

1 Point Set Topology

Definition 1.1 (Metric Space). (X, d) is a metric space iff $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ a metric such that:

1. $d(x, y) = d(y, x) \geq 0$
2. $d(x, y) = 0$ iff $x = y$
3. $d(x, y) + d(y, z) \leq d(x, z)$.

e.g. \mathbb{R}^n , $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ and $(x, y) = \sum x_i y_i$ is the dot product. $d(x, y) = \sqrt{\sum (x_i - y_i)^2} = (x - y, x - y)^{1/2}$.

$\ell^2 = \{x = (x_1, \dots)\}$ with $\sum x_i^2 < \infty$ by the same metric.

$\ell^1 = \{x = (x_1, \dots)\}$ with $\sum |x_i| < \infty$ and $d(x, y) = \sum_i |x_i - y_i|$.

Lemma 1.1 (Cauchy Inequality). Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then $|(x, y)| \leq \|x\| \|y\|$ and $\|x\| = (x, x)^{1/2}$.

Proof. Take $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $(tx + y, tx + y) = t^2 \|x\|^2 + 2t(x, y) + \|y\|^2 \geq 0$ for all t . Assume, without loss of generality, that $x \neq 0$.

We call the left hand side $q(t)$ because it is a quadratic polynomial in t . $q(t) = 0$ cannot have two distinct real roots iff the discriminant of $q(x)$ is ≤ 0 .

So $4(x, y)^2 - 4\|x\|^2 \|y\|^2 \leq 0$, done. \square

Definition 1.2 (Open Ball). Let (X, d) a metric space. $\forall x \in X, \gamma \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ we have the open ball $B_\gamma(x) = \{y \in X : d(x, y) < \gamma\}$.

Definition 1.3 (Open Set). An open set in (X, d) is a union of open balls.

Definition 1.4 (Cauchy Sequence). A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in (X, d) is Cauchy if $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ such that when $\forall n, m \geq N$ then $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$.

Definition 1.5 (Complete). A metric space (X, d) is complete if every Cauchy sequence converges.

Lemma 1.2. If $\lim b_n = q$ in X then $\lim f(b_n) = f(q)$ for f a contracting mapping.

Proof. $d(f(b_n), f(q)) \leq \lambda d(b_n, q) \rightarrow 0$ \square

Theorem 1.3 (Contracting Mapping, CMT). Suppose $f : X \rightarrow X$ and (X, d) is a complete metric space such that $\exists \lambda \in [0, 1)$ with $d(f(x), f(y)) \leq \lambda d(x, y)$ for all $x, y \in X$. Then there is a unique $p \in X$ such that $f(p) = p$.

Proof. Uniqueness is clear, because if $f(p) = p$ and $f(q) = q$ then $d(p, q) = d(f(p), f(q)) \leq \lambda d(p, q)$ so $d(p, q) = 0$.

Pick any point $a_1 \in X$. Define $a_{n+1} = f(a_n)$. Claim: This sequence is Cauchy. Look at $d(a_{n+1}, a_n) = d(f(a_n), f(a_{n-1})) \leq \lambda d(a_n, a_{n-1})$. Define $\alpha_n = d(a_n, a_{n-1})$

By the ratio test for series, $\sum \alpha_n < \infty$. So $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N$ such that $m \geq n \geq N$ implies $\sum_{i=n}^{m-1} \alpha_i < \epsilon$ and it is equal to $d(a_n, a_{n+1}) + \dots + d(a_{m-1}, a_m) \geq d(a_n, a_m)$ by the triangle inequality.

So for (X, d) complete, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = p$.

By Lemma 2, we have $f(p) = \lim f(a_n) = \lim a_{n+1} = p$. \square

e.g. If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfies $|f'(x)| \leq \lambda$ for all $x \in [a, b]$ then $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq \lambda|x - y|$ for all $x, y \in [a, b]$

Theorem 1.4 (Newton's Method). *Suppose $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is C^2 -smooth (that is, f'' exists and is continuous) and $f(c) = 0, f'(c) \neq 0$ for some $c \in (a, b)$. Then, $\exists \epsilon > 0$ such that $\forall x_1 \in (c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon)$, and $x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$ then $\lim x_n = c$.*

Proof. Let $g(x) = x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$.

Choose $\epsilon > 0$ small such that $f'(x) \neq 0$ in $[c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon]$ and $\left| \frac{f(x)f''(x)}{f'(x)^2} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2}$ in $[c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon]$.

Now in $[c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon]$, $g'(x) = 1 - \frac{f'(x)^2 - f(x)f''(x)}{f'(x)^2} = \frac{f(x)f''(x)}{f'(x)^2}$ so $|g'(x)| \leq \frac{1}{2}$ in $[c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon]$. So $|g(x) - g(y)| \leq \frac{1}{2}|x - y|$ so contracting, and $g(c) = c$ so $g[c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon] \subset [c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon]$.

Using the closed interval, by the CMT for $x_1 \in [c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon]$ and $x_{n+1} = g(x_n)$ converges to c . \square

Topological Spaces

Definition 1.6 (Topological Space). *A topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) where \mathcal{T} is a collection of subsets of X called open sets such that*

1. \emptyset and X are open
2. if $U_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}$ for $\alpha \in I$ then $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}$
3. if $U_1, \dots, U_n \in \mathcal{T}$ then $\bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i \in \mathcal{T}$.

(X, d) is a topological space with open sets the union of open balls.

Example: Quotient Topology: Suppose X is a topological space and R is an equivalence relation on X . Let the set $X/R = \{[x] : x \in X\}$ be the set of equivalence classes, and $q : X \rightarrow X/R$ be the quotient map of sets.

Definition 1.7 (Quotient Topology on X/R). *$U \subset X/R$ is open iff $q^{-1}(U)$ is open in X .*

Definition 1.8 (Compactness). *(X, \mathcal{T}) a topological space is compact if every open cover $\mathcal{U} = \{U_\alpha : \alpha \in I\} \subset \mathcal{T}$ where $\bigcup U_\alpha = X$ has a finite subcover.*

Theorem 1.5. *If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous onto map and X is compact then $Y = f(X)$ is compact.*

Proof. This follows trivially from the definition. \square

Theorem 1.6. Suppose X is a compact space and $Y \subseteq X$ is closed. Then Y is compact.

Proof. Take any open cover of Y , $V = \{V_\alpha\}$. Let $U = V \cup \{X \setminus Y\}$ be an open cover of X . X is compact, so it has a finite subcover, $\{V_1, \dots, V_n\} \cup (X \setminus Y)$ and $\{V_1, \dots, V_n\}$ covers Y . \square

Theorem 1.7. X is compact Hausdorff and $Y \subseteq X$ a compact subspace. Then Y is closed.

Proof. Goal: $X \setminus Y$ is open, i.e.,

For all $x \in X \setminus Y$ there is an open set $U \subset X$ such that $x \in U \subset X \setminus Y$.

Fix $x, \forall y \in Y$, Hausdorff implies that \exists disjoint open sets U_y, V_y such that $y \in U_y$ and $x \in V_y$. $\{U_y : y \in Y\}$ open cover of Y .

As Y is compact, we can find a finite subcover, U_{y_1}, \dots, U_{y_n} .

$U = \cap_{i=1}^n V_{y_i}$ is an open set containing x and missing all U_{y_i} 's. So $U \subseteq X \setminus Y$. \square

Theorem 1.8. Suppose $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous, injective and surjective with X compact and Y Hausdorff. Then f is a homeomorphism, that is, f^{-1} is continuous as well.

Proof. $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ is well defined, and it is continuous if and only if $\forall C \subset X$ closed, $(f^{-1})^{-1}(C)$ is closed in Y .

Take closed $C \subset X$. As X is compact, C is compact. f continuous means that $f(C)$ is a compact subset of Y , and as Y is Hausdorff, then $f(C)$ is closed in Y . \square

Applications

Notation: X is a topological space, $A \subset X$, then $X/A = \{[x] : x \in X\}$ with the quotient topology. $q : X \rightarrow X/A$ is the quotient map, $q(x) = [x]$.

Quotient Topology: $U \subset X/A$ is open iff $q^{-1}(U)$ is open in X .

1. Show that $[0, 1]/0 \sim 1 \simeq S^1$.

$[0, 1]$ compact, so $[0, 1]/0 \sim 1$ is compact, and S^1 is Hausdorff.

Consider $h : [0, 1] \rightarrow S^1 : t \mapsto e^{2\pi it}$ h is onto and continuous such that $|h^{-1}(p)| = 1$ for $p \neq 1$ and for $p = 1$ it is 2.

In particular, h induces a one-to-one, onto map $[0, 1]/0 \sim 1 \rightarrow S^1$ $f([t]) = h(t)$. Claim: f is continuous.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} [0, 1] & \xrightarrow{q} & [0, 1]/0 \sim 1 \\ & \searrow h & \downarrow f \\ & & S^1 \end{array}$$

Take $U \subset S^1$ open. $h^{-1}(U) = (f \circ q)^{-1}(U) = q^{-1}(f^{-1}(U))$. Now h continuous implies $h^{-1}(U)$ is open so $q^{-1}(f^{-1}(U))$ is open, and as we are using the quotient topology, $f^{-1}(U)$ is open.

2. $\mathbb{B}^n/\partial\mathbb{B}^n \simeq S^n$. Prove for homework.

Lemma 1.9 (Lebesgue Lemma). *(X, d) is a sequentially compact metric space and $\mathcal{U} = \{U_\alpha : \alpha \in I\}$ is an open cover of X . Then $\exists \epsilon > 0$, sometimes called the Lebesgue number of \mathcal{U} , such that $\forall x \in X, B_\epsilon(x) \subset U_\alpha$ for some α .*

Proof. Suppose otherwise. $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}, \epsilon = \frac{1}{n}$, then $\exists x_n \in X$ such that $B_{\frac{1}{n}}(x_n) \not\subset U_\alpha$ for all $\alpha \in I$.

X sequentially compact implies that $\exists x_{n_i} \rightarrow p \in X$

\mathcal{U} is an open cover $\Rightarrow \exists \beta \in I$ such that $p \in U_\beta$. Also, U_β open $\Rightarrow \exists \delta > 0$ such that $B_\delta(p) \subset U_\beta$.

Now take n_i large such that $\frac{1}{n_i} < \frac{\delta}{2}$. Thus, $B_{\frac{1}{n_i}} \subset B_{\frac{\delta}{2}}(x_{n_i}) \subset B_\delta(p) \subset U_\beta$.

Contradiction. \square

Theorem 1.10. *Suppose (X, d) is a metric space. Then (X, d) is compact if and only if every sequence in X contains a convergent subsequence (ie, is sequentially compact).*

Proof. \Rightarrow : Suppose otherwise. Then \exists a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X without any convergent subsequence.

Claim 1: $\forall x \in X, \exists \epsilon_x > 0$ such that $B_{\epsilon_x}(x)$ contains only finitely many of x_n 's. Then, $\{B_{\epsilon_x}(x) : x \in X\}$ is an open cover of X , and X compact implies it has a finite subcover, $B_{\epsilon_{x_1}}(x_1), \dots, B_{\epsilon_{x_n}}(x_n)$. So there are only finitely many x_i 's in each of finitely many balls, so there are only finitely many in the union. However, the balls form an open cover, and so their union is X , thus, there are only finitely many x_i 's, contradiction.

\Leftarrow : We will use the Lebesgue lemma. Suppose otherwise, then \exists open cover $\mathcal{U} = \{U_\alpha : \alpha \in I\}$ of X without any finite subcover.

Let $\epsilon > 0$ be the Lebesgue number of \mathcal{U} . Construct the sequence $\{x_n\}$ as follows: Take $x_1 \in X$. Then $\exists U_{\alpha_1}$ such that $B_\epsilon(x_1) \subset U_{\alpha_1}$. $U_{\alpha_1} \neq X$ by assumption, so we choose $x_2 \notin U_{\alpha_1}$. Then $\exists U_{\alpha_2}$ such that $B_\epsilon(x_2) \subset U_{\alpha_2}$. Inductively, we find $x_{n+1} \notin U_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup U_{\alpha_n}$.

Claim: $d(x_n, x_m) \geq \epsilon$ for $n > m$. Otherwise, $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$ if and only if $x_n \in B_\epsilon(x_m) \subset U_{\alpha_m}$, but $x_n \notin U_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup U_{\alpha_{n-1}}$. Contradiction. \square

Theorem 1.11 (Tychonoff). *The product of compact spaces is compact.*

e.g. X compact in \mathbb{R}^n if and only if X is closed and bounded if and only if $X \subset [-a, a]^n$ for some a , which implies the first by Theorem 5 and Tychonoff.

Definition 1.9 (Disconnected). *A topological space X is disconnected if $X = A \cup B$ where $A, B \neq \emptyset, A \cap B = \emptyset$ and both are open.*

We say $\{A, B\}$ is a separation.

Otherwise, X is connected.

Theorem 1.12. *If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ onto and continuous and X is connected then Y is connected.*

Proof. If not, then $Y = A \cup B$ is a separation. Then $f^{-1}(A) \cup f^{-1}(B) = X$ is a separation of X . Contradiction. \square

Theorem 1.13. $[0, 1]$ is connected.

Proof. If not, then $[0, 1] = A \cup B$ is a separation with $0 \in A$. $B = A^c$ implies that B is closed, and A must also be closed by the same argument.

Consider $t = \inf\{x \in B\}$. As B is closed, $t \in B$.

B is open, so $t > 0$ and $\exists \epsilon > 0$ such that $t - \epsilon \in B$. Contradiction. \square

Definition 1.10 (Path Connected). A topological space X is path connected if $\forall a, b \in X, \exists$ continuous map $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ such that $f(0) = a$ and $f(1) = b$.

Theorem 1.14. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous and onto and X is path connected, then Y is path connected.

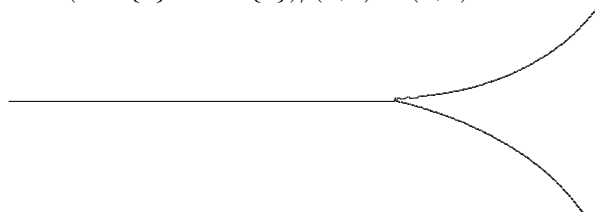
Theorem 1.15. Path connected implies connected.

e.g. $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ is path connected. In fact, path-connected for $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$, $n \geq 2$.
e.g. S^n for $n \geq 1$ is path connected.

2 Manifolds

Definition 2.1 (Topological Manifold). M^n is a topological n -manifold if M^n is a Hausdorff space with a countable basis such that $\forall x \in M^n, \exists$ an open set U containing x and a homeomorphism $\phi : U \rightarrow V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. We call (U, ϕ) a topological chart.

$X = (\mathbb{R} \times \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R} \times \{1\}) / (x, 0) \sim (x, 1) \text{ for } x < 0.$



This is not a manifold.

e.g. Open set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ with chart (Ω, id) .

$\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ is the space of all $n \times m$ matrices.

$GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ is all $n \times n$ real matrices A with $\det A \neq 0$. $\det : \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a polynomial, and so is continuous.

$GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ is similar, except it is connected.

Definition 2.2 (Smooth Manifold). A smooth manifold M is a topological manifold with a special collection of charts (smooth charts). $\mathcal{F} = \{(U_\alpha, \varphi_\alpha) : \alpha \in I\}$ such that

1. $\cup_\alpha U_\alpha = M$

2. If $U_\alpha \cap U_\beta \neq \emptyset$ then the transition function $\phi_\beta \circ \phi_\alpha^{-1} : \phi_\alpha(U_\alpha \cap U_\beta) \rightarrow \phi_\beta(U_\alpha \cap U_\beta)$ is C^0 (smooth).

We call (U_α, ϕ_α) smooth charts for M .

examples

1. $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is open, then there is one chart (U, id) .
2. If M^n is a smooth manifold and $U \subset M^n$ open then U is smooth with smooth chars $\{(U_\alpha \cap U, \varphi_\alpha|_U : \alpha \in I)\}$
3. General linear groups on \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} .
4. $C_n = \{(z_1, \dots, z_n) : z_i \neq z_j \text{ for } i \neq j\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ open
5. The space of all circles in \mathbb{R}^2 .
6. Space of all lines in \mathbb{R}^2 .
7. Graph of a continuous function $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$ with $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ open with one chart, (Ω, π) .
8. S^n with two charts, let $N = (0, \dots, 0, 1)$ and $S = (0, \dots, 0, -1)$. $U_N = S^n \setminus \{N\}$ and $U_S = S^n \setminus \{S\}$. $\varphi_N : U_N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ by stereographic projection. South pole similarly. $\varphi_N \circ \varphi_S^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ is $x \mapsto \frac{x}{\|x\|^2}$ is smooth, in fact, real analytic.

Remark: $\det D(\varphi_N \circ \varphi_S^{-1}) < 0$, that is, the transition map reverses orientation.

Definition 2.3 (Smooth Structure). *A smooth structure on a smooth manifold maximal collection \mathcal{F} satisfying the smooth manifold conditions.*

Definition 2.4 (Smooth Function). *If M, N smooth manifolds, and $f : M \rightarrow N$ continuous, we say f is smooth if \forall smooth charts (U, φ) of M and (V, ψ) of N , we have $\psi \circ f \circ \varphi^{-1}$ is smooth.*

Definition 2.5 (Diffeomorphism). *We say that f is a diffeomorphism if f is a smooth homeomorphism such that f^{-1} is smooth as well.*

$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : x \mapsto x^3$ is a homeomorphism, but not a diffeomorphism.

Take $M = GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ and $f : GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow GL(n, \mathbb{R}) : A \mapsto A^{-1}$, $g : GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \times GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow GL(n, \mathbb{R}) : (A, B) \mapsto AB$, $h(A) = \det A$ are all smooth maps. (in fact, all rational functions in the coordinates are)

Inverse Function Theorem

Recall the following:

Definition 2.6 (Differentiable Function). *Suppose U is open in \mathbb{R}^n and $F : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a map. We say F is differentiable at $a \in U$ if \exists linear map $A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ such that $F(a+t) = F(a) + At + e(t)$ for t small where $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|e(t)\|}{\|t\|} = 0$. We say $A = DF(a)$.*

eg: $f(A) = \det A : \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. What is $DF(A)$. (hint: $ad(A)$)
 eg: Define $F : GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \{A : A = A^T\} : X \mapsto X \cdot X^t$.
 Show that $DF(A) : \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{(n \times (n+1))/2}$ is always onto.

Proof. Let $T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ small. Then $F(A + T) = (A + T)(A + T)^t = AA^t + TA^t + AT^t + TT^t$, so $DF(A) : \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{(n \times (n+1))/2} : T \mapsto TA^t + AT^t$. For any $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times (n+1)/2}$ with $B = B^t$, $\exists X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that $B = XA^t + AX^t$. As $B = B/2 + B^t/2$, we can solve $B/2 = XA^t$ and find $X = \frac{1}{2}B(A^t)^{-1}$. Note, this solution is not unique. \square

Recall the following definition:

Definition 2.7 (Norm of a Matrix). *If $A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a linear transformation, then $\|A\| = \max\{\|Ax\| : \|x\| = 1\}$.*

Lemma 2.1. *If $f : \text{some ball in } \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ a C^1 function so that $\|Df'(x)\| \leq M$ in the ball, then $\|f(x_1) - f(x_2)\| \leq M\|x_1 - x_2\|$ for x_1, x_2 in the ball.*

Proof. Let $g(t) = f((1-t)x_1 + tx_2)$, then $f(x_1) - f(x_2) = g(0) - g(1) = g'(c)(0-1) = -g'(c)$ for some $c \in [0, 1]$.

By the chain rule, we know $g'(c) = Df((1-t)x_1 + tx_2) \cdot (x_2 - x_1)$ so $\|f(x_1) - f(x_2)\| = \|g'(c)\| = \|Df(\xi)(x_2 - x_1)\| \leq \|Df(\xi)\| \|x_2 - x_1\| \leq M\|x_2 - x_1\|$. \square

Theorem 2.2 (Inverse Function Theorem (IFT)). *Suppose U is open in \mathbb{R}^n and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is C^1 smooth and $Df(a)$ is invertible for some $a \in U$. Then \exists neighborhood V of a and W of $f(a)$ in \mathbb{R}^n such that $f|_V : V \rightarrow W$ is a one-to-one onto map and $g = (f_V)^{-1}$ is C^1 .*

Proof. For simplicity, we assume that $a = 0, f(a) = 0$ (after translation).

We may assume $Df(a) = I$ after replacing f by $Df(a)^{-1} \circ f$.

Choose $\gamma > 0$ small so that on the ball $D = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x\| < \gamma\}$ such that $\|Df(x) - I\| < \frac{1}{2}$, due to $Df(0) = I, f \in C^1$.

Put $\omega(x) = f(x) - x, D\omega = Df(x) - I$, so $\|D\omega(x)\| \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for $x \in D$.

Lemma 1 \Rightarrow $\|\omega(x+h) - \omega(x)\| \leq \frac{1}{2}\|h\|, \forall x, x+h \in D$.

$\|f(x+h) - f(x) - h\| \leq \frac{1}{2}\|h\|, \forall x, x+h \in D$.

Take $W = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x\| < \frac{\gamma}{2}\}$

Claim 1: $W \subseteq f(D)$

Claim 2: $f|_D : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is one-to-one.

To see claim 2, we take $x, x+h \in D$ such that $f(x+h) = f(x)$. This gives $\|h\| < \frac{1}{2}\|h\|$, so $h = 0$, thus $x = x+h$.

To prove 1, Take $y \in W$. Consider $u(x) = x - f(x) + y : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. The fixed point of $x = u(x)$ solves $f(x) = y$. $\|u(x_1) - u(x_2)\| = \|x_1 - x_2 + f(x_2) - f(x_1)\| = \|f(x_1 + (x_2 - x_1)) - f(x_1) - (x_2 - x_1)\| \leq \frac{1}{2}\|h\| = \frac{1}{2}\|x_1 - x_2\|$.

Furthermore, $u(D) \subseteq D$. $\|u(x)\| = \|x - f(x) + y\| \leq \|x - f(x)\| + \|y\|$. Taking $x = 0$, we get $\leq \|f(h) - h\| \leq \frac{1}{2}\|h\| \leq \frac{1}{2}\|x\| + \|y\| < \gamma$.

Now, by the contracting mapping theorem, $u : D \rightarrow D$ has a fixed point which satisfies $f(x) = y$.

We now define $V = (f|_{\text{int}(D)})^{-1}(W)$, so $f|_V : V \rightarrow W$ is 1-1, onto and continuous.

Claim 3: $g = (f|_V)^{-1} : W \rightarrow V$ is continuous.

Take $y \in W$ and $y + k \in W$. Let $x = g(y)$, $x + h = g(y + k)$.

Goal: $\lim_{k \rightarrow 0} h = 0$. We have $f(x) = y$ and $f(x + h) = y + k$.

So, $\|f(x + h) - f(x) - h\| \leq \frac{1}{2}\|h\|$, ie, $\|y + k - y - h\| \leq \frac{1}{2}\|h\|$

$\leq \frac{1}{2}\|h\| \iff \|h\| - \|k\| \leq \|k - h\| \leq \frac{1}{2}\|h\|$

Thus, $\|h\| \leq 2\|k\|$.

Claim 4: g is differentiable with $Dg(y) = Df(x)^{-1}$ for $x = g(y)$.

f differentiable at x with $Df(x) = A$. Thus, $f(x + h) - f(x) = Ah + e(h)$ where $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|e(h)\|}{\|h\|} = 0$.

A is invertible by assumption, and so $y + k - u = k = Ah + e(h)$. Applying A^{-1} , $h = A^{-1}k - A^{-1}e(h)$, so $\lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|A^{-1}e(h)\|}{\|k\|} = 0$, then we have $Dg(h)$ exists and is A^{-1} .

$$\frac{\|A^{-1}e(h)\|}{\|k\|} \leq \|A^{-1}\| \frac{\|e(h)\|}{\|h\|} \frac{\|h\|}{\|k\|} \leq 2\|A^{-1}\| \frac{\|e(h)\|}{\|h\|} \rightarrow 0$$

□

Corollary 2.3. *If f is C^∞ then so is f^{-1} in IFT.*

Proof. Indeed, for $y = f(x)$, we have $D(f^{-1})(y) = (Df(x))^{-1} = \text{Inv} \cdot Df(x)$ where $\text{Inv} : GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ sending a matrix A to A^{-1} . $\text{Inv}(A) = \frac{1}{\det A} \text{adj}(A)$, so each entry is a rational function in the entries of A , and the composition of real analytic functions with C^∞ functions is C^∞ . □

Corollary 2.4. *If f is analytic (ie, has convergent power series expansion) and Df^{-1} exists, then f^{-1} is analytic.*

Corollary 2.5. *If U open in \mathbb{C}^n and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ complex analytic, with Df^{-1} exists. then f^{-1} is complex analytic.*

Remarks: (M, \mathcal{F}) is real analytic if $\varphi_\alpha \circ \varphi_\beta^{-1}$ is real analytic $\forall \alpha, \beta$.

(M, \mathcal{F}) complex manifolds if $\varphi_\alpha \circ \varphi_\beta^{-1}$ with charts to \mathbb{C}^n are complex analytic.

(M, \mathcal{F}) is an affine manifold if $\varphi_\alpha \circ \varphi_\beta^{-1} = Ax + b$, $A \in GL(n, \mathbb{R})$.

Conjecture 2.1. *If M^n a closed (ie, compact) affine manifold, then $\chi(M) = 0$ (χ the Euler characteristic) (ie iff M supports a vector field nowhere 0).*

(M, \mathcal{F}) is a polynomial manifold if $\varphi_\alpha \circ \varphi_\beta^{-1}$ is a polynomial.

S^n has no polynomial structure, but $\mathbb{T}^2 = S^1 \times S^1$ does.

Conjecture 2.2. *For all surfaces of genus ≥ 2 , there are no polynomial structures.*

Note: Smooth means C^∞ for the remainder of course.

Theorem 2.6 (Implicit Function Theorem). *If $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n, V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ is open and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ smooth such that $X = f^{-1}(p)$ satisfies the condition $\forall a \in X, Df(a) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is onto (we call a a regular value), then X is a smooth manifold of $\dim = n - m$ such that the inclusion map $\iota : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is smooth.*

eg 1: $f(x) = \|x\|^2 : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$. Then 1 is a regular value, so $f^{-1}(1) = S^{n-1}$ is a smooth $(n - 1)$ -manifold.

Indeed, $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in f^{-1}(1)$, then $a \neq 0, Df(a) = \nabla f(a) = (2a_1, \dots, 2a_n) \neq 0$.

eg 2: $U = \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, f(A) = \det A : \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then 1 is a regular value, so $f^{-1}(1) = SL(n, \mathbb{R})$ is a manifold of dimension $n^2 - 1$.

eg 3: $U = \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, V$ is the space of all symmetric matrices, $f(A) = AA^T$. The identity is a regular value for f , so $f^{-1}(I) = \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : AA^T = I\} = SO(n, \mathbb{R})$ is a smooth manifold of complex dimension $n(n - 1)/2$.

eg 4: $U = \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}, f(A) = \det A : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. 1 is a regular value. $f^{-1}(1) = SL(n, \mathbb{C})$ is a complex manifold of dimension $n^2 - 1$.

We will now prove the Implicit Function Theorem

Proof. Assume without loss of generality that $p = 0$. $t = (t_1, \dots, t_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n, f = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$. Take $a \in X$, i.e. $f(a) = 0$ if and only if $\text{rank} \left[\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial t_j}(a) \right]$ has rank m if and only if Df contains a submatrix which is nonsingular.

Consider $G : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}^{n-m} \times \mathbb{R}^m$. $G(x, y) = (x, f(x, y))$. $DG(a) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & * \\ 0 & D_y f(a) \end{bmatrix}, \det DG(a) \neq 0$.

By the inverse function theorem, \exists neighborhood W of a in \mathbb{R}^n and \tilde{W} of $G(a)$ in $\mathbb{R}^n, G| : W \rightarrow \tilde{W}$ is a diffeomorphism, $(G|)^{-1}(x, y) = (\psi(x, y), \phi(x, y)), \psi \in \mathbb{R}^{n-m}, \phi \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

Claim: $X \cap W = \{(x, y) \in W : f(x, y) = 0\} = \{(x, \phi(x, 0)) : x \in W \cap \mathbb{R}^{n-m} \times 0\}$

Indeed, $G \circ (G^{-1})(u, v) = (u, v) = G(\psi(u, v), \phi(u, v)) = (\psi(u, v), f(\psi(u, v), \phi(u, v))) \Rightarrow f(\psi(u, v), \phi(u, v)) = v$ for all $(u, v) \in \tilde{W}$.

Suppose $(x, y) \in W$. $f(x, y) = 0$. Then $(x, y) = G^{-1}(u, v) = (u, \phi(u, v))$. $x = u, y = \phi(u, v)$.

Thus, $0 = f(x, y) = f(u, \phi(u, v)) = v$, so $v = 0, x = u$, i.e. $y = \phi(x, 0)$. If we define a smooth $\Phi(x) = \phi(x, 0)$, then $X \cap W = \text{graph of } \Phi = \{(x, \Phi(x)) : x \in W \cap \mathbb{R}^{n-m} \times 0\}$.

Smooth chart $(X \cap W, \pi_1), \pi_1(x, \Phi(x)) = x$.

Suppose (W, π_2) is another chart produced in this way. The transition function $\pi_2 \circ \pi_1^{-1} = \pi_2(x, \Phi(x)) = \pi_2(t_1, \dots, t_n) = (t_{i_1}, \dots, t_{i_n})$, this is clearly smooth. to see $\iota : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is smooth, we notice that it is true if and only if $\iota \circ \pi_1^{-1}(x) = (x, \Phi(x)) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is smooth, which is clear. \square

Corollary 2.7. *Under the same assumption, $\forall a \in X, \exists$ smooth chart (W, g) of \mathbb{R}^n such that $g(W \cap X) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n-m} \times 0$*

Proof. $g = G$. remark: the last condition is called “smooth submanifold”. \square

EXAMPLE ABOUT FRACTAL KNOT

Corollary 2.8. *If W open in \mathbb{R}^k and $h : W \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ smooth so that $h(W) \subset X$, then $h : W \rightarrow X$ is smooth.*

Proof. By previous corollary, we may assume $X = \mathbb{R}^{n-m} \times 0 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. $h(x) = (h_1(x), \dots, h_{n-m}(x), 0, \dots, 0)$ smooth iff smooth $\forall i$. \square

Definition 2.8 (Lie Group). *A Lie Group G is a group with multiplication $m : G \times G \rightarrow G$ and inverse $i : G \rightarrow G$ so that G is also a smooth manifold and both m and i are smooth.*

Example: $GL(n, \mathbb{R}), SL(n, \mathbb{R}), O(n), GL(n, \mathbb{C}), SL(n, \mathbb{C}), U(n)$ are Lie groups.
 $SU(n)$ is a Lie Group

Definition 2.9 (Complex Analytic Manifolds). *M^n is a complex manifold if it has smooth charts $\{(U_\alpha, \phi_\alpha) : \alpha \in I\}$ such that $\phi_\alpha(U_\alpha)$ is open in \mathbb{C}^n , $\cup_{\alpha \in I} = M^n$ and $\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1}$ is complex analytic.*

S^2 is a complex manifold with stereographic projection $\{(U_N, \phi_N), (U_S, \phi_S)\}$, but it is not complex analytic with these charts. However, it is with the charts $\{(U_N, \bar{\phi}_N), (U_n, \phi_S)\}$.

Definition 2.10 (Riemann Surface). *A Riemann Surface is a one dimensional complex analytic manifold.*

Conjecture 2.3. *Does S^6 have a complex analytic structure? Conjecture is no.*

Known: S^{2n} , $n \neq 1, 3$ does not have complex structure.

Theorem 2.9 (Inverse Function Theorem). *U open in \mathbb{C}^n and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$ is complex analytic such that $Df(a) : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$ is nonsingular, then \exists a neighborhood W of a and \tilde{W} of $f(a)$ such that $f : W \rightarrow \tilde{W}$ is a diffeomorphism with f^{-1} complex analytic.*

This implies the implicit function theorem for complex analytic maps.

$$D(f^{-1})(y) = (Df(x))^{-1} = \text{inv} \circ Df \circ f^{-1}, \quad D(f^{-1}) = \text{inv} \circ Df \circ f^{-1}.$$

Suppose U open in \mathbb{C}^n , $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ continuous, f is complex analytic iff $\forall a \in U$, $f(z_1, \dots, z_n) = \sum C_{k_1, \dots, k_n} (z - a_1)^{k_1} \dots (z - a_n)^{k_n}$ is convergent in a neighborhood of a

Theorem 2.10 (Osgood). *Suppose U open in \mathbb{C}^n and $F : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^m$ continuous. Then F is complex analytic (componentwise) iff $\forall a \in U$, $DF(a)$ exists and $DF(a) : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^m$ is complex linear.*

This implies the inverse function theorem, since $\text{inv}(A) \in GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ if $A \in GL(n, \mathbb{C})$.

Proof. \Rightarrow is trivial

\Leftarrow : The condition implies that $F(z_1, \dots, z_n)$ is complex analytic in z_i when all other coordinates $z_j \neq z_i$ are fixed.

So $F(z_1 + h, z_2, \dots, z_n) = F(z_1, \dots, z_n) + A(h, 0, \dots, 0) + e(h, 0, \dots, 0)$ and $A = Df(z)$.

$$= F(z) + h\alpha + e(h), \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{|e(h)|}{|h|} = 0, \text{ so } \frac{\partial F}{\partial z_1} = \alpha \text{ exists.}$$

Take $a \in U$ choose $\delta > 0$ small so that $P = \{z = (z_1, \dots, z_n) : |z_i - a_i| \leq \delta, \forall i\} \subseteq U$.

In P , consider $f(z_1, \dots, z_n)$, analytic in z_1 , and so by the Cauchy Integral, $f(z_1, \dots, z_n) =$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w_1 - a_1| = \delta} \frac{f(w_1, z_2, \dots, z_n)}{w_1 - z_1} dw_1$$

$$f(w_1, z_2, \dots, z_n) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w_2 - a_2| = \delta} \frac{f(w_1, w_2, z_3, \dots, z_n)}{w_2 - z_2} dw_2. \text{ Iterating, we get}$$

$$f(z_1, \dots, z_n) = \left(\frac{1}{2\pi i}\right)^n \int_{|w_1 - a_1| = \delta} \dots \int_{|w_n - a_n| = \delta} \frac{f(w_1, \dots, w_n)}{(w_1 - z_1) \dots (w_n - z_n)} dw_1 \dots dw_n$$

Each term above can be transformed into power series for δ small enough, and so we obtain our result. \square

Example: U open in \mathbb{C} . $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, $Df : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is \mathbb{R} -linear if $Df = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$.

But if $L : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is complex linear, then L must be $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}$.

So we let $f(z) = (u(x, y), v(x, y))$ where $z = x + iy$. Then $Df = \begin{bmatrix} u_x & u_y \\ v_x & v_y \end{bmatrix}$, which gives the Cauchy-Riemann Equations.

So Osgood's Theorem gives us Cauchy-Riemann equations in higher dimensions.

Definition 2.11 (Holomorphic Map). *If M, N are complex analytic and $F : M \rightarrow N$ continuous, then F is holomorphic if \forall complex charts (U_α, ϕ_α) for M and (V_β, ψ_β) for N we have $\psi_\beta \circ F \circ \phi_\alpha^{-1}$ is holomorphic $\forall \alpha, \beta$.*

Example: The Hyper-Elliptic Riemann Surface: Take $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{C}$, $a_i \neq a_j$. Then $\Sigma = \{(z, w) \in \mathbb{C}^2 : z^2 = \prod_{i=1}^n (w - a_i)\}$ is a Riemann Surface. So $P(z, w) = z^2 - \prod_{i=1}^n (w - a_i)$, $\Sigma = P^{-1}(0)$. Use the Implicit Function Theorem, we must show that 0 is a regular value. If not, then $(z, w) \in P^{-1}(0)$, such that $\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial w} = 0$, that is, $2z = 0$ and $z^2 = \prod_{i=1}^n (w - a_i)$ and $\sum_{j=1}^n \left(\prod_{i \neq j} (w - a_i)\right) = 0$. By the second one, $w = a_k$ for some k , say $w = a_1$. Put into the third and we get $\prod_{i=1}^n (a_1 - a_i) = 0$, which is impossible due to $a_i \neq a_j$.

Example: Projective Space \mathbb{RP}^n . This is the space of all lines in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} through the origin. (\mathbb{CP}^n is similarly defined). We can define charts (U_i, ϕ_i) for \mathbb{RP}^n . U_i will be the set of all points whose i^{th} homogeneous coordinate is nonzero, and define $\phi_i([a_1, \dots, a_{n+1}]) = \left(\frac{a_1}{a_i}, \dots, \frac{a_{i-1}}{a_i}, \frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i}, \dots, \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_i}\right)$.

The transition maps $\phi_2 \circ \phi^{-1}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \left(\frac{1}{x_1}, \dots, \frac{x_2}{x_1}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_1}\right)$.

But what is the topology? It is the quotient topology of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}/\mathbb{R}^*$.

Example: $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{P}^1 = \mathbb{C}^2/\mathbb{C}^*$ has two charts, $(U_1, \phi_1), (U_2, \phi_2)$. The transition map is $\frac{1}{z}$, and each map is a homeomorphism onto \mathbb{C} . So $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{P}^1 = S^2$ complex analytically.

Definition 2.12 (Biholomorphic). *M, N are complex analytic. Then $f : M \rightarrow N$ is biholomorphic if f is a homeomorphism such that f, f^{-1} holomorphic.*

Proposition 2.11. $\mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^n \simeq S^n/x \sim -x, \forall x \in S^n$.

$\mathbb{C}\mathbb{P}^n \simeq S^{2n+1}/z \sim \lambda z, \lambda \in S^1$.

Proof. Consider $\phi : S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^n : x \mapsto$ the 1-dimensional subspace containing x . ϕ is onto, and ϕ is continuous, so ϕ induces a 1-1 and onto map $\tilde{\phi} : S^n/x \sim -x \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^n$, with the domain compact and the codomain Hausdorff, so it is a homeomorphism.

The other is similar. □

Fact: U open in \mathbb{C} , and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ complex analytic and non-constant, then f is an open mapping.

Corollary 2.12. *If M, N are Riemann Surfaces and $f : M \rightarrow N$ is a nonconstant holomorphic map, then f sends open sets to open sets.*

Example: Suppose $p(z) = z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$ is a polynomial from \mathbb{C} to \mathbb{C} . $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{P}^1 = \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$. We define $\tilde{p} : \mathbb{C}\mathbb{P}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\mathbb{P}^1$ by $\tilde{p}([z, w]) = [\sum_{j=1}^n a_j z^j w^{n-j}, w^n]$, $\tilde{p}(z) = z$ for $z \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\tilde{p}(\infty) = \infty$. Claim: \tilde{p} is analytic. With this, we obtain the fundamental theorem of algebra.

Tangent Spaces

Warm up: U is open in \mathbb{R}^n and $\gamma : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow U$ a smooth path, $\gamma(0) = p$. Then the derivative $\frac{d}{dt}\gamma(t)|_{t=0} = v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a tangent vector of U at p . Question, $\gamma(t) = [t, t^2 + 1, t], t \in [-1, 1], \gamma : (-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\mathbb{P}^2$ is smooth. What is $\frac{d}{dt}\gamma(t)|_{t=0}$? Does this make sense?

The intrinsic definition of $\frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0}\gamma(t) = u$. If u acts on smooth functions on U . If $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$ smooth, then $u(f) = \frac{d}{dt}f(\gamma(t))|_{t=0}$ is a directional derivative and is equal to $Df|_{\gamma(0)} \cdot v$.

It satisfies $u(f + kg) = u(f) + ku(g)$ and $u(fg) = u(f)g + fu(g)$. evaluated at p .

U open in \mathbb{R}^n and a smooth path $\gamma(t) : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow U, \gamma(0) = p$.

Tangent vector $V = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0}\gamma(t) = \gamma'(0) \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Notation: M^n a smooth manifold, $C^\infty(M)$ is the space of all smooth functions on M . If $f \in C^\infty(V)$ where $p \in V$ open U , then $v(f) = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0}f(\gamma(t)) = D(f)_p(0)$ directional derivative.

It satisfies the Leibnitz rule $v(fg)v(f)g(p) + f(p)v(g)$, linearity $v(f + kg) = v(f) + kv(g)$ and locality if f, g are the same on an open neighborhood of p , then $v(f) = v(g)$.

M^n a smooth manifold, $p \in M^n$. $C_p^\infty(M) = \{(f, U) : f \in C^\infty(U), p \in U \text{ open } M\}$

$(f, U) + (g, V) = (f + g, U \cap V)$ gives this a vector space structure, and $(f, U)(g, V) = (fg, U \cap V)$ makes it an algebra.

Definition 2.13 (Tangent Vector). A tangent vector v to M at p is a map $v : C_p^\infty(M) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying the Leibnitz condition, linearity and locality.

Let $T_p M$ be the space of all tangent vectors to M at p . We claim that $T_p M$ is a vector space. Let $u, v \in T_p M$, then $(u + v)f = u(f) + v(f)$ and $(ku)(v) = ku(v)$ gives it this structure.

eg: M^n open in \mathbb{R}^n , $v = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0}\gamma(t)$ with γ a smooth path in M^n , then $v(f) = \text{tangent vector at } \gamma(0)$. Question: Are these all?

Lemma 2.13. If $A \in T_p M^n$, $M^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ open, then $A = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0}\gamma(t)$ for some smooth path γ with $\gamma(0) = p$.

In particular, $T_p M^n \simeq \mathbb{R}^n$ with basis $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}$ where $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} = \frac{d}{dt}(p + t(0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0))|_{t=0}$.

Proof. Without loss of generality, assume $p = 0$. $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x_i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ smooth. $x_i|_M \in C^\infty(M)$.

Let $a_i = A(x_i) \in \mathbb{R}$, and let $\gamma(t) = t(a_1, \dots, a_n)$. $\gamma(0) = 0 = p$.

Claim: $\forall f \in C^\infty(M)$, $0 \in U \subset M^n$, then $A(f) = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0}f(\gamma(t))$.

Choose $\delta > 0$ such that $B_\delta(0) \subset U$ for $x \in B_\delta(0)$, $g(t) = f(tx)$, $t \in (-1, 1)$, $f(x) - f(0) = g(1) - g(0) = \int_0^1 f'(t)dt$. By the chain rule, $g'(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$.

Thus, $\int_0^1 f'(t)dt = \int_0^1 \sum_i x_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(tx)dt = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \int_0^1 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(tx)dt = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i h_i(x)$, for all $x \in B_\delta(0)$, where $h_i \in C^\infty(B_\delta(0))$ and so $h_i(0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(0)$.

So $A(f(x)) = A(f(x) - f(0)) = A(\sum x_i h_i(x)) = \sum A(x_i h_i(x)) = \sum A(x_i) h_i(0) = \sum a_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(0) = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0}f((a_1, \dots, a_n)t)$ \square

The standard basis of $T_p U$ is $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}|_p$.

Definition 2.14. If M, N are smooth and $F : U \rightarrow V$ smooth where $U \subset M$, $V \subset N$ open, then its derivative, $DF : T_p M \rightarrow T_{F(p)} N$ is defined by sending $v \in T_p M$, $DF(v)(f) = v(f \circ F)$ where $f \in C^\infty(V)$.

Proposition 2.14 (Chain Rule). $DF \circ DG = D(F \circ G)$ when $M \xrightarrow{F} N \xrightarrow{G} L$ are smooth maps and $D(\text{id}) = \text{id}$

Proof. $h \in C_{F(G(p))}^\infty(L)$ and $v \in T_p M$.

$D(F \circ G)(v)(h) = v(h(F \circ G)) = v((h \circ F) \circ G) = (DG(v))(h \circ F) = DF(DG(v))(h) = (DF \circ DG)(v)(h)$ \square

Corollary 2.15. If $F : M \rightarrow N$ is smooth and a local diffeomorphism from a neighborhood of p to a neighborhood of $F(p)$, then $DF : T_p M \rightarrow T_{F(p)} N$ is a linear isomorphism.

Proposition 2.16. *If M^n is an n -dimensional manifold, then $T_p M^n \simeq \mathbb{R}^n$ as an n -dimensional vector space.*

Proof. $\forall p \in M$, take a smooth chart (U, ϕ) at p . Then $D\phi : T_p M \rightarrow T_{\phi(p)}\phi(U) = T_{\phi(p)}\mathbb{R}^n$ is an isomorphism by the corollary. \square

Proposition 2.17. *U is open in \mathbb{R}^n , $F = (F_1, \dots, F_m) : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ smooth.*

Then $DF(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}|_p) = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{\partial F_j}{\partial x_i}(p) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}|_{F(p)}$, the coefficient matrix is the Jacobian matrix.

Proof. Take a smooth $u(x_1, \dots, x_m)$ defined in a neighborhood of $F(p)$. $DF(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i})(u) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(u(F_1, \dots, F_m))$, and the chain rule gives $\sum_{j=1}^m \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial F_j}{\partial x_i}(p) = \left(\sum_{j=1}^m \frac{\partial F_j}{\partial x_i}(p) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}(u) \right)$ \square

Tangent Bundle:

Let $M = M^n$ a smooth manifold. $TM = \cup_{p \in M} T_p M$ be the set of all the tangent vectors in M . $\pi : TM \rightarrow M : T_p M \mapsto p$.

eg: U open in \mathbb{R}^n , $TU \simeq U \times \mathbb{R}^n$, $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}|_p \mapsto (p, a_1, \dots, a_n)$.

Suppose $F : U \rightarrow V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is open. Then $DF : TU \rightarrow TV$ by the identification $U \times \mathbb{R}^n$.

Definition 2.15. *Suppose M^n is smooth. Then TM is a smooth $2n$ -manifold such that $\pi : TM \rightarrow M^n$ is smooth and $i : T_p M \rightarrow TM$ is smooth $\forall p \in M$.*

Proof. For a smooth chart (U, ϕ) of M , produce a smooth chart for TM as $(TU, D\phi)$. $D\phi : TU \rightarrow TV$ is a one to one and onto map $V = \phi(U)$ in \mathbb{R}^n .

The transition $D\phi \circ (D\psi)^{-1} = D\phi \circ D(\psi^{-1}) = D(\phi \circ \psi^{-1})$ is a diffeomorphism, by Prop 4.

In terms of (U, ϕ) and $(TU, D\phi)$ the map π becomes $\phi \circ \pi \circ (D\phi)^{-1}(p, a) = p$

The rest is easy. \square

Definition 2.16 (Smooth Vector Field). *M^n is smooth, then a smooth vector field X on M^n is a smooth map $X : M \rightarrow TM$ such that $\pi \circ X = id$. ie, $\forall p \in M$, $X(p) = X_p \in T_p M$.*

Eg U open in \mathbb{R}^n a vector field X on U , $X(p) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i(p) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}|_p$ where $a_i \in C^\infty(U)$ for all i .

Eg. $Y(x, y) = -y \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + x \frac{\partial}{\partial y}$ defines a nowhere 0 vector field on S^1 .

We let $\frac{d}{dt}$ be the standard vector field on \mathbb{R}^1 . Define $f : \mathbb{R}^1 \rightarrow S^1$ smooth map by $f(t) = (\cos t, \sin t)$. Claim: $Df : T\mathbb{R}^1 \rightarrow TS^1$ produce a well defined vector field $Df(\frac{d}{dt})$ on S^1 which is equal to Y .

Indeed, $Df(p)(\frac{d}{dt}|_p) = D(f(p + 2\pi n))(\frac{d}{dt}|_{p+2\pi n})$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$D(f)(\frac{d}{dt}) = (-\sin t, \cos t) = -\sin t \frac{\partial}{\partial x}|_p + \cos t \frac{\partial}{\partial y}|_p = -y \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + x \frac{\partial}{\partial y}$.

eg. If $F : M \rightarrow N$ diffeomorphism, each vector field X on M produces a vector field $DF(X)$ on N .

Consider $f(x) = x^2 : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{>0}$. Diffeomorphism. $X = \frac{d}{dx}$ is the standard vector field. $DF(\frac{d}{dx}|_x) = 2x \frac{d}{dx}|_{x^2}$. So $DF(X) = 2\sqrt{x} \frac{d}{dx}$.

eg. $X = a(t) \frac{d}{dt}$ on \mathbb{R}^1 . $X_0 = a(0) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \neq 0$ for $a(0) \neq 0$.

Claim: \exists smooth chart (U, ϕ) near 0 such that $(D\phi)(\frac{d}{dt}) = X$ near 0, i.e. $(D\phi^{-1})(X|_v) = \frac{d}{dt}$.

So $(D\phi)(\frac{d}{dt}) = \frac{d\phi(t)}{dt} \frac{d}{dt}|_{\phi(0)} = \phi'(t) \frac{d}{dt}|_{\phi(t)} = X_{\phi(t)} = a(\phi(t)) \frac{d}{dt}|_{\phi(t)}$.

So we have $\phi'(t) = a(\phi(t))$ and $\phi(0) = 0$. By Picard's Theorem, we can solve this in $(-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ for some $\epsilon > 0$. Also $\phi'(0) = a(\phi(0)) = a(0) \neq 0$, so $(\phi, (-\delta, \delta))$ is a diffeomorphism by the Inverse Function Theorem.

Computation: $U \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is open, $z = (x, y) = x + iy$. $F(z) : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ holomorphic. $F'(z) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$.

Theorem 2.18 (Poincare-Hopf). *There are no smooth vector fields on S^2 such that $X_p \neq 0$ for all $p \in S^2$.*

Proof. Suppose not. Say, X is a vector field such that $X_p \neq 0, \forall p \in S^2$. Specifically, $X_N \neq 0$.

Consider the vector field $Y = D\phi_N(X|_{S^2 \setminus \{N\}})$ is a vector field on \mathbb{C} which is nowhere vanishing.

Take a large ball $B_\gamma(0)$ with $\gamma \gg 1$. Then $Y_p|_{\partial B_\gamma(0)}$ looks like FIGURE ONE by Picard's Theorem. So $Y_{B_\gamma(0)}$ is a nowhere vanishing vector field on $B_\gamma(0)$. Near $\partial B_\gamma(0)$ it looks like the above picture.

So we can define a map $f : B_\gamma(0) \rightarrow S^1 \subset \mathbb{C}^* : p \mapsto Y_p / \|Y_p\|$.

The winding number of f on $\partial B_R(0)$ for $R \leq \gamma$ is $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial B_R(0)} \frac{dz}{z}$. It is equal to ± 2 by figure and is continuous in \mathbb{R} by complex analysis.

But the winding number is equal to zero for $R \rightarrow 0$, since $Y|_0$ are parallel.

Thus we get a contradiction. \square

Corollary 2.19. $TS^2 \neq S^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2$

Corollary 2.20. *There is a vector field X on S^2 such that $D\phi_N(X|_{S^2 \setminus \{N\}}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$.*

The Lie Bracket

Suppose X is a vector field on M^n , then $X : C^\infty(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M) : f \mapsto X(f)$ where $X(f)(p) = X_p(f)$. X satisfies the following:

1. $X(f + kg) = X(f) + kX(g)$
2. $X(fg) = X(f)g + fX(g)$

If X, Y are vector fields on M , then $\forall f \in C^\infty(M)$, $[X, Y](f) = X(Y(f)) - Y(X(f))$ is a vector field. We call this the Lie Bracket of X and Y .

Proposition 2.21. *For X, Y, Z vector fields on M^n , then $[X, Y] = -[Y, X]$, $[X, Y]$ is bilinear in X, Y and it satisfies the Jacobi Identity.*

Theorem 2.22. *If $F : U \rightarrow V$ is a diffeomorphism and X, Y are vector fields on U , then $[DF(X), DF(Y)] = DF([X, Y])$.*

Proof. By diagram chasing. Diagram omitted. \square

Left Invariant Vector Fields on Lie Groups

Definition 2.17 (Left Invariant). G is a Lie Group. $\forall g \in G$ let $\ell_g : G \rightarrow G : x \mapsto gx$, then ℓ_g is a diffeomorphism with inverse $(\ell_g)^{-1} = \ell_{g^{-1}}$. A vector field X is left invariant if we have $D\ell_g(X) = X$

eg. $G = GL(n, \mathbb{R})$. X left invariant and $X_{id} = v \in T_{id}GL = \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. What is X_A for $A \in GL(n, \mathbb{R})$?

The solution is $X_A = A \cdot v \in T_A(GL)$. As $GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we identify $TGL \simeq GL \times \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ in a natural way.

Proposition 2.23. The space of all left-invariant vector fields on G is linearly isomorphic to $T_{id}G$, where the isomorphism π sends $X \mapsto X_{id}$.

Proof. π is onto: Let $v \in T_{id}G$. Define a vector field (not yet smooth) $X_p = (D\ell_p)(v)$. We must verify that this is left invariant and smooth. Smoothness is trivial. Suppose $g \in G$, then $(D\ell_g)(X_p) = X_{gp} = D(\ell_{gp})v$ by the chain rule and the definition of a Lie Group. \square

Definition 2.18 (Lie Algebra). $(T_{id}G, [])$ is defined to be the Lie Algebra of G .

Theorem 2.24. $T_{id}GL(n, \mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ then $[A, B] = AB - BA$ matrix multiplication.

$$T_{id}SL(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : \text{tr } A = 0\}$$

$$T_{id}O(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : A + A^T = 0\}.$$

Proof. $GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ open, $T_{id}GL \subset T_{id}\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, basis $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{ij}}$. $x = (x_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.

Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} = T_{id}GL$, let \tilde{A} be the left invariant vector field on GL with $\tilde{A}_{id} = A$, $\tilde{A}_X = XA \in T_XGL = T_X\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.

Take $B \in T_{id}$, $\tilde{B}_X = XB$ the left invariant vector field. Choose $f = f(x) \in C^\infty(GL)$. $[A, B](f) = [\tilde{A}, \tilde{B}](f)|_{id} = \tilde{A}|_{id}(\tilde{B}f) - \tilde{B}|_{id}(\tilde{A}f) = A(\tilde{B}(f)) - B(\tilde{A}(f))$

$\tilde{B}(f) = \tilde{B}_X(f)$, to find $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$, let $\tilde{B}_X = XB = [\sum_{k=1}^n x_{ik}b_{kj}]_{n \times n}$

So $A(\tilde{B}(f)) = \sum_{r,s} a_{rs} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{rs}}(\tilde{B}(f))|_{X=id} = \sum_{r,s,i,j,k} a_{rs} \frac{\partial x_{ik}}{\partial x_{rs}} b_{rj} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{ij}}(id) + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_{rs} \partial x_{rk}}(f \dots)$

This is the same as $\sum_{i,j,k,r,s} a_{rs} b_{kj} \frac{\delta_{ir}}{i} \frac{\delta_{ks}}{k} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{ij}}(id) + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \partial}$. Thus,

$[\tilde{A}, \tilde{B}]_{id}(f) = \sum_{i,j,k} a_{ik} b_{kj} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{ij}}(id) + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \partial}$. So $= \sum_{i,j,k} (a_{ik} b_{kj} - b_{ik} a_{kj}) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{ij}}(id) = [A, B](f)$ by definition. $[A, B]_{ij} = \sum_k (a_{ij} b_{kj} - b_{ik} a_{kj})$.

To see $T_{id}SL(n, \mathbb{R}) \dots$ \square

Lemma 2.25. If U open in \mathbb{R}^n and $F : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with regular value p , then $\iota : F^{-1}(p) \rightarrow U$ inclusion $D\iota : T_x F^{-1}(p) \rightarrow T_x U$ is injective and has image $\ker(DF : T_x U \rightarrow T_{F(x)}\mathbb{R})$.

Proof. $F \circ \iota = \text{constant} = p$. So $DF \circ D\iota = 0$, so $\text{Im}(D\iota) \subset \ker(DF)$. After a change of coordinates $i : (x_1, \dots, x_{n-m}) \mapsto (x_1, \dots, x_{n-m}, 0, \dots, 0)$ so $D\iota$ is injective.

But $\dim \text{Im}(D\iota) = \dim F^{-1}(p) = n - m$, and also $\dim \ker(DF) = n - m$, so $\ker(DF) = \text{Im}(D\iota)$. \square

e.g. $S^n = f^{-1}(1) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ for $f(x) = x \cdot x : \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. $DF_x : y \mapsto 2x \cdot y$. So $T_x S^n = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} : y \cdot x = 0\}$.

e.g. $f : \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : A \mapsto \det A$. So $Df(id) : T_{id} \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow T_1 \mathbb{R}$, $Df(id) : B \rightarrow \text{tr } B$.

$Df(id)(B) = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0}(f(I+tB)) = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0} \det(I+tB) = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0} (\prod_{i=1}^n (1+tb_{ii}) + t^2 \dots) = b_{11} + \dots + b_{nn} = \text{tr } B$.

This shows, b Lemma 3, that $T_{id} SL(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : \text{tr } A = 0\}$

3 Riemannian Geometry

Tensors

V a vector space over \mathbb{R} with basis v_1, \dots, v_n . $V^* = \text{hom}(V, \mathbb{R})$ the dual vector space of all linear functionals on V with dual basis v_1^*, \dots, v_n^* where $v_i^*(v_j) = \delta_{ij}$.

e.g. The dual space of $T_p U$ is $T_p^* U$, the cotangent space. The dual basis of $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}$ is dx_i , and $dx_i \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \right) = \delta_{ij}$.

Definition 3.1 (k -linear functions). A k -linear function $f : V \times \dots \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with k copies of V , $f(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n)$ is linear in x_i when other variables are fixed.

f is called symmetric if $f \circ \sigma = f$ for all $\sigma \in S_k$.

f is called alternating if $f = \text{sign}(\sigma) f \circ \sigma$.

Alternating k -linear functions are sometimes called k -forms.

$\otimes^k V^*$ = vector space of all k -linear functions on V . $(f+g)(\alpha) = f(\alpha) + g(\alpha)$.

$\bigwedge^k V^*$ = vector space of all alternating k -forms on V .

The tensor product $\otimes : \otimes^k V^* \times \otimes^\ell V^* \rightarrow \otimes^{k+\ell} V^* : (\alpha, \beta) \mapsto \alpha\beta$.

$(\alpha \otimes \beta)(x_1, \dots, x_k, y_1, \dots, y_\ell) = \alpha(x_1, \dots, x_k) \beta(y_1, \dots, y_\ell)$.

e.g. $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, then $\det(v_1, \dots, v_n) = \det[v_1, \dots, v_n]$, and $\det \in \bigwedge^n (\mathbb{R}^n)^*$. $b : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called bilinear, and it is the same as $b \in \otimes^2 V^*$.

Lemma 3.1. $\dim \otimes^k (V^*) = n^k$.

Proof. $f \in \otimes^k V^* \Rightarrow f$ is determined by $f(v_{i_1}, \dots, v_{i_k})$ where $i_j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ by linearity, so $\dim \otimes^k V^* \leq n^k$ the number of possible choices of i_1, \dots, i_k . But $(v_{i_1}^* \otimes \dots \otimes v_{i_k}^*)(v_{j_1}, \dots, v_{j_k})$ is 1 if all the $i_k = j_k$ and 0 else. So $\dim \otimes^k V^* \geq n^k$. \square

Suppose U, V are vector spaces and $F : U \rightarrow V$ is linear. Then it induces a linear map $F^* : \otimes^k V^* \rightarrow \otimes^k U^* : \alpha \mapsto \alpha(F, F, \dots, F) = F^*(\alpha)$, F^* is linear and satisfies $(id)^* = id$ and $F^*(\alpha \otimes \beta) = F^*(\alpha) \otimes F^*(\beta)$ and $(F \circ G)^* = G^* \circ F^*$.

Lemma 3.2. U has basis u_1, \dots, u_m and U^* has dual basis u_1^*, \dots, u_m^* . $F(u_i) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ij} v_j$ then $F^*(v_j^*) = \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} u_i^*$

Proof. $F^*(v_j^*)(u_k) = v_j^*(F(u_k)) = v_j^*(\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ki} v_i) = \sum_i a_{ki} \delta_{ij} = a_{kj}$ \square

e.g. $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ smooth with $F = (F_1, \dots, F_m)$. We have $DF_x(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}) = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{\partial F_j}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial y_j} |_{F(x)}$.

Notation, F^* is defined to be $(DF)^*$. So $F^*(dy_j) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial F_j}{\partial x_i} dx_i = d(F_j)$.

So $df = \sum \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} dx_i$, just as in calculus.

Dual of DF by the Substitution Rule.

e.g. $F(z) = \frac{1}{z}$. $F(x, y) = \frac{1}{x^2+y^2}(x, -y) = (u, v)$. What is $F^*(du)$? It is $F^*(du) = d\left(\frac{x}{x^2+y^2}\right) = \frac{y^2-x^2}{(x^2+y^2)^2} dx - \frac{2xy}{(x^2+y^2)^2} dy$. It is discontinuous at 0.

Corollary 3.3. *There are no smooth 1-forms ω on the Riemann Sphere such that $\omega|_{S^2 \setminus \{N\}} = \phi_N^*(dx)$.*

e.g. If $\alpha, \beta \in V^*$ then $\alpha \wedge \beta$ is a 2-form and it is given by $\alpha \otimes \beta - \beta \otimes \alpha$.

e.g. The standard symplectic 2-forms ω on $\mathbb{R}^{2n} \ni (x_1, y_1, x_2, \dots, y_n)$ $\omega = \sum_{i=1}^n dx_i \wedge dy_i \in \wedge^2(\mathbb{R}^{2n})^*$.

ω is nonsingular, that is, $[\omega(e_i, e_j)]_{2n \times 2n}$ has nonzero determinant for a basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_{2n}\}$ of \mathbb{R}^{2n} .

The wedge product $\wedge : \wedge^k V^* \times \wedge^\ell V^* \rightarrow \wedge^{k+\ell} V^*$. We must define a projection $A : \otimes^k V^* \rightarrow \wedge^k V^*$.

$$A(f)(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_k} \text{sign}(\sigma) f(x_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, x_{\sigma(k)})$$

Definition 3.2 (Wedge Product). *If $\alpha \in \wedge^k V^*, \beta \in \wedge^\ell V^*$, then $\alpha \wedge \beta := \frac{1}{k!\ell!} A(\alpha \otimes \beta)$.*

Definition 3.3 (Pullback). *If $f : U \rightarrow V$, then $f^* : \otimes^k V^* \rightarrow \otimes^k U^*$, $f^*(\alpha)(u_1, \dots, u_k) = \alpha(f(u_1), \dots, f(u_k))$. If $k = 1$, then $f : U \rightarrow V$, then $f^* : V^* \rightarrow U^*$, so $f(u_i) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} v_j \Rightarrow f^*(v_j^*) = \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} u_i^*$.*

Proposition 3.4. *If $\alpha \in \wedge^k V^*$ and $\beta \in \wedge^\ell V^*$, then*

1. $\alpha \wedge \beta = (-1)^{k\ell} \beta \wedge \alpha$
2. $(\alpha \wedge \beta) \wedge \gamma = \alpha \wedge (\beta \wedge \gamma)$.
3. $f : U \rightarrow V$ linear, then $f^*(\alpha \wedge \beta) = f^*\alpha \wedge f^*\beta$.

Proof. $f^*(\alpha \wedge \beta) = f^*\left(\frac{1}{k!\ell!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_{k+\ell}} \text{sign}(\sigma) (\alpha \otimes \beta) \cdot \sigma\right) = \frac{1}{k!\ell!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_{k+\ell}} f^*((\alpha \otimes \beta) \cdot \sigma) = f^*(\alpha) \wedge f^*(\beta)$

$\alpha \wedge \beta = \frac{1}{k!\ell!} \sum \text{sign}(\sigma) (\alpha \otimes \beta) \cdot \sigma$, $\beta \wedge \alpha = \frac{1}{\ell!k!} \sum (\beta \otimes \alpha) \cdot \sigma$, so the first conclusion holds. \square

Example: suppose $f : V \rightarrow V$ linear. $f^*(v_1^* \wedge \dots \wedge v_n^*) = \det(f) v_1^* \wedge \dots \wedge v_n^*$. We sometimes call $v_1^* \wedge \dots \wedge v_n^*$ the volume form.

Definition 3.4 (Tensor Bundle). *M^n a smooth manifold. Then we let $T^{(0,r)} M = \cup_{p \in M} \otimes^r (T_p M)^*$ be the $(0, r)$ tensor bundle.*

$T^{(0,1)}$ is the cotangent bundle.

$$\wedge^r M = \cup_{p \in M} \wedge^r (T_p^* M) \subset T^{(0,r)} M.$$

Definition 3.5 (Smooth $(0, r)$ Tensor). A smooth $(0, r)$ tensor on M^n is a map $t : M \rightarrow T^{(0, r)}M$ such that $\forall p \in M, t_p = t(p) \in \otimes^r T_p^*M$ and varying smoothly in p . If (U, ϕ) is a smooth chart of M at p , then $(D(\phi^{-1}))^*(t|_U) = \sum a_{i_1, \dots, i_r}(x) dx_{i_1} \otimes \dots \otimes dx_{i_r}$ in an open set $\phi(U) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ so that $a_{i_1, \dots, i_r} \in C^\infty(\phi(U))$

e.g. $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ open, then $T^{(0, r)}\Omega \simeq \Omega \times \otimes^r (T_p \mathbb{R}^n)^*$.

Lemma 3.5. If $f : \tilde{\Omega} \rightarrow \Omega$ is a smooth function, then $Df : T_p \tilde{\Omega} \rightarrow T_{f(p)}\Omega$ gives $(Df)^* : T_{f(p)}^*\Omega \rightarrow T_p^* \tilde{\Omega}$ for $t = \sum a_{i_1, \dots, i_r}(x) dx_{i_1} \otimes \dots \otimes dx_{i_r}$.

$(Df)^*(t) = \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_r} a_{i_1, \dots, i_r}(f(u)) df_{i_1}(u) \otimes \dots \otimes df_{i_r}(u)$ where $f(u) = (f_1(u), \dots, f_n(u))$, $u \in \tilde{\Omega} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$.

Substitution: $x_i = f_i(u)$ just replace it in the formula for t .

Proof. Use $(Df)^*$ is linear and $(Df)^*(\alpha \otimes \beta) = ((Df)^*(\alpha)) \otimes ((Df)^*(\beta))$. It suffices to show: $(Df)^*(dx_i) = df_i(u)$. We've done this previously. \square

Corollary 3.6. If f is smooth, then $(Df)^*(t)$ is again smooth. Thus, the smoothness of $(0, r)$ tensor in M^n is well-defined.

Definition 3.6 (Riemannian Metric). M^n a smooth manifold. A smooth r -form ω on M^n is a $(0, r)$ smooth tensor such that $\forall p \in M^n, \omega_p \in \bigwedge^r T_p^*M$. A Riemannian metric g on M^n is a smooth $(0, 2)$ tensor such that $\forall p \in M^n, g_p \in \otimes^2 T_p^*M$ and satisfies the following:

1. $g_p(u, v) = g_p(v, u) \forall u, v \in T_p M$ (symmetric)
2. $g_p(u, u) > 0$ for all $u \in T_p M \setminus \{0\}$

That is, g_p is a positive definite symmetric bilinear form on $T_p M$.

Notation: $\alpha, \beta \in V^*$ we use $\alpha \cdot \beta := \frac{1}{2}(\alpha \otimes \beta + \beta \otimes \alpha)$, and notice that $\alpha \cdot \beta = \beta \cdot \alpha$.

In \mathbb{R}^n , we use $dx_i dx_j = \frac{1}{2}(dx_i \otimes dx_j + dx_j \otimes dx_i)$.

If $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is open, a Riemannian metric g can be written $g(x) = \sum a_{ij}(x) dx_i dx_j$ where $a_{ij}(x) = a_{ji}(x) = g\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}|_x, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}|_x\right)$ such that the matrix $[a_{ij}(x)]_{n \times n}$ is positive definite $\forall x \in \Omega$.

e.g. if \mathbb{E}^n is euclidean n -space, then $g = \sum_{i=1}^n (dx_i)^2$.

Basic: If U open in $\mathbb{R}^n, F : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^M$ is smooth $(y_1, \dots, y_m) = (F_1(x), \dots, F_m(x))$, and call $F^* = (DF)^*$ the pullback.

$F^*(a(y) dy_{i_1} \otimes \dots \otimes y_{i_k}) = a(F(x)) dF_{i_1}(x) \otimes \dots \otimes F_{i_k}(x)$ and $F^*(a(y) dy_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge y_{i_k}) = a(F(x)) dF_{i_1}(x) \wedge \dots \wedge F_{i_k}(x)$

Recall a Riemannian Metric (M^n, g) g is a symmetric positive definite $(0, 2)$ tensor on M^n .

e.g. 1: Classical Differential Geometry:

S a smooth submanifold in \mathbb{E}^n , and $i : S \rightarrow \mathbb{E}^n, S = \{(x, y, f(x, y)) : (x, y) \in U \text{ open in } \mathbb{R}^3\}$

$(i)^*(\sum dx_j^2)$ gives a Riemannian Metric on S . $F : U \rightarrow S \hookrightarrow \mathbb{E}^3$, so $F^*(\sum dx_j^2) = dx^2 + dy^2 + (df(x, y))^2 = (1 + f_x)^2 dx^2 + (1 + f_y)^2 dy^2 + 2f_x f_y dx dy$.

e.g. 2: S^1 with standard metric $g = (d\theta)^2$, the invariant vector field is $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}$.
 $i : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{E}^2$ by $\theta \mapsto (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$. $i^*(dx^2 + dy^2) = d\theta^2$.

However, if t is a $(0, 2)$ symmetric tensor on M^n which is nondegenerate at each point $p \in M$, then (M^n, t) is a semi-Riemannian metric.

e.g. Killing form on $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$.

$T_{\text{id}}GL \simeq \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, so $\alpha_0 : T_{\text{id}}GL \times T_{\text{id}}GL \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $\alpha_0(A, B) = \text{tr}(A, B)$ symmetric bilinear form. It is nondegenerate iff $\forall A \neq 0$ there is a B such that $\text{tr}(AB) \neq 0$. We can achieve this by taking $B = A^t$.

This is not positive definite, since $\text{tr}(A^2) < 0$ can occur.

Produce a left invariant $(0, 2)$ tensor α such that $(\ell_g)^*\alpha = \alpha$ at $g \in GL$ by $\alpha_g = (\ell_{g^{-1}})^*\alpha_0$.

Proposition 3.7. α is also right-invariant, ie, α is bi-invariant.

Proof. $(R_g)^*\alpha = \alpha$ where $R_g : x \mapsto xg$

$F_g : GL \rightarrow GL : x \mapsto g^{-1}xg$, and $(DF_g)^*\alpha_0 = \alpha_0$. So this is what we need to prove.

Take $A, B \in T_{\text{id}}GL$, $F_g^*(\alpha_0)(A, B) \stackrel{?}{=} \alpha_0(A, B) = \text{tr}(AB)$. We know $F_g^*(\alpha_0)(A, B) = \alpha_0(DF_g(A), DF_g(B)) = \text{tr}(DF_g(A), DF_g(B))$. But what is $DF_g(A)$? It is $g^{-1}Ag$. So $\text{tr}(g^{-1}Agg^{-1}Bg) = \text{tr}(g^{-1}ABg) = \text{tr}(AB)$. \square

The same expression is bi-invariant $(0, 2)$ forms on $SL(n, \mathbb{R})$ and $O(n)$, that is, $\text{tr}(AB)$.

e.g. Killing form is negative definite on $O(n)$, because the Lie Algebra is given by $\{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : A = -A^t\}$, and here $\text{tr}(AA) = \text{tr}(A(-A^t)) = -\text{tr}(AA^t) < 0$.

Killing form is then the BEST Riemannian metric on $O(n)$. For $n = 2$, this is $d\theta^2$.

Homework: Show that there are no Riemannian Metrics g on $SL(2, \mathbb{R})$ which is bi-invariant. Q: What is the signature of $\text{tr}(A, B)$ on $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$?

Differential Forms:

Suppose V is an n -dimensional vector space with basis v_1, \dots, v_n . Then $\bigwedge^r V^*$ is $\binom{n}{r}$ dimensional with a basis $v_{i_1}^* \wedge \dots \wedge v_{i_r}^*$ where $i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_r$.

Proof. If $f \in \bigwedge^r V^*$, then f is determined by $f(v_{i_1}, \dots, v_{i_r})$, and so $\dim \bigwedge^r V^* \leq \binom{n}{r}$. And $(v_{i_1}^* \wedge \dots \wedge v_{i_r}^*)(v_{j_1}, \dots, v_{j_r}) = 0$ if $i_\mu \neq j_\mu$ for some μ and 1 otherwise.

This implies that $\{v_{i_1}^* \wedge \dots \wedge v_{i_r}^*\}$ linearly independent, so $\dim \bigwedge^r V^* \geq \binom{n}{r}$. \square

Suppose U open in \mathbb{R}^n . Then $\bigwedge^r U = U \times \bigwedge^r (\mathbb{R}^n)^*$. $\sum_{i_1 < \dots < i_r} a_{i_1, \dots, i_r} dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_r}|_p \mapsto (p, \sum a_{i_1, \dots, i_r} dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_r})$.

A smooth r -form Ω in U , $\Omega = \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_r} a_{i_1, \dots, i_r}(x) dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_r}$ where $a_{i_1, \dots, i_r}(x) \in C^\infty(U)$.

e.g. 4. If $f \in C^\infty(U)$, then what is df ? A $(0,1)$ -form = $(0,1)$ -tensor.
 $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, so $df = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right) dx_i$ by either $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ then $df = (Df)^*(dt) = f^*(dt)$ or If X is a vector field on U , then $(df)(X) = X(f)$.
Let $\Gamma(\wedge^r M)$ be the vector space of all smooth r -forms on M^n .

Theorem 3.8. For smooth M^n , \exists linear map $d : \Gamma(\wedge^r M) \rightarrow \Gamma(\wedge^{r+1} M)$ the exterior derivative, such that

1. $d \circ d = 0$
2. $f \in \Gamma(\wedge^0 M) = C^\infty(M)$, $df = (Df)^*(dt)$
3. $d(\alpha \wedge \beta) = d\alpha \wedge \beta + (-1)^r \alpha \wedge d\beta$, with α and r -form
4. If $F : N \rightarrow M$ smooth, then $F^*(d\alpha) = d(F^*(\alpha))$

This was motivated by integration and partly due to Cartan.

Proof. Part 2 has been checked.

Case 1: M^n open in \mathbb{R}^n . $\omega = a(x)dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_r}$, r -form on M^n . Define $d\omega = \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial a}{\partial x_j} \right) dx_j \wedge dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_r}$.

$$d \circ d(\omega) = \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial^2 a}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} \right) (dx_k \wedge dx_j) \wedge dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_r} = 0$$

Now we move on to 3, and take $\eta = b(x)dx_{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{j_s} = b(x)dx_J$. Then $d(\omega \wedge \eta) = d(a(x)b(x)dx_I \wedge dx_J) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} (ab)dx_k \wedge dx_I \wedge dx_J = \sum_{k=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial a}{\partial x_k} dx_k \wedge dx_I \right) (b dx_J) + \sum_{k=1}^n \left(a \frac{\partial b}{\partial x_k} dx_k \wedge dx_I \wedge dx_J \right) = d\omega \wedge \eta + (-1)^r \omega \wedge d\eta$.

For part 4, $F(u_1, \dots, u_m) = (F_1(u), \dots, F_n(u)) : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. $\alpha = a(x)dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_r} \in \Gamma(\wedge^r \mathbb{R}^n)$

$$F^*(d\alpha) = F^* \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial a}{\partial x_j} dx_j \wedge dx_I \right) = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial a}{\partial x_j} (F(u)) dF_j(u) \wedge dF_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dF_{i_r}(u).$$

And this is $\sum_{j,k} \frac{\partial a}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial F_j}{\partial u_k} du_k \wedge dF_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dF_{i_r} = \sum_j \frac{\partial}{\partial u_k} (a(F(u)) du_k) \wedge dF_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dF_{i_r} = d(a(F(u)) \wedge dF_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dF_{i_r}) = d(F^*(\alpha))$.

Case 2: Any manifold M^n . Suppose that $\alpha \in \Gamma(\wedge^r M)$. We define $d\alpha$ locally as follows. Take a chart (U, ϕ) , then $d\alpha|_U = \phi^*(\alpha(\phi^{-1})^*(\alpha))$.

Claim: $d\alpha$ is independent of the choice of charts.

Suppose (V, ψ) is another chart with $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$.

We want to have that $\phi^*d(\phi^{-1})^*\alpha = \psi^*d(\psi^{-1})^*\alpha$ in $U \cap V$. We apply $(\phi^{-1})^*$, that is, $d(\phi^{-1})^*\alpha = (\phi^*)^{-1}\psi^*d(\psi^{-1})^*\alpha = (\phi^{-1})^*\psi^*d(\psi^{-1})^*\alpha = (\psi\phi^{-1})^*d(\psi^{-1})^*\alpha = \alpha(\psi\phi^{-1})^*(\psi^{-1})^*(\alpha) = d((\psi^{-1})\psi\phi^{-1})^*(\alpha) = d(\phi^{-1})^*(\alpha)$ \square

Q: Does every smooth manifold M^n have a Riemannian Metric? Vector Field? Smooth Forms?

Definition 3.7. $f \in C^\infty(M)$ has support $\text{supp}(f) = \overline{\{x : f(x) \neq 0\}}$.

Theorem 3.9 (Partition of Unity). *If $\{U_\alpha : \alpha \in I\}$ is an open cover of M^n , then there exists a partition of unity subordinate to $\{U_\alpha : \alpha \in I\}$, $\lambda_\alpha \in C^\infty(M) : \alpha \in I\}$ such that*

1. $\text{supp}(\lambda_\alpha)$ is compact and $\text{supp}(\lambda_\alpha) \subseteq U_\alpha$
2. $\forall x \in M, \exists$ a neighborhood V of x such that $\{\alpha : \text{supp}(\lambda_\alpha) \cap V \neq \emptyset\}$ is finite
3. $\sum_{\alpha \in I} \lambda_\alpha(x) \equiv 1$ on M^n .

Corollary 3.10. *Every smooth manifold M^n has a Riemannian Metric, and nonzero vector field, and a non-zero k -form for $k \leq n$.*

Proof. Cover M^n by charts $\{(U_\alpha, \phi_\alpha) : \alpha \in I\}$. Let $g_{st} = \sum_{i=1}^n dx_i^2$, the standard metric on \mathbb{R}^n . $(\phi_\alpha)^* g_{st}$ is the pullback and gives us a metric on U_α .

Let $\{\lambda_\alpha : \alpha \in I\}$ be a partition of unity subordinate to $\{U_\alpha\}$. Then $g = \sum_{\alpha \in I} \lambda_\alpha (\phi_\alpha)^* g_{st}$ is a Riemannian Metric. It is well defined, clearly, as it is a locally finite sum, and it is a symmetric $(0, 2)$ tensor.

It is positive definite because $\lambda_\alpha \geq 0$. □

Remark: If M^2 is a Riemann surface, then there is a nonconstant analytic map $\phi : M^2 \rightarrow S^2$.

We will not prove the theorem on partitions of unity:

We will only prove the result for compact manifolds.

We will need the following lemma

Lemma 3.11. *Let $C(r)$ be the cube of half-side length r and center at the origin. $\exists \lambda \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$ such that $\lambda \geq 0$ and $\lambda|_{C(1)} \equiv 1$ and $\lambda|_{C(2)^c} \equiv 0$*

Proof. Define $f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-1/x} & x > 0 \\ 0 & x \leq 0 \end{cases}$ is C^∞ and $g(x) = \frac{f(x)}{f(x)+f(1-x)}$ is also C^∞ . So $h(x) = g(x+2)g(x-2)$ is λ on \mathbb{R}^1 .

So $\lambda(x_1, \dots, x_n) = h(x_1) \dots h(x_n)$. □

Proof. M^n compact implies that there exist finite subcover $\{U_1, \dots, U_N\}$ of $\{U_\alpha\}$.

$\forall x \in M, \exists$ a chart (V_x, ϕ_x) with $x \in V_x$ and $\overline{V_x} \subset U_i$ for some i and $\phi_x(V_x) \supset C(2)$ with $\phi_x(x) = 0$. Now $\{\phi_x^{-1}(C(1)) : x \in M\}$ is an open cover of M^n . M^n compact implies that \exists finite subcover $\{(V_1, \phi_1), \dots, (V_m, \phi_m)\}$ such that $M = \cup \phi_i^{-1}(C(1))$.

Let $\gamma : \{1, \dots, m\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, N\}$ such that $V_i \subset U_{\gamma(i)}$ for all i .

Now define $h_i = \begin{cases} \lambda \circ \phi_i & x \in V_i \\ 0 & x \notin V_i \end{cases}$.

$h_i \in C^\infty(M)$ and $\text{supp}(h_i) \subset \overline{V_i} \subset U_{\gamma(i)}$.

Claim: $\sum h_i(x) > 0$ for all $x \in M$. Indeed, $\forall x \in M, x \in \phi_i^{-1}(C(1))$ for some i , so $h_i(x) = 1$. Let $g(x) = \sum g_i(x) \in C^\infty(M)$. $g(x) > 0$ so $1 = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{h_i(x)}{g(x)}$. $\text{supp}(h_i/g) \subset \text{supp } h_i$.

For U_u , $\lambda_i(x) = \sum_{\gamma(j)=i} \frac{h_i(x)}{g(x)}$, so $\bar{V}_j \subset U_i$.

For the noncompact case, we note that M^n has a countable basis and is locally compact, so the proof goes through, just more technically difficult.

M^n is locally compact, so $M = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} N_i$ for N_i compact and $N_i \cap N_j \neq \emptyset$ if $|i - j| \geq 2$.

We apply the compact case inductively. \square

Orientation on Manifolds

Orientation on a finite dimensional vector space V with basis v_1, \dots, v_n :

A nonzero vector in $\wedge^n V^*$ is called a volume form. Dimension if $\binom{n}{n} = 1$.

$v_1^* \wedge \dots \wedge v_n^*$ is a volume form.

Two volume forms $\alpha, \beta \in \wedge^n V^* \setminus \{0\}$ are equivalent if $\alpha = k\beta$ for $k \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$. The equivalence class of volume forms is an orientation on V .

Definition 3.8 (Orientable Manifold). M^n is orientable if \exists smooth charts $\{(U_\alpha, \phi_\alpha) : \alpha \in I\}$ covering M^n such that $\det(D(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1})) > 0$ for all α, β . (transition functions are orientation preserving).

A volume form ω on M^n is a smooth n -form on M^n such that $\omega_p \neq 0$ for all $p \in M$.

Theorem 3.12. M^n is orientable iff \exists a volume form.

e.g. \mathbb{R}^n is orientable. $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is orientable. S^n is orientable with $\{(U_N, \bar{\phi}_N), (U_S, \phi_S)\}$.

In fact, if M^n is covered by two charts, U, V such that $U \cap V$ is connected, then M^n is orientable.

Every Riemann Surface is orientable. This is due to the fact that $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ with U open in \mathbb{C} is an analytic homeomorphism, and so $\det(Df) > 0$, due to the Cauchy Riemann equations.

Homework: If $A : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$ is \mathbb{C} -linear isomorphism, then $\det_{\mathbb{R}}(A) > 0$ for a real $(2n) \times (2n)$ matrix.

Thus, all complex analytic manifolds are orientable.

All Lie Groups are orientable.

We will now prove the theorem:

Proof. Orientable \Rightarrow volume form: Let $\{(U_\alpha, \phi_\alpha) : \alpha \in I\}$ be the orientable charts covering M . Let $\{\lambda_\alpha : \alpha \in I\}$ be a partition of unity associated to $\{U_\alpha\}$.

Let $\omega = \sum_{\alpha \in I} \lambda_\alpha \phi_\alpha^*(dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n)$.

ω is well defined n -form.

Claim: $\omega_p \neq 0$ for all $p \in M$. At p , choose an orientable chart $(U_{\alpha_0}, \phi_{\alpha_0})$ and consider $(\phi_{\alpha_0}^{-1})^*(\omega) = \sum_{\alpha} \lambda_\alpha(\phi_{\alpha_0}^{-1})(\phi_{\alpha_0}^{-1})^*(\phi_\alpha^*)(\eta)$ where $\eta = dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$. Then this equals $\sum_{\alpha} \lambda_\alpha(\phi_{\alpha_0}^{-1})(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_{\alpha_0}^{-1})^*(\eta)$.

$F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is smooth, then $F^*(dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n) = \det(D(F))dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$.

So the above is $[\sum_{\alpha} \lambda_\alpha(\phi_{\alpha_0}^{-1}) \det(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_{\alpha_0}^{-1})](\eta) = \mu\eta$ for $\mu \neq 0$ at p . So $\omega_p \neq 0$.

Volume Form \Rightarrow Orientable: If M^n has a volume form ω , then we construct charts for M^n as follows:

$\forall p \in M$, choose a connected chart (V, ϕ) at p . Now $(\phi^{-1})^*(\omega|_V)$ volume form $\phi(V) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is open, then $(\phi^{-1})^*(\omega|_V) = h(x)dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$.

$h \in C^\infty$, $h(x) \neq 0$, and V connected so $h(x) > 0$ for all $x \in \phi(V)$ or $h(x) < 0$ for all $x \in \phi(V)$.

If $h > 0$ we choose (V, ϕ) as an orientable chart. If $h < 0$ we choose $(V, A \circ \phi)$ as an orientable chart, where A is a reflection.

Claim, these charts satisfy $\det(D(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1})) > 0$ for all α, β .

$(\phi_\alpha^{-1})^*(\omega)h_\alpha(x)dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$ with $h_\alpha > 0$ and $(\phi_\beta^{-1})^*(\omega) = h_\beta(x)dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$ and $h_\beta > 0$.

But $(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1})((\phi_\alpha^{-1})^*\omega) = (\phi_\beta^{-1})^*\omega$, so $(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1})^*(h_\alpha\eta) = h_\beta\eta = h_\alpha(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1}) \det(D(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1}))\eta$, so $\det(D(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1})) = \frac{h_\beta}{h_\alpha(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1})} > 0$. \square

Symplectic Manifolds:

Let V be a vector space with basis v_1, \dots, v_m and A a non-degenerate 2-form $\phi : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

$A = [\phi(v_i, v_k)]_{m \times m}$ satisfies $A^T = -A$ and $\det A \neq 0$.

$\det(A) = \det(A^T) = \det(-A) = (-1)^m \det A$, so, as $\det A$ is nonzero, $m = 2n$ is even.

Linear Algebra: There exists a basis w_1, \dots, w_{2n} of V such that $[\phi(w_i, w_j)]$ is block diagonal with each block 2×2 and equal to $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Now $V' = \{v : \phi(v, w_1) = \phi(v, w_2) = 0\}$. $\det A \neq 0$ so $\dim V' = 2n - 2$, and $\phi|_{V' \times V'}$ nondegenerate.

i.e. $\phi = w_i^* \wedge w_2^* + \dots + w_{2n-1}^* \wedge w_{2n}^*$. There is only one such 2-form.

$\phi \wedge \phi \wedge \dots \wedge \phi$ n -times gives a $2n$ -form. This is nonzero, and so we have a volume form.

Definition 3.9 (Symplectic Manifold). M^{2n} is a symplectic manifold if there is a 2-form ω on M^{2n} such that $d\omega = 0$ and ω_p is nondegenerate at all $p \in M$.

Theorem 3.13. M^{2n} symplectic $\Rightarrow M^{2n}$ orientable.

Proof. $\omega \wedge \dots \wedge \omega$ n -times is a volume form. \square

e.g. 1: All orientable surfaces are symplectic.

e.g. 2: M^n a manifold, then T^*M is a symplectic manifold.

Homework TM is diffeomorphic to T^*M .

We will now prove the example

U open in \mathbb{R}^n . Then $T^*U \cong U \times \mathbb{R}^n$.

$\sum a_i dx_i|_x \mapsto (x_1, \dots, x_n, a_1, \dots, a_n) = (x, a)$.

We write down the symplectic 2-form $\omega_U = \sum_{i=1}^n da_i \wedge dx_i$.

Lemma 3.14. If $F : U \rightarrow V$, V open in \mathbb{R}^n is a diffeomorphism, then $F^* : T^*V \rightarrow T^*U$ is a diffeomorphism.

$(F^*)^*(\omega_U) = \omega_V$.

Proof. Write $y = F(x)$, and $y \in V$. $T^*V \simeq V \times \mathbb{R}^n : \sum b_i dy_i \mapsto (y, b)$.

$F : U \rightarrow V : x \mapsto F(x)$ and $F^* : T^*V \rightarrow T^*U : (y_1, \dots, y_n, b_1, \dots, b_n) \mapsto (x_1, \dots, x_n, a_1, \dots, a_n)$. And $\sum a_i dx_i$ is a 1-form on T^*U .

Definition of F^* : $\sum b_i dy_i = (F^*)^*(\sum a_i dx_i)$, then apply d to it, $d\phi^* = \phi^*d$ implies $d(\sum b_i dy_i) = d((F^*)^*(\sum a_i dx_i)) = (F^*)^*(d\sum a_i dx_i) = (F^*)^*(\omega_U)$. \square

For any smooth manifold M with smooth charts $\{(U_\alpha, \phi_\alpha) : \alpha \in I\}$ covering it, let $\phi_\alpha(U_\alpha) = V_\alpha$ open in \mathbb{R}^n .

$\phi_\alpha^* : T^*V_\alpha \rightarrow T^*U_\alpha$ and $(\phi_\alpha^*)^{-1} = (\phi_\alpha^{-1})^*$.

Define a symplectic 2-form ω_α on $T^*U_\alpha \subset T^*M$ by $\omega_\alpha = ((\phi_\alpha^{-1})^*)^*(\omega_{V_\alpha})$.

Claim $\omega_\alpha|_{T^*U_\alpha \cap T^*U_\beta} = \omega_\beta|_{T^*U_\alpha \cap T^*U_\beta}$ implies that there is a globally well defined symplectic 2-form.

Proof. Apply $\omega_{V_\alpha} = (\phi_\alpha^*)^*(\omega_\alpha) \stackrel{?}{=} (\phi_\alpha^*)^*(\omega_\beta) = (\phi_\alpha^*)^*((\phi_\beta^{-1})^*)^*(\omega_{V_\beta}) = ((\phi_\beta^{-1})^*(\phi_\alpha^*))^*(\omega_{V_\beta}) = ((\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1})^*)^*(\omega_{V_\beta})$, which is the first thing, by the lemma. \square

Integration

Definition 3.10 (Haar Measure). *If G is a Lie Group, a Haar Measure on G is a left invariant volume form.*

e.g. \mathbb{R}^n has $dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$.

S^1 has $d\theta$. $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ say ω is the left invariant volume form $\omega_{\text{id}} = dx_{11} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{nn}$. $\omega_A = \frac{1}{\det A} \omega_{\text{id}}$.

Indeed, $\ell_{A^{-1}} : x \mapsto A^{-1}x$ sends A to id , so $\omega_A = (\ell_{A^{-1}})^* \omega_{\text{id}}$ is left invariant.

The volume form of an oriented Riemannian manifold M^n .

Fix a volume form ω . Now, $\forall p \in M$, choose orthogonal basis of $T_p M$ e_1, \dots, e_n such that $e_1^* \wedge \dots \wedge e_n^* = K \omega_p$ where $K > 0$.

Chaim $\tilde{\omega} = e_1^* \wedge \dots \wedge e_n^*$ is the volume form, independent of the choices of orthogonal basis.

Proof. Suppose $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n$ is a different orthogonal basis. Then $\epsilon_i = \sum_j a_{ij} e_j$. Then $A = [a_{ij}]$ is orthogonal, so $AA^T = \text{id}$.

Thus, $\det(A) \epsilon_1^* \wedge \dots \wedge \epsilon_n^* = e_1^* \wedge \dots \wedge e_n^*$. As A is orthogonal, $\det A = \pm 1$. But $\det A > 0$, due to choice of bases, so $\epsilon_1^* \wedge \dots \wedge \epsilon_n^* = e_1^* \wedge \dots \wedge e_n^*$. \square

The volume forms ω_1, ω_2 on M^n are equivalent iff $\omega_1 = h(x)\omega_2$ for $h \in C^\infty(M)$ and $h(x) > 0$.

An orientation on M^n is an equivalence class of a volume form.

Fix an orientation. e.g, on \mathbb{R}^n , the orientation is $[dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n]$.

To integrate on an open set $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, we let $C_0(M)$ = the vector space of all compactly supported continuous functions on M . and $\Gamma_0(\bigwedge^n M)$ = the vector space of all compactly supported continuous n -forms on M .

If $\omega \in \Gamma_0(\bigwedge^n U)$ iff $\omega = f(x)dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$ for $f \in C_0(U)$.

We define $\int_U \omega$ to be $\int_U f(x)dx_1 dx_2 \dots dx_n$, as in calculus.

Theorem 3.15 (Change of Variables). *If $F : V \rightarrow U$ is an orientation preserving diffeomorphism, where V is open in \mathbb{R}^n , then $\int_U \omega = \int_V F^*(\omega)$.*

$$F^*(\omega) = f(F(x))F^*(dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n) = f(F(x)) \det(DF(x)) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n.$$

Now we suppose that M^n is an oriented manifold and $\omega \in \Gamma_0(\wedge^n M)$.
Compactly supported n -form on M^n .

We choose oriented charts $\{(U_\alpha, \phi_\alpha) : \alpha \in I\}$ covering M such that $\phi_\alpha : U_\alpha \rightarrow \phi_\alpha(U_\alpha) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is orientation preserving.

Let $\{\lambda_\alpha : \alpha \in I\}$ be a partition of 1 associated to $\{U_\alpha\}$. Let $V_\alpha = \phi_\alpha(U_\alpha)$.

We define $\int_M \omega = \sum_\alpha \int_{V_\alpha} (\phi_\alpha^{-1})^*(\lambda_\alpha \omega)$.

Proposition 3.16. *This is well-defined and independent of the choices.*

Proof. Suppose $\{(W_\beta, \psi_\beta) : \beta \in B\}$ is another set of charts and $\{\mu_\beta : \beta \in B\}$ is an associated partition of unity.

$$\sum_\beta \int_{\psi_\beta(W_\beta)} (\psi_\beta^{-1})^*(\mu_\beta \omega) = \sum_\alpha \int_{\psi_\alpha(U_\alpha)} (\phi_\alpha^{-1})^*(\lambda_\alpha \omega)$$

Note that $\det(D(\phi_\alpha \circ \psi_\beta^{-1})) > 0$ so $\sum_\alpha \int_{\phi_\alpha(U_\alpha)} (\psi_\beta^{-1})^*(\lambda_\alpha \omega) = \sum_{\alpha, \beta} \int_{\phi_\alpha(U_\alpha)} (\phi_\alpha^{-1})^*(\lambda_\alpha \mu_\beta \omega)$

Applying similar identities, the change rule, and the change of variables theorem, we obtain the desired result. \square

Proposition 3.17. 1. $F : N \rightarrow M$ orientation preserving diffeomorphism implies that $\int_M \omega = \int_N f^*(\omega)$

2. $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ implies $\int_M (k_1 \omega_1 + k_2 \omega_2) = k_1 \int_M \omega_1 + k_2 \int_M \omega_2$

3. $-M^n$ the negatively oriented manifold $(-\eta)$ gives $\int_{-M} \omega = -\int_M \omega$.

e.g., the area of (S^2, g_{st}) under stereographic projection $\phi_N, (\phi_N^{-1})^*(g_{st}) = \frac{4(dx^2 + dy^2)}{(1+x^2+y^2)^2}$, and the volume form then is $\frac{4dx \wedge dy}{(1+x^2+y^2)^2}$, so $Area(S^2) = 4 \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} \frac{dx \wedge dy}{(1+x^2+y^2)^2} = 4 \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{r dr}{(1+r^2)^2} \right) d\theta = 4\pi$

Stokes' Theorem

Definition 3.11 (Smooth Function). $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ closed, $F : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is called smooth if \exists open set $U \supset X$ and smooth $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ such that $f|_X = F$.

Definition 3.12 (Smooth Manifold with Boundary). M^n is a smooth manifold with boundary if it is Hausdorff with a countable basis and covered by charts $\{(U_\alpha, \phi_\alpha) : \alpha \in A\}$ such that $\phi_\alpha : U_\alpha \rightarrow V_\alpha \subset \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ an open subset is a homeomorphism with $\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1}$ is smooth.

We define $\partial M^n = \{x \in M : \phi_\alpha(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times 0 \text{ for some } \alpha\}$.

Lemma 3.18. ∂M is a smooth $(n-1)$ -manifold with $\partial^2 M = 0$.

Proof. Define smooth charts for ∂M : $(U_\alpha \cap \partial M, pr \circ \phi_\alpha)$ where $pr : \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$.

Verifying $(pr \circ \phi_\alpha) \circ (pr \circ \phi_\beta)^{-1} = pr \circ (\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1})$, which is smooth. \square

e.g. $\mathbb{D}^2 = \{x \mid \|x\| \leq 1\}$ is a smooth manifold with boundary. One chart ($\text{int}(\mathbb{D}^2) = \{x \mid \|x\| < 1\}, \text{id}$). Take $a \in S^{n-1} = \partial\mathbb{D}^n$, $a \neq 0$. So say $a_n \neq 0$.

$F(x) = (x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, 1 - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2)$ defined near 0 is in $\mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. So $\det DF(a) \neq 0$, and so it is a local diffeomorphism at a .

e.g. If $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$ with regular value $b \in \mathbb{R}^1$. Then $\{x \mid f(x) \leq b\}$ is a smooth manifold with boundary $f^{-1}(b)$.

e.g. Take any closed orientable surface $\Sigma_g = \partial H_g$ is the boundary of an orientable compact 3-manifold.

Lemma 3.19. *If M^n is a manifold with boundary and M^n is orientable (i.e. there exist charts (U_α, ϕ_α) covering M^n such that $\det(D(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1})) > 0$ for all α, β), then ∂M^n is orientable.*

Proof. Take $p \in \partial M^n$. $\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (f(x_1, \dots, x_n), h(x_1, \dots, x_n)) \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R}^1$ where $h \geq 0$. $(pr\phi_\alpha)(pr\phi_\beta)^{-1}(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) = f(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, 0)$.

Also, $h(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, 0) = 0$, so $D(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1}) = \begin{bmatrix} Df & * \\ \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i} \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n-1 & \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$. At

the boundary, $h(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, 0) = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i}(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, 0) = 0$ for $i < n$.

Also, $h(x) \geq 0$, and $h(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, 0) = 0$, so $\frac{\partial h}{\partial x_n} \geq 0$. Thus, $D(\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1}) = \begin{bmatrix} Df & * \\ 0 & \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$, which means that their determinant is $\det(Df) \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_n} > 0$, and so $\det(Df) > 0$. \square

Convention: The standard orientation on \mathbb{R}^n , $dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$. Ω open in \mathbb{R}^n has standard orientation $dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$.

The induced orientation of $dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$ in $\mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ on $\mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times 0$ is $(-1)^n dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{n-1}$.

Suppose that M^n is an oriented manifold with ∂M and orientation given by n -form ω . Let η be the $(n-1)$ -form on ∂M corresponding to the induced orientation. Then $\omega = -dh \wedge \eta$ near ∂M . Where $h : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is a smooth function with $h^{-1}(0) = \partial M$.

Lemma 3.20. *If $F : N \rightarrow M$ is an orientation preserving diffeomorphism, then $\int_M d\omega = \int_{\partial M} i^*(\omega)$ iff $\int_N dF^*(\omega) = \int_{\partial N} i^*(f^*\omega)$.*

Theorem 3.21 (Stokes' Theorem). *Let M^n be an oriented n -manifold such that ∂M^n has the induced orientation. Then for any $(n-1)$ -form ω on M with compact support,*

$$\int_M d\omega = \int_{\partial M} i^*(\omega) = \int_{\partial M} \omega|_{\partial M} = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

where $i : \partial M \rightarrow M$ is the inclusion.

Proof. Case 1: $M = \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ with the standard orientation, and $\partial M = \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times 0$ has the induced orientation.

ω is a finite sum of I: $f(x)dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{n-1}$ and II: $f(x)dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \hat{dx}_i \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$.

If ω is type I, the $d\omega = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} dx_n \wedge dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{n-1} = (-1)^{n-1} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$, and $\int_M d\omega = (-1)^{n-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n = (-1)^{n-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1}} \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} dx_n \right) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{n-1}$. f is on compact support, so this gives

$$(-1)^{n-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1}} (-f(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, 0)) dx_1 \dots dx_{n-1} = \int_{\partial M} (-1)^n f(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, 0) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{n-1} = \int_{\partial M} i^*(\omega)$$

If ω is type II, then $\omega|_{\partial M} = 0$, so $\int_{\partial M} i^*(\omega) \equiv 0$. Now $d\omega = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} dx_i \wedge dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n = (-1)^{i-1} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$, so $\int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}} d\omega = (-1)^{i-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1}} \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} dx_i \right) dx_n = 0$.

$\int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n) dx_i = 0$ due to compact support.

Case 2: General. Take orientation preserving charts $\{(U_\alpha, \phi_\alpha) | \alpha \in A\}$ covering M and a partition of unity $\{\lambda_\alpha\}$ associated to $\{U_\alpha\}$

$$\int_M d\omega = \sum_\alpha \int_M d(\lambda_\alpha \omega) = \sum_\alpha \int_{U_\alpha} d(\lambda_\alpha \omega) = \sum_\alpha \int_{u_\alpha \cap \partial M} (\lambda_\alpha \omega) = \sum_\alpha \int_{\partial M} (\lambda_\alpha \omega) = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

□

In particular, if $\partial M = \emptyset$, then $\int_M d\omega = 0$.

e.g. Gauss-Bonnet for \mathbb{H}^2 .

A hyperbolic triangle in $\mathbb{H}^2 = \{z | \Im z \geq 0\}$. We have metric $\frac{dx^2 + dy^2}{y^2}$, and area form is $\frac{dx \wedge dy}{y^2} = d\left(\frac{dx}{y}\right)$. And so we have

Theorem 3.22. $Area(\Omega) = \pi - \theta_1 - \theta_2 - \theta_3$, where Ω is a hyperbolic triangle.

Proof.

$$Area(\Omega) = \int_\Omega \frac{dx \wedge dy}{y^2} = \oint_{\partial\Omega} \frac{dx}{y} = \int_a + \int_b + \int_c$$

And so we have $\int_a \frac{dx}{y} = \int_\alpha^\beta \frac{d(\gamma \cos t + A)}{\gamma \sin t} = - \int_\alpha^\beta dt = \alpha - \beta$, and so the theorem holds. □

e.g. If $\omega = \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i(x) dx_i$ is a closed 1-form in \mathbb{R}^3 .

$d\omega = 0 = \sum_i da_i(x) \wedge dx_i = \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_j} dx_j \wedge dx_i \equiv 0$ iff $\frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_j} = \frac{\partial a_j}{\partial x_i}$ for all i, j .

Fix $o \in \mathbb{R}^3$. If $\alpha : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is a smooth path from o to x , then define $F_\alpha(x) = \int_\alpha \omega$.

Lemma 3.23. $F_\alpha(x) = F_\beta(x)$ if $\beta : ([0, 1], 0, 1) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^3, 0, x)$.

Proof. Let $H(s, t) = (1-t)\alpha(s) + t\beta(s)$ smooth. $H(s, 0) = \alpha(s)$ and $H(s, 1) = \beta(s)$, $H(0, t) = 0$ and $H(1, t) = x$.

By Stokes' Theorem, $\int_{I^2} d(H^*\omega) = \int_{I^2} H^*(d\omega) = 0 = \int_{\partial I^2} H^*\omega = \int_\alpha \omega - \int_\beta \omega$. □

Definition 3.13 (Exact Form). M^n a smooth manifold. An i -form ω is called exact if $\omega = d\eta$ where η is an $(i-1)$ -form.

4 Algebraic Topology

Definition 4.1 (de Rham Cohomology). *The n^{th} de Rham cohomology of M is $H_{dR}^n(M)$ = the quotient of the smooth closed n -forms with the smooth exact n -forms.*

See Topic 1: Chain Complexes, in Homological Algebra notes.

The de Rham Cohomology assigns each smooth M a vector space for each i , $H_{dR}^i(M)$ and assigns each smooth map $F : M \rightarrow N$, a linear transformation $F^* : H_{dR}^i(N) \rightarrow H_{dR}^i(M)$ such that $(\text{id})^* = \text{id}$ and $(F \circ G)^* = G^* \circ F^*$.

Theorem 4.1. *If $F : M \rightarrow N$ is a diffeomorphism, then $F^* : H_{dR}^i(N) \rightarrow H_{dR}^i(M)$ is an isomorphism.*

Easy fact: $H_{dR}^i(M) = 0$ for $i > n$, as there are no forms at all.

Lemma 4.2. *If M^n is connected, then $H_{dR}^0(M) = \mathbb{R}$*

Lemma 4.3 (Poincaré's Lemma). *$H_{dR}^i(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is \mathbb{R} if $i = 0$ and 0 for $i > 0$.*

Proof. We will perform induction on n . $n = 1$ is ok from the above.

If it holds for n , then we let $\pi : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be the canonical projection map.

Then $\pi^* : H_{dR}^i(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow H_{dR}^i(\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R})$ is an isomorphism. \square

There is a linear map, integration, $K : \Omega^i(\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \Omega^{i-1}(\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R})$ such that $\text{id} - (s \circ \pi)^* = dK + Kd$ on $\Omega^i(\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R})$.

If we assume this, and take cohomology classes $[\omega] \in H^i(\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R})$, $d\omega = 0$ and apply it, we get $\omega - (s \circ \pi)^*\omega = dK\omega + Kd\omega = d(K\omega)$, and so $[\omega] = [(s \circ \pi)^*\omega] = (s \circ \pi)^*[\omega]$, done.

Take $\omega \in \Omega^i(\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R})$.

Notation: $J = (i_1, \dots, i_k)$ with $1 \leq j \leq n$, then $dx_J = dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k}$. ω is a finite linear combination of $f(x, t)dx_J$ with $f(x, t) \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R})$ and $f(x, t)dt \wedge dx_J$.

We define $K(f(x, t)dx_J) = 0$ and $K(f(x, t)dt \wedge dx_J) = \left(\int_0^t f(x, s)ds \right) dx_J$, and we can extend K linearly to $\Omega^i(\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R})$.

Remark: If M^n is closed and orientable, then $H_{dR}^n(M^n) \neq 0$.

Theorem 4.4. *If $\pi : M \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M$ is the projection map, then $\pi^* : H_{dR}^i(M) \rightarrow H_{dR}^i(M \times \mathbb{R})$ is an isomorphism.*

Definition 4.2 (Homotopic Maps). *Two smooth maps $F, G : M \rightarrow N$ are homotopic if \exists smooth map $H : M \times I \rightarrow N$ such that $H(x, 0) = F(x)$ and $H(x, 1) = G(x)$.*

Theorem 4.5 (Homotopy Invariance). *If $F, G : M \rightarrow N$ are homotopic, then $F^* = G^* : H_{dR}^*(N) \rightarrow H_{dR}^*(M)$.*

Proof. Let $H : M \times I \rightarrow N$ be a homotopy from F to G , let s_1 and s_2 be the inclusions, $F = H \circ s_1$ and $G = H \circ s_2$, then $F^* = s_1^* \circ H^*$ and $G^* = s_2^* \circ H^*$ but $s_1^* = s_2^* = (\pi^*)^{-1}$, where π is the projection. \square

Theorem 4.6. *M^n any smooth manifold $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ an interval, then the projection $\pi : M \times I \rightarrow M$ induces $\pi^* : H_{dR}^i(M) \rightarrow H_{dR}^i(M \times I)$, an isomorphism.*

Proof. Let $s : M \rightarrow M \times I$, $s(x) = (x, c)$ for $c \in I$ fixed. Then $\pi \circ s = \text{id}$ implies that $s^* \circ \pi^* = \text{id}$, and so π^* is 1-1.

We claim that π^* is onto. There exists $\tilde{K} : \Omega^i(M \times I) \rightarrow \Omega^{i-1}(M \times I)$ integrating along a fiber which is linear such that $\text{id} - (s \circ \pi)^* = d\tilde{K} + \tilde{K}d$ which implies that $(s \circ \pi)^* = \text{id}^*$ in H_{dR}^i .

Poincare's Lemma states that this condition holds for $M = \mathbb{R}^n$.

Let $\{(U_\alpha, \phi_\alpha) : \alpha \in A\}$ smooth charts converging M such that $\phi_\alpha(U_\alpha) = \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $\{\lambda_\alpha : \alpha \in A\}$ partition of unity associated to $\{U_\alpha : \alpha \in A\}$. For each α , we can define $K_\alpha : \Omega^i(U_\alpha \times I) \rightarrow \Omega^{i-1}(U_\alpha \times I)$.

Now, on $\mathbb{R}^n \times I$, we have $\text{id} - (\tilde{\pi} \circ s)^* = dK - Kd$ by Poincare's Lemma and so $(\phi_\alpha \times 1)^* ((\phi_\alpha \times 1)^*)^{-1} - (\phi_\alpha \times 1)^* (\tilde{\pi} \circ s)^* ((\phi_\alpha \times 1)^*)^{-1} = (\phi_\alpha \times 1)^* dK ((\phi_\alpha \times 1)^*)^{-1} + (\phi_\alpha \times 1)^* Kd ((\phi_\alpha \times 1)^*)^{-1}$.

Thus, $\text{id} - (\pi \circ s)^* = dK_\alpha + K_\alpha d$.

For $\omega \in \Omega^i(M \times I)$ define $K(\omega) = \sum_\alpha K_\alpha(\lambda_\alpha \omega)$ Now $dK(\omega) + Kd(\omega) = \sum_\alpha (dK_\alpha + K_\alpha d)(\lambda_\alpha \omega) = \sum_\alpha (\lambda_\alpha \omega - (\pi \circ s)^*(\lambda_\alpha \omega)) = \omega - (\pi \circ s)^* \omega$. \square

Corollary 4.7. *If $f \simeq g : M \rightarrow N$ then $f^* = g^* : H_{dR}^i(N) \rightarrow H_{dR}^i(M)$.*

Definition 4.3 (Homotopic Equivalent). *Two smooth manifolds M, N are smooth homotopic equivalent ($M \simeq N$) if $\exists F : M \rightarrow N, G : N \rightarrow M$ smooth such that $F \circ G \simeq \text{id}_N$ and $G \circ F \simeq \text{id}_M$.*

e.g. $M = \mathbb{R}^n$ and N is a point, then $\mathbb{R}^n \simeq \text{point}$ as $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \{0\}$ by $F(x) = 0$ and $G : \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ by $G(0) = 0$.

Theorem 4.8. *If M, N smooth manifolds and $M \simeq N$, then $H_{dR}^i(M) \simeq H_{dR}^i(N)$.*

Application:

Theorem 4.9 (Brouwer Fixed Point Theorem). *If $f : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ is a smooth map, then $\exists p \in \mathbb{D}^n$ such that $f(p) = p$.*

Proof. If not, then $f(x) \neq x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{D}^n$. Let $g(x)$ be the intersection of the ray from $f(x)$ to x with $\partial \mathbb{D}^n = S^{n-1}$.

Claim: $g(x)$ is smooth in x .

Assuming this, then we look at $i : \partial \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ inclusion $i(x) = x$, then $g \circ i(x) = x$.

$H^{n-1}(\partial \mathbb{D}^n) \xrightarrow{g^*} H_{dR}^{n-1}(\mathbb{D}^n) \xrightarrow{i^*} H^{n-1}(\partial \mathbb{D}^n)$, but the middle term is zero and the composition is the identity, and as $\partial \mathbb{D}^n = S^{n-1}$ is orientable, $H_{dR}^{n-1}(S^{n-1}) \neq 0$, contradiction. \square

Poincare Duality:

Definition 4.4 (Cup Product). *Let M^n be smooth. Then the cup product is a map $H_{dR}^i(M) \times H_{dR}^j(M) \rightarrow H_{dR}^{i+j}(M)$ by $[\omega] \times [\eta] \mapsto [\omega \wedge \eta] = [\omega] \cup [\eta]$.*

It is well defined, and also bilinear.

Furthermore, if $F : M \rightarrow N$ is smooth, then $F^*([\omega] \cup [\eta]) = F^*([\omega]) \cup (F^*([\eta]))$, due to $F^*(\omega \wedge \eta) = F^*(\omega) \wedge F^*(\eta)$ on forms.

Theorem 4.10 (Poincare Duality). *Suppose that M^n is a closed orientable and connected n -manifold (compact and no boundary). Then:*

1. $\dim H_{dR}^i(M) < \infty$
2. The integration $\int H_{dR}^n(M) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : [\omega] \mapsto \int_M \omega$ is an isomorphism
3. The cup product $H_{dR}^i(M) \times H_{dR}^{n-i}(M) \rightarrow H_{dR}^n(M) \simeq \mathbb{R}$ is nondegenerate. In particular, $\dim H_{dR}^i(M) = \dim H_{dR}^{n-1}(M)$.

e.g. define $b_i = \dim H_{dR}^i(M^n)$ and the Euler characteristic of M is $\chi(M) = b_0 - b_1 + b_2 - \dots + (-1)^n b_n$ is a topological invariant.

Consequence: If M^{2n+1} is a closed orientable connected manifold, then $\chi(M^{2n+1}) = 0$.

And now we will lead geometry behind and do more general algebraic topology:

Definition 4.5 (Homotopic). *If $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ are two continuous maps, then they are homotopic if there exists a continuous map $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ such that $H(x, 0) = f(x)$, $H(x, 1) = g(x)$.*

We can define the continuous homotopy equivalences of two topological spaces by $X \simeq Y$ iff $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $g : Y \rightarrow X$ such that $f \circ g \simeq \text{id}_Y$ and $g \circ f \simeq \text{id}_X$.

Classifying Spaces Up to Homotopy Equivalence:

$$S^{n-1} \simeq \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}.$$

Proposition 4.11. $O(n) \simeq GL(n, \mathbb{R})$.

Proof. Let $f(x) = x$ is a map from $O(n) \rightarrow GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ be the inclusion. Let $g : GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow O(n)$ by the Gram-Schmidt Process. Take $A \in GL(n, \mathbb{R})$. Then $A = [v_1, \dots, v_n]$ such that $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

Use Gram-Schmidt to take $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ to $\{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ an orthonormal basis and then set $A \mapsto B = [w_1, \dots, w_n] \in O(n)$.

So $g(A)$ is smooth in A .

$$g \circ f = \text{id}_{O(n)}.$$

Now we must show that $f \circ g(A) = B$ is homotopic to $\text{id}_{GL(n, \mathbb{R})}$. We define $H(A, t) = (1-t)A + tB$. This is smooth such that $H(A, 0) = A$ and $H(A, 1) = B$. Claim $\det(H(A, t)) \neq 0$.

Gram-Schmidt says that $u_i = \sum_{j \leq i} a_{ij} v_j$, and so $a_{11} = 1$, so $w_i = \sum_{j=1}^i b_{ij} v_j$ where $b_{ii} > 0$. So $H(x, t) = [w_1(t), \dots, w_n(t)]$ where $w_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^i b_{ij}(t) v_j$,

$b_{ii}(t) = (1-t) + tb_{ii} > 0$, and so $w_i(t) = (1-t)v_i + tw_i$, giving us $(1-t)v_i + t \sum_{j=1}^i b_{ij}v_j$.

And so $\det H(x, t) > 0$. \square

Fundamental Group:

Let X, Y be topological spaces. $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a map, we will always assume that maps are continuous.

A path in X is $a : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ such that $a(0) = p, a(1) = q$.

$a : ([0, 1], 0, 1) \rightarrow (X, p, q)$.

Definition 4.6 (Path Homotopic). *Two paths $a, b : ([0, 1], 0, 1) \rightarrow (X, p, q)$ are path homotopic, $a \simeq_p b$ if \exists a cont map $H : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ such that $H(s, 0) = a(s), H(s, 1) = b(s), H(0, t) = p$ and $H(1, t) = q$.*

$[a]$ is the path homotopy class of a .

Lemma 4.12. \simeq_p is an equivalence relation.

Lemma 4.13 (Gluing Lemma). *If a topological space $X = A \cup B$ where A, B are closed and $f : A \rightarrow Z, g : B \rightarrow Z$ are two continuous maps such that $f|_{A \cap B} = g|_{A \cap B}$, then $h(x) = f(x)$ on A and $g(x)$ on B is continuous from X to Z .*

Proof. h is well defined. Take any closed set $c \subseteq Z$. Then $h^{-1}(c) = f^{-1}(c) \cup g^{-1}(c)$ which are each closed in A . \square

Definition 4.7 (Loops). *If $p = q$, then $a : ([0, 1], 0, 1) \rightarrow (X, p)$ is a loop based at p . $[a]$ is the homotopy class of a loop.*

Definition 4.8 (Composition of Paths). *Suppose $a : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ and $b : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ such that $a(1) = b(0)$. Then $a * b : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ is the path $(a * b)(t) = \begin{cases} a(2s) & 0 \leq s \leq 1/2 \\ b(2s - 1) & 1/2 \leq s \leq 1 \end{cases}$*

By the Gluing Lemma, $a * b$ is continuous.

Lemma 4.14. *If $a \simeq_p a', b \simeq_p b'$ and $a(1) = b(0)$, then $a * b \simeq_p a' * b'$.*

Corollary 4.15. $[a] * [b] = [a * b]$ where $a(1) = b(0)$ is a well defined operation.

Theorem 4.16. *The operation $*$ on the set of path homotopy classes of loops based at p satisfies:*

1. *Associative:* $[a] * ([b] * [c]) = ([a] * [b]) * [c]$
2. *Identity:* $e = [p], p : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ constant. Then $[a] * e = [a] = e * [a]$.
3. *Inverse:* Define $a^{-1} : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ by $a^{-1}(s) = a(1 - s)$. Then $[a] * [a^{-1}] = [a^{-1}] * [a] = e$.

That is, these classes form a group.

Before we prove this, we will need a lemma:

Lemma 4.17. *If $a : I \rightarrow X$ and $\phi : I \rightarrow I$, $\phi(0) = 0, \phi(1) = 1$, then $a \simeq_p a \circ \phi$. Thus, if $a \simeq_p b$, then $a \circ \phi \simeq_p b \circ \phi$.*

Proof. $H(s, t) = a(ts + (1 - t)\phi(s))$ clearly continuous. $H(s, 0) = a(\phi(s))$, $H(s, 1) = a(s)$, $H(0, t) = a(0)$ and $H(1, t) = a(1)$. \square

We can now prove the theorem:

Proof. The proof goes easily, and includes messy formulas. Thus, it is left to the reader. \square

Definition 4.9 (Fundamental Group). *X is a topological space, $p \in X$. The fundamental group of X at p is denoted by $\pi_1(X, p) = \{[a] : a : ([0, 1], 0, 1) \rightarrow (X, p)\}$ with multiplication given by $*$.*

e.g. X is convex in \mathbb{R}^n then $\pi_1(X, p) = 1$.

Lemma 4.18. *If p, q are in the same path component of X , then there is an isomorphism $\phi : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, q)$.*

Functorial Property:

Suppose that $f : (X, p) \rightarrow (Y, q)$ is continuous. Then f induces a group homomorphism $f_* : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, q)$ where $f_*([a]) = [f \circ a]$.

Lemma 4.19. 1. *If $a \simeq_p b$, then $f \circ a \simeq_p f \circ b$.*

2. *$f(a * b) = f(a) * f(b)$.*

Definition 4.10 (Covering Space). *A covering space map $p : X \rightarrow Y$ satisfies the following conditions:*

1. $p(X) = Y$.

2. *For any $y \in Y$, there exists open set U containing y (small) such that $p^{-1}(U) = \coprod_{\alpha \in A} V_\alpha$ is a disjoint union of open sets V_α such that $p|_{V_\alpha}(U)$ is a homeomorphism.*

Definition 4.11 (Elementary Neighborhood). *The U 's defined above are the elementary neighborhoods for $p : X \rightarrow Y$.*

Lemma 4.20. 1. *If $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a covering map and $Y \subset B$, then $p| : p^{-1}(Y) \rightarrow Y$ is a covering map.*

2. *If $p_i : E_i \rightarrow B_i$, $i = 1, 2$ are covering maps, then $p_1 \times p_2 : E_1 \times E_2 \rightarrow B_1 \times B_2$ is a covering map.*

Proof. 1. Clearly, $p|$ is onto. The elementary neighborhoods for $p| : p^{-1}(Y) \rightarrow Y$ are $U \cap Y$, where U is elementary for p .

2. Definition! Elementary neighborhoods are products of elementary neighborhoods.

□

Proposition 4.21. *If $p(x) : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a nonconstant polynomial and $B = \{z : p'(z) = 0\}$, the set of branch points, then $p : \mathbb{C} \setminus p^{-1}(A) \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \setminus A$ where $A = p(B)$ is a covering map.*

Proof. Take $w \in \mathbb{C} \setminus A$, let $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $p(x_i) = w$, $\deg p = n$. Since $w \notin A$, we have $x_i \notin B$, so $p'(x_i) \neq 0$ for all i .

By inverse function theorem, there exist small neighborhood W of w and U_i of x_i such that $p| : U_i \rightarrow W$ is a diffeomorphism for all i .

Claim: W is an elementary neighborhood for p . $p^{-1}(W)$ contains the V_i by definition.

Let $z \in p^{-1}(W)$ iff $p(z) = \alpha \in W$. $p^{-1}(\alpha) \cap V_i \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow p^{-1}(\alpha)$ contains at least n elements, but $\deg(p) = n$, so $p^{-1}(\alpha) \subseteq \coprod V_i$, so we are done. □

Definition 4.12. *Suppose Γ is a countable group acting on a topological space X is called properly discontinuous if Γ acts properly discontinuously, that is, $\forall x \in X \exists \text{nbhd } U \text{ of } x \text{ such that } \gamma(U) \cap U = \emptyset \text{ for all } \gamma \in \Gamma \setminus \{\text{id}\}$.*

Proposition 4.22. *If Γ acts properly discontinuously on X , then the quotient map, $p : X \rightarrow X/\Gamma$ is a covering map.*

Proof. p is cont by deinition, and onto.

The elementary neighborhood of a point $[x]$ in X/Γ is $p(U)$ where U satisfies $p^{-1}(p(U)) = \coprod_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \gamma U$. □

Proposition 4.23. *Suppose G is a topological group and $\Gamma < G$ a discrete subgroup. Then Γ acts on G by left multiplication properly discontinuously.*

Proof. Γ discrete \iff there exists a nbhd W of id in G such that $\Gamma \cap W = \{\text{id}\}$.

The map $F : G \times G \rightarrow G : (x, y) \mapsto xy^{-1}$ is continuous, so $F^{-1}(W)$ is a neighborhood of (id, id) in G .

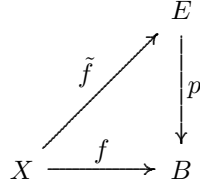
Then there is another nbhd U of id such that $U \times U \subset F^{-1}(W)$.

This is true iff $\forall u_1, u_2 \in U, u_1 u_2^{-1} \in W$.

Claim: if $\gamma(U) \cap U \neq \emptyset$, then $\gamma = \text{id}$.

Indeed, $\gamma(u_1) = u_2$, then $\gamma u_1 = u_2$ iff $\gamma = u_2 u_1^{-1} \in W$, but $W \cap \Gamma = \{\text{id}\}$, so $\gamma = \text{id}$. □

Definition 4.13. *If $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a covering map and $f : X \rightarrow B$ continuous then a lifting of f is a continuous map $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow E$ such that $p \circ \tilde{f} = f$.*



Theorem 4.24. *If X is connected and $\tilde{f}_1, \tilde{f}_2 : X \rightarrow E$ are two liftings of $f : X \rightarrow B$ wrt a cover $p : E \rightarrow B$ such that $\tilde{f}_1(x_0) = \tilde{f}_2(x_0)$*

Proof. Let $W = \{x \in X : \tilde{f}_1(x) = \tilde{f}_2(x)\} \neq \emptyset$.

Claim: W is open and closed (so $W = X$, since X is connected).

W open, take $x \in W$, we will find an open nbhd V of $x \in X$ such that $V \subset W$. Consider $p(\tilde{f}_1(x)) = p(\tilde{f}_2(x)) = y$ in B . let U be an elementary neighborhood of y such that $p^{-1}(U) = \coprod_{\alpha} V_{\alpha}$, $p|_{V_{\alpha}} : V_{\alpha} \rightarrow U$ homeo.

Say $\tilde{f}_1(x) = \tilde{f}_2(x) \in V_{\alpha_0}$. $V = \tilde{f}_1^{-1}(V_{\alpha_0}) \cap \tilde{f}_2^{-1}(V_{\alpha_0})$ is open and contains x . $V \subset W$. $z \in V \Rightarrow \tilde{f}_1(z), \tilde{f}_2(z) \in V_{\alpha_0}$.

$p(\tilde{f}_1(z)) = p(\tilde{f}_2(z)) \Rightarrow \tilde{f}_1(z) = \tilde{f}_2(z)$, $z \in W$.

Proof that W is closed is homework. □

Theorem 4.25 (Path-Lifting). *Suppose $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a covering map $p(e_0) = b_0$ and $a : ([0, 1], 0) \rightarrow (B, b_0)$ is a path in B . Then there exists a unique lifting $\tilde{a} : ([0, 1], 0) \rightarrow (E, e_0)$ such that $p \circ \tilde{a} = a$.*

Proof. Uniqueness is clear by the previous theorem.

NEXT TIME □

Uniqueness of Lifting

Suppose $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a covering map, X is connected and $\tilde{f}_1, \tilde{f}_2 : X \rightarrow E$ so that $p \circ \tilde{f}_1 = p \circ \tilde{f}_2$ and $\tilde{f}_1(x_0) = \tilde{f}_2(x_0)$ for one $x_0 \in X$, then $\tilde{f}_1 = \tilde{f}_2$.

Theorem 4.26 (Path-Lifting Theorem). *Suppose $p : (E, e) \rightarrow (B, b)$ is a covering map $p(e) = b$ and $a : ([0, 1], 0) \rightarrow (B, b)$ is a path in B . Then $\exists!$ lifting $\tilde{a} : ([0, 1], 0) \rightarrow (E, e)$ such that $p \circ \tilde{a} = a$.*

Proof. Let $\mathcal{U} = \{\text{all elementary neighborhoods in } B\}$. This is an open cover of B .

Thus, $\mathcal{V} = \{a^{-1}(u) : u \in \mathcal{U}\}$ forms an open cover of I .

By Lebesgue lemma, there exists a partition $0 = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = 1$ such that $a([t_i, t_{i+1}]) \subset U_i$ for $U_i \in \mathcal{U}$ for all i .

Construct \tilde{a} inductively on $[t_0, t_n]$.

Step 1: $\tilde{a}|_{[t_0, t_1]}$. $a([t_0, t_1]) \subset U_1$, $p^{-1}(U_1) = \coprod_{\alpha} V_{1\alpha}$, the disjoint union of $V_{1\alpha}$, $p|_{V_{1\alpha}} : V_{1\alpha} \rightarrow U_1$ homeo.

Say $e \in V_{1\beta} \Rightarrow \tilde{a}|_{[t_0, t_1]} = (p|_{V_{1\beta}})^{-1} a|_{[t_0, t_1]}$.

Clearly, $\tilde{a}|_{[t_0, t_1]}$ is continuous, $p \circ \tilde{a} = a$ on $[t_0, t_1]$, $\tilde{a}(0) = e$.

Step 2: Suppose \tilde{a} has been defined on $[t_0, t_{i-1}]$. Now $a([t_{i-1}, t_i]) \subset U_i$ - elementary neighborhood.

Let $p^{-1}(U_i) = \coprod_{\alpha} V_{i\alpha}$. $a(t_{i-1}) \in U_i$ and $p(\tilde{a}(t_{i-1})) = a(t_{i-1})$ by induction, and so we have $\tilde{a}(t_{i-1}) \in V_{i\beta}$ for some β . Define $\tilde{a}|_{[t_{i-1}, t_i]} = (p|_{V_{i\beta}})^{-1} \circ a|_{[t_{i-1}, t_i]}$.

By the gluing lemma, \tilde{a} on $[t_0, t_i]$ is continuous and $p \circ \tilde{a} = a$. □

Theorem 4.27 (Homotopy Lifting). *Suppose $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a covering map, $p(e) = b$ and $H : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow B$ is continuous so that $H(0, 0) = b$, then $\exists!$ lifting $\tilde{H} : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow E$ such that $p \circ \tilde{H} = H$, $\tilde{H}(0, 0) = e$*

Proof. \mathcal{U} is the set of all elementary neighborhoods in B , and it is an open cover of B . Thus, $V = \{H^{-1}(U) : U \in \mathcal{U}\}$ forms an open cover $I \times I$. Lebesgue's Lemma gives a partition of I such that $H([t_{i-1}, t_i] \times [t_{j-1}, t_j]) \subset U_{ij}$ where $U_{ij} \in \mathcal{U}$.

Let order those small sequences as Q_k where $k \in [n^2]$ such that $Q_1 = [0, t_1] \times [0, t_1]$ and $Q_i \cap (Q_1 \cup \dots \cup Q_{i-1})$ is connected. Say $H(Q_k) \subset U_k$.

Define \tilde{H} on $Q_1 \cup \dots \cup Q_k$ inductively as follows:

Step 1: $\tilde{H}|_{Q_1}$. $H(Q_1) \subset U_1$, so $p^{-1}(U_1) = \coprod_{\alpha} V_{1\alpha}$. $e \in V_{1\beta}$ for some β , since $b \in U$ is $H(0, 0)$.

Define $\tilde{H}|_{Q_1} = (p|_{V_{1\beta}})^{-1} \circ H|_{Q_1}$.

Step 2: Suppose \tilde{H} has been defined on $Q_1 \cup \dots \cup Q_{i-1}$. Take $v_i \in Q_i \cap (Q_1 \cup \dots \cup Q_{i-1})$. Then, as $H(Q_i) \subset U_i$ and $p^{-1}(U_i) = \coprod_{\alpha} V_{i\alpha}$, $p(\tilde{H}(v_i)) = H(v_i) \in U_i$, and so, $\tilde{H}(v_i) \in V_{i\beta}$ for some β .

Now we define $g|_{Q_i} = (p|_{V_{i\beta}})^{-1} \circ H|_{Q_i}$.

$g|_{Q_i}$ cont, $p \circ g = H|_{Q_i}$.

Claim: $g|_{Q_i \cap (Q_1 \cup \dots \cup Q_{i-1})} = \tilde{H}|_{Q_i \cap (Q_1 \cup \dots \cup Q_{i-1})}$. indeed, both are liftings of $H|_{Q_i \cap (Q_1 \cup \dots \cup Q_{i-1})}$ by definition, and they take the same value at v_i . Furthermore, $Q_i \cap (Q_1 \cup \dots \cup Q_{i-1})$ is connected, and so by the uniqueness of lifting, we are done proving the claim.

Now define \tilde{H} on $Q_1 \cup \dots \cup Q_i$ by gluing, and so done. \square

Corollary 4.28. *If $H : I \times I \rightarrow B$ is a path homotopy, $H(0, t) = b_0$, $H(1, t) = b$ for all t , and $\tilde{H} : I \times I \rightarrow E$ is a lifting of H with respect to a covering map $p : E \rightarrow B$, then $\tilde{H}(0, t) = y_0$ and $\tilde{H}(1, t) = y_1$ for all t .*

Proof. $p \circ \tilde{H}(0, t) = b_0$, $p \circ y_0 = b_0$, so $\tilde{H}(0, t) = y_0$ by uniqueness of lifting. \square

Theorem 4.29. $\pi_1(S^1, b) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. Calculate $b = 1$. Let $p(x) = e^{2\pi ix} : \mathbb{R}^1 \rightarrow S^1$ be the covering, $p(0) = 1$. For any loop $a : [0, 1] \rightarrow S^1$, $a(0) = a(1) = 1$. Let $\tilde{a} : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$ be the lifting of a with $\tilde{a}(0) = 0$. By the corollary, if $a \simeq_p b$, then $\tilde{a} \simeq_p \tilde{b}$. In particular, $\tilde{a}(1) = \tilde{b}(1) \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Define $\Phi : \pi_1(S^1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. $\Phi([a]) = \tilde{a}(1)$.

Claim: Φ is a 1-1, onto, group homomorphism.

Φ is 1-1: Suppose $\Phi([a]) = \Phi([b])$. Then $\tilde{a}(1) = \tilde{b}(1)$. $\tilde{a}, \tilde{b} : ([0, 1], 0, 1) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, 0, \tilde{a}(1))$, which implies that $\tilde{a} \simeq_p \tilde{b}$, and so $p \circ \tilde{a} \simeq_p p \circ \tilde{b}$ and thus, $a \simeq_p b$.

Φ is onto: suppose that $\tilde{a}(1) = n, \tilde{b}(1) = m$. $\Phi([a][b]) = \Phi([ab])$. Then $\tilde{a}\tilde{b}(1) = \tilde{a}(1) + \tilde{b}(1) = n + m$. \square

Theorem 4.30. *Suppose Γ is a countable group active properly discontinuously on a simply connected manifold Ω . Then $\pi_1(\Omega/\Gamma) \simeq \Gamma$.*

Proof. $p : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega/\Gamma$, the quotient map is taken to be the covering map. The rest is homework. \square

Corollary 4.31. *If E is path connected and $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a covering map, then the cardinality of $p^{-1}(b_1), p^{-1}(b_2)$ are the same.*

If the cardinality is finite, we say that p is an n -fold covering.

Proof. E path connected and p onto implies that B is path connected.

In particular, \exists a path a in B from b_1 to b_2 .

If $x \in p^{-1}(b_1)$, let \tilde{a}_x be the lifting of a with $\tilde{a}_x(0) = x$. (path lifting) Since $a(1) = b_2 \Rightarrow p(\tilde{a}_x(1)) = b_2 \Rightarrow \tilde{a}_x(1) \in p^{-1}(b_2)$.

Let $\Phi : p^{-1}(b_1) \rightarrow p^{-1}(b_2) : x \mapsto \tilde{a}_x(1)$.

Claim: Φ is 1-1, onto.

Φ is one to one: we take $\phi(x_1) = \phi(x_2)$. Take \tilde{a}_{x_1} and \tilde{a}_{x_2} are the two liftings of a such that $\tilde{a}_{x_1}(1) = \tilde{a}_{x_2}(1)$. By the uniqueness of lifting, $\tilde{a}_{x_1} = \tilde{a}_{x_2}$, so $x_1 = x_2$.

Φ is onto: $\forall y \in p^{-1}(b_2)$, let \tilde{b} be the lifting of a^{-1} with initial point $\tilde{b}(0) = y$. Then $\tilde{b}(1) = x \in p^{-1}(b_1)$, then $\tilde{a}_x = \tilde{b}^{-1}$ satisfies $\phi(x) = y$. \square

Definition 4.14 (Locally Path Connected). *X is locally path connected if $\forall x \in X$ and any nbhd U of x , \exists a path connected nbhd V of x such that $x \in V \subset U \subseteq X$.*

Theorem 4.32 (General Lifting). *Suppose $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a covering map, $p(e_0) = b_0$ and $f : X \rightarrow B$ continuous with $f(x_0) = b_0$ and X is path connected and locally path connected. Then f has a lifting $\tilde{f} : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (E, e_0)$ iff $f_*(\pi_1(X, x_0)) \subset p_*(\pi_1(E, e_0))$.*

Proof. If \tilde{f} exists, then $p \circ \tilde{f} = f$, so $p_*(\tilde{f}(\pi_1(X, x_0))) = f_*(\pi_1(X, x_0))$, which must be contained in $p_*(\pi_1(E, e_0))$.

That the condition is sufficient: take $x \in X$, let a be a path in X from x_0 to x . Then the path $f \circ a$ in B has a lifting $\tilde{f} \circ a$ starting at e_0 . Define $\tilde{f}(x) = \tilde{f} \circ a(1)$. Clearly $p \circ \tilde{f} = f$. $\tilde{f}(x_0) = b_0$.

Claim 1: \tilde{f} is well defined.

Proof of Claim 1: Suppose a, b are paths from x_0 to x so that $\tilde{f} \circ a(1) \neq \tilde{f} \circ b(1)$. Then, $(\tilde{f} \circ ba^{-1})$ lifts to a path with distinct endpoints.

But $[f \circ (ab^{-1})] \in p_*(\pi_1(E, e_0))$ says that the lifting of $f \circ (ab^{-1})$ is a loop at e_0 . Contradiction.

Claim 2: \tilde{f} is continuous.

Take open $W \subset E$. Say $\tilde{f}(x) \in W$. There exists a nbhd W' of x in X such that $\tilde{f}(W') \subset W$.

p is a local homeomorphism as it is a covering map, and so $p(W')$ is an open set containing $f(x)$. Now f is continuous implies that $f^{-2}(p(W'))$ is an open set containing x .

X is locally path connected, and so \exists path connected nbhd W' of x such that $x \in W' \subset f^{-1}(p(W'))$.

Claim: $\tilde{f}(W') \subset W$.

p is a covering map, and so \exists an elementary neighborhood U of $f(x)$ such that $p^{-1}(U) = \coprod_{\alpha} V_{\alpha}$ and one $V_{\beta} \subset W$.

Now, $z \in W'$. Let b be a path in W' from x to z , and let a be a path from x_0 to x .

$c = ab$ is a path from x_0 to z .

$b \subset W' \Rightarrow f \circ b \subset U$, so there is a lifting \tilde{g} of $f \circ b$ starting at $\tilde{f}(x)$ lying in V_β . $\tilde{g} = (p|_{V_\beta})^{-1}(f \circ b)$.

Then $f \circ (ab) = (f \circ a) \circ \tilde{g}$ by the gluing lemma. And so $\tilde{f}(z) = f \circ (ab)(1) = \tilde{g}(1) \in V_\beta \subset W$. \square

Applications: Assume all spaces are path connected and locally path connected:

Definition 4.15 (Equivalent Covering Maps). *Two covering maps $p_1 : E_1 \rightarrow B$ and $p_2 : E_2 \rightarrow B$ are equivalent iff there \exists homeomorphism $h : E_1 \rightarrow E_2$ such that $p_1 \circ h = p_2$.*

Corollary 4.33. *$p_1 : (E_1, e_1) \rightarrow (B, b_0)$ and $p_2 : (E_2, e_2) \rightarrow (B, b_0)$ are equivalent iff $(p_1)_* \pi_1(E_1, e_1) = (p_2)_* \pi_1(E_2, e_2)$*

Proof. By the general lifting theorem, $\exists h : (E_2, e_2) \rightarrow (E_1, e_1)$ with $p_1 \circ h = p_2$ and $\exists g : (E_1, e_1) \rightarrow (E_2, e_2)$ such that $p_2 \circ g = p_1$.

Claim: $h \circ g = \text{id}$, $g \circ h = \text{id}$. That is, h is a homeomorphism.

$h \circ g(e_1) = h(e_2) = e_1$. $p_1(h \circ g) = p_1 \circ h \circ g = p_2 \circ g = p_1 = p_1 \circ \text{id}$.

So both $h \circ g$ and id are liftings of p_1 and $h \circ g(e_1) = \text{id}(e_1)$. Uniqueness implies that $h \circ g = \text{id}$. \square

Classification of Covering Spaces:

All spaces are path connected and locally path connected.

Theorem 4.34. *Suppose M is a connected manifold with $\Gamma = \pi_1(\tilde{M}, x_0)$. Then M has a universal cover \tilde{M} which is simply connected and $p : \tilde{M} \rightarrow M$ such that Γ acts properly discontinuously on \tilde{M} with $p(x_1) = p(x_2)$ iff $x_1 = \gamma x_2$ for $\gamma \in \Gamma$.*

This theorem actually holds for any space that is path-connected, locally path-connected and semi-locally simply connected. This last condition is that $\forall x \in M$, \exists a path connected neighborhood U of x such that $i_* : \pi_1(U, x) \rightarrow \pi_1(M, x)$ is trivial where $i : U \rightarrow M$ is the inclusion.

Proof. $\tilde{M} = \{[a] : a \text{ is a path in } M \text{ with } a(0) = x_0\}$.

$p : \tilde{M} \rightarrow M$ by $p([a]) = a(1)$.

$\Gamma = \{[\rho] : \rho \text{ a loop in } M \text{ } \rho(0) = x_0\}$.

Let Γ act on \tilde{M} by $[\rho][a] = [\rho * a]$. By definition of multiplication of paths, this is a group actions.

Claim: $p([a_1]) = p([a_2]) \iff [a_1] = [\rho][a_2]$ for $[\rho] \in \pi_1(M, x_0)$.

\Leftarrow is clear, and so we will focus on \Rightarrow . $a_1(1) = a_2(1) \Rightarrow a_1 = (a_1 * a_2)^{-1} * a_2 = p * a_2$.

We must now define the topology. $[a] \in \tilde{M}$ and a simply connected open set U containing $a(1)$. $[a] \in U_{[a]} = \{[ab] : b \text{ a path in } U \text{ with } b(1) = a(1)\}$.

Claim: $\{U_{[a]}\}$ form a basis.

$\tilde{M} = \cup U_{[a]}$. If $[c] \in U_{[a]} \cap V_{[b]}$ we want an open simply connected W containing $c(1)$ and $W_{[c]} \subset U_{[a]} \cap V_{[b]}$.

$[c] \in U_{[a]}$ implies that $c \simeq_p aa' \simeq bb'$ and $c(1) \in U \cap V$. W open coordinate chart with $c(1) \in W$. $\pi_1(W) = 1$ such that $W \subseteq U \cap V$.

Then $\forall [f] \in W_{[f]}$ we have $f = cc' \simeq aa'c' \simeq a(a'c')$, and so $[f] \in U_{[a]}$. Similarly, $[f] \in V_{[b]}$.

Claim: $p : \tilde{M} \rightarrow M$ is continuous and $p|_{U_{[a]}} : U_{[a]} \rightarrow U$ is a homeomorphism.

$p| : U_{[a]} \rightarrow U$ is 1-1, $p([aa']) = a'(1)$. $p([aa']) = p([ab'])$ so $a'(1) = b'(1)$. U simply connected implies that $a' \simeq_p b'$, and so $aa' \simeq ab'$.

It is onto as U is path connected.

p continuous because we can take an open simply connected set U , and then $p^{-1}(U) = \cup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} U_{\gamma[a]}$.

\supseteq is clear as $[b] \in U_{\gamma[a]}$ implies that $b(1) \in U$ and so $p([b]) = b(1) \in U$. \subseteq is because we take $[b] \in p^{-1}(U)$ and so $p([b]) \in U$. Thus, $b(1) \in U$. Since U is path connected, let c be a path in U from $a(1)$ to $b(1)$. $(a * c)(1) = b(1)$ and so $[b] = \gamma[ac]$, $\gamma \in \pi_1(M, x_0)$. Thus $[b] \in U_{\gamma[a]}$. Thus, p is continuous.

Since $p(U_{[a]}) = U$, p sends open sets to open sets, thus, $(p|_{U_{[a]}})^{-1}$ is continuous.

Claim: $p^{-1}(U) = \coprod_{\gamma \in \Gamma} U_{\gamma[a]}$ for open simply connected sets $U \subset M$.

Indeed, $U_{\gamma[a]} \cap U_{\gamma'[a]} \neq \emptyset$ implies $[b] \in U_{\gamma[a]} \cap U_{\gamma'[a]}$. $b \simeq \rho ac$ where $\rho \in \gamma$ and c is a path in U , and also $\simeq_p \rho' ac'$ where $c(1) = c'(1)$. U is simply-connected, and so $c \simeq_p c'$. $\rho ac \simeq \rho ac'$ and so $\rho acc^{-1} \simeq \rho' ac' c^{-1}$, thus, $\rho a \simeq \rho' a$ and so $\rho \simeq \rho'$, thus, $\gamma = \gamma'$. And so $p : \tilde{M} \rightarrow M$ is a covering map with elementary open sets U are open and simply connected.

Claim: \tilde{M} path connected.

Take $[a] \in \tilde{M}$. The base point $y_0 = [x_0]$ a constant path. Define $b_t(s) = a(ts)$ for $t, s \in [0, 1]$.

$p([b_t]) = a(t \cdot 1) = a(t)$, and so $t \mapsto [b_t]$ is the required path in \tilde{M} .

$[b_1] = [a]$ and $[b_0] = [x_0]$. So $p(\alpha(t)) = a(t)$, and p a local homeomorphism implies that $\alpha(t)$ is continuous.

Claim: \tilde{M} is simply connected.

We will show any $[a] \in \pi_1(M, x_0) \setminus \{\text{id}\}$ is lifted to a path, not a loop.

By the previous claim, the lifting of a is $\alpha(t) = [a(ts)]_{s \in [0, 1]}$. Then $\alpha(1) = [a] \neq [x_0]$ as $[a] \neq [\text{id}]$. So $p_* : \pi_1(\tilde{M}, [x_0]) \rightarrow \pi_1(M, x_0)$ is 1-1. The above implies that $p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{M}, [x_0])) \simeq \{\text{id}\}$, and so $\pi_1(\tilde{M}) = 1$.

Claim: \tilde{M} is Hausdorff.

Follows from lemma which follows.

We also note that there is a countable basis, as Γ is countable, but will not prove it. \square

Lemma 4.35. $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a covering map and B is Hausdorff. Then E is Hausdorff.

Proof. Take $x_1 \neq x_2$ in E . If $p(x_1) \neq p(x_2)$ then we are done.

If $p(x_1) = p(x_2)$, then we let U be an elementary neighborhood of $p(x_j)$ with respect to p . Then $p^{-1}(U) = \coprod_{\alpha} V_{\alpha} \Rightarrow x_1 \in B_{\beta_1}, x_2 \in V_{\beta_2}$. \square

Definition 4.16 (Galois Covering). *A covering map $p : E \rightarrow B$ is called Galois (regular) if \exists a group Γ acting properly discontinuously on E such that $p(x_1) = p(x_2)$ iff $x_1 = \gamma x_2$ for some $\gamma \in \Gamma$. (Γ is the deck-transformation of p)*

Theorem 4.36. *Let B be a path connected manifold, and $\Gamma = \pi_1(B, x_0)$. Then*

1. *{ All connected covering spaces E of B , $p : (E, y_0) \rightarrow (B, x_0)$ up to equivalence } is bijective to { all subgroups of Γ }.*
2. *Under the correspondence, Galois covering maps correspond to normal subgroups of $\pi_1(B, x_0)$.*

Proof. Define the map Φ sending $p : E \rightarrow B$ with $p(y_0) = x_0$ $\Phi(p) = p_*(\pi_1(E, y_0)) \leq \pi_1(B, x_0)$. The General Lifting Theorem implies that Φ is 1-1.

Φ is onto, because if we take a subgroup G of $\pi_1(B, x_0)$ then we let \tilde{B} be the universal cover of B with deck transformation $\Gamma = \pi_1(\tilde{B}, x_0)$.

$G < \Gamma$ implies that G act properly discontinuously on \tilde{B} .

Let $p : E = \tilde{B}/G \rightarrow \tilde{B}/\Gamma : [x] = G \cdot x \mapsto \Gamma \cdot x$. Let $\tilde{p} : \tilde{B} \rightarrow \tilde{B}/\Gamma$ be the universal cover.

p is a covering map is clear using \tilde{p} . $p_* : \pi_1(\tilde{B}/G) \rightarrow \pi_1(\tilde{B}/\Gamma)$.

By definition the only elements in $\pi_1(\tilde{B}/\Gamma) \simeq \Gamma$ which lifted to loops in \tilde{B}/G are elements of G . Thus, $p_*(\pi_1) = G$. \square

Theorem 4.37. *B is a connected manifold and $G = \pi_1(B, x_0)$.*

There exists a bijection Φ from the set of all connected covering spaces $p : E \rightarrow B$ up to equivalence to the subgroups of G , by $\Phi(p) = p_(\pi_1(E, y_0))$, $p(y_0) = x_0$.*

Furthermore, $|p^{-1}(x)| = [G : \Gamma]$ and $p : E \rightarrow B$ regular iff Γ a normal subgroup of G .

Proof. We proved 1-1 and onto before. To see that $|p^{-1}(x)| = [G : \Gamma]$, Recall $\Gamma \leq G$. The associated covering space $p : E \rightarrow B$ is $E = \tilde{B}/\Gamma$, $B = \tilde{B}/G$ where \tilde{B} is the universal cover of B .

$p(\Gamma x) = Gx$, $p^{-1}(Gx) = \coprod_{g \in G/\Gamma} \{\Gamma(gx)\}$ $Gx = \coprod_{g \in G/\Gamma} \Gamma(gx)$. And so, the result follows.

To see that $p : E \rightarrow B$ is regular iff $\Gamma \trianglelefteq G$.

\Rightarrow : $p : (E, y_0) \rightarrow (B, x_0)$ is regular, then there is a group H acting properly discontinuously on E such that $p(x_1) = p(x_2)$ iff $x_1 = hx_2$ for $h \in H$. Take $[a] \in \pi_1(B, x_0)$, $[b] \in \pi_1(E, y_0)$. $[a]^{-1}p_*([b])[a] \in p_*\pi_1(E, y_0)$. Let \tilde{a} be a lifting of a with $\tilde{a}(0) = t_0$. $\tilde{a}^{-1} * b * \tilde{a}$ is a loop based at $\tilde{a}(1)$, so $p(\tilde{a}^{-1} * b * \tilde{a}) = a^{-1}p \circ ba \in [a]^{-1}p_*[b][a]$. $p : E \rightarrow B$ regular implies that there is $h \in H$ such that $h\tilde{a}(1) = \tilde{a}(0) = y_0$, and so $p \circ (h \cdot (\tilde{a}^{-1} * b * \tilde{a})) = p(\tilde{a}^{-1} * b * \tilde{a}) \in [a]^{-1}p_*[b][a]$, and os $[a]^{-1}p_*([b])[a] = p_*([c]) \in p_*(\pi_1(E, y_0))$, where $c = p \circ (h \cdot (\tilde{a}^{-1} * b * \tilde{a}))$ is a loop based at y_0 .

\Leftarrow : If $\Gamma \leq G$ normal with quotient group $H = G/\Gamma$, then construct the action of $H = \{\Gamma g : g \in G\} = \{[g] : g \in G\}$ on $E = \tilde{B}/\Gamma$ by $[g](\Gamma x) = \Gamma(gx)$, $p([g](\Gamma x)) = p(\Gamma x)$. Also $p(\Gamma x_1) = p(\Gamma x_2)$ so $Gx_1 = Gx_2$. That is, $x_2 = gx_1$ for some $g \in G$. H acts properly discontinuously on \tilde{B}/Γ . Take $\Gamma x \in \tilde{B}/\Gamma$, $x \in \tilde{B}$.

G acts properly discontinuously on \tilde{B} , so there exists a neighborhood U of x such that $gU \cap U = \emptyset$, $g \in G \setminus \{\text{id}\}$.

Take $V = \Gamma U$ to be open neighborhood of Γx . Claim: $[g] \in H \setminus \{\text{id}\}$. $[g]V \cap V = \emptyset$. If not $\exists y \in U, \Gamma y \in V$ with $[g](\Gamma y) = \Gamma(gy) \in V \cap \Gamma U$. And so $gy = \gamma y'$ where $\gamma \in \Gamma$, $y' \in U$.

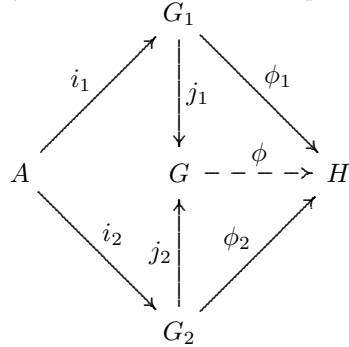
$(\gamma^{-1}g)y = y'$, $(\gamma^{-1}g)U \cap U \neq \emptyset$ so $\gamma^{-1}g = \text{id}$, so $g = \gamma \in \Gamma$, contradiction. \square

Computation of $\pi_1(X)$

Some algebra: The free group of k generators x_1, \dots, x_k will be denoted $F_k = \langle x_1, \dots, x_k \rangle = \mathbb{Z} * \dots * \mathbb{Z}$.

Given any finitely generated group G with generators g_1, \dots, g_k , then $\Phi : F_k \rightarrow G$ by $x_i \mapsto g_i$ is an epimorphism. $\ker \Phi$ is a normal subgroup of F_k , which is normally generated by γ_1, \dots . We say G is presented by $\langle x_1, \dots, x_k : \gamma_1, \dots \rangle$.

Definition 4.17 (Universal Extension). *If A, G_1, G_2 are groups, and $i_1 : A \rightarrow G_1$ and $i_2 : A \rightarrow G_2$ are two homomorphisms, then there exists a unique, up to isomorphism, G and homomorphisms $j_1 : G_1 \rightarrow G$, $j_2 : G_2 \rightarrow G$ such that \forall groups H and any homomorphisms $\phi_1 : G_1 \rightarrow H$, $\phi_2 : G_2 \rightarrow H$ with $\phi_1 \circ i_1 = \phi_2 \circ i_2$, there exists a unique homomorphism $\phi : G \rightarrow H$ such that $\phi_k = \phi \circ i_k$.*



It turns out that this is $G_1 * G_2 / \langle (i_1(a)(i_2(a))^{-1})_{a \in A} \rangle$.

Theorem 4.38 (Seifert, Van Kampen). *Let X be a topological space, $X = U_1 \cup U_2$, where $U_1, U_2, U_1 \cap U_2$ are open, path connected. Then for any group H and group homomorphism $\phi_k : \pi_1(U_k, x_0) \rightarrow H$ such that $\phi_1(i_{1*}) = \phi_2(i_{2*})$, there exists a unique homomorphism $\phi : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow H$.*

*Thus, $\pi_1(X) \simeq \pi_1(U_1) * \pi_1(U_2) / \langle (i_{1*}(a)(i_{2*}(a^{-1})))_{a \in \pi_1(U_1 \cap U_2)} \rangle$.*

Corollary 4.39. *Under the same assumptions:*

1. If $\pi_1(U_1 \cap U_2) = 1$, then $\pi_1(X) \simeq \pi_1(U_1) * \pi_1(U_2)$

2. If $\pi_1(U_2) = 1$, then $\pi_1(X) = \pi_1(U_1)/\langle \pi_1(U_1 \cap U_2) \rangle$.

3. If $\pi_1(U_1) = \pi_1(U_2) = 1$, then $\pi_1(X) = 1$.

We will prove this corollary without using Seifert-Van Kampen.

Proof. Part 3: Take a loop $a : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$, $a(0) = a(1) = x_0$. By Lebesgue Lemma, there is a partition $0 = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = 1$ of $[0, 1]$ such that $\forall i$, $a([t_i, t_{i+1}]) \subset U_1$ or U_2 . $a_i(s) = a((1-s)t_i + st_{i+1})$ be the path of a from $a(t_i)$ to $a(t_{i+1})$.

$a \simeq_p a_0 * \dots * a_{n-1}$. For each i , choose a path b_i from x_0 to $a(t_i)$ as follows: if $a(t_i) \in U_1 \cap U_2$, then $b_i \subset U_1 \cap U_2$ and if $a(t_i) \in U_k \setminus (U_1 \cap U_2)$, then $b_i \subset U_k$.

Let $c_i = b_i a_i b_{i+1}^{-1}$, this is a loop at x_0 . Then $a_0 \dots a_{n-1} \simeq_p (a_0 b_1)(b_1^{-1} a_1 b_2) \dots (b_{n-1}^{-1} a_{n-1}) = c_0 c_1 \dots c_{n-1}$.

Claim: c_i lies in U_1 or U_2 . The claim implies that $c_i \simeq 1$, and so we are done.

Say $a[t_i, t_{i+1}] \subset U_k$, $a(t_i) \in U_k$, $a(t_{i+1}) \in U_k$, and so $b_i \subset U_k$ and $b_{i+1} \subset U_k$. Thus, $c_i = b_i a_i b_{i+1}^{-1} \subset U_k$, and so we are done. \square

This proof shows that there is an epimorphism $\Phi : \pi_1(U_1) * \pi_1(U_2) / \langle (i_1)_*(a)(i_2)_*^{-1}(a) \rangle \rightarrow \pi_1(X)$. The difficulty is to show that the kernel is trivial.

Theorem 4.40. *If $n \geq 3$, M_1, M_2 are connected manifolds, then $\pi_1(M_1 \# M_2) \simeq \pi_1(M_1) * \pi_1(M_2)$ where $M_1 \# M_2 = (M_1 \setminus \overset{\circ}{D}_1^n) \cup_h (M_2 \setminus \overset{\circ}{D}_2^n)$ where D_i^n is a smooth n -ball in M_i and $h : \partial D_2^n \rightarrow \partial D_1^n$ is a diffeomorphism.*

Remark: The diffeomorphism type of $M_1 \# M_2$ is independent of the choices of D_1, D_2 and h .

Theorem 4.41 (Gurosh). *Subgroups of a free group are free.*

Proof. Every connected graph is homotopy equivalent to a wedge of $S^1 \wedge \dots \wedge S^1$ with countable many circles.

By S-vK, $\pi_1(S^1 \wedge \dots \wedge S^1)$ is a free group. Suppose that G is a subgroup of $F_n = \mathbb{Z} * \dots * \mathbb{Z} = \pi_1(S^1 \wedge \dots \wedge S^1, p)$. Let $p : E \rightarrow S^1 \wedge \dots \wedge S^1$ be the covering space with $p_*(\pi_1(E, q)) = G$. But E is a graph, and so $\pi_1(E, q)$ is a free group. \square

Proposition 4.42. *If X is a compact connected surface with $\partial X \neq \emptyset$, then $\pi_1(X)$ is a free group.*

Theorem 4.43. $\pi_1(\Sigma_g, X) \simeq \langle a_1, \dots, a_{2g} | a_1 a_2 \dots a_{2g} a_1^{-1} \dots a_{2g}^{-1} \rangle$.

Corollary 4.44. *If $g \geq 2$, then $\pi_1(\Sigma_g)$ is not abelian.*

e.g. The 3-Dimensional Lens Space $L(p, q)$ where $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ are relatively prime integers. Let $\mathbb{Z}_p = \langle \eta \rangle$ act on $S^3 = \{(z, w) \in \mathbb{C}^2 : |z|^2 + |w|^2 = 1\}$ $\eta(z, w) = (e^{2\pi i/q} z, e^{2\pi i q/p} w)$. \mathbb{Z}_p acts freely.

So, $L(p, q) = S^3 / (\mathbb{Z}_p)$, and so S^3 is the universal cover. Thus $\pi_1(L(p, q)) \simeq \mathbb{Z}_p$.

And so, we can construct 3-manifolds with fundamental group the free product of any finite number of cyclic groups.

The braid group, B_n , $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$X_n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{C}^n : x_i \neq x_j, i \neq j\}.$$

The symmetric group on n letters acts on X_n by permuting coordinates and is properly discontinuous.

We look at $Y_n = X_n/S_n = \{\{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \subset \mathbb{C} : x_i \neq x_j, i \neq j\}$.

$(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$. $p : X_n \rightarrow Y_n$ is a covering map, quotient by S_n , so S_n is the deck transformation group.

Take a base point $q = (1, \dots, n) \in X_n$ and $\bar{q} = \{1, \dots, n\} \in Y_n$.

Definition 4.18 (Braid Group). $B_n = \pi_1(Y_n, \bar{q})$, and the pure braid group $\pi_1(X_n, q)$.

P_n is a subset of B_n by p_* .

Recall from Homological Algebra:

Suppose C^*, D^*, E^* are cochain complexes and $0 \rightarrow C^* \xrightarrow{i} D^* \xrightarrow{j} E^* \rightarrow 0$ a short exact sequence of chain maps.

Theorem 4.45. *There is an associated natural long exact sequence $\dots \rightarrow H^n(C^*) \xrightarrow{i^*} H^n(D^*) \xrightarrow{j^*} H^n(E^*) \xrightarrow{\partial} H^{n+1}(C^*) \rightarrow \dots$*

de Rham Cohomology:

Let M be a smooth manifold, U_1, U_2 open in M such that $M = U_1 \cup U_2$.

$i_k : U_1 \cap U_2 \rightarrow U_j$ and $j_k : U_k \rightarrow M$ be inclusions. $\Omega^i(M)$ is the space of all i -forms on M .

Proposition 4.46. *The following is an exact sequence:*

$$0 \rightarrow \Omega^i(M) \xrightarrow{j_1^* - j_2^*} \Omega^i(U_1) \oplus \Omega^i(U_2) \xrightarrow{i_1^* + i_2^*} \Omega^i(U_1 \cap U_2) \rightarrow 0$$

Mayer-Vietoris for de Rham Cohomology:

If $M = U_1 \cup U_2$ where U_1, U_2 are open in a smooth manifold M , then \exists a natural long exact sequence as in theorem 23 and prop 6.

Corollary 4.47. $H_{dR}^i(S^n) = \mathbb{R}$ for $i = 0, n$, 0 else.