

## Topological Vector Spaces

Let's see if we can approximate a continuous function

$$X \xrightarrow{f} Y \quad \text{with a linear function}$$

$$X \xrightarrow{L} Y \quad L \in \text{Lin}(X; Y).$$

For this to be meaningful,  $X, Y$  should have linear structure as well as a topology. We'll assume that  $X$  and  $Y$  are real, finite-dimensional "topological vector spaces." This is just a Hausdorff space where  $(x, x') \mapsto x + x'$ ,  $(a, x) \mapsto ax$  and  $x \mapsto -x$  are continuous. Geroch proves that any such space is isomorphic to the euclidean topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  given by the metric

$$d: (x, x') \mapsto |x - x'|$$

where  $\|\cdot\|: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a norm i.e.

$$|ax| = |a| |x| \quad a \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$|x + x'| \leq |x| + |x'|$$

$$|x| \geq 0 \quad \wedge \quad |x| = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0.$$

Exercise: Prove that  $d$ , as defined, is a metric.

We can now use the norm to measure how close a linear map is to a continuous map.

Asside: Is  $\mathbb{R}^n$  boring? How about this: Are all manifolds on topological space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  isomorphic?

Answer: Yes, except for  $n=4$  when there are an infinite number of solutions. Donaldson, 1986 Fields Medal.

$$X \xrightarrow{f} Y \quad f \in \text{Mor}(X, Y)$$

$$X \xrightarrow{L} Y \quad L \in \text{Lin}(X; Y)$$

For a fixed  $x \in X$ , let  $R$  be defined by

$$f(x+h) = f(x) + L(h) + R(x, h)$$

If  $h \mapsto \begin{cases} |R(x, h)|/|h| & \text{if } h \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } h = 0 \end{cases}$  is continuous

then  $f$  is said to be differentiable at  $x$ . In this case,  $L$  is called the differential of  $f$  at  $x$ , often denoted  $df_x \in \text{Lin}(X; Y)$ .

The differentials have various nice properties, e.g.

Theorem: Differentials are unique.

Proof. Suppose that  $L$  and  $L'$  are both differentials of  $f$  at  $x$  and  $L$  and  $L'$  differ at some nonzero  $h \in X$ .

$$\text{Then } \frac{L(h) - L'(h)}{|h|} = \frac{R'(x, h)}{|h|} - \frac{R(x, h)}{|h|} \quad \text{if } h \neq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow |(L - L')(h/|h|)| = \left| \frac{R'(x, h)}{|h|} - \frac{R(x, h)}{|h|} \right| \leq \frac{|R'(x, h)|}{|h|} + \frac{|R(x, h)|}{|h|}$$

Since the quantity on the left is constant on the line  $a \cdot h$   $a \in \mathbb{R}^+$ , any neighborhood of 0 in  $X$  contains such a point (why?)

and so  $h \mapsto \begin{cases} \frac{|R'(x, h)|}{|h|} + \frac{|R(x, h)|}{|h|} & \text{if } h \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } h = 0 \end{cases}$  is not

continuous  $\Rightarrow L$  or  $L'$  are not differentials of  $f$  at  $x \Rightarrow L = L'$ .

exercise: Fill in the details of this proof.

Besides uniqueness, the most important fact about differentials is

Theorem (The chain rule): If  $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$  and  $Y \xrightarrow{g} Z$  are differentiable, then  $X \xrightarrow{g \circ f} Z$  is differentiable and, at any  $x \in X$ ,  $d(g \circ f)_x = dg_{f(x)} \circ df_x$ .

Proof: Given  $x \in X$ , let  $f(x+h) = f(x) + df_x(h) + R_f(x,h)$ .

Then  $g(f(x+h)) = g(f(x)) + dg_{f(x)} \circ df_x(h) + R(x,h)$

where  $R(x,h) = dg_{f(x)}(R_f(x,h)) + R_g(f(x), df_x(h) + R_f(x,h))$ .

Since  $h \mapsto \begin{cases} R(x,h)/|h| & \text{if } h \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } h = 0 \end{cases}$  is continuous, we're done.

exercise: Fill in the details of the proof.

Notice that these two results give us a functor

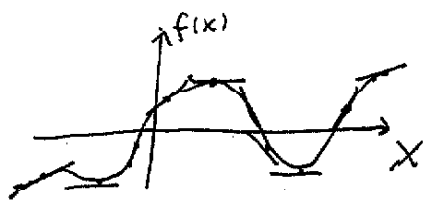
$$(X, x) \xrightarrow{f} (Y, y) \quad \text{Pointed topological spaces}$$

$$T(X, x) \xrightarrow{Tf} T(Y, y) \quad \text{Real vector spaces, } Tf \equiv df_x$$

$T$  is called the "Tangent space" functor.

Notice how the functorial condition  $T(g \circ f) = Tg \circ Tf$  is exactly the chain rule.

It's often useful to look at the differential as a "section" of a fiber bundle.



Let  $TX \cong \{(x, v) : x \in X, v \in T(X, x)\}$

This is the "tangent bundle" with projection  $TX \xrightarrow{\pi} X, \pi : (x, v) \mapsto x$ .

Then, the differential of  $f$  is a particular section of  $TX$ , i.e. a  $TX \xleftarrow{d} X$  such that  $\pi \circ d = i_x$  i.e. a choice of  $v \in T(X, x)$  for every  $x \in X$ .

In general the category of bundles over  $X$  is

Objects:  $E \xrightarrow{\pi} X, F \xrightarrow{\nu} X, \text{ etc.}$

Morphisms:  $(E, \pi) \xrightarrow{\varphi} (F, \nu)$  s.t.  $\begin{matrix} E & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & F \\ \pi \searrow & & \swarrow \nu \\ & X & \end{matrix}$  commutes.

Bundles are a convenient way to define, e.g., vector fields. A vector field on manifold  $M$  is a section of  $TM \xrightarrow{\pi} M$  i.e. for each  $p \in M$ , a vector

$$v(p) = a_1(p) e_1^p + a_2(p) e_2^p + \dots + a_m(p) e_m^p$$

where  $\{e_1^p, e_2^p, \dots, e_m^p\}$  are a basis of  $T(M, p) \cong T_p(M)$ .

## Differential Forms

Let's consider differentiable functions  $U \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}$  where  $U$  is an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The simplest such functions are projections

$$"x_i": (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_i, \dots, a_n) \mapsto a_i$$

Since  $x_i(x+h) = x_i(x) + x_i(h) + 0$ ,  $x_i$  is differentiable with  $dx_i: h \mapsto h_i$ . Notice that  $dx_i \in \text{Lin}(\mathbb{R}^n; \mathbb{R}) = (\mathbb{R}^n)^*$ , and  $\{dx_1, dx_2, \dots, dx_n\}$  are a basis for  $(\mathbb{R}^n)^*$ .

Thus, in general,

$$df_x(h) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j(x) dx_j(h)$$

The  $a_j(x)$  are called partial derivatives, usually written

$$a_j(x) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}(x).$$

exercise: Consider  $f(x + \lambda e_j)$  and show that  $a_j(x)$  is the partial derivative of  $f$  defined in the usual way.

Given any vector space  $V$ , (e.g.  $(\mathbb{R}^n)^*$ ), we have already defined  $V \wedge V$ ,  $V \wedge V \wedge V$ , etc., meaning that

$$dx \wedge dy + dy \wedge dz \in \wedge^3 V \text{ etc. are defined.}$$

We would like to extend calculus to these geometric objects as well.

If we define a "k-upla"  $I = (i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k)$  to be an increasing list of  $k$  integers between 1 and  $n$ , then

$$dx_I \equiv dx_{i_1} \wedge dx_{i_2} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k}$$

is a basis of  $\Lambda^k(\mathbb{R}^n)^*$ . Thus, the general  $k$ -form can be written

$$\omega = \sum_I a_I dx_I \quad a_I \in \mathbb{R}$$

note that a 0-form is a real constant. We can extend this to  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  by letting

$$\omega(x) = \sum_I a_I(x) dx_I$$

where  $a_I(x)$  are smooth functions from  $U$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . In this context,  $\omega$  is called a differentiable  $k$ -form.

Notice that differentiable 0-forms are simply real valued functions on  $U$ . This means that we already have

$$\Lambda^0(\mathbb{R}^n)^* \xrightarrow{d} \Lambda^1(\mathbb{R}^n)^*$$

i.e. the differential. We can extend this to  $\Lambda^k(\mathbb{R}^n)^* \xrightarrow{d} \Lambda^{k+1}(\mathbb{R}^n)^*$  by

$$d\omega \equiv \sum_I da_I \wedge dx_I$$

$d$  is called the "exterior derivative".

The exterior derivative has these properties

- a) If  $f \in \Lambda^0(\mathbb{R}^n)^*$ ,  $d(f)$  is the differential
- b)  $d(w_1 + w_2) = dw_1 + dw_2$
- c)  $d(dw) = 0$
- d)  $d(w \wedge \varphi) = dw \wedge \varphi + (-1)^k w \wedge d\varphi$  where  $w$  is a  $k$ -form and  $\varphi$  is an  $s$ -form.

Exercise, Prove a), b), d) above.

To prove c), let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a 0-form. Then

$$\begin{aligned} d(df) &= d\left(\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} dx_j\right) = \sum_{j=1}^n d\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}\right) \wedge dx_j \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} dx_k \wedge dx_j = 0 \text{ since } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k \partial x_j} \end{aligned}$$

for smooth  $f$ . Using d), this is true for any  $k$ -form.

If  $dw = 0$ ,  $w$  is called closed, i.e.  $w \in \text{Ker } d$ .

If  $w = d\varphi$  for some form  $\varphi$ ,  $w$  is called exact,  
i.e.  $w \in \text{Im } d$ .

Since  $d^2 = 0$ , every exact form is closed.

Theorem (Poincaré): If  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is contractible, then a  $k$ -form on  $U$  is closed iff it is exact.

Example:  $\mathbb{R}^3$

For  $f \in \Lambda^0(\mathbb{R}^3)^*$ ,

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} dz$$

For  $f_1 dx + f_2 dy + f_3 dz \in \Lambda^1(\mathbb{R}^3)^*$

$$d(f_1 dx + f_2 dy + f_3 dz) =$$

$$\left( \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x} \right) dy \wedge dx - \left( \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial f_3}{\partial x} \right) dx \wedge dz + \left( \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial f_3}{\partial y} \right) dy \wedge dz$$

For  $\omega = f_1 dy \wedge dz + f_2 dz \wedge dx + f_3 dx \wedge dy \in \Lambda^2(\mathbb{R}^3)^*$

$$\begin{aligned} d\omega &= \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x} dx \wedge dy \wedge dz + \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y} dy \wedge dz \wedge dx + \frac{\partial f_3}{\partial z} dz \wedge dx \wedge dy \\ &= \left( \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial f_3}{\partial z} \right) dx \wedge dy \wedge dz \end{aligned}$$

$d(0\text{-form}) \cong \text{Gradient}$

$d(1\text{-form}) \cong \text{Curl}$

$d(2\text{-form}) \cong \text{divergence}$



Unlike tensor fields, differential forms can be pulled back across smooth maps.

$$\mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}^m \quad f \text{ smooth}$$

If we have a  $k$ -form  $\omega$  on  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , we can define

$$\omega = \sum_{\mathbf{I}} a_{\mathbf{I}} dy_{i_1} \wedge dy_{i_2} \wedge \dots \wedge dy_{i_k}$$

$$f^* \omega = \sum_{\mathbf{I}} (a_{\mathbf{I}} \circ f) d(y_{i_1} \circ f) \wedge d(y_{i_2} \circ f) \wedge \dots \wedge d(y_{i_k} \circ f)$$

Pullbacks have these properties

$$(a) f^*(\omega + \omega') = f^*\omega + f^*\omega'$$

$$(b) f^*(g\omega) = f^*(g) f^*\omega$$

$$(c) f^*(\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \varphi_k) = f^*(\varphi_1) \wedge \dots \wedge f^*(\varphi_k)$$

for 1-forms  $\varphi_k$ .

They also interact nicely with the exterior derivative

$$d(f^*\omega) = f^*(d\omega).$$

~~For a diffeomorphism  $f$ ,  $f^*$  corresponds to~~

Example. Let  $U = \{(r, \theta) : r > 0, 0 < \theta < 2\pi\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$

$$y: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ be } y: (r, \theta) \mapsto (r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta).$$

Then the pullback of the volume form  $dx \wedge dy$  is given by

$$y^*(dx \wedge dy) = d(x \circ y) \wedge d(y \circ y) = r \, dr \wedge d\theta$$

Exercise: Fill in the steps

Exercise: Let  $\omega = \frac{-y}{x^2+y^2} dx + \frac{x}{x^2+y^2} dy$  be a 1-form

in  $\mathbb{R}^2 - \{0\}$ . Show that  $y^*\omega = d\theta$ .

Exercise: Let  $f: (r, \theta, \varphi) \mapsto (r \sin \theta \cos \varphi, r \sin \theta \sin \varphi, r \cos \theta)$ .

Show that  $f^*(dx \wedge dy \wedge dz) = r^2 \sin \theta \, dr \wedge d\theta \wedge d\varphi$ .

Notice that the pullback of an isomorphism is

"change of variables".

The sequence

$$\Lambda^0(\mathbb{R}^n)^* \xrightarrow{d} \Lambda^1(\mathbb{R}^n)^* \xrightarrow{d} \dots \xrightarrow{d} \Lambda^n(\mathbb{R}^n)^*$$

is called "the de Rham complex".  $\Lambda^*(\mathbb{R}^n)^* \equiv \bigoplus_k \Lambda^k(\mathbb{R}^n)^*$

The direct sum of vector spaces  $H^k \equiv \text{Ker } d / \text{Im } d$

$\bigoplus_k H^k$  is called "the de Rham cohomology."

de Rham showed that this is a topological invariant.

More generally, a direct sum  $\bigoplus_k V^k$  of vector spaces with

$$V^0 \xrightarrow{d} V^1 \xrightarrow{d} V^2 \xrightarrow{d} \dots$$

$d^2=0$ , is called a differential complex.  $\bigoplus_k \text{Ker } d / \text{Im } d$

is called the cohomology of  $V$ . A morphism between

differential complexes  $A$  and  $B$  is defined to be a

sequence of morphisms  $f: A^k \rightarrow B^k$  s.t.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} A^0 & \xrightarrow{d} & A^1 & \xrightarrow{d} & A^2 & \xrightarrow{d} & \dots \\ f \downarrow & & \downarrow f & & \downarrow f & & \downarrow f \\ B^0 & \xrightarrow{d} & B^1 & \xrightarrow{d} & B^2 & \xrightarrow{d} & \dots \end{array}$$

commutes. In this language,  $\Lambda^*$  is a cofunctor from the category of Euclidean spaces  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to the category of differential complexes

$$\mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}^m \quad \Lambda^* \mathbb{R}^n \xleftarrow{f^*} \Lambda^* \mathbb{R}^m$$

where  $f^*$  is the pull back.

## Hodge Star

An inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  on a real finite dimensional vector space  $V$  is a bilinear symmetric product which is "nondegenerate" meaning that

$$\langle v, x \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } x \in V \Rightarrow v = 0.$$

Lemma. For  $f \in V^*$ ,  $f = (v \mapsto \langle v_f, v \rangle)$  for some unique  $v_f \in V$ .

Proof.  $\Psi: x \mapsto (v \mapsto \langle x, v \rangle)$  from  $V$  to  $V^*$  is one-to-one (using the nondegenerate property)  $\Rightarrow \Psi$  is an isomorphism.

Let  $\dim(V) = n$ ,  $V \wedge V \wedge \dots \wedge V \cong \Lambda^k$ . Fix  $\lambda \in \Lambda^k$ .

Then the mapping

$$\mu \mapsto \lambda \wedge \mu \text{ from } \Lambda^{n-k} \text{ to } \Lambda^n \cong \mathbb{R} \text{ is}$$

$$\lambda \wedge \mu = \langle v_\lambda, \mu \rangle \sigma \text{ for some fixed basis vector } \sigma \in \Lambda^n$$

for some special unique  $v_\lambda \in \Lambda^{n-k}$ . This  $v_\lambda$  is denoted

$*\lambda$ , the "Hodge Star" of  $\lambda$ . Notice that  $*\lambda$  depends

both on the inner product and on the choice of basis  $\sigma \in \Lambda^n$ .

For example, let  $n=3$ ,  $\epsilon_x, \epsilon_y, \epsilon_z$  be an orthonormal basis in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ,  $\langle \rangle$  the standard euclidean inner product, let  $\omega = \epsilon_x \wedge \epsilon_y \wedge \epsilon_z$ .

$$\text{Then } \epsilon_x \wedge \epsilon_y \wedge \left( \sum_i a_i \epsilon_i \right) = \langle *(\epsilon_x \wedge \epsilon_y), \sum_i a_i \epsilon_i \rangle \epsilon_x \wedge \epsilon_y \wedge \epsilon_z$$

is solved by  $*(\epsilon_x \wedge \epsilon_y) = \epsilon_z$ .

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} * \epsilon_x &= \epsilon_y \wedge \epsilon_z & *(\epsilon_x \wedge \epsilon_y) &= \epsilon_z \\ * \epsilon_y &= \epsilon_z \wedge \epsilon_x & *(\epsilon_y \wedge \epsilon_z) &= \epsilon_x & *(\epsilon_x \wedge \epsilon_y \wedge \epsilon_z) &= 1. \\ * \epsilon_z &= \epsilon_x \wedge \epsilon_y & *(\epsilon_z \wedge \epsilon_x) &= \epsilon_y \end{aligned}$$

Exercise. Show that  $\hat{A} \times \hat{B} = *(A \wedge B)$ .

The Hodge star has this property:  $\alpha \wedge * \beta = \beta \wedge * \alpha$

Exercise: For  $f: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , show that  $d * (df) = \Delta f \mu$  where  $\mu$  is the volume form and  $\Delta$  is the Laplacian.

Example. With  $F_{\mu\nu}$  the EM field strength,  $F = \frac{1}{2} F_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu$  is the electromagnetic field. Maxwell's equations are

$$\begin{aligned} dF &= 0 \\ * d * F &= * j \end{aligned} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{aligned} &F \text{ is closed. If it is defined} \\ &\text{on a contractible subset of } \mathbb{R}^4, \\ &\text{then } F = dA \text{ by Poincaré's lemma.} \end{aligned}$$