

Notes

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1 Differential Geometry

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1.1 Directional Derivative

Elements of the *tangent space* $T_p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ anchored at a point $p = (p^1, \dots, p^n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be visualized as arrows emanating from p . These arrows are called *tangent vectors* and represented by column vectors:

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v^1 \\ \vdots \\ v^n \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

The line through a point p with direction \mathbf{v} has parameterization

$$c(t) = (p^1 + tv^1, \dots, p^n + tv^n) \quad (2)$$

If $f \in C^\infty$ in a neighborhood of p and \mathbf{v} is a tangent vector at p , the *directional derivative* of f in the direction of \mathbf{v} at p is defined

$$D_{\mathbf{v}}f = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c(t)) - f(p)}{t} = \left. \frac{d}{dt} f(c(t)) \right|_{t=0} \quad (3)$$

By the chain rule

$$D_{\mathbf{v}}f = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} \bigg|_p \frac{dc^i}{dt} \bigg|_{t=0} \quad (4)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{dc^i}{dt} \bigg|_{t=0} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} \bigg|_p \quad (5)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n v^i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} \bigg|_p \quad (6)$$

$$(7)$$

The directional derivative operator at p is defined

$$D_v = \sum_{i=1}^n v^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \Big|_p \quad (8)$$

The association $v \mapsto D_v$ offers a way to *isomorphically* identify tangent vectors with operators on functions. The following makes this rigorous.

1.2 Derivations

For each tangent vector v at a point $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the directional derivative at p gives a map of vector spaces

$$D_v: C_p^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

D_v is a linear map that satisfies the *Leibniz rule*

$$D_v(fg) = (D_v f)g(p) + f(p)(D_v g) \quad (9)$$

because the partial derivative satisfy the product rule. In general, any linear map $L: C_p^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies the Leibniz rule is called a *derivation* at p . Denote the set of all derivations at p by $\mathcal{D}_p(\mathbb{R}^n)$. **This set is also a real vector space.**

So far we know directional derivatives D_v at p are derivations at p . Thus, there is a map

$$\begin{aligned} \phi: T_p(\mathbb{R}^n) &\rightarrow \mathcal{D}_p(\mathbb{R}^n) \\ v &\mapsto D_v \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 1.1

The linear map ϕ is an isomorphism of vector spaces.

The implication is that we may identify tangent vectors at p with derivations at p (by way of directional derivatives against germs). Under this isomorphism $T_p(\mathbb{R}^n) \simeq \mathcal{D}_p(\mathbb{R}^n)$, the standard basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ for $T_p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ maps to

$$\left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x^1} \Big|_p, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^n} \Big|_p \right\} \quad (10)$$

Therefore from now on we write a tangent vector as

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^n v^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \Big|_p \quad (11)$$

The point being that, while not as geometrically intuitive as arrows, $\mathcal{D}_p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ generalizes to manifolds.

1.3 Vector Fields

A *vector field* X on an open $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is function that assigns to $p \in U$ a tangent vector $X_p \in T_p(\mathbb{R}^n)$. Notice,

carefully, that the vector field assigns at each point a vector in the tangent space anchored at that point. Using the tangent basis (eqn. (10))

$$X: p \mapsto \sum_i a^i(p) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \Big|_p \quad (12)$$

Note that both the coefficients **and** the partial derivatives are evaluated at p . Having said that, we often omit p in the specification of a vector field when it clear from context.

Example 1.1. On $\mathbb{R}^n - \{0\}$, let $p = (x, y)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} X &= \frac{-y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{-y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \\ \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{-y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} & \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \end{bmatrix}^T \end{aligned}$$

See figure ??

In general we can identify vector fields with parameterized column vectors

$$X = \sum_i a^i(p) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \Big|_p \leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a^1(p) \\ \vdots \\ a^n(p) \end{bmatrix} \quad (13)$$

1.4 Dual Space

The *dual space* V^\wedge of V is the set of all real-valued linear functions on V i.e. all $f: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Elements of V^\wedge are called *covectors*.

Assume V is finite dimensional and let $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ be a basis V . Recall that $e_i := \partial_{x_i}$. Then $X = \sum a^i \partial_{x_i}$ for all $X \in T_p$. Let $\alpha^i: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the linear function that picks out the i th coordinate of a **vector**, i.e. $\alpha^i(X) = a^i(p)$. Note that

$$\alpha^i(\partial_j) = \alpha^i(1 \cdot \partial_j) \quad (14)$$

$$= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases} \quad (15)$$

$$= \delta_j^i \quad (16)$$

Note that position of indices is important – upper indices are for covectors.

Proposition 1.1

$\{\alpha^i\}$ form a basis for V^\wedge .

Proof. We first prove that $\{\alpha^i\}$ span V^\wedge . If $f \in V^\wedge$ and $X = \sum a^i \partial_{x_i} \in V$, then

$$f(X) = \sum a^i f(\partial_{x_i}) \quad (17)$$

$$= \sum \alpha^i(X) f(\partial_{x_i}) \quad (18)$$

$$= \sum f(\partial_{x_i}) \alpha^i(X) \quad (19)$$

which shows that any f can be expanded as a linear sum of α^i . To show linear independence, suppose $\sum c_i \alpha^i = 0$ with at least one c_i non-zero. Applying this to an arbitrary ∂_{x_i} gives

$$0 = \left(\sum_i c_i \alpha^i \right) (\partial_{x_i}) = \sum_i c_i \alpha^i(\partial_{x_i}) = \sum_i c_i \delta_j^i = c_j \quad (20)$$

which is a contradiction. Hence α^i are linearly independent. \square

This basis $\{\alpha^i\}$ for V^\wedge is said to be *dual* to the basis $\{\partial_{x_i}\}$ for V .

Example 1.2. Coordinate functions With respect to a basis $\{\partial_{x_i}\}$ for V , every $X \in V$ can be written uniquely as a linear combination $X = \sum a^i \partial_{x_i}$ with $a^i \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $\{\alpha^i\}$ be the dual basis (i.e. the basis for V^\wedge). Then

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha^i(X) &= \alpha^i \left(\sum_j a^j \partial_{x_j} \right) \\ &= \sum_j a^j \alpha^i(\partial_{x_j}) \\ &= \sum_j a^j \delta_j^i \\ &= a^i \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the dual basis $\{\alpha^i\}$ to $\{\partial_{x_i}\}$ is the set of coordinate functions. The sense here is that since tangent vectors are directional derivatives (i.e. operators on functions) and the dual space is a mapping from those operators to \mathbb{R} , then a mapping from operators to scalars means hitting an operator with a function (or vice-versa). **And** the coordinate functions are constant with respect to each other coordinate (and hence partials wrt them are naturally zero).

1.5 Differential Forms on \mathbb{R}^n

A differential k -form assigns a k -covector from the dual space at each point p . The wedge product (alternation of tensor product) of differential forms is defined pointwise (as the wedge product of multi-covectors). Differential forms exist on an open set (why?) there is a notion of differentiation (called exterior derivative). Exterior derivative is coordinate independent and intrinsic to a manifold; it is the abstraction of gradient, curl, divergence to arbitrary manifolds. Differential forms extend Grassmann's

exterior algebra (graded algebra of multi-covectors) from the tangent space at a point globally, i.e. to the entire manifold (how? bundles?).

1.5.1 Differential of a Function

Definition 1.1: Cotangent Space

The *cotangent space* to \mathbb{R}^n at p , denoted $T_p^*(\mathbb{R}^n)$, is defined to be the dual space $(T_p(\mathbb{R}^n))^\vee$ of the tangent space $T_p(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

Thus, an element of the cotangent space $T_p^*(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is a **covector of linear functional on tangent space**.

Definition 1.2: Differential 1-form

A *covector field* or a *differential 1-form* on an open subset U of \mathbb{R}^n is a function ω that assigns at each point p in U a covector $\omega_p \in T_p^*(\mathbb{R}^n)$

$$\begin{aligned} \omega: U &\rightarrow \bigcup_{p \in U} T_p^*(\mathbb{R}^n) \\ p &\mapsto \omega_p \in T_p^*(\mathbb{R}^n) \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

We call a differential 1-form a *1-form* for short.

Definition 1.3: Differential

From any C^∞ function $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we can construct the 1-form df , called the *differential* of f , as follows: for $p \in U$ and $X_p \in T_p(U)$

$$(df)_p(X_p) := X_p f \quad (22)$$

In words the differential of f is the application of X_p to f or **the directional derivative of f in the direction of the tangent vector defined by the coefficients of X_p** .

Let x^1, \dots, x^n be the standard coordinates on \mathbb{R} , $\{(dx^1)_p, \dots, (dx^n)_p\}$ their differentials defined

$$(dx^i)_p(X_p) := (X_p)(x^i)$$

and

$$\left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x^1} \Big|_p, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^n} \Big|_p \right\}$$

be the standard basis for $T_p(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

Proposition 1.2

$\{(dx^1)_p, \dots, (dx^n)_p\}$ is the basis for $T_p^*(\mathbb{R}^n)$ dual to the coordinate basis for $T_p(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

Proof. By definition,

$$(dx^i)_p \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \Big|_p \right) = \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial x^j} \Big|_p = \delta_j^i$$

□

If ω is a 1-form on $U \in \mathbb{R}^n$ then by proposition (1.2), at each point $p \in U$

$$\omega_p = \sum a_i(p)(dx^i)_p$$

Note the lower index on $a_i(p)$ as opposed to the upper index on $X_p = \sum a^i(p)\partial_{x^i}|_p$. If $x := x^1, y := x^2, z := x^3$, then dx, dy, dz .

Proposition 1.3: df in terms of coordinates

If $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then

$$df = \sum \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} dx^i \quad (23)$$

Proof.

$$(df)_p = \sum a_i(p)(dx^i)_p$$

for some real numbers $a_i(p)$ depending on p . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} df \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \right) &= \sum_i a_i dx^i \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \right) \\ &= \sum_i a_i \delta_j^i = a_j \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

On the other hand, by the definition of the differential

$$df = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \right) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^j} \quad (25)$$

Therefore

$$a_j = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^j} \quad (26)$$

and hence

$$(df)_p = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} \Big|_p (dx^i)_p$$

1.5.2 Differential k -forms

Definition 1.4: Differential k -forms

More generally, a *differential form* ω of degree k is a function that at each point assigns an alternating k -linear function on $T_p(\mathbb{R}^n)$, i.e. $\omega_p \in A^k(T_p(\mathbb{R}^n))$.

A basis for $A^k(T_p(\mathbb{R}^n))$ is

$$(dx^I)_p := (dx^{i_1})_p \wedge \cdots \wedge (dx^{i_k})_p \quad (27)$$

where $1 \leq i_1 < \cdots < i_k \leq n$.

What is the nuance here?

Therefore, at each point $p \in U$, ω_p is a linear combination

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_p &= \sum_I a_I(p)(dx^I)_p \\ 1 \leq i_1 < \cdots < i_k \leq n \end{aligned} \quad (28)$$

and a k -form ω on open U is a linear combination

$$\omega = \sum_I a_I dx^I \quad (29)$$

with function coefficients $a_I: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We say that a k -form ω is C^∞ on U if all of the coefficients a_I are C^∞ functions on U . Denote $\Omega^k(U)$ the vector space of k -forms on U . A 0-form on U assigns to each point p an element of $A^0(T_p(\mathbb{R}^n)) := \mathbb{R}$; thus, a 0-form on U is a constant function. Note there are no nonzero differential forms of degree $> n$ on U since if $\deg dx^I > n$ then at least two of the component 1-forms of dx^I must be the same and therefore $dx^I = 0$.

Definition 1.5: Wedge product of forms

The *wedge product* of a k -form ω and ℓ -form τ is defined pointwise

$$\begin{aligned} (\omega \wedge \tau)_p &:= \omega_p \wedge \tau_p \\ \omega \wedge \tau &= \sum_{I,J} (a_I b_J) dx^I \wedge dx^J \end{aligned} \quad (30)$$

where $I \cap J = \emptyset$.

Hence the wedge product is bilinear

$$\wedge: \Omega^k(U) \times \Omega^\ell \rightarrow \Omega^{k+\ell}(U) \quad (31)$$

The wedge product of forms is also anticommutative and associate (owing to the associativity and anticommutativity of the wedge product on multi-covectors) as therefore induces a graded algebra on $\Omega(U) := \bigoplus_k \Omega^k(U)$.

Example 1.3. In the case of

$$\wedge: \Omega^0(U) \times \Omega^\ell(U) \rightarrow \Omega^\ell$$

□

we have the pointwise multiplication of a C^∞ function and a C^∞ ℓ -form

$$(f \wedge \omega)_p = f(p) \wedge \omega_p = f(p)\omega_p$$

Let x, y, z be the coordinates on \mathbb{R}^3 . Then, the 1-forms are

$$f dx + g dy + h dz$$

the 2-forms are

$$f dy \wedge dz + g dx \wedge dz + h dx \wedge dy$$

and the 3-forms are

$$f dx \wedge dy \wedge dz$$

1.5.3 Differential Forms as Multilinear Functions on Vector Fields

If ω is a 1-form and X is a vector field then

$$\begin{aligned}\omega(X)|_p &:= \omega_p(X_p) \\ \omega &= \sum a_i dx^i \quad X = \sum b^j \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \\ \omega(X) &= \left(\sum a_i dx^i \right) \left(\sum b^j \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \right) \\ &= \sum a_i b^i\end{aligned}\tag{32}$$

1.5.4 Exterior Derivative

Definition 1.6: Exterior Derivative

The exterior derivative of a function $f \in C^\infty(U)$ is defined to be its differential df

$$df = \sum \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} dx^i$$

For $k \geq 1$, if $\omega = \sum_I a_I dx^I$ is a k -form, then

$$\begin{aligned}d\omega &:= \sum_I da_I \wedge dx^I \\ &= \sum_I \left(\sum_j \frac{\partial a_I}{\partial x^j} dx^j \right) \wedge dx^I\end{aligned}\tag{33}$$

Example 1.4. Let ω be the 1-form $f dx + g dy$ on R^2 . Then

$$\begin{aligned}d\omega &= df \wedge dx + dg \wedge dy \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} dy \right) \wedge dx \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} dy \right) \wedge dy \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) dx \wedge dy\end{aligned}$$

where we use that $dx \wedge dy = -dy \wedge dx$ and $dx \wedge dx = 0$.

Proposition 1.4: Properties of exterior differentiation

1. exterior differentiation is an antiderivation of degree 1:

$$d(\omega \wedge \tau) = (d\omega) \wedge \tau + (-1)^{\deg \omega} \omega \wedge d\tau$$

2. $d^2 = 0$

Proposition 1.5: Characterization of the exterior derivative

The properties of proposition (1.4) completely characterize exterior differentiation.

Definition 1.7: Antiderivation

Let $A = \bigoplus_k A^k$ be a graded algebra over a field K . An *antiderivation of the graded algebra* A is a k -linear map $D: A \rightarrow A$ such that for $a \in A^k, b \in A^\ell$

$$D(ab) = (Da)b + (-1)^k aDb\tag{34}$$

If there is an integer m such that D sends A^k to A^{k+m} for all k , then the antiderivation is of *degree* m .

2 Appendix

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2.1 Definitions

2.1.1 Linear Operator

A map $L: V \rightarrow W$ between vector spaces over a field K is a *linear operator* if

1. **distributivity:** $L(u + v) = L(u) + L(v)$
2. **homogeneity:** $L(rv) = rL(v)$

To emphasize the field, L is said to be K -linear.

2.1.2 Germes

Consider the set of all pairs (f, U) , where U is a neighborhood of p and $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a C^∞ function. We say that $(f, U) \sim (g, U')$ if there is an open W such that $p \in W \subset U \cap U'$ and $f = g$ when restricted to W . The equivalence class $[(f, U)]$ of (f, U) is the *germ* of f at p . We write

$$C_p^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n) := \{[(f, U)]\} \quad (35)$$

for the set all germs of C^∞ functions on \mathbb{R}^n at p .

2.1.3 Algebra

An *algebra* over field K is a vector space A over K with a multiplication map

$$\mu: A \times A \rightarrow A \quad (36)$$

usually written $\mu(a, b) = a \cdot b$, such that μ is associative, distributive, and homogeneous, where homogeneity is defined:

1. **associativity:** $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$
2. **distributivity:** $(a + b) \cdot c = a \cdot c + b \cdot c$ and $a \cdot b + a \cdot c$
3. **homogeneity:** $r(a \cdot b) = (ra) \cdot b = a \cdot (rb)$

If A, A' are algebras then an *algebra homomorphism* is a linear operator L that respects algebra multiplication

$L(ab) = L(a)L(b)$. It's the case that addition and multiplication of functions **induces addition and multiplication on the set of germs** C_p^∞ , making it into an algebra over \mathbb{R}^n .

2.1.4 Module

If R is a commutative ring with identity, then a (left) R -*module* is an abelian group A with a scalar multiplication map

$$\mu: R \times A \rightarrow A \quad (37)$$

such that μ is

1. **associative:** $(rs)a = r(sa)$ for $r, s \in R$
2. **identity:** $1 \in R \implies 1a = a$
3. **distributive:** $(r+s)a = ra+sa$ and $r(a+b) = ra+rb$

If R is a field, then an R -module is a vector space over R ; in this sense modules generalize vector space to scalars from a ring rather than a field.

Let A, A' be R -modules. An R -*module homomorphism* $f: A \rightarrow A'$ is a map that preserves both addition and scalar multiplication.

2.1.5 Tensor Product

Let f be k -linear function and g be an ℓ -linear function on a vector space V . Then, their *tensor product* is the $(k + \ell)$ -linear function $f \otimes g$

$$(f \otimes g)(v_1, \dots, v_{k+\ell}) := f(v_1, \dots, v_k)g(v_{k+1}, \dots, v_{k+\ell}) \quad (38)$$

Example 2.1. (*Bilinear maps*) Let $\{e_i\}$ be a basis for a vector space V and $\{\alpha^j\}$ be the dual basis for V^\vee . Also let $\langle, \rangle: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a bilinear map on V . Set $g_{ij} = \langle e_i, e_j \rangle \in \mathbb{R}$. If

$$v = \sum v^i e_i \quad (39)$$

$$w = \sum w^j e_j \quad (40)$$

then $v^i = \alpha^i(v)$ and $w^j = \alpha^j(w)$, where α are the coordinate functions α^i, α^j . By bilinearity, we can express \langle, \rangle in terms of the tensor product

$$\begin{aligned} \langle v, w \rangle &= \sum_{ij} v^i w^j \langle e_i, e_j \rangle \\ &= \sum \alpha^i(v) \alpha^j(w) g_{ij} \\ &= \sum (\alpha^i \otimes \alpha^j)(v, w) \times g_{ij} \end{aligned} \quad (41)$$

Hence $\langle, \rangle = \sum g_{ij} \alpha^i \otimes \alpha^j$.

2.1.6 Wedge Product

Let f be k -linear function and g be an ℓ -linear function on a vector space V . If f, g are alternating¹ then we would like their product to be alternating as well: the *wedge product* or *exterior product* $f \wedge g$

$$f \wedge g := \frac{1}{k!\ell!} A(f \otimes g) \quad (42)$$

$$:= \frac{1}{k!\ell!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_{k+\ell}} (\text{sgn}(\sigma)) f(v_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, v_{\sigma(k)}) g(v_{\sigma(k+1)}, \dots, v_{\sigma(k+\ell)}) \quad (43)$$

where $S_{k+\ell}$ is the *permutation group* on $k + \ell$ elements.

Note that the wedge product of three alternating functions f, g, h generalizes to

$$f \wedge g \wedge h = \frac{1}{k!\ell!m!} A(f \otimes g \otimes h) \quad (44)$$

and any number of alternating functions.

Proposition 2.1

(*Wedge product of 1-covectors*) If $\{\alpha^i\}$ are linear functions on V and $v_i \in V$ then

$$\alpha^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha^k(v_1, \dots, v_k) = \det([\alpha^i(v_j)]) \quad (45)$$

where $[\alpha^i(v_j)]$ is the matrix where the i, j -entry is $\alpha^i(v_j)$.

Proof.

$$\alpha^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha^k(v_1, \dots, v_k) = A(\alpha^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha^k)(v_1, \dots, v_k) \quad (46)$$

$$= \sum_{\sigma \in S_k} (\text{sgn}(\sigma)) \alpha^1(v_{\sigma(1)}) \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha^k(v_{\sigma(k)}) \quad (47)$$

$$= \det([\alpha^i(v_j)]) \quad (48)$$

□

Let $\{e_i\}$ be a basis for a vector space V and let α_j be the dual basis for V^\vee . Define *multi-index notation*

$$\begin{aligned} I &:= (i_1, \dots, i_k) \\ e_I &:= (e_{i_1}, \dots, e_{i_k}) \\ \alpha_I &:= \alpha^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha^{i_k} \end{aligned} \quad (49)$$

A k -linear function on V is completely determined by its values on all k -tuples e_I . If f is alternating then you only need all increasing multi-indices $1 \leq i_1 \leq \dots \leq i_k \leq n$.

¹An alternating function is one that changes signs if arguments are transposed (e.g. cross-product or determinant).

Lemma 2.1

Let I, J be increasing multi-indices of length k , then

$$\alpha^I(e_J) = \delta_J^I := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } I = J \\ 0 & \text{for } I \neq J \end{cases} \quad (50)$$

Proposition 2.2

The alternating k -linear functions α^I , $I := (i_1 < \dots < i_k)$ form a basis for the space $A^k(V)$ of alternating k -linear functions on V .

Corollary 2.1

If the vector space V has dimension n , then the vector space $A^k(V)$ of k -covectors on V has dimension $\binom{n}{k}$.

Corollary 2.2

If $k > \dim(V)$, then $A^k(V) = 0$.

2.1.7 Graded Algebra

Definition 2.1

A *graded algebra* A over a field K is one that can be written as a *direct sum*²

$$A = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} A^n = A^0 \oplus A^1 \oplus A^2 \oplus \dots$$

such that the multiplication map μ

$$\mu: A^k \times A^\ell \rightarrow A^{k+\ell}$$

i.e. $A^k \cdot A^\ell \subset A^{k+\ell}$. Elements of any factor A^n of the decomposition are called homogeneous elements of degree n . $A = \bigoplus_k A^k$ is said to be *graded commutative* or *anticommutative* if for all $a \in A^k, b \in A^\ell$

$$ab = (-1)^{k\ell} ba$$

Example 2.2. The *polynomial algebra*³ $A = \mathbb{R}[x, y]$ is *graded by degree*; A^k consists of all homogeneous polyno-

²The direct sum of two abelian groups A and B is another abelian group $A \oplus B$ consisting of the ordered pairs (a, b) where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. (Confusingly this ordered pair is also called the cartesian product of the two groups.) To add ordered pairs, we define the sum $(a, b) + (c, d)$ to be $(a + c, b + d)$; in other words addition is defined coordinate-wise. Note that $A^2 := A \oplus A$. A similar process can be used to form the direct sum of any two algebraic structures, such as rings, modules, and vector spaces.

mials of total degree k . It is a direct sum of A^i consisting of homogeneous polynomials of degree i e.g.

$$(x \in A^1) \times (x + y \in A^1) = (x^2 + xy \in A^2)$$

Definition 2.2

For a finite dimensional vector space V define

$$\begin{aligned} A^*(V) &:= \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} A^k(V) \\ &= \bigoplus_{k=0}^n A^k(V) \end{aligned} \tag{51}$$

where $A^k(V)$ is the set of all k -linear covectors on V . With the wedge product as multiplication A^* becomes an anticommutative algebra called the ***exterior algebra*** or ***Grassmann algebra*** of covectors.

³The algebra of polynomials in two variables with coefficients and scalars in \mathbb{R} where addition is degree-coefficient wise and “foil” multiplication

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