

# Notes

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December 5, 2019

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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

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

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

## 1.2 Derivations

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

$$D_{\mathbf{v}}: C_p^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$D_{\mathbf{v}}$  is a linear map that satisfies the *Leibniz rule*

$$D_{\mathbf{v}}(fg) = (D_{\mathbf{v}}f)g(p) + f(p)(D_{\mathbf{v}}g) \quad (9)$$

because the partial derivatives 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  $D_{\mathbf{v}}$  at  $p$  are derivations at  $p$ . Thus, there is a map

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

**Theorem 1.1.** *The linear map  $\phi$  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

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

Therefore from now on we write a tangent vector as

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

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))

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

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

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

## 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  $\alpha^i$ . To show linear independence, suppose  $\sum c_i \alpha^i = 0$  with at least one  $c_i$  non-zero. Applying this to an arbitrary  $\partial_{x_i}$  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  $\alpha^i$  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).

## 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 Germs

Consider the set of all pairs  $(f, U)$ , where  $U$  is a neighborhood of  $p$  and  $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a  $C^\infty$  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

$$C_p^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n) := \{[(f, U)]\} \quad (21)$$

for the set all germs of  $C^\infty$  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

$$\mu: A \times A \rightarrow A \quad (22)$$

usually written  $\mu(a, b) = a \cdot b$ , such that  $\mu$  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**  $C_p^\infty$ , 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

$$\mu: R \times A \rightarrow A \quad (23)$$

such that  $\mu$  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  $\ell$ -linear function on a vector space  $V$ . Then, their *tensor product* is the  $(k+\ell)$ -linear function  $f \otimes g$

$$(f \otimes g)(v_1, \dots, v_{k+\ell}) := f(v_1, \dots, v_k)g(v_{k+1}, \dots, v_{k+\ell}) \quad (24)$$

**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  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a bilinear map on  $V$ . Set  $g_{ij} = \langle e_i, e_j \rangle \in \mathbb{R}$ . If

$$v = \sum v^i e_i \quad (25)$$

$$w = \sum w^j e_j \quad (26)$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \langle v, w \rangle &= \sum_{i,j} v^i w^j \langle e_i, e_j \rangle \\ &= \sum \alpha^i(v) \alpha^j(w) g_{ij} \\ &= \sum (\alpha^i \otimes \alpha^j)(v, w) \times g_{ij} \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

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

### 2.1.6 Wedge Product

Let  $f$  be  $k$ -linear function and  $g$  be an  $\ell$ -linear function on a vector space  $V$ . If  $f, g$  are alternating<sup>1</sup> then we would like their product to be alternating as well: the *wedge product* or *exterior product*  $f \wedge g$

$$f \wedge g := \frac{1}{k!\ell!} A(f \otimes g) \quad (28)$$

$$:= \frac{1}{k!\ell!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_{k+\ell}} (\text{sgn}(\sigma)) f(v_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, v_{\sigma(k)}) g(v_{\sigma(k+1)}, \dots, v_{\sigma(k+\ell)}) \quad (29)$$

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

$$f \wedge g \wedge h = \frac{1}{k!\ell!m!} A(f \otimes g \otimes h) \quad (30)$$

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

$$\alpha^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha^k(v_1, \dots, v_k) = \det([\alpha^i(v_j)]) \quad (31)$$

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

*Proof.*

$$\alpha^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha^k(v_1, \dots, v_k) = A(\alpha^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha^k)(v_1, \dots, v_k) \quad (32)$$

$$= \sum_{\sigma \in S_k} (\text{sgn}(\sigma)) \alpha^1(v_{\sigma(1)}) \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha^k(v_{\sigma(k)}) \quad (33)$$

$$= \det([\alpha^i(v_j)]) \quad (34)$$

□

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

$$\begin{aligned} I &:= (i_1, \dots, i_k) \\ e_I &:= (e_{i_1}, \dots, e_{i_k}) \\ \alpha_I &:= \alpha^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha^{i_k} \end{aligned} \quad (35)$$

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  $1 \leq i_1 \leq \dots \leq i_k \leq n$ .

### 2.1.7 Graded Algebra

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

**Definition 2.1.** A *graded algebra*  $A$  over a field  $K$  is one that can be written as a *direct sum*<sup>2</sup>

$$A = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} A_n = A_0 \oplus A_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus \cdots$$

such that the multiplication map  $\mu$

$$\mu: A_k \times A_\ell \rightarrow A_{k+\ell}$$

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 *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*<sup>3</sup>  $A = \mathbb{R}[x, y]$  is *graded by degree*;  $A_k$  consists of all homogeneous polynomials 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

$$\begin{aligned} A_*(V) &:= \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k(V) \\ &= \bigoplus_{k=0}^n A_k(V) \end{aligned} \tag{36}$$

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.

<sup>2</sup>The 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.

<sup>3</sup>The 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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