

Chapter 2. Differential forms on \mathbb{R}^n

§ 2.1 Vector fields and one-forms

Defⁿ. Given $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the tangent space $T_p \mathbb{R}^n := \{(p, v) \mid v \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$.

Under the bijection $T_p \mathbb{R}^n \cong \mathbb{R}^n$, $T_p \mathbb{R}^n$ can be equipped w/ a vector space structure
 $(p, v) \mapsto v$,

Given a C^1 -map $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ w/ $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open,

if $q = f(p)$, the differential defines a linear map

$$df_p: T_p \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow T_q \mathbb{R}^m$$
$$(p, v) \mapsto (q, Df(p)v),$$

where $Df(p) = \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(p) \right)_{i,j}$, where $f = (f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, f_m(x_1, \dots, x_n))$.

If $\text{im}(f) \subseteq V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$, and $g: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ is a C^1 -map, then

$$dg \circ df_p = d(f \circ g)_p \text{ by the chain rule.}$$

Defⁿ. A vector field on $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a (continuous) function which assigns to each point $p \in U$ a vector $v(p) \in T_p \mathbb{R}^n$.

Rmk. For $p_1 \neq p_2$, we view $T_{p_1} \mathbb{R}^n$ & $T_{p_2} \mathbb{R}^n$ as different spaces.

Examples: ① Given $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we can define a constant vector field
 $p \mapsto (p, v)$.

② Let e_1, \dots, e_n be the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^n ,
the corresponding constant vector fields are written as $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}$.

③ If $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a function, we can define
 $f \cdot v$ whose value at p is $f(p)v(p)$.

④ $v_1 + v_2 \Rightarrow$ pointwise summation

⑤ In general, v can be written as $\sum_{i=1}^n g_i(p) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}$. \nearrow v is called C^∞ if g_i 's are C^∞ .

Defⁿ (Lie differentiation) Given $f \in C^1(U)$, define

$$L_v f := \sum_{i=1}^n g_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \text{ for a vector field } v = \sum_{i=1}^n g_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}$$

Exercise Show that $L_v(f_1 f_2) = L_v(f_1) f_2 + f_1 L_v(f_2)$.

Dually, we can consider

Defⁿ Given $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the cotangent space $T_p^* \mathbb{R}^n$ is defined to be

$$T_p^* \mathbb{R}^n := (T_p \mathbb{R}^n)^* \rightarrow \text{cotangent vectors}$$

Defⁿ A differential 1-form ω is a function which assigns $p \in U$ to

a vector $\omega_p \in T_p^* \mathbb{R}^n$ on $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$
 \downarrow
open

Examples ① Given $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, C^1 , $df_p: T_p \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow T_{f(p)} \mathbb{R}$.

Identifying $T_{f(p)} \mathbb{R} \cong \mathbb{R}$, we can view $df_p \in T_p^* \mathbb{R}^n$.

This defines a one-form, denoted by df .

② $\phi \cdot \omega$ for $\phi: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$; $\omega_1 + \omega_2$

③ Denote by dx_1, \dots, dx_n the basis dual to $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}$,

then any 1-form ω can be written as

$$\omega = \sum_{i=1}^n f_i dx_i \text{ for } f_i: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

ω is called C^∞ if f_i 's are C^∞ .

Exercise Show that $df = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} dx_i$.

Defⁿ (Interior product) Given a vector field v and a 1-form ω ,

\downarrow
 $i\omega$ is the pairing between v and ω .

Example For $\phi: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ C^1 , we have

$L_v d\phi = L_v \phi \Rightarrow$ differentiate along v .

2.2 Integrating vector fields

Notation. $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open, $\mathcal{X}(U) \Rightarrow$ space of vector fields on U .

Defⁿ. Given $v \in \mathcal{X}(U)$, an integral curve of v is a C^1 -map

$$\gamma: (a, b) \rightarrow U \text{ such that}$$

$$(\gamma, \dot{\gamma}) = (\gamma(t), \frac{d\gamma(t)}{dt}) = v(\gamma(t)).$$

Facts about ODEs

Thm. For $v \in \mathcal{X}(U)$, given $p \in U$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\exists T > 0$ and $p_0 \in U_0 \subseteq U$ s.t.

Existence $\forall p \in U_0$, we have an integral curve of v , $\gamma_p: (a-T, a+T) \rightarrow U$
with $\gamma_p(a) = p$.

Thm (Continuation) Given $v \in \mathcal{X}(U)$ and integral curves of v
uniqueness

$\gamma_1: I_1 \rightarrow U$, $\gamma_2: I_2 \rightarrow U$
such that $\gamma_1(a) = \gamma_2(a)$ for some $a \in I_1 \cap I_2$, then $\gamma_1|_{I_1 \cap I_2} = \gamma_2|_{I_1 \cap I_2}$

and $\gamma: I_1 \cup I_2 \rightarrow U$
with $\gamma(t) := \begin{cases} \gamma_1(t), & t \in I_1 \\ \gamma_2(t), & t \in I_2 \end{cases}$ is also an integral curve.

Thm (C^∞ -dependence on initial data).

Given $v \in \mathcal{X}(U)$, $V \subseteq U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open, $\overset{a}{\exists} I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ an interval,

$h: V \times I \rightarrow U$ s.t. $\begin{cases} h(p, a) = p \text{ (} a \text{ is the initial time)} \\ h(p, \cdot): I \rightarrow U \text{ is an integral curve of } v, \end{cases}$

then h is C^∞ .

Exer. If γ is an integral curve, so is $\gamma(\cdot + c)$ for any $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Defⁿ. $\phi: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is an integral of $\dot{\gamma} = v$ if $\forall \gamma$ integral, $\phi(\gamma(t_1))$ is constant.

Cor. ϕ integral $\Leftrightarrow L_v \phi = 0$.

proof. $\frac{d}{dt} \phi(\gamma(t_1)) = d\phi \cdot \dot{\gamma} = d\phi \cdot v = L_v \phi. \quad \square$

Defⁿ: A $v \in \mathcal{X}(U)$ is called complete iff
 $\forall p \in U, \exists$ an integral curve starting @ p & \exists for all time.

For an integral curve $\gamma: (a, b) \rightarrow U$, it is maximal iff one of the following happens,

- ① $b = +\infty$
- ② $|\gamma(t)| \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow b$
- ③ the limit set of $\{\gamma(t) \mid a \leq t < b\}$ intersects ∂U .

Thm: If \exists a proper and C^1 -function $\phi: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $L_v \phi = 0$, then v is complete.

proof: It suffices to rule out ②, ③.

Because $\phi(\gamma(t)) = \text{constant}$, ϕ is proper

$\Rightarrow \text{Im}(\gamma)$ is compact, so ② & ③ cannot happen. \square

Defⁿ: The support of $v \in \mathcal{X}(U)$ is defined as

$$\text{supp}(v) := \overline{\{q \in U \mid v(q) \neq 0\}}$$

Thm: If $\text{supp}(v)$ is compact, then v is complete.

proof: If $\text{supp}(v)$ is compact, then $|v|$ is uniformly bounded.

By existence result of ODE, the solution \exists for all time.

Outside $\text{supp}(v)$, any integral curve stays constant.

So, no integral curve can escape outside U . \square

Defⁿ: Given a complete vector field v , its associated flow group of C^∞ -diffeomorphisms f_t

is the map which assigns to $p \in U$ the value $\gamma(t)$,

$$\text{where } \begin{cases} \gamma(0) = p \\ \dot{\gamma} = v. \end{cases}$$

Properties: $f_0 = \text{Id}$.

$f_{t_1+t_2} = f_{t_1} \circ f_{t_2} \rightarrow \text{exercise}$.

Defⁿ Given $v \in \mathfrak{X}(U)$ and $f: U \rightarrow W$ a C^∞ -diffeomorphism,
the push-forward $w = f_*v$ is uniquely specified by

$$w(f(p)) = df_p(v(p)).$$

More concretely: if $v = \sum v_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}$, $f = (f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, f_n(x_1, \dots, x_n))$,

$$\text{then } w_i(f(p)) = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} v_j \text{ if } w = \sum w_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}.$$

$$\Rightarrow w_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} v_j \right) \circ f^{-1}.$$

Thm. If γ is an integral curve of v , then $f \circ \gamma$ is an integral curve of f_*v .

proof $\frac{d}{dt}(f \circ \gamma) = df(\dot{\gamma}) = df(v) = f_*v$. \square

Cor. In the above setting, if f_1, f_2 are respectively the 1-parameter groups associated w. v & f_*v , then $f \circ f_1 = f_2 \circ f$.

↳ exercise

Exercise: Show that $(f_2)_* \circ (f_1)_* = (f_2 \circ f_1)_*$.

Duality

Defⁿ Given a 1-form μ on V and a C^1 -map $f: U \rightarrow V$,
the pullback $f^*\mu$ is defined by

$$\mu_{f(p)} \circ df_p: T_p \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ for } p \in U.$$

Example. If $\mu = d\phi$, then $f^*\mu = d(\phi \circ f)$.

Exercise. If μ & f are C^∞ , then $f^*\mu$ is C^∞ .

§ 2.3 Differential k-forms

Defⁿ: For an open subset $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, a k-form ω on U we only consider C^∞ forms
 $\omega \in \Omega^k(U)$
 is a function which assigns to each $p \in U$ an element $\omega_p \in \Lambda^k(\mathbb{T}_p^* \mathbb{R}^n)$.

Properties^①: The pointwise wedge product defines the wedge product

$$\wedge: \Omega^k(U) \times \Omega^l(U) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+l}(U)$$

$$\text{s.t. } (\omega_1 \wedge \omega_2)_p = (\omega_1)_p \wedge (\omega_2)_p.$$

① In particular, $(df_1 \wedge \dots \wedge df_k)_p = (df_1)_p \wedge \dots \wedge (df_k)_p$
 for C^1 -functions $f_i: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

② Note that $\Omega^k(U)$ admits a basis

$$dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k} \text{ where } i_1 < \dots < i_k,$$

so each $\omega \in \Omega^k(U)$ can be uniquely written as

$$\omega = \sum_I f_I dx_I.$$

④ $\Omega^k(U)$ is a vector space and a module over $C^\infty(U)$,

with $(f\omega)_p = f(p)\omega_p$ for $f \in C^\infty(U)$.

⑤ The differential of functions can be viewed as

$$d: \Omega^0(U) \rightarrow \Omega^1(U)$$

$$f \mapsto \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} dx_j, \text{ here } \Omega^0(U) = C^\infty(U).$$

§ 2.4. Exterior differentiation

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

Ⓐ $d: \Omega^0(U) \rightarrow \Omega^1(U)$ agrees with the above ⑤.

Ⓑ $d(\lambda\omega_1 + \mu\omega_2) = \lambda d\omega_1 + \mu d\omega_2$

Ⓒ $d(\omega_1 \wedge \omega_2) = d\omega_1 \wedge \omega_2 + (-1)^k \omega_1 \wedge d\omega_2$ for $\omega_1 \in \Omega^k(U)$

Ⓓ $d(d\omega) = 0$.

One consequence.

$$\begin{aligned} & d(df_1 \wedge \dots \wedge df_k) \\ &= (ddf_1) \wedge df_2 \wedge \dots \wedge df_k + (-1) \cdot df_1 \wedge (ddf_2) \wedge \dots \wedge df_k \\ &\quad + \dots + (-1)^{k-1} df_1 \wedge \dots \wedge df_{k-1} \wedge (ddf_k) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

To construct d , we declare that

$$d\left(\sum_I f_I dx_I\right) = \sum_I df_I \wedge dx_I.$$

Thm. Such a d satisfies (a) - (c).

proof. (a) obvious

(b) obvious.

(c) We can use the same formula to include I with repeating indices and not strictly increasing (just use signs of permutations to fill).

Then for $\omega_1 = \sum_I f_I dx_I$, $\omega_2 = \sum_J g_J dx_J$,

$$\omega_1 \wedge \omega_2 = \sum_{I, J} f_I g_J dx_I \wedge dx_J,$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{then } d(\omega_1 \wedge \omega_2) &= \sum_{I, J} df_I \wedge dx_I \wedge dx_J + \sum_{I, J} f_I dg_J \wedge dx_I \wedge dx_J \\ &= d\omega_1 \wedge \omega_2 + (-1)^{|I|} \sum_{I, J} f_I dx_I \wedge dg_J \wedge dx_J \\ &= d\omega_1 \wedge \omega_2 + (-1)^k \omega_1 \wedge d\omega_2. \end{aligned}$$

(d) This is a direct calculation.

$$\text{Given } \omega = \sum_I f_I dx_I,$$

$$d\omega = \sum_I \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f_I}{\partial x_i} dx_i \wedge dx_I,$$

$$d(d\omega) = \sum_I \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f_I}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} dx_j \wedge dx_i \wedge dx_I.$$

For $i=j$, $dx_i \wedge dx_j = 0$.

For $i \neq j$, we can pair $\frac{\partial^2 f_I}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} dx_j \wedge dx_i$ with $\frac{\partial^2 f_I}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} dx_i \wedge dx_j$,

which cancel out. $\Rightarrow d^2 = 0$. \square

Defⁿ. For $\omega \in \mathcal{S}^k(U)$, it's called closed iff $d\omega = 0$.
exact iff $\exists \mu \in \mathcal{S}^{k-1}(U)$ s.t. $d\mu = \omega$.

In particular: any exact k -form is closed.