

# MA 200 - Lecture 25

## 1 Recap

1. Orientations for 1-manifolds through unit tangent vector fields.
2. Orientations for hypersurfaces through unit normal vector fields.
3. Restrictions of orientations from  $M$  to  $\partial M$  produce orientations for  $\partial M$ . A standard orientation for  $\partial M$  is the restriction if  $\dim(M)$  is even, and the opposite of the restriction when  $\dim(M)$  is odd.
4. Defined  $k$ -tensors, symmetric and alternating tensors.

## 2 Differential forms, wedge products, and form-fields in $\mathbb{R}^n$

Inner products are examples of symmetric 2-tensors and the determinant an example of  $\Lambda^n(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . In fact, we can produce alternating 3-tensors in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  using the determinant as  $(u, v, w) \rightarrow \det(e_1 \ u \ v \ w)$  and so on. So what is the dimension of  $\Lambda^k V$ ? Suppose  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  is a basis of  $V$ . Define the following alternating  $k$ -tensors for a given  $k$ -multiindex  $I = (i_1, \dots, i_k)$ :

$$\epsilon_I(v_1, \dots, v_k) = \det(A_I) \text{ where } (A_I)_{jl} = (v_l)_{i_j}. \quad (1)$$

Here are examples:

1. When  $k = 1$ ,  $\epsilon_i$  form the dual basis for  $V^* = \Lambda^1 V$ .
2. Suppose  $k = 2$  and  $I = (2, 3)$ ,  $v_1 = (a, b, c)$ ,  $v_2 = (\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$  then  $\epsilon_I(v_1, v_2) = \det \begin{pmatrix} b & \beta \\ c & \gamma \end{pmatrix} = b\gamma - c\beta$ .
3. Suppose  $i_1 = i_3$ . Then  $\epsilon_I = 0$  (why?) More generally, when two indices coincide,  $\epsilon_I = 0$ .
4. Recall that the sign of a permutation  $\sigma \in S_k$  is simply the determinant of the corresponding permutation matrix. Now we define  $\sigma(I) = (i_{\sigma(1)}, \dots)$ . (For instance, if  $k = 3$ , and  $\sigma = (12)$ , then  $\sigma(2, 3, 1) = (3, 2, 1)$ . Then  $\epsilon_{\sigma(I)} = \text{sgn}(\sigma)\epsilon_I$  by the properties of determinants.

Now we consider the multiindices  $I$  such that  $i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k$ . There are  $\binom{n}{k}$  of these indices. We claim that such  $\epsilon_I$  form a basis for  $\Lambda^k(V)$ . Indeed,

1. These  $\epsilon_I$  are linearly independent: Suppose  $\sum_{i_1 < \dots < i_k} c_I \epsilon_I = 0$ . Then if  $j_1 < j_2 < \dots < j_k$ ,  $0 = \sum c_I \epsilon_I(e_{j_1}, \dots, e_{j_k}) = c_J$  (why?)
2. They span  $\Lambda^k(V)$ : Let  $\omega \in \Lambda^k(V)$ . Then consider  $\tilde{\omega} = \sum \omega(e_{i_1}, \dots, e_{i_k}) \epsilon_I$ . Note that to prove that  $\tilde{\omega} = \omega$ , it is enough to show that they are equal on  $(e_{j_1}, \dots, e_{j_k})$  for all increasing multiindices  $J$  (why? Because of multilinearity, and the facts that if two indices coincide, we get zero and if we change the ordering, we pick up the sign of the permutation). Now  $\tilde{\omega}(e_J) = \sum \omega(e_I) \epsilon_I(e_J) = \omega(e_J)$  (where we abuse notation by denoting a tuple  $(w_{i_1}, \dots)$  by  $w_I$ ).

Note that when  $k = n$ ,  $\Lambda^n$  has dimension 1 and is generated by  $\epsilon_{12\dots n}$ . These forms are also called ‘top forms’. When  $k = 0$ , again the dimension is 1. For  $n = 3$ ,  $\Lambda^1$  and  $\Lambda^2$  have exactly the same dimension equal to 3 (which is also the dimension of  $V$ !) So we can identify a vector  $v \in \mathbb{R}^3$  with a 1-form  $\omega = v_1 \epsilon_1 + v_2 \epsilon_2 + v_3 \epsilon_3$  and with a 2-form  $v_1 \epsilon_{23} + v_2 \epsilon_{31} + v_3 \epsilon_{12}$  (why this weird identification? Because we want to think of  $\epsilon_{12}$  as  $\hat{i} \times \hat{j} = \hat{k}$ ).

We are now in a position to define the generalisation of the cross product. Instead of defining it for vectors, we define the wedge product  $\wedge$  of forms. We want to try the following naive definition: Let  $\omega \in \Lambda^k(V)$  and  $\eta \in \Lambda^l(V)$ . Then  $\omega \wedge \eta \in \Lambda^{k+l}(V)$  is defined as  $\omega \wedge \eta = \sum_{i_1 < \dots < i_k, j_1 < \dots < j_l} \omega_I \eta_J \epsilon_{IJ}$ , i.e., we define  $\epsilon_I \wedge \epsilon_J$  as  $\epsilon_{IJ}$  and extend this definition linearly.

Is this well-defined? That is, is it independent of the basis chosen? Yes. But this is rather painful to deal with. Nonetheless, assuming it is well-defined, here is a bunch of properties it satisfies.

1.  $f \wedge (g \wedge h) = (f \wedge g) \wedge h$ : Denote by  $I_{inc}$  the increasing order version of the multiindex  $I$ .  $f \wedge (\sum_{J_{inc} K_{inc}} g_J h_K \epsilon_{JK})$ . Now  $\epsilon_{JK} = \epsilon_{(JK)_{inc}} \text{sgn}(\sigma_{JK \rightarrow (JK)_{inc}})$  and  $f \wedge (g \wedge h) = \sum_{I_{inc}, J_{inc}, K_{inc}} f_I g_J h_K \epsilon_{I(JK)_{inc}} \text{sgn}(\sigma_{JK \rightarrow (JK)_{inc}}) = \sum f_I g_J h_K \epsilon_{IJK}$ . Likewise,  $(f \wedge g) \wedge h$  is also given by the same expression.
2.  $f \wedge g = (-1)^{kl} g \wedge f$  (So in particular, if  $f$  is a 1-form,  $f \wedge f = 0$ . Not necessarily true if  $f$  is a 2-form!):  $f \wedge g = \sum f_I g_J \epsilon_{IJ} = \sum g_J f_I \epsilon_{JI} \text{sgn}(IJ \rightarrow JI)$ . Now to take  $IJ$  to  $JI$ , we need to “slide”  $i_k$  past  $l, j$ ’s and hence pick up  $(-1)^l$ . Likewise, for  $i_{k-1}$  and so on. Thus we get  $(-1)^{kl}$ .
3. If  $I$  is an increasing multi-index, then  $\epsilon_I = \epsilon_{i_1} \wedge \epsilon_{i_2} \wedge \dots$  (by induction and the first property). In fact, by the previous property, this is true for non-increasing multi-indices too.
4.  $(cf) \wedge g = c(f \wedge g) = f \wedge (cg)$ : Easy.
5.  $(f + g) \wedge h = f \wedge h + g \wedge h$  and  $f \wedge (g + h) = f \wedge g + f \wedge h$ : Easy.

Suppose  $T : V \rightarrow W$  is a linear map, then the linear map  $T^* : \Lambda^k W \rightarrow \Lambda^k V$  is defined as  $T^*(S)(v_1, \dots, v_k) = S(Tv_1, \dots, Tv_k)$  for  $k \geq 1$ . We shall in the next class define a wedge product that satisfies the above properties and  $T^*(f \wedge g) = T^* f \wedge T^* g$ .