
Lecture notes on Analysis and Geometry on Manifolds

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Chapter 0:

Manuel's notes

Warning

These are unofficial lecture notes written by a student. They are messy, will almost surely contain errors, typos and misunderstandings and may not be kept up to date! I do however try my best and use these notes to prepare for my exams. Feel free to email me any corrections to mh@mssh.dev or s6mlhinz@uni-bonn.de.
Happy learning!

General Information

- Basis: Basis
- Website: https://www.math.uni-bonn.de/~lcote/V3D3_2024.html
- Time slot(s): **Tuesday: 14-16** Nussallee Anatomie B and **Friday: 12-14** GHS
- Exams: Tuesday **11.02.2025, 9-11**, Großer Hörsaal, Wegelerstraße 10 and Friday **21.03.2025, 9-11**, Großer Hörsaal, Wegelerstraße 10
- Deadlines: **Friday before noon**

0.1 Organization

- Four exercise classes, in the break come to the front and sign up.
- First homework is due this Friday
- Exercise sheets are due on Fridays, every week electronically (groups, at most 2)
- No published lecture notes by him!
- 5 Minute break right before the full hour
- Friday after class for questions

Start of lecture 01
(08.10.2024)

0.2 Course overview

He assumes we already know about

- Analysis on \mathbb{R}^n
- Basic point set topology

For this class: smooth manifolds based on [2]

- Intersection between analysis and topology
- Exiting: Connections between those two point of views

Main topics:

I would also recommend [5] and the notes of Gabriel Ong[3], which are also based on this course

Topic 00: Topological manifolds

Topic 01: Basic theory of smooth manifolds

Topic 02: Vector fields on smooth manifolds

Topic 03: Tensor calculus and Stokes' theorem

Topic 04: Lie groups, symplectic and Riemannian geometry

Chapter 1:

Topological manifolds

1.1 Some point set topology

Some (set theoretical) conventions for the whole course:

- $A \subset B$ means A subset (not necessarily proper!) of B , i.e. $\subset = \subseteq$
- A **neighborhood** of some point $p \in X$ means *an open set* $U \subset X$ containing p
- Given $p = (p_1, \dots, p_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n, r > 0$, $B_r^n(p) := \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - p_i)^2 < r^2\}$. Often while $B_s = B_s^n(0) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$

1.1.1 Locally Euclidean spaces

Definition. A topological space X is called **locally Euclidean of dimension $n \geq 0$** , if every point of X is contained in a neighborhood homeomorphic to some open subset of \mathbb{R}^n .

Remark. When we speak of a topological space as being **locally Euclidean**. The dimension is fixed and implicit.

Definition. Assume that X is locally Euclidean. A **chart** is a pair U, ϕ , where $U \subset X$, $\phi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a homeomorphism into its image. Given $p \in X$, we say that U, ϕ is **centered at p** if $p \in U$ and $\phi(p) = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$



Figure 1.1: Sketch 1.01

Lemma 1.1. The following are equivalent (TFAE):

- X is locally Euclidean
- For any $p \in X$, there is a chart U, ϕ centered at p with image $\phi(U) = B_1$

- For any $p \in X$, there is a chart U, ϕ centered at p with image $\phi(U) = \mathbb{R}^n$

Proof. 2. and 3. are equivalent, since $B_1 \simeq \mathbb{R}^n$ are homeomorphic ($B_1^n \ni x \mapsto \frac{x}{1-\|x\|}$)

2. \implies 1. is tautological

1. \implies 2. given $p \in X$, since X is locally Euclidean, there exists **some** chart $U, \psi, p \in U$.

$\psi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, homeo onto its image $\psi(U) = O \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. By translativity $\mathbb{R}^n \ni x \mapsto x - \psi(p)$, one can assume $\psi(p) = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$. By scaling $\mathbb{R}^n(x \mapsto \lambda x, \lambda > 0)$, can assume $B_1 \subset \psi(U)$. Let $U' = \psi^{-1}(B_1)$, then (U, ψ) as claimed. \square

1.1.2 Hausdorff spaces

Definition. A topological space X is called Hausdorff, if given any $p_1 \neq p_2, p_1, p_2 \in X$, there exist neighborhoods $p_1 \in U_1, p_2 \in U_2$ s.t. $U_1 \cap U_2 = \emptyset$.



Figure 1.2: Sketch 1.02

Example. • \mathbb{R}^n

- CW complexes
- most reasonable spaces

Example (Not Hausdorff). $X = \{0, 1\}$, open subsets $\emptyset, \{0\}, \{0, 1\}$

Remark. X is homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{R}^* (quotient topology), $\mathbb{R}^*, (s, x \mapsto sx)$

Lemma 1.2. Let X be Hausdorff.

- (a) point sets $\{x\}$ are closed
- (b) convergent sequences have unique limits. $(x_n \rightarrow p, x_n \rightarrow q \implies p = q)$
- (c) compact sets are closed

Proof. (c) \implies (a)

For (c): Let $K \subset X$ be compact. Want to show K^c is open. Pick $p \in K^c$. For each $q \in K$, we can choose $U_q \ni q, U_p \ni p : U_q \cap U_p = \emptyset$ Since K is compact, it can be covered by U_{q_1}, \dots, U_{q_l} . Then $\bigcap_{i=1}^l U_{q_i}$ is open and contains p , disjoint, then $\bigcup_{i=1}^l U_{q_i} \supset K$.



Figure 1.3: Sketch 1.03

(b) Suppose for contradiction that $x_i \rightarrow p, x_i \rightarrow q$ and $p \neq q$. Since X is Hausdorff, $\exists U \ni p, O \ni q, U \cap O = \emptyset$. But for $N \gg 0, x_i \in U, x_i \in O \forall i > N$

□

1.1.3 Basis and covers

Let X be a topological space.

Definition. A collection \mathcal{B} of subsets of X is called a **basis(base)** for X , if for any $p \in X$ and any neighborhood $U \ni p$, there exists an element $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{B}$ s.t. $p \in \mathcal{U} \subset U$.



Figure 1.4: Sketch 1.04

Lemma 1.3. \mathcal{B} is a basis for $X \iff$ every open set of X is a union of elements of \mathcal{B} .

Proof. Trivial. □

Definition. A topological space X is **second-countable** if it admits a countable basis.

Example. $\bullet \mathbb{R}^n, \mathcal{B} = \{B_s^n(p) \mid s \in \mathbb{Q}_+, p = (p_1, \dots, p_n) \in \mathbb{Q}^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n\}$

Lemma 1.4. The property of being second-countable is closed under

- (a) subspaces
- (b) countable disjoint unions
- (c) countable products

Remark. The property of being second-countable is not closed under arbitrary quotients $q : A \rightarrow A/B$. An obvious sufficient conditions is for q to be an open map. (Since it is a pushforward)

When constructing manifolds via quotients, check that it is still second-countable!

Lemma 1.5. If X is second countable, then any open cover of X admits a countable subcover.

Proof. Let \mathcal{B} be a countable basis for X . Let \mathcal{C} be an open cover. Let $\tilde{\mathcal{B}} \subset \mathcal{B}$ be the collection of basis elements U , which are contained in some $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{C}$. Observe (key!) $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}$ is a cover of X . For each $U \in \tilde{\mathcal{B}}$, choose $\mathcal{U}_U \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $U \subset \mathcal{U}_U$. Then $\{\mathcal{U}_U\}$ is a countable subcover of \mathcal{C} . □

Definition. Let X be a topological space. An **exhaustion of X by compact subsets** is a sequence $\{K_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$, where $K_i \subset X$ compact and $K_i \subset \text{int}(K_{i+1})$ and $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} K_i = X$.

Recall given $A \subset X$. $\text{int}(A) := \{x \in A \mid x \text{ in a neighborhood } U \subset A\}$.

Lemma 1.6. *If X is locally Euclidean, Hausdorff^a and second countable. Then X admits an exhaustion by compact subsets.*

^anot needed

Proof. Since X is locally Euclidean, admits a basis \mathcal{B} of open subsets having compact closure.

That is take the close of $B_{\frac{1}{2}} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$

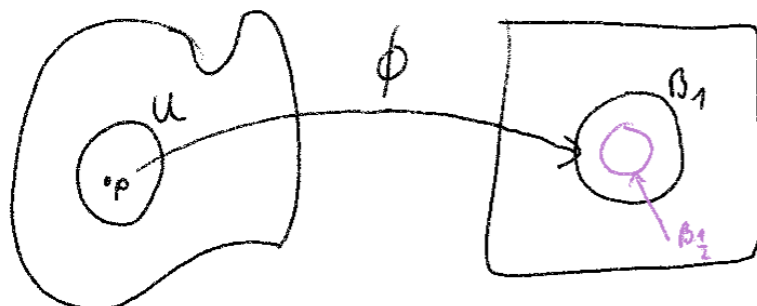


Figure 1.5: Sketch 1.05

By Lemma 1.5, one can extract a countable subcover $\{U_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$. Set $K_1 = \overline{U_1}$. Assume that we already constructed K_1, \dots, K_k such that $U_j \subset K_j$ and $K_{j-1} \subset \text{int}(K_j)$, $j \geq 2$. Since K_k is compact and $K_k \subset X = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} U_i$, then there exists some m_k such that $K_k \subset X = \bigcup_{i=1}^{m_k} U_i$ by compactness. Might as well assume that $m_k \geq k$. Set

$$K_{k+1} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{m_k} U_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{m_k} \overline{U_i}.$$

By construction K_{k+1} is compact, $K_k \subset \text{int}(K_{k+1})$. We get $\{K_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$, $U_j \subset K_j$ (because $m_j \geq j$)
 $\implies \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} U_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} K_i$ \square

Definition. Let X be a topological space. Let \mathcal{C} be a collection of subsets of X . We say that \mathcal{C} is **locally finite** if for every $x \in X$ there exists a neighborhood $U \ni x$ such that the intersection of U with all but finitely many elements of \mathcal{C} is empty.

Example (Example for local finiteness). Take $X = \mathbb{R}$, $\mathcal{C} = \{(i-1, i+1)\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$.

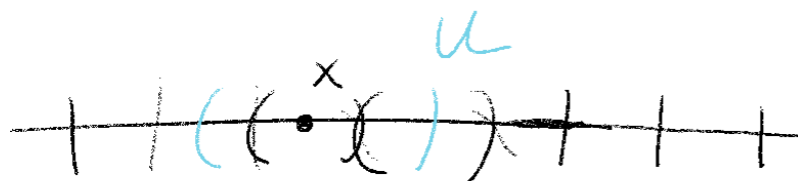


Figure 1.6: Sketch 1.06

Example (Non-example for local finiteness). $X = \mathbb{R}$, $\mathcal{C} = (q-1, q+1)_{q \in \mathbb{Q}}$

Definition. Let X be a topological space. Let \mathcal{C} be a cover of X . A cover \mathcal{C}' of X is called a **refinement of \mathcal{C}** , if for all elements $U \in \mathcal{C}'$, there exists such $V \in \mathcal{C}$: $U \subset V$.

Example (Example of Refinement). In the proof of lemma 1.5, we showed that any open cover admits a refinement by basis elements.

Start of lecture 02
(11.10.2024)

Definition. A topological space X is called paracompact if every open cover admits a locally finite refinement.

Whats up with the word **paracompact**? It's like compact, but weaker! It is necessary that it only admits a locally finite refinement!

Lemma 1.7. Let X be Hausdorff and suppose that X admits an exhaustion by compact subsets. Then X is paracompact. In fact, we will show that given any basis \mathcal{B} of X , any open cover admits a locally finite refinement by elements of \mathcal{B} .

Proof. By assumption, $\{K_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$, K_i compact, $K_i \subset \text{int}(K_{i+1})$, $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} K_i = X$. Let, for $j \in \mathbb{Z}$: $V_j = K_{j+1} \setminus \text{int}(K_j)$ if $j \geq 0$; $K_j = \emptyset^1$.

Careful! There are many definitions of exhaustion by compact sets ...

$$V_0 = K_1 \dots \underbrace{V_{j-1} \quad V_j \quad V_{j+1}}_{\text{neighborhood}} \dots$$

Figure 1.7: Sketch 1.07

Notice:

- V_j is compact, since we take the intersection of a compact set and a closed set. ($\text{int}(K_j)^c$ is closed)
- $\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{Z}} V_j = X$, since $\bigcup_{j \leq n} V_j = \bigcup_{j \leq n+1} K_j = K_{j+1}$
- The compact sets V_j are intersecting (along their boundary?)
 $V_j \cap V_{j-1} = \partial K_j := K_j \setminus \text{int}(K_j)$

Evidently $\{U_\alpha \cap \text{int}(K_{j+1}) \cap \text{int}(K_{j-1})^c\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$ covers $V_j = K_{j+1} \setminus \text{int}(K_j)$, where the $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$ is an open cover. Since \mathcal{B} is a basis, we can find a refinement of this cover by basis elements. Since V_j are compact, we can extract a finite subcover $\{V_l^j\}_{l=1, \dots, k_j}$. Let's consider: $\{V_l^j\}_{j \in \mathbb{Z}, l=1, \dots, k_j}$. This subcover works, i.e.

Here we use Hausdorffness

- obviously a cover, since the V_j cover X , obviously a refinement of $\{U_\alpha\}$
- locally finite: given $x \in X$, $x \in V_j$, hence $x \in \text{int}(K_{j+2}) \cap K_{j-1}^c =: U$. If $U \cap V_l^k$, then we must have $j-2 \leq k \leq j+2$. But $\{V_l^k\}_{j-2 \leq k \leq j+2}$ is finite. \square

Corollary 1.8. If X is locally Euclidean, Hausdorff and second countable $\implies X$ is paracompact.

Proof. By lemma 1.6 (exhaustion by compact subsets) and lemma 1.7 \implies paracompact. \square

Corollary 1.8'. Let X be Euclidean and Hausdorff. Then X is second countable iff X has countably many components and X is paracompact.

Remark. There are different definitions of manifolds. They differ in either forcing second countability or paracompactness. This lemma shows that there only is a difference if there are uncountably many components.

Proof. Corollary 1.8 and the bonus homework problem from sheet 01. \square

Remark. Basis elements are open.

1.2 Topological manifolds

¹He writes – for \setminus

Definition. A topological n -manifold M is a topological space with the following properties:

- (i) M is locally Euclidean (of dimension n)
- (ii) M is Hausdorff
- (iii) M is second countable

Morally we only really need condition (i). Why do we need the others? For (ii) you will not get a useful theory without it, while (iii) can be replaced by paracompactness (see corollary 1.8').

Definition. Let Man^0 be the category of topological manifolds with

- 1. objects: topological manifolds
- 2. morphisms: continuous functions

Remark. Man^0 full subcategory of Top .

Remark. By definition, $M, N \in \text{Man}^0$, then M, N are isomorphic iff M, N are homeomorphic.

1.2.1 Examples of topological manifolds

Example (Spaces isomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n). $\mathbb{R}^n, n \geq 0$ More generally, if V a finite dimensional \mathbb{R} -vector space, then V is a topological n -manifold.

Example. Any open subset of \mathbb{R}^n

Example (Graphs). Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open, let $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be a continuous function. We set

$$M := \text{graph}(f) := \{(x, y) \in U \times \mathbb{R}^n \mid y = f(x)\}.$$

Then M is a manifold. The map $M \rightarrow U$ by $(x, y) \mapsto x$ gives a global chart.

Example (Spheres). Let $S^n := \{x_0^2 + \dots + x_n^2 = 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. Then S^n is a manifold. We define charts

$$\phi_i^\pm : U_i^\pm = \{(x_0, \dots, x_n) \in S^n \mid \pm x_i > 0\} \rightarrow B_1^n(0)$$

by $(x_0, \dots, x_n) \mapsto (x_0, \dots, \hat{x}_i, \dots, x_n) := (x_0, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n)$

Here we no longer have a global chart (for topological reasons)



Figure 1.8: Sketch 1.08

Example (spheres'). Let $C^n := \partial([-1, 1]^{n+1}) = [-1, 1]^{n+1} \setminus \text{int}([-1, 1]^{n+1})$. Homework: $C^n \simeq S^n$ (homeomorphic)

Example (n -torus). Let $\Pi^n := \mathbb{R}^n / \mathbb{Z}^n$ with the quotient topology. Then this is a manifold (exercise).



Figure 1.9: Sketch 1.09

Example ($\mathbb{RP}^n := S^n / \{x \sim -x\}$). \mathbb{RP}^n are also manifolds (called the real projective spaces).



Figure 1.10: Sketch 1.10

Example (Klein bottle).

Remark. \mathbb{RP}^2 or generally \mathbb{RP}^{2n} and the Klein bottle are not orientable.

1.2.2 Brief interlude: Why do we need Hausdorffness?

- Back in the day (Riemann)
- There is no hope to classify even 1d locally Euclidean, second-countable NOT Hausdorff spaces (See the line with two origins)
- With Hausdorff: Only 1d manifolds are \mathbb{R}, S^1 (see website)

Why do we need second countability?

- Subspaces of \mathbb{R}^n are second countable
- We want partitions of unity (paracompactness suffices for that)

1.2.3 Manifolds with boundary

Let $\mathbb{H}^n := \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid x_n \geq 0\}$.

Definition. A manifold with boundary is a topological space with the following properties:

- (i) Every point has a neighborhood homeomorphic to an open subset of \mathbb{H}^n
- (ii) Hausdorff
- (iii) second countable

Clearly every manifold is also a manifold with boundary.

Example. \mathbb{H}^n is a manifold with boundary, but not a manifold. Since for points on the boundary, there are no neighborhoods homeomorphic to Euclidean space.

Example. $S^n \cap \mathcal{H}^{n+1}, S^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}, [a, b], [0, \infty)$



Figure 1.11: Sketch 1.12

Definition. If M manifold with boundary, we say x is a **boundary point**, if $x \in M \setminus \text{int}(M)$ (i.e. it has no neighborhood homeomorphic to Euclidean space?), otherwise x is an interior point. We let $\partial M := \{\text{boundary points}\}$.

Remark. Most of what he says in the course can be generalized to manifolds with boundary (unless it makes no sense). Those results are only stated (and proofed) for manifolds. it might be a good exercise to go through the notes and generalize the statements to manifolds with boundary.

Start of lecture 03
(15.10.2024)

1.2.4 Elementary topological properties of topological manifolds

- A manifold is connected iff it is path connected
- For manifolds, all forms of compactness (ordinary compactness (every open cover has a finite subcover), limit point compactness, sequential compactness) are equivalent
- All manifolds are metrizable (Urysohn metrization theorem + second countable \implies metrizable)
- Any manifold is homotopy equivalent to a countable CW complex (Milner?) $\pi_k(M)$ are countable

Not proved here, but we are welcome to use

The first two point were proven on the first sheet. The last two use countability

1.3 Classification of topological manifolds (proofs are not examinable)

1.3.1 Classification of 1-dimensional manifolds

Theorem 1.9. Any connected one dimensional manifold is homeomorphic to

- \mathbb{R}^1 or
- \mathbb{H}^1

Proof. See Course website: [1] in the form of a take-home exam

□

Remark. If you allow a boundary, then you also have $[0, 1], [0, 1)$.

1.3.2 Classification of 2-dimensional manifolds

2-dimensional manifolds are often called surfaces

- $S^2 = \{(x_0, x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid \sum_{i=0}^2 x_i^2 = 1\}$
- $\Pi^2 := \mathbb{R}^2 / \mathbb{Z}^2$
- $\mathbb{RP}^2 = S^2 / \{x \sim -x\}$

Construction (Connected sum of surfaces):

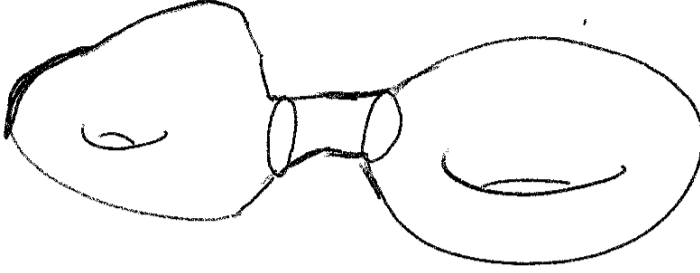


Figure 1.12: Sketch 1.14

Let M_1, M_2 be surfaces (i.e. 2-dimensional manifolds). Choose charts $M_i \supset U_i \xrightarrow{\phi_i} B_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\mathring{M}_i = M_i \setminus \phi_i^{-1}(B_{\frac{1}{2}})$. Let $M_1 \# M_2 := \mathring{M}_1 \cup \mathring{M}_2 / \sim$, where $X \in \mathring{M}_1 \sim y \in \mathring{M}_2$ if $x \in \phi_1^{-1}(\partial B_{\frac{1}{2}})$ and $y = (\phi_2^{-1} \circ \phi_1)(x)$

Facts:

- If M_1, M_2 are connected, then $M_1 \# M_2$ is well defined up to homeomorphism.
- The operation of connected sum is also well defined for connected n -manifolds
- (for the future) The operation of connected sum also works in the smooth category.

Theorem 1.10 (Classification of surfaces). *Every compact, connected surface is homeomorphic to one of the following manifolds:*

- S^2
- $\underbrace{\Pi^2 \# \dots \# \Pi^2}_{k \text{ times}}$
- $\underbrace{\mathbb{RP}^2 \# \dots \# \mathbb{RP}^2}_{l \text{ times}} \text{ (non-orientable)}$



Figure 1.13: Sketch 1.15

Remark. Surfaces are classified by the following invariants:

- (a) orientability
- (b) Euler characteristic

For later: This classification also works in the smooth category.

1.3.3 Classification of high dimensional manifolds (not examinable at all)

Poincaré conjecture (now theorem of G. Perelman (2003), W. Thurston (1980s)): Any compact connected 3 dimensional manifold which is simply connected is homeomorphic to S^3 . This paper is all about PDEs and Ricci flows.

Generalized Poincaré conjecture: Any n -manifold, which is homotopy equivalent to S^n is homeomorphic to S^n . This is true in all dimensions. for $n \geq 5$ Smale in the 1960s, for $n = 4$ Freedman in the 1980s.

Unlike in dimension 1,2,3 the classification of $n \geq 3$ -dimensional manifolds is complicated and not complete.

Example. Any finitely presented group arises as the fundamental group of a compact connected 4-manifold (Which is provably too hard).

Chapter 2:

Smooth manifolds

2.1 Basic theory

2.1.1 Charts and atlases

Definition. Given $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ open, a function $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, f = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$ is called **smooth** (or \mathbb{C}^∞ or **infinitely differentiable**), if the **component functions** f_i admit all partial derivatives of all orders and all these partial derivatives are continuous.

In other words f smooth: $\iff \forall 1 \leq i \leq m, \alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{N}^n, \partial_\alpha f := \partial_{x_1}^{\alpha_1} \dots \partial_{x_n}^{\alpha_n} f$ exists.

Remark. Given $k \geq 0$, we can similarly say that f is **k -times continuously differentiable** and write $(f \in)$ and write $f \in C^k(U, \mathbb{R}^m)$, if for all $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{N}^n, \sum \alpha_i \leq k$ $\partial_x^\alpha f_i$ is continuous for all i .

Definition. Let M be a topological manifold. We say that two charts $(U_1, \phi_1), (U_2, \phi_2)$ are **smoothly compatible** if the map $\phi_2 \circ \phi_1^{-1} : \phi_1(U_1 \cap U_2) \rightarrow \phi_2(U_1 \cap U_2)$ is smooth. We call $\phi_2 \circ \phi_1^{-1}$ a **transition function**.

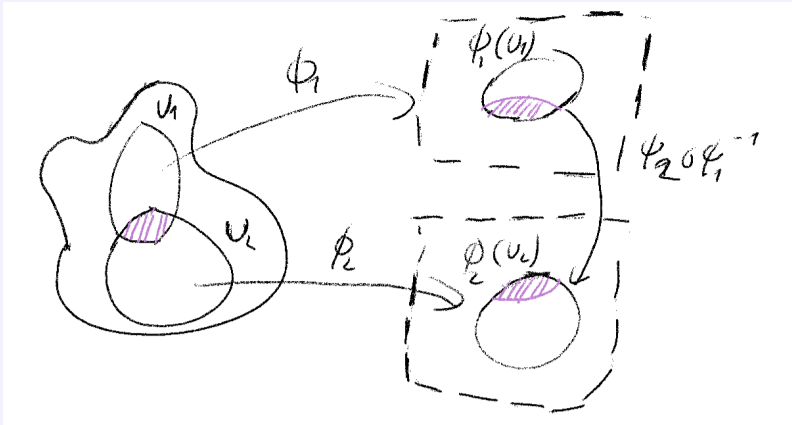


Figure 2.1: Sketch 2.01

Definition. Let M be a topological manifold. An **(smooth) atlas** \mathcal{A} of M is a collection of charts $\{U_\alpha, \phi_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$ such that

- the $\{U_\alpha\}$ cover M
- the charts are pairwise smoothly compatible (i.e. for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{A}$ $(U_\alpha, \phi_\alpha), (U_\beta, \phi_\beta)$ are smoothly compatible).

Definition. We say that two atlases $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}'$ (on a fixed topological manifold) are equivalent, if their union $\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{A}'$ is still an atlas.

Fact(Sheet 03): This defines an equivalence relation.

Definition. A smooth manifold $M = (M, [\mathcal{A}])$ consists of the following data:

- (i) a topological manifold M
- (ii) an equivalence class of smooth atlases

Remark. • typically, we will designate smooth manifolds by a capital letter, e.g. M . But we always mean $(M, [\mathcal{A}])$. Note being a smooth manifold is extra structure on a topological space, while being a topological manifold is a property

- Using Zorn's lemma, it can be shown that any atlas is contained in a unique maximal atlas. Uniqueness here does not use Zorn's lemma, only existence needs that! Equally well define a smooth manifold to be a topological manifold and a maximal atlas.
- $\forall 0 \leq k \leq \infty$, we can define the notion of a C^k -atlas, simply by requiring that the transition functions are C^k functions. This yields the definition of C^k -Manifolds. Two extreme cases: C^0 -manifold (topological manifolds) and C^∞ -manifolds. Any $k \geq 1$ is not more interesting than C^∞ !

Typically we are given an atlas, since the maximal atlases have uncountably many charts, which is why we work with equivalence classes, rather than maximal atlases
Start of lecture 04
(18.10.2024)

2.1.2 First examples of smooth manifolds

Example (Example 1: The canonical smooth manifold). $\mathbb{R}^n, n \geq 0$ is canonically a smooth manifold. The canonical atlas is induced by the topological chart $U = \mathbb{R}^n, \phi : U \xrightarrow{id} \mathbb{R}^n$.

Example (Example 2: Another canonical smooth manifold). Let V be a finite dimensional real vector space. Then V is canonically a smooth manifold. Pick a vector space basis \mathcal{B} . This basis induces a homeomorphism $\phi_{\mathcal{B}} : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. If we had picked another basis \mathcal{B}' , then the transition map $\phi_{\mathcal{B}'} \circ \phi_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1} \in GL(n, \mathbb{R})$. Hence $\phi_{\mathcal{B}'} \circ \phi_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}$ is smooth.

Example (Example 3: Spheres). We have $S_c^n := \{(x_0, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid \sum_{i=0}^n x_i^2 = c^2\}$ for $c > 0$. Let $\phi_i^\pm : U_i^\pm \rightarrow B_c^n$. Then

$$U_i^\pm := \{(x_0, \dots, x_n) \in S_c^n \mid \pm x_i > 0\}$$

$$\phi_j^\pm \circ (\phi_i^{pm})^{-1}(y_1, \dots, y_n) = \phi_j^\pm(y_1, \dots, \pm \sqrt{c^2 - \sum y_i}, \dots, y_n), \text{ where } (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in B_c^n.$$

$$= \begin{cases} (y_1, \dots, y_n) & i = j \\ (y_1, \dots, \sqrt{c^2 - \sum y_k}, \dots, \hat{y}_j, \dots, y_n) & j > i \\ (y_1, \dots, y_{\hat{j}+1}, \dots, \sqrt{c^2 - \sum y_k}, \dots, y_n) & j < i \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

We conclude $\{U_i^\pm, \phi_i^\pm\}$ is a smooth atlas.

Example (Example 4: Level sets). Let $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth function. Fix $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Recall that the set $\Phi^{-1}(c) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid \Phi(x) = c\}$ is called a level set of value c . **Suppose** that, $\forall p \in \Phi^{-1}(c) : D \underbrace{\Phi(p)}_{=(\partial_{x_0} \Phi(p), \dots, \partial_{x_n} \Phi(p))} \neq 0$. This means that $\exists 0 \leq i \leq n$ s.t. $\partial_{x_i} \Phi(c) \neq 0$. By the

implicit function theorem (Lee, Theorem C.40, Course website), there exists a neighborhood U of p such that $U \cap \Phi^{-1}(c) = \{(x_0, \dots, f(x_0, \dots, \hat{x}_i, \dots, x_n), x_n)\}$.



Figure 2.2: Sketch 2.02

Let $M = \Phi^{-1}(c)$. We define $\hat{\pi}_i : \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, (x_0, \dots, x_n) \mapsto (x_0, \dots, \hat{x}_i, \dots, x_n)$.

$$\{(U, \hat{\pi}_i) \mid U \subset M, \hat{\pi}_i|_U \text{ homeomorphism, } \partial_{x_i} \Phi \neq 0 \text{ on } U\}$$

Remains to check the formula:

$$\hat{\pi}_j \circ \hat{\pi}_i^{-1}(y_1, \dots, y_n) = \begin{cases} (y_1, \dots, f, \dots, \hat{y}_j, \dots, y_n) & j > i \\ (y_1, \dots, y_{j+1}, \dots, f, \dots, y_n) & i < j \\ (y_1, \dots, y_n) & i = j \end{cases}$$

Remark. The condition $D\Phi \neq 0$ is very explicit! It is very easy to generate lots of manifolds. For example: $\Phi(x) = \sum \lambda_i x_i^2$

Example (Example 5: Subset of smooth manifold). Let M be a smooth manifold. Then $U \subset M$ open, is also a smooth manifold. (Take charts of M and intersect / restrict each chart)

Example (Example 6: Product of manifolds). Let M, N be smooth manifolds. Then $M \times N$ is also a smooth manifold. Take as charts

$$\{(U \times V, (\phi, \psi)) \mid (U, \phi), (V, \psi) \text{ charts of } M, N \text{ respectively}\}$$

Example (Example 7:). Let's consider \mathbb{R} . We define a chart $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x \mapsto x^3$. Observe that

$$M = (U = \mathbb{R}, U \xrightarrow{id} \mathbb{R})$$

and

$$N = (U = \mathbb{R}, U \xrightarrow{x \mapsto x^3} \mathbb{R})$$

are smooth manifolds, which are different! Since the transition functions between them are not smooth:

Indeed $id \circ (x \mapsto x^3)^{-1} = (x \mapsto x^{\frac{1}{3}})$, which is not smooth!

This takes care of the torus!

This is one to pay attention to!

2.1.3 Smooth maps

Definition. Let M be a smooth manifold. A map $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is said to be smooth, if for all $p \in M$, there exists a chart (U, ϕ) containing p , such that

$$f \circ \underbrace{\phi^{-1}}_{\subset \mathbb{R}^n} : \phi(U) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

is smooth.

Definition. Let M, N be manifolds. We say $f : M \rightarrow N$ is **smooth** if, for all $p \in M$ there exists charts (U, ϕ) with $p \in U \subset M$ and (V, ψ) with $V \subset N$ such that:

- $V \supset f(U)$
- $\psi \circ f \circ \phi^{-1} : \underbrace{\phi(U)}_{\subset \mathbb{R}^n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is smooth

manifolds = smooth manifolds as always (unless otherwise stated)

Reality check.

Lemma 2.1. Smooth maps are continuous.

Proof. Enough to show that $\forall p \in M$, there exists a neighborhood of p on which $f : M \rightarrow N$ is continuous, for f smooth. By definition $\exists (U, \phi), p \in U, (V, \psi), V \subset N$ s.t.

$\psi \circ f \circ \phi^{-1} : \phi(U) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ smooth.

Observe $f = \psi^{-1} \circ (\psi \circ f \circ \phi^{-1}) \circ \phi$ on U . □

Lemma 2.2. $f : M \rightarrow N$ is smooth if and only if each $p \in M$ has a neighborhood U such that $f|_U$ is smooth.

Proof. Sheet 03. □

Lemma 2.3 (Properties of smooth maps). (i) Any constant map $c : M \rightarrow N$ is smooth^a

(ii) The identity map $id : M \rightarrow M$ is smooth

(iii) If $U \subset M$ open, then the inclusion $i : U \hookrightarrow M$ is smooth

(iv) Compositions of smooth functions are smooth

^aSince it sends M to a point in N

Proof. Sheet 03. □

Definition. Let M, N be manifolds. A **diffeomorphism** $f : M \rightarrow N$ is a smooth map, which is bijective and admits a smooth inverse.

In particular, diffeomorphisms are homeomorphism!

Example. $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x \mapsto x + 3$ is a diffeomorphism with inverse $x \mapsto x - 3$.

Example. Let $A \in GL(n, \mathbb{R})$. Define a map

$$f_A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, x \mapsto Ax.$$

This is a diffeomorphism (smooth, since linear) with inverse $f_A^{-1} = f_{A^{-1}}$.

Example. Let $S_c^n := \{(x_0, \dots, x_n) \mid \sum_{i=0}^n x_i^2 = c^2\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. Given $d > c > 0$, we define a diffeomorphism.

$$S_c^n \rightarrow S_d^n, (x_0, \dots, x_n) \mapsto \frac{d}{c}(x_0, \dots, x_n).$$

Example. $M = (\mathbb{R}, id), N = (\mathbb{R}, x \mapsto x^3)$. The map $M \rightarrow N, x \mapsto x^{\frac{1}{3}}$ is a diffeomorphism. Indeed,

$$(x \mapsto x^3) \circ (x \mapsto x^{\frac{1}{3}}) \circ id^{-1} = id$$

2.1.4 The category of smooth manifolds

Definition. Let Man^∞ be the category of smooth manifolds. The objects are the smooth manifolds. The morphisms are the smooth maps.

Exercise: M, N objects in Man^∞ are isomorphic if and only if they are diffeomorphic.

Observe that there is a forgetful functor: $\text{Man}^\infty \rightarrow \text{Man}^0$ by $(M, [\mathcal{A}]) \rightarrow M$ and $f : M \rightarrow N \mapsto f$. In general:

- not full
- not essentially surjective

Remark (Hierarchy of categories). • for $k = 0, \dots, \infty$, we can consider the category Man^k with objects C^k -Manifolds, and morphisms C^k -maps. for $k \leq l$ there is a forgetful functor $\text{Man}^l \rightarrow \text{Man}^k$

- if $k \geq 1$, then the forgetful functor $\text{Man}^\infty \rightarrow \text{Man}^k$ is essentially surjective. This is different from the C^0 case. For this reason, we mainly focus on $\text{Man}^0, \text{Man}^\infty$. This is a theorem by Whitney
- there are other interesting categories: $\text{Man}^{\text{Real-analytic}}, \text{Man}^{\text{Cplx-analytic}}, \dots$, which both come with a forgetful functor to Man^∞

Remark (Classification of manifolds (not examinable)). • all topological manifolds of dimension ≤ 3 admit a unique smooth structure

- S^7 , as a topological manifold, admits 15 pairwise non-diffeomorphic smooth structures. These are called **exotic spheres**. They also exist in higher dimensions (Milnor-Kervaire?)
- \mathbb{R}^4 admits uncountably many pairwise non-diffeomorphic smooth structures (Taubes 1980s)
- Open problem (**Smooth 4 dimensional Poincaré conjecture**): Prove or disprove: any smooth 4-manifold, which is homeomorphic to S^4 is diffeomorphic to S^4 . Most experts believe this is false!

Start of lecture 05
(22.10.2024)

2.1.5 Smooth manifolds with boundary

Definition. A function $f : \mathbb{H}^n \supset U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ is **smooth** if every $p \in U$ admits an open neighborhood $p \in U_p \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ on which f extends to a smooth function. (i.e. there exists $\tilde{f}_p : U_p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k, \tilde{f}_p$ smooth and $\tilde{f}_p|_{\mathbb{H}^n \cap U} = f$)

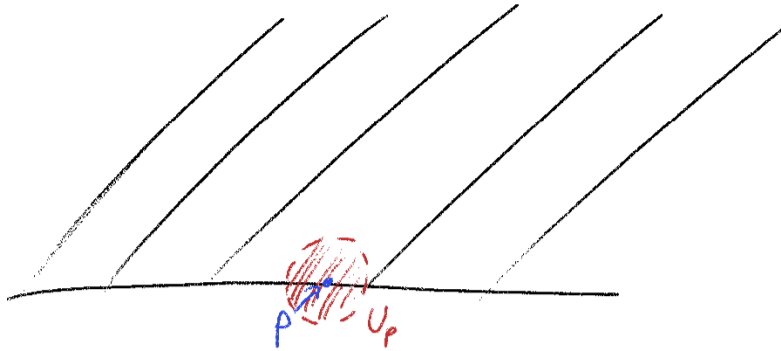


Figure 2.3: Sketch 2.03

Example. $n = 1, \mathbb{H}^1 = [0, \infty), f(x) = x^2$

Example (Non-Example). $n = 1, \mathbb{H}^1 = [0, \infty), f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ has no smooth extension to 0, since the derivative goes to ∞ .

Give a topological manifold with boundary, we can define unproblematically the notions of

- smoothly compatible charts: $(U, \phi) : M \rightarrow \mathbb{H}^n, \phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1} : \phi_\beta(U_\alpha \cap U_\beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{H}^n$
- smooth atlases

Definition. A smooth manifold with boundary $M = (M, [\mathcal{A}])$ is the data of

- a topological manifold with boundary

- an equivalence class of atlases

Remark. Every smooth manifold is a smooth manifold with boundary. This is an enlargement of Man^∞ .

Similarly we can generalise even more to manifolds with corners ...

2.2 Partitions of unity

2.2.1 Preparatory lemmas

Lemma 2.4. The function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} e^{-\frac{1}{t}} & t > 0 \\ 0 & t \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

is smooth.

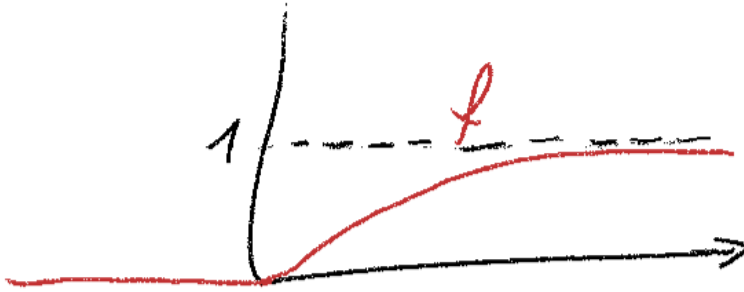


Figure 2.4: Sketch 2.04

Proof. It is enough to prove, that f has well defined derivatives of all orders, since f is a function on \mathbb{R} .

$f^0 = f$, for $k \geq 1$, assume

1. $f^{(k-1)}$ exists
2. $f^{(k-1)}|_{(-\infty, 0]} = 0$
3. $f^{(k-1)}|_{(0, \infty)}(t) = P_{k-1}(\frac{1}{t})e^{-\frac{1}{t}}$ for some polynomial $P_{(k-1)}$.

Clearly this holds for $k = 1$.

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f^{(k-1)}(t) - f^{(k-1)}(0)}{t} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f^{(k-1)}(t)}{t} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} P_{(k-1)}\left(\frac{1}{t}\right) \frac{1}{t} e^{-\frac{1}{t}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} P_{(k-1)}(x) \cdot x \cdot e^{-x} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $f^{(k-1)}$ is differentiable at the origin, the derivative $f^{(k-1)'}(0) = 0$. and $f^{(k-1)}|_{(-\infty, 0]} = 0$. Therefore $f^{(k-1)}$ is differentiable. Therefore we only have to check 3., which only takes place on \mathbb{R}_+ !

Finally

$$f^{(k-1)}|_{(0, \infty)}(t) = P_{(k-1)}\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)e^{-\frac{1}{t}} \implies P'_{(k-1)}\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{t^2}e^{-\frac{1}{t}} + P_{(k-1)}\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)e^{-\frac{1}{t}}\right) =: P_{(k)}\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)e^{-\frac{1}{t}}. \quad \square$$

Lemma 2.5. Fix real numbers $r_1 < r_2$. Then there exists a smooth function $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

1. $h \equiv 1$ on $(-\infty, r_1]$

2. $0 < h < 1$ on r_1, r_2
3. $h \equiv 0$ on $[r_2, \infty)$

Proof. $h(t) := \frac{f(s_2-t)}{f(s_2-t)+f(t-s_1)}$, since the denominator never goes to 0. \square

Lemma 2.6 (Existence of cutoff functions). *Given $0 < r_1 < r_2$, there exists a smooth function $H : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that*

1. $H \equiv 1$ on $\overline{B_{r_1}}$
2. $0 < H < 1$ on $B_{r_2} \setminus \overline{B_{r_1}}$
3. $H \equiv 0$ on $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_{r_2}$

Proof. Set $H(x) := h(|x|)$, where h is defined as in lemma 2.5. (Recall: $|x| := \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$). Then H is smooth, since it is a composition of smooth functions on $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \overline{B_{r_1}}$ and constant on $\overline{B_{r_1}}$. \square

2.2.2 Partitions of unity

Definition. *Given a topological space X and a function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the support of f is the set*

$$\text{supp}(f) := \overline{\{x \in X \mid f(x) \neq 0\}} \subset X$$

Example. *If $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has the form $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots, a_nx^n \implies \text{supp}(f) = \mathbb{R}$. In fact, by Taylor's theorem, if f analytic, then $\text{supp}(f)$ either \mathbb{R} or \emptyset . In contrast, the function $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined in lemma 2.5 has support $(-\infty, r_2] \subsetneq \mathbb{R}$.*

Definition. *Let M be a smooth manifold. Let $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ be an open cover. A partition of unity subordinate to the cover is the data of a collection of smooth functions $\{\psi_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}, \psi_\alpha : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that*

- (1) $0 < \psi_\alpha < 1$
- (2) $\text{supp}(\psi_\alpha) \subset U_\alpha$
- (3) $\{\text{supp}(\psi_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in A}$ is locally finite
- (4) $\sum_{\alpha \in A} \psi_\alpha \equiv 1$

Remark. *There is an analogous notion in the category $\text{Top}, \text{Man}^0, \text{Man}^k$, etc.,...*

Example. $M = \mathbb{R}, U_1 = (-\infty, r_2 + 1), U_2 = (r_1 - 1, \infty)$, where $r_1 < r_2$ as in lemma 2.5. Similarly let h as in lemma 2.5. and set $\psi_1 = h, \psi_2 = 1 - h$



Figure 2.5: Sketch 2.05

Theorem 2.7 (Existence of partitions of unity). *Let M be a smooth manifold. Let $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ be an open cover. Then there exists a partition of unity subordinate to this cover.*

Remark. The same theorem works in Top , Man^0 , Man^k . It will not work in $Man^{Analytic}$, $Man^{Cplx-Analytic}$, $Varieties/\mathbb{C}$.

Proof. **Step 1: Construction of the V_i** An open subset $U \subset M$ is called a **regular coordinate ball** if there exists $\tilde{U} \subset \tilde{U}$, $(\tilde{U}, \tilde{\phi})$ a chart such that $\tilde{\phi}(U) = B_{r_1}$, $\tilde{\phi}(\tilde{U}) = B_{r_2}$.



Figure 2.6: Sketch 2.06

By lemma 1.6 M admits an exhaustion by compact sets. By lemma 1.7, given any basis, any open cover, one can find a locally finite, countable basis refinement of this cover by basis elements.

Claim: $\{\text{regular coordinate balls whose closure is contained in some } U_\alpha\}$ basis of M

These two points imply that $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$ admits a countable, locally finite refinement by regular coordinate balls $\{V_i\}_{i \in I}$.

By sheet 2, exercise 1 (a) $\{\bar{V}_i\}$ is still locally finite.

Step 2: Construction of the f_i For each $V_i \exists \tilde{V}_i \supset \tilde{V}_i$, $\tilde{\phi}_i : \tilde{V}_i \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$\tilde{\phi}_i(V_i) = B_{r_1^i}$, $\tilde{\phi}_i(\tilde{V}_i) = B_{r_2^i}$ with $0 < r_1^i < r_2^i$, $\tilde{V}_i \subset U_\alpha$ for some α . Using lemma 2.6, let

$H_i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a cutoff function, i.e. $H_i|_{B_{r_1^i}} > 0$, $H_i = 0$ on $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_{r_2^i}$. Let us set

$$f_i : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f_i = \begin{cases} H_i \circ \tilde{\phi}_i & \text{on } \tilde{V}_i \\ 0 & M \setminus \bar{V}_i \end{cases}$$

Step 3: Construction of the g_i Let us set $f = \sum_{i \in I} f_i$. This is well defined by local finiteness of the \bar{V}_i . Note also that $f > 0$. We set $g_i = f_i/f$. Then clearly we have $0 \leq g_i \leq 1$, $\sum_{i \in I} g_i \equiv 1$

Step 4: Reindexing and conformation Since $\tilde{V}_i \subset U_\alpha$, for some α , we can choose for each $i \in I$, $\alpha(i) \in \mathcal{A}$ s.t. $V_i \in U_{\alpha(i)}$. Let us set

$$\psi_\alpha := \sum_{i | \alpha = \alpha(i)} g_i$$

Observe for (2):

$$\text{supp}(\psi_\alpha) = \overline{\bigcup_{\alpha(i)=\alpha} V_i} \stackrel{\text{Exercise 2.1}}{=} \bigcup_{\alpha(i)=\alpha} \bar{V}_i \subset U_\alpha$$

We still have $0 \leq \psi_\alpha \leq 1$, which is (1)

and $\text{supp}(\psi_\alpha)$ are locally finite: for each $p \in M$, since $\{\bar{V}_i\}$ locally finite, there exists a neighborhood U_p of p which only intersects finitely many of the $\{\bar{V}_i\}$, call them V_1, \dots, V_k . Then the only ψ_α which have a chance of being non-zero must satisfy $\alpha \in \{\alpha(1), \dots, \alpha(k)\}$ (this is (3)). Lastly

$$\sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}} \psi_\alpha = \sum_{\alpha} \left(\sum_{i: \alpha = \alpha(i)} g_i \right) = \sum_{i \in I} g_i \equiv 1,$$

which confirms (4). □

The claim is easy to verify

Finding \tilde{V}_i s.t. $\tilde{V}_i \subset U_\alpha$ is the reason we considered regular coordinate balls whose **closure is contained** in some U_α

Here the empty sum is 0

2.2.3 Applications of partitions of unity

Definition. Let X be a topological space. Let $A \subset X$ be closed, $U \subset X$, $A \subset U$ be open. A bump function for A supported in U is a function

$$\phi : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

such that $\phi|_A \equiv 1$, $\text{supp}(\phi) \subset U$.

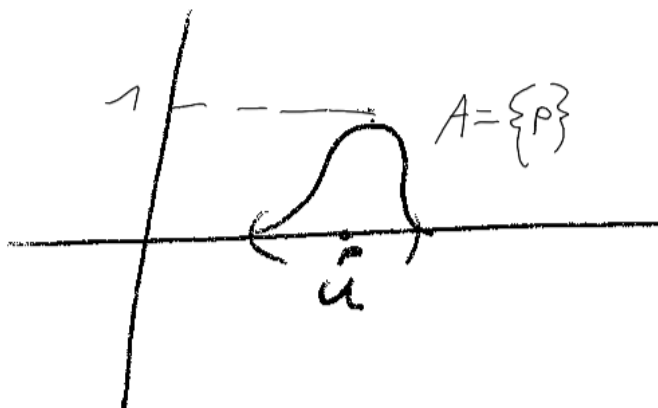


Figure 2.7: Sketch 2.07

Proposition 2.8. Let M be a smooth manifold. Fix $A \subset M$ closed, $U \subset M$, $A \subset U \subset M$ open. Then there exists a smooth bump function for A supported in U

Proof. Let $V = M \setminus A$. Then $\{U, V\}$ is a covering and by theorem 2.7, there exist $\{\Psi_U, \Psi_V\}$ partitions of unity subordinate to this cover. Now Ψ_U does the job. \square

Definition. Let M, N be smooth manifolds. Let $A \subset M$ be closed. We say that $f : A \rightarrow N$ is smooth if it admits a smooth extension in a neighborhood of each point $p \in A$.

I.e. for any $p \in A$ there exists $U_p \ni p$, a smooth function $\tilde{f}_p : U_p \rightarrow N$ s.t. $\tilde{f}_p|_{U_p \cap A} = f|_{U_p \cap A}$

Proposition 2.9. Let M be a smooth manifold. Let $A \subset M$ be closed and $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$, $k \geq 0$ be smooth. Then for any open $U \subset M$, $A \subset U$, there exists $\tilde{f} : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$, such that $\tilde{f}|_A = f$ and $\text{supp}(\tilde{f}) \subset U$

Remark. This would be false if we replaced \mathbb{R}^k by an arbitrary smooth manifold N . E.g. take $\mathbb{R}^2 \hookrightarrow A = S^1 \xrightarrow{f=\text{id}} S^1$

Proof. For each $p \in A$, choose a neighborhood $U_p \subset U$, $\tilde{f}_p : U_p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ smooth extension of $f|_{U_p \cap A}$. Then observe that $\{U_p\}_{p \in A} \cup (M - A)$ forms an open cover of M . $\{\psi_p\}_{p \in A} \cup \psi_0$ be a partition of unity subordinate to the cover. Now we set $\tilde{f} = \sum_{p \in A} \psi_p \tilde{f}_p$. By local finiteness \tilde{f} is smooth. Also

We maybe need $\overline{W_p} \subset U$? Prob. not?

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{f}|_A &= \sum_{p \in A} \psi_p|_A \underbrace{\tilde{f}_p|_A}_{=f} \\ &= f \sum_{p \in A} \psi_p|_A = f|_A \cdot 1 = f|_A. \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

Definition. Let X be a topological space. An exhaustion function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function such that $\forall C \in \mathbb{R}$, $f^{-1}(-\infty, C]$ is compact.

If X is compact every f is an exhaustion function ...

Example. $X = \mathbb{R}$, $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $x \mapsto x^2$

Example (NON-EXAMPLE). $X = \mathbb{R}$, $f(x) = x$

Proposition 2.10. *Every smooth manifold admits a smooth exhaustion function.*

Proof. Pick a countable partition of unity $\{U_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}_+}$ by open subsets having compact closure¹. Let $\{\Psi_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}_+}$ be a subordinate partition of unity. Let $f := \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}_+} i\psi_i$. Observe that for any $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $c < N \in \mathbb{N}$ that

$$f^{-1}(-\infty, c] \subset f^{-1}(-\infty, c] \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^N \overline{U_i}$$

Why $f^{-1}(-\infty, c] \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^N \overline{U_i}$? Let $q \notin \bigcup_{i=1}^N \overline{U_i}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(q) &= \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^N i\psi_i(q)}_{=0} + \sum_{i=N+1}^{\infty} i\psi_i(q) \\ &\geq (N+1) \sum_{i=N+1}^{\infty} \psi_i(q) = (N+1) \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \psi_i(q)}_{=1} \\ &= N+1 \end{aligned}$$

□

Proposition 2.11. *Let M be a smooth manifold. Let $A \subset M$ be a closed subset. Then there exists a smooth function*

$$f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f^{-1}(0) = A$$

In fact, the prove shows one can assume $f \geq 0$

E.g. take $M = \mathbb{R}$, $A = \text{Cantor set}$, shows that this is non-trivial.

Proof. Assume $M = \mathbb{R}^n$ (general case: Sheet 04).

Choose a countable cover of $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus A$ by balls $\{B_{r_i}(x_i)\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ with $r_i < 1$. By Lemma 2.6 there exists a cutoff function

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

s.t. $H \equiv 1$ on $\overline{B_{\frac{1}{2}}(0)}$ and $0 < H < 1$ on $B_1(0) \setminus \overline{B_{\frac{1}{2}}(0)}$ and $H \equiv 0$ on $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1(0)$. For each $i \geq 1$ let $C_i \gg 1$ be large enough so that

$$C_i > \sup\{\partial_x^\alpha H \mid \alpha = \overbrace{(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)}^{\in \mathbb{N}^n}, |\alpha| \leq i\}$$

Let

$$f := \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{r_i^i}{2^i C_i} H\left(\frac{x - x_i}{r_i}\right).$$

We need to argue that f is smooth. Observe that, since $r_i < 1$ $\frac{r_i}{2^i C_i} H\left(\frac{x - x_i}{r_i}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2^i}$. It follows from Analysis 2 that f is continuous. To prove that f is smooth assume for $k \geq 1$ that all partial of order $k < 1$ exist and are continuous. If $|\alpha| = k$, then

$$\partial^\alpha \frac{r_i^i}{2^i C_i} H\left(\frac{x - x_i}{r_i}\right) = \frac{r_i^{i-k}}{2^i C_i} \partial^\alpha H\left(\frac{x - x_i}{r_i}\right)$$

If $i > k$, then

$$\left| \frac{r_i^{i-k}}{2^i C_i} \partial^\alpha H\left(\frac{x - x_i}{r_i}\right) \right| < \frac{1}{2^i}$$

Again follows by Analysis 2 that $\partial^\alpha f$ exists and equals $\sum \partial^\alpha \left(\frac{r_i^i}{2^i C_i} H\left(\frac{x - x_i}{r_i}\right) \right)$. □

¹Like in the proof of 2.7

Chapter 3:

Tangent Vectors

3.1 Motivation

Consider the following pictures

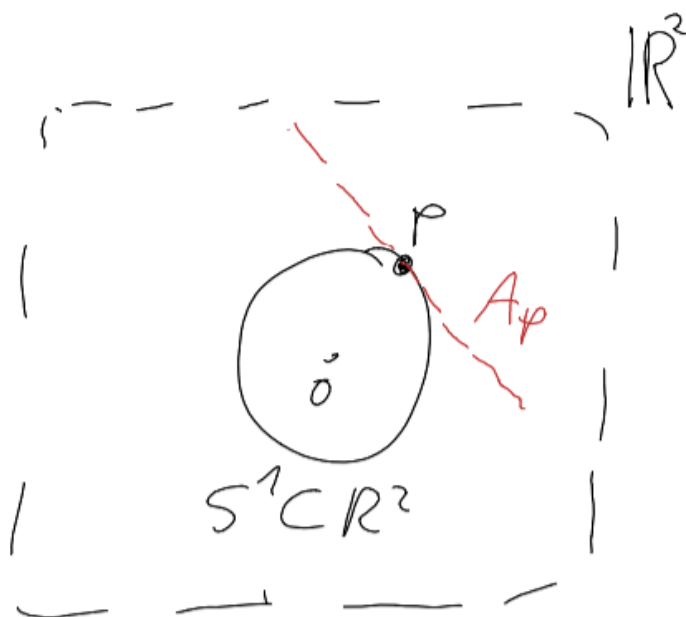


Figure 3.1: Sketch 3.01

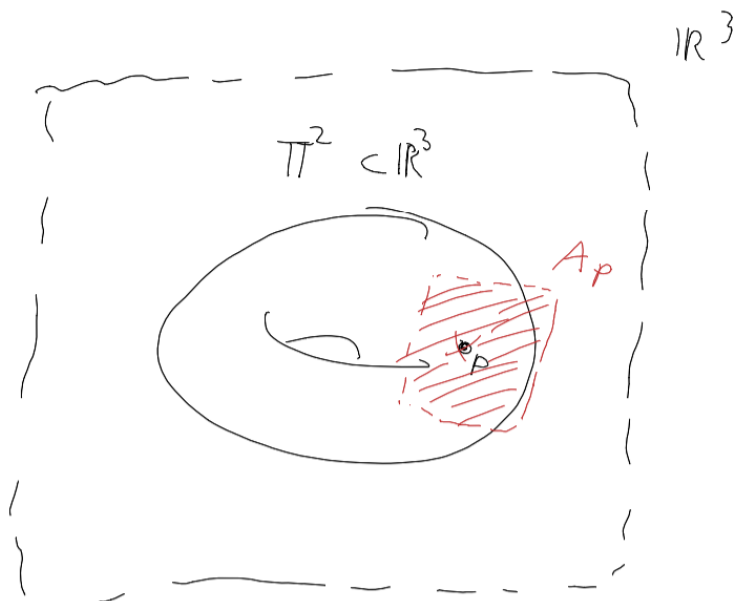


Figure 3.2: Sketch 3.02

A_p the affine hyperplane tangent to $S^1(\Pi^2)$ at the point p . Let $T_p M := A_p - p \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. This is a vector subspace of \mathbb{R}^{n+1} . It is called the **tangent space of M at p** . Consider

$$TM = \coprod_{p \in M} T_p M,$$

called the **tangent bundle**. Observe that there is a map

$$\pi : TM \rightarrow M$$

by

$$x \in T_p M \mapsto p$$

the data $TM \xrightarrow{\pi}$ forms a **vector bundle**.

Problems with this approach:

- not very intrinsic (depends on $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \dots$)
- need to prove that manifolds can always be embedded into \mathbb{R}^N

This is really the picture / intuition we should have, but we will construct it in a different way.

3.2 Two (equivalent) theories of tangent vectors

3.2.1 Definition via equivalence classes of smooth curves

Let M be a smooth manifold. Fix $p \in M$.

Definition. The **tangent space** of M at p denoted by $T_p M$ is the set of equivalence classes of smooth curves $\gamma : [-\epsilon, \epsilon] \rightarrow M, \gamma(0) = p$ with $\gamma_1 \sim \gamma_2 \iff$ for any smooth function f defined near^a p , we have $(f \circ \gamma_1)'(0) = (f \circ \gamma_2)'(0)$. Here the $\epsilon > 0$ is any positive real number, which depends on γ .

^ain a neighborhood of

Think of π as a map of $p, T_p M$

I could not quite make out what he called this chapter, so I named it according to [4]

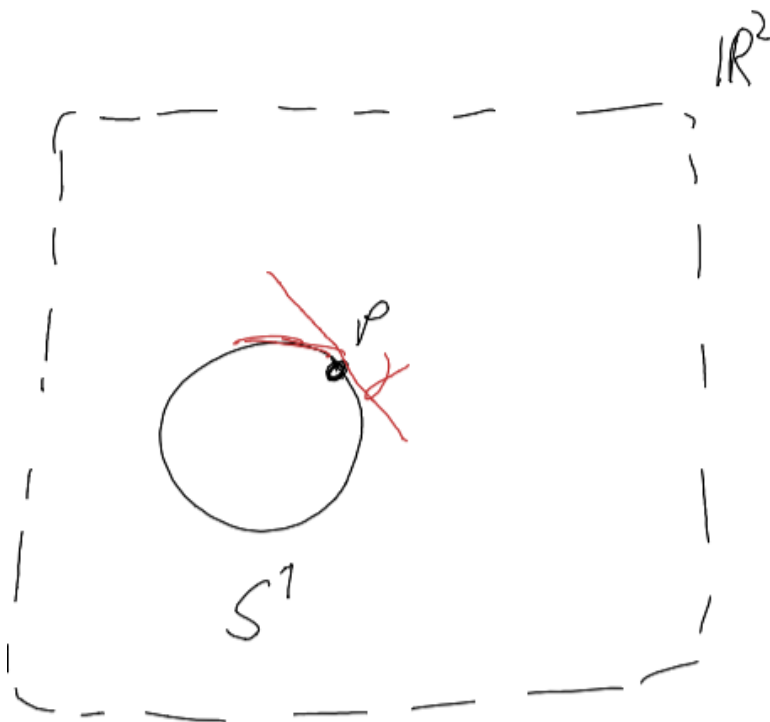


Figure 3.3: Sketch 3.03

Definition. Given a smooth map $F : M \rightarrow N$, let

$$dF_p : T_p M \rightarrow T_{F(p)} N$$

be given by

$$[\gamma] \mapsto [F \circ \gamma].$$

This map dF_p is called the **differential of F at p** .

This is clearly well defined

Remark. The map is also called the **tangent map of M at p** and the **total derivative**. It is also denoted by

$$DF_p, TF_p, \nabla F_p, F'_p, DF(p), TF(p), \dots$$

Lemma 3.1 (Fundamentality of the differential). Let $F^1 : M_1 \rightarrow M_2$, $F^2 : M_2 \rightarrow M_3$ smooth. Then:

$$(i) \quad dF_{F^1(p)}^2 \circ dF_p^1 = d(F^2 \circ F^1)_p$$

$$(ii) \quad \text{If } F : M \rightarrow M \text{ is the identity, then } dF_p = id$$

Proof. Exercise. □

Lemma 3.2. Let $\gamma : [-\epsilon, \epsilon] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\sigma : (-\delta, \delta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ with $\gamma(0) = \sigma(0) = p \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then $\gamma \sim \sigma \iff \underbrace{\gamma'(0)}_{(\gamma'_1(0), \dots, \gamma'_n(0)) \in \mathbb{R}^n} = \sigma'(0)$

Proof. By abusive notation, we denote by x_i the map $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, (x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto x_i$. If $\gamma \sim \sigma$, then $\gamma^{i'}(0) = (x_i \circ \gamma)'(0) \stackrel{\text{Def.}}{=} (x_i \circ \sigma)'(0) = \sigma^{i'}(0) \implies \gamma'(0) = \sigma'(0)$.

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x^i might be better (in the sense of the dual space), but x_i is used in practice

Conversely, suppose $\sigma'(0) = \gamma'(0)$. Given any f smooth defined near p , we have

$$\begin{aligned} (f \circ \gamma)'(0) &= (\partial_{x_1} f(p), \dots, \partial_{x_n} f(p)) \cdot (\gamma^{1'}(0), \dots, \gamma^{n'}(0)) \\ &= (\partial_{x_1} f(p), \dots, \partial_{x_n} f(p)) \cdot (\sigma^{1'}(0), \dots, \sigma^{n'}(0)) \\ &= (f \circ \sigma)'(0). \end{aligned}$$

□

Corollary 3.3. *Let V be a finite dimensional \mathbb{R} vector space. Then, for any $p \in V$, the canonical map*

$$\begin{aligned} V &\rightarrow T_p V \\ w &\mapsto [t \mapsto p + tw] \end{aligned}$$

is a bijection.

Proof. If $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, then this is immediate from lemma 3.2. In general pick a basis to define an isomorphism¹ $F : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. Then the following diagram commutes:

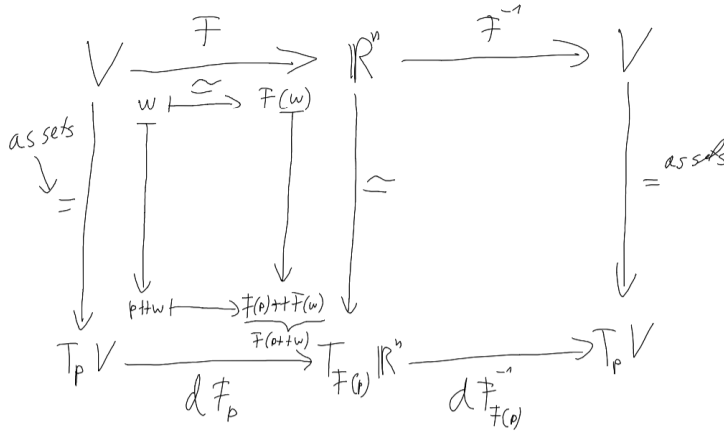


Figure 3.4: Sketch 3.04

using lemma 3.1.

□

3.2.2 Definition via derivations

Definition. Let M be a smooth manifold. A derivation at $p \in M$ is a linear map

$$\nu : C^\infty(M) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

satisfying the property

$$\nu(fg) = f(p)\nu(g) + \nu(f)g(p), \quad (1)$$

which is also called the Leibniz rule.

Remark. Here $C^\infty(M)$ is the set of smooth functions from $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. It is naturally an \mathbb{R} -vector space. Similarly we have $C^0(M)$ the space of continuous functions $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $C^k(M)$ the space of k -times differentiable function $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Definition. The set of derivations at p shall be also called the tangent space of M at p , denoted by $T_p M$.

Lemma 3.4. $T_p M$ is naturally a vector subspace of $C^\infty(M)^\vee$

$C^\infty(M)^\vee$ denotes the dual space of $C^\infty(M)$

¹In particular a diffeomorphism

Proof. Given derivations $\nu_1, \nu_2 \in T_p M$ we must show that $a\nu_1 + \nu_2$ is still an element of $T_p M \forall a \in \mathbb{R}$. We compute we compute

$$\begin{aligned} (a\nu_1 + \nu_2)(fg) &= a\nu_1(fg) + \nu_2(fg) = a[\nu_1(f)g(p) + f(p)\nu_1(g)] + [\nu_2(f)g(p) + f(p)\nu_2(g)] \\ &= f(p)[a\nu_1 + \nu_2] + [a\nu_1 + \nu_2](f)g(p) \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

Definition. Given a smooth map $F : M \rightarrow N$, we let $dF_p : T_p M \rightarrow T_{F(p)} N$ be the map

$$\nu \mapsto dF_p(\nu) := C^\infty(N) \ni f \mapsto \nu(f \circ F)$$

Lemma 3.5. (i) the previous definition gives a derivation

$$(ii) \quad dF_{F^{-1}(p)}^2 \circ dF_p^1 = d(F^2 \circ F^1)_p$$

(iii) If $F : M \rightarrow M$ is the identity, then $dF_p = id$

By (ii) and (iii) d is a Functor

Lemma 3.6. Let ν be a derivation at $p \in M$. Then

(a) $f \equiv C$, then $\nu(f) = 0$. That is ν annihilates constant functions.

(b) if $f(p) = g(p) = 0$, then $\nu(fg) = 0$

Proof. (a): Since ν is linear, it is enough to prove $\nu(f) = 0$ for $f \equiv 1$. But then

$$\nu(f) = \nu(f^2) = f(p)\nu(f) + \nu(f)f(p) = 2\nu(f).$$

(b) is obvious by the Leibniz rule (1). \square

Lemma 3.7. Let V be a finite dimensional vector space over \mathbb{R} . A derivation $\nu \in T_p V$ is entirely determined by its action on any dual basis $\{\xi^1, \dots, \xi^n\}$.

This should remind us of lemma 3.2

Proof. Fix a basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ to identify $V \equiv \mathbb{R}^n$. It is enough to show that $\nu(f) = 0$ if $\{\partial_{x_1} f(p), \dots, \partial_{x_n} f(p)\}$ all vanish (Indeed, consider $f \rightarrow f - \sum_{k=1}^n \partial_{x_k} f(p) \xi_k$). By Taylor's formula (Appendix C.15, Lee), we have

with $\xi_i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as before

$$f(x) = \underbrace{f(p)}_{\text{constant}} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n \partial_{x_i} f(p)(x_i - p_i)}_{=0} + \sum_{i,j=1}^n \underbrace{\left(\underbrace{x_i - p_i}_{\text{constant at } p} \right) \left(\underbrace{x_j - p_j}_{\text{constant at } p} \right)}_{\text{constant at } p} \int_0^1 (1-t) \partial_{x_i x_j} f(p + t(x-p)) dt.$$

Then by lemma 3.6 $\nu(f) = 0$. \square

Corollary 3.8. The canonical map $V \rightarrow T_p V$, $p \in V$ defined by

$$w \mapsto (C^\infty(V) \ni f \mapsto \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} f(p + tw))$$

is an isomorphism of vector spaces.

This should remind us of corollary 3.3
These are really canonically equal! No choice needed

Proof. We define

$$\begin{aligned} T_p V &\rightarrow V \\ \nu &\mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n \nu(\xi^i) e_i, \xi^i : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

By lemma 3.7 this map is injective and hence $\dim T_p V \leq \dim V$. So it is enough to show that $V \mapsto T_p V$ is also injective. Suppose for contradiction that $V \ni w \neq 0$, that maps to the zero derivation.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} f(p + tw) \forall f \\ \implies 0 &= \frac{d}{dt} w^\vee(p + tw) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} t = 1 \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

3.2.3 Both definitions agree

Temporary notation: Let $T_p M^{(1)}, dF_p^{(1)}, \dots$, be those objects defined in section 3.2.1 and $T_p M^{(2)}, dF_p^{(2)}, \dots$, the analogous objects defined in 3.2.2

Key observation: There is a **canonical** map, for any $p \in M$,

$$K_p : T_p M^{(1)} \rightarrow T_p M^{(2)}$$

$$\gamma \mapsto (C^\infty(M) \ni f \mapsto (f \circ \gamma)'(0)).$$

Note that this commutes with $dF^{(i)}$, i.e. $dF^{(2)} \circ K_p = K_{F^{(1)}(p)} \circ dF_p^{(1)}$ (exercise).

Proposition 3.9. K_p is a bijection.

Proof. Choose a chart $(U, \varphi), p \in U$. Then we have a map

$$U \rightarrow \varphi(U) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} T_p M^{(1)} & \xrightarrow{dF_p^{(1)}} & T_{f(p)} \varphi(U)^{(2)} \\ \downarrow K_p & & \downarrow K_p \\ T_p M^{(2)} & \xrightarrow{dF_p^{(2)}} & T_{f(p)} \varphi(U)^{(2)} \end{array}$$

Figure 3.5: Sketch 3.05

Finally, we have

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{R}^n & \xrightarrow{\text{Cor. 3.3}} & T_{f(p)} \varphi(U)^{(1)} = T_p \mathbb{R}^n^{(1)} \\ \searrow \text{Cor. 3.8} & & \downarrow K_{f(p)} \\ & & T_{f(p)} \varphi(U)^{(2)} = T_p \mathbb{R}^n^{(2)} \end{array}$$

Figure 3.6: Sketch 3.06

□

3.3 Coordinates

Definition. (1) Given a point $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$ let $(\partial_{x_i})_p \in T_p \mathbb{R}^n$ be the vector represented by the curve $t \mapsto p + t \underbrace{(0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0)}_{e_i}$.

(2) Given $p \in M$, we shall abuse notation by writing $(\partial_{x_i})_p := d\varphi_p^{-1}(\partial_{x_i})_p$ for some chart $((U, \phi))$

Remark. 1. Various authors also write $\partial_{x_i}(p)$

2. $\{(\partial_{x_1})_p, \dots, (\partial_{x_n})_p\}$ form a basis for $T_p M$, by construction

3. $\{\partial_{x_1}, \dots, \partial_{x_n}\}$ very much depend on the chart (U, φ)

Suppose now that $F : M \rightarrow N$ smooth map. Let $(U, \varphi), (V, \psi)$ be charts, $F(U) \subset V$. Let $\hat{p} := \phi(p) \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then we have



Figure 3.7: Sketch 3.07

where $\hat{F} = \psi \circ F \circ \varphi^{-1}$.

Note that $d\hat{F}_{\hat{p}} : T_{\hat{p}} \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow T_{\hat{F}(\hat{p})} \mathbb{R}^n$ is a linear map. We want to find an expression for the matrix $d\hat{F}_{\hat{p}}$ w.r.t the basis $\{\partial_{x_1}, \dots, \partial_{x_m}\}$ and $\{\partial_{y_1}, \dots, \partial_{y_h}\}$.

Well, by definition

$$\begin{aligned} d\hat{F}_{\hat{p}}((\partial_{x_i})_{\hat{p}}) &:= [\hat{F}(\hat{p} + (0, \dots, 1, 0, \dots, 0))] \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n \partial_{x_i} F^j(\hat{p}) (\partial_{y_j})_{\hat{F}(\hat{p})} \end{aligned}$$

and therefore

$$d\hat{F}_{\hat{p}} = \begin{pmatrix} \partial_{x_1} \hat{F}^1(\hat{p}) & \dots & \partial_{x_m} \hat{F}^1(\hat{p}) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \partial_{x_1} \hat{F}^n(\hat{p}) & \dots & \partial_{x_m} \hat{F}^n(\hat{p}) \end{pmatrix}.$$

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Remark. By abuse of notation we often write $F \equiv \hat{F}, p \equiv \hat{p}, \partial_{x_i} f \equiv \partial_{x_i} \hat{F}, dF_p \equiv d\hat{F}_{\hat{p}}$

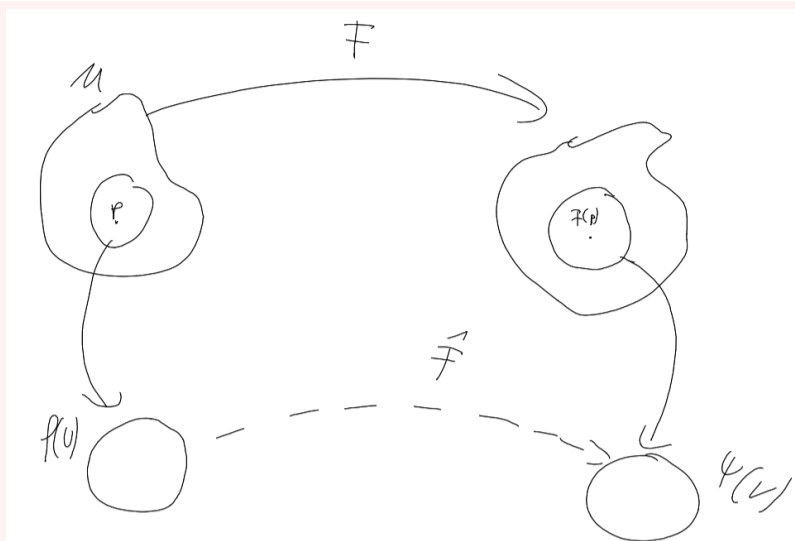


Figure 3.8: Sketch 3.08

Remark. $d\hat{F} : \underbrace{x}_{\in \phi(U) \subset \mathbb{R}^m} \mapsto d\hat{F}_x \in \text{Mat}(n \times m) \equiv \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$. This is clearly a smooth map.

3.4 The tangent bundle

Definition. Given a smooth manifold M , let $TM := \coprod_{p \in M} T_p M$. We write elements of TM as pairs (p, v) , where $v \in T_p M$. Note that we have a map

$$\pi : TM \rightarrow M, (p, v) \mapsto p.$$

Remark (Added by Manuel, was an answer to my question). For $p \in M$ the preimage of p under π is called a **fiber**. He also highlighted, the condition that $\pi^{-1}(p)$ is a vector space (namely $T_p M$), which seems to be important in our context, but not generally required for fibers.

A priori, TM is just a set. We will exhibit natural smooth manifold structure.

Special case: $M \subset U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

$$TU := \coprod_{p \in U} T_p U \equiv U \times \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$(t \mapsto p + tv) \mapsto (p, v)$$

General construction Given a smooth chart (U, ϕ) for a smooth manifold M , we have a map $d\phi$

Remember that this is a canonical identification!

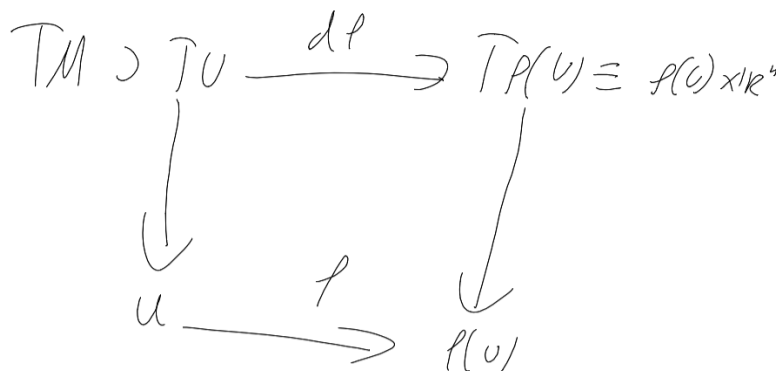


Figure 3.9: Sketch 3.09

where

$$d\phi(p, v) := (\phi(p), d\phi_p(v)).$$

Define a subset $S \subset TM$ to be open, if, for any chart U, ϕ , $d\phi(S \cap TU)$ open in $T\phi(U) \equiv \phi(U) \times \mathbb{R}^n$.

This is a pullback

Lemma 3.10. *This prescription defines a topological space on TM . Moreover, TM is a topological manifold.*

Proof. Omitted. Check transition maps

$$d\psi \circ d\phi^{-1} : \phi(U \cap V) \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \psi(U \cap V) \times \mathbb{R}^n$$

is it an elementary, but tedious proof. \square

Remark. *Alternatively define the same topology on TM by taking the basis the union over all charts (U, ϕ) in your atlas of $\{d\phi^{-1}(V) \mid V \subset T(\psi(U)) \text{ open}\}$.*

To make TM into a **smooth** manifold, we take as our atlas the set $\{(TU, d\phi)\}_{(U, \phi)}$, where (U, ϕ) runs over the smooth charts of M .

Lemma 3.11. *this is a smooth atlas.*

Proof. Fix charts $(U, \phi), (V, \psi)$. Then the transition functions take the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (x, v) & \xrightarrow{\quad} & (\psi \circ \phi^{-1}(x), d(\psi \circ \phi^{-1})_x(v)) \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \phi(U \cap V) & \xrightarrow{\psi \circ \phi^{-1}} & \psi(U \cap V) \end{array}$$

Figure 3.10: Sketch 3.11

Check if both components are smooth:

- The first component $x \mapsto \psi \circ \phi^{-1}(x)$ is smooth, since M is a smooth manifold and $(U, \phi), (V, \psi)$ are smooth
- For the second component can be fractured as follows:

$$(x, v) \mapsto (d(\underbrace{\psi \circ \phi^{-1}}_{\in \text{Man}(n \times n) \cong \mathbb{R}^{2n}}, v)) \mapsto d(\psi \circ \phi^{-1})_x v$$

Exercise: the map $\text{Mat}(m \times n) \times \text{Mat}(n \times p) \rightarrow \text{Mat}(m \times p)$ by $A, B \mapsto AB$ is smooth. \square

Remark. *We will see later that $(\phi : TM \rightarrow M)$ forms a vector bundle. It can be shown that given $F : M \rightarrow N$ the map $dF : TM \rightarrow TN, (p, v) \mapsto (F(p), dF_p(v))$ is smooth.. In fact, we have*

Since we can write the second component as a concatenation of maps, it is smooth

This is the exact same computation as in the proof of lemma 3.11



Figure 3.11: Sketch 3.12

commutes. This can be restated as follows: There is a functor $\text{Man}^\infty \rightarrow \text{Smooth vector bundles}$ by

$$M \mapsto (\pi : TM \rightarrow M)$$

$$F : M \rightarrow N \mapsto dF : TM \rightarrow TN$$

Chapter 4:

Submersions, immersions and embeddings

4.1 Basic definitions

Definition. Let $F : M \rightarrow N$ be smooth. The rank of F at $p \in M$ is the rank of the linear map $dF_p : T_p M \rightarrow T_{F(p)} N$.

Smooth maps, which have full rank (highest possible rank, i.e. $\text{rank} F = \max(m, n)$) are particularly important:

Definition. Let $F : M^m \rightarrow N^n$ be smooth. We say

- F is a submersion if dF_p is surjective, for all $p \in M$ ($m \geq n$)
- F is an immersion if dF_p is injective, for all $p \in M$ ($m \leq n$)

M^m, N^n means M, N are m, n dimensional manifolds

Lemma 4.1. Given $(m, n) \in \mathbb{N}_+ \times \mathbb{N}_+$, let $\text{Mat}(m \times n) \equiv \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$. The subset $\text{Mat}(m \times n)^{\text{full rank}} := \{A \in \text{Mat}(m \times n) \mid A \text{ has full rank}\}$ is open in $\text{Mat}(m \times n)$.

Proof. Fix $M \in \text{Mat}(m \times n)^{\text{full rank}}$. Without loss of generality $m \leq n$, otherwise apply $\text{Mat}(m \times n) \rightarrow \text{Mat}(n \times m), A \mapsto A^T$. By definition there exists a submatrix M' , obtained by deleting $n - m$ columns, which is invertible. Now the map

$$\text{Mat}(m \times n) \xrightarrow{F: M \mapsto M'} \text{Mat}(m \times m) \xrightarrow{\det(\cdot)} \mathbb{R}$$

is continuous, since both the forgetful F and \det is smooth.

$$M \in (\det \circ F)^{-1}(\underbrace{\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}}_{\text{open}}) \subset \text{Mat}(m \times n)^{\text{full rank}}$$

since M was arbitrary this completes the proof.

M is fixed and F depends on M , but it does not matter here!

4.00

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}}_M \xrightarrow{F: M \mapsto M'} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{M'} \xrightarrow{\det(\cdot)} 1 \in \mathbb{R}$$

Figure 4.1: Sketch 4.00

□

Lemma 4.2. Fix $F : M^m \rightarrow N^n, p \in M$.

1. If dF_p is injective, then there exists a neighborhood of p on which dF is injective.
2. If dF_p is surjective, then there exists a neighborhood of p on which dF is surjective.

The property of full rank is stable under small perturbation!

Proof. This is a local statement. We can therefore assume that M, N are open subsets of $\mathbb{R}^m, \mathbb{R}^n$ respectively. Then

$$dF_{(\cdot)} : M \rightarrow \text{Mat}(n \times m)$$

is smooth, hence continuous. By assumption $dF_p \in \text{Mat}(n \times m)^{\text{full rank}}$. But $\text{Mat}(n \times m)^{\text{full rank}}$, so the preimage is open (by lemma 4.1) and contains p . □

Remark.

1. If $F : M \rightarrow N$ is both an immersion and a submersion, then we say that F is a **local diffeomorphism**. We will see (by the rank theorem 4.3) that F is a local diffeomorphism $\iff \forall p \in M \exists p \in U : F|_U$ is a diffeomorphism.
2. be warned. local diffeomorphism need not be global:

important: contains both a definition and a counterexample!

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{R}^2 \equiv \mathbb{C} \supset S^1 = \{ |z| = 1 \} &\rightarrow S^1 \\ (x, y) \mapsto x + iy & \quad z \longmapsto z^2 \end{aligned}$$

Definition. An immersion is an **embedding** if it is a homeomorphism onto its image with the subspace topology.



Figure 4.2: Sketch 4.01

Example. Another example:

$$S^n = \{(x_0, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{1+n} \mid \sum x_i^2 = 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{1+n}$$

with

$$i : S^n \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{1+n}$$

Non-examples

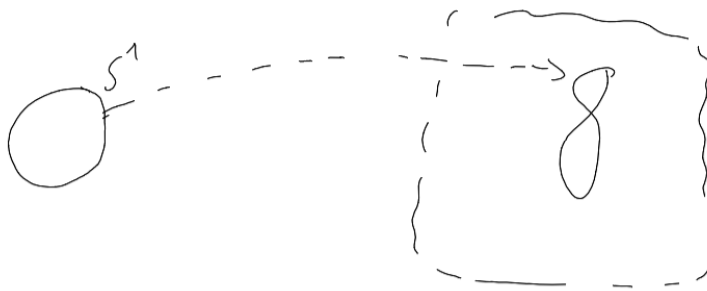


Figure 4.3: Sketch 4.02

parametrized by

$$t \mapsto (\sin t, \sin 2t)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{R} &\mapsto \mathbb{R}^2 / \mathbb{Z}^2 = S^1 \times S^1 \\ t &\mapsto (t, \alpha t), \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \end{aligned}$$

Can show¹ that the image is dense. It is an immersion, but not a homeomorphism!

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4.2 The rank theorem

Theorem 4.3 (rank theorem). *Let $F : M^m \rightarrow N^n$ be a smooth map of constant rank r . For each $p \in M$, there exist charts $(U, \varphi) : p \in U$ and $(V, \psi) : F(U) \subset V$, such that*

$$\hat{F} := \psi \circ F \circ \varphi^{-1} :$$

Figure 4.4: Sketch 4.03
 \hat{F} takes the form

$$\hat{F}(x_1, \dots, x_r, x_{r+1}, \dots, x_m) = (x_1, \dots, x_r, 0, \dots, 0)$$

This is arguably the most important result of the first half of the course. There is a lot of results in [2], what is actually useful? Implied answer: Rank theorem

Remark. By lemma 4.2, if F has full rank at $p \in M$, then

- if $m = r \geq n$, then F is an submersion near p and

$$\hat{F}(x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots, x_m) = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

- $m = r \leq n$, then F is an immersion near p , and

$$\hat{F}(x_1, \dots, x_m) = (x_1, \dots, x_m, 0, \dots, 0)$$

- $m = n \implies$ up to the diffeomorphism, \hat{F} is just the identity

Up to diffeomorphism there is only one map of constant, full, rank

Remark. This theorem is a non-linear generalization of the following linear algebra fact: $L : V^m \rightarrow W^n$, then there are linear maps $\varphi : V^m \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{R}^m$, $\psi : W^n \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{R}^n$, such that $\hat{L} := \psi \circ L \circ \varphi^{-1}$ takes the form

$$\hat{L}(x_1, \dots, x_r, x_{r+1}, \dots, x_m) = (x_1, \dots, x_r, 0, \dots, 0),$$

where $r = \text{rank}(L)$.

¹not obvious, non-examable

Proof of theorem 4.3. **Step 0:** We might as well assume that $M = U \subset \mathbb{R}^m, N = V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, since we only make a local statement up to diffeomorphism. We may also assume, up to reordering the coordinates, that the matrix $(\partial_{x_i} F^j(p))_{1 \leq i, j \leq r}$ is invertible for $p \in U$. We label our coordinates:

$$(x_1, \dots, x_r, y_1, \dots, y_{m-r})$$

see [2]

source coordinates in U

$$(v_1, \dots, v_r, \dots, w_1, \dots, w_{n-r})$$

Tarkget coordiantes

and wlog $F(0, 0) = (0, 0)$.

We write $F(x, y) = \underbrace{Q(x, y)}_{v\text{-coordinates}}, \underbrace{R(x, y)}_{w\text{-coordinates}}$. Notice that $(\partial_{x_i} Q^j)$ is non-singular.

Step 1: Define $\varphi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, \varphi(x, y) = (Q(x, y), y)$. Then

$$d\varphi_{(0,0)} = \begin{pmatrix} \underbrace{\partial_{x_i} Q^j}_{\in \text{Mat}(r \times r)} & \partial_{y_i} Q^j \\ 0 & \underbrace{1}_{\in \text{Mat}((n-r) \times (n-r))} \end{pmatrix}$$

\Rightarrow by the inverse function theorem, there exist connected neighborhoods $U_0 \subset U, \tilde{U}_0 \subset \text{Mat}((n-r) \times (n-r)) \cap \varphi(U)$, such that $\varphi|_{U_0} : U_0 \rightarrow \tilde{U}_0$. We may as well assume that \tilde{U}_0 is a cube, i.e. $(-\epsilon, \epsilon)^n$.

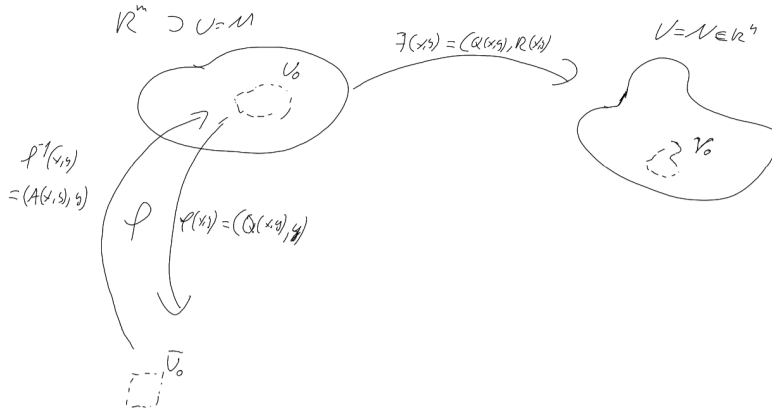


Figure 4.5: Sketch 4.04

While $\varphi^{-1}(x, y) = (A(x, y), B(x, y))$, for some $A : \tilde{U}_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^r, B : \tilde{U}_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m-r}$. We compute

$$(x, y) = \varphi \circ \varphi^{-1}(x, y) = \varphi(A(x, y), B(x, y)) = (Q(A(x, y), B(x, y)), B(x, y)) \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} x = Q(A(x, y), B(x, y)) \\ y = B(x, y) \end{matrix}$$

Hence $\varphi^{-1}(x, y) = (A(x, y), y)$.

Step 2: Observe that

$$F \circ \varphi^{-1}(x, y) = (Q(\varphi^{-1}(x, y)), R(\varphi^{-1}(x, y))) = (x, \tilde{R}(x, y)),$$

where

$$\tilde{R}(x, y) = R(\varphi^{-1}(x, y)).$$

Then

$$d(F \circ \varphi^{-1}) = \begin{pmatrix} \underbrace{\partial_{x_i} \tilde{R}^j}_{\in \text{Mat}(r \times r)} & 0 \\ \partial_{y_i} \tilde{R}^j & \end{pmatrix}$$

But the rank of $d(F \circ \varphi^{-1})$ is r , because φ^{-1} is a diffeomorphism and F has rank r

- Since $1_{r \times r}$ has rank r , we must have $\partial_{y_i} \tilde{R} \equiv 0$

We write $S(x) := \tilde{R}(x, y)$, we now have

$$F \circ \varphi^{-1}(x, y) = (x, S(x)) \quad (1)$$

Step 3: Recall

$$\begin{aligned} F : U &\rightarrow V \subset \mathbb{R}^n \\ F(0, 0) &= (0, 0) \end{aligned}$$

Let $V_0 \subset V$ be defined as follows:

$$V_0 := \{(v, w) \in V \mid (v, 0) \in \tilde{U}_0\}$$

By (1), $F \circ \varphi^{-1}(\tilde{U}_0) \subset V_0$. Hence $F(U_0) \subset V_0$. Set $\psi : V_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, $\psi(v, w) = (v, w - S(v))$. Clearly ψ is a diffeomorphism, since

$$(v, w) \mapsto (v, w + S(v))$$

is an inverse. $\implies (V_0, \psi)$ is a smooth chart.

$$\hat{F} := \psi \circ F \circ \phi^{-1} = \Psi(x, S(x)) = (x, S(x) - S(x)) = (x, 0) \quad \square$$

Remark. *This is one theorem you should really not forget! If you continue to think about Manifolds in your life, this is really useful! Do not remember the proof, remember the statement!*

to make clear \tilde{R} does not really depend on y

$S(v)$ makes perfect sense, since both x, v have r entries

Chapter 5:

Submanifolds

5.1 Basic definitions

Definition. Let M be a topological manifold. A subset $S \subset M$ is a topological submanifold, if S is a topological manifold with the subspace topology.

Example. $S^n = \{(x_0, \dots, x_n) \mid \sum x_i^2 = 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{1+n}$

Example (Non-example). $\{(x, y) \mid x = 0 \vee y = 0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, since this is not a manifold (see sheet 01).

Definition. Let M be a smooth manifold. A topological submanifold $S \subset M$ is a smooth submanifold, if it is equipped with a smooth structure, s.t. the embedding $i : S \hookrightarrow M$ is smooth.

Example. If M is a smooth manifold and $U \subset M$ open, then $U \subset M$ is a smooth manifold.

With the restricted smooth structure of M

Remark. Some authors (including Lee's textbook) use the term embedded submanifold to distinguish from immersed submanifolds. For use “submanifolds” \equiv “embedded submanifold”.

Lemma 5.1. Suppose that $f : M \rightarrow N$ smooth embedding. Let $S := f(M) \subset N$. Then S admits a unique smooth structure making it a smooth submanifold, with the property that f is a diffeomorphism onto its image.

Proof. By definition of f being an embedding, f is a homeomorphism onto its image, with the subspace topology. $\implies S$ is a topological manifold.

We define a smooth atlas on S by taking $\{(f(U), \varphi \circ f^{-1})\}$, as (U, φ) ranges over the set of charts for M .

Clearly f is a diffeomorphism, since $\varphi \circ f \circ f^{-1} \circ \psi^{-1}$, for $(U, \varphi), (V, \psi)$ smooth charts, this follows from the fact that $(U, \varphi), (V, \psi)$ are smoothly compatible on M .

This is the only smooth atlas with the property that f is a diffeomorphism, if \mathcal{B} is an other such atlas, then the fact that f is a diffeomorphism for $(S, \mathcal{B}) \iff (S, \mathcal{A})$ compatible.

Finally

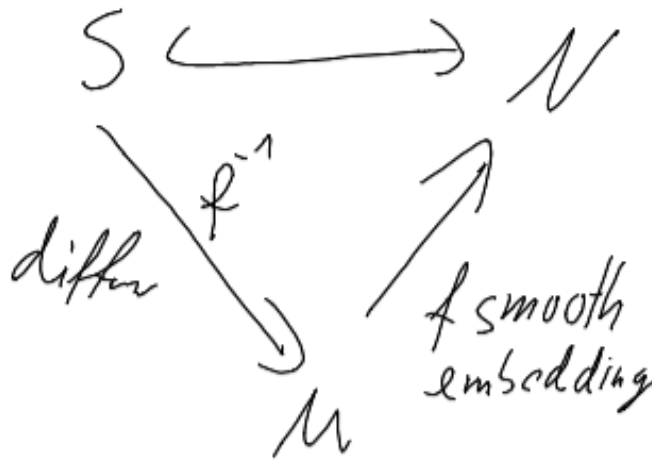


Figure 5.1: Sketch 5.01

so i is a smooth embedding. □

Definition. A embedded submanifold S is called properly embedded, if the inclusion map $i \hookrightarrow N$ is proper (i.e. the preimage of a compact set is compact).

Example. $S^n \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ properly embedded.

Example (Non-example). $S^n \setminus \{pt\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$

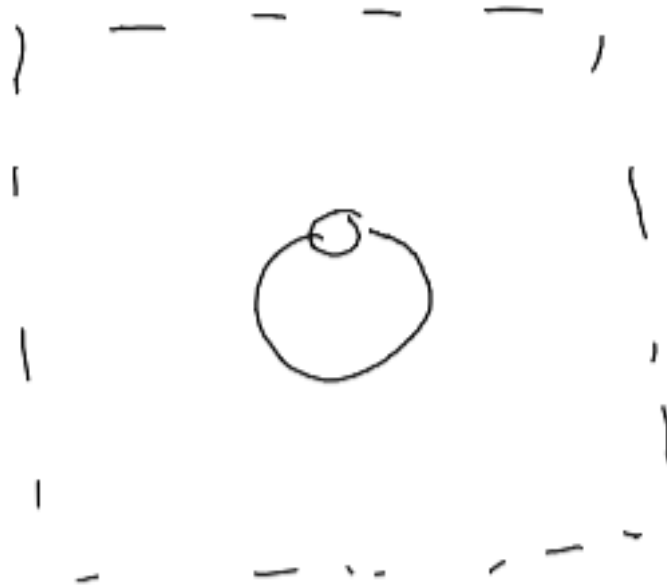


Figure 5.2: Sketch 5.02

Lemma 5.2. A topological submanifold $S \subset N$ is properly embedded iff S is closed.

Proof. Exercise.

□ Elementary exercise in point set topology

5.2 The “slice lemma”

Theorem 5.3 (Slice lemma^a). (a) Suppose $S^k \subset M^n$ is a submanifold of codimension $n - k$. Then, for all $p \in S$, there exists a chart $(V, \psi), p \in U \subset N$, such that

$$\psi(V \cap S) = \{(x_1, \dots, x_k, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n) \in \psi(V) \mid x_{k+1} = c_{k+1}, \dots, x_n = c_n\}.$$

this is also a definition of codimension:
 $\dim M - \dim S$



Figure 5.3: Sketch 5.03

(b) Suppose that $S \subset N$ is a subset with the property that, for all $p \in S$, there exists a slice chart $(V, \psi), p \in V \subset N$, such that

$$\psi(V \cap S) = \{(x_1, \dots, x_k, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n) \in \psi(V) \mid x_{k+1} = c_{k+1}, \dots, x_n = c_n\},$$

then S admits a smooth manifold structure making it a smooth submanifold of N .

^aLee [2] calls it a theorem

Start of lecture 10
 (12.11.2024)
 The converse of (a)

Remark. • We get an equivalent theorem by requiring $c_{k+1} = \dots = c_n = 0$

- Part (b) of theorem 5.3 tells us, that being a smooth submanifold $S \subset N$ of ambient smooth manifold N is a property property of the subset. It suffices to check, pointwise, the local property described above!

Proof. (a): By assumption $S \hookrightarrow N$ is an immersion. By theorem 4.3 (rank theorem), there exists charts $(\bar{U}, \bar{\varphi}), (V, \psi)$ such that $i(U) \subset V$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{i} &= \psi \circ i \circ \bar{\varphi}^{-1} : \bar{\varphi}(U) \rightarrow \psi(V) \\ (x_1, \dots, x_k) &\mapsto (x_1, \dots, x_k, 0, \dots, 0) \end{aligned}$$

Up to shrinking ψ (restricting the image of φ), we find that

$$\psi(V \cap S) = \{(x_1, \dots, x_k, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n) \mid x_{k+1} = \dots = x_n = 0\}$$

Warning: What can go wrong here? Consider

Locally, all immersions look the same

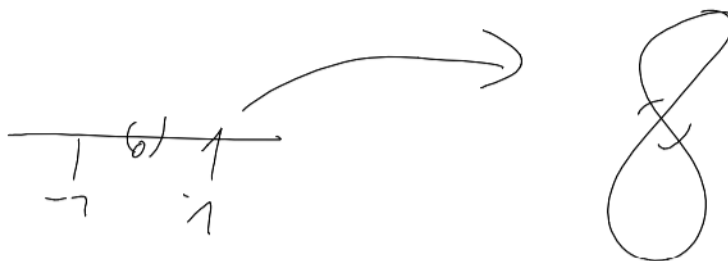


Figure 5.4: Sketch 5.04

Show that there is no more stuff in the set!

(b): We have to check that the local charts given form an atlas. Which is almost a tautology and quite tedious, as we can use $\{S \cap V, \psi|_S\}$ as the atlas. \square

Remark (+Exercise). In section 2.1.2, example 4, we considered $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^{1+n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We assumed $d\Phi$ is nonzero on the set $\Phi^{-1}(0) \subset \mathbb{R}^{1+n}$. Under this assumption, we proved that $\Phi^{-1}(0)$ is a naturally smooth manifold. Using theorem 5.3 (or by hand) $\Phi^{-1}(0)$ is a smooth submanifold.

A priori, $S \subset N$ could admit multiple smooth structures making it a submanifold. We now seek to show that this is not the case.

Lemma 5.4. Let $S \subset N$ be a submanifold. If $F : M \rightarrow N$ is a smooth map which factors through $S \hookrightarrow N$ as a continuous map, then F is smooth as a map $M \rightarrow S$.

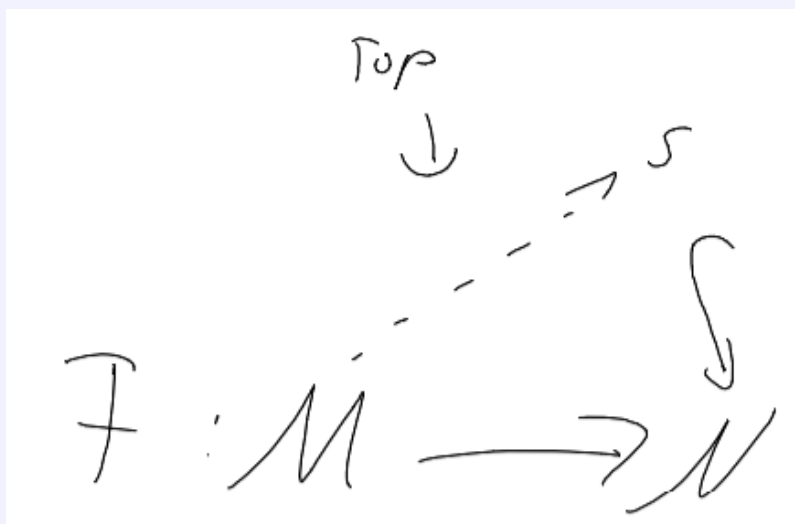


Figure 5.5: Sketch 5.05

Proof. By theorem 5.3, there exists $U \subset S \hookrightarrow N \supset V$

More by the proof of the theorem ...

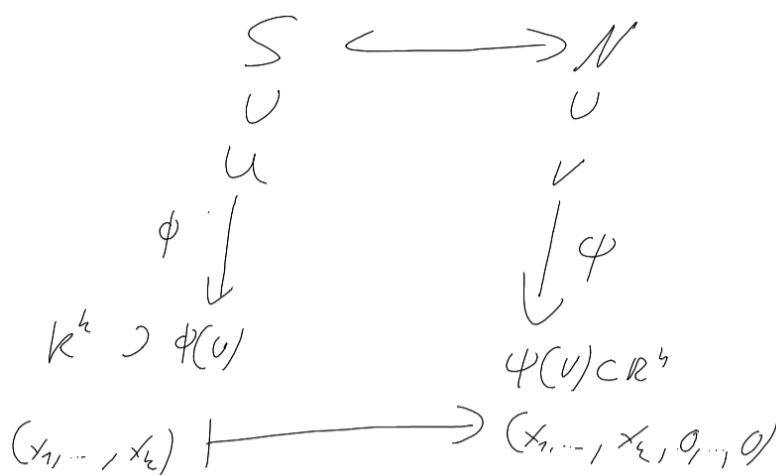


Figure 5.6: Sketch 5.06

Let us call $\check{F}: M \rightarrow S, \check{F}(x) = F(x)$. Since \check{F} is continuous, $\check{F}^{-1}(U) \subset M$ open. So, we can write, for $(W, U), W \subset \check{F}^{-1}(U)$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} F^{-1}(U) & \xrightarrow{F^\vee} & S \\ \downarrow \cup & & \downarrow \cup \\ W & \xrightarrow{\quad} & U \end{array}$$

$$(x_1, \dots, x_m) \longrightarrow (F^{\vee 1}(x_1, \dots, x_m), \dots, F^{\vee k}(x_1, \dots, x_m))$$

Figure 5.7: Sketch 5.07

were, a priori, \check{F}^i are continuous.

Concatenating the two diagrams, we find that

$F(x_1, \dots, x_m) = i \circ \check{F}(x_1, \dots, x_m) = (F^1(x_1, \dots, x_m), \dots, F^k(x_1, \dots, x_m), 0, \dots, 0)$. But then each \check{F}^i has to be smooth and therefore \check{F} is smooth. \square

Lemma 5.5. *Let $S \subset M$ be a subset satisfying the conditions of theorem 5.3 (b), then the smooth structure produced by the theorem is the unique smooth structure, such that $S \hookrightarrow M$ is a smooth submanifold.*

Proof. Let \tilde{S} be a copy of S , but endowed with some possibly different smooth structure s.t. $\tilde{S} \hookrightarrow M$ is an embedding.

$\tilde{S} \hookrightarrow M$ factors through S , so $\tilde{S} \xrightarrow{\text{id}} S$ smooth. Similarly $S \xrightarrow{\text{id}} \tilde{S}$ smooth. \square

Ergo it is a smooth submanifold of M . This uses lemma 5.4

5.3 The (weak) Whitney embedding theorem

Theorem 5.6 (Whitney). *Every compact n -dimensional smooth manifold admits an embedding into \mathbb{R}^N for $N \gg 1$ large enough.*

Remark. *Later (probably this month), we will remove the compactness assumption and also argue that one can take $N = 2n + 1$.*

Whitney proofed that one can take $N = 2n$.

Don't sue him, if he is off by one :)

Added remark. *This is a very philosophically pleasing statement, since we recover our intuition of embedded manifold from the abstract theory. It is also true, that there is only one embedding (up to isotopy).*

Proof of theorem 5.6. Fix a finite cover of M $\{B_1, \dots, B_k\}$, $B_i \subset M$ open. We may as well assume that there exist charts (B'_i, ϕ_i) , $\overline{B}_i \subset B'_i$, $\phi_i(B'_i) = B_1(0) \subset \mathbb{R}^m$. Let $\rho_i : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a cutoff function for $(\overline{B}_i \subset B'_i)$, i.e. $\rho_i|_{\overline{B}_i} \equiv 1, \text{supp}(\rho_i) \subset B'_i, 0 \leq \rho_i \leq 1$. The existence of the ρ_i follows from proposition 2.8. We now define

$$F : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{mk+k}$$

$$p \mapsto (\rho_1(p) \underbrace{\varphi_1(p)}_{\in \mathbb{R}^m}, \dots, \rho_k(p) \varphi_k(p), \rho_1(p), \dots, \rho_k(p))$$

Notice the k comes from compactness, i.e. we have no control over it, as it its non-constructive

We will now see that F is an embedding. First, we will argue F is an injective immersion.

If $F(p) = F(q) \implies \rho_i(p) = \rho_i(q) \forall i = 1, \dots, k$. Let i_0 be such that $p \in B_{i_0}$. Then

$\rho_{i_0}(p) = 1 = \rho_{i_0}(q) \implies q \in \text{supp}(\rho_{i_0}) \subset B'_{i_0}$. But now

$\underbrace{\varphi_{i_0}(p)}_{\in \mathbb{R}^m} = \rho_{i_0}(p) \varphi_{i_0}(p) = \rho_{i_0}(q) \varphi_{i_0}(q) = \varphi_{i_0}(q)$. Hence $p, q \in B'_{i_0} \implies p = q$.

F is an immersion: Choose $p \in M$. Then $p \in B_{i_0}$, for some i_0 . Hence $\rho_{i_0} \equiv 1$ for some neighborhood of p .

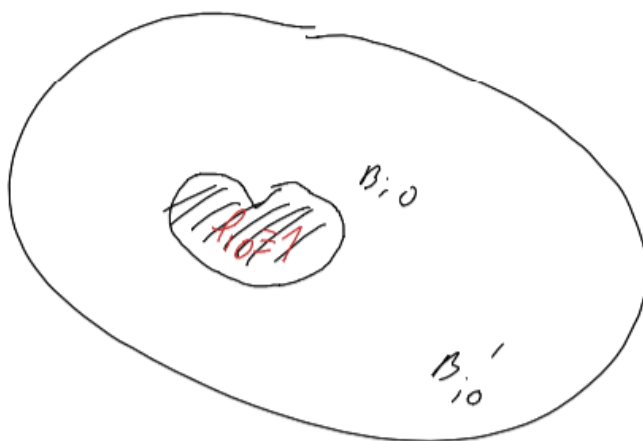


Figure 5.8: Sketch 5.08

Hence $d(\rho_{i_0} \varphi_{i_0}) = \underbrace{d\rho_{i_0}}_{\text{invertible } m \times m}$ near $p \implies dF$ is injective near p , but p was arbitrary.

Finally, since M is compact, the theorem follows from the following lemma 5.7.

I.e. it is enough to show that $F^{-1} : F(M) \rightarrow M$ is continuous, i.e. $F : M \rightarrow F(M)$ is a closed map. But since M is compact, F is proper $\xrightarrow{\text{lemma 5.7}}$ F closed.

Please add to your notes: (Said in lecture 11)

Kind of cheating ...

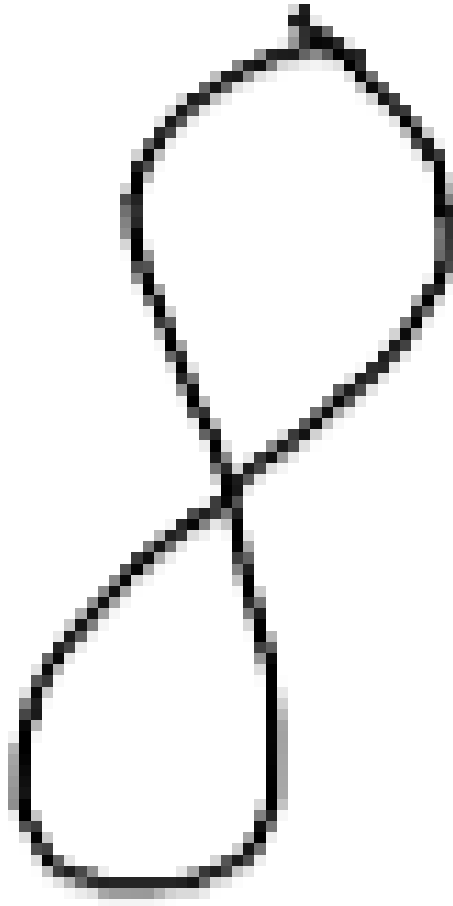


Figure 5.9: Sketch 6.04

Since $S \hookrightarrow N$ is an embedding, $i(U)$ is open in the subspace topology, so there exists $W \subset N$ such that $i(U) = S \cap W$.

□

Lemma 5.7 (Lee Appendix A: 57). *Let X be a topological space. Let Y be locally compact (e.g. a topological manifold), then any proper continuous map is closed.*

Chapter 6: Transversality

6.1 Basic definition

6.1.1 Motivation

Let $l_1, l_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ be (linear) lines. We will say that l_1, l_2 are **transverse**, if $\underbrace{T_0 l_1}_{l_1} \oplus \underbrace{T_1 l_2}_{l_2} = T_0 \mathbb{R}^2 \equiv \mathbb{R}^2$

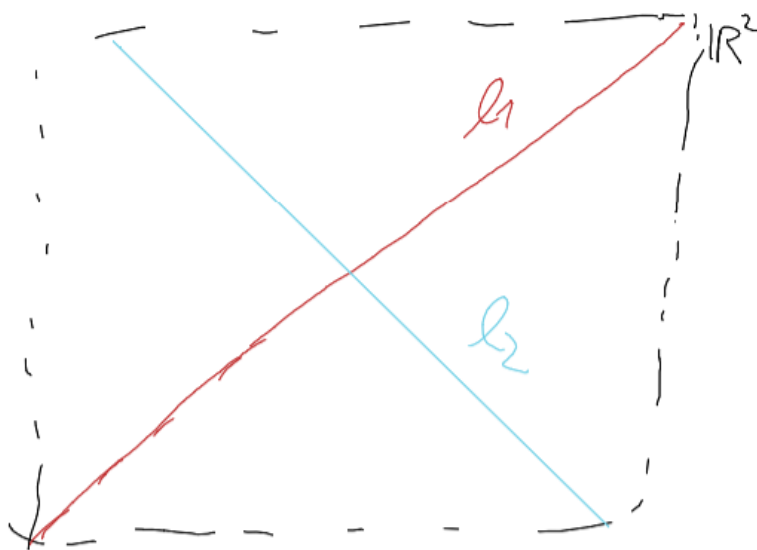


Figure 6.1: Sketch 6.01



Figure 6.2: Sketch 6.02

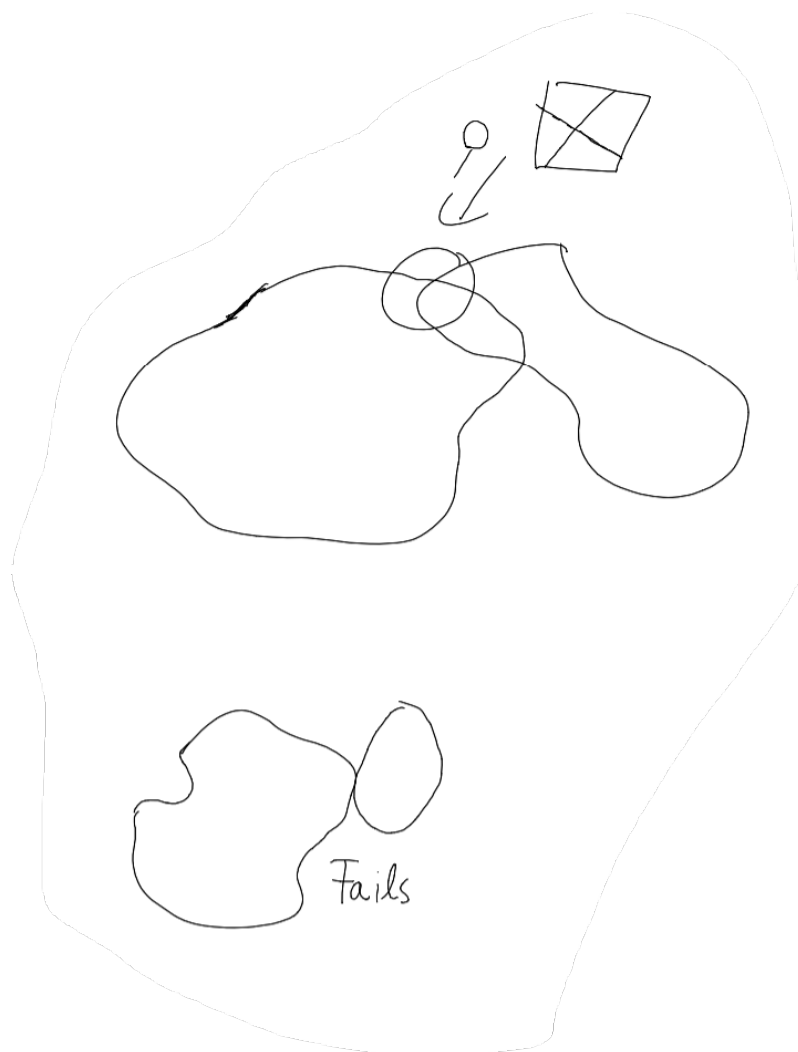


Figure 6.3: Sketch 6.03

Observations:

1. transversality is stable (slight changes to the lines don't change transversality)
2. transversality is generic (for pretty much any lines l_1, l_2 they are transverse)

Similarly to being full rank

One goal: Develop non-linear theory of transversality. I.e. replace $l_1, l_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ by manifolds. Both of the above observations will still be true.

Announcement On Tuesday, November 26, there will be a course evaluation.

Start of lecture 11
(15.11.2024)

- Please show up that day!
- Bring a phone / computer

6.1.2 Transversality for submanifolds

Let M be a smooth manifold.

Definition. We say that a pair of submanifolds $K, L \subset M$ are **transverse** at $p \in K \cap L$ if

$$T_p K + T_p L = T_p M.$$

Here the sum is a gain the span of both of them

We say that K, L are **transverse** and write $K \pitchfork L$.

Remark. In the literature, we also see “transversal”, “transversally intersecting”.

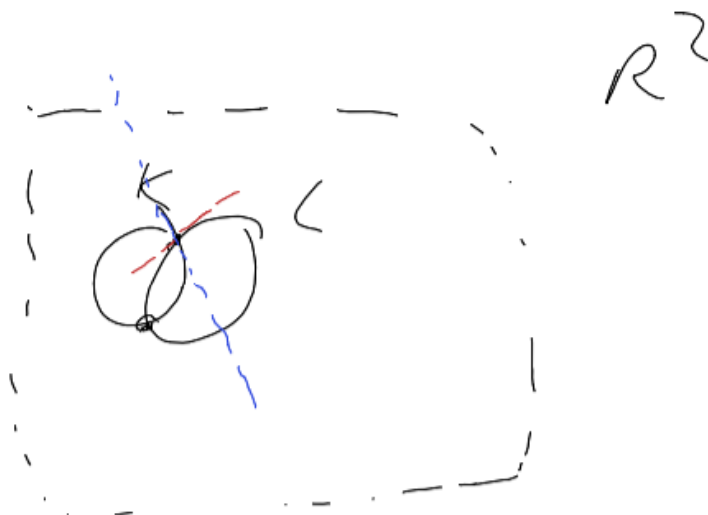


Figure 6.4: Sketch 6.05

Example. K, L are transverse.



Figure 6.5: Sketch 6.06

$T_p K = T_p L$, transversality fails.

Lemma 6.1. Let K^k, L^l be submanifolds of M . If K, L are transversal, then $K \cap L \subset M$ is a submanifold.

Key lemma for transversality

Remark. In general, if S, T are submanifolds of N , then $S \cap T$ need not be a topological submanifold. For example: $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2.$$

Let $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$g(x, y) = 0.$$

Let $S = \{(x, y, z) \mid z = f(x, y)\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{2+1}$ and $T = \{(x, y, z) \mid z = g(x, y)\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{2+1}$. But

$$S \cap T = \{(x, y, z) \mid z = 0, x^2 - y^2 = 0\}$$

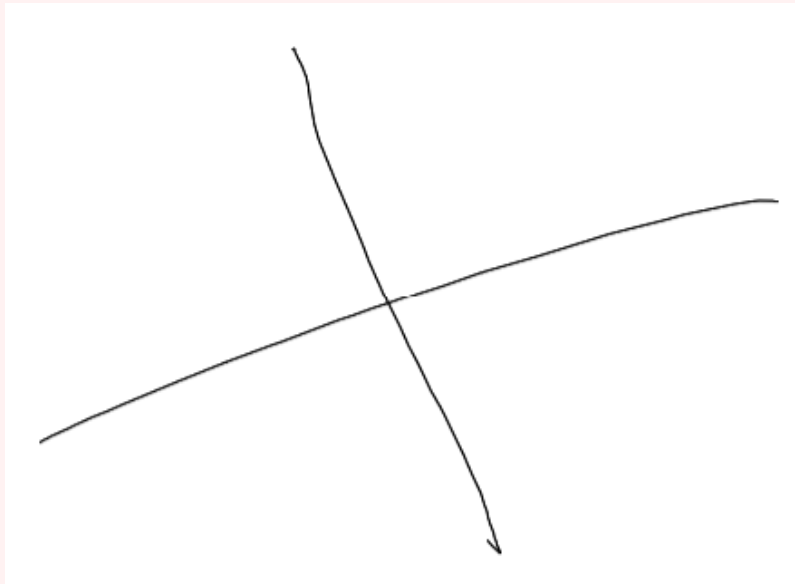


Figure 6.6: Sketch 6.07

Look at the derivative at 0

Proof. This is a local question, e.g. by theorem 5.3. So we may as well assume that $M = U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. We can also assume that $0 \in U$.

It is enough to check that $K \cap L$ smooth submanifold in a neighborhood of $p = 0$. By rank theorem (4.3), we may assume (after possibly further shrinking $U \ni 0$) that $K = f^{-1}(0)$, $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n-k}$, $L = g^{-1}(0)$, $g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n-l}$ where f, g have full rank.

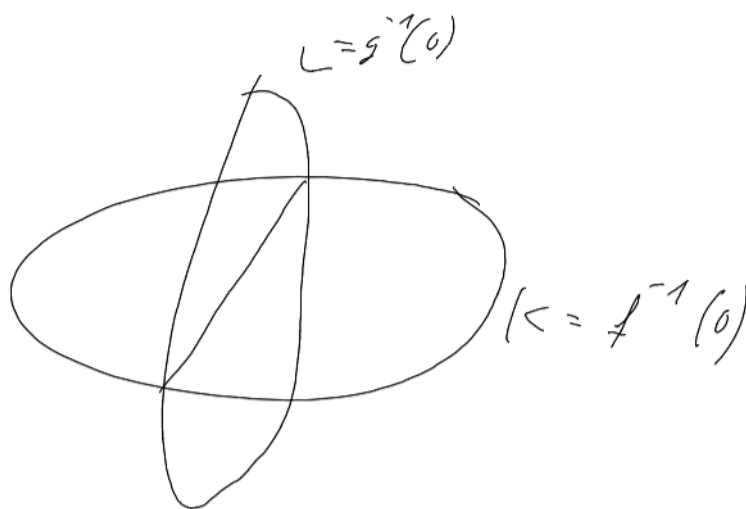


Figure 6.7: Sketch 6.08

Now we consider $H = (f, g) : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n-k} \oplus \mathbb{R}^{n-l}$. It is enough to prove that dH_0 is surjective (by the rank theorem). Note that $H^{-1}(0) = f^{-1}(0) \cap g^{-1}(0) = K \cap L$.

To see surjectivity of dH_0 , we consider the exact sequences:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 T_0L + T_0K & \longrightarrow & T_0L/(T_0L \cap T_0K) \oplus T_0K/(T_0L \cap T_0K) \\
 \downarrow \text{transversality} & & \downarrow (df_0, dg_0) \\
 \mathbb{R}^m \equiv T_0U & \xrightarrow{dH_0=(df_0, dg_0)} & \mathbb{R}^{n-k} \oplus \mathbb{R}^{m-l}
 \end{array}$$

Figure 6.8: Sketch 6.09

The horizontal map $T_0L + T_0K \rightarrow T_0L/(T_0L \cap T_0K) \oplus T_0K/(T_0L \cap T_0K)$ sends $v + w$ to (v, w) . This is well defined, because if $v + w = v' + w' \implies v - v' = w - w' \in T_0L \cap T_0K$. (Equivalently, this map is just quotient by $T_0L \cap T_0K$)

Clearly the R.H vertical arrow is injective: the kernel of $df_0 = T_0K$, so $(df_0)|_{T_0L/(T_0L \cap T_0K)}$ and similarly for dg_0 . To prove the R.H. vertical arrow is an isomorphism, do a dimension count:

Exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow T_0K \cap T_0L \xrightarrow{v \mapsto (v, v)} T_0K + T_0L \xrightarrow{(u, w) \mapsto u - w} T_0U \equiv \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow 0$$

$\implies \dim(T_0K \cap T_0L) + n = k + l \implies \dim(T_0L/(T_0K \cap T_0L)) = l - (k + l - n) = n - k$ and $\dim(T_0K/(T_0K \cap T_0L)) = k - (k + l - n) = n - l$. We conclude that the R.H. vertical arrow is an isomorphism. \square

Remark. We have

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 T_0L \cap T_0K & \hookrightarrow & T_0L + T_0K \\
 \downarrow \wr & & \downarrow \wr \\
 \ker(dH_0) & \hookrightarrow & T_0U \equiv \mathbb{R}^3
 \end{array}$$

Figure 6.9: Sketch 6.10

where the left vertical arrow is an isomorphism, due to the five lemma or diagram chasing. Hence $\ker(dH_0) = T_0L \cap T_0K = T_0(L \cap K)$.

6.1.3 Transversality of maps

Definition. Let

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & & Y \\
 & & \downarrow g \\
 X & \xrightarrow{f} & Z
 \end{array}$$

Figure 6.10: Sketch 6.11

be a diagram in Top (the category of topological spaces). We let $X \times_Z Y := \{(x, y) \mid f(x) = g(y)\} \subset X \times Y$, endowed with the subspace topology. We call $X \times_Z Y$ the **fiber product (of the diagram)**.

Remark (for enthusiasts only). It can be shown that given any topological space $W \in \text{Top}$ and maps

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 W & \longrightarrow & Y \\
 \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 X & \longrightarrow & Z
 \end{array}$$

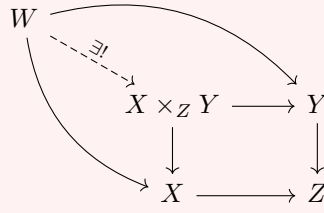


Figure 6.11: Sketch 6.12

there exists a unique map $W \rightarrow X \times_Z Y$ commutes. (Universal property)

Lots of categories admit fiber products! This is a good property for categories to have.

Bad news: The (not-full) subcategory $\text{Man}^\infty \subset \text{Top}$ does not admit fiber products (nor does $\text{Man}^0 \subset \text{Top}$).

Example (Non-example). $Z = \mathbb{R}^{2+1}$, $X = \text{graph}(x^2 - y^2)$, $Y = \text{graph}(0)$.

Definition. Let

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & Y & \\ & \downarrow g & \\ X & \xrightarrow{f} & Z \end{array}$$

Figure 6.12: Sketch 6.13

be a diagram in Man^∞ . We say that f, g are **transverse** at $z = f(x) = g(y)$ if

$$\text{im } df_x + \text{im } dg_y = T_z Z.$$

We say that f, g are **transverse** and say $f \pitchfork g$ if this holds for all such z .

Remark. Transversality for maps generalizes transversality for submanifolds. Take the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & Y & \\ & \downarrow & \\ X & \hookrightarrow & Z \end{array}$$

Figure 6.13: Sketch 6.14

Proposition 6.2. If $f \pitchfork g$, then $X \times_Z Y \xrightarrow{i} X \times Y$ is a smooth embedding.

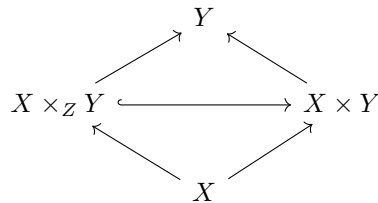


Figure 6.14: Sketch 6.15

Proof. Some observations:

- exercise sheet 07: $X \times_Z X \times Y$ is proper.
- similarly to the proof of theorem 5.6, it is enough to prove that i is an injective immersion. By definition i is injective. Therefore we need to check that i is smooth and the differential is injective.

The diagonal arrows are the obvious projections

Consider

$$\begin{array}{c} \Delta := (X, Y, Z, Z) \\ \downarrow \\ X \times Y \times Z \times Z \xrightarrow{\pi} X \times Y \\ \uparrow \\ W = \text{graph}(f, g) \end{array}$$

Figure 6.15: Sketch 6.16

where

$$\text{graph}(f, g) := \{(x, y, z_1, z_2) \mid z_1 = f(x), z_2 = g(y)\}.$$

Then

$$W \cap \Delta = \{(x, y, z_1, z_2) \mid z_1 = z_2 = f(x) = g(y)\} = X \times_Z Y.$$

We have:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} W \cap \Delta & \xhookrightarrow{j} & X \times X \times Z \times Z \\ \alpha \downarrow \wr & \searrow i & \swarrow \pi \\ X \times_Z Y & \hookrightarrow & X \times Y \end{array}$$

Figure 6.16: Sketch 6.17

α is clearly bijective and continuous. It is elementary that α is a closed map. That means we have to check the limit points. $W \cap \Delta$ is closed, i.e. contains the same limit points. . . Therefore α is a homeomorphism.

By lemma 6.1, if we can show that $W \pitchfork \Delta$, then $W \cap \Delta \xhookrightarrow{j} X \times Y \times Z \times Z$ is smooth embedding. Hence $i := \pi \circ j$ smooth. Let us now check that $W \pitchfork \Delta$ at some arbitrary point $p = (x, y, z, z) \in W \cap \Delta \subset X \times Y \times Z \times Z$. Note that $z = f(x) = g(y)$. We have

$$T_p W = \{(v, w, df_x(v), dg_y(w))\}$$

and

$$T_p \Delta = \{v', w', u, u\},$$

where $v, v' \in T_x X, w, w' \in T_y Y, u \in T_z Z$. We need to check: $T_p W + T_p \Delta = T_p(X \times Y \times Z \times Z)$. We must show that for an arbitrary $(a, b, c, d) \in T_p(X \times Y \times Z \times Z) = T_x X \oplus T_y Y \oplus T_z Z \oplus T_z Z$. We must solve:

$$\begin{aligned} a &= v + v' \\ b &= w + w' \\ c &= u + df_x(v) \\ d &= u + dg_y(w) \end{aligned}$$

for some $\underbrace{(v, w, df_x(v), dg_y(w))}_{\in T_p W}, (v', w', u, u) \in T_p \Delta$. The above is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} c - d &= df_x(v) - dg_y(w) \in T_z Z && \text{By assumption there exists } v, w \text{ s.t. equation holds} \\ c + d &= 2u + df_x(v) + dg_y(w) && \text{can solve by picking suitable } u \\ a - v &= v' && \\ b - w &= w' && \text{choose } v', w' \text{ s.t. this holds} \end{aligned}$$

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we solve this, since we want to show
 $f \pitchfork g \iff \forall z \in X \times_Z Y : \text{im} df + \text{im} dg = T_z Z$

Follows from Lemma 6.1 that

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \Delta \cap W & \hookrightarrow & X \times Y \times Z \times Z \xrightarrow{\pi} X \times Y \\ & \searrow i & \nearrow \\ & & \end{array}$$

is a smooth submanifold. Finally, d_i is injective. This is clear, because $T_p W \longrightarrow T_{(x,y)} X \times Y$ is injective. Indeed, if $(v, w, df_x(v), dg_y(w)) \mapsto 0$, then $(v, w) = (0, 0)$, but then $(v, w, df_x(v), dg_y(w)) = (0, 0, 0, 0)$. \square

6.2 Sard's theorem

6.2.1 Measure theory on manifolds

Definition. A subset $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ has measure zero if, for any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a family $\{C_i\}_{i=1}^\infty$ of rectangles:

$$\mathbb{R}^n \supset C_i = (a_1^i - \epsilon_1^i, a_1^i + \epsilon_1^i) \times \cdots \times (a_n^i - \epsilon_n^i, a_n^i + \epsilon_n^i),$$

where $(a_1^i, \dots, a_n^i) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $(\epsilon_1^i, \dots, \epsilon_n^i) \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}^n$, s.t.

$$S \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^\infty C_i \wedge \sum_{i=1}^\infty \text{vol}(C_i) < \epsilon.$$

Remark. We would get an equivalent definition, if we replaced rectangles with balls, cubes, parallelograms,...

Example. Suppose $S \subset \mathbb{R}^1$ and $|S| < \infty$, clearly S now has measure zero:
 $a_i \in S \implies (a_i - \epsilon, a_i + \epsilon)$ has finite volume $2n\epsilon$.

- $S \subset \mathbb{R}$, S countable. Then S has measure zero: Take $(a_i - \frac{\epsilon}{2^i}, a_i + \frac{\epsilon}{2^i})$

Lemma 6.3. (i) If $A \subset B \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and B has measure zero, then A has measure zero.

(ii) if $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a countable union of measure zero subsets, then A also has zero measure.

Proof. Emitted. \square

Lemma 6.4. Let $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be compact. Suppose that for all $c \in \mathbb{R} : A \cap \{c\} \times \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ has $(n-1)$ -dimensional measure zero. Then A has n -dimensional measure zero.

This is misleading ...

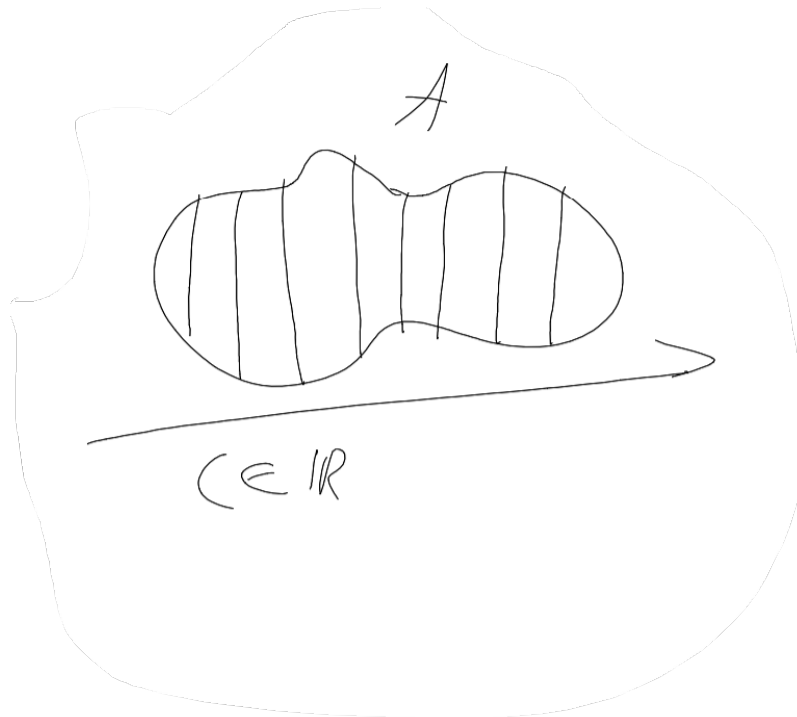


Figure 6.17: Sketch 6.18

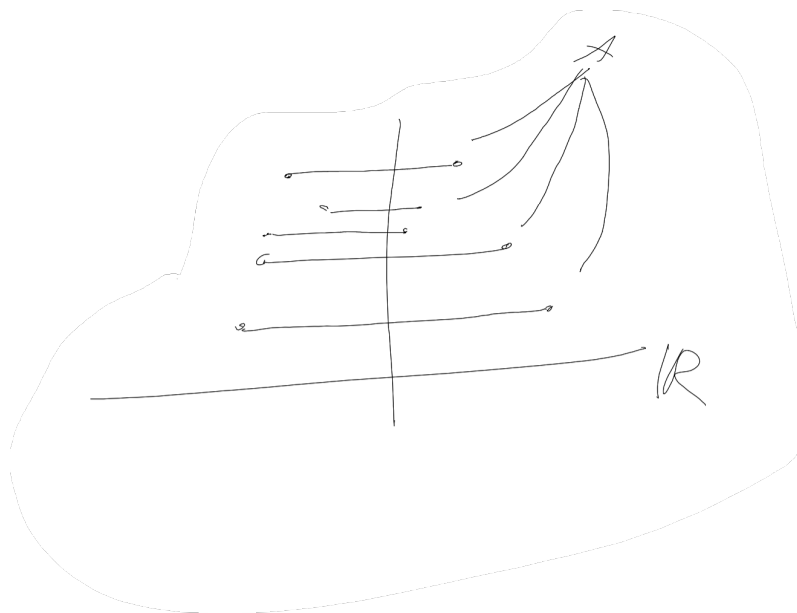


Figure 6.18: Sketch 6.19

Proof. Choose $a < b, a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ so that $A \subset (a, b) \times \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$. Let $A_c := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1} : (c, x) \in A\}$. Fix $\epsilon > 0$. By assumption, we can cover A_c by a union of rectangles $U_c := \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} C_c^i$ such that $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \text{vol}(C_c^i) < \epsilon$. By compactness there exists an open interval J_c such that $A \cap J_c \times \mathbb{R}^{k-1} \subset J_c \times U_c$.

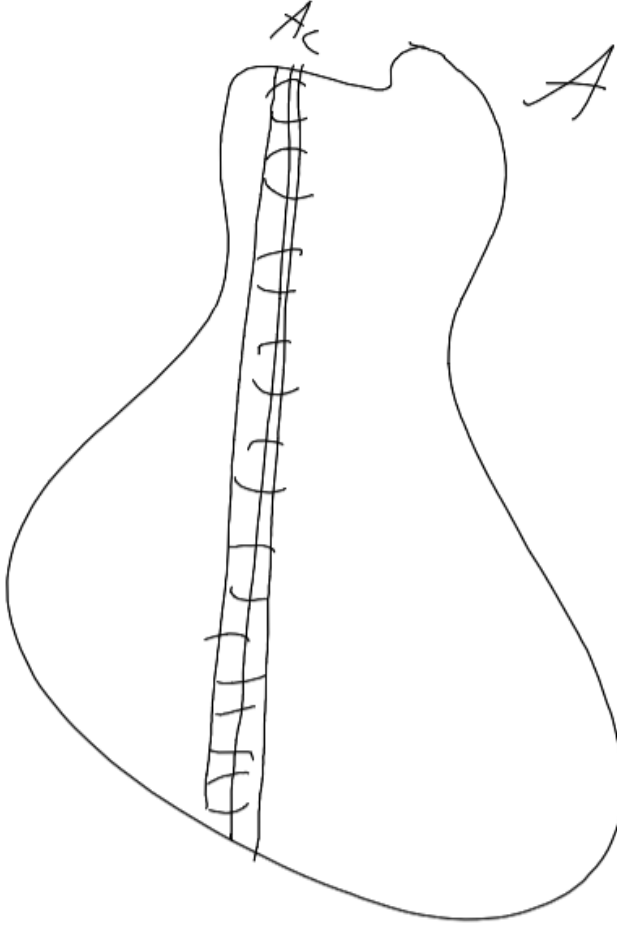


Figure 6.19: Sketch 6.20

Otherwise, there exists a sequence $(c_i, x_i), c_i \rightarrow c \wedge x_i \notin U_c \wedge (c_i, x_i) \in A$. By compactness one can extract a convergent subsequence $\rightarrow (c, x) \in A, x \in U_c^C$. This is impossible, since $A \subset U_c$. By compactness of $[a, b]$, there is a finite sequence $a = c_1 < c_2 < \dots < c_l = b$ such that

Since A compact

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^l J_{c_i} \text{ covers } [a, b].$$

We can freely assume up to deleting certain J_{c_i} that $\sum \text{vol}(J_{c_i}) < 2|b - a|$. Finally:
 $A \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^l J_{c_i} \times U_{c_i}$. But

He writes $|J_{c_i}| \dots$

$$\text{vol}(J_{c_i} \times U_{c_i}) \leq \sum |J_{c_i}| \times |U_{c_i}| \leq \epsilon \sum |J_{c_i}| = 2\epsilon|b - a|$$

□

Corollary 6.5. Let $f : \underbrace{A}_{\subset \mathbb{R}^n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$, where A is a countable union of compact subsets (e.g. A could be open or closed) and f continuous. Then the graph of f :

$$\text{graph}(f) = \{(x, y) \mid y = f(x)\}$$

has measure zero as a subset of \mathbb{R}^{n+1} .

$\mathbb{R}^n \times \{c\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ is a measure zero set

Proof. Assume A compact. Argue by induction. If $n = 0$, trivial. Assume that the result holds for $\leq n + 1$. Observe that $\forall c \in \mathbb{R}, \text{graph}(f) \cap \{c\} \times \mathbb{R}^{(n-1)+1} = \text{graph}\left(f|_{\{c\} \times \mathbb{R}^{n-1}}\right)$, which by

induction has measure zero. Hence follows from Lemma 6.4. For general A , write $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} K_i$. Then

Holds by Lemma 6.3

$$\text{graph}(f) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{\text{graph}(f|_{K_i})}_{\text{measure zero}}$$

□

Lemma 6.6. *Let $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, let $F : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be smooth. If A has measure zero, so does $F(A)$.*

Remark. *Smoothness is important. The lemma would be false if we only assume F to be continuous. Example: F the cantor function. Smoothness is way to strong. Absolutely continuous functions are the correct class.*

Proof of lemma 6.6. By definition, for any $p \in A$, F extends to a smooth map on a neighborhood of p . Up to shrinking this neighborhood U_p that F extends to $\overline{U_p}$. We can also assume that U_p is a ball. Note that $A \subset \bigcup_{p \in A} U_p$. By lemma 1.5, we can extract a countable subcover. Hence it is enough to prove that $F(A) \cap U_p$ has measure zero for all $p \in A$. By Taylor's theorem, F is uniformly continuous on $\overline{U_p}$, and we have

Here we use smoothness

$$|F(x) - F(y)| < Q|x - y| \quad (1)$$

for all $x, y \in \overline{U_p}$. Fix $\delta > 0$. Since $A \cap \overline{U_p}$ has measure zero, can cover $A \cap \overline{U_p}$ by a countable union of balls C_i , such that $\sum_i \text{vol}(C_i) < \delta$. By (1),

$$\text{diam}(F(\overline{U_p} \cap C_i)) < Q' \text{diam}(C_i)$$

, where $Q' \leq 100Q$. $\implies F(A \cap \overline{U_p})$ is contained in a countable union of balls D_i of diameter $\leq Q' \text{diam}(C_i)$. Hence

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \text{vol}(D_i) < Q' \sum \text{vol}(C_i) < 100^n Q' \delta.$$

□

Definition. *Let M be a manifold. A subset $S \subset M$ has measure zero, if, for all charts (U, ϕ) , $\phi(S \cap U)$ has measure zero in \mathbb{R}^n .*

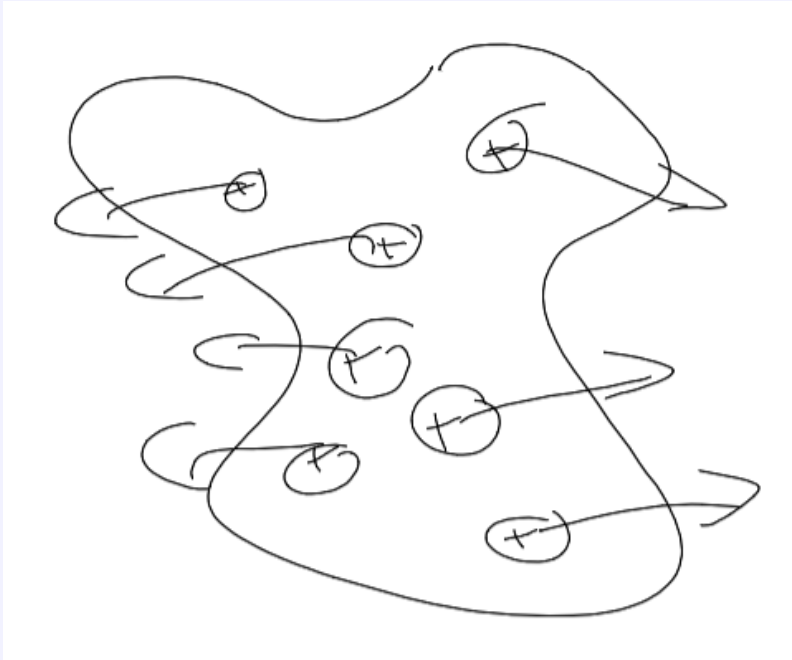


Figure 6.20: Sketch 6.21

Lemma 6.7. *If $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{A}'$ is an inclusion of atlases. Then S has measure zero w.r.t. $\mathcal{A} \iff S$ has measure zero w.r.t. \mathcal{A}' .*

Proof. Assume that S has measure zero w.r.t. \mathcal{A} , i.e. $\phi_\alpha(S \cap U_\alpha)$ has measure zero for all charts (U_α, ϕ_α) . Assume (V, ψ) is a chart for \mathcal{A}' . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(S \cap V) &= \psi\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}} (U_\alpha \cap S) \cap V\right) \\ &= \psi\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}} (U_\alpha \cap S \cap V)\right) \\ &= \psi\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}} \phi_\alpha^{-1} \circ \phi_\alpha(U_\alpha \cap S \cap V)\right) \\ &= \bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}} \underbrace{\psi \circ \phi_\alpha^{-1}(\phi_\alpha(U_\alpha \cap S \cap V))}_{\text{measure by smoothness}} \end{aligned}$$

because the U_α form a cover of M , up to replacing \mathcal{A} by a countable cover. \square

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Compare lemma 6.6

Lemma 6.8. *Let M, N be smooth manifolds and $f : M \rightarrow N$ a smooth map. If $A \subset M$ has measure zero, then $F(A) \subset N$ also has measure zero.*

Proof. Fix $\{(U_\alpha, \varphi_\alpha)\}$ a countable atlas for M . We need to show that given any chart (V, ψ) on N , $\psi(V \cap F(A))$ has measure zero. We may as well assume that $F(A) \subset V$ (otherwise replace A with $F^{-1}(A) \cap V$). Observe that $\psi(F(A))$ is the countable union of these sets $\psi(F(\phi_i^{-1}(\phi_i(A \cap U_i))))$:

$$\psi(F(A)) = \bigcup_i \psi(F(\phi_i^{-1}(\phi_i(A \cap U_i)))).$$

But $\phi_i(A \cap U)$ has measure zero and $\psi \circ F \circ \phi_i^{-1}$ is a smooth function, which is applied to a subset of measure zero of \mathbb{R}^n . Therefore the set has measure zero by lemma 6.6 along with the fact that countable unions of measure zeros subsets have measure zero (lemma 6.3). \square

6.2.2 Sard's theorem

Definition. *Let $F : M \rightarrow N$ be smooth. Given a point $x \in M$, we say that x is a **critical point** of F , if the differential $dF_x : T_x M \rightarrow T_{F(x)} N$ fails to be surjective. Otherwise we say that x is a **regular point**.*

This coincides with the analysis 1 definition

*A point $y \in N$ is a **critical value** if $F^{-1}(y)$ contains a critical point. Otherwise we say y is a **regular value**.*

Remark. *If $F^{-1}(y) = \emptyset \implies y$ is a regular value, but not the image of a regular point!*

Theorem 6.9 (Sard). *Let M, N be smooth manifolds. Let $F : M \rightarrow N$ be a smooth map. Then the set of critical values of $F \subset N$ has measure zero.*

Very important theorem

Example. $M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, M \ni x \mapsto 0 \in \mathbb{R}$. Here the set of **critical points** has full measure (since it is M), But the set of **critical values** is $\{0\} \subset \mathbb{R}$.

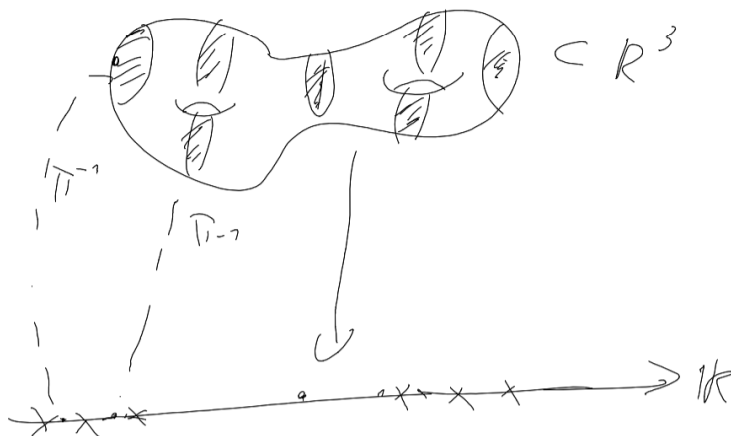


Figure 6.21: Sketch 6.22

Example. Morse theory: study the topology of manifolds by studying functions on them.

Corollary 6.10. Let $F : M^m \rightarrow N^n$ be a smooth map. If $m < n$, then $\text{im}(F) \subset N$ has measure zero.

Proof. Clear for dimensional reasons. \square

Corollary 6.11. Let $M^m \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ be a submanifold. Write $\mathbb{R}^{N-1} = \{(x_1, \dots, x_{N-1}, 0)\} \subset \mathbb{R}^N$. Given $v \in \mathbb{R}^N - \mathbb{R}^{N-1}$, we set $\pi_v : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{N-1}$ to be the projection with kernel $\mathbb{R} \cdot v$.

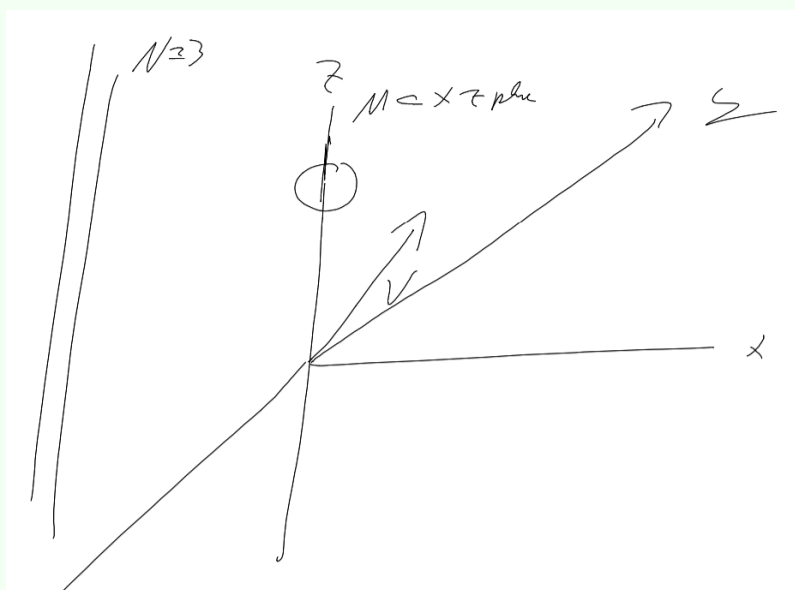


Figure 6.22: Sketch 6.23

Assume that $N > 2m + 1$. Then the set of $v \in \mathbb{R}^N \setminus \mathbb{R}^{N-1}$ such that $\pi_{v|_M} : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{N-1}$ is an injective immersion is non-empty. It is, in fact, dense^a.

^aIn $\mathbb{RP}^{N-1}, \mathbb{R}^N$

Example. Take $v = (0, 0, 1)$. Then $\pi_{(0,0,1)}(M = S^1) = [-1, 1]$, and not injective.

Example. $v = (1, 1, 1)$, $\pi_v(M = S^1) = S^1$, up to scaling of the axis.

Proof. Firstly, $\pi_{v|_M}$ is injective iff for all $p \in M$, $(p + tv)_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \cap M = \{p\}$.

Secondly, $\pi_v|_M$ is an immersion \iff for all $p \in M$, $T_p M \cap \ker d\pi_v = 0^1 \iff \overbrace{T_p M}^{\subset \mathbb{R}^N}$ does not contain v .

Let $\Delta \subset M \times M$ be the diagonal (i.e. $\Delta = \{(x, x) \mid x \in M\} \subset M \times M$). Let $0_M \subset TM$ be the **zero section**:

$$0_M := \{(p, 0) \in TM\} \subset TM$$

where

$$TM = \bigcup_{p \in M} T_p M.$$

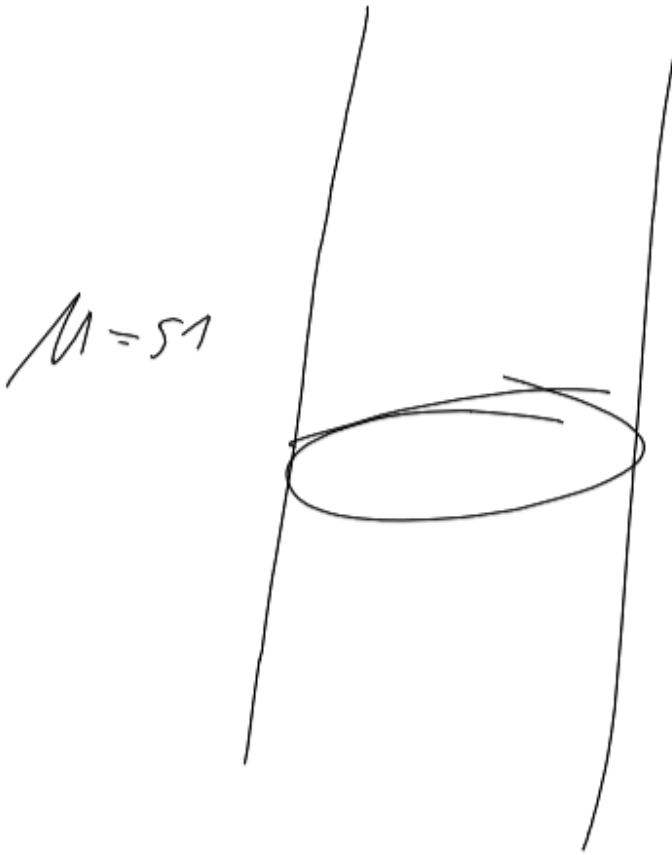


Figure 6.23: Sketch 6.24

Define

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha : M \times M \setminus \Delta &\rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^{N-1} \\ (p, q) &\mapsto [p - q] \\ \beta : TM \setminus 0_M &\rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^{N-1} \\ (p, w) &\mapsto [w] \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to check that α, β are smooth. Check α

$$(p, q) \mapsto \underbrace{p - q}_{\in \mathbb{R}^N \setminus \{0\}} \mapsto \underbrace{[p - q]}_{\in \mathbb{R}^N \setminus \{0\} / \mathbb{R}^\times} \equiv \mathbb{RP}^{N-1}.$$

¹i.e. the zero vector space

Note that $N - 1 > 2m$, and dimension of $M \times M \setminus \Delta$ and $TM - O_M$ is $2m$. It follows by corollary 6.10 that $\text{im}(\alpha) \cup \text{im}(\beta) \subset \mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^{N-1}$ has measure zero. Finally the conclusion follows from sheet 08. \square

To see that quotient maps are smooth is a good exercise for the exam

Corollary 6.12 (Strong Whitney embedding). *Suppose that M^m (compact) manifold. Then M admits an embedding into \mathbb{R}^{2m+1} .*

Remark. *Compactness is not a necessary assumption. But our proof. assumes compactness. If we use this, we don't have to use compactness.*

Proof. By theorem 5.6, M admits an embedding into \mathbb{R}^N , $N \gg 1$. If $N > 2m + 1$, then by corollary 6.11 there exists $v \in \mathbb{R}^N \setminus \mathbb{R}^{N-1}$, such that $\pi_{v|M} : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{N-1}$ is an injective immersion.

By repeatedly applying corollary 6.11, we get an injective immersion from $M \xrightarrow{i} \mathbb{R}^{2m+1}$. As in the proof of theorem 5.6, i must be an embedding, because M is compact. \square

Corollary 6.13. *Let I, X, Y, Z be manifolds. Let $f : X \times I \rightarrow Z, g : Y \rightarrow Z$ be smooth maps. Suppose that $f \pitchfork g$. Then for almost all $s \in I$*

$$f_s(\cdot) = f(\cdot, s) \pitchfork g.$$

i.e. away from a set of measure zero

Remark. *Let $f_0 : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, g : Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be any maps. Consider*

$$f : X \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, (x, s) \mapsto f_0(x) + s$$

. Then f is clearly a submersion. Hence $f \pitchfork \psi \implies f_s \pitchfork g$ for almost all s .

Proof. By assumption and proposition 6.2:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} W = (X \times I) \times_Z Y & \xrightarrow{\text{smooth embedding}} & (X \times I) \times Y \\ & \searrow \pi & \swarrow \\ & I & \end{array}$$

We will show that if $s \in I$ is a regular value of π , then $f_s \pitchfork g$. This implies the corollary by Sard's theorem 6.9.

So suppose that $s \in I$ is a regular value. Then either

- (i) $s \notin \text{im}(\pi)$. In this case $\text{im}(f_s) \cap g = \emptyset$
- (ii) $s \in \text{im}(\pi)$. In this case d_π is surjective on π^{-1} .

Let's assume case (ii). Suppose that $z = f_s(x) = g(y)$. Since $f \pitchfork g$, we have

$$\text{im}df_x + \text{im}dg_y = T_z Z.$$

For any $a \in T_z Z$, there exists a pair $b = (w, e) \in T_{x,s}(X \times I) = T_x X \oplus T_s I$, such that

$$df_{(x,s)}(w, e) - a \in \text{im}dg_y.$$

Since $d\pi$ is surjective, there exist an element $(w', e, c') \in T_{(x,s,y)}W = T_{(x,s,y)}(X \times I) \times_Z Y$. But now

$$(df_s)_x(w - w') - a = df_{(x,s)}((w, e) - (w', e)) - a = \underbrace{df\left(\overbrace{b}^{=(w,e)}\right) - a}_{\in \text{im}dg_y} - \underbrace{df(w', e)}_{\in \text{im}dg_y}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (X \times I) \times_Z Y & \longrightarrow & Y \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ X \times I & \longrightarrow & Z \end{array}$$

$$\implies (df_s)_x(w - w') - a \in \text{im}dg_y.$$

\square

In this lecture we will try to prove theorem 6.9 using three intermediate lemmas.

Notation (auxiliary): Consider $U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ open, $F : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. We let $C \subset U$ be the set of critical points of F . More generally, for $k \geq 1$ we let

$$C \supset C_k := \{x \in C \mid \forall 1 \leq i \leq k : \text{All } i\text{th partial derivatives of } F \text{ vanish at } x\}.$$

Clearly $C \supset C_1 \subset C_2 \subset \dots$. Note also C, C_k are all closed.

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Because being zero is a closed condition

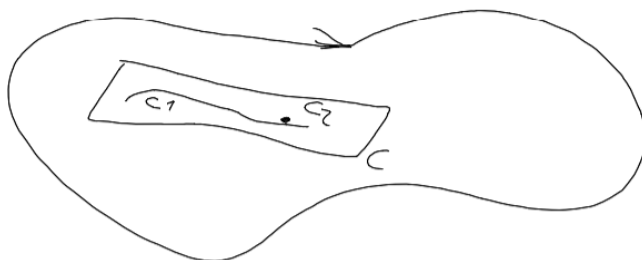


Figure 6.24: Sketch 6.26

Lemma 6.14. Suppose that $k > \frac{m}{n} - 1$. Then $F(C_k)$ has measure zero.

Proof. For each $a \in U$, there exists a closed cube $a \in E \subset U$. By second countability we can cover C_k by countability many such cubes. Hence it is enough to prove, for arbitrary such E that $F(C_k \cap E)$ has measure zero. Now fix $a \in C_k$ and cube $E \ni a$. Also fix $A > \sup_{y \in E} |\partial_x^\alpha F(y)|$ for $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m) \in \mathbb{N}^m, |\alpha| \leq k+1$.

Let $L > 0$ be the side length of E . Let $K \gg 1$ be a natural number. We now subdivide E by K^m cubes of side length L/K . Let E_1, \dots, E_{K^m} be an enumeration of these subcubes.

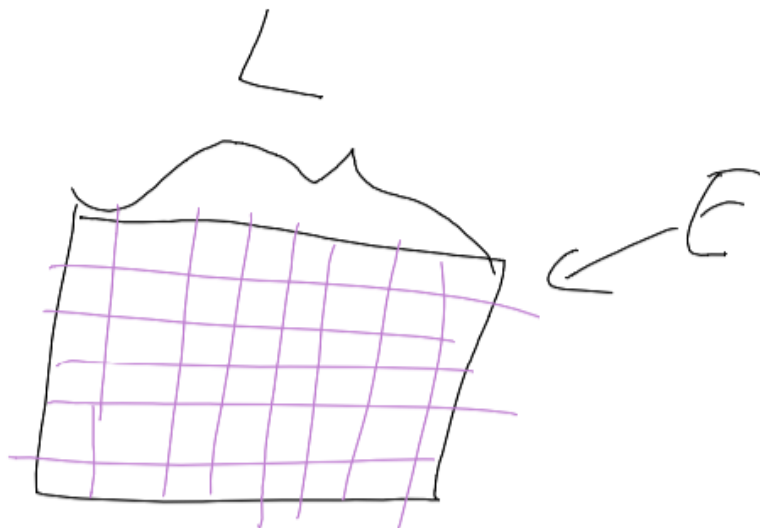


Figure 6.25: Sketch 6.27

Since $a \in E$ there exists some i_0 such that $a \in E_{i_0}$. Since $a \in C_k$, Taylor's theorem finishes the following inequality:

$$|F(x) - F(a)| \leq A'|x - a|^{k+1}$$

for all $x \in E_{i_0}$, where A' depends only on A .

$\implies F(E_{i_0})$ is contained in a ball centered at $F(a)$ of radius $A'(L/K)^{k+1}$. Now

$$F(C_k \cap E) = \bigcup_{i|C_k \cap E_i \neq \emptyset} F(C_k \cap E_i).$$

But each $F(C_k \cap E_i)$ is contained in a union of balls of volume $\leq \Lambda [A'(L/K)^{k+1}]^n$. Therefore at most K^m cubes E_i which intersect C_k non-emptily. Hence $F(C_k \cap E)$ is contained in a union of balls of total volume at most

$$\Lambda A'^n K^m [(L/K)^{k+1}]^n = \Lambda A'^n L^{(k+1)n} K^{m-(k+1)n}.$$

Since $k > \frac{m}{n} - 1$ the exponent of K is negative and hence increasing K forces the equation above to go to zero. \square

Lemma 6.15. *Assume that Sard's theorem holds for domains of dimension $< m$. Then $F(C \setminus C_1)$ has measure zero.*

Proof. Since C_1 is closed in U , we can assume after replacing U by $U \setminus C_1$, that $C_1 = \emptyset$. Then we just prove that $F(C)$, under that assumption, has measure zero.

Fix $a \in C$. By assumption that $C_1 = \emptyset$. Up to reordering coordinates in the source and in the

target, we can assume that $\partial_{x_1} F^1(a) \neq 0$. Set $\begin{cases} u(x) = F^1(x) \\ v^i(x) = x_i \end{cases} \quad 2 \leq i \leq m$. By the inverse

function theorem $(u, v) = (u, v^1, \dots, v^m)$ forms a coordinate system in some neighborhood V_a of a . Since the transition matrix is

$$\begin{bmatrix} \partial_{x_1} F^1 & \star & \star & \star \\ 0 & & 1 & \end{bmatrix}.$$

We can assume that (u, v) extend to \overline{V}_a . With respect to these new coordinates (u, v) , we have

$$F(u, v) = (u, F^2(u, v), \dots, F^n(u, v)). \text{ So we have: } dF(u, v) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \star & & & \\ \vdots & & \frac{\partial F^i}{\partial v^j} & \\ \star & & & \end{bmatrix} \text{ where}$$

$2 \leq i \leq n, 2 \leq j \leq m$. Therefore $C \cap \overline{V}_a$ is precisely the set of points such that $\text{rank}\left(\frac{\partial F^i}{\partial v^j}\right) < n - 1$.

Note that $F(C \cap \overline{V}_a)$ is compact. By lemma 6.4, if we can show that $F(C \cap \overline{V}_a) \cap \{y^1 = d\}$ has measure zero, then $F(C \cap \overline{V}_a)$ has measure zero. Since C is covered by countably many such V_a (by second countability), we could conclude that $F(C)$ has measure zero.

For $d \in \mathbb{R}$, $B_d := \{v \mid (d, v) \in \overline{V}_a\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$. Set $F_d(v) := (F^2(d, v), \dots, F^n(d, v))$. Since $F(d, v) = (d, F_d(v))$, we have that the critical values of $F|_{\overline{V}_a}$ that lie in $\{y^1 = d\}$ are precisely the points (d, q) , where q are critical values of F_d . By assumption that Sard's theorem 6.9 holds for dimension $< m$, since the domain of F_d has dimension $m - 1 < m$, $\{\text{critical values of } F_d\} = \{y_1 = d\} \cap F(C \cap \overline{V}_a)$ has measure zero. \square

Lemma 6.16. *Assume that Sard's theorem holds for domains of dimension $< m$. For all $k \geq 1$, $F(C_k \setminus \{F(C_{k+1})\})$ has measure zero.*

Proof. As in the proof of the previous lemma 6.15, we can assume $C_{k+1} = \emptyset$. We will prove under that assumption that $F(C_k)$ has measure zero.

Let $a \in C_k$ be arbitrary. Let $\sigma : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a k -th partial derivative of F , with the property that σ has at least one non-vanishing partial at a . I.e. $\begin{cases} \sigma = \partial_x^\alpha F & |\alpha| = k \\ \partial_{x_i} \sigma(a) \neq 0 & \forall i \end{cases}$. Let V_a be a

neighborhood of a consisting of regular points of σ . Let $\Sigma := \{\sigma^{-1}(0)\} \cap V$. Then Σ is a smooth submanifold in V_a . By definition of C_k , we have $(C_k \cap V_a) \subset \sigma^{-1}(0) \cap V_a$.

Moreover $F(C_k \cap V_a)$ is contained in the set of critical values of $F|_\Sigma$ (that's because $\partial_{x_i} F^j = 0 \implies dF|_{T\Sigma} \equiv 0$). But $\dim(\Sigma) = \dim(U) - 1 = m - 1$. Hence $\{\text{critical values of } F|_\Sigma\}$ has measure zero, by assumption. \square

Restricting to the cubes which intersect C_k is a very important step, because otherwise we can't Taylor and have no control over the measure!

Bird's eye view: Change coordinates, consider modified functions

Proof of Sard's theorem 6.9. We prove it by induction on the dimension of the source. If $F : M^m \rightarrow N^n$, and $m = 0$ the statement is true.

Let's assume that Sard's theorem has been proven for all manifolds $F : M^m \rightarrow N^n$, where $m < \tilde{m}$. We need to prove it for maps $\tilde{F} : \tilde{M} \rightarrow \tilde{N}$, where $\dim(\tilde{M}) = \tilde{m}$.

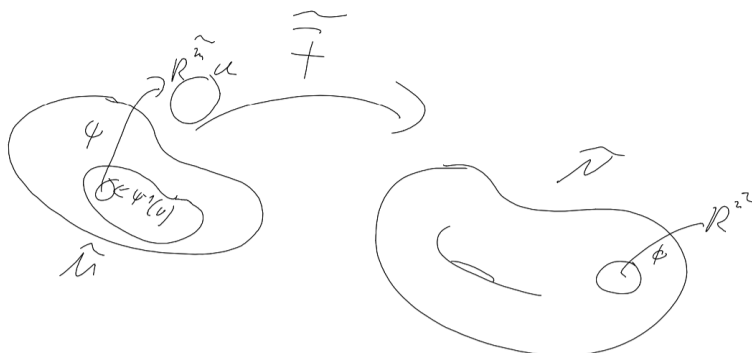


Figure 6.26: Sketch 6.28

By covering source and target by charts, we can assume

- $\tilde{M} = U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$
- $\tilde{N} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$.

Apply lemma 6.14,6.15,6.16 to get the claim. □

If the intersection is non-empty, we really need lemma 6.14

Chapter 7:

Vector fields

7.1 Basics

Start of lecture 15
(29.11.2024)

Let M be a smooth manifold. Recall that we have

$$\pi : TM \rightarrow M$$

where $TM = \coprod_{p \in M} T_p M$. A typical point in TM is $(p, \underbrace{v}_{\in T_p M})$ and

$$\pi((p, v)) = p.$$

Definition. A (smooth) vector field X on M is a section of $\pi : TM \rightarrow M$. In other words

1. $X : M \rightarrow TM$ smooth map
2. $\pi \circ X = id$

We let $\mathcal{X}(M)$ be the set of vector fields on M .

Concretely: To every point $p \in M$, we associate a vector

$$X(p) = X_{\in T_p M}.$$

Visually



Figure 7.1: Sketch 7.01

Another picture:

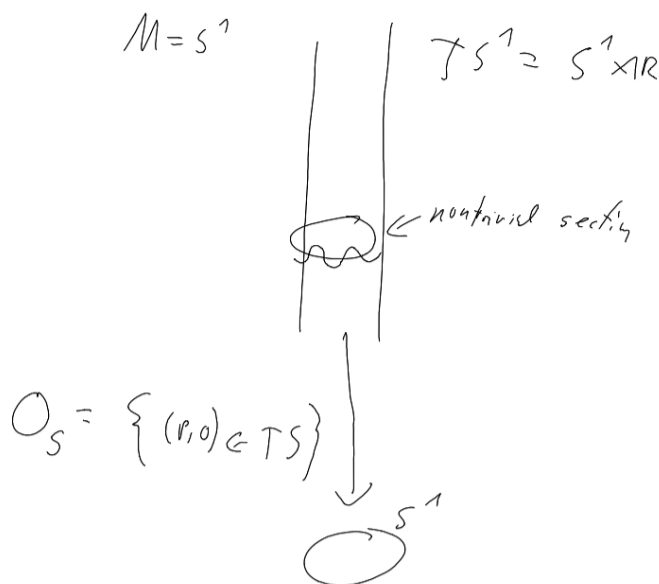


Figure 7.2: Sketch 7.02

Lemma 7.1. Let M be a smooth manifold.

(a) $\mathcal{X}(M)$ is a \mathbb{R} vector space

(b) $\mathcal{X}(M)$ is a module over the ring $C^\infty(M)$ of smooth functions on M :

$$(f, X) \mapsto fX$$

$$fX(p) = \underbrace{f(p)}_{\in \mathbb{R}} \underbrace{X(p)}_{\in T_p M}$$

Proof. Exercise. □

Remark. In this class, we only consider smooth vector fields. If you drop the smoothness condition on the map $X : M \rightarrow TM$, you get a **rough vector field**.

We are not gonna study those, but it is useful to know they exist

Example. Recall that $T_p \mathbb{R}^n \cong \mathbb{R}^n$, hence $T\mathbb{R}^n \cong \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$. A vector field $X \in \mathcal{X}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is just a map

$$X : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$p \longmapsto (p, v(p))$$

Equivalently X is a map $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, since the first coordinate is just fixed to be the identity. This agrees with the notion from Analysis 2.

A map $\mathbb{R}^n \ni p \mapsto (X^1(p), \dots, X^n(p))$

Remark. $T_p \mathbb{R}^n$ has a canonical basis $\{(\partial_{x_1})_p, \dots, (\partial_{x_n})_p\}$.

This identifies $(\partial_{x_i})_p \equiv (0, \dots, 0, \overbrace{1}^{\text{ith component}}, 0, \dots, 0)$. We can equivalently write a vector field on \mathbb{R}^n as

$$p \mapsto (X^1(p), \dots, X^n(p))$$

or

$$p \mapsto X^1(p)(\partial_{x_1})_p + \dots + X^n(p)(\partial_{x_n})_p.$$

Notation: We write $\partial_{x_i} \in \mathcal{X}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ for the vector field

$$p \mapsto (\partial_{x_i})_p \in T_p \mathbb{R}^n \equiv (0, \dots, 0, \overbrace{1}^{\text{ith component}}, 0, \dots, 0)$$

In the literature another common notation for the same thing is $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}$.

Example (Vector field on S^3). Let $M = \{(x_0, \dots, x_3) \mid \sum x_i^2 = 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{1+3}$. Let $X = x_0 \partial_{x_1} - x_1 \partial_{x_0} + x_2 \partial_{x_3} - x_3 \partial_{x_2} \in \mathcal{X}(\mathbb{R}^{1+3})$. Observe that $X \perp S^3 \iff \underbrace{X \cdot v}_{X_v \cdot v} = 0, v \in S^3$.

Hence $X \in \mathcal{X}(S^3)$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} TS^3 & \hookrightarrow & T\mathbb{R}^{1+3} \\ X|_{S^3} \downarrow & & \downarrow \pi \\ S^3 & \hookrightarrow & \mathbb{R}^{1+3} \end{array}$$

where the map $X|_{S^3}$ is implied by composition.

Example. For any M smooth, the map $p \mapsto 0 \in T_p M$ is a vector field called the zero section.

Let $F : M \rightarrow N$ be a smooth map. Let $X \in \mathcal{X}(M), Y \in \mathcal{X}(N)$.

Definition. We say that X, Y are F -related if the following diagram commutes

$$\begin{array}{ccc} TM & \xrightarrow{dF} & TN \\ X \downarrow & & \downarrow Y \\ M & \xrightarrow{F} & N \end{array}$$

Be warned! Given $F : M \rightarrow N, X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$, there need not exist a $Y \in \mathcal{X}(N)$ s.t. X, Y are F -related. Vector fields do not push forward.

This is the only canonical vector field. “There is no 1”

They push back!

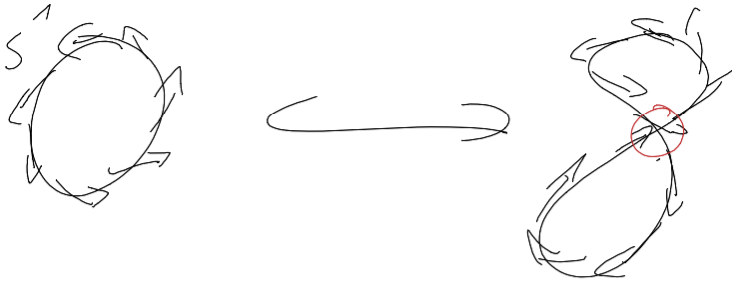


Figure 7.3: Sketch 7.04

Definition. Let $F : M \rightarrow N$ be a diffeomorphism. Let $X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$, we define the pushforward of X $F_* X \in \mathcal{X}(N)$ by

$$(F_* X)_p = dF_{F^{-1}(p)}(X_{F^{-1}(p)}),$$

i.e.:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} TM & \xrightarrow{dF} & TN \\ X \downarrow & & \downarrow F_* X \\ M & \xleftarrow{F^{-1}} & N \end{array}$$

Lemma 7.2. Given $F : M \rightarrow N, G : N \rightarrow P$ diffeomorphisms,

(i) $(G \circ F)_* = G_* \circ F_* : \mathcal{X}(M) \rightarrow \mathcal{X}(P)$

(ii) if $F = id, M = N$, then $F_* = id : \mathcal{X}(M) \rightarrow \mathcal{X}(M)$

Proof. Exercise. □

7.2 Vector fields as derivations

Recall: a tangent vector $V \in T_p M, p \in M$ can be viewed as a derivation at p , i.e.

$$V : C^\infty(M) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, V(fg) = f(p)V(g) + V(f)g(p).$$

Notation: Let $X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$. Given a smooth function on $f \in C^\infty(M)$, we let Xf be the map $M \ni p \mapsto X_p f \in \mathbb{R}$.

Lemma 7.3. (i) If $X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$, i.e. X is a smooth vector field, then Xf is a smooth function
(ii) Suppose that $X : M \rightarrow TM$ is an **arbitrary** section (this is also known as a rough vector field). If Xf is smooth for all $f \in C^\infty(M)$, then X is a **smooth** vector field.

Proof. Sheet 09. Hint: Test against coordinate functions. □

Check in \mathbb{R}^n

Definition. An \mathbb{R} linear map $X : C^\infty(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M)$ is called a **derivation** if, for all $f, g \in C^\infty(M)$:

$$X(fg) = f \cdot Xg + Xf \cdot g$$

The \cdot are multiplications of functions

Lemma 7.4. 1. If $X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$, then the map

$$C^\infty(M) \ni f \mapsto Xf \in C^\infty(M)$$

is a derivation.

2. every derivation is of this form.

Upshot of the lemma:

$$\mathcal{X}(M) \equiv \{\text{derivations } C^\infty(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M)\}$$

just as we identified before

$$T_p M \equiv \{\text{derivations at } p\}.$$

Proof. (1) By definition, $\forall p \in M$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} X(fg)(p) &= X_p(fg) = f(p)X_p g + X_p f g(p) \\ &= f(p)X_p g(p) + X_p f(p)g(p). \end{aligned}$$

All of this follows basically by applying point wise definitions

Suppose that $\nu : C^\infty \rightarrow C^\infty$ is a derivation. Define a (possibly discontinuous) vector field X by setting

$$X_p f = \underbrace{\nu f}_{\in C^\infty(M)}(p).$$

By lemma 7.3 (ii) X is smooth, because $\nu f \in C^\infty$. □

Definition. Let $X, Y \in \mathcal{X}(M)$. We let $[X, Y] \in \mathcal{X}(M)$ defined by the rule

$$C^\infty(M) \ni f \mapsto XYf - YXf \in C^\infty(M). \quad (1)$$

We call $[X, Y]$ the **Lie bracket** of X, Y .

Lemma 7.5. Equation 1 defines a derivation, hence $[X, Y]$ is a smooth vector field (by Lemma 7.4).

Proof. For $f, g \in C^\infty(M)$:

$$\begin{aligned} [X, Y](fg) &= XY(fg) - YX(fg) \\ &= X[f \cdot Yg + Yf \cdot g] - Y[f \cdot Xg + Xf \cdot g] \\ &= Xf \cdot Yg + f \cdot XYg + XYf \cdot g + Xf \cdot Xg \\ &\quad - Yf \cdot Xg - f \cdot YXg - YXf \cdot g - Xf \cdot Yg \\ &= f(XY - YX)(g) - g(XY - YX)f \\ &= f[X, Y]g + g[X, Y]f \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

Remark (Properties of Lie bracket). *The Lie bracket $[\cdot, \cdot] : \mathcal{X}(M) \times \mathcal{X}(M) \rightarrow \mathcal{X}(M)$ satisfies:*

(i) *bilinearity:*

$$\begin{aligned} [aX + bY, Z] &= a[X, Z] + b[Y, Z] \\ [X, aY + bZ] &= a[X, Y] + b[X, Z] \end{aligned}$$

(ii) *anti-symmetry*

$$[X, Y] = -[Y, X]$$

(iii) *Jacobi identity:*

$$[X, [Y, Z]] + [Y, [Z, X]] + [Z, [X, Y]] = 0$$

Thus $(\mathcal{X}(M), [\cdot, \cdot])$ is a Lie algebra (an ∞ -dimensional one).

Warning:

$$C^\infty(M) \ni f \mapsto XYf \in C^\infty(M)$$

does not define a vector field in general!

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Lemma 7.6 (Naturality of Lie brackets). *Given $F : M \rightarrow N$ smooth, $X_1, X_2 \in \mathcal{X}(M)$, $Y_1, Y_2 \in \mathcal{X}(N)$. Assume (X_i, Y_i) are F -related for $i = 1, 2$. Then $[X_1, X_2], [Y_1, Y_2]$ are F -related.*

Proof. For $f \in C^\infty(N)$

$$X_1 X_2 (f \circ F) = X_1 ((Y_1 f) \circ F) = (Y_1 Y_2 f) \circ F$$

Similarly swapping the order of X_1, X_2 . Hence

$$\begin{aligned} [X_1, X_2](f \circ F) &= (X_1 X_2 - X_2 X_1)(f \circ F) \\ &= (Y_1 Y_2 - Y_2 Y_1)(f) \circ F \\ &= [Y_1, Y_2](f) \circ F \end{aligned}$$

□

7.3 Coordinate vector fields

Let M be a smooth manifold. Let (U, φ) be a smooth chart.

Recall that we abuse notation by writing $x_i \equiv x_i \circ \varphi$, where $\underbrace{x_i}_{x^i}(x) = x_i = \pi_i(x)$.

w.r.t the chart

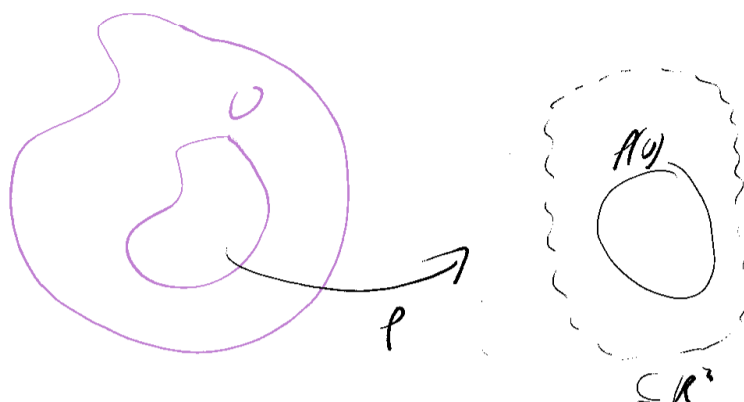


Figure 7.4: Sketch 7.05

If $p \in U$, we also have been writing $(\partial_{x_i})_p = d\varphi_{\varphi(p)}^{-1}((\partial_{x_i})_{\varphi(p)})$.

Section of the tangent
bundle, a vector field ...

Lemma 7.7. The map $U \ni p \mapsto (\partial_{x_i})_p \in T_p M$ is a smooth vector field on U , i.e. an element of $\mathcal{X}(U)$.

Proof. Recall from last week $M = \mathbb{R}^n$ then the map

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto (x_1, \dots, x_n, 0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$$

Then by section 7.1, we have this is true, when M is an open subset of \mathbb{R}^n .

In general, $d\varphi_{\varphi(p)}^{-1}((\partial_{x_i})_{\varphi(p)}) = (\varphi)_\star^{-1} \partial_{x_i}$, where the pushforward is

$$\varphi_\star^{-1} : \mathcal{X}(\varphi(U)) \rightarrow \mathcal{X}(U).$$

The lemma follows from the fact that pushforwards of diffeomorphism send smooth vector fields to smooth vector fields. \square

Notation: The vector field $U \ni p \mapsto (\partial_{x_i})_p$ shall be denoted by ∂_{x_i} . Other sources / authors write $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}$.

Definition. Let M be smooth of dimension m .

- (i) Given a point $p \in M$, an m -tuple of vector fields $(X^1, \dots, X^m) \in \mathcal{X}(M)^m$ is called a **local frame at p** , if $(X_p^1, \dots, X_p^m) \in T_p M^m$
- (ii) We say that $(X^1, \dots, X^m) \in \mathcal{X}(M)^m$ is a **global frame** if (X_p^1, \dots, X_p^m) spans $T_p M$ for all $p \in M$.

Remark. We take $X^i \in \mathcal{X}(M)$ and not $\mathcal{X}(U)$ for local frames, since (similar to functions), we can always extend them!

Lemma 7.8. If (X^1, \dots, X^m) is a local frame at $p \in M$, then there exists $p \in U \subset M$ s.t. $(X^1|_U, \dots, X^m|_U) \in \mathcal{X}(U)^m$ is a global frame on U .

Proof. Exercise using lemma 4.1. \square

Key example: If (U, φ) is a chart on M , then $(\partial_{x_1}, \dots, \partial_{x_m}) \in \mathcal{X}(M)^m$ form a global frame on U .

Remark (Warning). It is not the case that all frames are of this form, i.e. there exists frames $(X^1, \dots, X^m) \in \mathcal{X}(M)^m$ local frames at some $p \in M$, such that $(X^1|_U, \dots, X^m|_U)$ is not a coordinate vector field for any chart $(V, \psi), V \subset U$. E.g. $[\partial_{x_i}, \partial_{x_j}] \equiv 0$.

7.4 Integral curves

Let $\gamma : (a, b) \rightarrow M$ be a smooth map (a curve). We write $\dot{\gamma}(t) = d\gamma_t(\partial_t) \in T_{\gamma(t)} M$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} T\mathbb{R} & \xrightarrow{d\gamma} & TM \\ \partial_t \uparrow & \nearrow \dot{\gamma}(t) & \downarrow \\ \mathbb{R} & \xrightarrow{\gamma} & M \end{array}$$

In coordinates,

$$\gamma(t) = (\gamma^1(t), \dots, \gamma^n(t)) \in \mathbb{R}^n \implies \dot{\gamma}(t) = (\dot{\gamma}^1(t), \dots, \dot{\gamma}^n(t)) = \dot{\gamma}^1(t)\partial_{x_1} + \dots + \dot{\gamma}^n(t)\partial_{x_n},$$

where $\dot{\gamma}^i(t) = \frac{d}{dt}\gamma^i(t)$.

Definition. Let M be a manifold and let $V \in \mathcal{X}(M)$. An **integral curve** for V is a curve $\gamma : (a, b) \rightarrow M$ such that

$$\dot{\gamma}(t) = V_{\gamma(t)}.$$

We typically assume $0 \in (a, b)$, we say that the **starting point** γ , is the point $\gamma(0) \in M$.

We often omit the identity, i.e. the first n entries of the following

It is important to understand the difference between vector fields and tangent vectors, like the difference between functions and elements of the target of those functions

This uses the fact that being full rank is an open condition

It turns out the condition $[\partial_{x_i}, \partial_{x_j}] \equiv 0$ is necessary and sufficient

Example. $M = \mathbb{R}^2, V = \partial_x = (1, 0)$.



Figure 7.5: Sketch 7.06

The integral curves are precisely the curves

$$(t \mapsto p + t(1, 0))$$

where $p \in \mathbb{R}^2$ is the starting point.

Example. $M = \mathbb{R}^2, V = x\partial_y - y\partial_x \equiv (-y, x)$ -



Figure 7.6: Sketch 7.07

Suppose that $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is an integral curve

$$t \mapsto (\gamma^1(t), \gamma^2(t))$$

Then we need

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\gamma}(t) &= -\gamma^2(t) \\ \dot{\gamma}^2(t) &= \gamma^1(t)\end{aligned}$$

which is an ODE, with the following unique solution:

$$\gamma^1(t) = a \cos t - b \sin(t), \gamma^2(t) = a \sin t + b \cos(t).$$

Hence

$$\gamma(t) = (a \cos t - b \sin(t), a \sin t + b \cos(t)), \quad a, b \in \mathbb{R}$$

integral curve with starting point (a, b) .

Proposition 7.9. Let M be a smooth manifold. Let $V \in \mathcal{X}(M)$.

- (a) **Existence:** Given any point $p \in M$, there exists an open interval $0 \in J \subset \mathbb{R}$ and an integral curve $\gamma : J \rightarrow M$ starting at p
- (b) **Uniqueness:** If $\sigma, \gamma : J \rightarrow M$ starting at the same point $p = \sigma(0) = \gamma(0)$, then $\sigma = \gamma$

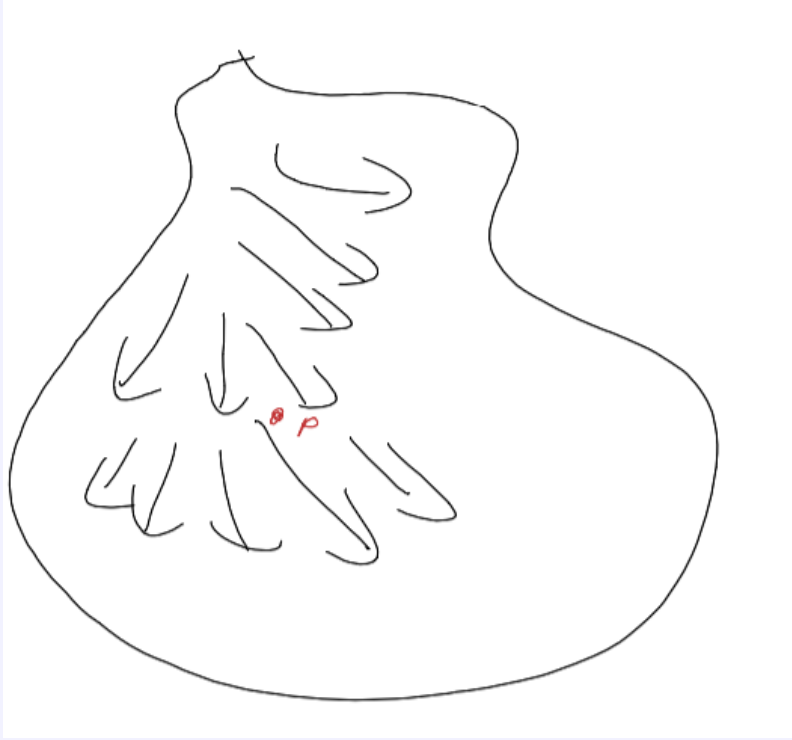


Figure 7.7: Sketch 7.08

Remark. It follows from the proposition that, $\forall p \in M$ there is a largest interval $0 \in J \subset \mathbb{R}$ admitting an integral curve $\gamma : J \rightarrow M$. We call $\gamma : J \rightarrow M$ the maximal integral curve.

This probably needs Zorn's lemma.

Proof of proposition 7.9. (a): This is a local statement, hence we can assume open $M \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Then we must solve

$$\dot{\gamma}(t) = V_{\gamma(t)},$$

$$\gamma(t) = (\gamma^1(t), \dots, \gamma^n(t)).$$

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\gamma}^1(t) &= V_{\gamma(t)}^1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \dot{\gamma}^n(t) &= V_{\gamma(t)}^n \end{cases}$$

This is a system of ordinary differential equations (ODEs). Hence by Theorem D.1 in the appendix of [2]¹, the system admits a unique solution with $\gamma(0) = p \in M \subset \mathbb{R}^n$.

¹On the course website

(b): Let $\mathcal{E} \subset J$ be a subset of points $t \in J$ such that $\sigma(t) = \gamma(t)$. Observe that $0 \in \mathcal{E}$ by assumption. Observe also that \mathcal{E} is closed, since σ, γ are continuous functions. Moreover \mathcal{E} is open by the uniqueness part of theorem D1. $\implies \mathcal{E} = J$. \square

We need this, because the uniqueness part of the theorem is local, but our statement in (b) is not

Lemma 7.10. *If $F : M \rightarrow N, X \in \mathcal{X}(M), Y \in \mathcal{X}(N), X, Y$ are F related, then F takes integral curves of X to integral curves of Y .*

Proof. Suppose $\gamma : J \rightarrow M$ integral curve of X .

$$(F \circ \gamma)'(t) = dF_{\gamma(t)} \dot{\gamma}(t) \stackrel{F\text{-related}}{=} Y_{F \circ \gamma(t)} \quad \square$$

Remark. *There is also a converse. (exercise)*

Definition. *We say that a vector field $V \in \mathcal{X}(M)$ is complete if for all $p \in M$, the maximal integral curve starting at $p \in M$ is defined on \mathbb{R} .*

Example (Example of a non-complete vector field). $M = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, V = \partial_x$. Pick $p = -1 \in \mathbb{R}$. Then the integral curve starting at p is the map

$$t \mapsto -1 + t.$$

This is only defined on $(-\infty, 1)$.

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Example (Another example of incompleteness). $M = \mathbb{R}, V = x^2 \partial_x$

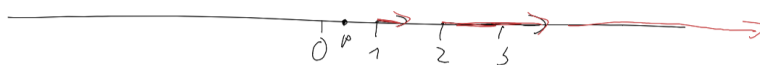


Figure 7.8: Sketch 7.09

Setting $p = 1$, let $x \mapsto \gamma(x)$ the maximal integral curve of V starting at p .

$$\implies \begin{cases} \gamma(0) &= p \\ \dot{\gamma}(t) &= V_{\gamma(t)} = \gamma(t)^2 (\partial_x)_t \stackrel{M=\mathbb{R}}{=} \gamma(t)^2 \end{cases}$$

Therefore $\gamma(t) = \frac{1}{1-t}$, as $t \rightarrow 1$

There is a finite time blow-up at 1 of the ODE. We never reach $t = 1$. Incomplete integral curves leave all compact sets!

7.5 Flows

Fix a smooth manifold M .

Definition. A flow domain is an open set $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathbb{R} \times M$ such that, for all $p \in M$,

$$\mathcal{D}^{(p)} = \{t \in \mathbb{R} \mid (t, p) \in \mathcal{D}\} \subset \mathbb{R}$$

is an open interval and $0 \in \mathcal{D}^{(p)}$.

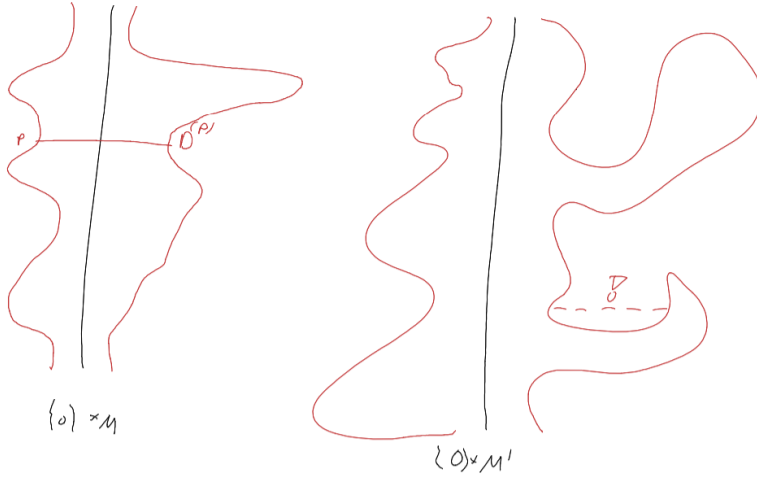


Figure 7.9: Sketch 7.10

Example (and non-example).

Definition. A **flow** $\Psi : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow M$ is a map such that

- (i) $\Psi((0, p)) = p$
- (ii) $\Psi((t, \Psi(s, p))) = \Psi(s + t, p)$ whenever this makes sense, i.e. $s, s + t \in \mathcal{D}^{(p)}, t \in \mathcal{D}^{(p)}$

One parameter subgroup property

Notation: Given a flow $\Psi : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow M$, we write:

- if $(-\epsilon, \epsilon) \times M \subset \mathcal{D}, s \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon), \Psi_s = \Psi(s, \cdot) : M \rightarrow M$. This is a diffeomorphism, since $\Psi_{-s} \circ \Psi_s = \Psi_0 = \text{id}$
- given $p \in M: \Phi^{(p)} = \Psi(\cdot, p) : \underbrace{\mathcal{D}^{(p)}}_{\subset \mathbb{R}} \rightarrow M$, which is a path

Lemma 7.11. (a) If $\Psi : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow M$ is a flow, then $p \mapsto \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0} \underbrace{\Psi(t, p)}_{\Psi^{(p)}(t)} \in T_p M$ defines a smooth vector field V^Ψ on M

(b) For $p \in M, \Psi^{(p)} : \mathcal{D}^{(p)} \rightarrow M$ are integral curves of the vector V^Ψ .

Proof. **(a):** Enough to show, for all smooth functions $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, V^\Psi f = (p \mapsto V_p^\Psi f)$ is also smooth (lemma 7.3). But $V^\Psi f(p) = V_p f = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0} (f \circ \Psi^{(p)}(t)) = \partial_t (f \circ \Psi)(0, p), p \mapsto \partial_t (f \circ \Psi)(0, p)$ is smooth.

(b): We need to show that $V_{\Psi^{(p)}(t_0)} = \dot{\Psi}^{(p)}(t_0), t_0 \in \mathcal{D}^{(p)}$. But for $f \in C^\infty(M), q = \Psi^{(p)}(t_0) = \Psi(t_0, p)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} V_q^\Psi f &= \Psi^q(0) f = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0} f(\Psi^q(t)) \\ &= \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0} f(\Psi(t, \underbrace{\Psi(t_0, p)}_{=q})) \\ &= \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0} f(\Psi(t + t_0, p)) = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0} f(\Psi^{(p)}(t_0 + t)) \\ &= \dot{\Psi}^{(p)}(t_0) f \subset T_{\Psi^{(p)}(t_0)} \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 7.12 (Theorem of flows). *Let $V \in \mathcal{X}(M)$. Then there exists a unique flow $\Psi : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow M$ such that*

$$V^\Psi = V \wedge \Psi^{(p)} : \mathcal{D}^{(p)} \rightarrow M \text{ are maximal integral curves}$$

The map AND the domain are unique

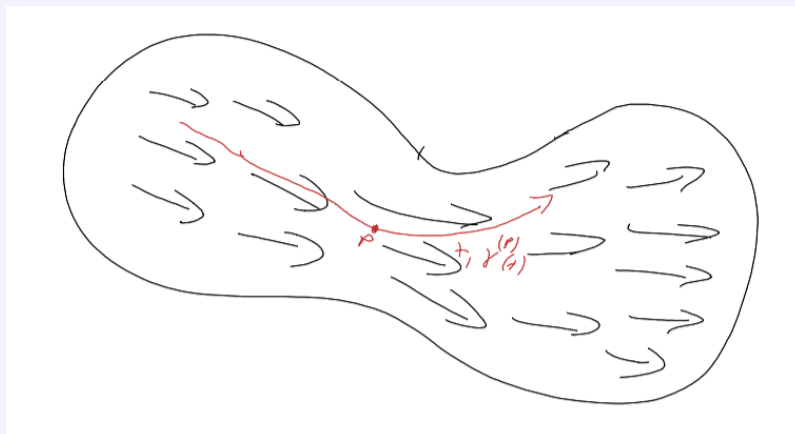


Figure 7.10: Sketch 7.11

Sketch. To define Ψ send $(t, p) \mapsto \gamma^{(p)}(t)$, where $\gamma^{(p)}$ is the (unique) integral curve at p . \square

7.6 The Lie derivative

Trivia: (Sophus Lie): Lie groups, Lie algebras, but also: (to) lie. There was a hearing in congress (NSF) about a grant of Lie groups.

Let $V = (V^1, \dots, V^n)$ be a vector field on \mathbb{R}^n . $V^i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. The expression $\partial_{x_i} V(x) = (\partial_{x_i} V^1, \dots, \partial_{x_i} V^n)$ the derivative of $V \in \mathcal{X}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ in the direction of ∂_{x_i} .

However: on a general manifold this does not make sense.

A lot of the proves are sketches, to increase speed



Figure 7.11: Sketch 7.12

$\gamma : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow M, \gamma(0) = p$. Want to define $\partial_{\gamma(0)} V$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\overbrace{V_{\gamma(t)}}^{T_{\gamma(t)} M} - \overbrace{V_{\gamma(0)}}^{T_{\gamma(0)} M}}{t}$$

Two approaches to defining derivatives of vector fields

- introduce connections ($\pi : E \rightarrow B$) Choose extra data. A connection $\implies \nabla_{\gamma(0)}\sigma$ makes sense
- Lie derivatives: Only works on the tangent bundle (a associated vector bundles)

Definition. Let $V, W \in \mathcal{X}(M)$. We define at p

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} (\mathcal{L}_V W)_p := \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \left(\frac{d(V\Psi_{-t})(W_{\Psi_t(p)}) - W_p}{t} \right)$$

Note $d(V\Psi_{-t})_{V\Psi_t(p)} : T_{V\Psi_t(p)} \rightarrow T_p$

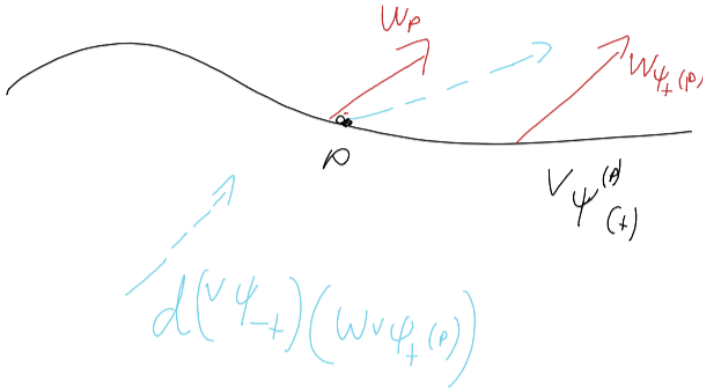


Figure 7.12: Sketch 7.13

Lemma 7.13. $\mathcal{L}_V W \in \mathcal{X}(M)$.

Proof. Let (U, φ) be a chart with $p \in U$. Let $J_0 \subset \mathbb{R}$ be the interval containing 0, let $U_0 \subset U$. Assume J_0, U_0 are sufficiently small such that $V\Psi|_{J_0 \times U_0}$ has image in U .

In (U, φ) coordinates (i.e. $x_i \equiv x_i \circ \varphi$), we have

$$\Psi(t, x) = (\Psi^1(t, x), \dots, \Psi^n(t, x)).$$

Then $(d\Psi_{-t})_{\Psi(t, x)} = (\partial_{x_i} \Psi^j(-t, x))_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$. Hence

$$d\Psi_{-t} W_{\Psi(t, x)} = (\partial_{x_i} \Psi^j(-t, x))_{1 \leq i, j \leq n} \underbrace{(W^1(\Psi(t, x)), W^n(\Psi(t, x)))}_{n \times 1}.$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (d\Psi_{-t} W_{\Psi(t, x)}) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{d\Psi_{-t} W_{\Psi(t, x)} - W_{\Psi(0, x)}}{t} \right) \quad \square$$

Remark. If $F : M \rightarrow N$ diffeomorphism, then

$$F_*(\mathcal{L}_V W) = \mathcal{L}_{F_* V} F_* W$$

Proposition 7.14. $(\mathcal{L}_V W) = [V, W]$ for $V, W \in \mathcal{X}(M)$.

Proof. Enough to check that $(\mathcal{L}_V W)_p = [V, W]_p$. We are going to consider three cases: 1. $V_p \neq 0$: According to Sheet 10, we can find a chart $U, \varphi, p \in U$ with the property that $\partial_{x_1} = V$ on U , where $(x_i)_{i=1}^n$ are the coordinate functions.

In lecture 17 this was a lemma, but in lecture 18 this is a proposition
Start of lecture 18
(10.12.2024)

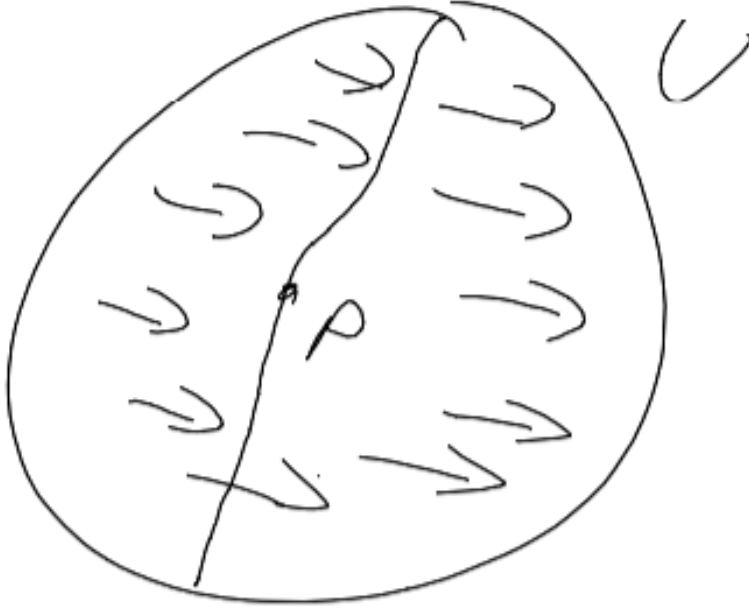


Figure 7.13: Sketch 7.14

Hence, we can now assume that $M = U \subset \mathbb{R}^n, V = \partial_{x_1}$.

$$\implies \partial_{x_1} \Psi_t(x) = (x_1 + t, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

$$\implies d(\Psi_{-t})_{\Psi_t(x)}(W_{\Psi_t(x)}) = d(\Psi_{-t}) \left(\overbrace{W^1(x_1 + t, x_2, \dots, x_n), \dots, W^n(x_1 + t, x_2, \dots, x_n)}^{\in T_{\Psi_t(x)} \mathbb{R}^n} \right)$$

$$= \overbrace{(W^1(x_1 + t, x_2, \dots, x_n), \dots, W^n(x_1 + t, x_2, \dots, x_n))}^{\in T_x M = \mathbb{R}^n}$$

$$\implies (\mathcal{L}_V W)_0 = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (d(\Psi_{-t})_{\Psi_t(0)}(W_{\Psi_t(0)})) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (W^1(t, 0, \dots, 0), \dots, W^n(t, 0, \dots, 0))$$

$$= (\partial_{x_1} W^1(0, \dots, 0), \dots, \partial_{x_1} W^n(0, \dots, 0)) = [\partial_{x_1} W]_0$$

2. $p \in \overline{\{q \mid V_q \neq 0\}}$. This implies

$$(\mathcal{L}_V W)_p = [V, W]_p$$

by continuity.

3. p admits a neighborhood $\mathcal{O} \subset M$ s.t. $V|_{\mathcal{O}} \equiv 0$. Then

$$(\mathcal{L}_V W)_p = 0 = [V, W]_p.$$

This is an exercise. □

A very important property: We say that $V, W \in \mathcal{X}(M)$ commute, if $[V, W] = 0$. This is equivalent by 7.15 to ${}^V \Psi, {}^W \Psi$ commuting.

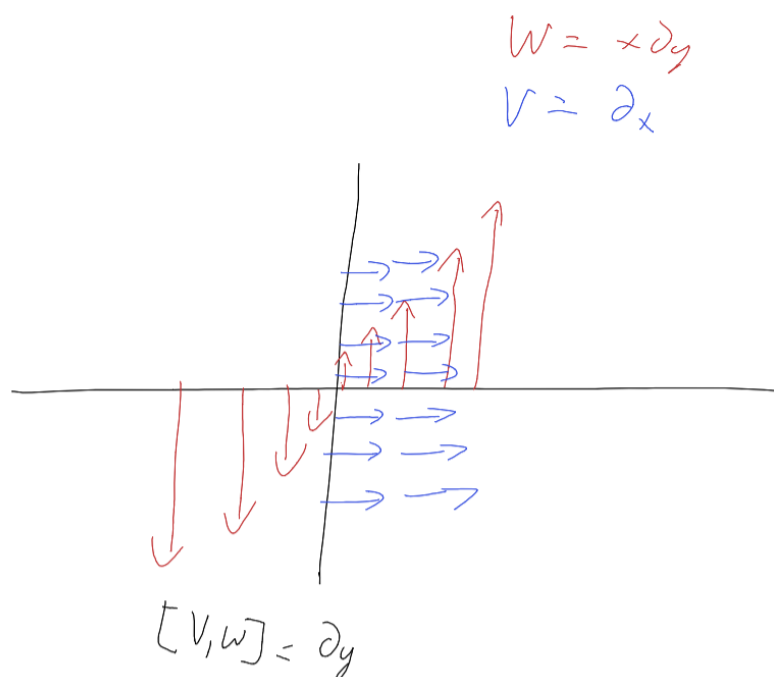


Figure 7.14: Sketch 7.15

Theorem 7.15. *The following are equivalent:*

- (i) $[V, W] = \mathcal{L}_V W = 0$
- (i') $[W, V] = \mathcal{L}_W V = 0$
- (ii) ${}^V\Psi_t(\cdot)_* W = W$
- (ii') ${}^W\Psi_t(\cdot)_* V = V$
- (iii) ${}^V\Psi_s {}^W\Psi_t = {}^W\Psi_t {}^V\Psi_s$ for all s, t where this makes sense.

Proof sketch. (i) \iff (i'): By definition.

(i) \implies (ii): Need the identity from Sheet 10 (optional problem). Differentiate the expression $\Psi_{t*} W$.

(ii) \implies (iii): Need to check (essentially a tautology) that if the flow of V preserves W , then it preserves the flow of W as well.

(iii) \implies (i): ${}^W\Psi^{({}^V\Psi_t(p))}(s) = {}^V\Psi_t({}^W\Psi(p))(s)$

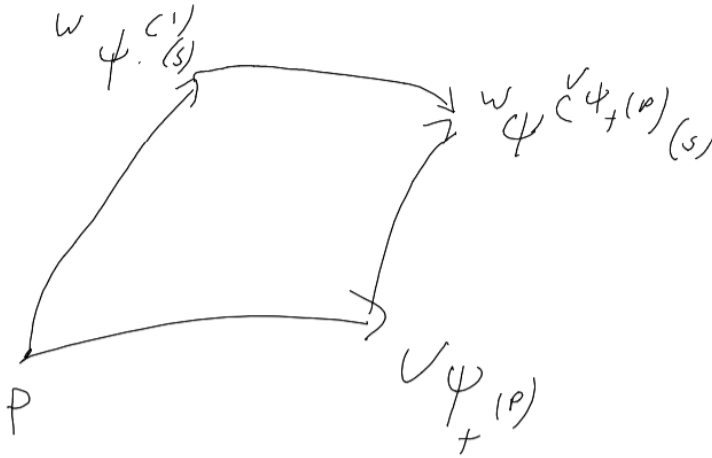


Figure 7.15: Sketch 7.16

$$\frac{d}{ds} \Big|_{s=0} W_{\Psi_t(p)}(s) = W_{\Psi_t(p)} = d(V\Psi_t)(W_p)$$

Apply $d(\Psi_{-t})(\cdot)$ to both sides of the equality, to get

$$d^V \Psi_{-t}(W_{\Psi_t(p)}) = W_p.$$

Finally, apply $\frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0}$ to get $(\mathcal{L}_V W = 0)$. □

Theorem 7.16. Let M be a smooth manifold. Let $(V^1, \dots, V^m) \in \mathcal{X}(M)^m$ be a local frame at p . Then, the following are equivalent:

- (i) there exists a chart $(U, \psi), p \in U$ s.t. $V^i = \partial_{x_i}$, where (x_i) are the coordinate functions
- (ii) $[V^i, V^j] = 0$ near p for all i, j .

This is a very good theorem to remember! Might very well be relevant to an exam problem

Proof idea. (i) \implies (ii) is obvious.

(ii) \implies (i). Define a chart

$$\begin{aligned} (-\epsilon, \epsilon)^m &\rightarrow M \\ (t_1, \dots, t_m) &\mapsto \underbrace{\left(\left(V^1 \Psi^{(p)}(t_1), \dots, V^m \Psi^{(p)}(t_m) \right) \right)}_{\text{bad notation}} = V^1 \Psi_{t_1} \left(\dots V^m \Psi_{t_m}(p) \right) \end{aligned}$$

□

Remark. Lecture 20 will start 5 minutes earlier!

Chapter 8:

Vector bundles

8.1 Review of linear algebra

8.1.1 The category of vector spaces

Fix \mathbb{K} a field (for this class we only care about $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$).
Let $\text{vec}_{\mathbb{K}}$ be the category of finite-dimensional \mathbb{K} vector spaces:

- Objects are (finite dimensional) \mathbb{K} vector spaces
- Morphisms are linear maps.

The category $\text{vec}_{\mathbb{K}}$ is **abelian**. In particular

- given $\psi : V \rightarrow W$, there exists

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \rightarrow \ker \psi &\hookrightarrow V \xrightarrow{\psi} W \\ V &\xrightarrow{\psi} W \rightarrow W/\psi(V) \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

- V, W , can form $V \oplus W \equiv V \times W$

The category $\text{vec}_{\mathbb{K}}$ is symmetric monoidal:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{vec}_{\mathbb{K}} \times \text{vec}_{\mathbb{K}} &\rightarrow \text{vec}_{\mathbb{K}} \\ (V, W) &\mapsto V \otimes_{\mathbb{K}} W \end{aligned}$$

Note:

$$V \otimes W \simeq W \otimes V$$

symmetric and

$$V \otimes (W \otimes Z) \simeq (V \otimes W) \otimes Z.$$

Note: If V^1, \dots, V^k are vector spaces and $\{e_j^i\}_{j=1}^l$ basis for V^i , then

$$\{e_{j_1}^1 \otimes \dots \otimes e_{j_k}^k\}$$

basis for $V^1 \otimes \dots \otimes V^k$.

The category $\text{vec}_{\mathbb{K}}$ admits an anti-involution:

$$\begin{aligned} (\cdot)^{\vee} : \text{vec}_{\mathbb{K}} &\rightarrow \text{vec}_{\mathbb{K}}^{\text{op}} \\ V &\mapsto V^{\vee} \\ \psi \in \text{hom}(V, W) &\mapsto \psi^{\vee} \in \text{hom}(W^{\vee}, V^{\vee}) \\ (\cdot)^{\vee\vee} &\equiv \text{id} \end{aligned}$$

These notions will have corresponding notions for vector bundles.

We can only form direct sums of finitely many vector spaces, since $\text{vec}_{\mathbb{K}}$ only contain finite dimensional vector spaces

8.1.2 Tensor products

Recall that the **tensor product** of vector spaces is characterized by:

Universal property: If $\alpha : V^1 \times \dots \times V^k \rightarrow W$ is a multi-linear map, then there exists

$$\begin{array}{ccc} V^1 \times \dots \times V^m & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & W \\ \downarrow \pi & \searrow \alpha \equiv \alpha & \\ V^1 \otimes \dots \otimes V^m & & \end{array}$$

Definition. Given a vector space $V \in \text{vec}_{\mathbb{K}}$, a **tensor of type** $(k, l) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ is an element of

$$T^{k,l}V := \underbrace{V \otimes \dots \otimes V}_{k \text{ times}} \otimes \underbrace{V^\vee \otimes \dots \otimes V^\vee}_{l \text{ times}}$$

We write $T^kV \equiv T^{k,0}V$ and $T^lV^\vee \equiv T^{0,l}V$

Remark. This is not the same as the decomposition into (l, k) forms in complex linear algebra.

A tensor $\alpha \in T^lV^\vee = (T^lV)^\vee$ defines a map $T^lV \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$, hence also a multi-linear map $V \times \dots \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$. We denote these maps by α by abuse of notation.

Definition. A tensor $\alpha \in T^lV^\vee$ is

- **alternating:** if the induced map $\alpha : V^1 \times \dots \times V^l \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ satisfies

$$\alpha(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_j, \dots, x_l) = (-1)^{j-i} \alpha(x_1, \dots, x_j, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_l).$$

- **symmetric** if the induced map $\alpha : V^1 \times \dots \times V^l \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ satisfies

$$\alpha(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_j, \dots, x_l) = \alpha(x_1, \dots, x_j, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_l).$$

We let $\Lambda^l(V^\vee) \subset T^lV^\vee$ be the subspace of alternating tensors. We let $\Sigma^lV^\vee \subset T^lV^\vee$ be the subspace of symmetric tensors.

Lemma 8.1. (1): The inclusion $\Lambda^k(V^\vee) \subset T^k(V^\vee)$ splits via the map

$$\begin{aligned} T^k(V^\vee) &\rightarrow \Lambda^k(V^\vee) \\ \alpha &\mapsto \text{alt}(\alpha) := \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_k} (\text{sgn}(\sigma))^\sigma \alpha \end{aligned}$$

where

$${}^\sigma \alpha(v_1, \dots, v_k) = \alpha(v_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, v_{\sigma(k)}).$$

(2): The inclusion $\Sigma^k(V^\vee) \subset T^k(V^\vee)$ also splits via the map

$$\begin{aligned} T^k(V^\vee) &\rightarrow \Sigma^k(V^\vee) \\ \alpha &\mapsto \text{sym}(\alpha) := \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_k} {}^\sigma \alpha \end{aligned}$$

Proof. (1): We need to show that the composition

$$\Lambda^k(V^\vee) \xrightarrow{i} T^k(V^\vee) \xrightarrow{\text{alt}} \Lambda^k(V^\vee)$$

is the identity. This is the case because $(\text{sgn}(\sigma))^\sigma \alpha = \alpha$ if $\alpha \in \Lambda^k(V^\vee)$.

(2) is similar. □

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We should also check that the maps acutally land in the claimed target set

8.2 Vector bundles

8.2.1 Basic definitions

Definition. A (real, smooth) **vector bundle** is a triple (π, E, B) where

- E, B are manifolds
- $\pi : E \rightarrow B$ is a smooth map
- $E_b = \pi^{-1}(b)$ carries the structure of a real vector space (finite dimensional).

If we look at the fibres ...

This data must satisfy the following **“local triviality”** condition:

Given any $b \in B$, there exists a neighborhood $U \subset B$ and a diffeomorphism $\psi^{-1} : \pi^{-1}(U) \simeq U \times V$ such that:

V is some real, finite dimensional vector space

(i) $\pi \circ \psi(x, v) = x$

(ii) $\psi|_{E_b} : E_b \xrightarrow{\sim} \{b\} \times V$ is an isomorphism of real vector spaces.

B is called the **base**, π the **projection** and E is called the **total space**.

Remark. We assume in this course that $\dim_{\mathbb{K}}(E_b)$ is constant (this is automatic if B is connected). Under this convention we can assume that $V = \mathbb{R}^k$, since every finite dimensional real vector space is non-canonically isomorphic to \mathbb{R}^k for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$ by composing ψ with (id, ϕ_V) , where ϕ_V is said isomorphism.

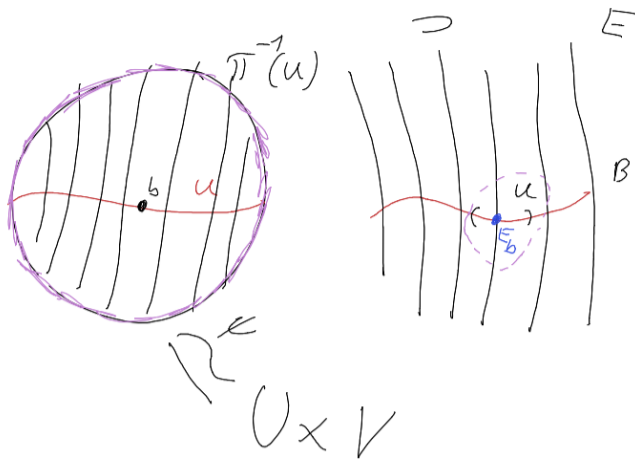


Figure 8.1: Sketch 8.01

In the homework

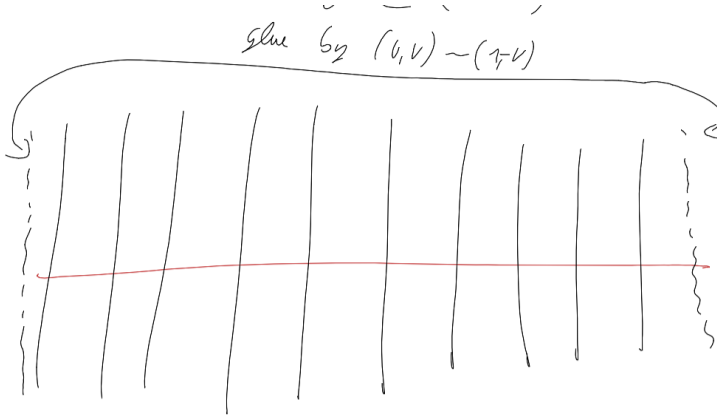


Figure 8.2: Sketch 8.02

Rigorously $E : [0, 1] \times \mathbb{R} / (0, v) \sim (1, -v)$. Notice that in this case the local triviality really is local, i.e. we can't take $U = E$.

Definition. A morphism of (smooth, real) vector bundles $(\pi, E, B) \rightarrow (\pi', E', B')$ is the data of smooth maps $F : E \rightarrow E', f : B \rightarrow B'$ such that

$$(i) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} E & \xrightarrow{F} & E' \\ \downarrow \pi & & \downarrow \pi' \\ B & \xrightarrow{f} & B' \end{array} \text{ commutes.}$$

(ii) $F|_{E_b} : E_b \rightarrow E'_{f(b)}$ is a linear map.

Remark. f is determined by F and the condition that F sends fibers to fibers.

Recoverable through
quitioning

Notation: We write $E = (\pi, E, B), (\pi, E, B) \xrightarrow{(F, f)} (\pi', E', B')$ is written as $F : E \rightarrow E'$.

Definition. Given a vector bundle E , a **sub-bundle** is a vector bundle F over the same base, and a map $i : F \hookrightarrow E$ covering the identity, such that $F_b \hookrightarrow E_b$ is injective, i.e.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} F & \xhookrightarrow{i} & E \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \pi \\ B & \xrightarrow{=} & B \end{array}$$

and $F_b \hookrightarrow E_b$ is injective.

Definition. We let vectbund be the category whose objects are (smooth, real) vector bundles. We let $\text{vectbund}(B)$ be the subcategory on vector bundles over B with morphisms covering the identity.

Remark. Can similarly set up a theory of $C^0, C^k, k \geq 1$ vector bundles over \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C} . This gives rise to analogous categories. Other would therefore write vectbund^∞ for what is here jut called vectbund .

Lemma 8.2 (Construction). Let $f : B \rightarrow C$ be a smooth map. Then there is a function $f^* : \text{vectbund}(C) \rightarrow \text{vectbund}(B)$. This is called **pullback**. On objects, we have $f : \underbrace{E}_{\in \text{vectbund}(C)} \rightarrow$

$f^*(E) := B \times_C E \rightarrow B$.

Note: Here we use the diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} f^*(E) & \longrightarrow & E \\ \downarrow \pi_B & & \downarrow \pi \\ B & \xrightarrow{f} & C \end{array}$$

Proof. Note that $\pi : E \rightarrow C$ is a submersion (always true for vector bundles, follows from the condition $\pi^{-1}(U) \simeq U \times V$). Hence $f \pitchfork \pi$ are transverse, and the fiber product exists (in the category Man^∞).

- $\pi_B^{-1}(b) = \pi^{-1}(f(b))$ endows $\pi_B^{-1}(b)$ with the structure of a vector space
- given $b \in B$ there exist $U \ni f(b)$, and $\psi : \pi^{-1}(U) \sim U \times V$. Hence $\pi_B^{-1}(U) \simeq \pi^{-1}(U) \times V$, which verifies local triviality.

There is more to check, but the rest is trivial. \square

8.2.2 Examples of vector bundles

Example. Let $B = \{x\}$. Then $\text{vectbund}(\{x\}) \simeq \text{vect}_{\mathbb{R}}$ by

$$\{x\} \times V \xrightarrow{\pi} \{x\} \hookleftarrow V$$

Example. Let B be our favorite smooth manifold. Then there is a unique map $f : B \rightarrow \{x\}$. Hence by lemma 8.2, we have a vector bundle f^*V . In fact $f^*V = B \times V \xrightarrow{\pi_B} B$ by $(b, v) \mapsto b$. Any vector bundle of the form f^*V is called **trivial**.

This is a small exercise

Remark. The Möbius bundle is not trivial: $M \xrightarrow{\pi} S^1$, if $M = S^1 \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$ $(x, 1) \hookleftarrow x$, then we could define a section $\sigma : S^1 \rightarrow M$, $\pi \circ \sigma = \text{id}$ and $\sigma \neq 0$. Contradiction via the intermediate value theorem.

Example. Let B be any manifold. Then $TB \xrightarrow{\pi} B$ is a vector bundle.

Given a manifold: is the vector bundle trivial? is a nice question to ask (in the exam?)

Exercise: $TS^1 \simeq S^1 \times \mathbb{R}$
What about TS^2 ?

8.2.3 Vector bundles from gluing data

This gives a mechanism to produce many more examples.

Construction: Let M be a manifold. Let

- $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$ be a cover of M
- $\{V_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$ be a collection of vector spaces
- $\varphi_{\alpha\beta} : U_\alpha \cap U_\beta \rightarrow \text{GL}(V_\alpha, V_\beta) \simeq \text{GL}(\mathbb{R}^k) \subset \mathbb{R}^{k^2}$ be smooth maps satisfying

$$\varphi_{\alpha\gamma} = \varphi_{\beta\gamma} \varphi_{\alpha\beta}$$

on $U_\alpha \cap U_\beta \cap U_\gamma$ for all $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{A}$. The equation is called **cocycle condition**.

We let

$$E := \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}} U_\alpha \times V_\alpha / \sim \quad (1)$$

where $U_\alpha \times V_\alpha \ni (x, v) \sim (x, w) \in U_\beta \times V_\beta$ if $w = \varphi_{\alpha\beta}(x)(v)$.

We let $\pi : E \rightarrow M$ be the forgetful map

$$[(x, v)] \mapsto x.$$

Lemma 8.3. (a) $\pi : E \rightarrow M$ is a vector bundle

(b) All vector bundles arise in this way.

Proof sketch. (a) is obvious (once you believe \sim is an equivalence relation)

(b): Let $\pi : E \rightarrow B$ be a vector bundle, cover B by $\{U_\alpha\}$, $\psi : \pi^{-1}(U_\alpha) \rightarrow U_\alpha \times V_\alpha$ and let $\varphi_{\alpha,\beta} = \psi_\beta \circ \psi_\alpha^{-1}$. \square

Terminology: A vector bundle $\pi : E \rightarrow B$ has to satisfy the local triviality condition: around any $p \in B \exists U \ni o \wedge \psi_U : \pi^{-1}(U) \simeq U \times V$, where V is a vector field. $\psi : U$ is called a **local trivialization**. We call $E_b \in B$ the **fibers**. $(U \cap \mathcal{V}) \times V_U \rightarrow (U \cap \mathcal{V}) \times V_{\mathcal{V}}$ by the transition function $\psi_{\mathcal{V}} \circ \psi_U^{-1}$

$$(x, v) \mapsto (x, w) = (x, \psi_{\mathcal{V}} \circ \psi_U^{-1}(x, v)).$$

Remark. *If the instructor had different taste, the above construction might as well have been the definition*

Remark. • Different choices of data $(\{U_{\alpha}\}, \{V_{\alpha}\}, \{\phi_{\alpha\beta}\})$ may give rise to the same vector bundle.

- however, with appropriate notion of equivalence, $\{\text{vector bundles}\} \equiv (\{U_{\alpha}\}, \{V_{\alpha}\}, \{\phi_{\alpha\beta}\})$. This can be made precise by defining a category of gluing data, which then becomes equivalent to the category of vector bundles.

8.3 Globalizing linear algebra constructions

Theorem 8.4 (Omnibus theorem). *Any canonical linear algebra construction can be globalized to the category of smooth vector bundles.*

More precisely: The category $\text{vectbund}_{\mathbb{R}}$ admits $\cdot \oplus \cdot, \cdot \otimes \cdot, (\cdot)^{\vee}, (\cdot)/(\cdot), \text{Hom}(\cdot, \cdot), \dots$

(i) the operations are compatible with pullback: i.e. given $f : B \rightarrow B'$,

$$f^*(E' \oplus F') = f^*(E') \oplus f^*(F').$$

Also $f^*(E' \otimes F') = f^*(E') \otimes f^*(F')$ for $E' \rightarrow B'$ and $F' \rightarrow B'$.

(ii) On $\text{vectbund}_{\mathbb{R}}(\{x\}) \simeq \text{vect}_{\mathbb{R}}$, the operations coincide.

Remark (Warning). In contrast to $\text{vect}_{\mathbb{K}}$, the category $\text{vectbund}_{\mathbb{R}}$ is **not abelian** (nor is $\text{vectbund}(B)$ in general). To see what goes wrong:

Consider $(E = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}; \phi : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$,

$$(t, v) \mapsto (t, tv).$$

Note: $\phi_t : \underbrace{E_t}_{=\mathbb{R}} \rightarrow E_t, v \mapsto tv$. If $t \neq 0$, then $\phi_t : E_t \rightarrow E_t$ is an isomorphism. If $t = 0, \phi_t \equiv 0$ (not an isomorphism).

So $\ker(\phi)$ wants to be

Start of lecture 20 (17.12.2024) and the E_b trivially are vector spaces

The transition function only really acts on the second component

For example, if you take more open sets, you still get the same structure

Not really well defined ...

first component is the base

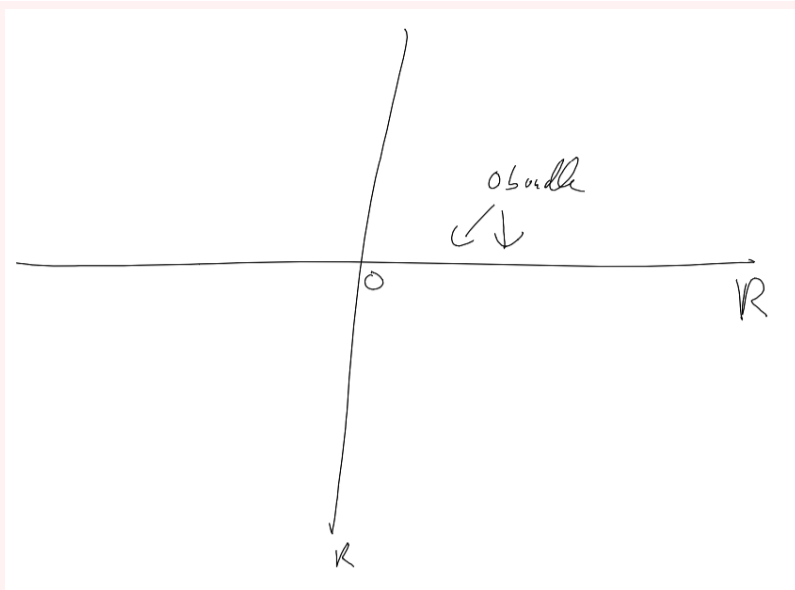


Figure 8.3: Sketch 8.03

The fix is to embed $\text{vectbund}_{\mathbb{R}} \subset \text{sheaves}_{\mathbb{R}}$. This is the start of a long story ...

Remark (Warning). In this category $\text{vectbund}_{\mathbb{R}}$ there is a difference between sub-bundles and

sub-objects. We say that

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E & \xrightarrow{i} & F \\ & \searrow & \swarrow \\ & B & \end{array}$$

is a sub-bundle, if $i_b : E_b \rightarrow F_b$ is injective.

Meanwhile, in any category, a sub-object C of D is a map $C \rightarrow D$, which is a monomorphism

(this means that for all Z , $Z \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{f_2} \\ \xrightarrow{f_1} \end{array} C \implies i \circ f_1 = i \circ f_2 \implies f_1 = f_2$).

We can only form quotients of sub-bundles. In fact ϕ from the previous example is a sub-object, but not a sub-bundle.

The omnibus theorem allows us to produce new bundles from old:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Example.} & & \\ & \nearrow & \\ TM & & T^*M \\ & \searrow & \\ & (TM)^{\vee} & \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} := U_{m \in M}(T_m M)^{\vee} \\ \downarrow = \\ \swarrow = \end{array}$$

the cotangent bundle and

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \nearrow & \\ TM & & \Lambda^k T^*M \\ & \searrow & \\ & \Sigma^k T^*M & \end{array}$$

which are the k -th exterior power of the cotangent bundle and the k -th symmetric power of the cotangent bundle.

Proof of theorem 8.4.

Proof: These definitions are all natural, so how could they fail? (Prof. Côté)

In (slightly) more detail: Let E^1, \dots, E^k be vector bundles over B . Let $\{U_{\alpha}\}$ be an open cover of B , which simultaneously trivializes all of the E^i . Then the E^i can be presented as follows:

- $\{V_\alpha^i\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$
- $\{\phi_{\alpha\beta}^i : U_\alpha \cap U_\beta \rightarrow \text{GL}(V_\alpha^i V_\beta^i)\}$, such that $\phi_{\alpha\gamma} = \phi_{\beta\gamma} \phi_{\alpha\beta}$ (lemma 8.3).

Let $\mathfrak{F}(E^1, \dots, E^k) \in \text{vectbund}_{\mathbb{R}}(B)$ defined by applying some combination of $\oplus, \otimes, \text{Hom}(\cdot, \cdot), (\cdot)/(\cdot), \dots$ (any canonical linear algebraic construction) fiberwise.
 I.e. $\mathfrak{F}(E^1, \dots, E^k) := \bigcup_{b \in B} \mathfrak{F}(E_b^1, \dots, E_b^k)$

the fibers are all disjoint

We can present $\mathfrak{F}(E^1, \dots, E^k)$ by

- $\{\mathfrak{F}(V_\alpha^1, \dots, V_\alpha^k)\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$
- $\phi_{\alpha\beta} : U_\alpha \cap U_\beta \rightarrow \text{GL}(\mathfrak{F}(V_\alpha^1, \dots, V_\alpha^k), \mathfrak{F}(V_\beta^1, \dots, V_\beta^k))$

Must check: Smoothness of the $\phi_{\alpha\beta}^i$ implies smoothness of $\phi_{\alpha\beta}$. This is essentially because, of the fixing $V_\alpha^i \simeq \mathbb{R}^k$, then $\phi_{\alpha\beta}^i$ is just a matrix and $\phi_{\alpha\beta}(x)$ is obtained from $\{\phi_{\alpha\beta}^i\}$ by a sequence of matrix addition, multiplications, taking adjoints, ... all of which preserve smoothness of the coefficients. \square

8.4 Sections of vector bundles

Definition. Let $\pi : E \rightarrow B$ be a vector bundle. A Section $\sigma : B \rightarrow E$ is a smooth map, such that $\pi \circ \sigma = \text{id}$.

We let $\Gamma(E)$ denote the space of sections of $E \rightarrow M$.

Here $M = B$ will be switched arbitrarily

Lemma 8.5. (i) $\Gamma(E)$ is an \mathbb{R} -vector space

(ii) $\Gamma(E)$ is a module over $C^\infty(M, \mathbb{R}) = C^\infty(M)$

Proof. Exercise. Same proof as for TM . \square

These are very important definitions!

Example. $E = TM \rightarrow M, \Gamma(E) = \mathcal{X}(M)$, elements are called vector fields.

Example. $E = T^*M \rightarrow M, \Gamma(E) =: \Omega^1(M)$, elements are called 1-forms.

1-forms are dual to vector fields

Example. $E = \Lambda^k T^*M \rightarrow M, \Gamma(\Lambda^k T^*M) =: \Omega^k(M)$, elements are called k-forms

Example. $E = M \times \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow M, \Gamma(E) \equiv C^\infty(M, \mathbb{R}^k)$ He wrote:

A little silly, but good to see

$$\Gamma(E) \ni \sigma \mapsto (x \mapsto (x, \sigma_x(x)))$$

But erased it later, to be fixed. Essentially the point is that the second component describes the function.

Remark. $\Gamma(E)$ is an infinite dimensional vector space (unless $E = M \times \{x\}$).

Lemma 8.6. Let $\pi : E \rightarrow B$ be a vector bundle. Suppose that $A \subset B$ is closed. Let $A \subset U$ be open. Suppose that $\sigma : A \rightarrow E$ is a smooth section (i.e. around every $a \in A$, σ extends to a smooth section in a neighborhood of a).

Then there exists $\tilde{\sigma} \in \Gamma(E)$ such that

(i) $\tilde{\sigma}|_A = \sigma$

(ii) $\text{supp}(\tilde{\sigma}) \subset U$

Proof. Sheet 12. We already have a lemma for the trivial case, then use partition of unity. \square

Picking a section to a point, we can globally extend it to a smooth function, then we can easily connect it to the previous remark.

Start of lecture 21
(20.12.24)

Definition. Let $f : M \rightarrow M'$ be a smooth map. Let $\pi : E' \rightarrow M'$ be a vector bundle over M' . Then there is a \mathbb{R} linear map

$$\Gamma(E') \rightarrow \Gamma(f^*(E'))\sigma \quad \mapsto \sigma \circ f = f^*\sigma$$

i.e.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} f^*E' & \longrightarrow & E' \\ \sigma \circ f \downarrow & & \downarrow \pi' \\ M & \xrightarrow{f} & M' \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \uparrow \\ \uparrow \end{array} \sigma$$

If $E' = T^*M'$, then we have

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} T^*M & \xleftarrow{df^\vee} & f^*(T^*M') & \longrightarrow & T^*M' \\ df^\vee \circ \sigma \circ f \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \sigma \\ M & \xrightarrow{=} & M & \xrightarrow{f} & M' \end{array}$$

where all vertical maps are projections. Here $df^\vee(p, v) = (p, df_p^\vee(v))$ for $p \in M, v \in f^*(T^*M')_p = T_{f(p)}^*M'$. By abuse of notation we also write

$$f^*\sigma = df^\vee \circ \sigma \circ f \in \Gamma(T^*M) = \Omega^1(M).$$

The **upshot** is that we can pullback 1-forms along smooth maps.

In contrast, we can not push forward vector fields along arbitrary smooth maps.

Concretely: if $\sigma \in \Omega^1(M')$, then $f^*\sigma \in \Omega^1(M)$ is characterized by the formula

$$(f^*\sigma)_p(\underbrace{v}_{T_p M}) = \sigma_{f(p)}(df_p(v)).$$

More generally, if $\sigma \in \Gamma(T^k T^*M')$, $f^*\sigma \in \Gamma(T^k T^*M)$ is characterized by the formula

$$(f^*\sigma)_p(v_1, \dots, v_k) = \sigma_{f(p)}(df_p(v_1), \dots, df_p(v_k)).$$

Definition. Let $\pi : E \rightarrow M$ be a vector bundle. Let $X^1, \dots, X^k \in \Gamma(E)$ (assuming that the fibers have dimension k). We say:

- (1) X^1, \dots, X^k is a **local frame** at $p \in M$, if $\text{span}(X^1(p), \dots, X^k(p)) = E_p$
- (2) X^1, \dots, X^k is a **global frame**, if $\text{span}(X^1(q), \dots, X^k(q)) = E_q, \forall q \in M$

Exercise: If X^1, \dots, X^k is a local / global frame for $E \xrightarrow{\pi} M$, then $(X^1)^\vee, \dots, (X^k)^\vee$ is a local / global frame for $E^\vee \rightarrow M$, hence $((X^i(p))^\vee)(X^j(p)) = \delta_{ij}$.

Example. For $M = \mathbb{R}^n$ we have $\{\partial_{x_1}, \dots, \partial_{x_n}\}$ a global frame and we write $dx_i = (\partial_{x_i})^\vee$.

We have already seen this, but only using obvious, simple, can't reverse the projection maps ...

Chapter 9:

Riemannian metrics (a quick tour)

Definition. Let V be a (finite dimensional, \mathbb{R} -) vector space. An inner product is a bilinear map

$$g \in \Sigma^2 V^* : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

which is

(i) symmetric

(ii) positive definite: $g(v, v) \geq 0, = 0 \iff v = 0$

We say that (V, g) is an inner product space.

Definition. Let M be a manifold. A Riemannian metric $g \in \Gamma(\Sigma^2 T^*M)$ such that for all $p \in M$, $(T_p M, g_p(\cdot, \cdot))$ is an inner product space. A pair (M, g) is called a Riemannian manifold.

Note $g_p \in (\Sigma^2 T^*M)_p = \Sigma^2(T_p M^\vee)$.

Remark. If $E \rightarrow M$ is a vector bundle, a metric on E is a section $g \in \Gamma(\Sigma^2 E^\vee)$ s.t. $(E_p, g_p(\cdot, \cdot))$ is an inner product space.

Note that on \mathbb{R}^n we have a frame $\{dx_1, \dots, dx_n\}$ for $T^*\mathbb{R}^n$. More generally, $T^2 T^*\mathbb{R}^n$ admits a global frame $\{dx_i \otimes dx_j\}_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$. Hence, any section $\sigma \in \Gamma(T^2 T^*\mathbb{R}^n)$ can be written as

$$\sigma = \sum_{i,j=1}^n \sigma_{ij} dx_i \otimes dx_j$$

for $\sigma_{ij} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Then σ is a metric iff:

(i) $\sigma_{ij} = \sigma_{ji}$, i.e. any symmetric matrix

(ii) $\sum_{i,j=1}^n \sigma_{ij} v^i v^j \geq 0, = 0 \iff v = 0$

in other words $\sigma \in \Gamma(T^2 T^*\mathbb{R}^n)$ defines a metric, iff $(\sigma_{ij}) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \text{Mat}(n \times n)$ lands in the subspace of symmetric and positive definite matrices.

Example. $g_0 := \sum i = 1^n dx_i \otimes dx_i = \sum_{i,j=1}^n \delta_{ij} dx_i \otimes dx_j$. We call g_0 the Euclidean metric.

Definition. Let (M, g) be a Riemannian manifold.

(1) Given $v \in T_p M$, the length of v

$$|v|_g = \sqrt{g_p(v, v)}$$

This is just notation I use, because everyone does (talking about the position of the p, after the T!)

(2) Given $v, w \in T_p M, v, w \neq 0$ the **angle between** v, w is the unique $\theta \in [0, \pi]$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{g_p(v, w)}{|v|_g |w|_g}$$

(3) We say that $v, w \in T_p M$ are orthogonal if $g(v, w) = 0$.

Exercise: If $M = \mathbb{R}^n, g = g_0$ the above definitions recovers the classical definitions.

Definition. Given $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow M$, the **length** of γ is given by

$$L_g(\gamma) = \int_a^b \underbrace{|\dot{\gamma}(t)|}_{\in T_{\gamma(t)} M} dt$$

Given $p, q \in M$, we define

$$d(p, q) = \inf \{L_g(\gamma) \mid \gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow M, p = \gamma(a), q = \gamma(b)\}.$$

Lemma 9.1. $L_g(\gamma)$ does not depend on the parametrization. In other words if $\gamma : [c, d] \rightarrow [a, b], \gamma' > 0$ Then setting $\sigma := \gamma \circ \phi$. We have

$$L_g(\sigma) = L_g(\gamma)$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} L_g(\sigma) &= \int_c^d |\dot{\sigma}(t)| dt = \int_c^d |\dot{\gamma}(\sigma(\phi(t))) \dot{\phi}(t)| dt \\ &= \int_c^d |\dot{\gamma}| \dot{\phi}(t) dt = \int_a^b |\dot{\gamma}(s)| ds = L_g(\gamma), \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality is just a change of variables. \square

Fact: $(M, d_g(\cdot, \cdot))$ is a metric space.

The infimum in the definition can not be a minimum, take $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ with the euclidean metric, the distance is not different from the distance in \mathbb{R} .

Lemma 9.2. Let M be a smooth manifold. Then M admits a Riemannian metric.

Proof. Choose a covering of M $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$ by coordiante charts $\varphi : U_\alpha \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $\{\psi_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$ be a partition of unity subject to the cover. Let $g_\alpha = \varphi_\alpha^* \in \Gamma(\Sigma^2 T^* U_\alpha)$ and let $g = \sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}} \underbrace{\psi_\alpha g_\alpha}_{\in \Gamma(\Sigma^2 T^* M)}$. This makes sense by local finiteness. It is clear that g is a metric:

It has to be symmetric, because the g_α are symmetric. To check that $g_p(v, v) > 0$ whenever $v \neq 0$ note that $\exists \alpha$ s.t. $\psi_\alpha(p) > 0 \implies g_\alpha(v, v) > 0$ whenever $v \neq 0, \psi_\alpha g_\alpha(v, v) \geq 0 \forall \alpha$ \square

Corollary 9.3. The space of Riemannian metrics on M is convex and non-empty, hence contractable.

Proof. Exercise. \square

Lemma 9.4. Let (W, g) be an inner product space. If $V \xhookrightarrow{i} W$, then g restricts to an inner product on V . We can write $g|_V = i^* g(\cdot, \cdot), i^* g(v, w) = g(i(v), i(w))$.

Proof. Straightforward check, therefore omitted. \square

Corollary 9.5. Let $i : M \hookrightarrow N$ an immersion. If $g \in \Gamma(\Sigma^2 T^* N)$ is a Riemannian metric, then $i^* g \in \Gamma(\Sigma^2 T^* M)$ is also a metric and we call $i^* g$ the **induced metric**.

Proof. By definition, $di : T_p^M \rightarrow T_{i(p)} N$ is injective. Now apply lemma 9.4. \square

Example. Suppose that $M \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ embedded submanifold. Then i^*g_0 is a metric on M .

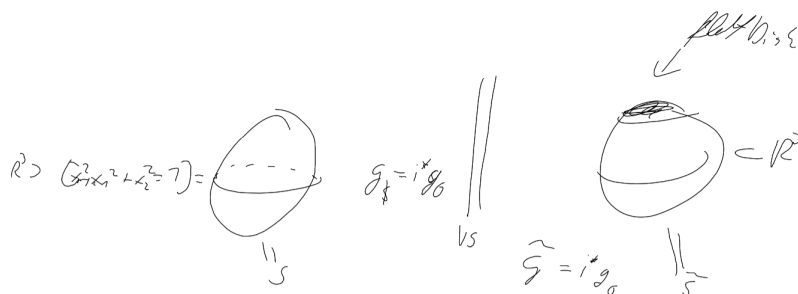


Figure 9.1: Sketch 9.1

He writes $g_S = i^*g_0$. Question: does there exist a diffeomorphism $\varphi : S \rightarrow \tilde{S}$ s.t. $\varphi^*\tilde{g} = g_S$? The answer is no!

Need: Invariant of Riemannian manifold.

Everything after the fact that metrics exist is non-examable.

Given $(M, g) \rightarrow R_g \in \Gamma(T^{3,1}TM)$ called the curvature tensor. We have

$$\varphi^*R_g = R_{\varphi^*g},$$

for $\varphi : M \rightarrow M'$ a diffeomorphism.

Fact: $R_{g_0} \equiv 0$ and $R_{g_S} \iff \underbrace{s_g}_{\in C^\infty(S)} \equiv 1$.

Not only is there no global diffeomorphism, there is also no local diffeomorphism!

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¹Lee [2] calls it a theorem

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²Lee [2] calls it a theorem

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