

## LECTURE 10

### Algebraic formulas

I know it's easy to get lost in everything, so let me summarize our algebraic tools.

#### 1. Summary

**1.1. The main players.** There are two main algebraic players: First, we have the set of all deRham differential forms:

$$\Omega_{deR}^\bullet(M)$$

which is a ring. Its unit is the constant function  $1 \in \Omega_{deR}^0(M)$ . Its product is given by wedging together, pointwise.

The other player is

$$\Gamma(TM)$$

also known as vector fields. It is a Lie algebra.

**1.2. Main properties.** Skipping definitions, here are all the properties of the algebraic operations you need to know:

- $d_{deR}$  is a degree 1 derivation  $\Omega_{deR}^\bullet(M) \rightarrow \Omega_{deR}^\bullet(M)$ . It squares to zero.
- For any  $X \in \Gamma(TM)$ ,  $i_X : \Omega_{deR}^\bullet(M) \rightarrow \Omega_{deR}^\bullet(M)$  is a degree *minus* 1 derivation. It squares to zero.
- For any  $X$ ,  $\mathcal{L}_X : \Omega_{deR}^\bullet(M) \rightarrow \Omega_{deR}^\bullet(M)$  is a degree zero derivation. It commutes with  $d_{deR}$ .

**1.3. Useful formulas.** Finally, here are the algebraic formulas you need to know.

- Cartan's magic formula,

$$\mathcal{L}_X := d_{deR} \circ \iota_X + \iota_X \circ d_{deR}$$

- How to compute the directional derivative of the values of a differential form:

$$\mathcal{L}_X(\alpha(Y_1, \dots, Y_k)) = (\mathcal{L}_X \alpha)(Y_1, \dots, Y_k) + \sum_{i=1}^k \omega(Y_1, \dots, Y_{i-1}, \mathcal{L}_X Y_i, Y_{i+1}, \dots, Y_k).$$

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- How the deRham derivative changes the values of a form:

$$\begin{aligned} d\alpha(Y_0, \dots, Y_k) &= \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i Y_i(\alpha(Y_0, \dots, \hat{Y}_i, \dots, Y_k)) \\ &\quad + \sum_{i < j} (-1)^{i+j} \omega([Y_i, Y_j], Y_0, \dots, \hat{Y}_i, \dots, \hat{Y}_j, \dots, Y_k). \end{aligned}$$

That's it. Now I'll review the definitions of everything for your convenience.

## 2. The Lie derivative

Given any  $X \in \Gamma(TM)$ , one has maps

$$\mathcal{L}_X : \Gamma(TM) \rightarrow \Gamma(TM), \quad \mathcal{L}_X : \Omega_{deR}^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega_{deR}^k(M).$$

which go by the same notation. To define this, we needed the theorem about ODEs:  $X$  defines a vector field, so you can flow along it. You evaluate  $\alpha$  at that point. Since flowing is a diffeomorphism, you can pull back the value of  $\alpha$  to the place you started before the flow.

$$(\Phi_t^X)^* \alpha(\Phi_t^X(x)) \in E_x.$$

Here,  $E$  is one of the vector bundles

$$TM, \quad T^*M, \quad \Lambda^k(T^*M),$$

and  $\alpha$  is a section of  $E$ . The Lie derivative says let's measure the rate of change of this vector with respect to  $t$ :

$$\mathcal{L}_X(\alpha)(x) := \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\Phi_t^X)^* \alpha(\Phi_t^X(x)) - \alpha(x)}{t}$$

## 3. The Lie bracket

The Lie bracket was defined formally—if  $X$  and  $Y$  are two derivations from  $C^\infty(M)$  to itself, we saw that while  $X \circ Y$  may not be a derivation, the operation  $X \circ Y - Y \circ X$  is. So we defined

$$[X, Y] := X \circ Y - Y \circ X \in \text{Der}(C^\infty(M), C^\infty(M)).$$

Miraculously, this purely algebraic definition agrees with a more geometric operation:

$$\mathcal{L}_X Y = [X, Y].$$

We proved this last class. One can also see that

$$\mathcal{L}_X f = df(X) = X(f).$$

Making sure you can prove this is a very good way to check that you understand all the basic definitions.

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#### 4. Differential forms eat tangent vectors

There is an isomorphism, for each  $k$  (and any finite-dimensional vector space  $V$ ),

$$\Lambda^k(V^\vee) \rightarrow (\Lambda^k(V))^\vee$$

which sends an element of the form  $\alpha_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha_k$  to the linear map

$$v_1 \wedge \dots \wedge v_k \mapsto \det(\alpha_i(v_j)).$$

Since a differential form  $\alpha \in \Omega^k(M)$  defines an element

$$\alpha(x) \in \Lambda^k((T^*M)_x)$$

for any  $x \in M$ , the isomorphism tells us we can think of  $\alpha(x)$  as an element of

$$(\Lambda^k((TM)_x))^\vee$$

i.e., as something that eats  $k$  tangent vectors to  $x$  and spits out a number.

You can check that if  $f : M' \rightarrow M$  is a smooth map, then

$$((f^*\alpha)(x))(v_1, \dots, v_k) = \alpha(f(x))(Df_x(v_1), \dots, Df_x(v_k)).$$

#### 5. Contraction/interior multiplication

Given  $X \in \Gamma(TM)$ , we can define a map

$$\iota_X : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k-1}(M)$$

by sending

$$\alpha \mapsto \alpha(X, -, \dots, -).$$

This is defined using the isomorphism from the previous section. So for instance  $\iota_X(\alpha)$  eats in  $k-1$  vector fields  $Y_1, \dots, Y_{k-1}$  and spits out the function

$$\alpha(X, Y_1, \dots, Y_{k-1}).$$

#### 6. deRham derivative $d_{deR}$

I write both  $d_{deR}$  and  $d$  depending on the context. They are the same thing. For every  $k$ , there is a map

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

and I lazily call each of these maps  $d$ .

In local coordinates, this operation was defined as follows. Any  $k$ -form  $\alpha$  on  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  can be written

$$\alpha = \sum_I f_I dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_k}$$

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where the index  $I = (i_1 < \dots < i_k)$  runs through every sequence of  $k$  increasing integers between 1 and  $n$ . And  $f_I$  is a choice of smooth function on  $U$ . Then

$$d\alpha := \sum_I \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial f_I}{\partial x^j} dx^j \wedge dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_k}.$$

Though this is local, you can see that this defines a map of section  $\Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(M)$  by checking that this definition is compatible with the transition functions for the bundles  $\Lambda^k(T^*M)$  and  $\Lambda^{k+1}(T^*M)$ .

**Remark 10.1.** While formulas in local coordinates let you compute, those of you more formally-minded may ask for a more intrinsic characterization of the deRham derivative. There is a non-trivial theorem (see Conlon, Theorem 7.5.5 and its corollaries) asserting that

$$\Gamma(\Lambda^k(T^*M)) \cong \Lambda^k(\Gamma(T^*M)).$$

The lefthand side  $\Lambda$  takes exterior powers over  $\mathbb{R}$ ; the righthand side takes exterior powers over  $C^\infty(M)$ . So by the righthand side, demanding that  $d$  be a derivation means we only need specify it on 0-forms (functions) and 1-forms. This is what we did in class. (In fact, there is another universal property that characterizes  $d$  simply by declaring it on 0-forms; this will be an optional problem on a homework.)

## 7. Some computational exercises

This is just a sanity check to make sure you know what you're doing. If you cannot do these, definitely come and talk to me and Phil. In what follows, everything is defined on  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

- $\alpha = x^2 dx + y^2 dy + xy dz$ .
- $\beta = xyz dx \wedge dy + z dy \wedge dz$ .
- $\omega = x dy \wedge dx + x dx \wedge dy$ .
- $\eta = dx \wedge dy \wedge dz$ .
- $X = x \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ .
- $Y = x^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial y}$ .

- (a) Show  $\omega = 0$ .
- (b) Compute  $\iota_X \alpha$ .
- (c) Compute  $\iota_Y \beta$ .
- (d) Compute  $\iota_Y \eta$ .
- (e) Compute  $\alpha \wedge \beta$ .
- (f) Compute  $\beta \wedge \alpha$ .
- (g) Compute  $\mathcal{L}_X \alpha$ .
- (h) Compute  $\mathcal{L}_Y \beta$ .

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- (i) Compute  $d\alpha$ .
  - (j) Compute  $d\beta$ .
  - (k) Compute  $[X, Y]$ .

## 8. Solutions

- (a) **Show**  $\omega = 0$ . Use that  $dy \wedge dx = -dx \wedge dy$ . More pedantically, at any point  $p \in \mathbb{R}^3$ , we have that

$$\omega(p) = x(p)dy|_p \wedge dx|_p + x(p)dx|_p \wedge dy|_p \in \Lambda^2((T^*\mathbb{R}^3)_p).$$

And this vector space was defined by quotienting out  $(T^*\mathbb{R}^3)_p \otimes (T^*\mathbb{R}^3)_p$  by imposing the relation  $v \otimes v = 0$ , which means that  $v \wedge w := [v \otimes w] = -[w \otimes v] =: -w \wedge v$ . Long story short, we know that  $dy|_p \wedge dx|_p = -dx|_p \wedge dy|_p$ , so  $\omega(p) = 0$  for all  $p$ . This means that  $\omega$  is indeed the zero section of  $\Lambda^2 T^*\mathbb{R}^3$ .

Another, while equivalent, way to go about this: Note that

$$\Gamma(\Lambda^k(T^*\mathbb{R}^n)) \cong \Lambda^k(\Gamma(T^*\mathbb{R}^n))$$

where on the left, the exterior power is over  $\mathbb{R}$ , while on the right, it is over  $C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . This is another way to reason out that  $dy \wedge dx = -dx \wedge dy$ .

- (b) **Compute**  $\iota_X \alpha$ .  $\iota_X$  is defined pointwise. That is,

$$(\iota_X \alpha)(p) := \iota_{X(p)} \alpha(p) = \alpha(p)(X(p)).$$

And  $dx(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}) = \frac{\partial x}{\partial x} = 1$ . Hence we have

$$\iota_X \alpha = x^2 dx(X) = x^2(x) = x^3.$$

One important point to note is that the value of  $\iota_X \alpha$  at a point  $p$  does not depend at all on how  $X$  or  $\alpha$  behave in a neighborhood of  $p$ , but only on their respective *values* at  $p$ .

One way to say this is that the map

$$\iota : \Gamma(TM) \times \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k-1}(M)$$

is bilinear over  $C^\infty(M)$ , not just over  $\mathbb{R}$ . This is very useful and special. For instance, the Lie bracket is far from being bilinear over  $C^\infty(M)$ .

- (c) **Compute**  $\iota_Y \beta$ . We see by linearity that

$$\iota_Y(\beta) = xyz \iota_Y(dx \wedge dy) + z \iota_Y(dy \wedge dz).$$

The easiest way to compute  $\iota$  is to pass through the isomorphism between  $\Lambda(V^\vee)$  and  $(\Lambda(V))^\vee$ . Then

$$(dx \wedge dy)(Y, -) = dx(Y)dy(-) - dy(Y)dx(-)$$

and

$$(dy \wedge dz)(Y, -) = dy(Y)dz(-) - dz(Y)dy(-).$$

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Note that  $dx(Y) = dz(Y) = 0$  while  $dy(Y) = x^2$ . Hence

$$\iota_Y(\beta) = xyz(-x^2)dx + z x^2 dz = -x^3 yz dx + x^2 z dz.$$

Contracting by a vector field with only  $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}$  component, note, killed off the  $dy$  components of the differential form.

- (d) **Compute**  $\iota_Y \eta$ . This gets more annoying if you use the isomorphism from  $\Lambda(V^\vee)$  to  $(\Lambda(V))^\vee$  directly. Instead, recall the formula from class that

$$(\alpha \wedge \beta)(v_1, \dots, v_k) = \sum_{\pi \in k, l\text{-shuffles}} \alpha(v_{\pi(1)}, \dots, v_{\pi(k)}) \beta(v_{\pi(k+1)}, \dots, v_{\pi(k+l)}).$$

Since  $Y$  only has a  $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}$  component, let's take  $\alpha = dy$  and  $\beta = dz \wedge dx$ , so that  $\eta = \alpha \wedge \beta$ . Then, given any two vector fields  $V_2, V_3$ , we compute

$$(\alpha \wedge \beta)(Y, V_2, V_3)$$

by using the above formula. We see that the  $\beta$  factor is always zero if the shuffle  $\pi$  sends 1 to either 2 or 3. (After all,  $dz \wedge dx$  evaluated on two vectors is zero if one of the vectors has no  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  or  $\frac{\partial}{\partial z}$  component.) So the only terms in the summation that are potentially non-zero are those that come from  $(1, 2)$ -shuffles that fix 1—i.e., with  $\pi(1) = 1$ . But the only such shuffle is the identity shuffle by definition of shuffle. Hence

$$(\alpha \wedge \beta)(Y, V_2, V_3) = \alpha(Y)\beta(V_2, V_3) = x^2 \beta(V_2, V_3).$$

Since  $V_2, V_3$  were arbitrary, we conclude that

$$\iota_Y \eta = x^2 dz \wedge dx.$$

- (e) **Compute**  $\alpha \wedge \beta$ . The answer is

$$(x^2 z + x^2 y^2 z) dx \wedge dy \wedge dz.$$

- (f) **Compute**  $\beta \wedge \alpha$ . The answer is

$$-(x^2 z + x^2 y^2 z) dx \wedge dy \wedge dz.$$

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(g) **Compute  $\mathcal{L}_X\alpha$ .** We compute

$$\begin{aligned}
(8.1) \quad \mathcal{L}_X(x^2dx + y^2dy + xydz) &= \mathcal{L}_X(x^2)dx + x^2\mathcal{L}_X(dx) + \\
&\quad \mathcal{L}_X(y^2)dy + y^2\mathcal{L}_X(dy) + \\
&\quad \mathcal{L}_X(xz)dz + xy\mathcal{L}_X(dz) \\
(8.2) \quad &= \mathcal{L}_X(x^2)dx + x^2d\mathcal{L}_X(x) + \\
&\quad \mathcal{L}_X(y^2)dy + y^2d\mathcal{L}_X(y) + \\
&\quad \mathcal{L}_X(xz)dz + xyd\mathcal{L}_X(z) \\
(8.3) \quad &= 2x^2dx + x^2d(x) + \\
&\quad 0dy + y^2d(0) + \\
&\quad xzdz + xyd(0) \\
&= 2x^2dx + x^2dx + xzdz \\
&= 3x^2dx + xzdz.
\end{aligned}$$

where in (8.1) we used that  $\mathcal{L}_X$  is a derivation for any  $X$ . In (8.2) we use that it commutes with  $d$ . Then in (8.3) we use that for functions,  $\mathcal{L}_X(f) = df(X) = X(f)$ , i.e., one computes the directional derivative of  $f$  in the direction of  $X$ . Since  $X = x\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ , this entails computing  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ , then multiplying the result by  $x$ .

(h) **Compute  $\mathcal{L}_Y\beta$ .** We compute

$$\begin{aligned}
(8.4) \quad \mathcal{L}_Y(xyzdx \wedge dy + zdy \wedge dz) &= \mathcal{L}_Y(xyz)dx \wedge dy + \mathcal{L}_Y(z)dy \wedge dz + \\
&\quad xyz\mathcal{L}_Y(dx) \wedge dy + z\mathcal{L}_Y(dy) \wedge dz + \\
&\quad xyzdx \wedge \mathcal{L}_Y(dy) + zdy \wedge \mathcal{L}_Y(dz) \\
(8.5) \quad &= \mathcal{L}_Y(xyz)dx \wedge dy + \mathcal{L}_Y(z)dy \wedge dz + \\
&\quad xyzd(\mathcal{L}_Y(x)) \wedge dy + zd(\mathcal{L}_Y(y)) \wedge dz + \\
&\quad xyzdx \wedge d(\mathcal{L}_Y(y)) + zdy \wedge d(\mathcal{L}_Y(z)) \\
(8.6) \quad &= x^3zdx \wedge dy + 0 + \\
&\quad 0 + z \cdot 2xdx \wedge dz + \\
&\quad xyzdx \wedge 2xdx + 0 \\
(8.7) \quad &= x^3zdx \wedge dy + 2xzdxdz.
\end{aligned}$$

Here, (8.4) again uses that  $\mathcal{L}_X$  is a derivation. (8.5) uses that  $\mathcal{L}_X$  commutes with  $d$ . (8.6) computes  $d$  of  $\mathcal{L}_Y(f)$  using that  $\mathcal{L}_Y(f) = Y(f)$ . (8.7) uses that  $dx \wedge dx = 0$ .

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(i) **Compute  $d\alpha$ .** Set  $x = x^1, y = x^2, z = x^3$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 d\alpha &= \sum_i \frac{\partial(x^2)}{\partial x^i} dx^i \wedge dx + \sum_i \frac{\partial(y^2)}{\partial x^i} dx^i \wedge dy + \sum_i \frac{\partial(xy)}{\partial x^i} dx^i \wedge dz \\
 &= 2x dx \wedge dx + 2y dy \wedge dy + y dx \wedge dz + x dy \wedge dz \\
 &= 0 + 0 + y dx \wedge dz + x dy \wedge dz \\
 &= y dx \wedge dz + x dy \wedge dz.
 \end{aligned}$$

(j) **Compute  $d\beta$ .** Set  $x = x^1, y = x^2, z = x^3$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 d\beta &= \sum_i \frac{\partial(xyz)}{\partial x^i} dx^i \wedge dx \wedge dy + \sum_i \frac{\partial(z)}{\partial x^i} dx^i \wedge dy \wedge dz \\
 &= yz dx \wedge dx \wedge dy + xz dy \wedge dx \wedge dy + xy dz \wedge dx \wedge dy + dz \wedge dy \wedge dz \\
 &= 0 + 0 + xy dz \wedge dx \wedge dy + 0 \\
 &= xy dx \wedge dy \wedge dz.
 \end{aligned}$$

(k) **Compute  $[X, Y]$ .** Recall that if

$$X = \sum X^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}, \quad Y = \sum Y^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i},$$

then

$$[X, Y] = \sum_{i,j} \left( X^i \frac{\partial Y^j}{\partial x^i} - Y^i \frac{\partial X^j}{\partial x^i} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j}.$$

So we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left[ x \frac{\partial}{\partial x}, x^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right] &= x \frac{\partial(x^2)}{\partial x} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} - x^2 \frac{\partial(x)}{\partial y} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\
 &= 2x^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial y}.
 \end{aligned}$$