ are C^∞ -maps.

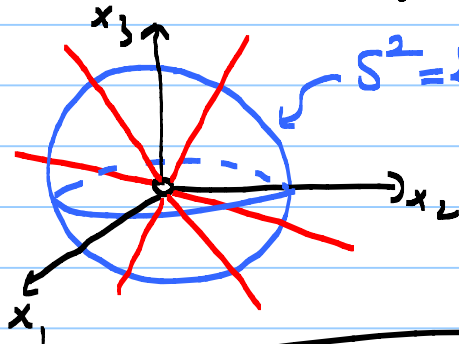


$$(\phi_i \circ \phi_j^{-1})(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \phi_i \left([(x_1, \dots, x_{j-1}, 1, x_j, \dots, x_n)] \right)$$

$$= \left(\frac{x_1}{x_j}, \dots, \frac{x_{j-1}}{x_j}, \frac{1}{x_j}, \frac{x_j}{x_j}, \dots, \frac{x_{j+1}}{x_j}, \frac{x_n}{x_j}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_j} \right)$$

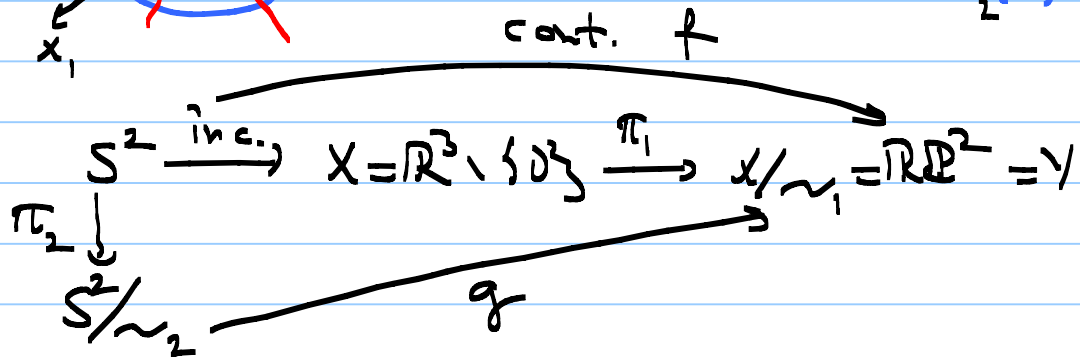
Note that $\phi_i \circ \phi_i^{-1}$ is clearly C^∞ . Hence, $\mathbb{R}P^n$ is a differentiable (smooth) manifold.

Ex $\mathbb{R}P^2 = \mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \{0\} / \sim$ $(x_1, x_2, x_3) \sim t(x_1, x_2, x_3), t \neq 0.$



$S^2 = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 = 1\}.$

$\mathbb{R}P^2 = S^2 / \sim_2$
 $(x_1, x_2, x_3) \sim_2 (-x_1, -x_2, -x_3)$



Since f is const. so is g .

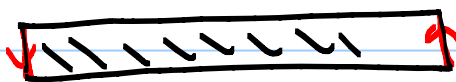
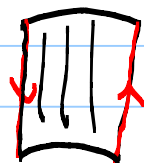
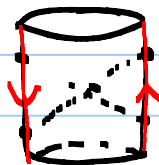
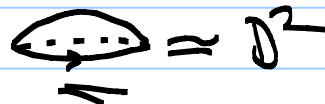
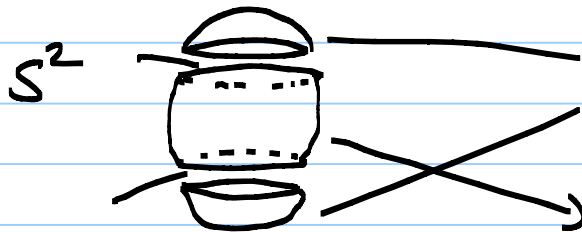
Note that 1) g is 1-1

2) g is onto

3) S^2 is compact and hence S^2 / \sim_2

is compact and Y is Hausdorff. So by the homeomorphism theorem g is also a homeomorphism.

Remarks $\mathbb{R}P^2 = S^2 / p \sim -p$



Möbius Band

$$\mathbb{R}P^2 = S^2 / \sim = D^2 \cup_{\partial} \mathbb{R}B$$

↪ glue them along their boundaries.

Example (Grassmann Manifolds)

$G(k, n)$: the space of all k -dim'd subspaces of \mathbb{R}^n

$G(2, 4)$: the space of planes in \mathbb{R}^4 passing through the origin.

$$G(1, n+1) = \mathbb{R}P^n.$$

To show that $G(k, n)$ is a differentiable manifold first we consider so called the manifold of k -frames in \mathbb{R}^n denoted $F(k, n)$.

$$F(k, n) = \{ (v_1, \dots, v_k) \mid v_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, v_1, \dots, v_k \text{ are lin. ind.} \}$$

$$\text{Note that } F(k, n) = \{ A \in M_{k \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \mid \text{rank } A = k \}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_k \end{bmatrix}_{k \times n}$$

Note that $F(k, n)$ is an open subset of $M_{k \times n}(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R}^{kn}$ because $F(k, n) = \phi^{-1}(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\})$ where

$$\phi: M_{k \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \phi(A) = \sum_{B \text{ } k\text{-minor of } A} (\det(B))^2$$

$F(2, 4)$: $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 \\ y_1 & y_2 & y_3 & y_4 \end{bmatrix}$ In particular, $F(k, n)$ is a kn -dimensional (open) manifold in $\mathbb{R}^{kn} = M_{k \times n}(\mathbb{R})$.

Video 6

Note that two elements (v_1, \dots, v_k) and (u_1, \dots, u_k) of $F(k, n)$ represent the same subspace if and only if

$$P \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_k \end{bmatrix}_{k \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_k \end{bmatrix}_{k \times n} \text{ for some invertible } k \times k \text{ matrix } P.$$

Hence, $G(k, n)$ can be defined as the quotient space

$$G(k, n) = F(k, n) / \sim, \text{ where}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_k \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_k \end{bmatrix} \text{ iff } P \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_k \end{bmatrix}, \text{ for}$$

some invertible $k \times k$ -matrix P .

Theorem: $G(k, n)$ has a structure of $2(n-k)$ dimensional differentiable manifold.

Proof: (Homework)

Step 1 Show that \sim is an open relation.
 $\Rightarrow G(k, n)$ is second countable.

Step 2 Show that " \sim " as in the case of \mathbb{R}^n is closed in $F(k, n) \times F(k, n)$.
 $\Rightarrow G(k, n)$ is Hausdorff.

Step 3 $G(k, n)$ is locally Euclidean

Idea: $x = (v_1, \dots, v_k) \in F(k, n)$, $[x] \in G(k, n)$.
Note that each $[x]$ has a representative $y \in F(k, n)$ (i.e., $[x] = [y]$), where y has the form

$$y^T = (u_1, \dots, u_k)^T = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \dots 0 & \overset{\uparrow}{1} & 0 \dots 0 & \dots & 0 \dots 0 & \dots & 0 \dots 0 & \dots & 0 \dots 0 & \dots & * & * & * \\ 0 \dots 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & * & * & * \end{bmatrix}$$

$u_{i_1, \dots, i_k} = \{y\} \in G(k, n) \mid \text{the columns } \overset{\uparrow}{i_1}, \overset{\uparrow}{i_2}, \dots, \overset{\uparrow}{i_k} \text{ are linearly independent}$

$$1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \leq n$$

If $y \in G(k, n)$ then there is a unique $k \times k$

$$\text{invertible } \underline{P} \text{ s.t. } \underline{P}y = \begin{bmatrix} * & \overset{\uparrow}{1} & \dots & \dots & * \\ * & 0 & \dots & 0 & * \\ * & 0 & \dots & 1 & * \\ * & 0 & \dots & 0 & * \end{bmatrix}$$

Indeed, $\underline{P} = [c_{i_1}, c_{i_2}, \dots, c_{i_k}]^{-1}$ where c_j is the j -th column of y .

$$u_{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k} \xrightarrow{\varphi_{i_1, \dots, i_k}} \mathbb{R}^{k(n-k)}$$

$$\varphi \longmapsto (\underline{P}y)^0 = (c_1, c_2, \dots, \hat{c}_{i_1}, \dots, \hat{c}_{i_k}, \dots, c_n)$$

$$[(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{i_1}, \dots, x_{i_k}, \dots, x_n)] \mapsto \left(\frac{x_1}{x_{i_1}}, \dots, \frac{x_{i_1}}{x_{i_1}}, \dots, \frac{x_{i_k}}{x_{i_k}}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_{i_1}} \right)$$

$$\mathbb{R}^n \supseteq U_i \xrightarrow{\quad} \mathbb{R}^n$$

must show: each $\varphi_{i_1, \dots, i_k}$ is a homeomorphism.

$\Rightarrow G(k, n)$ is a topological manifold.

Step 4 $\{\varphi_{i_1, \dots, i_k} \mid 1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \leq n\}$ defines a differentiable structure on $G(k, n)$.

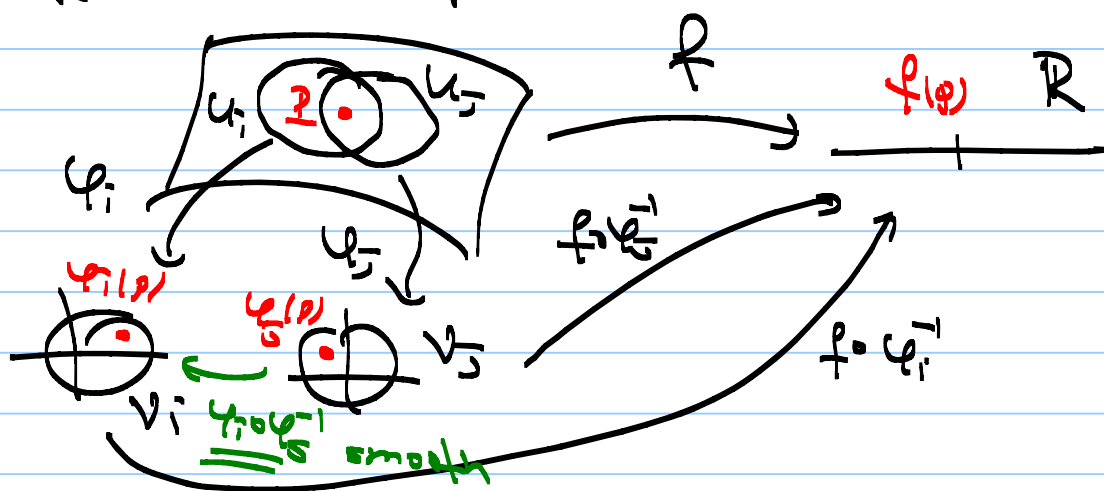
§ Differentiable Functions and Mappings:

Let M be a differentiable manifold with a cover coordinate charts $\{\varphi_i: U_i \rightarrow V_i\}_{i \in I}$, $U_i \subseteq M$ open with $M = \cup U_i$, $V_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open.

Let $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function. We'll say that f is a differentiable (or smooth) function if the composition

$f \circ \varphi_i^{-1}: V_i \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is (smooth) differentiable for any i .

Remark: If $p \in U_i \cap U_j$ then $f \circ \varphi_i^{-1}$ is differentiable at p if and only if $f \circ \varphi_j^{-1}$ is differentiable at p .



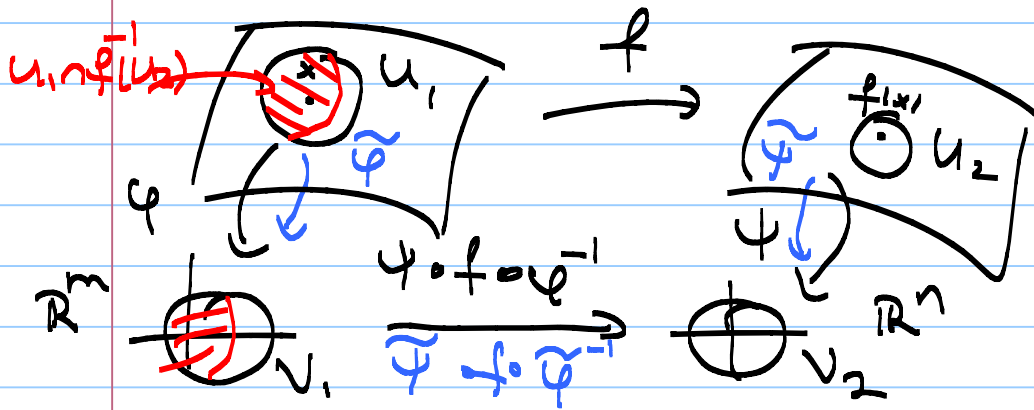
$$f \circ \varphi_j^{-1} = (f \circ \varphi_i^{-1}) \circ (\varphi_i \circ \varphi_j^{-1})$$

Since $\varphi_i \circ \varphi_j^{-1}$ is smooth, $f \circ \varphi_j^{-1}$ is smooth whenever $f \circ \varphi_i^{-1}$ is smooth.

Similarly, a function $F: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, where $F(p) = (f_1(p), \dots, f_m(p))$ is called smooth (or differentiable) if each f_i is smooth.

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Let $f: M^m \rightarrow N^n$ be a function between two differentiable manifolds of dimension m and n , respectively.



f is called differentiable if $\psi \circ f \circ \varphi^{-1}$ is differentiable for any $x \in M$ and coordinate systems $\varphi: U_1 \rightarrow V_1$ and $\psi: U_2 \rightarrow V_2$ as above.

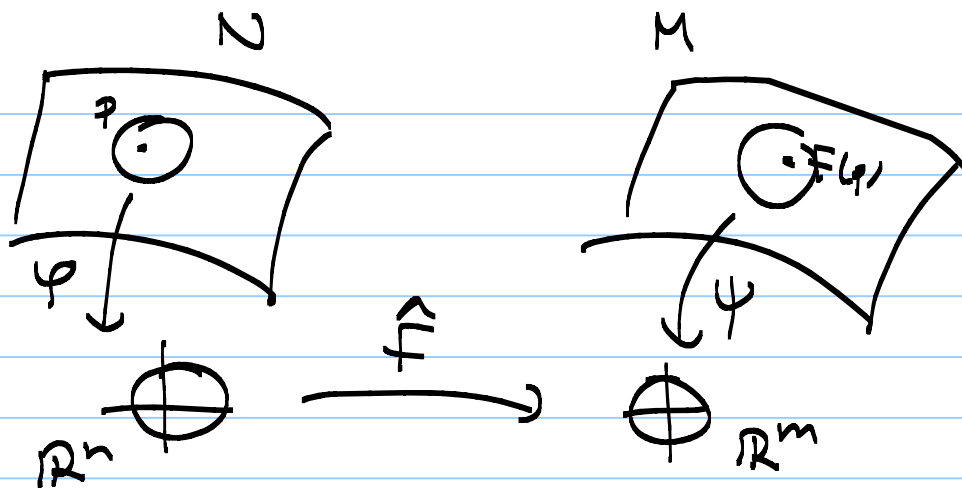
Remark: As above definition, indeed it is enough to find some $\varphi: U_1 \rightarrow V_1$ and $\psi: U_2 \rightarrow V_2$ with $\psi \circ f \circ \varphi^{-1}$ differentiable. This is because if $\tilde{\varphi}$ and $\tilde{\psi}$ are some other coordinate systems then

$$\tilde{\psi} \circ f \circ \tilde{\varphi}^{-1} = (\tilde{\psi} \circ \psi)^{-1} \circ (\psi \circ f \circ \varphi^{-1}) \circ (\varphi \circ \tilde{\varphi}^{-1}),$$
 when

$\tilde{\psi} \circ \psi^{-1}$, $\varphi \circ \tilde{\varphi}^{-1}$ and $\psi \circ f \circ \varphi^{-1}$ are all differentiable.

Rank of a mapping, Immersions and Submersions:

Let $F: N \rightarrow M$ be a differentiable mapping of C^∞ -manifolds and let $p \in N$. If U, φ and V, ψ are coordinate neighborhoods of p and $F(p)$, respectively and $F(U) \subseteq V$, then we may consider the following function $\tilde{F} = \psi \circ F \circ \varphi^{-1}: \varphi(U) \rightarrow \psi(V)$.



Definition: The rank of \$F\$ at \$p\$ is defined to be the rank of \$\hat{F}\$ at \$\varphi(p)\$:

$$\hat{F} = (f_1, \dots, f_m) \quad f_i: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$f_i = f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

The rank of \$\hat{F}\$ at \$\varphi(p)\$ is the rank of the Jacobian matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

Remark! The rank of \$F\$ at \$p\$ is well defined because if we choose different coordinate neighborhoods say \$\tilde{\varphi}\$ and \$\tilde{\psi}\$ then we have

\$\tilde{F} = \tilde{G} \circ \hat{F} \circ \tilde{H}\$, where \$\tilde{G}\$ and \$\tilde{H}\$ are diffeomorphisms of open subsets of \$\mathbb{R}^n\$ and \$\mathbb{R}^m\$, respectively and \$\tilde{F}\$ for a diffeomorphism the Jacobian is invertible.

$$\left(L \circ C' = Id \Rightarrow DL \circ DC' = DId = Id \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow DL \text{ and } DC' \text{ are both invertible.}$$

Definition: A differentiable map $f: N \rightarrow M$ is said to be an immersion at a point $p \in N$ if the rank of F at p is $n = \dim N$. If f is an immersion at each point then we simply say that f is an immersion.

Definition: A differentiable map $F: N \rightarrow M$ is said to be a submersion at a point $p \in N$ if the rank of F at p is $m = \dim M$. If F is a submersion at each point then F is called a submersion.

Example 1) The maps $F: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, where $n \leq m$, given by $F(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (x_1, \dots, x_n, 0, \dots, 0)$ and

$G: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, where $n \geq m$, given by

$G(x_1, \dots, x_m, \dots, x_n) = (x_1, \dots, x_m)$, are called the standard immersion and submersion, respectively.

Example 2) $F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$, $F(t) = (\cos 2\pi t, \sin 2\pi t, t)$

and $G: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$, $G(t) = (\cos 2\pi t, \sin 2\pi t)$ are both immersions.

$DF(t) = (-2\pi \sin 2\pi t, 2\pi \cos 2\pi t, 1)$ has rank 1 at all points.

Similarly, $DG(t) = (-2\pi \sin 2\pi t, 2\pi \cos 2\pi t)$ has also rank 1 ($\sin^2 2\pi t + \cos^2 2\pi t = 1$)

Example 3) $F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$, $F(t) = (2\cos(t - \frac{\pi}{2}), \sin 2(t - \frac{\pi}{2}))$

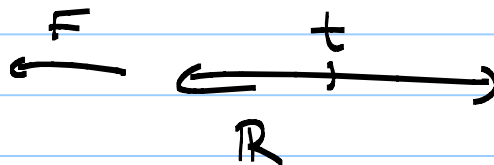
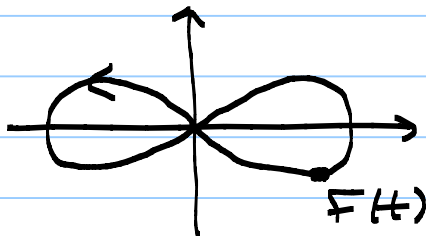
Video P

Let $a = 2\cos(t - \frac{\pi}{2})$ and $b = \sin 2(t - \frac{\pi}{2})$.

Then $b = 2\cos(t - \frac{\pi}{2}) \sin(t - \frac{\pi}{2})$

$$b^2 = a^2 (1 - (\frac{a}{2})^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow b^2 = a^2 (1 - \frac{a^2}{4})$$



$$F(t + 2\pi) = F(t)$$

$$F'(t) = (-2\sin(t - \frac{\pi}{2}), 2\cos 2(t - \frac{\pi}{2})) \neq (0, 0)$$

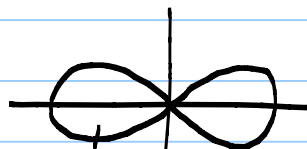
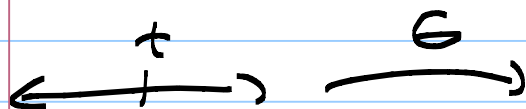
and hence F is an immersion, but not an embedding since F is not 1-1.

Example 4) $G: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$

$$G(t) = F(g(t)) = (2\cos(g(t) - \frac{\pi}{2}), \sin 2(g(t) - \frac{\pi}{2})),$$

where $g(t) = \pi + 2 \tan^{-1} t$ so that

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} g(t) = 0, \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} g(t) = 2\pi \text{ and } g(0) = \pi.$$



N : not compact

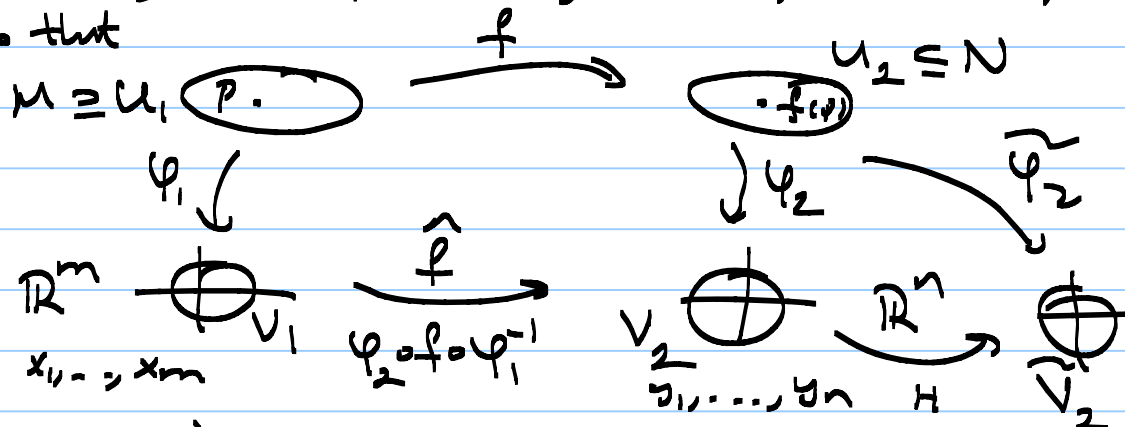
\tilde{D} : compact

G is a 1-1 immersion! G is also 1-1 but it is not an embedding since G is not a homeomorphism onto its image!

Theorem (Immersion)

Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be a differentiable map and $p \in M$ so that f is an immersion at p . Then one can

find coordinate neighborhoods around $p \in M$ and $f(p) \in N$, say $\varphi_1: U_1 \rightarrow V_1$ and $\varphi_2: U_2 \rightarrow V_2$, $p \in U_1 \subseteq M$, $f(p) \in U_2 \subseteq N$, $V_1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$, $V_2 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open subsets, so that



$$(\varphi_2 \circ f \circ \varphi_1^{-1})(x_1, \dots, x_m) = (x_1, \dots, x_m, 0, \dots, 0)$$

Proof: $\hat{f} = \varphi_2 \circ f \circ \varphi_1^{-1} = (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n)$.

$$f_i = f_i(x_1, \dots, x_m) : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Since f is an immersion at p , \hat{f} has rank m at $\varphi_1(p)$.

$$D\hat{f}(\varphi_1(p)) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_m} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_m} \end{pmatrix}_{n \times m} (\varphi_1(p)) \quad n \geq m$$

The row rank of the above matrix is m and thus by permuting the coordinates y_i 's or equivalently f_i 's we may assume that the first m rows are linearly independent.

Now define another differentiable map

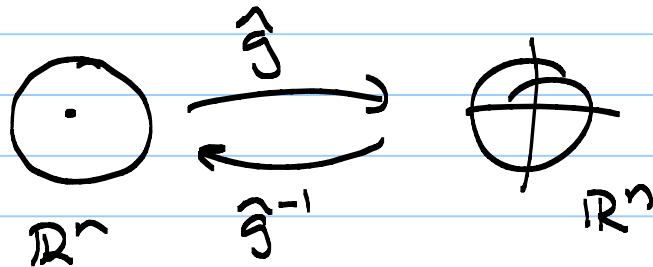
$$\hat{g} : \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^{n-m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \text{ given by}$$

$$\hat{g}(x_1, \dots, x_m, x_{m+1}, \dots, x_n) = \hat{f}(x_1, \dots, x_m) + (0, \dots, 0, x_{m+1}, \dots, x_n)$$

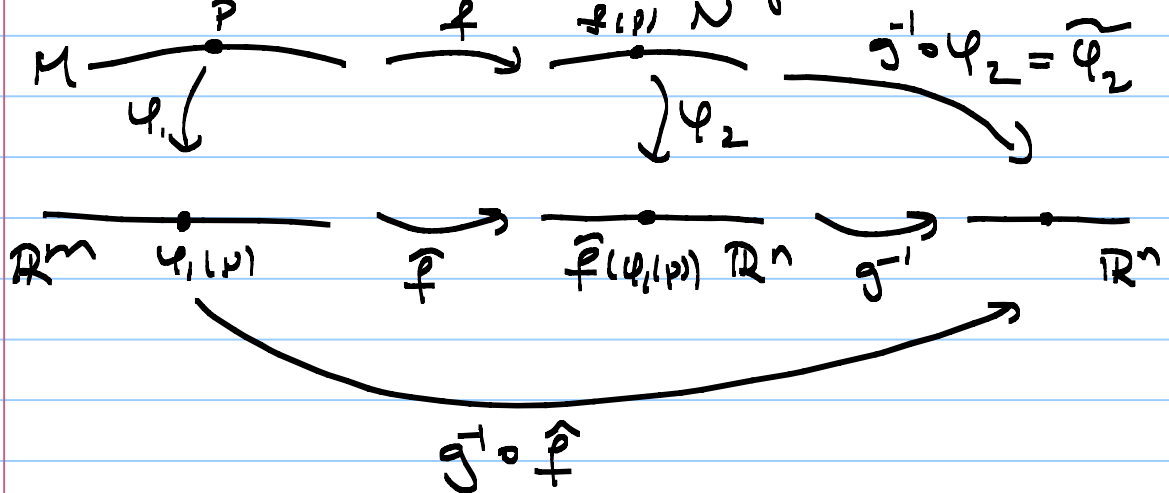
$$\Rightarrow \hat{g}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m, f_{m+1} + x_{m+1}, \dots, f_n + x_n)$$

$$\text{The } D\hat{g}(\varphi(p)) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_m} & | & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & & & & \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_m} & | & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \hline * & * & * & | & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ * & * & * & | & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & & & & \\ * & * & * & | & 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} \\ \\ \\ \leftarrow I_{n-m} \\ \\ \end{matrix}$$

Note that since the first m rows are linearly independent we see that $D\hat{g}(\varphi(p))$ is invertible. Since $D\hat{g}(\varphi(p))$ is a diffeomorphism by the Inverse Function Theorem \hat{g} is a local diffeomorphism.



Now we have the following picture:



$$(x_1, \dots, x_m) \mapsto (f_1, \dots, f_n) \mapsto \hat{g}^{-1}(f_1, \dots, f_n), \text{ where}$$

$$(x_1, \dots, x_m, \underbrace{x_{m+1}, \dots, x_n}_{(x_1, \dots, x_m, 0, \dots, 0)}) \xrightarrow{g} (f_1, \dots, f_m, f_{m+1}, \dots, f_n)$$

Finally, since $g(x_1, \dots, x_m, 0, \dots, 0) = (f_1, \dots, f_m, f_{m+1}, \dots, f_n)$

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we have

$$\bar{g}^{-1}(f_1(x_1, \dots, x_m), \dots, f_n(x_1, \dots, x_m)) = (x_1, \dots, x_m, 0, \dots, 0)$$

A similar result holds for submersions.

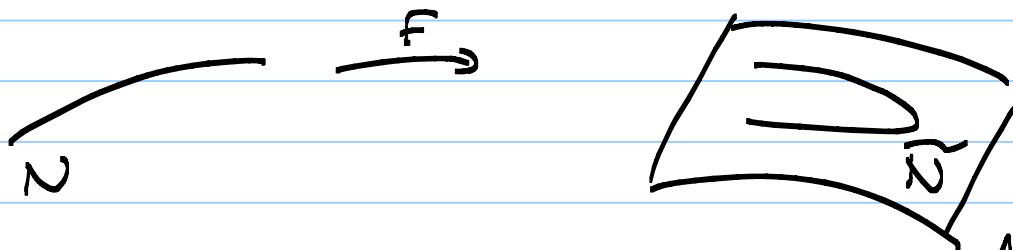
Theorem (Submersion)

Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be a differentiable map and $p \in M$ so that f is a submersion at p . Then we can coordinate neighborhoods as in the above theorem so that

$$(\varphi_2 \circ f \circ \varphi_1^{-1})(x_1, \dots, x_n, \dots, x_m) = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$$
 at all

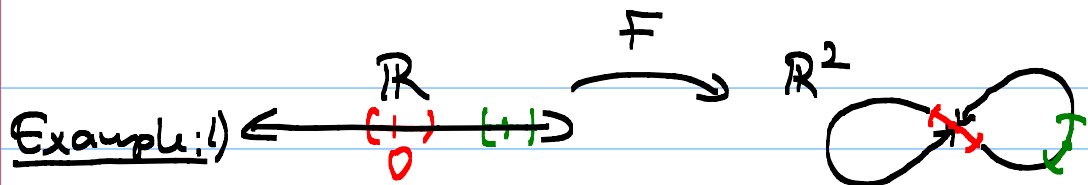
points of the range of φ_1 .

Definition: An Imbedding is a one to one immersion $F: N \rightarrow M$, which is a homeomorphism of N into M , that is, F is a homeomorphism of N onto its image $\tilde{N} = F(N)$, with its topology as a subspace of M . The image of an imbedding is called an imbedded submanifold.

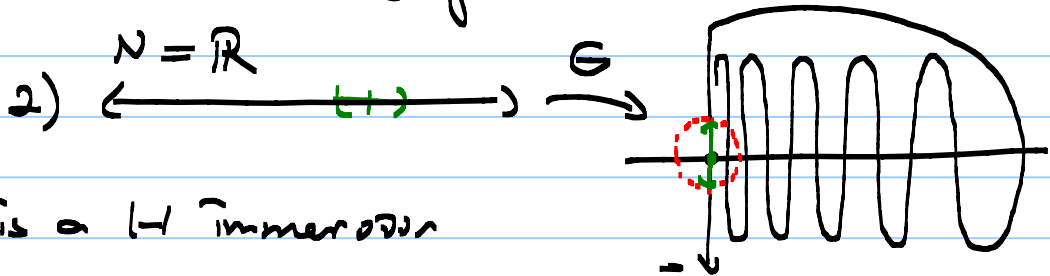


$F: N \rightarrow \tilde{N} \subseteq M$ is a homeomorphism.

Theorem: Let $F: N \rightarrow M$ be an immersion. Then each $p \in N$ has a neighborhood U so that $F|_U: U \rightarrow M$ is an embedding of U in M .



F is not an embedding but H is a H -immersion



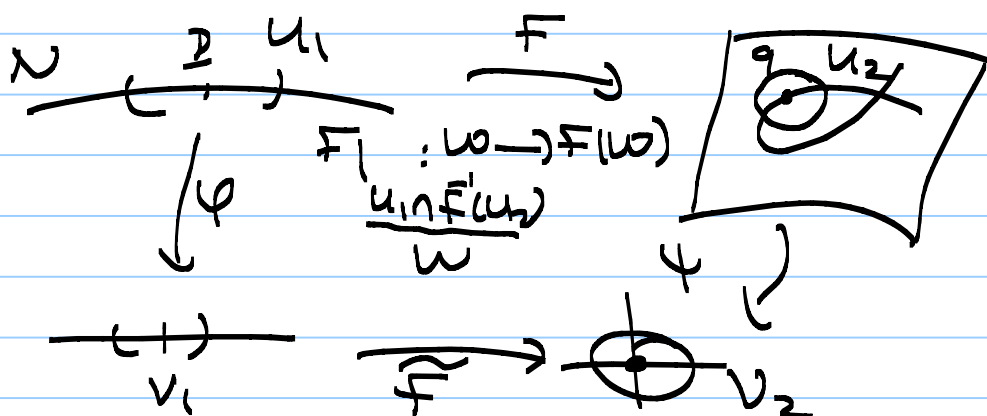
G is a H -immersion

$G(\mathbb{R}) = \tilde{N}$. $N = \mathbb{R}$ is locally connected while \tilde{N} is not. Hence, $G: N \rightarrow G(N) = \tilde{N}$ is not a homeomorphism. G is locally an embedding.

Indeed, we have the following result:

Proof: let $p \in N$. Then by the theorem proved last time there are neighborhoods around $p \in N$ and $q = F(p) \in M$, say $\varphi: U_1 \rightarrow V_1$ and $\psi: U_2 \rightarrow V_2$ so that

$$(\psi \circ F \circ \varphi^{-1})(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (x_1, \dots, x_n, 0, \dots, 0).$$



Since φ and ψ are homeomorphisms and $\tilde{F} = \psi \circ F \circ \varphi^{-1}$ is a homeomorphism onto its image we are done.

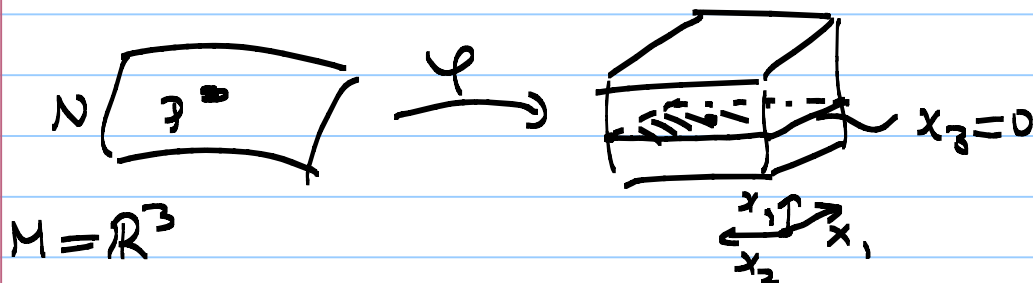
Submanifolds

Definition: A subset N of a C^∞ -manifold M is said to have the n -submanifold property if each $p \in N$ has a coordinate neighborhood U, φ on M with local coordinates x_1, \dots, x_m such that

i) $\varphi(p) = (0, \dots, 0)$

ii) $\varphi(U) = C_c^m(0) = \{ (x_1, \dots, x_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid |x_i| \leq \epsilon, \forall i \}$.

iii) $\varphi(U \cap N) = \{ x \in C_c^m(0) \mid x^{n+1} = \dots = x^m = 0 \}$.

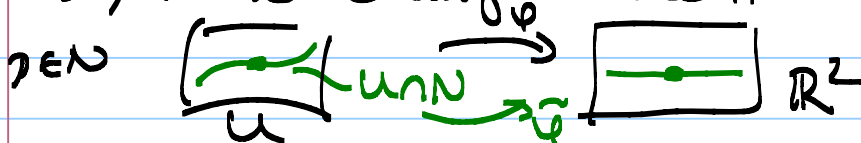


If N has this property, coordinate neighborhoods of this type are called preferred coordinates.

Lemma: Let $N \subseteq M$ have the n -submanifold property. Then N with the relative topology is a topological n -manifold and each preferred coordinate system U, φ of M (relative to N) defines a local coordinate neighborhood $V, \tilde{\varphi}$ on N by $V = U \cap N$, $\tilde{\varphi} = \varphi|_V$. These local coordinates on N are C^∞ -compatible whenever they overlap and determine a C^∞ -structure on N relative to which $\tilde{\tau}: N \rightarrow M$ is an imbedding.

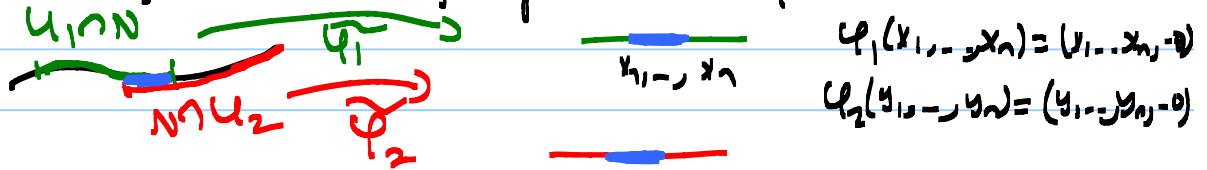
Sketch of proof: 1) Since M is Hausdorff and second countable so is the subspace N .

2) N is locally Euclidean:



Video 10

Hence, N is a topological manifold.



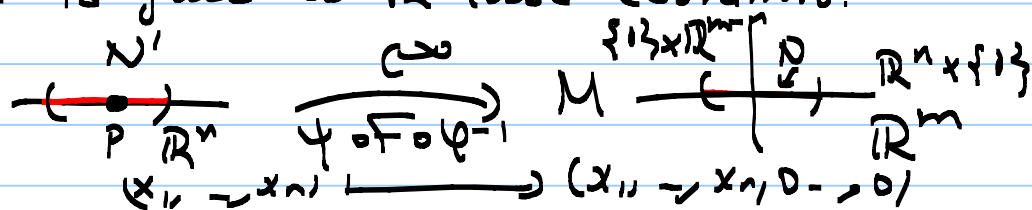
$$(\varphi_1 \circ \varphi_2^{-1}) = (\varphi_1 \circ \varphi_2^{-1}) : \begin{matrix} U \\ \cap \\ \{y_1 = \dots = y_m = 0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^m \end{matrix} \longrightarrow \begin{matrix} U' \\ \cap \\ \{x_1 = \dots = x_n = 0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \end{matrix}$$

The rest is exercise!

Definition: A regular submanifold of a C^∞ -manifold M is any subspace N with the submanifold property and with the C^∞ -structure that the corresponding preferred coordinate neighborhood determine on it. (Note: N is trivially a submanifold and $\tau: N \hookrightarrow M$ is an embedding).

Theorem: Let $F: N' \rightarrow M$ be an embedding of a C^∞ -manifold N' of dimension n in a C^∞ -manifold M of dimension m . Then $N = F(N')$ has the n -submanifold property and thus N is a regular submanifold. As such it is diffeomorphic to N' with respect to the mapping $F: N' \rightarrow N$.

Sketch of Proof: Since F is a local immersion, for any $p \in N'$ there is a neighborhood ψ, V around $q = F(p)$ and φ, U around $p \in N'$ so that F is given as in those coordinates:





- $\Rightarrow N$ has the n -submanifold property.
- \Rightarrow The C^∞ -structure of M gives a C^∞ -str. on N .
- $\Rightarrow N$ is a regular submanifold and $F|_{N'}: N' \rightarrow N$ is a diffeomorphism.

Since F is a homeomorphism and locally a diffeomorphism (from N' to N) F is a diffeomorphism from N' to N .

Corollary If F is a one to one immersion and N' is compact then $N = F(N')$ is a regular submanifold. Thus a submanifold of M , if compact, is regular. Image of a 1-1 immersion.

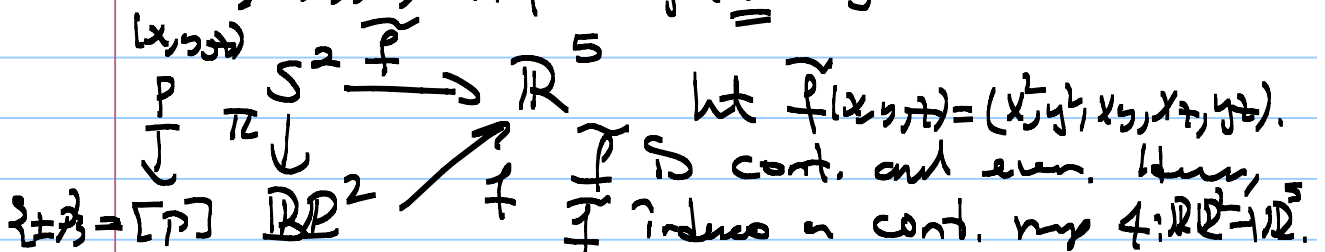
Proof: We just need to show that F is an embedding (topological). Since $F: N' \rightarrow M$ is one to one, continuous, N' is compact and M is Hausdorff we see that F is a homeomorphism onto its image.

Example: Consider $\mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^2$ as the quotient

$$\mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^2 = \frac{S^2}{p \sim -p, p \in S^2}$$

$\mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^2$ is C^∞ -manifold and $\pi: S^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^2$ is a C^∞ -map.

$$S^2 = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1\}$$



Video 11

Note that f is one to one. Since S^2 is compact so $D \subset \mathbb{R}P^2 = \pi(S^2)$. It follows that f is an embedding.

f is C^∞ : Consider the chart $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}P^2$ given by

$(u, v) \mapsto [u : v : 1]$. Then f is given in this chart as

$$\underline{(u, v) \mapsto [u : v : 1]} \mapsto (x^2, y^2, xy, x^2, y^2)$$

$$\pi(x, y, z) = [x : y : z] \quad (u^2, v^2, uv, u, v)$$

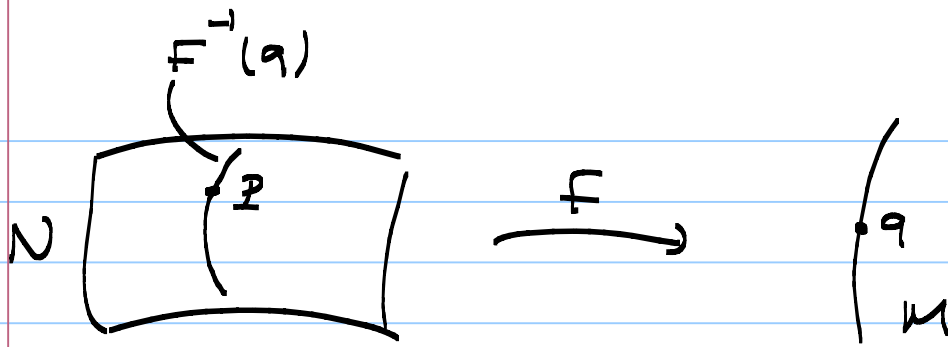
$$u = \frac{x}{z}, v = \frac{y}{z}, z = 1$$

f is C^∞ . Hence, $f(\mathbb{R}P^2)$ is a regular submanifold of \mathbb{R}^5 . Indeed, $\mathbb{R}P^2$ can be embedded into \mathbb{R}^4 .

Remark: $\mathbb{R}P^2$ cannot be embedded into \mathbb{R}^3 .

Theorem: Let N be a C^∞ -manifold of dimension n , M a C^∞ -manifold of dimension m . Suppose that $F: N \rightarrow M$ is a smooth map of constant rank m at all points. Then $F^{-1}(q)$ is a closed, regular submanifold of N of dimension $n-m$.

Indeed a stronger version holds: let $F: N \rightarrow M$ C^∞ -map. A point $q \in M$ is called a regular value of F if $F^{-1}(q)$ has no critical points, i.e., a point $p \in F^{-1}(q) \subseteq N$ so that F has rank less than m at p .

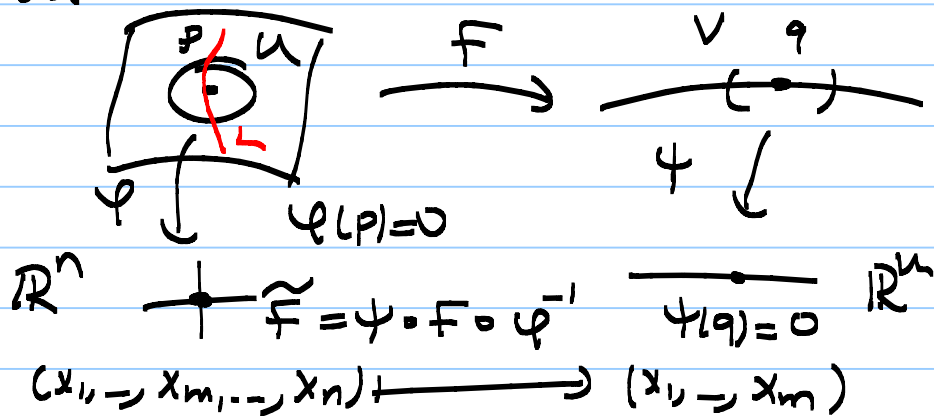


F has rank m at each $p \in F^{-1}(q)$.
 $DF(p)$ has rank m .

lemma: If $F: N \rightarrow M$ is a C^∞ -map and $q \in M$ is a regular value then $F^{-1}(q)$ is a regular submanifold of N of dimension $n-m$.

Proof: Let $L = F^{-1}(q)$. We need to show that L is a regular submanifold of N of dimension $n-m$.

Let $p \in L$, then by the local description of submanifolds there are coordinate neighborhoods U, φ around $p \in N$ and V, ψ around $q \in M$ so that



The $L \cap U = F^{-1}(q) \cap U$ will look like $\tilde{F}^{-1}(0) = \{(0, \dots, 0, x_{m+1}, \dots, x_n) \mid x_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$.

Hence, L has the submanifold property of dimension $n-m$. Thus, L is a regular submanifold of N of dimension $n-m$.

Example: 1) $F: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $F(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 1$.

$$DF(p) = [F_x \ F_y \ F_z] : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$
$$p = (x, y, z) \quad [2x \ 2y \ 2z]$$

At $p \in S^2$, at least one of the coordinates is non zero. Hence, $DF(p)$ is onto. Thus, $0 \in \mathbb{R}$ is a regular value.

$$S^2 = \{(x, y, z) \mid x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 1 = 0\} = F^{-1}(0).$$

Hence S^2 is a regular submanifold of \mathbb{R}^3 of dimension $m - n = 3 - 1 = 2$.

2) $SL(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \mid \det A = 1\}$.

Claim: $SL(n, \mathbb{R})$ is a regular submanifold of $M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R}^{n^2}$ of dimension $n^2 - 1$.

Proof: Consider the smooth map

$$F: \mathbb{R}^{n^2} = M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$
$$A \longmapsto F(A) = \det A.$$

$$SL(n, \mathbb{R}) = F^{-1}(1).$$

It is enough to show that 1 is a regular value.
Let $A \in F^{-1}(1) = SL(n, \mathbb{R})$.

$$DF(A): \mathbb{R}^{n^2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Exercise: $DF_{I_2}(\mathbb{R}) = \text{tr } B$.

$$F'_p(v) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(p+tv) - F(p)}{t}$$

$$DF_{\text{Id}}(B) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(\text{Id} + tB) - F(\text{Id})}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\det(\text{Id} + tB) - \det(\text{Id})}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\det(\text{Id} + tB) - 1}{t} \stackrel{?}{=} \text{tr}(B).$$

Example: $O(n) = \{A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \mid A^T A = \text{Id}\}$.

$O(n)$ is a regular submanifold of $M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R}^{n^2}$ of dimension $n(n-1)/2$.

$O(3) = \{A \in M_{3 \times 3}(\mathbb{R}) \mid A^T A = \text{Id}\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^9 = M_{3 \times 3}(\mathbb{R})$ is a regular submanifold of dimension $3 \cdot 2/2 = 3$.

Consider the C^∞ map $\left[\begin{smallmatrix} \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \end{smallmatrix} \right] : \mathbb{R}^{n^2 + \dots + n} = \mathbb{R}^{\frac{n(n+1)}{2}}$

$$F : M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R}^{n^2} \longrightarrow \text{Sym}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) = \left\{ A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \mid A^T = A \right\}$$

$$X \longmapsto X^T X$$

$$F^{-1}(\text{Id}) = \{X \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \mid F(X) = X^T X = \text{Id}\} = O(n)$$

Hence, it is enough to show that Id is a regular value of F .

$$\dim F^{-1}(\text{Id}) = n^2 - \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}.$$

Let $X \in F^{-1}(\text{Id})$. We need to compute

$$DF_X : M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \longrightarrow \text{Sym}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$$

$$Y \longmapsto DF_X(Y) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(X+tY) - F(X)}{t}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 D_x F(y) &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x+ty)^T(x+ty) - x^T x}{t} \\
 &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{x^T x} + t \cancel{x^T y} + t \cancel{y^T x} + t^2 \cancel{y^T y} - \cancel{x^T x}}{t} \\
 &= x^T y + y^T x.
 \end{aligned}$$

must show: $D_x F$ is onto. In other words,

if S is a symmetric real matrix then
 $S = x^T y + y^T x$ for some $y \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$.

Exercise: Show that $D_x F$ is onto!

Tangent Space of a Manifold

M C^∞ -manifold of dimension n . If $U \subseteq M$ is an open subset let $C^\infty(U)$ be the collection of all C^∞ -functions on U . For any point $p \in M$ let

$$C^\infty(p) = \bigcup_{\substack{p \in U \subseteq M \\ U \text{ open}}} C^\infty(U) / \sim, \quad \begin{array}{l} f \in C^\infty(U) \\ g \in C^\infty(V) \\ f(x) = g(x) \text{ for all } x \in W \subseteq U \cap V \\ p \in W \text{ open} \end{array}$$

Each equivalence class $[f] \in C^\infty(p)$ is called a germ of a smooth function at p .

Remark: $\mathbb{C} \quad p \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$\mathcal{A}(p) = \bigcup_{p \in U \subseteq \mathbb{C} \text{ open}} \mathcal{O}(U) / \sim, \quad \begin{array}{l} f \in \mathcal{O}(U), g \in \mathcal{O}(V) \\ f(x) = g(x), \forall x \in W \subseteq U \cap V \\ p \in W \end{array}$$

$\mathcal{O}(U)$: analytic functions on U .

In this case any equivalence class $[f]$ can be represented by the power series

$$[f] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(p)}{n!} (z-p)^n \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-\frac{1}{x}} & x > 0 \\ 0 & x \leq 0. \end{cases}$$

Weierstrass smooth (C^∞)

but has no infinite Taylor expansion.

Remark: $C^\infty(p)$ is the ring of local C^∞ -functions at $p \in M$. Indeed, $C^\infty(p)$ is an \mathbb{R} -algebra.

$$[f] + [g] = [f+g], \quad [f] \cdot [g] = [fg].$$

Definition: We define the tangent space $T_p(M)$ of M at p to be set of all mappings

$X_p: C^\infty(p) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$, $f, g \in C^\infty(p)$ the two conditions:

i) $X_p(\alpha f + \beta g) = \alpha(X_p f) + \beta(X_p g)$ (linearity)

ii) $X_p(fg) = (X_p f)g(p) + f(p)(X_p g)$ (Leibniz Rule)

A tangent vector to M at p is any X_p .

Example: $M = \mathbb{R}^n$, take any $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Define

$V_p: C^\infty(p) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as $V_p(f) = \nabla f(p) \cdot v$, the directional derivative of f at p along the vector v . V_p satisfies both conditions of a tangent vector at $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Hence, $V_p \in T_p \mathbb{R}^n$.

Consider a coordinate system on \mathbb{R}^n , say x_1, \dots, x_n . Define the tangent vectors $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p \in T_p \mathbb{R}^n$ as follows:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p : C^\infty(p) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f \mapsto \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} (p)$$

Note that $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p \left(\frac{x_j}{5} \right) = \delta_{ij}$ $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(p+he_i) - f(p)}{h}$

$$X_j: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$p = (p_1, \dots, p_n) \mapsto X_j(p) = p_j$$

$$e_i = (0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0)$$

Note that this implies that the vectors $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p$ $i=1, \dots, n$, are linearly independent.

If $v = \sum c_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p = 0$ the zero vector

$$\text{then } 0 = v(x_j) = \left(\sum c_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p \right) (x_j) = \sum c_i \delta_{ij} = c_j \\ \Rightarrow c_j = 0 \quad \forall j = 1 \rightarrow n.$$

lemma: The set $\left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p \right\}$ is a basis for $T_p \mathbb{R}^n$.

Proof: Let $v \in T_p \mathbb{R}^n$ be any tangent vector.

$$\text{Let } c_i = v(x_i) \text{ and let } u = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p.$$

Claim $v = u$.

Note that the claim finishes proof of the lemma.

Proof of the claim: Let $f \in C^\infty(p)$ be any germ.

The f has a Taylor expansion

$$f(x) = f(p) + \sum_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p (x_i - p_i) + \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} (\xi) (x_i - p_i) (x_j - p_j) \\ \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \\ 0 \qquad \qquad \sum_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p c_i \qquad \text{for some } \xi.$$

Note that for a derivation X (i.e. a function on $C^\infty(p)$ satisfying (i) and (ii)) we have

$$X(1) = X(1 \cdot 1) = \underbrace{1(p)}_1 X(1) + X(1) \underbrace{1(p)}_1 = 2X(1) \\ \Rightarrow X(1) = 0.$$

The $X(c) = c X(1) = c \cdot 0 = 0$.



$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Note that } v(f) &= \sum_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(p) c_i + v\left(\sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(\xi) (x-x_i)(x-x_j)\right) \\
 &= \sum_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(p) c_i \\
 &\quad + \sum_{i,j} v\left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(\xi) (x-x_i)\right) \frac{(x-x_j)(p)}{(x_j-p_j)(p)} \\
 &\quad + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(\xi) (p_i - p_j) v(x_j - p_j) \\
 &= \left(\sum_i c_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p\right) (f) \\
 &= u(f).
 \end{aligned}$$

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next time: $p \in M$ $T_p M$: the vector space of all derivations in the \mathbb{R} -algebra of germs of smooth functions defined near p .

$$C^\infty(p) = \{ f : f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f \in C^\infty(U) \} / \sim$$

$$(f, U) \sim (g, V) \iff f = g \text{ on some open } p \in W \subseteq U \cap V.$$

$v \in T_p M$, $v: C^\infty(p) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t. v is \mathbb{R} -linear and satisfies Leibniz Rule.

Ex: $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open set x_1, \dots, x_n coordinate functions on U . $p \in U$.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p : C^\infty(p) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, [f] \mapsto \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p \text{ is a derivation.}$$

Also we've seen $\left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p \mid i=1, \dots, n \right\}$ is a basis for $T_p U$.

We may define the tangent bundle $T_x U$ as the set

$$T_x U = \bigcup_{p \in U} T_p U \cong U \times \mathbb{R}^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \text{ open subset}$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^n v_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p \longleftrightarrow (p, v), v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$$

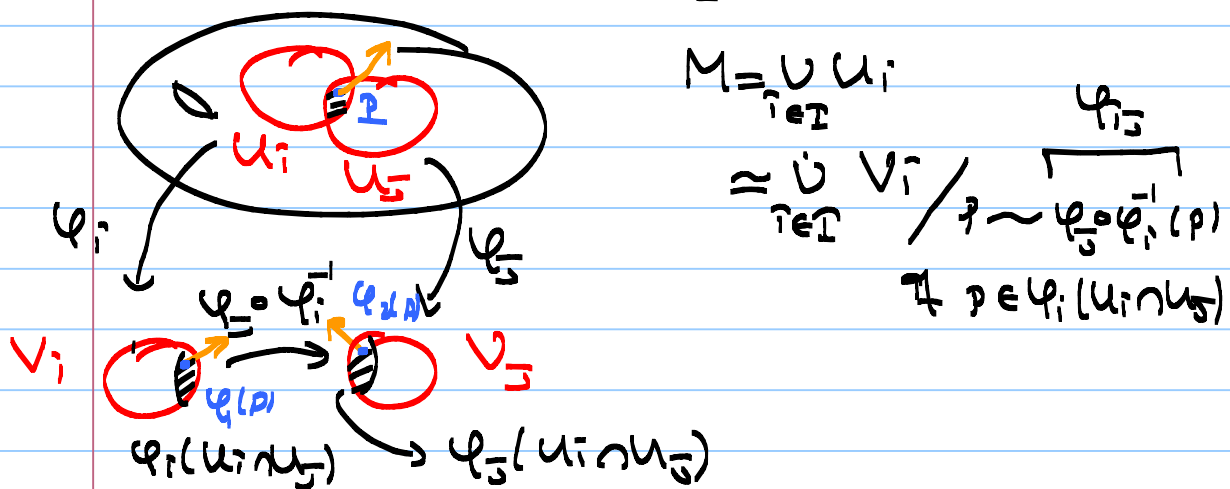
where (p, v) is identified with the directional derivative at p along the vector v .

$$(p, v) \mapsto D_{v,p} : C^\infty(p) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$
$$[f] \mapsto D_v(f) \Big|_p = \nabla f(p) \cdot v$$

$$\text{So, } D_v(f) \Big|_p = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p (f) \right) v_i = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n v_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p \right) (f).$$

Hence, we may put the product topology on $U \times \mathbb{R}^n$ to $T_x U$ via the above correspondence. Hence, $T_x U$ is homeomorphic to $U \times \mathbb{R}^n$, which is a 2n-dimensional C^∞ -manifold.

Let M be a C^∞ -manifold with an atlas $\{\varphi_i: U_i \rightarrow V_i\}_{i \in I}$, $U_i \subset M$, $V_i \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ open subsets so that $M = \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$.



Exercise: The topology on $\bigcup V_i / \sim$ is the quotient topology on the disjoint union of V_i 's. Show that it is homeomorphic to M .

We can use this approach to describe manifold structure on $T_x M$.

$$T_x M = \bigcup_{p \in M} T_p M \text{ as a set.}$$

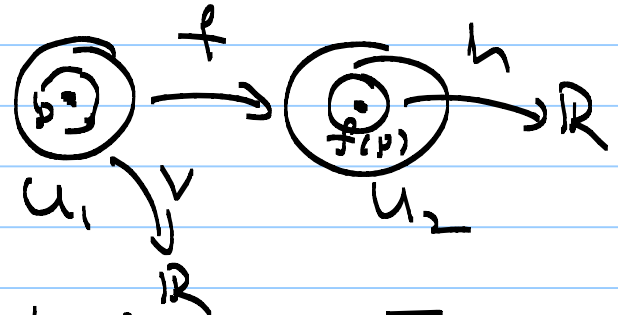
$$M = \bigcup V_i / \sim \quad p \in V_i, p \sim \varphi_{i_2}(p)$$

$$T_x M = \bigcup_{v \in T_p V_i} T_x V_i / (p, v) \sim (\varphi_{i_2}(p), D\varphi_{i_2}(p)(v))$$

Remark: $f: U_1 \rightarrow U_2$ smooth map of open subsets of \mathbb{R}^n and \mathbb{R}^m , respectively.

$$p \in U_1, v \in T_p U_1$$

$$Df_p(v)(h) = v(h \circ f)$$



Then $Df_p: T_p U_1 \rightarrow T_{f(p)} U_2$ is a map. This map is linear and if x_1, \dots, x_n and y_1, \dots, y_m are coordinates on U_1 and U_2 , respectively, then the matrix representation of the linear map Df_p in the bases $\{\partial/\partial x_i|_p\}_{i=1}^n$ and $\{\partial/\partial y_j|_{f(p)}\}_{j=1}^m$ is the Jacobian matrix.

$$[Df_p]_{\beta}^{\beta'} = \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(p) \right)_{\substack{i=1, \dots, m \\ j=1, \dots, n}} \quad f = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$$

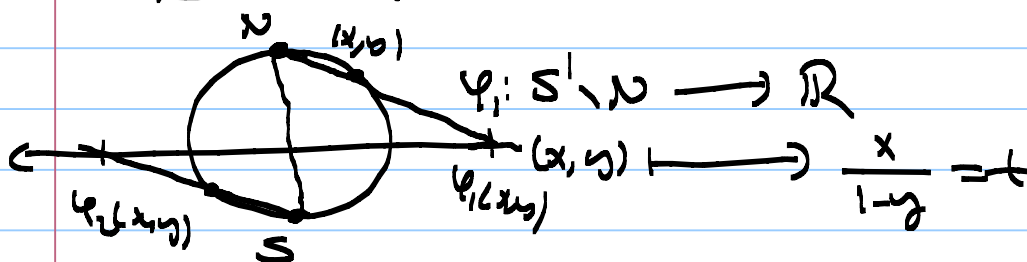
$$f_i: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$h: U_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, (h \circ f)(x_1, \dots, x_n) = h(f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, f_m(x_1, \dots, x_n))$$

$$\begin{aligned} v = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}|_p, Df_p(v)(h) &= v(h \circ f) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}|_p (h(f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, f_m(x_1, \dots, x_n))) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{\partial h}{\partial y_j}(f(p)) \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial x_i}(p) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{\partial h}{\partial y_j}(f(p)) \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_i}(p) \\ &= \left(\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_i} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_i} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} (p) \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial h}{\partial y_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial h}{\partial y_m} \end{bmatrix} (f(p)) \right)_i \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \partial h / \partial x_1 \\ \vdots \\ \partial h / \partial x_n \end{bmatrix}_{f(x)} = \begin{bmatrix} \partial h / \partial x_1 (f(x)) \\ \vdots \\ \partial h / \partial x_n (f(x)) \end{bmatrix} (x)$$

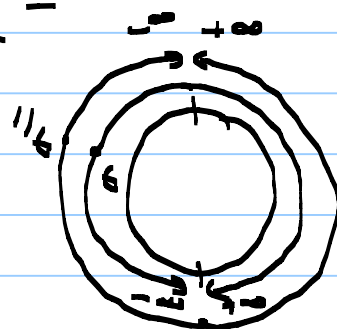
Example: $S^1 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$.



$$\varphi_2: S^1 \setminus S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$(x, y) \mapsto \frac{x}{1+y} = t$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S^1 \setminus \{S, N\} & \xrightarrow{\varphi_2 \circ \varphi_1^{-1}} & S^1 \setminus \{S, N\} \\ \cong & & \cong \\ \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} & & \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \\ t & \xrightarrow{\quad} & 1/t \end{array}$$



$$\frac{x}{1-y} = t \quad x^2 + y^2 = 1 \Rightarrow x^2 = 1 - y^2 = (1-y)(1+y)$$

$$t = \varphi_1(x, y) = \frac{x}{1-y} = \frac{1+y}{x} = \frac{1}{\varphi_2(x, y)} = \frac{1}{t}$$

$$S^1 = \mathbb{R} \dot{\cup} \mathbb{R} / t \sim \frac{1}{t}, t \neq 0$$

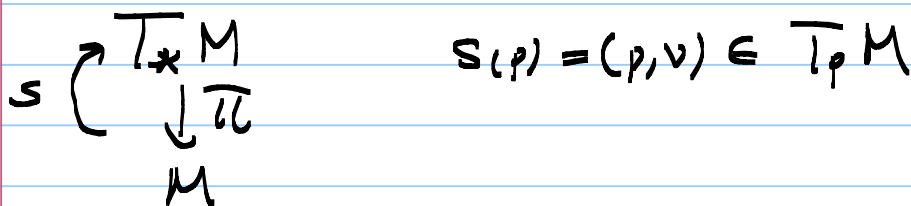
$$\begin{array}{ccc} T_* S^1 & = & T_* \mathbb{R} \dot{\cup} T_* \mathbb{R} \\ \cong & & \cong \\ \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} & & \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \end{array} / (t, v) \sim \left(\frac{1}{t}, -\frac{1}{t^2} v \right)$$

Section 14

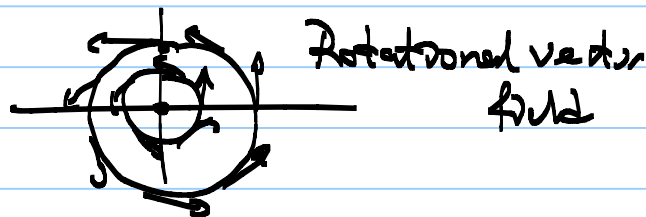
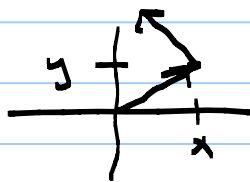
Sections of Tangent Bundle

$\pi: T_x M \rightarrow M$ tangent bundle projection
 $(p, v) \mapsto p$

A section of the $\pi: T_x M \rightarrow M$ is a C^∞ -map
 $s: M \rightarrow T_x M$ so that $\pi \circ s = \text{id}_M$.

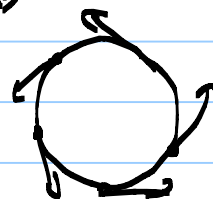
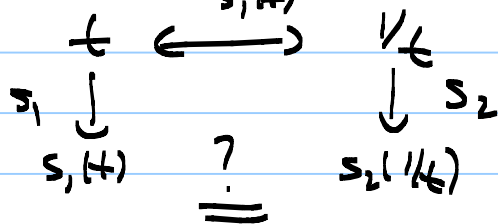


Ex: $M = \mathbb{R}^2$, $s(x, y) = -y \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + x \frac{\partial}{\partial y}$



$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \text{Ex} & T_x S^1 & = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \cup \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} / (t, v) \sim (1/t, -\frac{1}{t^2} v) \\
 \pi \downarrow & \nearrow s_1, s_2 & \\
 S^1 & = \mathbb{R} \cup \mathbb{R} / t \sim 1/t, t \neq 0 & \\
 \equiv & \equiv & \\
 & & \begin{array}{cc} s_1(t) & s_2(t) \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

$$s_1(t) = (t, \frac{1+t^2}{2}), \quad s_2(t) = (t, -\frac{1+t^2}{2})$$



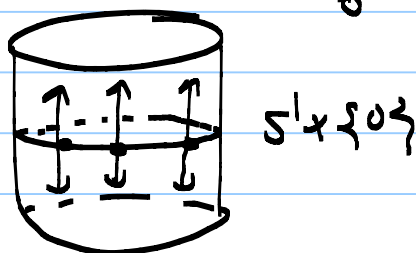
$$\begin{aligned}
 s_2(1/t) &= -\frac{1+(1/t)^2}{2} = -\frac{1+t^2}{2+2} = -\frac{1}{t^2} \frac{1+t^2}{2} \\
 &= -\frac{1}{t^2} s_1(t)
 \end{aligned}$$

Indeed we get a map $T_x S^1$ to $S^1 \times \mathbb{R}$ as follows

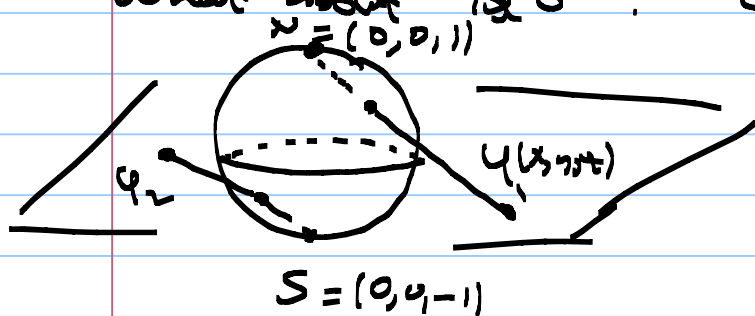
$$T_x S^1 \xrightarrow{\cong} S^1 \times \mathbb{R} \quad (\text{Diffeomorphism})$$

$$(v, w) \longmapsto (p, s(p/v))$$

$T_x S^1$



What about $T_x S^2$? $S^2 = \mathbb{C}P^1 =$ Riemann sphere



$$\varphi_1: S^2 - \{N\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{C}$$

$$\varphi_2: S^2 - \{S\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{C}$$

$$\varphi_1(x, y, z) = \left(\frac{x}{1-z}, \frac{y}{1-z} \right), \quad \varphi_2(x, y, z) = \left(\frac{x}{1+z}, \frac{y}{1+z} \right)$$

$$\varphi_2 \circ \varphi_1^{-1}: \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$$

$$z \longmapsto 1/z$$

$$S^2 = \mathbb{C} \cup \mathbb{C} / z \sim 1/z, \quad z \neq 0$$

$$T_x S^2 = \underline{T_x \mathbb{C}} \cup \underline{T_x \mathbb{C}} / (z, w) \sim (1/z, -\frac{1}{z^2} w)$$

Sections: $s_1(z) = \frac{1+z^2}{2}, \quad s_2(z) = -\frac{1+z^2}{2}$

$s_1(z)$ has exactly two zeros, namely $\pm i$.
So we do not have an apparent diffeomorphism from $T_x S^2$ to $S^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2$.

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Remark: T^*S^2 is not isomorphic to the product (trivial) bundle $S^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 (p, v) & T^*S^2 \xrightarrow{F^{-1}} & S^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2 & (q, w) \\
 & \searrow \pi & \swarrow \rho & \\
 & p & S^2 & q
 \end{array}$$

T^*S^2 is locally trivial as any tangent bundle but not globally trivial.

Example: T^*S^4 , $S^1 = \mathbb{R} \dot{\cup} \mathbb{R} / t \sim 1/t, t \neq 0$

$$S^2 = \mathbb{C} \dot{\cup} \mathbb{C} / z \sim 1/z, z \neq 0$$

$$S^4 = \mathbb{H} \dot{\cup} \mathbb{H} / p \sim 1/p, p \neq 0, \mathbb{H} = \mathbb{R}^4$$

$$= \{a + b\hat{i} + c\hat{j} + d\hat{k} \mid$$

$$\hat{i} \cdot \hat{j} = \hat{k}, \hat{j} \cdot \hat{k} = \hat{i}, \hat{k} \cdot \hat{i} = \hat{j}$$

$$\hat{i} \cdot \hat{i} = -1, \hat{j} \cdot \hat{j} = -1, \hat{k} \cdot \hat{k} = -1$$

$$a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

$$T^*S^4 = T^*\mathbb{H} \dot{\cup} T^*\mathbb{H} / (p, v) \sim \left(\frac{1}{p}, D\varphi_p(v)\right) = -\frac{1}{p} v \frac{1}{p}, p \neq 0$$

where $\varphi: \mathbb{H} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{H} \setminus \{0\}, \varphi(p) = 1/p$.

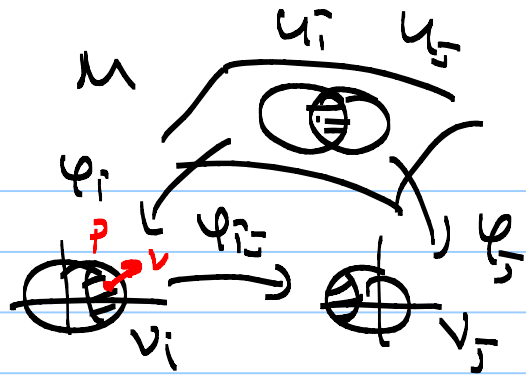
Exercise: Show that $D\varphi_p(v) = -1/p v 1/p$.

These examples can be generalised to vector bundles as follows:

$$M = \cup U_i = \cup V_i / p \sim \varphi_{i,j}(p), p \in \varphi_{i,j}(U_i \cap U_j)$$

$\varphi_i: U_i \rightarrow V_i$ coordinate maps, $U_i \subseteq M, V_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$

and $\varphi_{i_5} = \varphi_{i_5} \circ \varphi_i^{-1}$



$$T_x M = \dot{\cup} T_x V_i / (p, v) \sim (\varphi_{i_5}(p), D\varphi_{i_5}(p)(v))$$

$p \in \varphi_i(U_i \cap U_j), v \in T_p V_i$

$$T_x V_i = V_i \times \mathbb{R}^n \quad V_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$

(or $v_p = \sum a_{i1}(p) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} |_p$)

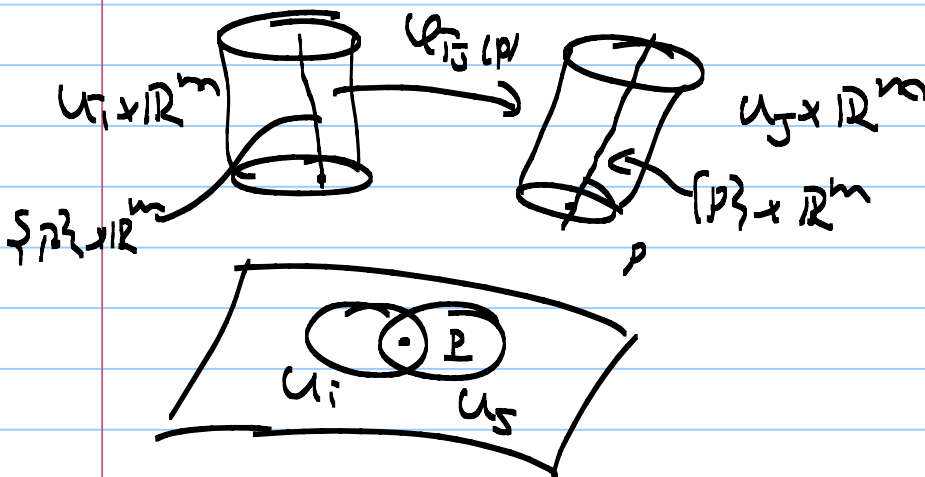
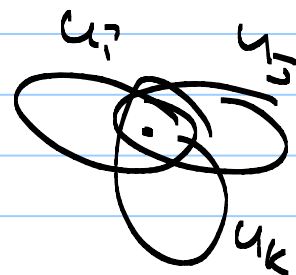
A vector bundle E on M is a map $\pi: E \rightarrow M$ s.t. that

$$E = \dot{\cup}_i U_i \times \mathbb{R}^m / (p, v) \sim (p, \varphi_{i_5}(p)(v))$$

$p \in U_i \cap U_j$

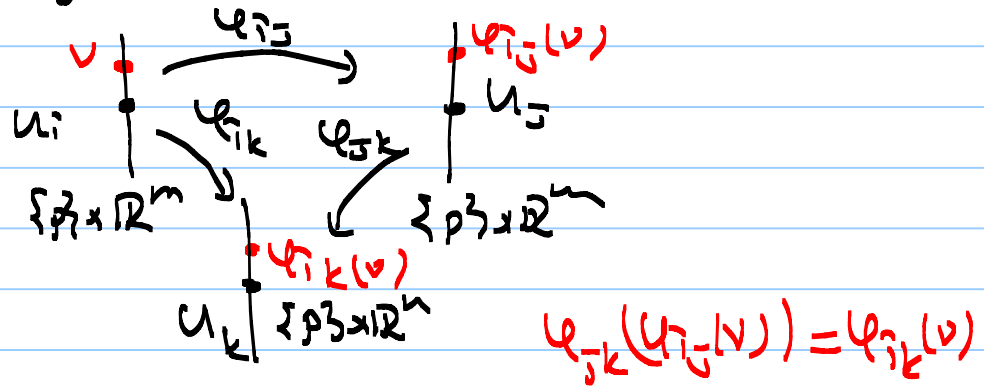
$\varphi_{i_5}(p): \{p\} \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \{p\} \times \mathbb{R}^m$ linear isomorphism.

$\pi: E \rightarrow M, \pi(p, v) = p.$



Remark: In the $T_x M$ construction $\varphi_{i_5}(p)$ were $D\varphi_{i_5}(p).$

Have the transition functions φ_{ij} 's must satisfy the cocycle condition:



Cocycle Condition: $\varphi_{jk} \circ \varphi_{ij} = \varphi_{ik}$ on $U_i \cap U_j \cap U_k$

Cotangent Bundle: This is the dual of the tangent bundle.

More generally, let $E \xrightarrow{\pi} M$ be a vector bundle.

$$E = \dot{\cup} U_i \times \mathbb{R}^m / (p, v) \sim (p, \varphi_{ij}(p)(v)) \\ p \in U_i \cap U_j$$

$$V = \mathbb{R}^m, \quad V^* = (\mathbb{R}^m)^* = \text{Hom}(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathbb{R})$$

$$L: V \rightarrow W \text{ when } L^*: \text{Hom}(W, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(V, \mathbb{R})$$

$$\varphi_{ij}: U_i \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow U_j \times \mathbb{R}^m \\ (\varphi_{ij}^*)^* = (\varphi_{ij}^*: U_j \times (\mathbb{R}^m)^* \rightarrow U_i \times (\mathbb{R}^m)^*)^*$$

$$E^* = \text{Hom}(E, \mathbb{R}) = \dot{\cup} U_i \times \underset{\mathbb{R}^m}{(\mathbb{R}^m)^*} / (p, v^*) \sim (p, \varphi_{ij}^*(p, v^*)) \\ (\varphi_{ij}^*)^*$$

$$\text{Example: } T_x S^2 = \mathbb{C} \times \underset{\mathbb{R}^2}{\mathbb{C}} \cup \mathbb{C} \times \underset{\mathbb{R}^2}{\mathbb{C}}$$

$$S^2 = \mathbb{C} \cup \mathbb{C} \\ (z, v) \sim (z, -1/z v) \quad z \in S^1, v \in \mathbb{R}^2 \\ U_1 = S^2 \setminus \{0\} \quad U_2 = S^2 \setminus \{\infty\}$$

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$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \{z\} \times \mathbb{C} = \{z\} \times \mathbb{R}^2 & \xrightarrow{\varphi_{1,2}} & \{z\} \times \mathbb{R}^2 = \{z\} \times \mathbb{C} \\
 \downarrow \varphi_{1,2} & & \downarrow \varphi_{2,1} \\
 \{z\} \times \mathbb{C} & \xrightarrow{\varphi_{1,2}^*} & \{z\} \times \mathbb{C} \\
 \downarrow \nu^* & & \downarrow \nu^* \\
 \{z\} \times \mathbb{C} & \xrightarrow{\varphi_{1,2}^*} & \{z\} \times \mathbb{C}
 \end{array}$$

$\nu \xrightarrow{\quad} \nu^{-1/z} \nu$
 $(\varphi_{1,2}^*)^{-1} = \varphi_{2,1}^*$

$$\left(\frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{z} = \frac{z}{|z|^2}, \quad \overline{\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)} = \frac{1}{\overline{z}} \right)$$

This map is "homotopic" to $z \mapsto z^2$ and the
 $T^*S^2 = \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C} \cup \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C} / (z, v) \sim (p, z^2 v)$

In general, we have the bundle $Q(k) \rightarrow S^2 = \mathbb{C}P^1$
 defined by
 $Q(k) = \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C} \cup \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C} / (z, v) \sim (z, \frac{1}{z^k} v)$

It is known that any "oriented" \mathbb{R}^2 bundle
 (or complex line bundle) over $S^2 = \mathbb{C}P^1$ is
 $Q(k)$ for some k .

We've seen that $T^*S^2 = Q(2)$ and $T^*S^2 = Q(-2)$.

Exercise: Dual of $Q(k)$ is $(Q(k))^* = Q(-k)$.

Cotangent Bundle of a Smooth manifold

$U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open subset, x_1, \dots, x_n coordinate functions
 on U .

$T_x^*U = U \times \mathbb{R}^n$, $\left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \right\}_{i=1}^n$ is a basis for T_x^*U
 for all p .

The dual vectors to $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}|_p$ in T_p^*U will be denoted $dx_i|_p \in T_p^*U$. So we have

$$dx_i|_p \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}|_p \right) = \delta_{ij}. \text{ Moreover, we may write}$$

$$T^*U = U \times \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \omega \in T^*U, \quad \omega|_p = a_1 dx_1|_p + \dots + a_n dx_n|_p$$

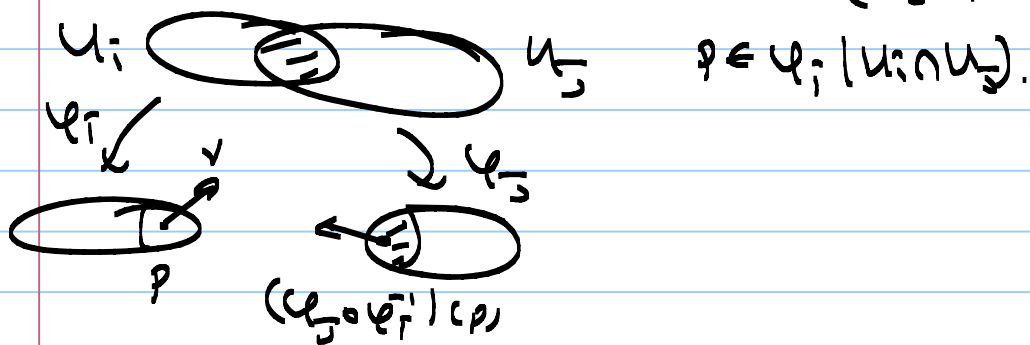
$a_j: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a function. An object of this type is called a differential 1-form on U .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} T^*U & & \omega = \omega(p) = a_1(p) dx_1|_p + \dots + a_n(p) dx_n|_p \\ \pi \downarrow \cong & \omega & \\ U & & \end{array}$$

If all $a_i: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are smooth then ω is called a smooth differential 1-form on U .

If M is a smooth manifold and $M = \cup U_i$, $\varphi_i: U_i \rightarrow V_i$ coordinate charts then

$$T_x M = \bigcup_i T_x U_i \cong \bigcup_i T_x V_i / (p, v) \sim ((\varphi_i \circ \varphi_j^{-1})|_p, D(\varphi_i \circ \varphi_j^{-1})|_p v)$$

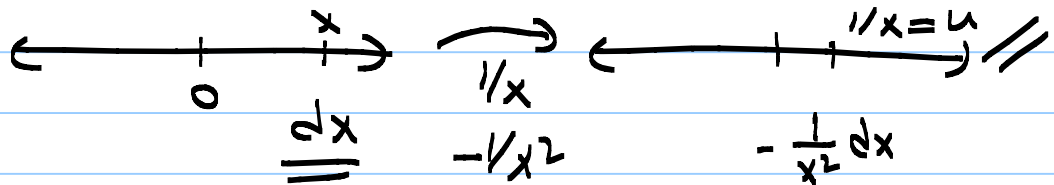


$$T^*M = \bigcup_i T^*U_i = \bigcup_i T^*V_i / (p, \theta) \sim ((\varphi_j \circ \varphi_i^{-1})|_p, D(\varphi_j \circ \varphi_i^{-1})|_p \theta)$$

Example: $S^1 = \mathbb{R} \cup \mathbb{R} / x \sim 1/x, x \neq 0$

$T_x S^1 = T_x \mathbb{R} \cup T_x \mathbb{R} / (x, v) \sim (1/x, -1/x^2 v), x \neq 0$

$T^* S^1 = T^* \mathbb{R} \cup T^* \mathbb{R} / (x, \theta) \sim (1/x, -1/x^2 \theta), x \neq 0$



$$d(1/x) = -\frac{dx}{x^2} = du$$

We'll get back to differential forms later!

Sard's Theorem: Recall that if $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a smooth function, a point $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a critical point if $Df(p): T_p \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow T_p \mathbb{R}^m$ is not onto.

A point $q \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is called a critical value of f if $f^{-1}(q)$ contains a critical point.

A point $q \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is called a regular value of f if q is not a critical value.

Hence, a point $q \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is a regular value of f if and only if $Df(p): T_p \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow T_p \mathbb{R}^m$ is onto for any $p \in f^{-1}(q)$.

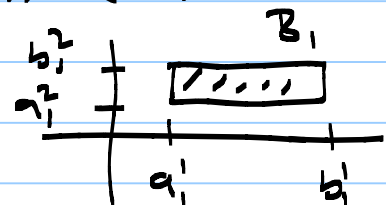
Note that if $f^{-1}(q) = \emptyset$ (i.e., $q \notin f(\mathbb{R}^n)$) then q is a regular value.

Theorem (Sard) Given any smooth function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ the set of critical values of f in \mathbb{R}^m has measure zero in \mathbb{R}^m .

Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be the set of critical points of f . Then $f(C)$, the set of critical values has measure zero in \mathbb{R}^m . In other words, for any $\epsilon > 0$ there are rectangular boxes $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n, \dots$ in \mathbb{R}^m so that

$$f(C) \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \text{vol}(B_i) < \epsilon.$$

$$B_i = (a_1^i, b_1^i) \times \dots \times (a_m^i, b_m^i)$$

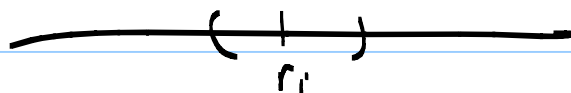


$$\text{vol}(B_i) = \prod_{k=1}^m (b_i^k - a_i^k).$$

Example: \mathbb{Q} in \mathbb{R} has measure zero.

Since \mathbb{Q} is countable we may write $\mathbb{Q} = \{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n, \dots\}$

Given $\epsilon > 0$ let $B_i = (r_i - \epsilon/2^{i+1}, r_i + \epsilon/2^{i+1})$



$$\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i, \quad \text{vol}(B_i) = \frac{\epsilon}{2^i} \quad i=1, 2, \dots$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \text{vol}(B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\epsilon}{2^i} = \epsilon.$$

Exercise: Prove Sard's theorem for a function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

As an application of Sard's Theorem we may prove the following Embedding Theorem.

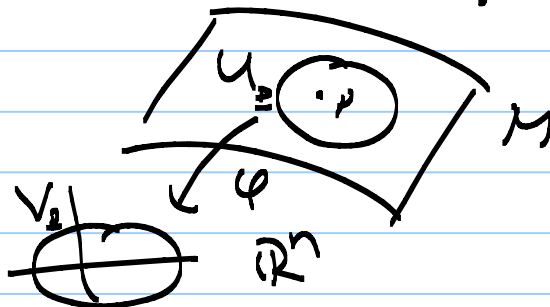
Theorem (Whitney Embedding Thm)

If M is a compact smooth manifold of dimension n then there is an immersion of M into \mathbb{R}^{2n} and an embedding of M into \mathbb{R}^{2n+1} .

Proof: We first embed M into \mathbb{R}^D for some possible big D .

For any $p \in M$ choose a coordinate map

$$\varphi: U_p \rightarrow V_p \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$

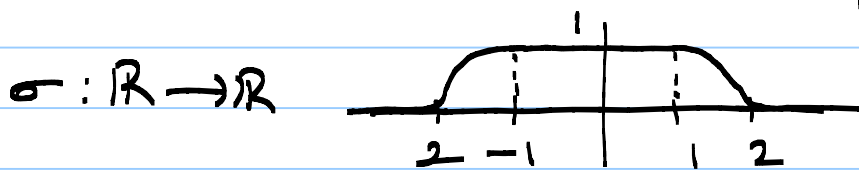


Clearly $\{U_p\}_{p \in M}$ is an open cover for M and thus M is covered by finitely many U_i 's, say

$$M = U_1 \cup \dots \cup U_k, \quad \varphi_i: U_i \rightarrow V_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n, \text{ i.o.}$$

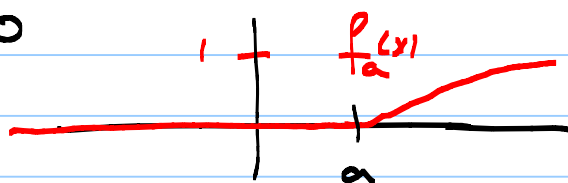
Extend each φ_i to a smooth function on M .

For this consider the smooth function

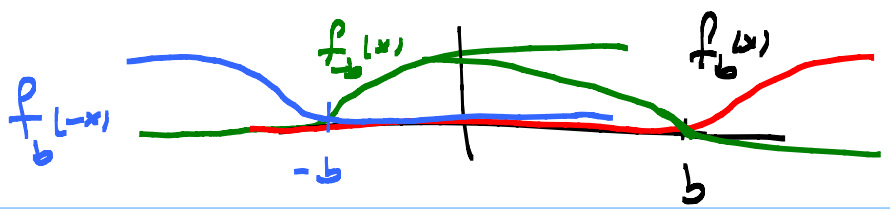


$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-\frac{1}{x-a}} & a < x \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

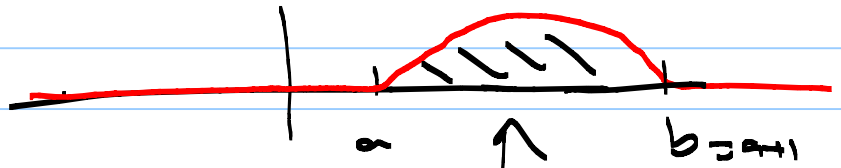
$$f \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$$



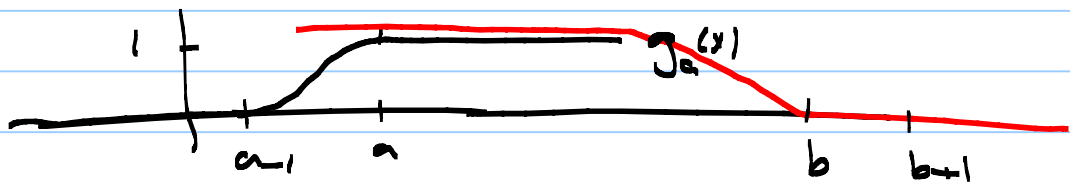
Video 7




Q. $a < b$, let $f_{a,b}(x) = f_a(x) f_{-b}(-x)$



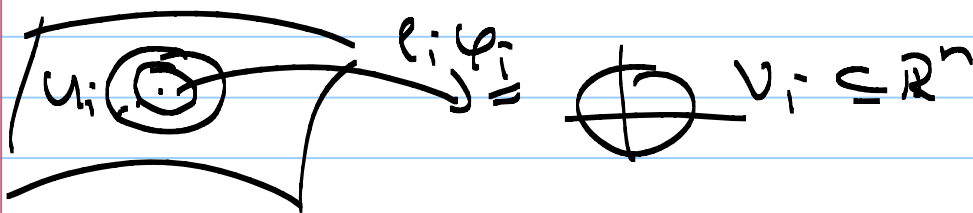
$$g_a(x) = \left(\int_{-\infty}^x f_{a, a+1}(t) dt \right) / \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{a, a+1}(t) dt \right)$$



$$p = g_{a-1}(x) g_{-(b+1)}(-x) \quad (?)$$

U_i  U_i $p_i \equiv 1$ on U_i , $p_i \equiv 0$ outside U_i .

$p_i : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ Then replace ψ_i by $p_i \psi_i$.



Now we have map $M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{(b+1)k} = \mathbb{R}^{nk} \times \mathbb{R}^k$

$$p \mapsto (\underbrace{\psi_1(p), \dots, \psi_k(p)}_{\mathbb{R}^n}, \underbrace{p_1(p), \dots, p_k(p)}_{\mathbb{R}^k})$$

Each ψ_i is an immersion on U_i . Hence this map is an immersion on M . This map is also 1-1.

If $p, q \in M$ so that $p \neq q$. If $p, q \in U_i$ then $\varphi_i(p) \neq \varphi_i(q)$ since φ_i is a homeomorphism on U_i . If $p \in U_i$ but $q \notin U_i$ for some i . Then $\varphi_i(p) \neq 0$ but $\varphi_i(q) = 0$.

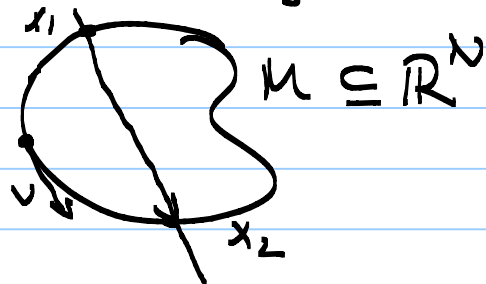
Then we have an $(n-1)$ -immersion $F: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. Since M is compact F is an embedding.

Now consider two functions

$$\psi_1: M \times M \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, (x_1, x_2, \lambda) \mapsto \lambda(x_1 - x_2)$$

$$\psi_2: T_x M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, (x, v) \mapsto v, (x, v) \in T_x M \subseteq T_x \mathbb{R}^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$

when we identify M with its image $F(M)$.



If $n \leq 2n+1$ then we are done.

If $n > 2n+1$ then both target maps

$D\psi_1$ and $D\psi_2$ cannot be onto. Hence any point of the image is a critical value.

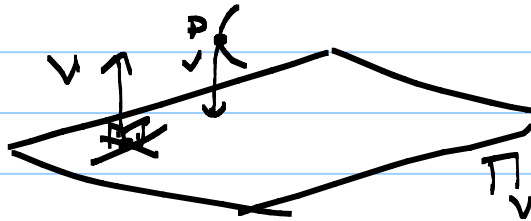
$\psi_1(M \times M \times \mathbb{R})$ is equal to the critical values of ψ_1

and $\psi_2(T_x M)$ is equal to the critical values of ψ_2 .

Any point $\tilde{r} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ not contained in the image of ψ_1 and ψ_2 are regular values for both maps. Hence, by Sard's theorem both ψ_1

and ψ_2 are not onto. Let $v \in \mathbb{R}^N$ be a regular value (i.e., not in the image of ψ_1 or ψ_2).

Let Γ_v be the hyperplane in \mathbb{R}^N perpendicular to the vector v .



Let $\pi: \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \Gamma_v \cong \mathbb{R}^{N-1}$ be the orthogonal projection.

Consider the map $\pi \circ F: M \rightarrow \Gamma_v \cong \mathbb{R}^{N-1}$.

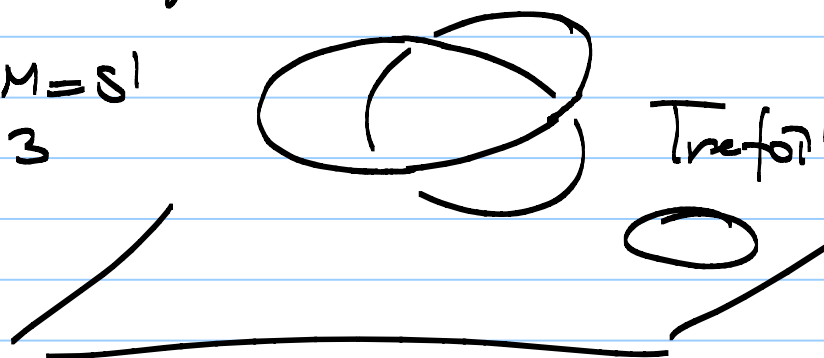
$\pi \circ F$ is still a (-1) immersion.

Repeating this process in case $2n+1 < N-1$ we'll finally obtain an embedding into \mathbb{R}^{n+1} .

This finishes the proof. \square

Remark: Note that this process may not give an embedding into \mathbb{R}^{2n+1} .

$n=1, M=S^1$
 $2n+1=3$



No projection of the Trefoil onto a plane is an embedding.

Video 1 P

Differential Forms:

Let $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open subset, x_1, \dots, x_n coordinates on \mathbb{R}^n

$$T_x V = V \times \mathbb{R}^n \quad \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p \right\}_{i=1}^n \text{ sections of } T_x V.$$

Any vector field on V has the form

$$F = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i(p) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p, \text{ for some smooth functions } a_i : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

Similarly, $T^*V = V \times \mathbb{R}^n \quad \{ dx_i \Big|_p \}_{i=1}^n$ sections of T^*V .

Any 1-form ω on V has the form

$$\omega = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i(p) dx_i \Big|_p, \text{ for some smooth functions } a_i : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

To define k -forms and wedge products we need some algebraic preliminaries:

V real vector space of dimension n .

$V^* = \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{R}}(V, \mathbb{R})$ dual vector space.

If $B = \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ is a basis for V then $B^* = \{e_1^*, \dots, e_n^*\}$ is the dual basis for V^* so that

$$e_i^*(e_j) = \delta_{ij}, \quad i, j = 1, \dots, n.$$

For any vector spaces V and W their tensor-product $V \otimes W$ is defined as follows:

$$V \otimes W = V \times W / \begin{aligned} &(v_1 + v_2, w) - (v_1, w) - (v_2, w) \\ &(v, w_1 + w_2) - (v, w_1) - (v, w_2) \\ &\lambda(v, w) - (\lambda v, w) - (v, \lambda w) \end{aligned}$$

for any $v_1, v_2 \in V, w_1, w_2 \in W$
 $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

The equivalence class of (v, w) is the quotient vector space is denoted as $v \otimes w$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence, } (v_1 + v_2) \otimes w &= v_1 \otimes w + v_2 \otimes w \text{ or} \\ v \otimes (w_1 + w_2) &= v \otimes w_1 + v \otimes w_2 \\ \lambda(v \otimes w) &= (\lambda v) \otimes w = v \otimes (\lambda w). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, one can define the tensor product $V_1 \otimes V_2 \otimes \dots \otimes V_n$ for vector spaces V_1, \dots, V_n .

Symmetric tensor: let V be a vector space, V^* be its dual and consider

$$(V^*)^{\otimes n} = V^* \otimes \dots \otimes V^*.$$

If $f \in (V^*)^{\otimes n}$ then f defines a map

$$f: V \times \dots \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \text{ as follows:}$$

$$f = \sum_{\mathcal{I}} a_{\mathcal{I}} e_{i_1}^* \otimes \dots \otimes e_{i_n}^* \quad \begin{aligned} \mathcal{I} &= (i_1, \dots, i_n) \\ a_{\mathcal{I}} &\in \mathbb{R}. \end{aligned}$$

$(v_1, \dots, v_n) \in V \times \dots \times V$. then

$$f(v_1, \dots, v_n) = \sum_{\mathcal{I}} a_{\mathcal{I}} e_{i_1}^*(v_1) \dots e_{i_n}^*(v_n)$$

Ex $V = \mathbb{R}^3, V^* = \langle e_1^*, e_2^*, e_3^* \rangle$

$$f = 2e_1^* \otimes e_2^* - 3e_2^* \otimes e_3^* \quad \text{2-tensor}$$

$$f((1, 0, 3), (2, -6, 5)) = 2 \cdot 1 \cdot (-2) - 3 \cdot 0 \cdot 5 = -4$$

A tensor $f \in V^{\otimes n}$ is called symmetric if

$$f(v_1, \dots, v_n) = f(v_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, v_{\sigma(n)}) \quad \text{for any}$$

permutation $\sigma: \{1, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, n\}$.

A tensor $f \in V^{\otimes n}$ is called alternating if

$$f \circ \sigma = \text{sign}(\sigma) f$$

The determinant function $\det: \mathbb{R}^n \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is an alternating dual tensor:

$$\det: \mathbb{R}^n \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad (v_1, \dots, v_n) \mapsto \det \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

From linear algebra we know that any alternating n -tensor on \mathbb{R}^n is a scalar multiple of the determinant function.

Notation: e_1, \dots, e_n basis for V
 e_1^*, \dots, e_n^* dual basis for V^*

$e_1^* \wedge \dots \wedge e_n^*$ will denote the determinant tensor.

$$e_1^* \wedge \dots \wedge e_n^* (v_1, \dots, v_n) = \det(a_{ij}), \text{ where}$$

$$v_j = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} e_i \quad \Bigg| \quad = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \text{sign}(\sigma) e_1^*(v_{\sigma(1)}) \dots e_n^*(v_{\sigma(n)})$$

$$V = T_p U, \quad U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \text{ open.}$$

$$\left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p \right\}$$

$$V^* = T_p^* U, \quad \{ dx_i \Big|_p \}$$

An alternating k -tensor on V^* has the form

$$\omega = \sum_{|I|=k} a_I dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k}$$

Consider these as functions of p we obtain so called differential k -forms on U

$$\omega(p) = \sum_{|I|=k} a_I(p) dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k}$$

$a_I: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ smooth function.

Ex: A differential 2-form on \mathbb{R}^3 is as follows: x, y, z coordinates on \mathbb{R}^3

$$\omega = a(x, y, z) dx \wedge dy + b(x, y, z) dy \wedge dz + c(x, y, z) dz \wedge dx$$

Remark: $dx_i \wedge dx_j = -dx_j \wedge dx_i$ for any i, j .
Hence, $dx_i \wedge dx_i = 0, \forall i$.

Wedge product of a k -form and a l -form.

$$(dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k}) \wedge (dx_{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{j_l})$$

$$= dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k} \wedge dx_{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{j_l}$$

Note that if ω is a k -form and ω_2 is a l -form then

$$\omega_1 \wedge \omega_2 = (-1)^{kl} \omega_2 \wedge \omega_1.$$

Exterior Derivatives If $\omega = \sum_I a_I dx_I$,

$I = (i_1, \dots, i_k)$ multi indices, $dx_I = dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k}$,

If a differential k -form on $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ then its exterior derivative is defined to be the differential $k+1$ -form on U given by

$$d\omega = \sum_I (da_I) \wedge dx_I, \text{ where}$$

$$da_I = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial a_I}{\partial x_i} dx_i, \text{ is the differential of } a_I.$$

Proposition: 1) $d(\omega \wedge \eta) = d\omega \wedge \eta + (-1)^k \omega \wedge d\eta$
if ω is a k -form.

$$2) d(\omega_1 + \omega_2) = d\omega_1 + d\omega_2$$

$$3) d(\lambda\omega) = \lambda d\omega, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$4) d^2 = 0$$

The vector space of all differential k -forms on U is denoted by $\Omega^k(U)$. So d is a linear map

$$d: \Omega^k(U) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(U).$$

Hence, the identity $d^2 = 0$ means that the composition

$$\Omega^k(U) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^{k+1}(U) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^{k+2}(U) \text{ is zero.}$$

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Proof 1) ω k -form and η l -form.

$$d(\omega \wedge \eta) = d\omega \wedge \eta + (-1)^k \omega \wedge d\eta$$

$$\omega = \sum_{|\mathbb{I}|=k} a_{\mathbb{I}} dx_{\mathbb{I}} \quad , \quad \eta = \sum_{|\mathbb{J}|=l} b_{\mathbb{J}} dx_{\mathbb{J}}$$

$$\mathbb{I} = (i_1, \dots, i_k) \quad 1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \leq n, \quad \mathbb{J} = (j_1, \dots, j_l)$$

$$dx_{\mathbb{I}} = dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k}$$

$$\omega \wedge \eta = \sum_{\substack{|\mathbb{I}|=k \\ |\mathbb{J}|=l}} a_{\mathbb{I}} \cdot b_{\mathbb{J}} dx_{\mathbb{I}} \wedge dx_{\mathbb{J}}$$

It will be enough to prove this for $\omega = a dx_{\mathbb{I}}$
and $\eta = b dx_{\mathbb{J}}$.

$$d(a b) = \sum \frac{\partial(a b)}{\partial x_i} dx_i$$

$$\begin{aligned} d(\omega \wedge \eta) &= d(a b dx_{\mathbb{I}} \wedge dx_{\mathbb{J}}) \\ &= d(a b) \wedge dx_{\mathbb{I}} \wedge dx_{\mathbb{J}} \\ &= (b da + a db) \wedge dx_{\mathbb{I}} \wedge dx_{\mathbb{J}} \\ &= b da \wedge dx_{\mathbb{I}} \wedge dx_{\mathbb{J}} + a db \wedge dx_{\mathbb{I}} \wedge dx_{\mathbb{J}} \\ &= (da \wedge dx_{\mathbb{I}}) \wedge (b dx_{\mathbb{J}}) + (-1)^k a dx_{\mathbb{I}} \wedge (db \wedge dx_{\mathbb{J}}) \\ &= d\omega \wedge \eta + (-1)^k \omega \wedge d\eta \end{aligned}$$

In general,

$$d(\omega \wedge \eta) = d\left(\sum_{\mathbb{I}, \mathbb{J}} a_{\mathbb{I}} b_{\mathbb{J}} dx_{\mathbb{I}} \wedge dx_{\mathbb{J}} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{\mathbb{I}, \mathbb{J}} d(a_{\mathbb{I}} b_{\mathbb{J}} dx_{\mathbb{I}} \wedge dx_{\mathbb{J}})$$

$$= \sum_{\mathbb{I}, \mathbb{J}} (da_{\mathbb{I}} \wedge dx_{\mathbb{I}}) \wedge (b_{\mathbb{J}} dx_{\mathbb{J}}) + (-1)^k (a_{\mathbb{I}} dx_{\mathbb{I}}) \wedge (db_{\mathbb{J}} \wedge dx_{\mathbb{J}})$$

$$= \sum_{\mathbb{I}} d\omega \wedge (b_{\mathbb{J}} dx_{\mathbb{J}}) + (-1)^k \sum_{\mathbb{J}} \omega \wedge (db_{\mathbb{J}} \wedge dx_{\mathbb{J}})$$

$$= d\omega \wedge \eta + (-1)^k \omega \wedge d\eta.$$

$$4) \omega = \sum_I a_I dx_I \quad k\text{-form}$$

$$d\omega = \sum_I da_I \wedge dx_I$$

$$= \sum_I \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial a_I}{\partial x_j} dx_j \wedge dx_I$$

$$d^2\omega = \sum_I \sum_{j=1}^n d\left(\frac{\partial a_I}{\partial x_j}\right) \wedge dx_j \wedge dx_I$$

$$= \sum_I \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 a_I}{\partial x_l \partial x_j} dx_l \wedge dx_j \wedge dx_I$$

$$= \sum_I \left(\sum_{j > l} \frac{\partial^2 a_I}{\partial x_l \partial x_j} dx_l \wedge dx_j \right.$$

$$\left. + \sum_{j < l} \frac{\partial^2 a_I}{\partial x_l \partial x_j} dx_l \wedge dx_j \right) \wedge dx_I$$

$$= \sum_I \left(\sum_{j > l} \frac{\partial^2 a_I}{\partial x_l \partial x_j} dx_l \wedge dx_j - \sum_{j < l} \frac{\partial^2 a_I}{\partial x_l \partial x_j} dx_j \wedge dx_l \right) \wedge dx_I$$

$$= \sum_I \left(\sum_{j > l} \frac{\partial^2 a_I}{\partial x_l \partial x_j} dx_l \wedge dx_j - \sum_{l < j} \frac{\partial^2 a_I}{\partial x_j \partial x_l} dx_l \wedge dx_j \right) \wedge dx_I$$

$$= \sum_I \left(\sum_{j > l} \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial^2 a_I}{\partial x_l \partial x_j} - \frac{\partial^2 a_I}{\partial x_j \partial x_l} \right)}_0 dx_l \wedge dx_j \right) \wedge dx_I$$

$$= 0.$$

Pull back of differential forms:

$F: U \rightarrow V, U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n, V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ open sub.

Let $\omega \in \Omega^k(V)$ be a k -form on V .

The pull back of ω via F is an k -form on U defined as

$$\underline{F^* \omega}(v_1, \dots, v_k) = \omega(F_* v_1, \dots, F_* v_k)$$

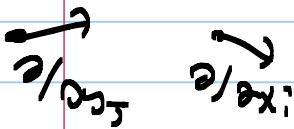
Ex $\omega = a(x) dx_i$

$$F^*(\omega)(v) = \omega(F_*(v)) = \omega_p(DF_p(v))$$

$$v = \sum v_j \frac{\partial}{\partial y_j}$$

$$= a(q) dx_i(DF_p(v))$$

$$= a(F(p)) dx_i \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y_1}(p) & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y_n}(p) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial y_1}(p) & \dots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial y_n}(p) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}$$



$$v = \sum v_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}$$

$$= a(F(p)) dx_i \left[\sum_{k=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial y_j} v_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \right]$$

$$= a(F(p)) \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y_j} v_j$$

$$= a(F(p)) \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y_j} dx_j(v)$$

$$= a(F(p)) df_i(v)$$

$$F = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$$

$$F^*(a dx_i) = a(F) df_i$$

Example: $F: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3, F(x_1, x_2) = (x_1 + x_2, x_1 x_2, x_1^3 + 3x_2 x_1)$
 $x_1, x_2 \quad y_1, y_2, y_3$

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$$F^*(dy_1) = d(x_1 + x_2) = dx_1 + dx_2$$

$$F^*(dy_2) = d(x_1 x_2) = x_2 dx_1 + x_1 dx_2$$

$$F^*(dy_3) = d(x_1^3 + 3x_1 x_2 + 1) = 3x_1^2 dx_1 + 3x_2 dx_1 + 3x_1 dx_2$$

Fact: $F^*(\omega \wedge \eta) = F^*\omega \wedge F^*\eta$. (Exercise!)

Example (Continued)

$$\begin{aligned} F^*(dy_1 \wedge dy_2) &= F^*(dy_1) \wedge F^*(dy_2) \\ &= (dx_1 + dx_2) \wedge (x_2 dx_1 + x_1 dx_2) \\ &= (x_1 - x_2) dx_1 \wedge dx_2 \end{aligned}$$

Example: $(x, y) = (x(u, v), y(u, v)) = F(u, v)$

$$x(u, v) = u/v, \quad y(u, v) = u + v$$

$$\begin{aligned} F^*(dx \wedge dy) &= F^*dx \wedge F^*dy \\ &= d(u/v) \wedge d(u+v) \\ &= \left(\frac{du}{v} - \frac{u dv}{v^2} \right) \wedge (du + dv) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{v} + \frac{u}{v^2} \right) du \wedge dv \end{aligned}$$

Proposition: 1) $d(F^*\omega) = F^*(d\omega)$ (Exercise!)
2) $F^*(\omega \wedge \eta) = F^*(\omega) \wedge F^*(\eta)$

$$y_1, \dots, y_n \quad x_1, \dots, x_n$$

Remark: $F: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ smooth map (coordinate change function). Then

$$F^*(dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n) = F^*(dx_1) \wedge \dots \wedge F^*(dx_n)$$

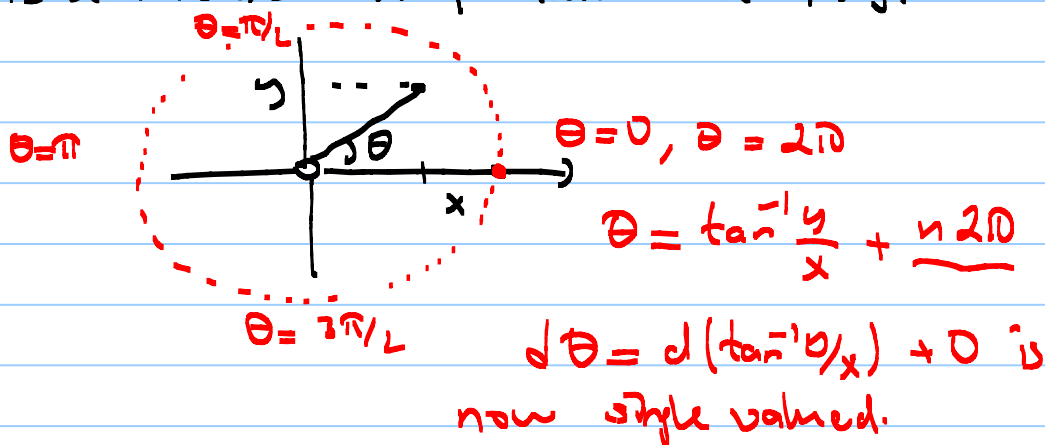
$$F = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow F^*(dx_1, \dots, dx_n) &= df_1, \dots, df_n \\ &= \left(\sum \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y_j} dy_j \right) \wedge \dots \wedge \left(\sum \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial y_j} dy_j \right) \\ &= \det \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y_j} \right) dy_1, \dots, dy_n \end{aligned}$$

Example 4 forms: 1) $\omega \in \Omega^1(\mathbb{R}^2, \{0,0\})$.

$$\omega = \frac{x dy - y dx}{x^2 + y^2} = d\theta, \quad \theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x} \in \Omega^0(\mathbb{R}^2, \text{axis})$$

θ is a multivalued function on $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0,0\}$.



2) $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \{(x,0) \mid x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0, z = 0\}$

$$S^1 \quad \omega = \frac{(x^2 + y^2 - 1) dz - z d(x^2 + y^2 - 1)}{(x^2 + y^2 - 1)^2 + z^2}$$

$$\omega \in \Omega^1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus S^1)$$

Forms on Manifolds:

A k -form on a smooth manifold is a smooth section of $\Lambda^k(T^*M) \rightarrow M$, where

$\wedge^k(T^*M)$ can be seen as follows:

$$M = \bigcup_i U_i, \quad U_i \cong V_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \text{ open.}$$

$$\overline{T_x M} = \bigcup_i \overline{T_x U_i}, \quad T^*M = \bigcup_i T^*U_i$$

$$(T^*M)^{\otimes k} = \underbrace{T^*M \otimes \dots \otimes T^*M}_{dx_1 \otimes \dots \otimes dx_k}$$

$$\text{Alt}((T^*M)^{\otimes k}) \hookrightarrow dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k}$$

Ex: $S^1 = \mathbb{R} \cup \mathbb{R} / t \sim 1/t \quad t \neq 0$

Let $\omega = dx$ 1-form on \mathbb{R} .

$$\begin{array}{c} \longleftarrow \overset{0}{\quad} \overset{x}{\quad} \longrightarrow dx \\ \varphi \downarrow \\ \longleftarrow \underset{0}{\quad} \underset{x}{\quad} \longrightarrow \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \varphi(x) = 1/x \\ \varphi^*(dx) = -\frac{1}{x^2} dx \end{array}$$

$$\omega = \frac{1}{x} \quad dy = -\frac{1}{x^2} dx$$

Example: $S^2 = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1\}$

$$\omega = x \, dy \wedge dz - y \, dz \wedge dx + z \, dx \wedge dy \in \Omega^2(\mathbb{R}^3)$$

$T_p S^2 \subseteq T_p \mathbb{R}^3$, we may identify ω with its restriction to S^2 .

$$\tilde{\iota}: S^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3, \quad \tilde{\iota}^*(\omega): \text{restriction of } \omega \text{ to } S^2$$

$$\varphi: \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow S^2, \quad \varphi(s, t) = \left(\frac{2s}{1+s^2+t^2}, \frac{2t}{1+s^2+t^2}, \frac{1-s^2-t^2}{1+s^2+t^2} \right)$$

$$\varphi^*(\omega) = \varphi^*(x dy \wedge dz + y dz \wedge dx + z dx \wedge dy)$$

$$dx = d\left(\frac{2s}{1+s^2+t^2}\right), \quad dy = d\left(\frac{2t}{1+s^2+t^2}\right), \quad dz = d\left(\frac{1-s^2-t^2}{1+s^2+t^2}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi^*\omega = \frac{4 ds \wedge dt}{(1+s^2+t^2)^2} \in \Omega^2(\mathbb{R}^2).$$

~ ~ ~

All the operations on forms on \mathbb{R}^n can be done on forms on manifolds, such as exterior derivative, pull back, etc.

$$\dots \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^k(M) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^{k+1}(M) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^{k+2}(M) \xrightarrow{d} \dots$$

$$d^2 = 0$$

Definition: A k -form $\omega \in \Omega^k(M)$ on a smooth manifold is called closed if $d\omega = 0$.

A k -form $\omega \in \Omega^k(M)$ is called exact if $\omega = d\eta$, for some $k-1$ -form $\eta \in \Omega^{k-1}(M)$.

Remark: 1) Since $d^2 = 0$ on M , if $\omega = d\eta$ is exact then $d\omega = d^2\eta = 0$ so that ω is also closed. Hence, any exact form on M is closed.

$$2) \omega = \frac{x dy - y dx}{x^2 + y^2} \in \Omega^1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}) \text{ is closed}$$

($d\omega = 0$) but it is not exact.

$\omega = d\theta$, $\theta = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$ is not a 0-form on $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}$.

Definition: For any smooth manifold M the quotient vector space of closed forms by the

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vector space exact forms is called the k th de Rham cohomology vector space of M .

$$H_{DR}^k(M) = \frac{\text{closed } k\text{-forms on } M}{\text{exact } k\text{-forms on } M} = \frac{Z^k(M)}{B^k(M)}$$

Orientation:

Orientation of Vector spaces / \mathbb{R} .

Let V be a finite dim'l real vector space. We define an equivalence relation on the collection of all ordered bases of V as follows:

If $\beta = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ and $\beta' = (w_1, \dots, w_n)$ are two ordered bases let

$$(a_{ij}) = A = [I]_{\beta}^{\beta'} \quad \text{be the base change matrix from the base } \beta \text{ to } \beta'. \text{ With that}$$
$$v_j = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} w_i \quad \mathcal{Q}: V \rightarrow V.$$
$$\begin{array}{ccc} V & \xrightarrow{\quad} & V \\ \beta & & \beta' \end{array}$$

Then we say that β and β' are related if $\det A > 0$. If β, β' and β'' are bases for V then note that

$$[I]_{\beta}^{\beta''} = [I]_{\beta'}^{\beta''} [I]_{\beta}^{\beta'} \quad \text{and hence we see}$$

that if β and β' are not related any other basis β'' is either related to β or β' . So there are only two equivalence classes. A choice of an equivalence class is called an orientation of V . Hence, any real vector space has exactly two

orientations.

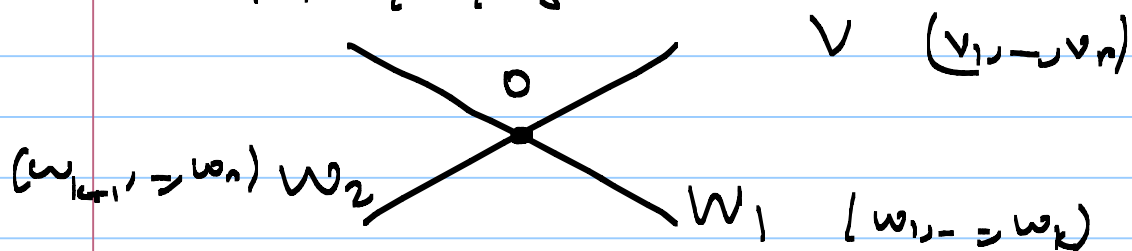
If $V = \{0\}$ is the trivial vector space \mathbb{R} an orientation on V is just a choice of sign \pm .

Exercise: Show that \sim is indeed an equivalence relation on the collection of all ordered bases of V .

Orientation of the intersection of oriented subspaces:

Let V be an oriented real vector space.

Let W_1 and W_2 be two subspaces of V which are both oriented and $\dim V = \dim W_1 + \dim W_2$ and $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{0\}$.



$\dim W_1 = k, \dim W_2 = n - k.$

The orientation of the intersection $\{0\} = W_1 \cap W_2$ is either $+$ or $-$ depending on whether the bases (v_1, \dots, v_n) and $(w_1, \dots, w_k, w_{k+1}, \dots, w_n)$ have the same orientation or not.

Example: $V = \mathbb{R}^4 = (e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4)$

$W_1 = \text{span}\{e_1, e_2\}, W_2 = \text{span}\{e_3, e_4\}, W_1 \cap W_2 = \{0\}.$

$(e_1, -e_2, e_3, e_4) \stackrel{?}{\sim} (e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4)$

No, they are not related?

Here, $W_1 \cap W_2$ has orientation "-".

Remark: The orientations of $W_1 \cap W_2$ and $W_2 \cap W_1$ may not be the same.

Indeed, $W_1 \cap W_2 = (-1)^{kl} W_2 \cap W_1$

$k = \dim W_1$, $l = \dim W_2$, $\dim V = n = k+l$.

Canonical Orientation of Complex Vector Spaces:

A finite dimensional complex vector space V is a $2n$ -dimensional real vector space ($n = \dim_{\mathbb{C}} V$, $2n = \dim_{\mathbb{R}} V$) together with a complex structure, a linear map J of V

$J: V \rightarrow V$ satisfying $J^2 = -\text{Id}_V$.

Example: $V = \mathbb{C} = \mathbb{R}^2$ $J: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$, $J^2 = -\text{Id}$.

$B = \{(1,0), (0,1)\}$ $J(1,0) = (0,1)$, $J(0,1) = -(1,0)$.

$$[J]_B^B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad J^2 \Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem: Any finite dimensional complex vector space has a canonical orientation (as considered as a real vector space).

Let V be a complex vector space of dimension n .
 $\dim_{\mathbb{R}} V = 2n$, $J: V \rightarrow V$, $J^2 = -\text{Id}$.

We'll construct a real ordered basis of the form
 $(v_1, Jv_1, v_2, Jv_2, \dots, v_n, Jv_n)$

Let $v_1 \in V$, $v_1 \neq 0$ (assuming $n > 0$). Let $v_2 = \bar{\sigma}v_1$.

Claim: v_1 and v_2 are linearly independent.

Proof Let $a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 = 0$ be given for some $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\bar{\sigma}(a_1v_1 + a_2v_2) = \bar{\sigma}(0) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a_1\bar{\sigma}v_1 + a_2\bar{\sigma}v_2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a_1v_2 + a_2\underbrace{\bar{\sigma}(\bar{\sigma}v_1)}_{-v_1} = 0 \Rightarrow a_1v_2 - a_2v_1 = 0.$$

Then we have the system

$$\begin{aligned} a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 &= 0 \\ -a_2v_1 + a_1v_2 &= 0 \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ -a_2 & a_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Since } v_i \neq 0, \det \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ -a_2 & a_1 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow a_1^2 + a_2^2 = 0$$

$$\text{So } a_1 = a_2 = 0.$$

If $\dim V \geq 3$ then there is a vector $v_3 \in V$ with $v_3 \notin \text{span}\{v_1, v_2\} = \text{span}\{v_1, \bar{\sigma}v_1\}$.

Define v_4 as $v_4 = \bar{\sigma}v_3$.

Claim: The set $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$ is linearly independent.

Proof Suppose that $a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + a_3v_3 + a_4v_4 = 0$ for some real numbers a_1, \dots, a_4 .

$$\begin{array}{l} a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + a_3v_3 + a_4v_4 = 0 \\ -a_2v_1 + a_1v_2 - a_4v_3 + a_3v_4 = 0 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} / a_3 \\ -a_4 \end{array}$$

$$(a_1a_3 + a_2a_4)v_1 + (a_3a_3 - a_1a_4)v_2 + (a_3^2 + a_4^2)v_3 = 0.$$

Since v_1, v_2, v_3 are linearly independent we see

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that $a_3^2 + a_4^2 = 0 \Rightarrow a_3 = a_4 = 0$. This implies

$$a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 = 0 \text{ and hence } a_1 = a_2 = 0.$$

Repeating this process n times gives the required basis. \square

This gives an ordered basis for (V, \bar{J}) of the form

$$(v_1, \bar{J}v_1 = v_2, v_3, \bar{J}v_3 = v_4, \dots, v_{2n-1}, \bar{J}v_{2n-1} = v_{2n}).$$

Claim: If $(u_1, \bar{J}u_1 = u_2, \dots, u_{2n-1}, \bar{J}u_{2n-1} = u_{2n})$ is another such basis then the bases induce the same orientation.

Proof: We know that $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{2n}\}$ and $\beta' = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{2n}\}$ are two complex bases for the complex vector space V .

Let $A = [I]_{\beta}^{\beta'} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be the base change matrix. If $A = (a_{ij})$ and

$$\alpha_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} \operatorname{Re}(a_{ij}) & -\operatorname{Im}(a_{ij}) \\ \operatorname{Im}(a_{ij}) & \operatorname{Re}(a_{ij}) \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{1n} \\ & a_{ij} & \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \leftrightarrow \alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{1n} \\ \hline & a_{ij} & \\ \hline a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\alpha = [I]_{\substack{\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{2n}\} \\ \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{2n}\}}} \quad \square \quad \text{must show: } \det(\alpha) > 0.$$

$$\underline{\text{Ex}} \quad A = (a) = (\lambda + i\nu) \quad \alpha = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & -\nu \\ \nu & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \quad \det \alpha = |\cdot|^2 > 0$$

Note that interchanging two rows of A corresponds to interchanging two rows of α with another two rows of α so that this operation does not change the sign of $\det \alpha$.

Also multiplying a row of A with a complex scalar $\xi = \lambda + i\nu$ and adding to another row corresponds to multiplying an array of 2 rows of α by the 2×2 -matrix

$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & -\nu \\ \nu & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$ and adding to another array of 2-rows of α .

This way A will transform to a matrix of the form and α will transform to a

$$A \sim \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & & \\ & d_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & d_n \end{pmatrix} \quad d_j = \epsilon_j + \theta_j i \quad \alpha \sim \begin{pmatrix} | & | & & | \\ \epsilon_j & -\theta_j & & \\ | & \theta_j & \epsilon_j & | \\ | & & & | \\ | & & & | \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\det \alpha = \prod_{j=1}^n |d_j|^2 = \prod_{j=1}^n (\epsilon_j^2 + \theta_j^2) > 0.$$

Hence, any complex vector space has a canonical orientation. \Rightarrow

Orientation of Manifolds:

A manifold M is called orientable if

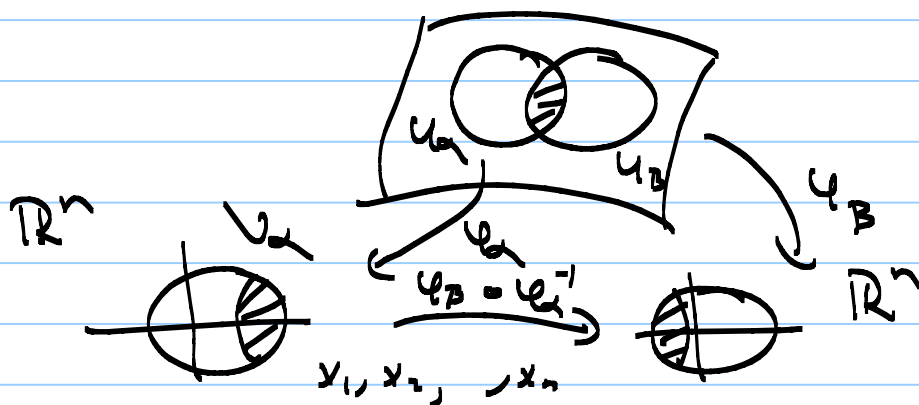
each target space can be oriented coherently in the following sense.

For any $p \in M$ there is a coordinate chart $\varphi: U \rightarrow V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ so that

$\varphi_*^{-1}: T_{\varphi(p)}V \rightarrow T_pM$ the ordered basis $\left\{ (\varphi_*^{-1})_* \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \right), \dots, (\varphi_*^{-1})_* \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} \right) \right\}$ is the orientation chosen at T_pM .

Proposition: Let M be orientable if and only if there is an atlas $\{\varphi_\alpha: U_\alpha \rightarrow V_\alpha\}$ of M so that

$\det(\varphi_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha^{-1})_* > 0$, when each V_α is considered as an open set in a fixed \mathbb{R}^n with coordinates x_1, \dots, x_n .



$\det((\varphi_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha^{-1})_*) > 0$ at all points.

Corollary: Any connected smooth manifold has either two orientations or it is not orientable.

Proposition: A smooth connected n -manifold M is orientable if and only if there is an n -form ν on M so that $\nu(p) \neq 0$ at any point.

Example: \mathbb{R}^n , $\nu = dx_1 \wedge dx_2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$

Proof: Suppose that there is a nowhere zero n -form ν on M . Then we orient each coordinate chart as follows: Take any coordinate chart

$$\varphi: U \rightarrow V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}$$

$(\varphi_x^{-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \varphi_x^{-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n})$ ordered basis for $T_p M$.

$\nu(\varphi_x^{-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \varphi_x^{-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}) \neq 0$ and hence either

> 0 or < 0 at all points of U .

If " > 0 " then we keep $\varphi: U \rightarrow V$. If " < 0 " then we replace $\varphi: U \rightarrow V$ by the composition

$$U \xrightarrow{\varphi} V \xrightarrow{\psi} V' \quad , \text{ call } \varphi'$$

$$\mathbb{R}^n \quad \mathbb{R}^n$$

Now for the new atlas all values $\nu(\varphi'_x(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \varphi'_x(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_n})) > 0$, for each

coordinate chart.

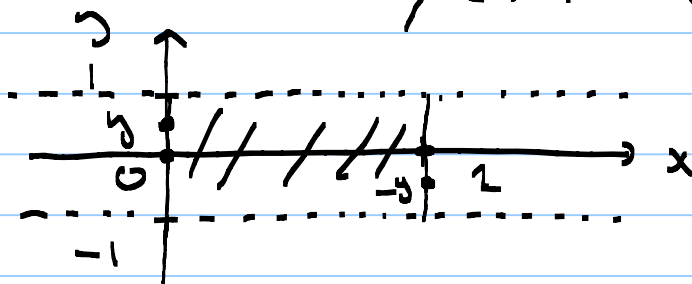
Conversely, if M is orientable then we may construct a nowhere zero n -form ν as

using or called perturbation of unity, which we postpone for the time being.

Example: Möbius Band is not orientable.



$$MB = \mathbb{R} \times (-1, 1) / (x, y) \sim (x+1, -y)$$



Assume MB is orientable. Then there is a nowhere zero two form ρ on MB.

$$P: \mathbb{R} \times (-1, 1) \rightarrow \underline{\underline{MB}}$$

Let $\omega = P^* \rho$, which is also nowhere zero since P is locally a diffeomorphism.

So, $\omega = P^* \rho = f(x, y) dx \wedge dy$ for some smooth function $f: \mathbb{R} \times (-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$.

Consider the map $\sigma: \mathbb{R} \times (-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \times (-1, 1)$ given by $\sigma(x, y) = (x+1, -y)$.

Then $P = P \circ \sigma$. Thus $P^* \rho = (P \circ \sigma)^* \rho$

Video 23

$$\omega = \sigma^*(p^*p) = \sigma^*\omega$$

$$\sigma(x, y) = (x+1, -y)$$

$$\sigma^*(dx) = dx, \quad \sigma^*(dy) = -dy$$

$$f(x, y) dx \wedge dy = \omega = \sigma^*\omega = (f \circ \sigma) (\underbrace{\sigma^*dx}_{\sigma^*dy})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \underline{f(x, y) dx \wedge dy} &= f(x+1, -y) dx \wedge (-dy) \\ &= -f(x+1, -y) dx \wedge dy. \end{aligned}$$

$$(\partial/\partial x, \partial/\partial y)$$

$$f(x, y) = -f(x+1, -y) \text{ for all } (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2(-1, 1).$$

$f(1, 1) = -f(2, -1)$ is a contradiction to the fact $f(x, y) > 0 \forall (x, y)$ or $f(x, y) < 0$ for all (x, y) .

Special Forms on Complex Manifolds:

$$\underline{\mathbb{C}^n}: \quad \mathbb{C}^n = \mathbb{R}^{2n} \quad \bar{z}_k = x_k - iy_k, \quad k=1, \dots, n.$$

$$\omega = \frac{i}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n dz_k \wedge d\bar{z}_k, \quad \begin{aligned} dz_k &= dx_k + i dy_k \\ d\bar{z}_k &= dx_k - i dy_k \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} dz_k \wedge d\bar{z}_k &= (dx_k + i dy_k) \wedge (dx_k - i dy_k) \\ &= -2i dx_k \wedge dy_k \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{i}{2} dz_k \wedge d\bar{z}_k = dx_k \wedge dy_k.$$

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

Note that $\omega = d\left(\sum_{k=1}^n x_k dy_k\right)$, since

$$d(x_k dy_k) = dx_k \wedge dy_k. \text{ Hence, } d\omega = d\left(d\left(\sum_{k=1}^n x_k dy_k\right)\right) = 0,$$

so that ω is a closed two form.

ω is a non-degenerate two form: If $u \neq 0$ vector, in \mathbb{R}^{2n} then there is another $v \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$ so that $\omega(u, v) \neq 0$. For example, if $u_1 \neq 0$ then choose $v = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$. Then

$$\omega(u, v) = \left(\sum_{k=1}^n dx_k \wedge dy_k\right)(u, v) = u_1 \neq 0$$

Note that $\omega^n = \omega \wedge \omega \wedge \dots \wedge \omega$

$$= \left(\sum_{k=1}^n dx_k \wedge dy_k\right) \wedge \dots \wedge \left(\sum_{k=1}^n dx_k \wedge dy_k\right)$$

$$= n! dx_1 \wedge dy_1 \wedge dx_2 \wedge dy_2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n \wedge dy_n$$

$$\omega^n > 0.$$

Def/Def'n: Let M^{2n} be a smooth manifold of dimension $2n$. If $\omega \in \Omega^2(M^{2n})$ is a closed non-degenerate form on M^{2n} then ω is called a symplectic two form on M and the pair (M, ω) is called a symplectic manifold.

Lemma: Assume \mathbb{C}^n and ω are as above. Let $V \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$ be a complex l -dim'l subspace. Then considered as a real $2l$ -dim'l subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{2n} = \mathbb{C}^n$ with its preferred complex orientation $\omega^l(\partial/\partial z_1, i\partial/\partial z_1, \dots, \partial/\partial z_l, i\partial/\partial z_l) > 0$ on V .

$$\mathbb{C}^n \begin{array}{c} \nearrow \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} \\ \searrow \frac{\partial}{\partial v_1} \end{array} \rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} V \cong \mathbb{C}^1 \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$$

Choose complex coordinates w_1, \dots, w_n on V . Then $\frac{\partial}{\partial z_j}, \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}_j}$ are as above (coord. on \mathbb{C}^1) we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial z_n}, \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}_n} \right) &= L(w_1, \dots, w_n) \\ &= (a_{11}w_1 + \dots + a_{1n}w_n, \dots, a_{n1}w_1 + \dots + a_{nn}w_n) \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}_j} = \bar{a}_{1j} \bar{w}_1 + \dots + \bar{a}_{nj} \bar{w}_n \quad L: \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$$

$$L^*(dz_j) = \sum a_{kj} dw_k \quad \omega \in \Omega^1(\mathbb{C}^n)$$

$$L^*(d\bar{z}_j) = \sum \bar{a}_{kj} d\bar{w}_k$$

$$L^*(\omega) = L^*\left(\frac{i}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n dz_j \wedge d\bar{z}_j\right)$$

$$L^*(\omega^2) = ?$$

$$L^*(dz_{k_1} \wedge d\bar{z}_{k_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dz_{k_r} \wedge d\bar{z}_{k_r})$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \det(A_{k_1, \dots, k_r}) \left(dz_{k_1} \wedge d\bar{z}_{k_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dz_{k_r} \wedge d\bar{z}_{k_r} \right) \\ &= |\det(A_{k_1, \dots, k_r})|^2 dz_{k_1} \wedge d\bar{z}_{k_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dz_{k_r} \wedge d\bar{z}_{k_r} \end{aligned}$$

where A_{k_1, \dots, k_r} is the $r \times r$ matrix consisting of the columns k_1, \dots, k_r of A .

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & & a_{2n} \end{pmatrix}_{2 \times n}$$

$$\Rightarrow L^*(\omega^2) \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial u_1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial v_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial u_n}, \frac{\partial}{\partial v_n} \right) > 0.$$

complex oriented real basis for V

Integration on Manifolds:

$\omega \in \Omega_c^n(\mathbb{R}^n)$ compactly supported n -form,

say $\omega = f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$, x_1, \dots, x_n chosen coordinate system on \mathbb{R}^n . Then the integral of ω over \mathbb{R}^n is defined as the Riemann integral

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \omega &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \dots dx_n. \end{aligned}$$

$\text{supp}(\omega) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \omega(x) \neq 0\}$, ω is called compactly supported if $\text{supp}(\omega)$ is compact in \mathbb{R}^n .

Remark: If $\varphi: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ diffeomorphism say

$$\varphi(y_1, \dots, y_n) = (g_1(y_1, \dots, y_n), \dots, g_n(y_1, \dots, y_n)) = (x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \varphi^* \omega &= \varphi^* (f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n) \\ &= \varphi^*(f)(y_1, \dots, y_n) \varphi^*(dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n) \\ &= (f \circ \varphi) d(\varphi^*(x_1)) \wedge \dots \wedge d(\varphi^*(x_n)) \\ &= (f \circ \varphi) dy_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dy_n \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{where } dy_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial y_j} dy_j,$$

$$= (f \circ \varphi) \det \left(\frac{\partial (g_1, \dots, g_n)}{\partial (y_1, \dots, y_n)} \right) dy_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dy_n.$$

$$\text{So } \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (f \circ \varphi)(y_1, \dots, y_n) \det \left(\frac{\partial (g_1, \dots, g_n)}{\partial (y_1, \dots, y_n)} \right) dy_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dy_n$$

provided that $\det \left(\frac{\partial (s_1, \dots, s_n)}{\partial (y_1, \dots, y_n)} \right) > 0$ at all points.

So $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \omega = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \varphi^* \omega$, when x_1, \dots, x_n and y_1, \dots, y_n induce an orientation on both \mathbb{R}^n 's.

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} \right) \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial y_n} \right)$$

To define integration on manifolds we need so called a partition of unity subordinate to an open cover of a manifold.

Definition: Let M be a smooth manifold and $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ be an open cover for M . Then a family of C^∞ functions $\{f_\lambda: M \rightarrow [0, 1]\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ satisfying the conditions below is called a partition of unity subordinate to the open cover $\{U_\alpha\}$:

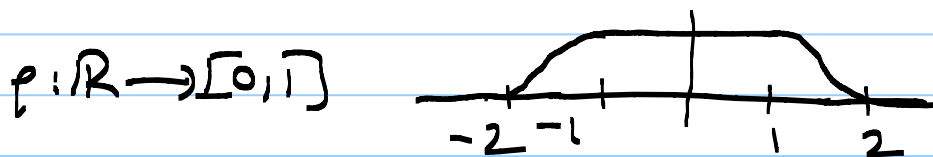
1) For any $\lambda \in \Lambda$ there is some $\alpha \in A$ so that $\{p \in M \mid f_\lambda(p) \neq 0\} \subseteq U_\alpha$.

2) For any $p \in M$ there is some open subset $p \in V$ in M so that the number of λ 's with $V \cap \{p \in M \mid f_\lambda(p) \neq 0\} \neq \emptyset$ is finite.

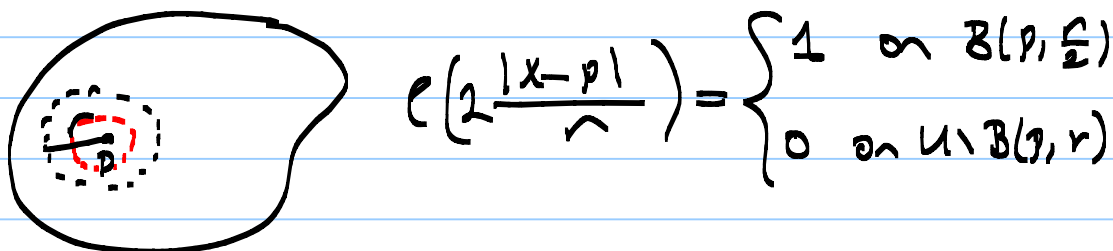
3) For any $p \in M$, $\sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} f_\lambda(p) = 1$.

Theorem: If M is a smooth manifold and $\{U_\alpha\}$ is an open cover for M then there is a partition of unity subordinate to this cover.

Sketch of proof for the compact Cox:



$U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open, $p \in U$. Choose a ball $B(p, r) \subseteq U$.



Now if M is a compact manifold for any $p \in M$ choose a coordinate system $\varphi_p: M \rightarrow V_p$ and $f_p: M \rightarrow [0, 1]$ so that $f_p \equiv 1$ on an open subset U_p in U_p containing p and $f_p \equiv 0$ on $M \setminus U_p$.

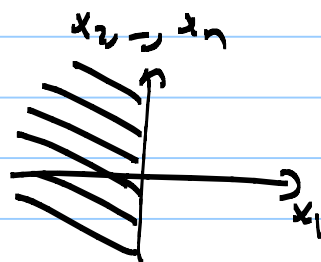
Since M is compact and the collection $\{U_p\}_{p \in M}$ is an open cover for M there are p_1, \dots, p_N so that $M = U_{p_1} \cup \dots \cup U_{p_N}$.

Now define $f_p = \frac{f_{p_j}}{f_{p_1} + \dots + f_{p_N}}$. The $\{f_{p_j}\}_{j=1}^N$

is the required family.

Manifolds with Boundary

$H^n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid x_1 \leq 0\}$



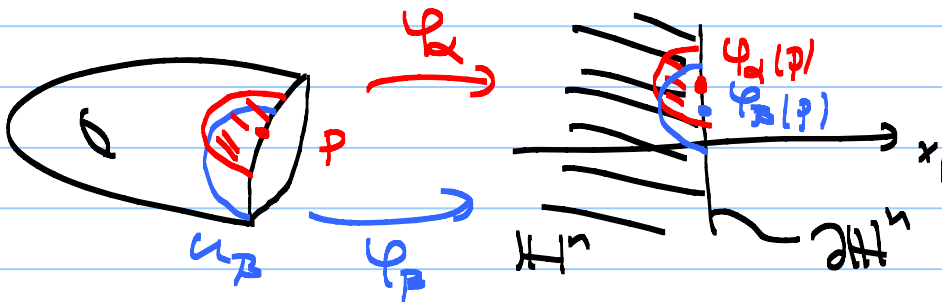
A second countable Hausdorff space M is a topological manifold with boundary if for any $p \in M$ there are open sets $U \subseteq M$ and $V \subseteq H^n$ and a homeomorphism $\varphi: U \rightarrow V$.

Video 2.5

Let $\{\varphi_\alpha: U_\alpha \rightarrow V_\alpha\}$ be an atlas for M so that for any α, β with $U_\alpha \cap U_\beta \neq \emptyset$ the composition

$\varphi_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha^{-1}: \varphi_\alpha(U_\alpha \cap U_\beta) \rightarrow \varphi_\beta(U_\alpha \cap U_\beta)$ has an extension to open subsets of \mathbb{R}^n which is C^∞ .

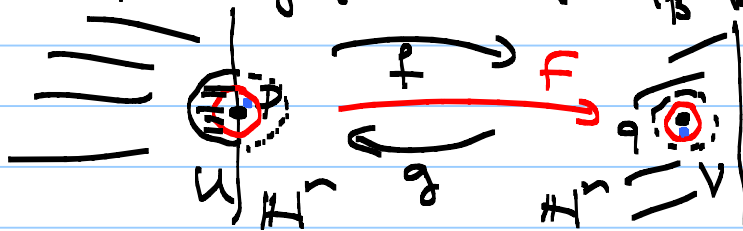
A point in M will be called a boundary point if it is sent under some φ_α to a point in $\partial\mathbb{H}^n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{H}^n \mid x_1 = 0\}$.



Proposition: If a point $p \in M$ is mapped to a boundary point of \mathbb{H}^n under some coordinate chart then it is mapped to boundary points under any coordinate chart.

The set of boundary points of M is denoted as ∂M and ∂M is a C^∞ -manifold of dimension $\dim M - 1$. ∂M has no boundary.

Proof: Assume on the contrary that a point of M is mapped to a boundary point of \mathbb{H}^n under some φ_α but it is mapped also to an interior point of \mathbb{H}^n under some φ_β . Then we have the following picture: $f = \varphi_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha^{-1}$, $g = \varphi_\alpha \circ \varphi_\beta^{-1}$



Let F and G be the C^∞ -extensions of f and g to some open subsets U, V of \mathbb{R}^n .

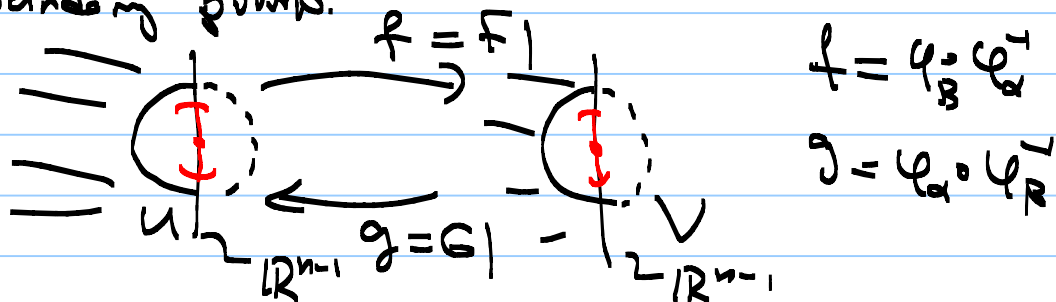
$$f = F|_{U \cap \mathbb{H}^n}, \quad g = F^{-1} \circ G|_{V \cap \mathbb{H}^n}$$

$$p = (0, x_2, \dots, x_n), \quad f(p) = q = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in V \cap \partial \mathbb{H}^n$$

$y_1 < 0.$

On $U \cap \mathbb{H}^n$, $G \circ f = \text{Id}$ and both are differentiable and thus on $\text{Int}(U \cap \mathbb{H}^n)$ $D(G \circ f) = \text{Id}$.
 Being equal to Id is a closed condition and thus $D(G \circ f) = \text{Id}$ on $U \cap \partial \mathbb{H}^n$. In particular, $D(G \circ f)(p) = \text{Id}$.
 Hence, $DG(f(p)) \circ Df(p) = \text{Id}$ so that $Df(p)$ is an isom.
 So, by the Inverse Function Theorem F is a diffeomorphism near p . Hence $g = f^{-1}$ maps some points whose first coordinate is negative to points whose first coordinate is positive.
 This is a contradiction.

We may treat ∂M as an $n-1$ dimensional manifold as follows: F and G are differentiable functions and they map boundary points to boundary points.



Also $f(U \cap \partial \mathbb{H}^n) = F(U \cap \partial \mathbb{H}^n) \subset V \cap \partial \mathbb{H}^n$.

Hence, the restriction of φ_α to ∂M provides a C^∞ -manifold structure of ∂M .
 Any point in ∂M has a neighborhood

homeomorphic to an open set in \mathbb{R}^{n-1} and the ∂M has no boundary: $\partial(\partial M) = \emptyset$.

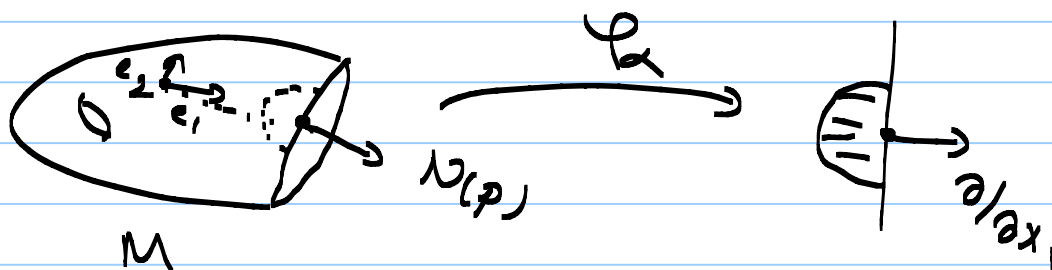
STOKES' THEOREM:

Definition of the integral of a differential form $\omega \in \Omega_c^k(M)$ on M , $n = \dim M$, where the subscript c on $\Omega_c^k(M)$ represents forms with compact support.

$$\omega \in \Omega_c^k(M), \quad \text{supp}(\omega) = \{p \in M \mid \omega(p) \neq 0\}.$$

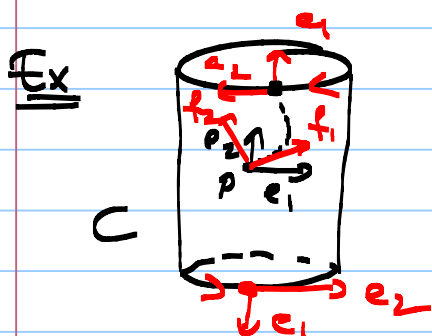
Let $\{U_\alpha : U_\alpha \rightarrow V_\alpha \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n\}_{\alpha \in \Delta}$ be an oriented atlas for M .

Orientation of ∂M : Assume that M is oriented.



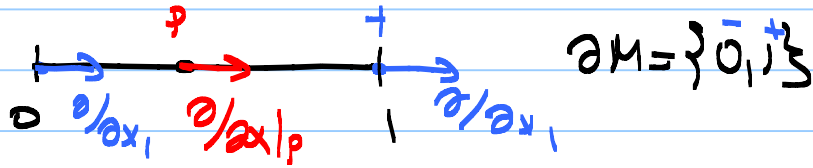
$$D(U_\alpha)(D(p)) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}$$

A basis $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}\}$ of $T_p \partial M$ is positively oriented if $\beta' = \{D(p), v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}\}$ is a positively oriented basis for $T_p M$.



$$T_p C = \text{span}\{e_1, e_2\}$$

Ex: $M = [0, 1]$ $T_p M = \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \Big|_p \right\}$



$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = F(1) - F(0) \quad F' = f$$

$$\int_{[0,1]} dF = \int_{\partial[0,1]} F = -F(0) + F(1)$$

$\partial[0,1] = \{0^-, 1^+\}$

$$\int_M d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega \quad (\text{STOKES' THM})$$

$\omega \in \Omega^{n-1}(M), \quad n = \dim M.$

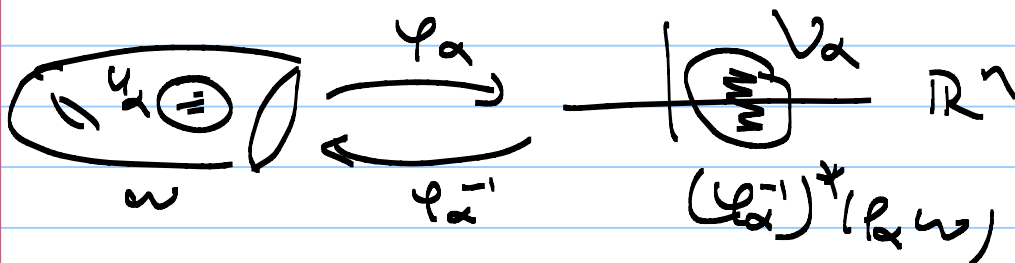
Let $\{p_\alpha: M \rightarrow [0,1]\}$ be a partition of unity subordinate to the oriented cover $\{\varphi_\alpha: U_\alpha \rightarrow V_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \Delta}$ of M .



$$\sum_{\alpha} p_{\alpha}(p) = 1.$$

Now the integral $\int_M \omega$ is defined to be the

$$\text{sum} \int_M \omega \equiv \sum_{\alpha \in \Delta} \int_{V_\alpha} (\varphi_\alpha^{-1})^* (p_\alpha \omega)$$



One can check that $\{\tilde{p}_\alpha: M \rightarrow [0,1]\}$ is another partition of unity subordinate to the cover $\{\varphi_\alpha: U_\alpha \rightarrow V_\alpha\}$ then

$$\sum_{\alpha} \int_{V_\alpha} (\varphi_\alpha^{-1})^* (p_\alpha \omega) = \sum_{\alpha} \int_{V_\alpha} (\varphi_\alpha^{-1})^* (\tilde{p}_\alpha \omega)$$

Indeed we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\alpha \in \Lambda} \int_{V_\alpha} (\varphi_\alpha^{-1})^* (p_\alpha(p) \omega) &= \sum_{\alpha} \int_{V_\alpha} (\varphi_\alpha^{-1})^* \left(\sum_{\beta} \tilde{p}_\beta(p) p_\alpha(p) \omega \right) \\ &= \sum_{\alpha} \int_{V_\alpha} \sum_{\beta} (\varphi_\alpha^{-1})^* (\tilde{p}_\beta(p) p_\alpha(p) \omega) \\ &= \sum_{\alpha, \beta} \int_{V_\alpha} \underbrace{(\varphi_\alpha^{-1})^* (\tilde{p}_\beta(p) p_\alpha(p) \omega)}_{\text{red underline}} \\ &\stackrel{*}{=} \sum_{\alpha, \beta} \int_{V_\beta} \underbrace{(\varphi_\beta^{-1})^* (\tilde{p}_\beta(p) p_\alpha(p) \omega)}_{\text{red underline}} \\ &\quad \vdots \quad \underbrace{(\varphi_\alpha \circ \varphi_\beta^{-1})^* (\omega)}_{\text{red}} \\ &= \sum_{\beta} \int_{V_\beta} (\varphi_\beta^{-1})^* (\tilde{p}_\beta(p) \omega), \end{aligned}$$

where the equality $*$ is obtained as replacing the differential form by its pull back under

$$\varphi_\alpha \circ \varphi_\beta^{-1} : \underbrace{\varphi_\beta(U_\alpha \cap U_\beta)}_{V_\beta} \rightarrow \underbrace{\varphi_\alpha(U_\alpha \cap U_\beta)}_{V_\alpha}.$$

This finishes the proof. —

Integration of a 0-form, i.e., a function f on an oriented 0-manifold

$$M = \{ p_n^{\epsilon_n} \mid \epsilon_n = \pm 1 \}$$

We need $f \in \Omega_c^0(M)$ so that $f(p_n) = 0$ for all but finitely many n .

$$\int_M f = \sum_n \epsilon_n f(p_n).$$

Theorem (Stokes) If $\omega \in \Omega_c^{n-1}(M)$, where M is an oriented manifold with boundary then

$$\int_M d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega, \text{ where } n = \dim M$$

and ∂M is oriented by the orientation of M .

Proof: Assume the above setup.

$$\int_M d\omega = \sum_{\alpha} \int_{V_{\alpha}} (\varphi_{\alpha}^{-1})^* (p_{\alpha}(p) \omega)$$

Let $\omega_{\alpha} = p_{\alpha} \omega \in \Omega_c^{n-1}(M)$. Then $\omega = \sum_{\alpha} \omega_{\alpha}$.

Hence, $d\omega = \sum_{\alpha} d\omega_{\alpha}$. Integrator is linear

and hence it is enough to show that

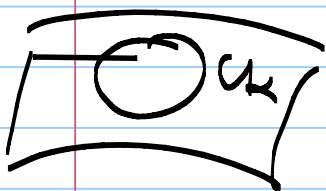
$$\int_M d\omega_{\alpha} = \int_{\partial M} \omega_{\alpha}.$$

$$V_{\alpha} = \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{H}^n \text{ open } x_1, \dots, x_n$$

$$\begin{aligned}
(\varphi_\alpha^{-1})^* \omega_\alpha &= \sum_{i=1}^n a_i dx_{i,1} \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_{i,i}} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i,n} \\
(\varphi_\alpha^{-1})^* (d\omega_\alpha) &= d((\varphi_\alpha^{-1})^* (\omega_\alpha)) \\
&= d\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i dx_{i,1} \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_{i,i}} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i,n}\right) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n da_i \wedge dx_{i,1} \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_{i,i}} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i,n} \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_j} dx_j \right) \wedge dx_{i,1} \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_{i,i}} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i,n} \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_i} dx_{i,1} \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_{i,i}} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i,n} \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i-1} \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_i} dx_{i,1} \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_{i,i}} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i,n}.
\end{aligned}$$

Case 1 $\varphi_\alpha(U_\alpha) = V_\alpha = \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\int_M d\omega_\alpha = \int_{U_\alpha} d\omega_\alpha = \int_{V_\alpha} (\varphi_\alpha^{-1})^* (d\omega_\alpha)$$



$$\begin{aligned}
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i-1} \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_i} dx_{i,1} \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_{i,i}} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i,n} \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_i} dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1}} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_i} dx_i \right) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_i} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1}} \left(\lim_{x_i \rightarrow \infty} a_i(x) - \lim_{x_i \rightarrow -\infty} a_i(x) \right) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_i} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n \\
&\quad x = (x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n)
\end{aligned}$$

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Note that both limits are equal zero since ω_α and hence $a_i(x)$'s are compactly supported.

$$\text{Hence, } \int_M d\omega = 0.$$

Case 2) $\varphi_\alpha(U_\alpha) = V_\alpha = \mathbb{H}^n$.

$$\int_M d\omega_\alpha = \int_{U_\alpha} d\omega_\alpha = \int_{\mathbb{H}^n} \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i-1} \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_i} dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i-1} \wedge dx_{i+1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i-1} \int_{\mathbb{H}^n} \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_i} dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1}} \left(\int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_i} dx_i \right) dx_2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1}} \left(a_i(0, x_2, \dots, x_n) - \lim_{x_i \rightarrow -\infty} a_i(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \right) dx_2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1}} (a_i(0, x_2, \dots, x_n) - 0) dx_2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$$

$$= \int_{\partial \mathbb{H}^n} a_i(0, x_2, \dots, x_n) dx_2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$$

$$= \int_{\partial \mathbb{H}^n} a_i(x) dx_2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$$

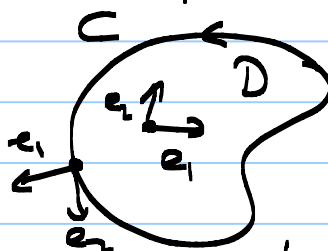
$$= \int_{\partial \mathbb{H}^n} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i(x) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i-1} \wedge dx_{i+1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$$

$$= \int_{\partial \mathbb{H}^n} \omega$$

$$= \int_M \omega$$

Remark Special Cases of Stokes' Theorem.

Green's Thm



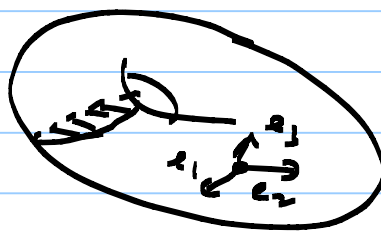
$$\omega \in \Omega^1(D)$$

$$\omega = f(x, y) dx + g(x, y) dy$$
$$d\omega = (g_x - f_y) dx \wedge dy$$

$$\int_C \omega = \int_{\partial D} \omega = \int_D d\omega$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_C f(x, y) dx + g(x, y) dy = \int_D (g_x - f_y) dx \wedge dy$$
$$= \int_D (g_x - f_y) dx dy.$$

Gauss' Thm



$$D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$$

manifold with boundary

$$\partial D = S \text{ surface in } \mathbb{R}^3$$

$$\text{let } \omega \in \Omega^2(D), \omega = f dx \wedge dy + g dy \wedge dz + h dz \wedge dx$$

$$d\omega = (f_z + g_x + h_y) (dx \wedge dy \wedge dz)$$

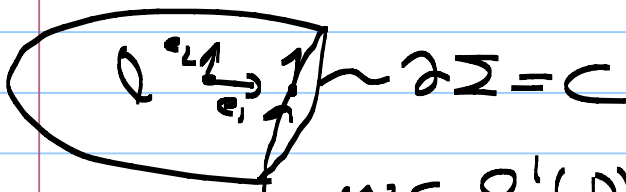
$$= \text{div } F dx \wedge dy \wedge dz, \quad F = (f, g, h) \text{ vector field on } D.$$

Stokes' Thm

$$\int_S F \cdot \vec{n} dS = \int_{S=\partial D} \omega = \int_D d\omega = \int_D \text{div } F dx \wedge dy \wedge dz$$

Green's Thm for Surfaces in \mathbb{R}^3 : Classical Stokes

$$\Sigma \subseteq D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$$



$$\omega \in \Omega^1(D), \omega = f dx + g dy + h dz$$

$$\begin{aligned} d\omega &= df \wedge dx + dg \wedge dy + dh \wedge dz \\ &= (g_x - f_y) dx \wedge dy + (f_z - h_x) dz \wedge dx \\ &\quad + (h_y - g_z) dy \wedge dz \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Stokes' Theorem} \quad \int_C \omega = \int_{\partial \Sigma} \omega = \int_{\Sigma} d\omega$$

$$\int_C f dx + g dy + h dz = \int_{\Sigma} \text{curl}(F) \cdot \nu ds$$

$$F = (f, g, h)$$

Example: Let $M \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$ be a compact complex submanifold (connected). Then $\dim M = 0$.

Proof: Assume on the contrary that $\dim M = l > 0$.

$$\omega = \sum_{j=1}^l dx_j \wedge dy_j = \frac{i}{2} \sum_{j=1}^l dz_j \wedge d\bar{z}_j$$

$$L^*(\omega^l) \subset l! \left(\frac{i}{2}\right)^l dx_1 \wedge dy_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_l \wedge dy_l,$$

where $L: V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$ is inclusion map of an l -dimensional complex vector subspace. Here $C > 0$ is a positive real number.

$\omega_1, \dots, \omega_k$

$M \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$ is a submanifold. Take V as $T_p M$ as a complex subspace. ($\partial M = \emptyset$)

$$T_p M = \text{span} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i}, \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{w}_i} \right\} = \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1}, i \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial u_k}, i \frac{\partial}{\partial u_k} \right\}$$

$$\omega_j = u_j + i v_j, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial v_j} = i \frac{\partial}{\partial u_j}$$

Hence, the restriction of ω^k to $T_p M$ is

$$\begin{aligned} & \subset \left(\frac{i}{2} \right)^k k! du_1 \wedge d\bar{w}_1 \wedge \dots \wedge du_k \wedge d\bar{w}_k \\ & = C k! (du_1 \wedge dv_1 \wedge \dots \wedge du_k \wedge dv_k) \end{aligned}$$

The orientation (coming from complex manifold structure) on $T_p M$ is

$$\left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial v_1} = i \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial u_k}, \frac{\partial}{\partial v_k} = i \frac{\partial}{\partial u_k} \right\}$$

Hence $\int_M \omega > 0$. On the other hand,

$$\omega = \sum_{j=1}^n dx_j \wedge dy_j = d \left(\sum_{j=1}^n x_j dy_j \right) = d\eta,$$

$$\text{where } \eta = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j dy_j.$$

$$\text{Thus, } \omega^k = d(\eta) \wedge \omega^{k-1} = d(\eta \wedge \omega^{k-1}),$$

because $d(\omega^{k-1}) = 0$ since ω is closed.

In particular, ω^k is exact. Now,

$$0 < \int_M \omega^k = \int_M d(\eta \wedge \omega^{k-1}) = \int_{\partial M} \eta \wedge \omega^{k-1} = 0,$$

$\partial M = \emptyset$ a contradiction!

Example: $\mathbb{C}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\} /$
 $\cong S^3 \times S^1$
 $(z_1, z_2) \sim (2z_1, 2z_2)$

So $S^3 \times S^1$ has a complex manifold structure.

As a real 4 -dimensional manifold it sits in $\mathbb{R}^4 \times \mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{R}^6$.

However, we've just seen that it does not embed in any \mathbb{C}^n as a complex submanifold.

Question: $\mathbb{C}P^n$ a compact complex manifold.

Does $S^3 \times S^1$ sit in $\mathbb{C}P^n$ as a complex submanifold for some n ?

Answer: No! since $S^3 \times S^1$ has no second cohomology.

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Volumes of the disc and the sphere in \mathbb{R}^n :

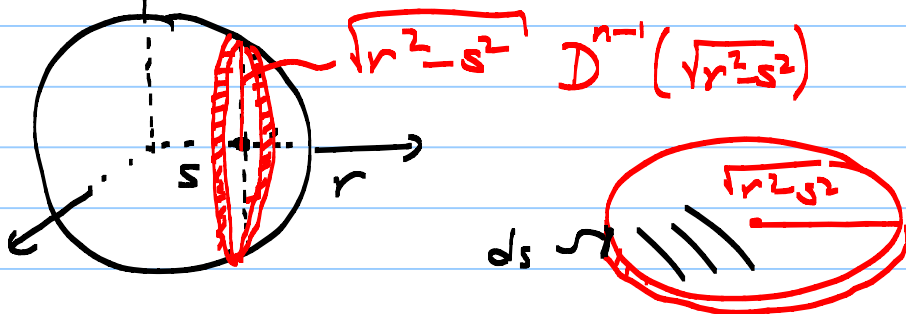
$D^n(r) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|x\| \leq r\}$ the n -disc in \mathbb{R}^n .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Vol}(D^n(r)) &= \int_{D^n(r)} dx_1 \dots dx_n \\ &= \int_{D^n(r)} dx_1 \dots dx_n \end{aligned}$$

Claim: $\text{Vol}(D^n(r)) = A_n r^n$ for some constant A_n .

Proof: $\text{Vol}(D^1(r)) = \text{Vol}([-r, r]) = 2r$ so that $A_1 = 2$.

Assume that A_{n-1} exists so that $\text{Vol}(D^{n-1}(r)) = A_{n-1} r^{n-1}$ for any $r \geq 0$.



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Vol}(D^n(r)) &= 2 \int_0^r \text{Vol}(D^{n-1}(\sqrt{r^2 - s^2})) ds \\ &= 2 A_{n-1} \int_0^r (\sqrt{r^2 - s^2})^{n-1} ds \quad \text{by the induction hypothesis} \end{aligned}$$

Let $s = r \sin \theta$, $\theta \in [0, \pi/2]$.

$$\begin{aligned} (r^2 - s^2)^{n-1/2} ds &= (r^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta)^{n-1/2} r \cos \theta d\theta \\ \Rightarrow \text{Vol}(D^n(r)) &= 2 A_{n-1} \int_0^{\pi/2} r^n \cos^n \theta d\theta. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Vol}(D^n(r)) = 2A_{n-1} r^n \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^n \theta d\theta$$

$$\text{Let } B_n = \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^n \theta d\theta = \underbrace{\sin \theta (\cos \theta)^{n-1}}_0^{\pi/2} + \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{(\cos \theta)^{n-2}} d\theta$$

$$v = (\cos \theta)^{n-1}, \quad dv = -\sin \theta d\theta$$

$$dv = (n-1)(-\sin \theta)(\cos \theta)^{n-2} d\theta$$

$$u = \sin \theta$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow B_n &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^2 \theta (\cos \theta)^{n-2} (n-1) d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \left[(\cos \theta)^{n-2} - (\cos \theta)^n \right] d\theta \\ &= (n-1) B_{n-2} - (n-1) B_n \end{aligned}$$

$$n B_n = (n-1) B_{n-2} \Rightarrow B_n = \frac{n-1}{n} B_{n-2}$$

Then imply that

$$B_{2n+1} = \frac{(2^n n!)^2}{(2n+1)!} \quad \text{and} \quad B_{2n} = \frac{(2n)!}{(2^n n!)^2} \frac{\pi}{2}$$

Since we have $A_n = 2A_{n-1} B_n$ we get

$$A_{2n+1} = \frac{2^{n+1} \pi^n}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n+1)} \quad \text{and} \quad A_{2n} = \frac{\pi^n}{n!}$$

$$\text{For example, } \text{Vol}(D^4(r)) = A_4 r^4 = \frac{\pi^2}{2!} r^4$$

$$\text{Note that } S^{n-1}(r) = \partial D^n(r) \text{ and thus } \text{Vol}(S^{n-1}(r)) = \frac{d}{dr} (\text{Vol}(D^n(r))) = \frac{d}{dr} (A_n r^n) = n A_n r^{n-1}$$

For example, $\text{Vol}(S^3(r)) = \frac{d}{dr} \text{Vol}(D^4) = 2\pi^2 r^3$.

De Rham Cohomology:

M smooth manifold of dimension n .

$\Omega^k(M)$: the vector space of (smooth) k -forms on M . Then we have a, so called, chain complex:

$$\Omega^0(M) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^1(M) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^2(M) \xrightarrow{d} \dots \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^k(M) \xrightarrow{d} \dots$$

$d^2 = 0$ and hence $\text{Im}(d: \Omega^{k-1}(M) \rightarrow \Omega^k(M))$ is contained in $\text{ker}(d: \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(M))$.

$$H_{dR}^k(M) = \frac{\text{ker}(d: \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(M))}{\text{Im}(d: \Omega^{k-1}(M) \rightarrow \Omega^k(M))}$$

$H_{dR}^k(M)$ is called the k^{th} de Rham cohomology of M .

Example: If M is a smooth manifold then

$H^0(M) \cong \mathbb{R}^{b_0}$, where b_0 is the "number" of connected components of M .

$$H^0(M) = \frac{\text{closed 0-forms on } M}{\text{Exact 0-forms on } M} \cong \frac{\mathbb{R}^{b_0}}{(0)} \cong \mathbb{R}^{b_0}$$

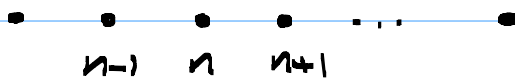
A zero form is just a function $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Since it must be closed we have $df = 0$.

So, $0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} dx_i \Rightarrow \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = 0$ on M for all i .

Hence, f is locally constant on M . In other words it is a constant on each connected component of M .

$$f \in \mathbb{R}^{b_0}$$

Ex $M = \mathbb{Z}$



$$f(n) = a_n, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$$

Ex M any connected manifold, then $H_{\mathbb{R}}^0(M) \cong \mathbb{R}$.

Proposition: If $f: M \rightarrow N$ is a smooth map, then the pullback operation $f^*: \Omega^k(N) \rightarrow \Omega^k(M)$
 $\omega \mapsto f^*(\omega)$

Induces an vector space homomorphism \hookrightarrow
 $f^*: H_{\mathbb{R}}^k(N) \rightarrow H_{\mathbb{R}}^k(M)$.

Proof: $f: M \rightarrow N, f^*: \Omega^k(N) \rightarrow \Omega^k(M)$

$$H_{\mathbb{R}}^k(N) = \frac{Z^k(N)}{B^k(N)} \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{closed } k\text{-forms on } N \\ \text{Exact } k\text{-forms on } N \end{array}$$

If $\omega \in Z^k(N)$ then $d(f^*(\omega)) = f^*(d\omega) = 0$

so that $f^*(\omega) \in Z^k(M)$. So we have a homomorphism

$$f^*: Z^k(N) \rightarrow Z^k(M)$$

Consider the composition

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$$\begin{array}{ccc} \omega \in \mathbb{Z}^k(M) & \xrightarrow{f^*} & \mathbb{Z}^k(M) \rightarrow \frac{\mathbb{Z}^k(M)}{\mathcal{B}^k(M)} = H_{dR}^k(M). \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ [\omega] \in \frac{\mathbb{Z}^k(N)}{\mathcal{B}^k(N)} = H_{dR}^k(N) & & \text{--- ? } f^* \end{array}$$

must check: If $[\omega_1] = [\omega_2]$ then $[f^*(\omega_1)] = [f^*(\omega_2)]$.

Since $[\omega_1] = [\omega_2] \Rightarrow \omega_1 - \omega_2 \in \mathcal{B}^k(N)$
 $\Rightarrow \omega_1 - \omega_2 = d\eta$ for some $\eta \in \mathcal{B}^{k-1}(N)$.

$$\text{Then, } f^*(\omega_1) - f^*(\omega_2) = f^*(d\eta) = d(f^*(\eta))$$

so that it is exact. Hence,

$$[f^*(\omega_1)] = [f^*(\omega_2)] \text{ in } H_{dR}^k(M).$$

Proposition: Wedge product induces a product on cohomology:

$$H_{dR}^k(M) \times H_{dR}^l(M) \rightarrow H_{dR}^{k+l}(M), ([\omega], [\eta]) \mapsto [\omega \wedge \eta].$$

Proof: Let $[\omega_1] = [\omega_2]$ in $H_{dR}^k(M)$. Then

$$\omega_1 - \omega_2 = d\gamma, \text{ for some } \gamma \in \mathcal{Q}^{k-1}(M).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } (\omega_1 - \omega_2) \wedge \eta &= (d\gamma) \wedge \eta = d(\gamma \wedge \eta) \\ &= d\gamma \wedge \eta + (-1)^{k-1} \gamma \wedge d\eta \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \omega_1 \wedge \eta - \omega_2 \wedge \eta = d(\gamma \wedge \eta)$$

$$\Rightarrow [\omega_1 \wedge \eta] = [\omega_2 \wedge \eta] \text{ in } H_{dR}^{k+l}(M).$$

This implies that $H_{dR}^* = \bigoplus_k H_{dR}^k(M)$ is a graded \mathbb{R} -algebra.

Proposition The map $I: H_{dR}^1(S^1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $I([\omega]) = \int_{S^1} \omega$ is an \mathbb{R} -vector space isomorphism.

Proof: Consider the 1-form $\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi}(x dy - y dx)$

$$\text{on } S^1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \quad (\gamma: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ inclusion map} \\ \omega = \gamma^* \left(\frac{1}{2\pi} x dy - y dx \right))$$

Since S^1 is 1-dimensional there is no nonzero 2-form on S^1 and thus $d\omega = 0$, i.e., ω is closed.

Let $P: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$ given by $P(t) = (\cos t, \sin t)$.
Note that $P|_{[0, 2\pi]}: [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow S^1$ is a

coordinate path except the end points.

$$\int_{S^1} \omega = \int_{S^1 \setminus \{(1,0)\}} \omega = \int_{(0, 2\pi)} P^* \omega = \int_{[0, 2\pi]} P^* \omega$$

$$P(t) = (\cos t, \sin t) = (x, y), \quad x = \cos t, \quad y = \sin t \\ dx = -\sin t dt, \quad dy = \cos t dt \\ \Rightarrow P^* \omega = P^*(x dy - y dx) = \frac{1}{2\pi}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{S'} \omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} (\cos t (\cos t) dt - \sin t (-\sin t) dt)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} dt.$$

$$\text{So } \int_{S'} \omega = \int_{[0, 2\pi]} \left(\frac{1}{2\pi}\right) dt = 1.$$

Also note that $\mathcal{I}: H_{\downarrow \mathbb{R}}^1(S') \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is linear:

$$\mathcal{I}(a[\omega] + b[\eta]) = \int_{S'} [a\omega + b\eta]$$

$$= \int_{S'} a\omega + b\eta$$

$$= a \int_{S'} \omega + b \int_{S'} \eta$$

$$= a \mathcal{I}([\omega]) + b \mathcal{I}([\eta]).$$

Note that we must first show \mathcal{I} is well defined:

$$\mathcal{I}: H_{\downarrow \mathbb{R}}^1(S') \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \mathcal{I}([\omega]) = \int_{S'} \omega$$

$$\mathcal{I}([\omega_1]) = \mathcal{I}([\omega_2]) \text{ then } \int_{S'} \omega_1 = \int_{S'} \omega_2. \quad (?)$$

Since $[\omega_1] = [\omega_2]$ we have $\omega_1 - \omega_2 = d\nu$ for some $\nu \in \Omega^0(S')$. Stokes' Thm.

$$\text{Then } \int_{S'} \omega_1 - \int_{S'} \omega_2 = \int_{S'} \omega_1 - \omega_2 = \int_{S'} d\nu \stackrel{\downarrow}{=} \int_{\partial S'} \nu = 0.$$

$\partial S' = \emptyset$

So $\mathcal{I}: H^1_{\mathbb{R}}(S^1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is an onto linear map.

To finish the proof we must show $\ker \mathcal{I} = \{0\}$.

Let $[\eta] \in H^1_{\mathbb{R}}(S^1)$ so that $\mathcal{I}([\eta]) = \int_{S^1} \omega = 0$.

must show: η is exact on S^1 .

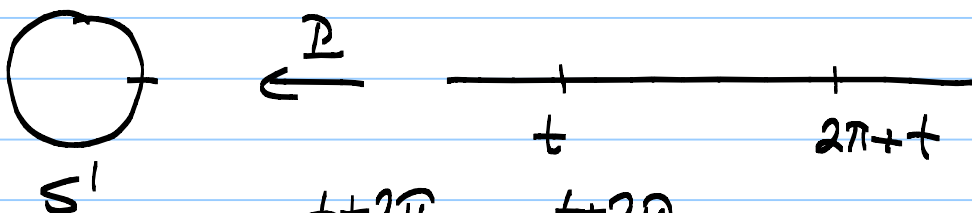
$$0 = \int_{S^1} \eta = \int_0^{2\pi} p^* \eta, \quad p^* \eta \in \mathcal{R}^1(\mathbb{R})$$

$$\Rightarrow p^* \eta = f(t) dt$$

So we have $0 = \int_0^{2\pi} f(t) dt$.

Let $F(t) = \int_0^t f(s) ds$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} F(t+2\pi) - F(t) &= \int_0^{t+2\pi} f(s) ds - \int_0^t f(s) ds \\ &= \int_t^{t+2\pi} f(s) ds = 0 \end{aligned}$$



$$0 = \int_{S^1} \eta = \int_t^{t+2\pi} p^* \eta = \int_t^{t+2\pi} f(s) ds$$

So $F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is periodic: $F(t+2\pi) = F(t)$.

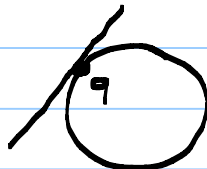
$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \mathbb{R} & \xrightarrow{F} & \mathbb{R} \\
 \downarrow P & \nearrow \tilde{F} & \\
 S^1 & &
 \end{array}
 \quad \tilde{F}(\cos t, \sin t) = F(t)$$

$$F = \tilde{F} \circ P.$$

$$P^* \eta = f(t) dt = dF.$$

$$\text{Now } P^*(d\tilde{F}) = d(P^*\tilde{F}) = d(\tilde{F} \circ P) = dF.$$

$$\Rightarrow P^*(d\tilde{F}) = P^* \eta.$$

 must show $d\tilde{F} = \eta$ on $T_q S^1$.

Let $v \in T_q S^1$, then since $P_* : T_{t_0} \mathbb{R} \rightarrow T_q S^1$

where $P(t_0) = q$, is an isomorphism because P is a local diffeomorphism. So $v = P_*(u)$ for some $u \in T_{t_0} \mathbb{R}$.

$$\text{Now } P^*(d\tilde{F})(u) = P^*(\eta)(u)$$

$$d\tilde{F}(P_*(u)) = \eta(P^*(u))$$

$$d\tilde{F}(v) = \eta(v), \text{ for all } v \in T_q S^1.$$

So, $d\tilde{F} = \eta$ so that η is exact!

This finishes the proof. \Rightarrow

Remark: $H_{\text{DR}}^1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{R}$, $H_{\text{DR}}^0(S^1) \cong \mathbb{R}$

$\dim S^1 = 1$ any k -form, when $k \geq 2$, is zero on S^1 and $H_{\text{DR}}^k(S^1) \cong 0$.

Poincaré Lemma: Let $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be an interval. Then for any smooth manifold M we have

$$H_{DR}^k(M \times I) \cong H_{DR}^k(M).$$

Proof: Consider the projection map $Pr: M \times I \rightarrow M$
 $Pr(x, t) = x, \forall (x, t) \in M \times I$. Let $a \in I$ and define the inclusion map $\hat{\tau}_a: M \rightarrow M \times I$ given by $\hat{\tau}_a(x) = (x, a)$. So, $\hat{\tau}_a(M) = M \times \{a\}$.

Note that the composition $Pr \circ \hat{\tau}_a: M \rightarrow M$ is the identity map Id_M . This induces an isomorphism on cohomology:

$$H_{DR}^k(M) \xrightarrow{Pr^*} H_{DR}^k(M \times I) \xrightarrow{\hat{\tau}_a^*} H_{DR}^k(M)$$

$$\hat{\tau}_a^* \circ Pr^* = (Pr \circ \hat{\tau}_a)^* = (Id_M)^* = Id_{H_{DR}^k(M)}.$$

Hence, Pr^* is injective and $\hat{\tau}_a^*$ is surjective.

Let $U \subseteq M$ be a coordinate chart. Locally $M \times I$ can be seen as $U \times I$. Let x_1, \dots, x_n be the coordinates on U . Also let t be the coordinate on I .

Let $I = (i_1, \dots, i_{k-1})$ and $J = (j_1, \dots, j_k)$, where $1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_{k-1} \leq n = \dim M$, $1 \leq j_1 < \dots < j_k \leq n = \dim M$.

Now any k -form on $U \times I$ is given as

$$\sum_{\bar{J}} g_{\bar{J}}(x, t) dx_{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{j_k} + \sum_{\bar{I}} f_{\bar{I}}(x, t) dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_{k-1}} \wedge dt, \text{ for some}$$

functions on $U \times I$.

Consider the map $P: \Omega^k(M \times I) \rightarrow \Omega^{k-1}(M)$ given

$$by \quad P(f(x,t) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k) = (-1)^{k-1} \left(\int_a^t f(x,s) ds \right) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k$$

$$and \quad P(g(x,t) dx_j) = 0.$$

Claim: 1) $(d \circ P + P \circ d)(f(x,t) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k) = f(x,t) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k$

and 2) $(d \circ P + P \circ d)(g(x,t) dx_j) = (g(x,t) - g(x,a)) dx_j.$

Let's first see that the claim finishes the proof. Note for the composition

$$\tau_a \circ P_r : M \times I \rightarrow M \times I \quad we \quad have$$

$$(P_r^* \circ \tau_a^*)(f(x,t) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k) = 0 \quad and$$

$$(P_r^* \circ \tau_a^*)(g(x,t) dx_j) = g(x,a) dx_j.$$

Hence, for any $\omega \in \Omega^k(M \times I)$, we have

$$(d \circ P + P \circ d)(\omega) = \omega - (P_r^* \circ \tau_a^*)\omega.$$

If ω is closed, then

$$\underbrace{d(P(\omega))}_{exact} - \underbrace{P(d\omega)}_0 = \omega - (P_r^* \circ \tau_a^*)\omega$$

$$and \quad hence, \quad [\omega] = (P_r^* \circ \tau_a^*)([\omega]) \\ = (\tau_a \circ P_r)^*([\omega]), \quad so \quad that$$

$(\tau_a \circ P_r)^*$ is identity on $H_{DR}^k(M)$. Thus,

$$\tau_a^* : H_{DR}^k(M \times I) \rightarrow H_{DR}^k(M) \quad and$$

$P_r^* : H_{DR}^k(M) \rightarrow H_{DR}^k(M \times I)$ are inverses of each other and thus they are both isomorphisms.

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Proof of Claim 1: $(d \circ \mathbb{P} + \mathbb{P} \circ d)(f(x,t) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt)$
 $= f(x,t) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt.$

$$\mathbb{P}: \Omega^k(M \times \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \Omega^{k-1}(M \times \mathbb{R}),$$

$$\mathbb{P}(f(x,t) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt) = (-1)^{k-1} \left(\int_0^t f(x,s) ds \right) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt$$

$$\mathbb{P}(g(x,t) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt) = 0. \quad \mathbb{Z} = (\tau_1, \dots, \tau_{k-1}) \in \Omega^{k+1}(M)$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbb{P} \circ d)(f(x,t) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt) &= \mathbb{P} \left(\sum_1 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} dx_i \wedge dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt \right) \\ &= \sum_1 \left(\int_0^t \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x,s) ds \right) dx_i \wedge dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (d \circ \mathbb{P})(f(x,t) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt) &= d \left[(-1)^{k-1} \left(\int_0^t f(x,s) ds \right) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt \right] \\ &= (-1)^{k-1} \left(f(x,t) dt \wedge dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt + \sum_1 \left(\int_0^t \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x,s) ds \right) dx_i \wedge dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } (d \circ \mathbb{P} + \mathbb{P} \circ d)(f(x,t) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt) &= (-1)^{k-1} f(x,t) dt \wedge dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt \\ &= f(x,t) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dt. \end{aligned}$$

This finishes the proof of the Poincaré Lemma. \square

Corollary: For any $k \geq 0$ integer and differentiable manifold M we have

$$H_{DR}^i(M \times \mathbb{R}^k) \cong H_{DR}^i(M), \text{ for any } i.$$

Conclg $H_{DR}^i(\mathbb{R}^k) = H_{DR}^i(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{R}^k) \cong H_{DR}^i(\mathbb{R}^k) = 0$ if $i \geq 1$ and $H_{DR}^0(\mathbb{R}^k) \cong \mathbb{R}.$

Corollary: The isomorphism $\tau_a^*: H_{DR}^k(M \times I) \rightarrow H_{DR}^k(M)$

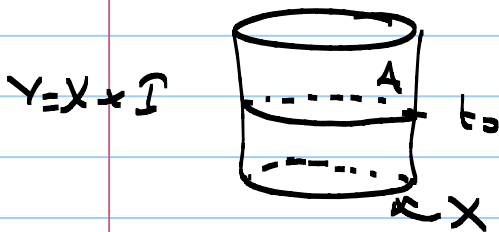
is independent of the point $a \in I$.

Proof Just note that $\tau_a^* = (\tau_1^*)^{-1}$.

Definition: A map $r: X \rightarrow A$, where $A \subseteq X$ is a subspace of a topological space X , is called a retraction if $r(a) = a$, for all $a \in A$.

Example: For any space X , let $Y = X \times I$ and $A = X \times \{t_0\}$, $t_0 \in I$. Then the map

$r: Y = X \times I \longrightarrow X \times \{t_0\} = A$, $r(x, t) = (x, t_0)$ is a retraction.



Proposition: If $r: M \rightarrow L$ is a retraction of smooth manifolds then $r_*: H_{DR}^k(L) \rightarrow H_{DR}^k(M)$ is injective for all k .

Proof Consider the composition $r \circ \tau: L \rightarrow L$, where $(r \circ \tau)(x) = r(\tau(x)) = \tau(x) = x$.


Thus, $(r \circ \tau)_* = \text{id}$ on $H_{DR}^k(L)$.

$$H_{DR}^k(L) \xrightarrow{r_*} H_{DR}^k(M) \xrightarrow{\tau_*} H_{DR}^k(L)$$

↘ = id

Here, r^* is injective and D^2 is surjective. \Rightarrow

Corollary: There is no retraction of D^2 onto its boundary $\partial D^2 \cong S^1$.

Proof:  $\leftarrow \partial D^2 \cong S^1 \quad r: D^2 \rightarrow \partial D^2 \cong S^1$

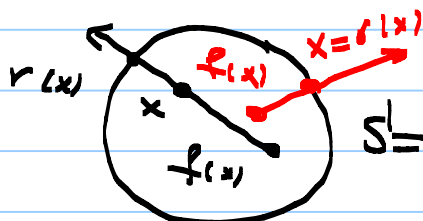
Suppose on the contrary that there is a retraction $r: D^2 \rightarrow \partial D^2 \cong S^1$. Then by the above corollary $r^*: H_{DR}^1(S^1) \rightarrow H_{DR}^1(D^2)$ must be injective, which is a contradiction. \Rightarrow

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{R} & \xrightarrow{\text{inj.}} & (0) \end{array}$$

Corollary: Any smooth map $f: D^2 \rightarrow D^2$ has a fixed point.

Proof: Assume on the contrary that f has no fixed points. So, $f(x) \neq x$ for all $x \in D^2$. Define the map

$r: D^2 \rightarrow \partial D^2$, $x \mapsto r(x)$, the intersection of the ray $\overrightarrow{f(x)x}$ with the boundary circle ∂D^2 :



$r(x)$ is a smooth map and $r(x) = x$ for any $x \in S^1 = \partial D^2$.

Hence, $r: D^2 \rightarrow S^1 = \partial D^2$ is a retraction.

This is a contradiction and the proof finishes. \Rightarrow

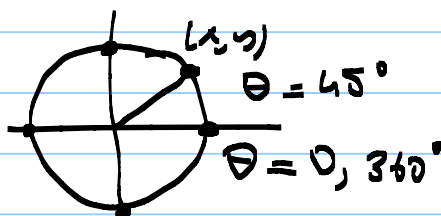
Winding, Rotation and Linking numbers:

By the Poincaré lemma, since $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0,0\} \cong S^1 \times \mathbb{R}$
 $((x,y) \mapsto \left(\frac{(x,y)}{\|(x,y)\|}, \ln \|(x,y)\| \right))$ is a C^∞ -map, we

have $H_{\mathbb{R}^2}^k(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0,0\}) \cong H_{S^1 \times \mathbb{R}}^k \cong H_{S^1}^k$.

In particular, $H_{\mathbb{R}^2}^1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0,0\}) \cong \mathbb{R}$.

Let $\omega = \frac{x dy - y dx}{x^2 + y^2} = d\theta$, $\theta: \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0,0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $(x,y) \mapsto \tan^{-1}(y/x)$,
a multi-valued function.



$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(y/x) + 2k\pi \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

One can see that $d\omega = 0$ so that ω is closed.
Also its integral over S^1 is

$$\int_{S^1} \omega = \int_0^{2\pi} 2\pi \omega = \int_0^{2\pi} dt = 2\pi \neq 0.$$

$t \mapsto (\cos t, \sin t)$, $t \in [0, 2\pi]$, $\gamma: [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow S^1$
 $\omega = \frac{x dy - y dx}{x^2 + y^2} = dt$ $t \mapsto (\cos t, \sin t)$

If $\omega = d\eta$ were exact then we would have
 $2\pi = \int_{S^1} \omega = \int_{S^1} d\eta = \int_{\partial S^1} \eta = \int_{\emptyset} \eta = 0$, a contradiction.

Hence, ω is closed but not exact so that
 $0 \neq [\omega] \in H_{\mathbb{R}^2}^1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0,0\}) \cong \mathbb{R}$.

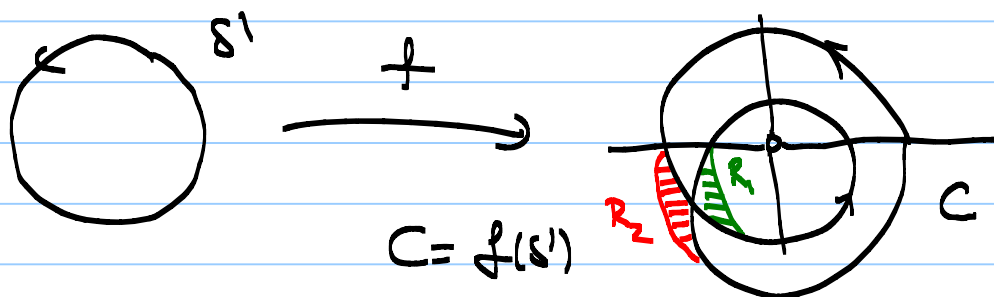
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Let's replace ω by $\frac{1}{2\pi} \omega'$ so that $\int_{S^1} \omega = 1$.

Winding number: If $f: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}$ is any smooth map the number defined by

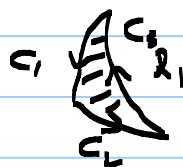
$\int_{S^1} f^*(\omega)$ is an integer, called the

winding number of $f: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}$.



$$\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{x dy - y dx}{x^2 + y^2} \in \Omega^1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\})$$

$$I_\omega(f) = \int_{S^1} f^*(\omega)$$

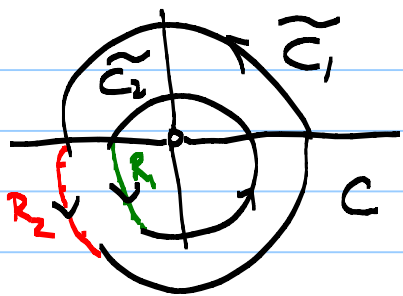


$$\partial R_1 = C_1 + C_2 + C_3 \quad \partial R_2 = C_4 + C_5 + C_6$$

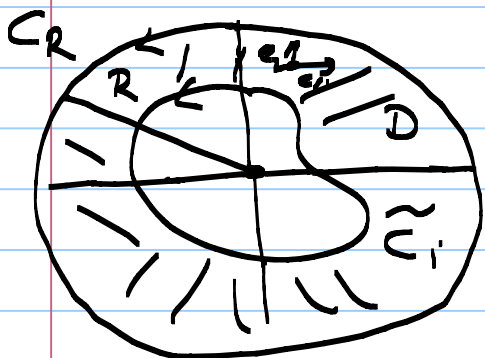
$$0 = \int_{R_1} d\omega = \int_{\partial R_1} \omega = \int_{C_1 + C_2 + C_3} \omega \Rightarrow -\int_{C_3} \omega = \int_{C_1} \omega + \int_{C_2} \omega$$

$$\text{Similarly, } 0 = \int_{R_2} d\omega = \int_{\partial R_2} \omega = \int_{C_4 + C_5 + C_6} \omega \Rightarrow -\int_{C_6} \omega = \int_{C_4} \omega + \int_{C_5} \omega$$

$$\text{So, } \int_{-C_3} \omega = \int_{C_1} \omega + \int_{C_2} \omega \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{-C_6} \omega = \int_{C_4} \omega + \int_{C_5} \omega$$



$$\int_C \omega = \int_{C_1} \omega + \int_{C_2} \omega$$



$$\partial D = -C_1 + C_2$$

$$0 = \int_D d\omega = \int_{\partial D} \omega = \int_{-C_1 + C_2} \omega$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{C_1} \omega = \int_{C_2} \omega$$

$$C_r: x^2 + y^2 = R^2$$

$$x = R \cos \theta, y = R \sin \theta$$

$$dx = -R \sin \theta d\theta$$

$$dy = R \cos \theta d\theta$$

$$\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{x dy - y dx}{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} d\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{C_1} \omega = \int_{C_2} \omega = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{2\pi} d\theta = 1.$$

$$\text{Hence, } \langle \omega, f \rangle = \int_{S^1} f^*(\omega) = 1 + 1 = 2$$

Theorem For any smooth map $f: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0, \infty\}$

$\langle \omega, f \rangle = \int_{S^1} f^*(\omega)$ is always an integer.

Proof: $S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0, \infty\} \xrightarrow{r} S^1$, where
 $x \mapsto f(x) \mapsto \frac{f(x)}{\|f(x)\|}$

$r: \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0, \infty\} \rightarrow S^1$ is a retraction.

$\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\} \xrightarrow{\cong} S^1 \times \mathbb{R}$ diffeomorphism.
 $x \longmapsto (r(x), \ln \|x\|)$ Poincaré lemma

Moreover, $H_{DR}^1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}) \cong H_{DR}^1(S^1 \times \mathbb{R}) \cong H_{DR}^1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{R}$.

$\mathbb{R}: S^1 \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1 \Rightarrow \mathbb{R}^*: H_{DR}^1(S^1) \rightarrow H_{DR}^1(S^1 \times \mathbb{R})$.
 $\omega \longmapsto \mathbb{R}^*(\omega)$

$\Gamma: S^1 \rightarrow S^1 \times \mathbb{R}$
 $x \longmapsto (x, 0) \quad \Gamma^*: H_{DR}^1(S^1 \times \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow H_{DR}^1(S^1)$

$$\Gamma^* \circ \mathbb{R}^* = (\mathbb{R} \circ \Gamma)^* = (\text{id}_{S^1})^* = \text{id}_{H_{DR}^1(S^1)}$$

In particular, $H_{DR}^1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}) \cong H_{DR}^1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{R}$.
 $[\omega] \longmapsto [\omega|_{S^1}]$

$$I_{\omega}(f) = \int_{S^1} (r \circ f)^* (\omega_{S^1}) \quad \omega_{S^1} = \frac{xdy - ydx}{2\pi}$$

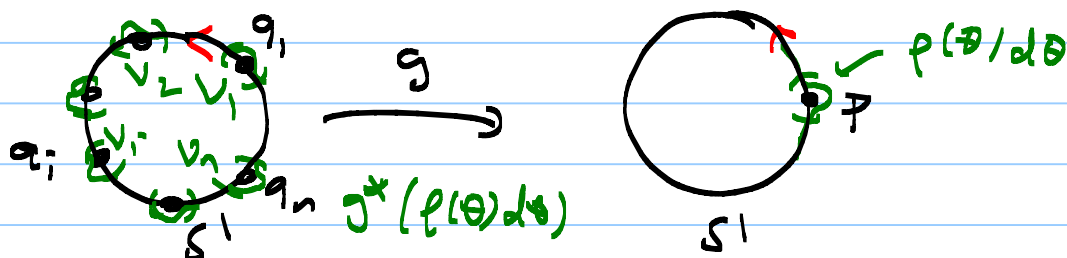
$$S^1 \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\} \xrightarrow{\gamma} S^1$$

$$S^1 \xrightarrow{g = r \circ f} S^1 \quad \underline{\text{Claim}} \quad g^*: H_{DR}^1(S^1) \rightarrow H_{DR}^1(S^1)$$

is given with multiplication by an integer $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$g: S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ smooth. let $p \in S^1$ be a regular value. $g^{-1}(p)$ is a 0-dim'd submanifold of S^1 .
 Moreover, $g^{-1}(p)$ is a closed set. If $g^{-1}(p)$ is infinite then there is a sequence

$(q_n)^{-1}$ in $g^{-1}(p)$ so that $h(q_n) = q_0 \in g^{-1}(p)$.
 This gives a contradiction to the fact that $g^{-1}(p)$ is a submanifold. Hence $g^{-1}(p)$ must be finite.



$g_x: T_{q_i} S^1 \rightarrow T_p S^1$ is an isomorphism.

Define $\deg(g)$ the local degree of g at q_i as ± 1 depending on whether $g_x: T_{q_i} S^1 \rightarrow T_p S^1$ is orientation preserving or reversing.

$$\text{Let } \deg g = \sum_{q_i} \deg(g) \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\text{Now we claim that } \deg g = \int_{S^1} g^*(\omega)$$

$$H^1_{\text{DR}}(S^1) = \langle [\omega] \rangle \quad \omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} (x dy - y dx) = \frac{1}{2\pi} d\theta$$

$$\text{Let } \eta = p(\theta) d\theta, \text{ where } \int_{S^1} p(\theta) d\theta = 1 \text{ and}$$

$p(\theta)$ is zero outside a small open set around p . Since g is a diffeomorphism around each q_i by choosing small enough open sets V_1, \dots, V_n around q_1, \dots, q_n and U around p so that $g|_{V_i}: V_i \rightarrow U$ is a diffeomorphism we see that

$$\int_{S^1} g^*(\omega) = \int_{S^1} g^*(p(\theta) d\theta) = \int_{V_1 \cup \dots \cup V_n} g^*(p(\theta) d\theta)$$

$$* \left[\begin{array}{l} H_{\mathbb{R}}^1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{R}, \quad \mathbb{I} : H_{\mathbb{R}}^1(S^1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ \int_{S^1} \omega = 1 = \int_{S^1} p(\theta) d\theta \quad \xrightarrow{\mathbb{I}} \int_{S^1} \omega \quad \text{is an.} \end{array} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{S^1} g^* \omega = \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{V_i} g^* (p(\theta) d\theta) \\ = \sum_{i=1}^n \deg(g) \int_{V_i} p(\theta) d\theta, \text{ where}$$

$\deg(g)$ is the local degree of g at q_i .

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \deg(g) = \deg(g).$$

Remark: If M is a compact oriented manifold (connected) then $H_{\mathbb{R}}^n(M) \cong \mathbb{R}$. In this case we define the degree of any smooth map $f: M \rightarrow N$ between compact connected oriented smooth manifolds of the same dimension.

$$f: M \rightarrow N \Rightarrow \begin{array}{ccc} f^*: H_{\mathbb{R}}^n(N) & \rightarrow & H_{\mathbb{R}}^n(M) \\ \cong \mathbb{R} & \xrightarrow{\times \lambda} & \cong \mathbb{R} \end{array}$$

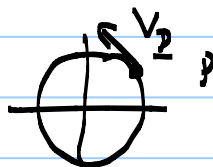
$$\lambda = \deg(f)$$

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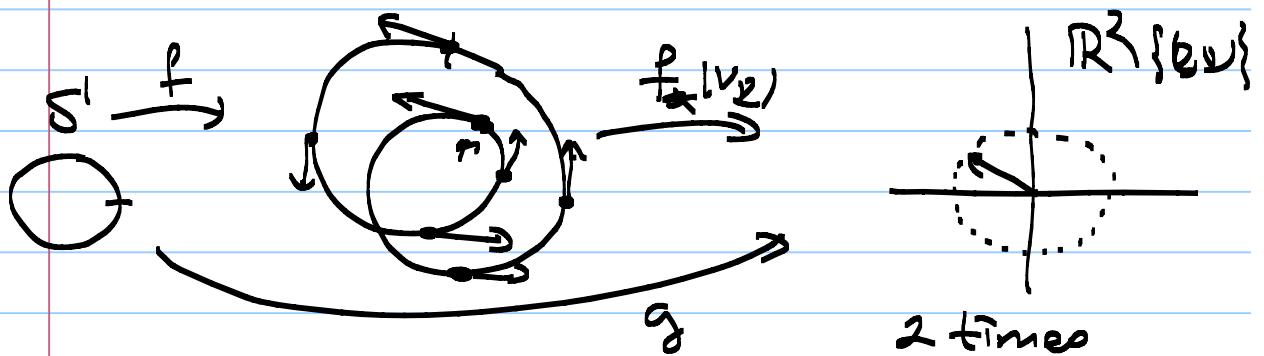
Rotation number of an immersion $f: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$.

Let $g: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0, \omega\}$ be the function defined by $g(p) = f_x(p)(v_p)$, where

$v_p \in T_p S^1$, $v_p = (-y, x)$.

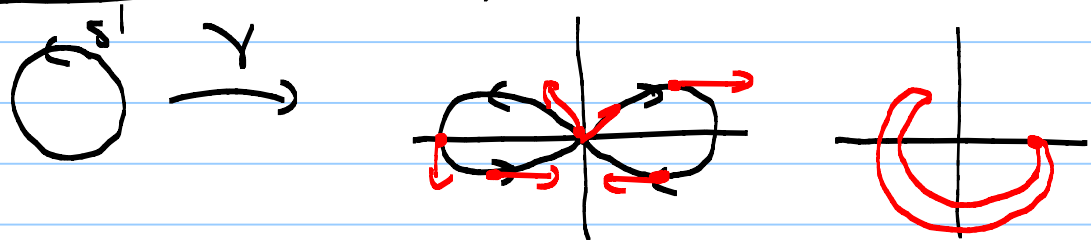


Note that since f is an immersion $g(p) \neq 0$, for any $p \in S^1$.



$\text{Rot}(f) = \text{winding number of } g$
It is the count of rotations of the tangent vectors of the curve $f: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$.

Example. $\gamma: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$, $\gamma(x, y) = (y, xy)$



$$\text{Rot}(\gamma) = 0, \quad g(x, y) = \gamma_x(v_{(x, y)})$$

$$\text{Rot}(\gamma) = \int_{S^1} g^* \omega, \quad \omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{x dy - y dx}{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$\gamma(x, y) = (g, xy) \quad t \mapsto (\cos t, \sin t)$$

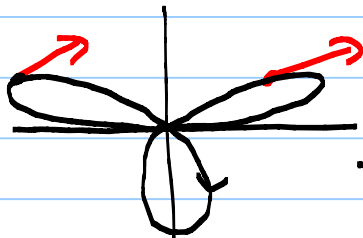
$$\gamma(t) = (\sin t, \cos t \sin t)$$

$$g(t) = \dot{\gamma}(t) = (\cos t, \cos 2t) \quad \cos t \sin t = \frac{1}{2} \sin 2t$$

$$g^*(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{x dy - y dx}{x^2 + y^2} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{\cos 2\theta \sin \theta - 2 \cos \theta \sin 2\theta}{(\cos^2 \theta + \cos^2 2\theta)} d\theta$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Rot}(\gamma) &= \int_{\gamma^1} g^*(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \downarrow d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \overbrace{\frac{\cos 2\theta \sin \theta - 2 \cos \theta \sin 2\theta}{(\cos^2 \theta + \cos^2 2\theta)}}^{\text{odd function}} d\theta \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Example: $r = \sin 3\theta$, $\theta \in [0, \pi]$.



$$\text{Rot}(\gamma) = 2$$

$$\gamma(\theta) = (\sin 3\theta \cos \theta, \sin 2\theta \sin \theta)$$

$$g(\theta) = \dot{\gamma}(\theta) = (2 \cos 4\theta + \cos 2\theta, 2 \sin 4\theta - \sin 2\theta)$$

$$g^*(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{14 + 4 \cos 6\theta}{5 + 4 \cos 6\theta}, \quad \text{Rot}(\gamma) = \int_{\gamma^1} g^*(\omega)$$

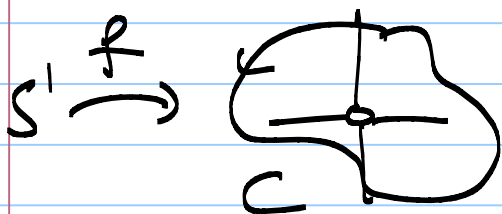
$$\text{Rot}(\gamma) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \frac{14 + 4 \cos 6\theta}{5 + 4 \cos 6\theta} d\theta \quad \phi = 6\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{6\pi} \frac{14 + 4 \cos \phi}{5 + 4 \cos \phi} \frac{1}{6} d\phi$$

$$= \frac{1}{12\pi} \cdot 3 \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{14 + 4 \cos \phi}{5 + 4 \cos \phi} d\phi$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{14 + 4\cos\phi}{5 + 4\cos\phi} d\phi \quad u = \tan \frac{\phi}{2} \\
&= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{18 + 10u^2}{(9+u^2)(4+u^2)} du \\
&= 2.
\end{aligned}$$

Linking Number: $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}$



$$x=0, y=0$$

$$\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{x dy - y dx}{x^2 + y^2}$$

$\int_C f^* \omega$ can be considered as linking of $(0,0)$ S^1 with the image of f .

$\int_C \omega$ if $f: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}$ is an embedding.

In \mathbb{R}^3 , $\{z\text{-axis}\}$ take a curve C .

Its linking with z -axis can be defined as

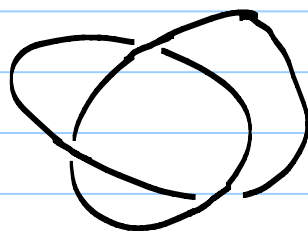
$$z\text{-axis}: x=0, y=0 \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^3$$

The linking form of z -axis is $\frac{x dy - y dx}{2\pi(x^2 + y^2)} \in \Omega^1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \{0\})$

$$\text{Link}(C, z\text{-axis}) = \int_C \omega$$

Example: Let K be a knot in \mathbb{R}^3 given by

$K: f=g=0$, for some smooth functions $f, g: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $\nabla f \times \nabla g \neq (0, 0, 0)$ at all points of K .



K locally form of K is

$$\omega_K = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{f dg - g df}{f^2 + g^2}$$

If L is any other knot in $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K$ then the linking $\text{Link}(L, K)$ is defined as

$$\text{Link}(L, K) = \int_L \omega_K.$$

One can define linking of submanifolds in \mathbb{R}^n :

$K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$ submanifold of dimension k . Assume it is as a complete intersection

$$K: f_1 = 0, \dots, f_n = 0 \quad \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{x dy - y dx}{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$\omega_K = \frac{1}{n! A_n} \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i-1} \frac{f_i df_1 \wedge \dots \wedge df_{i-1} \wedge df_{i+1} \wedge \dots \wedge df_n}{(f_1^2 + \dots + f_n^2)^{n/2}}$$

volume of S^{n-1}

$$\left[n=2 \quad \omega_K = \frac{1}{2 \cdot A_2} \frac{f_1 df_2 - f_2 df_1}{f_1^2 + f_2^2} \right]$$

$\omega_K \in \Omega^{n-1}(\mathbb{R}^{n+k} \setminus K)$ is a closed k -form

If L is a manifold in \mathbb{R}^{n+k} of dimension $\dim L + \dim K = n+k-1$, then the linking of L and K is defined as

$$\text{Link}(L, K) = \int_L \omega_K \quad (\dim L = n-1)$$

Remark $\frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} (-1)^{\sigma} x_1 dx_{\sigma_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{\sigma_{n-1}} \wedge dx_{\sigma_n} = \omega_{S^n}$

$$\frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} (-1)^{\sigma} x_1 \frac{dx_{\sigma_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{\sigma_{n-1}} \wedge dx_{\sigma_n}}{(x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{n/2}} = \omega_{S^n}$$

is a closed $n-1$ form on $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ with the property that

$$\int_{S^n} \omega_{S^n} = 1.$$

ω_{S^n} is closed and $H_{DR}^{n-1}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}) \cong \mathbb{R}$

$$\mathbb{R} \times S^{n-1}$$

Special Case 1) $K = \{0\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$

$$x=0$$

$$\omega_K = \frac{1}{i \cdot A}, \frac{x}{|x|^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{x}{|x|} \text{ 0-form on } \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}.$$

$$L = \{1\} \quad \text{Link}(K, L) = \int_L \omega_K = \frac{1}{2}.$$

$$L = \{-1, 1\} \quad \text{Link}(K, L) = -\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{-1}{|-1|} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{|1|}$$

$$= 1.$$



$$2) K = S^0 = \{-1, 1\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$$

$$f = x^2 - 1 = 0$$

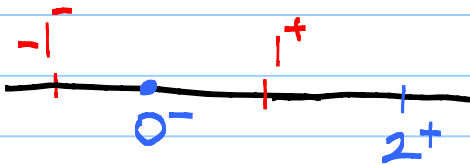
$$2 = \text{val}(S^0) = \text{val}(1, -1)$$

$$\omega_K = \frac{1}{2} \frac{f}{f'} = \frac{x^2 - 1}{2(x^2 - 1)}$$

$$L = 0, \quad \text{Link}(L, K) = \frac{-1}{2}$$

$$L = \{0^-, 2^+\} \quad \text{Link}(L, K) = \frac{-1}{2} \left(\frac{-1}{1} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{3}{3}$$

$$= 1.$$



Video 34

Cochain Complexes and Mayer-Vietoris Exact Sequence for de Rham Cohomology

A cochain complex is a sequence of vector space homomorphisms of the form

$$(A_x, d_x)$$

$$\dots \rightarrow A_{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}} A_n \xrightarrow{d_n} A_{n+1} \rightarrow \dots$$

A_n : vector space, d_n : vector space homomorphism

so that $d_n \circ d_{n-1} = 0$, for all n .

Hence, $\text{Im } d_{n-1} \subseteq \ker(d_n)$.

The n^{th} cohomology of (A_x, d_x) is defined as the quotient vector space

$$H^n(A_x, d_x) = \frac{\ker(d_n: A_n \rightarrow A_{n+1})}{\text{Im}(d_{n-1}: A_{n-1} \rightarrow A_n)}$$

Now consider homomorphisms of cochain complexes

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots \rightarrow & A_x & \xrightarrow{f_x} & B_x & \xrightarrow{g_x} & C_x & \rightarrow \dots \\ & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\ \rightarrow & A_n & \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}^A} & A_n & \xrightarrow{d_n^A} & A_{n+1} & \rightarrow \dots \\ & \downarrow f_{n-1} & & \downarrow f_n & & \downarrow f_{n+1} & \\ \rightarrow & B_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}^B} & B_n & \xrightarrow{d_n^B} & B_{n+1} & \rightarrow \dots \\ & \downarrow g_{n-1} & & \downarrow g_n & & \downarrow g_{n+1} & \\ \rightarrow & C_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}^C} & C_n & \xrightarrow{d_n^C} & C_{n+1} & \rightarrow \dots \end{array}$$

We require that each rectangle is commutative.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \bullet & \xrightarrow{d_n} & \bullet \\
 f_n \downarrow & & \downarrow f_{n+1} \\
 \bullet & \xrightarrow{d_n} & \bullet
 \end{array}
 \quad f_{n+1} \circ d_n = d_n \circ f_n$$

A sequence of the form

$$\dots \rightarrow (A_n, d_n) \xrightarrow{f_n} (B_n, d_n) \xrightarrow{g_n} (C_n, d_n) \rightarrow \dots$$

is called exact at (B_n, d_n) if

$$\text{Im } f_n = \ker g_n. \quad \text{In other words,}$$

$$\text{for all } n, \text{Im } (f_n: A_n \rightarrow B_n) = \ker(g_n: B_n \rightarrow C_n).$$

A sequence of cochain complexes

$$0 \rightarrow (A_n, d_n) \xrightarrow{f_n} (B_n, d_n) \xrightarrow{g_n} (C_n, d_n) \rightarrow 0$$

is called short exact if it is exact at all vector spaces. Here, it is short exact if and only if each

$$0 \rightarrow A_n \xrightarrow{f_n} B_n \xrightarrow{g_n} C_n \rightarrow 0 \text{ is exact at all vector spaces. This is equivalent to}$$

- 1) $\ker f_n = 0 \iff f_n$ is injective
- 2) $\text{Im } f_n = \ker g_n$
- 3) $\text{Im } g_n = C_n \iff g_n$ is onto.

Note that in the case, $C_n = \text{Im } g_n = \frac{B_n}{\ker g_n} = \frac{B_n}{\text{Im } f_n}$

$$\approx \frac{B_n}{f(A_n)}$$

Or equivalently, $B_n \cong A_n \oplus C_n$

Theorem (Algebraic Fact)

Suppose $0 \rightarrow A^* \xrightarrow{f^*} B^* \xrightarrow{g^*} C^* \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of cochain complexes. Then there is a long exact sequence of cohomology groups of these cochain complexes as follows:

$$\dots \rightarrow H^{r-1}(C^*) \xrightarrow{\delta} H^r(A^*) \xrightarrow{f^*} H^r(B^*) \xrightarrow{g^*} H^r(C^*) \xrightarrow{\delta} H^{r+1}(A^*) \rightarrow \dots$$

where δ is called the connecting homomorphism.

Proof:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \rightarrow & A_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{d} & A_n & \xrightarrow{d} & A_{n+1} & \rightarrow \\ & \downarrow f_{n-1} & & \downarrow f_n & & \downarrow f_{n+1} & \\ \rightarrow & B_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{d} & B_n & \xrightarrow{d} & B_{n+1} & \rightarrow \dots \end{array}$$

$$f_n^* : H^n(A^*) \rightarrow H^n(B^*)$$

$$\frac{\ker(d: A_n \rightarrow A_{n+1})}{\text{Im}(d: A_{n-1} \rightarrow A_n)} \xrightarrow{f_n^*} \frac{\ker(d: B_n \rightarrow B_{n+1})}{\text{Im}(d: B_{n-1} \rightarrow B_n)}$$

Let $a \in \ker(d: A_n \rightarrow A_{n+1})$. Define $f_n^*([a]) = [f_n(a)]$.
must show two things:

1) $d(f_n(a)) = 0$ so that $f_n(a)$ defines a cohomology class.

$$d f_n(a) = f_n(da) = f_n(0) = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

2) $[a] = [b] \xrightarrow{?} [f_n(a)] = [f_n(b)]$

$$[a] = [b] \Rightarrow [a-b] = 0 \Rightarrow a-b = dc, \text{ for some } c \in A_{n-1}.$$

$$\Rightarrow f_n(a-b) = f_n(dc) = d f_n(c)$$

$$f_n(a) - f_n(b) = d f_n(c)$$

$$\Rightarrow [f_n(a)] - [f_n(b)] = [d f_n(c)] = 0.$$

$$\rightarrow [f_n(a)] = [f_n(b)].$$

So, f^* and g^* are well defined.

How to define $\delta: H^{n-1}(C_*) \rightarrow H^n(A_*)$?

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 0 & \rightarrow & A_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{f} & B_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{g} & C_{n-1} \rightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow d & & \downarrow d & & \downarrow d \\
 0 & \rightarrow & A_n & \xrightarrow{f} & B_n & \xrightarrow{g} & C_n \rightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow d & & \downarrow d & & \downarrow d \\
 0 & \rightarrow & A_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{f} & B_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{g} & C_{n+1} \rightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow d & & \downarrow d & & \downarrow d \\
 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0
 \end{array}$$

$[z] = [z']$
 $z - z' = dw$
 $dx = 0$?
 $g(y) = z$
 $g(y) = z$
 $f(x) = dy$
 $g(y) = z$
 $g(dy) = z - z'$
 $g(y - dz) = z'$
 $f(x') = d(y - dz) = dy$

$$\delta: H^{n-1}(C_*) \rightarrow H^n(A_*)$$

$[z]$

Take any element $[z] \in H^{n-1}(C_*)$, where $z \in C_{n-1}$ such that $dz = 0$. $f(x-x') = f(x) - f(x')$

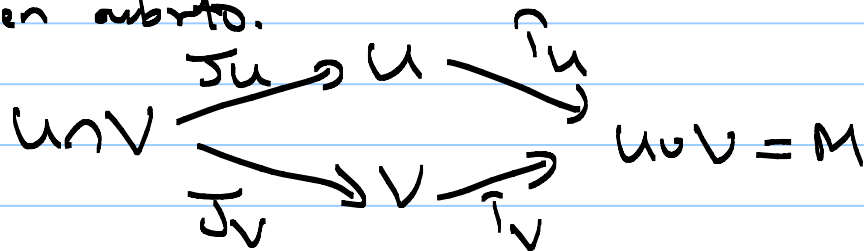
We define $\delta([z])$ as $[x]$. $= dy - dy = 0$
 $\Rightarrow x - x' = 0$.

We must show that $[x]$ is uniquely determined by $[z]$. Done above!

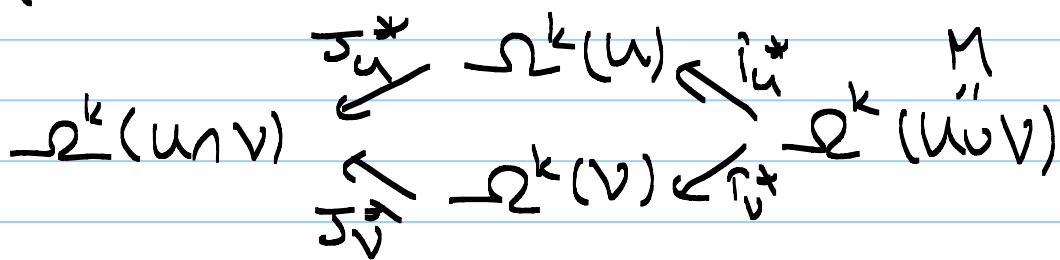
One must also check that the sequence in the statement is exact.

We'll apply this tool to de Rham cohomology as follows:

Assume that a smooth manifold M is written as $M = U \cup V$ the union of two open subsets.



all are inclusion maps. This gives a diagram of homomorphisms:



We have a short exact sequence of cochain complexes:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 0 & \rightarrow & \Omega^k(M) & \xrightarrow{(\hat{\tau}_U^*, \hat{\tau}_V^*)} & \Omega^k(U) \oplus \Omega^k(V) & \xrightarrow{d} & \Omega^k(U \cup V) \rightarrow 0 \\
 & & \omega \mapsto & & (\hat{\tau}_U^*(\omega), \hat{\tau}_V^*(\omega)) & \xrightarrow{\uparrow} & \omega|_{U \cup V} - \omega|_{U \cup V} = 0 \\
 & & \uparrow & & (\eta, \theta) & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{J}_U^* - \mathcal{J}_V^*} & \mathcal{J}_U^*(\eta) - \mathcal{J}_V^*(\theta) \\
 & & \text{one to one} & & \mathcal{I}_U = \ker & & \text{onto} \\
 & & & & \underline{=} & &
 \end{array}$$

$\omega \in \Omega^k(M) = \Omega^k(U \cup V)$. Assume $\hat{\tau}_U^*(\omega) = 0$ and $\hat{\tau}_V^*(\omega) = 0$. So $\omega|_U = 0$, $\omega|_V = 0$.
 $\Rightarrow \omega = 0$ on $U \cup V = M$. Hence, $\hat{\tau}_U^*$ is inj.

must show: $(\eta, \theta) \mapsto \mathcal{J}_U^*(\eta) - \mathcal{J}_V^*(\theta)$ is onto.

|| Poincaré Lemma
 $H^n(S^n) \cong \mathbb{R}$

$$\xrightarrow{f} H^{n+2}(U \cup V) \rightarrow$$

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \rightarrow H^{n+1}(S^{n+1}) \rightarrow 0$$

So, $H^{n+1}(S^{n+1}) \cong \mathbb{R}$. $H^k(S^{n+1}) = 0$, $k \geq n+2$
and $H^0(S^{n+1}) \cong \mathbb{R}$.

$$H^k(S^{n+1}) = ? \quad 1 \leq k \leq n.$$

Exercise: Show that $H^k(S^{n+1}) = 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$.

In particular, we have $H_{dR}^n(S^n) \cong \mathbb{R}$

and isomorphism is given by integration:

$$I: H_{dR}^n(S^n) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad [\omega] \mapsto \int_{S^n} \omega.$$

For $H_{dR}^2(S^2) \cong \mathbb{R}$ and a generator ω

$$\text{given by } \omega = \frac{1}{4\pi} \frac{x dy \wedge dz + y dz \wedge dx + z dx \wedge dy}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}$$

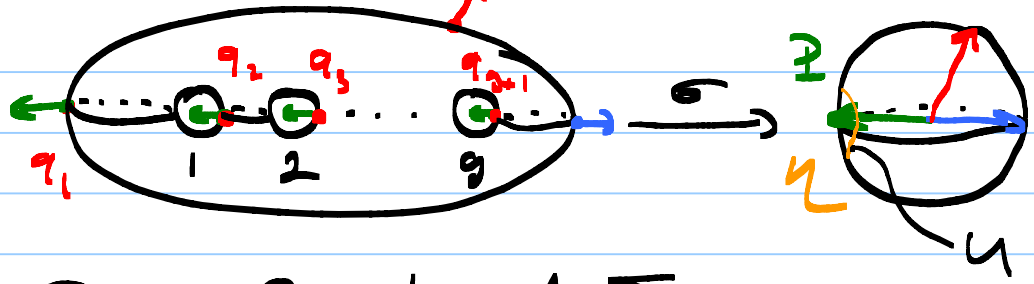
$$\left[\omega \in \Omega^2(\mathbb{R}^3 - \{0\}) \right]$$

Theorem (Gauss-Bonnet Thm).

If Σ_g is a genus g closed surface in \mathbb{R}^3

$$\text{then } \int_{\Sigma_g} K dS = 4\pi(1-g) = 2\pi \underbrace{(2-2g)}_{\chi(\Sigma_g)}$$

$$\sigma^{-1}(P) = \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_{g+1}\}$$



κ = Gauss Curvature of Σ_g .

If Σ_g is given locally as the graph of a function $z = f(x, y)$, then

$$\kappa dS = \frac{f_{xx}f_{yy} - f_{xy}^2}{(1 + f_x^2 + f_y^2)^2} \sqrt{1 + f_x^2 + f_y^2} dx dy$$

Gauss map: $\Sigma_g \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$, $\sigma: \Sigma_g \rightarrow S^2$
 $p \mapsto U(p)$,
 $U(p)$ is a unit normal vector.

$$U(p) = \frac{(-f_x, -f_y, 1)}{\sqrt{1 + f_x^2 + f_y^2}}$$

If $\omega = \frac{x dy dz + y dz dx + z dx dy}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}$, then

$$\sigma^* \omega = \kappa dS$$

So, we must compute $\int_{\Sigma_g} \kappa dS = \int_{\Sigma_g} \sigma^* \omega$

$[\omega] \in H_{\text{dR}}^2(S^2) \cong \mathbb{R}$. Choose any 2-form η on S^2 so that

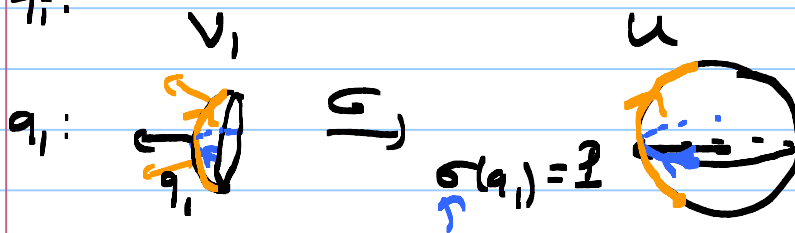
$$\int_{S^2} \eta = \int_{S^2} \omega = 4\pi$$

and η is supported in a small open set around the point $p \in S^2$.

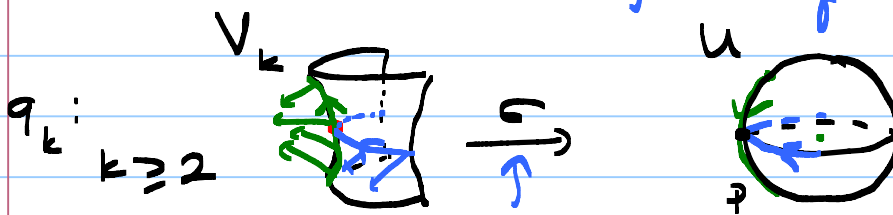
The $[\omega] = [\eta]$ so that

$$\int_{\Sigma_g} \sigma^* \omega = \int_{\Sigma_g} \sigma^* \eta$$

Note that σ is a diffeomorphism near each q_i .



orientation preserving



orientation reversing

$$\int_{\Sigma_g} \chi dS = \int_{\Sigma_g} \sigma^*(\omega) = \int_{\Sigma_g} \sigma^*(\eta) = \int_{V_1 \cup \dots \cup V_k} \sigma^*(\eta)$$

$$= \sum_k \int_{V_k} \sigma^*(\eta) = \sum_{k=1}^{g+1} \pm \int_U \eta$$

$\sigma: V_k \rightarrow U$
diffeom.

where $\pm \sigma^* \eta$ is determined depending on σ is orientation preserving or reversing on V_k . We know that it is orientation preserving for $k=1$ and reversing for $k \geq 2$.

$$\text{Hence, } \int_{\Sigma_g} \chi dS = (1-g) \int_U \eta = (1-g) 4\pi.$$

However, this is proved for a specially embedded sphere Σ_g in \mathbb{R}^3 .

What about an arbitrary embedded Σ_g in \mathbb{R}^3 ?

Let $\tau_0: \Sigma_g \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be the special embedding and $\tau_1: \Sigma_g \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ an arbitrary embedding.

must show: $\int_{\Sigma_g = \tau_0(\Sigma_g)} \mathcal{K} dS = \int_{\tau_1(\Sigma_g)} \mathcal{K} dS$

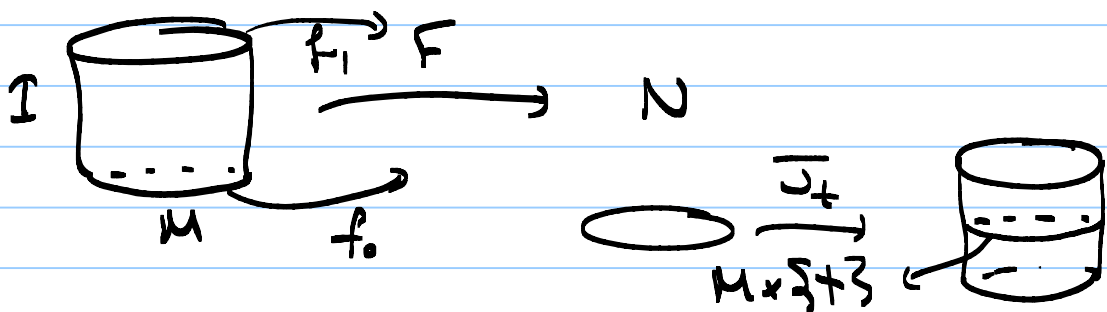
$$4\pi(1-g) = \int_{\Sigma_g} \sigma_1^*(\omega) \stackrel{?}{=} \int_{\Sigma_g} \sigma_1^*(\omega)$$

Yes if τ_0 and τ_1 are homotopic!

Definition: Two maps f_0 and f_1 from M to N are called homotopic if there is a smooth map

$$F: M \times [0, 1] \rightarrow N$$

so that $F(x, 0) = f_0(x)$ and $F(x, 1) = f_1(x)$.



Note that if $J_t: M \rightarrow M \times I$ is the map $J_t(x) = (x, t)$ then

$$f_0(x) = F(x, 0) = F(J_0(x)) \text{ and } f_1(x) = F(x, 1) = F(J_1(x)).$$

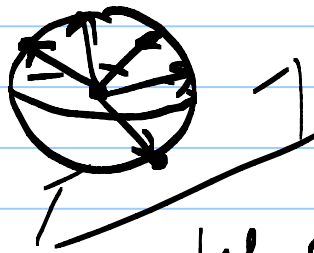
$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Then } f_0^* &= (F \circ J_0)^* = J_0^* \circ F^* \quad \text{and} \\
 &= J_+^* \circ F^* \\
 &= J_1^* \circ F^* \\
 &= (F \circ J_1)^* \\
 &= f_1^*
 \end{aligned}$$

Question: Are τ_0 and τ_1 homotopic through immersions in \mathbb{R}^3 ?

These maps are homotopic through immersions in \mathbb{R}^n , $n \geq 7$.

Answer: Yes.

We must also replace S^2 by something else.

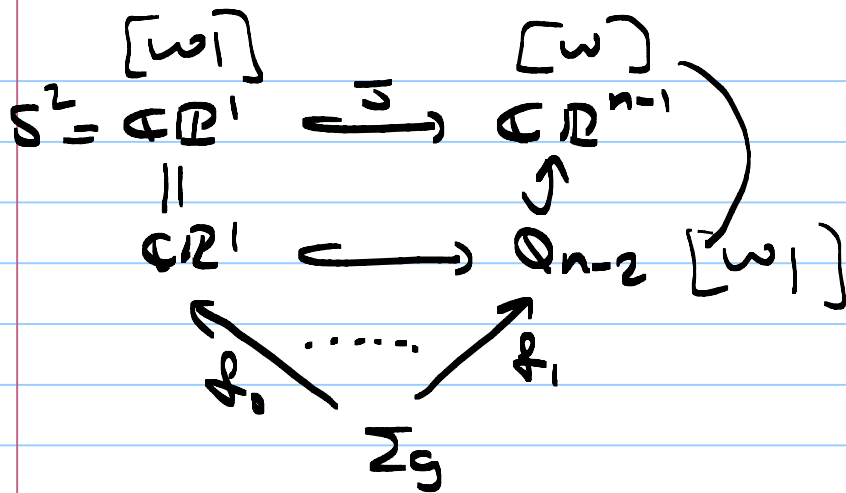


S^2 : the space of oriented 2-dim'l subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Let $Gr^+(2, n)$ be the space of all oriented 2-dim'l subspaces of \mathbb{R}^n . $Gr^+(2, n)$ is called the Grassmann manifold.

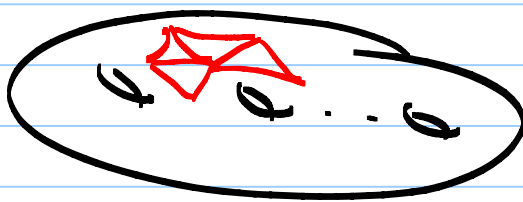
$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 S^2 = Gr^+(2, 3) & \hookrightarrow & Gr^+(2, 4) & \hookrightarrow & \dots & \hookrightarrow & Gr^+(2, n) \\
 \parallel & & & & & & \parallel \\
 \mathbb{C}P^1 & & & & & & Q_{n-1}
 \end{array}$$

Q_{n-2} is the hypersurface in $\mathbb{C}P^{n-1}$ defined by the quadratic polynomial $z_1^2 + \dots + z_n^2 = 0$



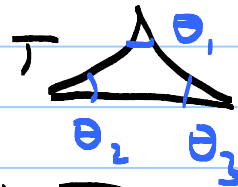
$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_{M_g} \sigma_{\varphi_0}^*(\omega_1) &= \int_{\Sigma_g} \sigma_{\varphi_0}^*(\nu^*(\omega)) = \int_{\Sigma_g} (\nu \circ \sigma_{\varphi_0})^*(\omega) \\
 &= \int_{M_g} \sigma_{\varphi_1}^*(\omega)
 \end{aligned}$$

A geometric proof: Divide the surface into triangles by geodesics.



Gauss' Thm

Geodesic triangle




$$\int \kappa ds = (\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \theta_3) - \pi$$

Then the rest is a combinatorial computation.

Example 1) \mathbb{R}^2 , $\kappa = 0$



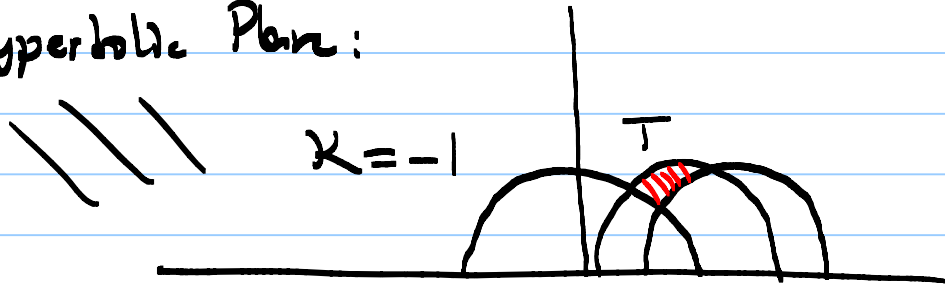
$$\int \kappa ds = 0 = \theta_1 + \theta_2 + \theta_3 - \pi$$

2) S_r^2  $\kappa(p) = \frac{1}{r^2}$

$$\int_{S_r^2} \kappa(p) dS = \int_{S_r^2} \frac{1}{r^2} dS = \frac{1}{r^2} (4\pi r^2) = 4\pi$$

$$\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \theta_3 - \pi = \int_T \kappa dS = \frac{1}{r^2} \int_T dS = \frac{\text{Area}(T)}{r^2}$$

3) Hyperbolic Plane:



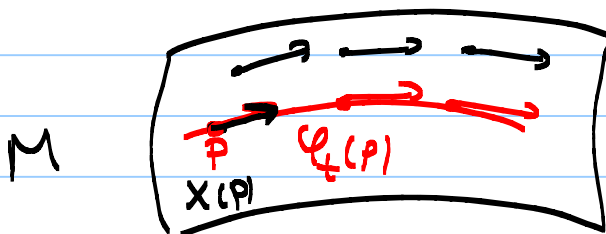
$$\text{Area}(T) = -1 \cdot (\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \theta_3 - \pi)$$

Integration of Vector Fields:

Theorem: Let M be a closed smooth manifold and X a smooth vector field in M . Then there is a unique "flow", a differentiable function

$$\varphi: \mathbb{R} \times M \rightarrow M, (t, p) \mapsto \varphi(t, p) \text{ so that}$$

$$X(\varphi_t(p)) = \dot{\varphi}_t(p)$$



$$\varphi_t(p) = \varphi(t, p)$$

$$\dot{\varphi}_t(p) = \frac{d}{dt} \varphi_t(p)$$

To prove the above theorem we need to recall the Existence-Uniqueness of O.D.E.'s and smooth dependence of the solutions with respect to the initial conditions.

Existence-Uniqueness of O.D.E.'s

B Banach Space, $B = (\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|)$, $U \subseteq B$ an open subset and $f: U \rightarrow B$ a continuous function

We'll say that f is Lipschitz if there is some $\lambda > 0$ so that $\|f(x) - f(y)\| \leq \lambda \|x - y\|$ for all $x, y \in U$.

Theorem: Let B be a Banach space, $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ an open interval and $f: I \times B \rightarrow B$ a continuous function, which is Lipschitz in the second coordinate. Then for any $t_0 \in I$, $y_0 \in B$, the

Initial Value Problem

$\begin{cases} y' = f(t, y) \\ y(t_0) = y_0 \end{cases}$ has a unique solution defined

on some interval $(t_0 - \epsilon, t_0 + \epsilon) \subseteq I$. Moreover, if $f \in C^k$ then $y \in C^{k+1}$.

Proof: We first convert the I.V.P. to an integral equation

$$y(t) = y_0 + \int_{t_0}^t f(s, y(s)) ds.$$

Let $B_\epsilon = C^0([t_0 - \epsilon, t_0 + \epsilon], B)$, where $\epsilon > 0$ is so that $\epsilon \lambda = \alpha < 1$, and λ is the above Lipschitz constant of f w.r.t. the second coordinate. Here B_ϵ is equipped with the supremum metric.

Define $\Theta: B_\epsilon \rightarrow B_\epsilon$ by

$$\Theta(y)(t) = \underline{y_0} + \int_{t_0}^t f(s, y(s)) ds.$$

Claim: Θ is a contraction mapping

Proof If $y_1, y_2 \in B_\epsilon$ then

$$\begin{aligned} \|\Theta(y_1)(t) - \Theta(y_2)(t)\| &= \left\| \int_{t_0}^t (f(s, y_1(s)) - f(s, y_2(s))) ds \right\| \\ &\leq |t - t_0| \|f(s, y_1(s)) - f(s, y_2(s))\| \\ &\leq \epsilon \lambda \|y_1(s) - y_2(s)\| \\ &\leq \alpha \|y_1(t) - y_2(t)\| \end{aligned}$$

So, Θ is a contraction mapping.

The Θ has a unique fixed point $y = \phi(t)$. So

$$\phi(t) = \Theta(\phi(t)) = y_0 + \int_{t_0}^t f(s, \phi(s)) ds, \text{ and hence}$$

$\phi(t)$ is the solution of the I.V.P.

The fact that $\phi(t) \in C^{k+1}$ follows from the identity $\phi(t) = y_0 + \int_{t_0}^t f(s, \phi(s)) ds$.

Continuous Dependence of the solution $\phi(t)$ on the initial conditions.

Choosing the interval \mathcal{I} in the theorem smaller if necessary we may assume that for any $(t_1, y_1) \in \mathcal{I} \times B$ the solution of the I.V.P. $y' = f(t, y(t)), y(t_1) = y_1$ will be in the

$$\text{set } B_1 = C^0([t_0 - \epsilon, t_0 + \epsilon], B).$$

Now for (t_0, y_0) and $(t_0 + h_1, y_0 + h_2)$ let y^0 and y^h ($h = (h_1, h_2)$) denote the solutions correspondingly to the I.C. (t_0, y_0) and $(t_0 + h_1, y_0 + h_2)$ respectively.

First assume that f is bounded on U .

Consider the function $\Phi: \mathcal{I} \times B \rightarrow B_1$ mapping (t_0, y_0) to the unique solution of the I.V.P. $y' = f(t, y), y(t_0) = y_0$.

Now,

$$\|\Phi(t_0+h_1, y_0+h_2) - \Phi(t_0, y_0)\| = \|y^h - y^0\|$$

$$= \|\cancel{y_0} + h_2 + \int_{t_0+h_1}^t f(s, y^h(s)) ds - \cancel{y_0} - \int_{t_0}^t f(s, y^0(s)) ds\|$$

$$= \|h_2 - \int_{t_0}^{t_0+h_1} f(s, y^0(s)) ds + \int_{t_0+h_1}^t (f(s, y^h(s)) - f(s, y^0(s))) ds\|$$

$$\leq \|h_2\| + \|\int_{t_0}^{t_0+h_1} f(s, y^0(s)) ds\| + \|\int_{t_0+h_1}^t (f(s, y^h(s)) - f(s, y^0(s))) ds\|$$

$$\leq \|h_2\| + |h_1| \|f\| + \underbrace{\lambda \|y^h(s) - y^0(s)\|}_{=\alpha} \epsilon$$

$$\leq \|h_2\| + |h_1| \|f\| + \alpha \|y^h - y^0\|$$

$$(1-\alpha) \|y^h - y^0\| \leq \|h_2\| + |h_1| \|f\|$$

$$\|y^h - y^0\| \leq \frac{\|h_2\| + |h_1| \|f\|}{1-\alpha}$$

So Φ is continuous with respect to (t_0, y_0) .

Proof of the Theorem: M compact smooth manifold.

$X: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \times M$ smooth vector field.

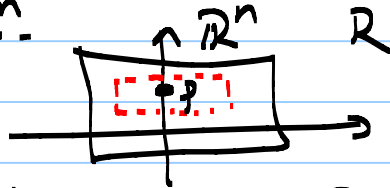
We must construct a function $\varphi: \mathbb{R} \times M \rightarrow M$ so that $X(\varphi_t(p)) = \dot{\varphi}_t(p)$ ($\varphi_t(p) = \varphi(t, p)$)

Video 3 P

Let $p \in M$. Taking a coordinate neighborhood around p we may assume that $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$. So we'll solve equation

$$X(\varphi_t(p)) = \dot{\varphi}_t(p) \quad \text{on } \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Take a closed rectangular region around $(0, p)$ in $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n$.



In this rectangle $X(p)$ is Lipschitz w.r.t. p and hence taking R even smaller if necessary we can find a solution $\varphi: (-\epsilon_p, \epsilon_p) \times U_p \rightarrow M$ satisfying $\varphi(0, p) = p$. Since M is closed (compact connected) we can cover M with finitely U_p 's so that taking $\epsilon = \min\{\epsilon_{p_1}, \dots, \epsilon_{p_n}\} > 0$ we find a function

$\varphi: (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \times M \rightarrow M$ satisfying the equation $X(\varphi_t(p)) = \dot{\varphi}_t(p)$ and $\varphi_0 = \text{Id}_M$.

We've seen that $\varphi_t(p)$ is continuous in (t, p) .

Next we show that $\varphi_t(p)$ is defined for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. For any $p \in M$ and $-\epsilon < t_1 < \epsilon$ choose an interval $(t_1 - \delta, t_1 + \delta) \subseteq (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$.

Now the function $f: (-\delta, \delta) \rightarrow M$, $f(t) = \varphi_{t+t_1}(p)$. Also let $q = \varphi_{t_1}(p)$. Then the function

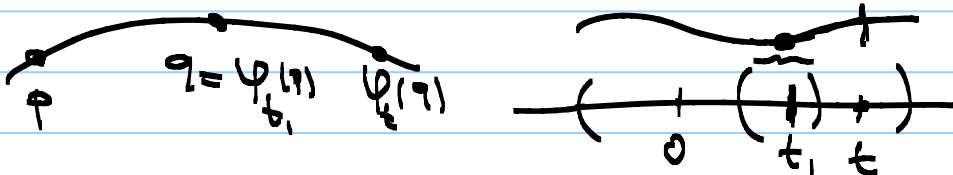
$g: (-\delta, \delta) \rightarrow M$ by $g(t) = \varphi_t(q)$ and $f(t)$ both solves the I.V.P.

$$\dot{y}(t) = X(y(t)) \quad \text{and} \quad y(0) = q.$$

$$f'(t) = \dot{\varphi}_{t+t_1}(p) = X(\varphi_{t+t_1}(p)), \quad \dot{g}(t) = \dot{\varphi}_t(q)$$

$$g(t) = \dot{\varphi}_t(\varphi_t(p)) = X(\varphi_t(\varphi_t(p))) = X(\varphi_{t+t_1}(p)) = \dot{g}(t)$$

and $f(0) = \varphi_{t_1}(p) = q = g(0)$



Hence, $f(t) = g(t) \Rightarrow \varphi_{t+t_1}(p) = \varphi_t(\varphi_{t_1}(p))$,

for all $p \in M$ and $t \in (t_1 - \delta, t_1 + \delta) \subseteq (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$.

So, for any $-\epsilon < s_i, t_i < \epsilon$ and $\sum_i s_i = \sum_i t_i$ we have

$$\varphi_s = \varphi_{s_1} \circ \dots \circ \varphi_{s_k} = \varphi_{t_1} \circ \varphi_{t_2} \circ \dots \circ \varphi_{t_k}$$

Any $t \in \mathbb{R}$ can be written as $t = t_1 + \dots + t_k$ for finitely many $t_i \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ so that φ extends to $\varphi: \mathbb{R} \times M \rightarrow M$.

Finally, we need to show that $\varphi: \mathbb{R} \times M \rightarrow M$ is smooth.

First note that $X(\varphi(t, p)) = \dot{\varphi}(t, p)$ can be written as

$$\varphi(p, t) = p + \int_0^t X(\varphi(s, p)) ds.$$

Let $\varphi_0(t, p) = p$, $\varphi_0 = \text{Id}_M$, and $\varphi_m(t, p) = p + \int_0^t X(\varphi_m(s, p)) ds$

Now we'll use an idea of Arnold (his book on Math Phys. Thm 1.2.13): $\varphi_0 = \text{Id}_M$ is of class C^∞ .

The above recursion formula shows that each $\varphi_n: \mathbb{R} \times M \rightarrow M$ are smooth functions.

Let $\Psi_n \equiv \partial \varphi_n / \partial p$. Then we have

$$\Psi_0(t, p) = \mathbb{2}d, \quad \Psi_{n+1}(t, p) = \mathbb{2}d + \int_0^t DX(\varphi_n(s, p)) \Psi_n(s, p) ds$$

$$\dot{\varphi}(t, p) = X(\varphi(t, p))$$

$$\frac{\partial \dot{\varphi}}{\partial p} = DX(\varphi(t, p)) \cdot \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial p}$$

By the same argument each Ψ_n is smooth.

Hence, their limits $\varphi(t, p) = \lim_n \varphi_n(t, p)$ and $\Psi(t, p) = \lim_n \Psi_n(t, p)$ are both continuous

Since $\Psi_n = \partial \varphi_n / \partial p$ for all n we get $\Psi = \partial \varphi / \partial p$ and hence φ is continuous. So φ is continuously differentiable. Finally, φ satisfies

$$\Psi = \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial p} = \exp \int_0^t DX(\varphi(s, p)) ds$$

and thus φ is infinitely many times differentiable.

$$\dot{\varphi}(t, p) = X(\varphi(t, p))$$

$$\frac{\partial \dot{\varphi}}{\partial p}(t, p) = DX(\varphi(t, p)) \cdot \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial p}(t, p)$$

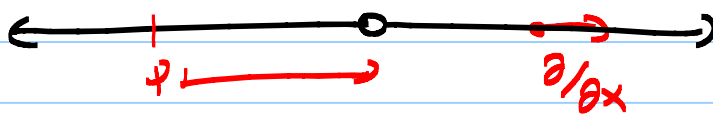
$$\Psi = \frac{d\varphi}{dp} \Rightarrow \dot{\Psi} = DX(\varphi(t, p)) \Psi$$

$$\Rightarrow \Psi = \exp \int_0^t DX(\varphi(s, p)) ds$$

So, we have smooth map $\varphi: \mathbb{R} \times M \rightarrow M$
 satisfying $(\varphi_t(p)) = \varphi(t, p)$

$$\varphi_0(p) = p \text{ and } (\varphi_t)_* = X(\varphi_t(p)), \forall t, p \in M.$$

Remark: $M = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$, $X(p) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$



Lie Brackets: Let X, Y be vector fields on a smooth manifold M . The $X \circ Y$ is not a vector field. However, $X \circ Y - Y \circ X$ is a vector field on M .

Take any $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ smooth function. Assume that on a coordinate chart X and Y are given

$$X(p) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i(p) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}, \quad Y(p) = \sum_{j=1}^n b_j(p) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } (X \circ Y)(f) &= X(Y(f)) \\ &= X\left(\sum_j b_j \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}\right) \\ &= \sum_i a_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(\sum_j b_j \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \sum_i a_i \left(\frac{\partial b_j}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} + b_j \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \right)$$

$$\text{Similarly, } (Y \circ X)(f) = \sum_j b_j \left(\frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} + a_i \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} \right)$$

$$\text{So } (X \circ Y - Y \circ X)(f) = \sum_i a_i \frac{\partial b_j}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} - \sum_j b_j \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$$

$$\Rightarrow (X \circ Y - Y \circ X)(f) = \sum_{i,j} (a_i \frac{\partial b_j}{\partial x_i} - b_j \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_j}) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}$$

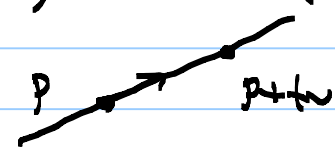
So, $X \circ Y - Y \circ X$ is another vector field on M .

Notation: $[X, Y] \doteq X \circ Y - Y \circ X$

$[,]$ is a binary operation on the set of all vector fields on M .

Lie Derivative: Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ smooth function.

Let $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ any vector. ($v \in T_p \mathbb{R}^n$) we have

$$D_v(f)(p) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(p+tv) - f(p)}{t}$$


Let $X(p) = v$, $(t, p) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n$ is the constant vector field then $\varphi(t, p) = p + tv$ and hence

$$D_X(f)(p) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\varphi(t, p)) - f(p)}{t}$$

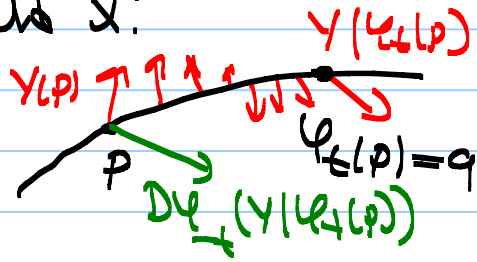
This enables us to define derivative of f along any vector field X using the flow of X .

$$X \rightsquigarrow \varphi_t, \quad D_v(f)(p) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\varphi_t(p)) - f(p)}{t} \\ = L_X(f)(p) \quad \text{the Lie}$$

derivative of f along X at p .

What about the derivative of a vector field Y along another vector field X .

$$X \rightsquigarrow \varphi_t(p)$$

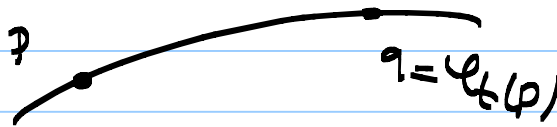


$$L_X(Y) \doteq \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{t} \left\{ D\varphi_{-t}(Y(\varphi_t(p)) - Y(p)) \right\}$$

$$\varphi_{-t}(q) = p, \quad D\varphi_{-t}: T_q M \rightarrow T_p M$$

The Lie derivative of Y along X .

What about Lie derivative of forms:



$$\omega \in \Omega^k(M) \quad \varphi_t(p) = q$$

$$L_X(\omega)(p) \doteq \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{t} \left\{ \varphi_t^*(\omega) - \omega \right\}(p)$$

Lie derivative of ω along X .

Contraction of forms: $\omega \in \Omega^k(M)$, X vector field in M .

$\tau_X \omega \in \Omega^{k-1}(M)$ defined by

$\tau_X \omega(Y_1, \dots, Y_{k-1}) \doteq \omega(X, Y_1, \dots, Y_{k-1})$, the contraction of ω by X .

Proposition: $L_X(\iota_Y \omega) = \iota_{L_X(Y)} \omega + \iota_Y(L_X \omega)$

(Theorem 3.1.5)

Theorem: 1) $L_X(Y) = [X, Y]$

2) (Cartan Magic Formula)

$$L_X \omega = \iota_X(d\omega) + d(\iota_X \omega).$$

Remark: If ω is closed, i.e., $d\omega = 0$ then

$$L_X \omega = d(\iota_X \omega).$$

Proposition: Let X and Y be vector fields on M with flows φ and ψ , respectively. Then for any $t, s \in \mathbb{R}$ we have

$$\varphi_t \circ \psi_s = \psi_s \circ \varphi_t \text{ if and only if } [X, Y] = 0.$$

Frobenius Theorem:

Let M be a smooth manifold of dimension $m = n + k$ and assume that to each $p \in M$ is assigned an n -dimensional subspace Δ_p of $T_p M$. Suppose moreover that in a neighborhood U of $p \in M$ there are n linearly independent C^∞ -vector fields X_1, \dots, X_n , which form a basis of Δ_q for every $q \in U$.

$$U \begin{pmatrix} p \\ q \end{pmatrix} \Delta_q = \text{span} \{ X_1(q), \dots, X_n(q) \}.$$

The collection Δ of Δ_p 's $p \in M$ is called a C^∞ n-plane distribution of dimension n on M, and x_1, \dots, x_n is called a local basis of Δ .

$q \in U_1 \cap U_2$
 $\Delta_q = \text{span}\{x_i\} = \text{span}\{y_j\}$
 $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{I} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} y_j \\ \vdots \\ y_1 \end{Bmatrix} = (a_{ij}) = A$

$$y_j = a_{j1}x_1 + \dots + a_{jn}x_n \quad a_{ij} \in C^\infty(U_1 \cap U_2).$$

We say that Δ is involutive if there exists a local basis x_1, \dots, x_n in a neighborhood of each point such that

$$[x_i, x_j] = \sum_{k=1}^n c_{ij}^k x_k, \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq n$$

$$(c_{ij}^k \in C^\infty(U))$$

Finally, if Δ is a C^∞ -distribution on M and N is a connected C^∞ -submanifold of M such that for each $q \in N$ we have $\overline{N} \subseteq \Delta_q$, then we will say that N is an integral submanifold of the distribution Δ .

Example: $M = \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$, x_1, \dots, x_{n+k} coordinate on \mathbb{R}^{n+k} .

Let $x_i(p) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_p$, $i=1, \dots, n+k$. Then clearly,

$$[x_i, x_j] = 0, \text{ for all } i, j \in \{1, \dots, n+k\}.$$

Let $\Delta = \{ \Delta_p \}_{p \in \mathbb{R}^{n+k}}$, $\Delta_p = \text{span}\{x_1(p), \dots, x_{n+k}(p)\}$.

The Δ is an involutive n -plane distribution on \mathbb{R}^{n+k} and $N = \mathbb{R}^n \times \{0\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^k = \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$ is an integral submanifold of Δ .

An n -dim distribution Δ on M is called completely integrable if each point $p \in M$ has a cubical coordinate neighborhood (U, φ) such that if x_1, \dots, x_m denote the local coordinates, the n vector fields

$$E_i = \varphi_*^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \right), \quad i=1, \dots, n,$$
 are a local

basis on U for Δ . Note that in this case there is an n -dim integral submanifold N through each point $q \in U$ such that $T_q N = \Delta_q$, that $\dim N = n$.

Note that the definitions imply that a completely integrable n -plane distribution Δ is involutive.

Theorem (Frobenius)

A distribution Δ on a smooth manifold M is completely integrable if and only if it is involutive.

The lemma below is the main part of the proof:

Lemma: Let x_1, \dots, x_n be C^∞ -vector fields defined on an open subset U of \mathbb{R}^m such that

i) $\{x_1(q), \dots, x_n(q)\}$ are linearly independent

at each $q \in U$, and

$$\text{ii) } [X_i, X_j] \equiv 0 \text{ on } U, 1 \leq i, j \leq n.$$

Then there exists a coordinate neighborhood (V, ψ) around any $p \in U$ s.t.

$$X_i = E_i = \psi_*^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \right), i=1, \dots, n, \text{ on } V.$$

Example: $M = \mathbb{R}^3$, let $X = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + f_x(x, y) \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$ and

$$Y = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + f_y(x, y) \frac{\partial}{\partial z}, \text{ where } f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ is}$$

a smooth function ($\mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{R}^2 \times \{0\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^3$).

Let's compute $[X, Y]$. Take any smooth function $g: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

$$\text{Then } X(g) = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + f_x(x, y) \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) (g)$$

$$= g_x + f_x(x, y) g_z.$$

$$Y(X(g)) = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y} + f_y(x, y) \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) (g_x + f_x(x, y) g_z)$$

$$= \cancel{g_{xy}} + \cancel{f_{xy}} g_z + \cancel{f_x} g_{xy} + \cancel{f_y} g_{xz}$$

$$+ f_y (f_{xz} g_z + \cancel{f_x} g_{zz})$$

0 since $f = f(x, y)$

$$Y(g) = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y} + f_y(x, y) \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) (g) = g_y + f_y g_z.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 X(Y(g)) &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + f_x(x,y) \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) (g_y + \underbrace{f_y}_{f_y} g_z) \\
 &= \cancel{g_{xy}} + \cancel{f_{yx} g_z} + \cancel{f_y g_{xz}} + \cancel{f_x g_{yz}} \\
 &\quad + f_x (f_{yz} g_z + \cancel{f_y g_{xz}}) \\
 &\quad \quad \quad 0 \text{ since } f = f(x,y).
 \end{aligned}$$

So, $(XY - YX)(g) = 0$ for all g .

$\Rightarrow [X, Y] = 0$ and thus Δ is involutive.

Indeed, $z = f(x,y) + c - f(a,b)$ is the integral surface of the distribution passing through the point (a, b, c) .