

Last time: We defined  $\int_M f \cdot \nu$  where  $M$  is a  $C^\infty$  manifold and  $\nu$  is an  $n$ -form (“volume form”). This is well-defined

**Definition .0.1**

Let  $\nu$  be an  $n$ -form on a  $C^\infty$ -manifold  $M$  and let  $f$  be a function on  $M$ . If  $\varphi_\alpha : U_\alpha \rightarrow V_\alpha$  is a chart we define

$$\int_{U_\alpha} f \cdot \nu := \int_{V_\alpha} (f \circ \varphi_\alpha)^{-1} \cdot (\varphi_\alpha^{-1})^*(\nu).$$

Then if  $\{U_\alpha\}_\alpha$  is a collection of charts, take a partition of unity  $\tau_\alpha$  to  $U_\alpha$ , and then set

$$\int_M f \cdot \nu = \sum_\alpha \int_{U_\alpha} \tau_\alpha f \cdot \nu.$$

**Exercise .0.1**

Show this is well-defined, and gives the sensible thing in general cases.

Difference to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ : no preferred volume form! On  $\mathbb{R}^n$  we can look at  $dx_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge dx_n$ .

Some other good cases:

- If  $M = G$  is a Lie group, take  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  a basis of  $\mathfrak{g} = \text{Lie } G$ . Then turn these into a basis of left invariant vector fields.

Let  $\eta_1, \dots, \eta_n$  be a dual basis at the identity. Make  $\eta_i$  left invariant so  $\eta_i(X_j) = 1$  if  $i = j$  and 0 if  $i \neq j$ . Then  $\eta_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \eta_n$  is left invariant.

- Can do the same thing for right invariant.

**Proposition .0.1**

If  $G$  is a Lie group then there exists a left invariant volume form  $\nu_L$  unique up to scalar multiplication.

Also there exists a unique (up to scalar) right invariant volume form  $\nu_R$ .

Question: When is  $\nu_L = \nu_R$ .

Answer: Not always,

$$G = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & \frac{1}{a} \end{pmatrix} \mid a \neq 0, b \right\}$$

The Lie algebra is

$$\mathfrak{g} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & -B \end{pmatrix} \mid A, B \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

But they are equal for

- Abelian groups
- nilpotent groups (e.g. heisenberg groups)
- $\text{SL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ .

**Definition .0.2**

If  $\nu_L = \nu_R$  we call this group unimodular.

Compact groups are always unimodular. You can measure how unimodular something is by writing  $\nu_R = \omega \cdot \nu_L$ . Then one can prove  $\omega(gh) = \omega(g)\omega(h)$  (check, Ralf thinks so). So measuring  $\ker \omega$  tells you how unimodular it is.

Also if there is a  $\Gamma \subseteq G$  discrete with  $G/\Gamma$  compact then  $G$  is unimodular.

### Proposition .0.2

If  $M$  is a Riemannian manifold which is oriented, then the Riemannian metric induces a volume form.

The last case is suppose  $M$  has a (special) volume form  $\nu$  and  $\Gamma$  acts on  $M$  properly discontinuously. Then  $M/\Gamma$  is a manifold.

### Lemma .0.3


If  $\nu$  a volume form on  $M$  is  $\Gamma$ -invariant, then  $\nu$  descends to  $M/\Gamma$ .

Furthermore, if  $\Gamma$  is finite and orientation-preserving then one can always build such a  $\Gamma$ -invariant volume form from an arbitrary volume form on  $M$ .

*Proof.* Use that  $\pi : M \rightarrow M/\Gamma$  is a submersion and a local diffeomorphism. Thus locally can pull back  $\nu$  to  $\bar{\nu}$  on  $M/\Gamma$ . Building it this way gives  $\nu = \pi^*(\bar{\nu})$ .

More explicitly. Let  $\bar{p}, \bar{U}$  in  $M/\Gamma$  with diffeomorphisms  $\gamma U \rightarrow \bar{U}$  for  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ .

Then  $\nu$  on  $U$  we have  $\nu = (\gamma^{-1})^* \nu$  on  $\gamma U$ . This commutes with the projection, and so  $\nu$  defined from pushing  $\nu$  on  $U$  down to  $\bar{U}$  is the same as that defined from pushing  $\nu$  on  $\gamma U$  down to  $\bar{U}$ .

This allows one to paste it together into a preferred volume form! For the  $\Gamma$  finite case, just average! 

### Example .0.2

Suppose  $M^{2n}$  has a nonvanishing 2-form (symplectic form)  $\alpha$  such that

$$\alpha \wedge \cdots \wedge \alpha$$

is nonvanishing, where we wedge  $n$  times.

More general integrals. Let  $C : \Delta^k \rightarrow M$  be a smooth map from a  $k$ -dimensional simplex (sweeping under the rug—what does it mean to be smooth on the boundary?)

Let  $\alpha$  be a  $k$ -form on  $M$ . Then  $C^*(\alpha)$  is a  $k$ -form on  $\Delta$ . Then

$$\int_{\Delta^k} C^*(\alpha) =: \int_C \alpha.$$

Note it depends on the map, which is why we write  $\int_C$  instead of  $\int_{C(\Delta^k)}$ . This is a generalization of a line integral.

### Example .0.3

When we're looking at the line integral, we're integrating vector fields over 1-simplices. The trick is

### Definition .0.3

We'll call a smooth map  $C : \Delta^k \rightarrow M$  a  $k$ -dimensional simplex in  $M$ .

These ideas are the brain-child of Poincaré, Elie Cartan, and de Rham. For now we'll leave them alone but we'll come back to them later.

## .1. Exterior Derivatives

We now want to take  $\alpha$  a  $k$ -form and associate to it  $d\alpha$ , a  $(k+1)$ -form on  $M$ .

### Example .1.1

For  $F \in C^\infty(M)$  (aka a 0-form), we can take  $dF_p(v) = DF_p \cdot v$  (the directional derivative). This is a 1-form!

We'll use the notation  $\Omega^k M$  for  $k$ -forms on  $M$ , and just  $\Omega^k$  if  $M$  is clear. We want

$$d : \Omega^k M \rightarrow \Omega^{k+1} M.$$

Recall that  $\Omega^k(M)$  is zero for  $k < 0, k > \dim M =: n$ . So we get a chain

$$0 \longrightarrow \Omega^0(M) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^1(M) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^2(M) \xrightarrow{d} \cdots \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^n(M) \xrightarrow{d} 0.$$

Here's what we want:

- (1)  $d$  is  $d$  (defined above) on  $\Omega^0$ .
- (2)  $d$  is a linear map over  $\mathbb{R}$  (not over  $C^\infty(M)$ !).
- (3)  $d \circ d = d^2 = 0$ .
- (4) It works well with wedge product

$$d(\alpha \wedge \beta) = d\alpha \wedge \beta + (-1)^k \alpha \wedge d\beta,$$

where  $\alpha \in \Omega^k(M)$ .

### Theorem .1.1

There exists a unique  $d$  satisfying Properties 1-4 above.

We'll prove this theorem in detail on Monday. Also Ralf Spatzier really likes the book Spivak, Calculus on Manifolds [Spi18]

Goal: Poincaré lemma. On  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , this will say that if  $\alpha$  has  $d\alpha = 0$  ( $\alpha$  is a “closed” form), then there exists a  $\beta$  so that  $\alpha = d\beta$ , which is called being an “exact form” (notice the converse is always true). We'll be able to say something a bit more general... this exact statement doesn't always hold.

### Definition .1.1

We can look at  $\text{Image}(d|_{\Omega^{k-1}}) \subseteq \ker(d|_{\Omega^k})$ . By definition we have

$$H_{\text{deRham}}^k M := \frac{\text{Image}(d|_{\Omega^{k-1}})}{\ker(d|_{\Omega^k})}.$$

This is called the de Rham cohomology.

Miraculous—this is finite dimensional over  $\mathbb{R}$ . We'll abbreviate it  $H^k$ , though this is usually reserved for singular homology (see 592, they agree on manifolds). Instructive examples to compute

### Example .1.2

$$H^1(\mathbb{R}), H^1(S^1).$$